



SKILLS TRANSFER IN MUNICIPALITIES IN SOUTH AFRICA

Prepared for the LGSETA

by the

**Department of Public and Development
Administration**



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CONTRIBUTORS

Mutuwafhethu John Mafunisa
Ronald Thifulufhelwi Ramabulana
Ntwa Godfrey Hlaele
Thanyani Professor Nekwakwani

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LIST OF ACRONYMS

APP	Annual Performance Plan
AusAid	Australian Aid
BBA	Back to Basic Approach
CoGTA	Cooperative Governance and Traditional Affairs
CMTP	Consolidated Municipal Transformation Programme
DBSA	Development Bank of Southern Africa
DFID	Department for International Development
FFC	Financial and Fiscal Commission
HR	Human Resources
HRDS	Human Resources Development Strategy
IDP	Integrated Development Planning
KMPA	Key Municipal Performance Areas
LGSETA	Local Government Sector Education and Training Authority
M&E	Monitoring and Evaluation
MDB	Municipal Demarcation Board
MFMP	Municipal Finance Management Programme
NSDS III	National Skills Development Strategy
NQF	National Qualification Framework
OECD	Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development
PDP	Personal Development Plan
PIMS	Planning and Implementation Management Support
PMG	Parliamentary Monitoring Group
SALGA	South African Local Government Association
SDA	Skills Development Act
SSP	Sectoral Skills Plan

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SAQA	South African Qualifications Authority
SETA	Sectoral Education and Training Authorities
VoIP	Voice over Internet Protocol
WSP	Workplace Skills Plan

1. EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

1.1 Background to the Project

The national, provincial and global phenomena of economic, social, technological and demographic changes confronting the Republic of South Africa's municipalities are slowing growth of the workforce and dramatically changing the way work is performed. These national, provincial and global trends are also contributing to the skills shortage threatening the South African municipalities.

Local government is an employment and economic driver that delivers key social, environmental and economic services to communities across the country. To be effective and efficient, municipalities require a skilled workforce, but they compete with other spheres of government and the private sector to attract and retain skilled personnel. Skilled human resources contribute to effective service delivery.

There have been a number of government initiatives and programmes to advance service delivery and institutional support. These include the former Planning and Implementation Management Support (PIMS) Centres, the ISRDP and URP nodal programmes, the IDP analysis and training weeks, the Bucket Eradication programme, Siyenza Manje, the Ilima project (Old Mutual), and the donor supported Consolidated Municipal Transformation Programme (CMTP). A Policy Review on Provincial and Local Government was also undertaken by the Department of Provincial and Local Government (now known as the Department of Cooperative Governance and Traditional Affairs). Numerous other smaller programmes and projects have also taken place, largely in the local sphere of government.

Whilst all of the support programmes have assisted in specific ways, it is still clear that a number of stubborn service delivery and governance problems have been identified in municipalities over a number of years. These remain consistently at the forefront of government's developmental challenges. These priority areas include:

- Huge service delivery and backlog challenges, e.g. housing, water and sanitation;

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- Poor communication and accountability relationships with communities;
- Challenges with the political-administrative interface;
- Corruption, mismanagement and fraud;
- Poor municipal financial management, e.g. negative audit opinions;
- Number of (violent) service delivery protests;
- Weak civil society formations;
- Intra - and inter-political party issues negatively affecting governance and delivery; and
- Insufficient municipal capacity due to lack of scarce skills.

From evidence to date, it is clear that much of local government is indeed in distress, and that this state of affairs has become deeply-rooted within our system of governance. Therefore, underpinning the analysis are some key questions, such as how deep-rooted is the state of distress in our local municipalities, what are the causes, and through what measures do we address these fault-lines in our governance arrangements?

Research shows that institutions should not consider the completion of formal training the end of the learning process. Training should be followed up with after action reviews, discussions, practice and feedback in order to promote skills transfer. Job aids are also a relatively simple way to increase the probability that trained skills will be applied to the job. The global economy and current technological advances require both private and public institutions to make constant adjustments in order to maintain a competitive advantage. One such change is the set of knowledge, skills and abilities that are now critical for success.

However, most employees do not inherently possess the qualities needed to meet these changing work demands. As a result, institutions invest million of rands in training interventions every year. Despite these efforts, many of them reportedly fail to develop the skills and abilities they target. Although employees might learn from their training experiences, trained competencies are generally not applied or transferred to the workplace. Training transfer refers to the application, generalization and maintenance of trained skills on the job. The apparent transfer problem has long been a paramount concern of institutions (both private and public) and researchers alike.

In response to the National Skills Development Strategy III of establishing a credible institutional regime for skills planning, the Local Government Sector Education and Training Authority conducts sectoral larger scale research

projects. The research projects are instrumental in informing the Sectoral Skills Plan that enables the SETA to produce a credible performance information documents, namely Annual Performance Plan and Strategic Plan.

One of the critical outputs of the research projects is the development of the sectoral qualifications and implementation of the skills development interventions as proposed in the research findings. It is significant to note that the local government research projects are underpinned by the national priorities of Government, Local Government SETA's strategic focus areas, Back to Basic Approach (BBA) as well as the Key Municipal Performance Areas (KMPA).

The Local Government SETA's research projects' findings are communicated with the sectoral stakeholders in order to keep them abreast of developments in the skills development fraternity. The transfer of the skills in the local government sector particularly in the municipalities has proven to be a challenge and this contribute to barriers to effective service delivery. Understandably, the problem of transferring skills cannot be seen as the only impediments frustrating service delivery in the municipalities, however there is a need to conduct a research that will inform the Local Government SETA on skills planning. The study on the transfer of skills in the municipalities should be helpful in charting a way forward in tackling challenges on skills transfer.

1.2 Terms of Reference for the Project

This study focused on skills transfer in local government with specific reference to South Africa. The terms of reference for the study are:

- To develop a concept document on skills transfer in the workplace focusing on capacity-building programmes, commissioned work and monitoring of on-going transfer of skills;
- To understand a link between lack of skills transfer and service delivery;
- To understand the nature of learning environment in the municipalities;
- To come up with an informed analysis on the factors that debilitate transfer of skills in the workplace; and
- To develop a strategy that will inform the Local Government SETA on skills transfer.

1.3 Project Methodology

The project also involved, in addition to desk research, travelling to the points of interest for data collection. The study was conducted in selected local municipalities in various provinces with a view of identifying challenges in skills transfer, best practices and also approaches being used in capacity building. This was done using qualitative research approach. Data was collected using questionnaires and interviews. Twenty eight municipal officials and two academics, who are experts in local government capacity building constitute focus groups for this study. This research project covered the inland provinces. Initially the plan was for the project to cover both the inland and coastal provinces.

The inland provinces identified and visited are Limpopo and Mpumalanga whereas the coastal province identified was Kwa-Zulu Natal. In Limpopo the Thulamela Municipality (Thohoyandou) was visited whereas the municipality visited in Mpumalanga was Steve Tshwete Local Municipality (Middleburg). The Free State municipalities identified and contacted were Maloti-A-Phofung and Tshwelopele municipalities. The two municipalities could not approve our request for interviews by the time of finalising this report. Polokwane Local Municipality in Limpopo province and Mbombela Municipality in Mpumalanga province also failed to approve our request for conducting research at their workplace by the time of finalising this report.

The eDumbe Municipality in KZN was identified and contacted but they failed to approve our request for interviews by the time of finalising the report. The sampling method applied is non-random, and so the findings cannot be generalised statistically beyond the sample. Owing to cost and time considerations, the study was limited to selected municipalities taken from selected provinces.

Qualitative researchers generally rely on four basic types of data sources: interviews, observations, documents and audio-visual materials (Creswell, 1998). Eager to capture, describe and appreciate the characteristics of leaders responsible for service delivery, and to find out how they address challenges and manage difficulties they experience in transferring skills, we have employed some of these methods as well as theoretical concepts derived from the literature and municipal documents.

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The intention of the study was to provide guidance and evidence to promote an informed discussion on future capacity and competency requirements in local government and how these might be addressed. These efforts were done with a view of enhancing service delivery in municipalities in South Africa.

Connecting with the employee about the training experience after training is as important as connecting with employees before they attend training. This is because the learning experience is fresh in the employee's mind and the motivation and inspiration acquired during training still exists immediately after the employee returns. To ensure that the employee applies what was learned, it is important to invite the employee to talk about and share the learning experience with the manager and even the larger team.

In similar fashion as the pre-course meeting, the manager should review with the employee the content of the training and the overall learning experience. The post-course debriefing is an ideal juncture at which to identify, plan and agree on next steps including how the learning experience will be implemented. Suggestions of sample items to discuss with the employee upon returning from training include:

- What was the employee's impression of the course? Did this training intervention meet the needs identified during the pre-course discussion?
- Does the employee believe he/she has met his/her objectives by taking the course?
- How is the employee going to apply what he/she learned?
- What barriers to implementing learning exist? How can the supervisor or manager help the employee remove these barriers?
- On what date will the employee and manager meet again to review whether training is being implemented as planned?

Supervisors or managers are in a key position to set the stage for training success. Their involvement or lack thereof before, during, and after training sends a strong message about the municipality's commitment to employee development and its expectations about seeing the results of training. It is therefore important that managers remain visible in their support for employee training, through ongoing communications and connection with the employee.

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This report focused on aspects such as skills shortage challenges facing local government in South Africa, how workplace support learning transfer, factors influencing selection of trainees, training techniques to assist transfer skills, characteristics that influence skills transfer, types of skills transfer, training transfer and behaviour change strategies, international best practices in skills transfer, the problem of training transfer and the benefits and disadvantages of skills transfer.

Types of skills transfer identified and discussed include positive transfer, negative transfer, zero transfer, proactive transfer, retroactive transfer and bilateral transfer. Characteristics that influence skills transfer to the workplace which are identified and explained are self-efficacy, belief in usefulness, openness to experience, career link, commitment to the institution, knowing how to learn, attitude, motivation, computer confidence, cognitive ability and age. It was argued that initial learning is necessary for transfer, and a considerable amount is known about the kinds of learning experiences that support transfer. Knowledge that is overly contextualized can reduce transfer; abstract representations of knowledge can help promote transfer.

Transfer is best viewed as an active, dynamic process rather than a passive end-product of a particular set of learning experiences. All new learning involves transfer based on previous learning, and this fact has important implications for the design of instruction that helps students and trainees learn.

1.4 Recommendations

In closing, following are some final recommendations for supervisors or managers in communicating the value and importance of training in all employee discussions.

1. When choosing training courses, ensure the training is specific to the skills the employee needs to develop. For example, it is a waste of time if the manager sends an employee to a general communications course, when in fact the employee needs training on dealing with customer complaints. Make sure training is customized to meet the immediate learning need
2. Provide information about why the new skills or information the employee will acquire in the training is essential. This ensures that the employee understands the link between the training and his/her job.

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Take this one step further by describing how the learned skills contribute to the larger municipal's objectives.

3. Provide training opportunities that are immediately applicable on the job. Identify or set up work situations which provide time to practice the learned skill. Make sure these situations immediately follow the training and are frequent, to help the employee retain the newly acquired skills.
4. Employees should be recognized for successfully completing and subsequently applying learning on the job. Informal recognition such as mentioning the accomplishment in a team meeting, or more formal recognition such as making mention of the completed training session in the municipal newsletter all create an attitude of motivation.
5. In general, trainees who perceive training as useful and valuable are far more likely to apply new competencies to the workplace than those who do not. Trainees who are not assured of the importance of training will lack the motivation to learn and apply targeted skills. Municipalities would be well advised to devote a portion of their training programmes to communicating the necessity and utility of their training efforts.
6. The better trainees understand the underlying principles, concepts, and assumptions of the skills and behaviours they are learning, the more successful the far transfer. It is the duty of the supervisors and trainers to ensure that learners understand the underlying principles and assumptions of the skills and behaviours they are learning.
7. The more trainees practice in different contexts and use novelty in their practice exercises, the more successful the far transfer. It is therefore essential to ensure that learners practice what they learned in different context to ensure effective skills transfer.
8. The more encouragement trainees receive during training to discuss and apply the training in situations of their own choosing, the more successful the far transfer. The facilitator must encourage learners to participate in the learning process and thereafter apply what they learnt in the job setting.
9. The more encouragement trainees receive after training to apply the training to situations other than those for which they were trained, the

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more successful the far transfer. Supervisors must create an environment conducive for skills transfer for their junior officials.

10. Financial constraints were raised by several respondents as one of the barriers affecting the learning process in the workplace. It must therefore be argued that municipalities must set aside enough budget to cover the training costs for, at least, scarce and critical skills to ensure effective service delivery.

Job description must also be drafted for all employees. Relevant municipal employees must be involved in the drafting of those job descriptions as they are involved with the activities which are to be put in the job descriptions. These job descriptions must be adapted periodically for them to meet the demands of the ever-changing positions.

11. It was established that there is no planned or systematic way for municipalities to conduct continuous review of quality learning to keep it aligned with agreed objectives and required output. It can therefore be recommended that there must be continuous review of learning quality within municipalities as haphazard review of training quality cannot instil a culture of learning in municipalities.

12. It was established that management skills are the skills which are critical in municipalities. It can therefore be argued that it is necessary for senior municipal officials to be capacitated on management principles for them to can manage their juniors and resources effectively, economically and efficiently. Other resources to be managed by municipal officials include financial resources, time and information.

The management training provided to senior municipal officials must include: planning, organising, leading and controlling. Leadership training must include the attributes of a leader, leadership styles and theories of motivation. It is the duty of the municipality to also ensure that the planning skills, organizational skills, communication skills and coordination skills learned by the senior municipal officials in the learning or training environment must also be transferred and applied back to the learning environment.

2. BACKGROUND

It is believed that today's competitive success is achieved through people. It follows, then, that, the skills and performance of people are critical for the success of any municipality. Many organisations spend much money in training, believing that training will improve their employee's performance, and hence the organisation's productivity.

According to McLean (2001: 195), there is strong consensus that acquisition of skills, knowledge, abilities, behaviour and attitudes through training is of little value if the new characteristics are not generalised to the job setting and are not maintained over. In other words, training is useless if it cannot be translated into performance. Training transfer enables municipalities to respond better to the social, economic and demographic challenges faced with them.

The national, provincial and global phenomena of economic, social, technological and demographic changes confronting the Republic of South Africa's municipalities are slowing growth of the workforce and dramatically changing the way work is performed. These national, provincial and global trends are also contributing to the skills shortage threatening the South African municipalities.

Local government is an employment and economic driver that delivers key social, environmental and economic services to communities across the country. To be effective and efficient, municipalities require a skilled workforce, but they compete with other spheres of government and the private sector to attract and retain skilled personnel. Skilled human resources contribute to effective service delivery.

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However, most employees do not inherently possess the qualities needed to meet these changing work demands. As a result, institutions invest million of rands in training interventions every year. Despite these efforts, many of them reportedly fail to develop the skills and abilities they target. Although employees might learn from their training experiences, trained competencies are generally not applied or transferred to the workplace. Training transfer refers to the application, generalization and maintenance of trained skills on the job. The apparent transfer problem has long been a paramount concern of institutions (both private and public) and researchers alike.

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One of the critical outputs of the research projects is the development of the sectoral qualifications and implementation of the skills development interventions as proposed in the research findings. It is significant to note that the local government research projects are underpinned by the national priorities of Government, Local Government SETA's strategic focus areas, Back to Basic Approach (BBA) as well as the Key Municipal Performance Areas (KMPA).

The Local Government SETA's research projects' findings are communicated with the sectoral stakeholders in order to keep them abreast of developments in the skills development fraternity. The transfer of the skills in the local government sector particularly in the municipalities has proven to be a challenge and this contribute to barriers to effective service delivery.

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- To come up with an informed analysis on the factors that debilitate transfer of skills in the workplace; and
- To develop a strategy that will inform the Local Government SETA on skills transfer.

4. APPROACH AND METHODOLOGY

The approach and methodology of this project are provided in the paragraphs that follow.

4.1 Desk Research

The research started with the review of relevant literature on the transfer of skills in the workplace with specific reference to municipalities in South Africa. We conducted an extensive search for primary empirical studies reporting on a correlation between training transfer and the workplace. We excluded studies that looked at only at learning outcomes (e.g. declarative or procedural knowledge). We limited the search results to articles that were published in English.

Studies included in our literature review were identified by a variety of methods. First, we conducted a search of the databases using the key words training transfer, learning transfer, training transfer, transfer of training. In addition to these key words we conducted an expanded search using additional key words such as theories of training transfer, barriers to effective skills transfer and benefits and disadvantages of skills transfer from several key academic journals to obtain as many relevant academic articles as possible. Second, we searched for Masters and PhD dissertations on skills transfer. Third, we contacted prominent scholars and practitioners in the field to request for their insight.

The review of the above mentioned documents assisted in determining how far we have come in terms of addressing the shortage of skills in municipalities and in terms of skills transfer to the workplace in the South African municipalities. The literature review also assisted in providing the baseline information for skills transfer in the workplace with specific reference to South African municipalities.

4.2 Data Collection through Consultative Meetings

The Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996 provides for three categories of municipalities. There are 278 municipalities in South Africa, comprising eight metropolitan, 44 district and 226 local municipalities. They are focused on growing local economies and providing infrastructure and service. As provided by the Constitution, 1996 the Local Government: Municipal Structures Act, 1998 (Act 117 of 1998) contains criteria for determining when an area must have a category-A municipality (metropolitan municipalities) and when municipalities fall into categories B (local municipalities) or C (district municipalities).

The Act also determines that category-A municipalities can only be established in metropolitan areas. Metropolitan councils have single metropolitan budgets, common property ratings and service-tariff systems, and single employer bodies. Metropolitan municipalities are: Buffalo City (East London), City of Cape Town, Ekurhuleni Metropolitan Municipality (East Rand), City of eThekweni (Durban), City of Johannesburg, Mangaung Municipality (Bloemfontein), Nelson Mandela Metropolitan Municipality (Port Elizabeth) and City of Tshwane (Pretoria).

The project also involved, in addition to desk research, travelling to the points of interest for data collection. The study was conducted in selected local municipalities in various provinces with a view of identifying challenges in skills transfer, best practices and also approaches being used in capacity building. This was done using qualitative research approach. Data was collected using questionnaires and interviews. Twenty eight municipal officials and two academics, who are experts in local government capacity building constitute focus groups for this study. This research project covered the inland provinces. Initially the plan was for the project to cover both the inland and coastal provinces.

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Qualitative researchers generally rely on four basic types of data sources: interviews, observations, documents and audio-visual materials (see Creswell, 1998). Eager to capture, describe and appreciate the characteristics of leaders responsible for service delivery, and to find out how they address challenges and manage difficulties they experience in transferring skills, we have employed some of these methods as well as theoretical concepts derived from the literature and municipal documents.

The intention of the study was to provide guidance and evidence to promote an informed discussion on future capacity and competency requirements in local government and how these might be addressed. These efforts were done with a view of enhancing service delivery in municipalities in South Africa.

5. DEFINING SKILLS TRANSFER

According to Green (2011: 4), "Skill" is widely regarded as a focus for analytical research and as a core object for policy interventions in the modern global high-technology era. A substantive body of evidence shows that different skill levels have large economic effects for individuals, employers, regions and whole national economies. Yet there is no consensus among social scientists about the meaning of the concept of skill. When social scientists such as economists, sociologists and psychologists discuss skill they often appear to be talking about different things. When translated, scholars in different languages have still another take on the matter.

Dialogue and discussion between disciplines and cultures is rare, so similarities and differences are not made transparent or resolved. Disciplinary segmentation permits conceptual and semantic differences to persist; and outsiders to academic discourse hear different approaches, depending on whom they are listening to. Unlike constructs in the natural sciences, skill is one of those social science words in common parlance with many meanings, numerous synonyms such as “ability”, “competence”, “aptitude” and “talent”, and varied imprecise translations in other languages.

Mafunisa (1998: 176) defines competence partly as the capacity for hard work (diligence) and perseverance but partly as talent, skill or ability. Diligence and perseverance are general value orientations which structure behavior in a variety of social roles and environments. The ways to build competence include training and skills development.

The concept of skill that is proposed by Green (2011) is intended to be at once scientific, oriented towards human, social and economic progress, and relevant for a discussion of social and economic action in 21st century settings. In other words, the author aims to situate skill within the tradition of political economy. Thus, skill is a personal quality with three key features:

- Productive: using skill is productive of value
- Expandable: skills are enhanced by training and development, and
- Social: skills are socially determined.

Green (2011) further argue that other definitions of the concept skills could be applied, but the above delineation has boundaries which make the concept functional for locating skill's role in economic and social systems, and which afford it an encompassing role across the social sciences. Though broad and covering most common usages of the term, not all qualities are included.

The focus on productive activity implies attention to qualities relevant for economic progress, but excludes other qualities such as might be involved in leisure pursuits. Another advantage is that the concept is action-centred, premised on how individuals and social agents can change these qualities. Attributes that cannot by their nature be enhanced are not considered as skills.

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According to Green (2011: 34), transfer has typically been defined as the extent to which knowledge and skills acquired in a training setting are generalized and maintained over a period of time in the job setting. Generalisations require trainees to exhibit trained behaviours in response to different settings, people and situations from those trained.

Maintenance issues focus on the changes that occur in the form or level of knowledge, skills or behavior exhibited in the transfer setting as a function of time elapsed from the completion of the training programme. From the foregoing, it can be deduced that skills transfer refers to the generalisations and maintenance of knowledge, skills, and behaviours-obtained and sometimes enhanced by training and development- over a period of time in the job setting.

Skills transfer enables employees to apply the skills learned in training on the job. Skills transfer is performing particular activities before, during, and after a training session that enable employees to more effectively and quickly apply the skills learned in training back on the job. Skills transfer is the goal when employees are involved in any internal or external training activity, session, seminar, or on-the-job training. The goal of training is to enhance the skills, knowledge, and the thinking and learning ability of employees. But, even more important, is the capability to apply the new information, skills, or knowledge in the employee's job.

The employee learns the new information, applies the information on the job, and then, shares the new information by transferring the knowledge (training) to other employees. Innovative solutions need to be found to address the significant infrastructure backlogs facing municipalities as well as their capacity and skills deficits. Innovation is defined as the development and implementation of new processes or procedures that are subsequently different from existing ones; and that implies change through activity.

Innovation is the process of developing and executing new ideas (Mafunisa, 1998: 165). Outsourcing may, in appropriate circumstances, offer such solutions by the introduction of external expertise, financial resources and skills. The external expertise must in the long run be transferred to municipal employees to ensure that the shortage of skills is reduced.

Skills transfer is the dependency of human conduct, learning, or performance on prior experience. The notion was originally introduced as transfer of

practice by Edward Thorndike and Robert S. Woodworth. They explored how individuals would transfer learning in one context to another, similar context – or how "improvement in one mental function" could influence a related one. Their theory implied that transfer of learning depends on how similar the learning task and transfer tasks are, or where "identical elements are concerned in the influencing and influenced function", now known as the identical element theory.

Transfer of learning is usually described as the process and the effective extent to which past experiences (also referred to as the transfer source) affect learning and performance in a new situation (the transfer target). However, there remains controversy as to how transfer of learning should be conceptualized and explained, what its prevalence is, what its relation is to learning in general, and whether it exists at all.

Skills transfer can also be defined as the ability of a learner to successfully apply the behaviour, knowledge, and skills acquired in a learning event to the job, with a resulting improvement in job performance. The purpose of the skills plan is ensuring that positive skills and influence can be transferred from one position to another and a plan needs to be put in place in order to track the layout of how this would be done. That is why municipalities supports training, so that employees will be capacitated and be able to apply the theoretical knowledge obtained from the training to their daily duties.

For the purpose of this research the three terms skills transfer, learning transfer and training transfer will be used interchangeably.

6. SKILLS SHORTAGE CHALLENGES FACING MUNICIPALITIES IN SOUTH AFRICA

In the process of skills development and transfer it is important to note that the challenge of skills shortage will always be intrinsically linked with the development and transfer of skills process and thus it should be simultaneously addressed. 'Skills shortages' is an amorphous concept that encapsulates many specific components, but at the heart of the matter is the idea that the demand for specific skills exceeds supply.

In the discourse of labour economics, labour supply refers to the individuals who partake in the labour market with given endowments of human capital, whereas labour demand refers to the private and public entities that employ individuals. Intermediating between these is the set of institutional arrangements that help form and shape the nexus between labour demand

and supply, including educational institutions in civil society, training providers in both the private and the public sector.

The commencement of South Africa's skills policy regime is intricately linked to our history as an Apartheid state, the legacy this presented in the labour market, and the efforts post -1994 to ameliorate the iniquities of "Bantu" education. At the same time, South Africa's highly isolationist geo-political and economic policies were substantively transformed in the democratic era, forcing companies to become more competitive and export oriented. This often had the effect of augmenting capital-intensive technological change, and otherwise inducing a thorough reorganisation of the forms and methods of production, with its resultant skills implications.

Inevitably, this process was not without its losers, but several years in the new dispensation, the economy has witnessed the longest sustained upswing in the business cycle for many decades. The ability to continue this upswing is dependent on many things, an important component of which is the increasing efficacy of the skills development regime. With this as our context, it is important to define skills shortages and the components thereof.

It can be noted that there is traditionally a difference in the way that economists think of skills shortages and the manner in which the state has come to define it. For economists, the most important aspect of any discussion of skills is its relationship to productivity in the company. However, Government has defined skills shortages without taking this relationship into account. Shortages are defined in both absolute and relative terms, but neither of these concepts is related to productivity.

This results in disputes between government departments (e.g. Department of Labour and Department of Home Affairs) over the precise numbers of occupational skills shortages. Having noted this, in this document we proceed to discuss the occupational skills concept of skills shortages predominantly, since the domestic literature is almost exclusively focussed (implicitly) on this interpretation of the concept.

Given this definition of skills shortages, it is important to clarify the components of the problem as presented in the literature. Firstly, skills are understood to refer to both qualifications and experience. Scarce skills, in the parlance of the Department of Labour and the Sectoral Education and Training Authorities (SETA), is defined to refer to occupations in which there is "a scarcity of qualified and experienced people, currently or anticipated in the future, either because such skilled people are not available, or because they are available but do not meet employment criteria" (FoodBev SETA, 2005, 42).

This scarcity can arise either due to an absolute scarcity of these skills or a relative scarcity. Absolute scarcity refers to suitably skilled people that are not

available, for example in a new or emerging occupation (e.g. biotechnology, information technology), a lack of sufficient numbers of workers with specific skills, or insufficient numbers to satisfy replacement demand (FoodBev SETA, 2005: 42). Relative scarcity, on the other hand, refers to a situation where suitably skilled people exist, but do not meet other employment criteria, for example they live in different geographical areas, or do not satisfy Broad Black Economic Empowerment criteria.

Critical skills refer to specific skills within an occupation. In the South African context there are two groups of critical skills: (1) generic skills, including problem solving and learning to learn; language, literacy or numeracy skills; and working in teams for example; (2) particular occupational skills required for performance within that occupation (FoodBev SETA, 2005: 43). It is the latter form that accounts for the problems that emerge when a company experiences technological change or reorganises production methods (ibid, 43). A problem is defined as a barrier to the attainment of municipal objectives and is therefore an obstacle that needs to be overcome by decision-makers (Mafunisa, 1998: 167).

These definitions underpin the understanding of skills shortages and must be kept in mind when diagnosing the nature of skills shortages. However, skills shortages are not only about scarce and critical skills, which imply some form of advanced qualification in a 'high skills' environment. Indeed, one of the central tenets of Andre Kraak's work (2004, 2005), has been that the emphasis on 'high skills' is not sufficient in a developing economy such as South Africa.

The author notes that emphasising low skilled strategies should be viewed in a positive light, particularly with respect to addressing unemployment and stimulating labour-intensive forms of production (Kraak, 2004: 212). Furthermore, exclusive emphasis on the 'high skills' strategy ignores the tough conditions and constraints that developing economies face in their attempts to move up the value chain. Consequently, we should think of "skills shortages" as comprising everything from the most advanced qualifications to the most elementary, and "skills development" as something in Africa.

Skills development was facilitated by at least four important policy documents: the Skills Development Act, 1998, the Skills Development Levies Act, 1999, the National Skills Development Strategy, 2001 and the Human Resources Development Strategy, 2001. The analysis then turns to the question of labour demand, specifically to the issue of identifying the nature of skills shortages, including scarce and critical skills, but also to some of the other initiatives such as learner-ships that have become crucial to the effectiveness of the skills development regime.

The South African government has budgeted significant amounts of money for capacity building in South Africa. Yet very little research exists on whether such budgets and expenditure have translated into increased capacity and

performance, specifically at the local government level. The lack of a formal evaluation component in governmental capacity-building initiatives makes assessing their level of success difficult. Government departments have different and ad hoc approaches to capacity building, which exacerbates the local government capacity challenge. The lack of a common definition of capacity building, its outcomes and its impact has led to an uncoordinated, directionless approach to capacity building in local government.

This is illustrated by some departments focusing almost exclusively on the formal approach to capacity building, emphasising accredited training aligned to unit standards, which has had an impact on the type of capacity building favoured by local government. In this context, as earlier stated, accredited training refers to a learning programme that has been certified by the South African Qualifications Authority (SAQA) against the National Qualification Framework (NQF) registered unit standards or qualifications (SAQA, 2001).

6.1 Support offered to Municipalities

Other initiatives have focused on providing technical advisory support in local government over a specific period of time. This has involved the deployment of technical advisors with particular technical skill sets in municipalities, as mentors or as facilitators of internship programmes. The apparent lack of capacity within local government has led to a number of interventions by a range of stakeholders. However, these interventions have treated only the symptoms and not the real cause of this shortcoming (FFC, 2009), while all manner of performance failures are often disguised under the label 'lack of capacity'.

Therefore, researching and evaluating the ability of capacity-building initiatives to achieve results is essential to provide input into governmental policy and decision-making processes and to ensure that interventions are relevant and efficient. For this research, an evaluation is a process of focusing on the relevant questions, collecting the appropriate data and information, and then analysing and interpreting the information. This study will not only assist the LGSETA to fulfil its constitutional mandate, but also provide other capacity-building stakeholders with invaluable insight into how to address the skills and capacity gaps in local government.

Furthermore, with the sustained emphasis on enhancing local government's capacity, it is important to determine the amount of funds that has been dedicated to local government and its capacity-building efforts and whether it has contributed to municipal performance. Section 154(1) of the Constitution, 1996 clearly requires both national and provincial government to support efforts that strengthen municipal performance (South Africa, 1996). The State of Local Government Report (CoGTA, 2009) demonstrates the

failure of national and provincial government in this regard. The report finds that in municipalities where provincial government had to formally intervene in terms of Section 139 of the Constitution, 1996 few post-intervention measures for improvement were institutionalised, which resulted in continued performance challenges.

The stark differences between South Africa's 278 municipalities necessitate different approaches to capacity building, to reflect these varied capacities and contexts. For example, strengthening administrative and financial capacity might require changes to current organisational forms, such as reassigning particular functions and scarce skills to district municipalities (The Presidency, 2010). This would entail municipalities adopting organisational structures representative of the particular responsibilities and capacities of the municipality itself, rather than adopting a generic form, which is defining capacity. The concept of capacity is described by Morgan (2006) thus: "We see the concept and practice of capacity development as a part, but only a part, of the development puzzle".

The concept of capacity building cannot be seen as the 'missing link' in development or something that provides an overarching framework for all other interventions. Rather it contributes to and borrows from other ways of thinking such as governance, institutional development or organisational development. Indeed, it must borrow liberally from these other ways of thinking in order to generate real insights.

Without the experience of public administration and management, for example, the concept of capacity can tell us little about the structure of and behaviour of public institutions. Without political economy, capacity analyses have little to offer in terms of the effects of political power on organisational adaption. Without institutional economics, capacity cannot tell us much about the rules of the game that shape the effectiveness of many capacity development interventions.

Without systems thinking and ideas such as 'emergence', capacity analyses are limited in explaining the dynamics of capacity development. To understand the capacity challenges in local government, it is essential to develop a clear definition of capacity.

6.2 Capacity: A Multi-dimensional Aspect

The National Capacity Building Framework for Local Government (CoGTA, 2008) defines capacity as "the potential for something to happen". The framework furthermore distinguishes three types of capacity - individual, institutional and environmental. The difficulty in defining capacity is not just evident in the South African public sector, but also among a myriad of international organisations. The term 'capacity building' was introduced at

least partially to improve on the practice of providing technical assistance. Public sector capacity is a multi-dimensional issue, consisting of human capacity, organisational capacity and institutional capacity (World Bank, 2005).

Individual capacity is the “potential and competency, or lack thereof, found within a person, normally reflected through his/her specific technical and generic skills, knowledge, attitudes and behaviour, accumulated through forms of education, training, experience, networks and values” (CoGTA, 2011). In the local government context, this means appointing appropriate individuals to the post in which their specific capacity can be used to the maximum advantage of the community served.

Individual capacity is built through training, mentoring and establishing learning networks. In 2009, the CoGTA reported that local government had an overall vacancy rate of 12% among senior management. In one example, a municipality in Limpopo had all senior management (also known as Section 57) posts vacant, except for the chief financial officer and the director of community service (CoGTA, 2009).

The Limpopo example highlights the difficulties that rural and poorer municipalities have in attracting and retaining scarce skills, which has a severe impact on service delivery. However, the manner in which capacity building is defined is a contentious issue. This is because capacity constraints or capacity challenges or a ‘lack of capacity’ are used continuously to excuse serious underlying pathologies, such as a lack of accountability, the practice of cadre deployment and the flouting of credible recruitment and selection processes.

Institutional capacity can be defined as “the potential or competency, or lack thereof, found within organisations. It includes human resource (collective individual capacities), strategic leadership, organisational purpose, orientation, institutional memory, internal confidence, partnerships, inter-governmental relations, powers and functions, resources and support systems, infrastructure and financial abilities, structures, processes, culture and by-laws” (CoGTA, 2011). Intergovernmental relations deals with the important interactions occurring among governmental institutions in all spheres. The distinctive features of intergovernmental relations suggest the increased complexity and interdependency of political systems (NSG and MJ Mafunisa Consulting, 2017).

The municipal institutional capacity needs to “encompass a broad range of issues, such as policies and procedures, knowledge management and institutional memory, competency profiles of staff, background and experience and organisational ethics” (National Treasury, 2011). Municipalities should ensure that institutional capacity, which includes operational capacity, is maximised for the benefit of service delivery.

Environmental capacity is found outside municipalities' formal structures, in areas that are beyond the control of the municipality. Examples include socio-economic and demographic composition; the political, legislative and social capital within communities; the ecological, geographic and non-municipal infrastructure; and the natural, mineral and environmental resources available. Environmental capacity can be enhanced by interventions that might improve the intergovernmental fiscal system and operating environment of a municipality, and changing national policies and legislation that affect the municipality (CoGTA, 2009).

6.3 Strategies to Address Municipal Performance Failures

In 2009 the National Treasury's discussion document Strategy to Address Municipal Performance Failures captured the issues underlying municipal performance failures and initiated a discussion on how to address the performance failures. The strategy builds on the National Capacity Building Framework for Local Government (CoGTA, 2011) and suggests a structured approach to defining and addressing the challenges experienced by under-performing municipalities. The strategy defines well-performing municipalities, as those municipalities that perform their functions (as defined in the Constitution, 1996), achieve their desired outcomes and where both political leadership and organisational capacity support sustainable performance levels.

The lack of success with previous capacity-building initiatives can be mainly attributed to (National Treasury, 2011):

- Uncertainty surrounding the roles and responsibilities of municipalities (changing powers and functions),
- The assumption that a lack of capacity is the root cause of all municipal performance failures,
- A lack of clear articulation of national, provincial and other role-players' roles and responsibilities in local government,
- A lack of capacity in provinces and district municipalities to support local municipalities,
- A lack of performance incentives for municipalities to address performance failures,
- Perverse incentives inherent in the hands-on support approach,
- A lack of prioritisation of municipal needs,
- A lack of performance monitoring, and
- The absence of a mechanism to manage the transition between support and intervention.

Some of the lessons that should inform future local government capacity-building initiatives are (National Treasury, 2011):

- Identifying and addressing the true root causes of local government performance failures,
- Ensuring a sustainable, long-term, dynamic process for performance improvement,
- Incentivising good performance,
- Getting the basics right,
- Sequencing initiatives correctly,
- Properly designing, developing, managing, implementing and evaluating capacity initiatives, and
- Allowing for performance failure in extreme instances.

6.4 Narrowing and Broadening the Approach to Capacity

The approach to capacity needs to be both broad and narrow (Morgan, 2006, p 18). Narrowing the concept of capacity is essential for developing a more grounded and operational way of assessing and managing capacity issues. However, the concept of capacity also needs to be broadened to encapsulate some of the inherent complexities. This would require any capacity-building programme to be broad-encompassing all three dimensions of capacity. However, the programme's implementation would have to be sufficiently flexible and broken down into specific, narrow and measurable interventions. At a macro level, incentives should therefore be created to identify and acquire appropriate capacity and to foster behaviour change.

Monitoring of training impacts should include not only the immediate benefits to the individual, but also the effects on organisational capacity (OECD, 2006). Existing systems and processes may have to be optimised in parallel to individual training, and the proper sequencing of initiatives would be critical. This is required in order to evaluate outcomes, understand impact, and determine accountability; and has implications for capacity-development design and reporting (Otoo et al., 2009).

An example of a lack of integration of capacity-building efforts may be found in the health sector in Mali, where much effort was put into fixing weaknesses in organisational capacity, when the main problem was in fact poor incentives for staff (Thomas, 2006).

The skills challenges at municipal level are by no means new. In its submission to the Policy Review Process on Provincial and Local Government, SALGA identified a number of challenges. These included the under-investment in people, particularly where technical, management and leadership skills are

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required, and assumptions about short cuts to acquiring specialist skills rather than obtaining the required education and work experience (CoGTA, 2009).

Municipalities do not appear to have the required skills base for optimal operational results. Between 2006 and 2009, municipal employment in the financial administration and technical sectors declined because of, among other reasons, skills shortages (National Treasury, 2011). The high level of staff mobility has also led to dependency on the services of consultants. The real need is to stabilise the senior management teams of municipalities in order to improve service delivery outcomes.

The 2011 Development Report suggests that the appointments of senior personnel should be subject to relevant and rigorous tests in both key competencies and management expertise (Development Bank of Southern Africa, 2011). The need for appropriate technical skills to be in place in order to improve municipal capacity was the motivation behind the Municipal Regulations on Minimum Competency Levels, which was introduced on 1 July 2007 (National Treasury, 2007).

Also introduced was the Municipal Finance Management Programme (MFMP), which is a training programme consisting of unit standards at NQF level 5 and 6 certificates in municipal finance management. Service providers are required to apply for accreditation with the Local Government Sector Education and Training Authority (LGSETA) to provide the training. However, many private sector service providers have become disillusioned with the overly rigid, prescriptive and bureaucratic processes for applying for accreditation and implementing the programme.

The training materials are also generic in nature and do not address some of the very real financial management challenges facing municipalities. Even though the Municipal Regulations prescribe general competency levels required of select officials and senior managers, municipalities tend to ignore them (National Treasury, 2011). When municipalities have had the opportunity to appoint new staff, specifically to Budget and Treasury Offices, they have appointed people with inappropriate qualifications and experience. Therefore, incumbents with inappropriate experience and qualifications are still being appointed for positions (FFC, 2011).

One significant problem with the implementation process has also been in the 'train all' approach adopted by municipalities, which fails to consider officials' current qualifications and work-related experience, even though this information is available in the municipal human resource (HR) system (FFC, 2012).

7. THEORIES OF TRAINING TRANSFER AND THEIR IMPACT ON TRANSFER MOTIVATION

Motivation to transfer was hypothesized in Holton's (1996) model to connect learning with individual performance change. Motivation to transfer can be described as trainees' desire to use the knowledge and skills mastered in the training program on the job (Noe & Schmitt, 1986). Behavioural change will likely occur for trainees who learn the material presented in training and desire to apply that new knowledge or skills to work activities. To support the degree of transfer of training desired, it is important to understand why individuals choose to apply their knowledge, skills, and attitudes in their workplace.

7.1 Theories of Training Transfer

Several theories of human behaviour exist to assist us understand and predict behaviours that contribute to performance at work, as well as clarify the motivation to transfer factor in Holton's model. The theories of training transfer are identified and explained in the paragraphs that follow.

7.1.1 Expectancy theory

Vroom's original presentation of expectancy theory placed it in the mainstream of contemporary motivation theory (Moorhead & Griffin, 1992). Vroom (1964) defined expectancy as "a momentary belief concerning the likelihood that a particular act will precede a particular outcome." His formulation suggested that job performance (P) is the result of the interaction of two components, force (F) and ability (A), with ability representing the potential for performing some task. The force to perform an act is the algebraic sum of the products of the valences of all outcomes (E) and the valence or rewards of those outcomes (V). In equation form, the theory reads: $P = f(FXA)$ (cited in Kilgore, 1997). Vroom's model emphasizes an individual's capacity or ability, rather than willingness to perform a specific task. Since first introduced, the model has been refined and extended.

An exception is the version of expectancy theory presented by Porter and Lawler, which takes a novel view of the relationship between employee satisfaction and performance (as cited in Moorhead & Griffin, 1992). Although the conventional wisdom was that satisfaction leads to

performance, Porter and Lawler argued the reverse: if rewards are adequate, high levels of performance may lead to satisfaction.

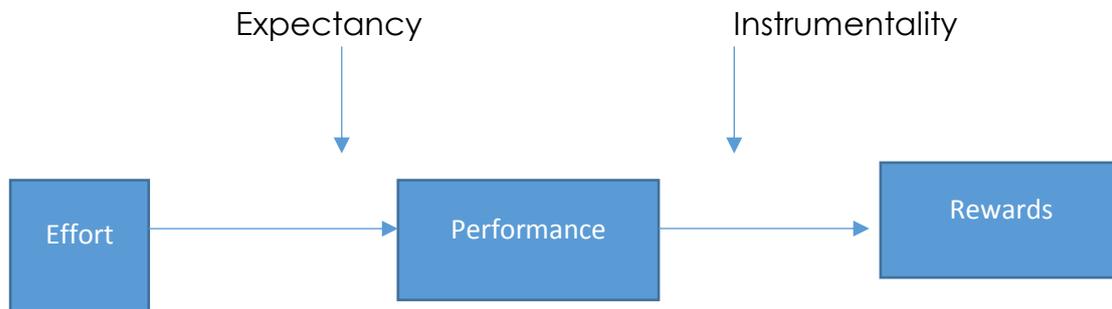
The Porter-Lawler extension includes abilities, traits, and role perceptions (how well the individual understands his/her job). At the beginning of the motivation cycle, effort is a function of the value of the potential reward for the employee (its valence) and the perceived effort-reward probability (an expectancy). Effort then combines with abilities, traits, and role perceptions to determine performance.

Performance results in two kinds of rewards. Intrinsic rewards are intangible—a feeling of accomplishment, a sense of achievement, and so forth. Extrinsic rewards are tangible outcomes, such as pay or promotion. The individual judges the value of his/her performance to the organization and uses social comparison processes to form an impression of the equity of the rewards received. If the rewards are regarded as equitable, the employee feels satisfied. In subsequent cycles, satisfaction with rewards influences the value of the rewards anticipated, and actual performance following effort influences future perceived effort-reward probabilities.

Expectancy theory is based on four assumptions (Vroom, 1964). One assumption is that people join organizations with expectations about their needs, motivations, and past experiences. These influence how individuals react to the organization. A second assumption is that an individual's behaviour is as a result of conscious choice. That is, people are free to choose those behaviours suggested by their own expectancy calculations. A third assumption is that people want different things from the organization (e.g., good salary, job security, advancement, and challenge).

A fourth assumption is that people will choose among alternatives so as to optimize outcomes for them personally. The expectancy theory based on these assumptions has three key elements: expectancy, instrumentality, and valence. A person is motivated to the degree that he or she believes that (a) effort will lead to acceptable performance (expectancy), (b) performance will be rewarded (instrumentality), and (c) the value of the rewards is highly positive (valence). (See Figure 1).

Figure 1. Basic expectancy model.



Instrumentality is an individual's estimate of the probability that a given level of achieved task performance will lead to various work outcomes. As with expectancy, instrumentality ranges from 0 to 1. For example, if an employee sees that a good performance rating will always result in a salary increase, the instrumentality has a value of 1. If there is no perceived relationship between a good performance rating and a salary increase, then the instrumentality is 0.

Transfer can also be influenced by the perceived utility or value associated with participating in training (Burke & Hutchins, 2007). Training has high utility or instrumentality when trainees perceive a clear link between required performance and outcomes that they value (Chiaburu & Lindsay, 2008). Burke and Hutchins (2007) summarized factors that influence perceptions of training utility. These include trainees' evaluation of the credibility of the new skills for improving performance, their recognition of a need to improve job performance, their belief that applying new learning will improve performance and their perception of the practicality of the new skills for ease of transfer.

Velada et al. (2007) showed that trainees' assessments of how applicable the training was to the job, or the degree to which training instructions matched job requirements, significantly related to training transfer. Similarly, Gilpin-Jackson and Bushe (2007) emphasized the importance of trainees' judgments about the value of the training. Finally, Chiaburu and Lindsay (2008) surveyed employees from a large service organization in the United States and found a strong relationship between training instrumentality and transfer. Instrumentality was also related to motivation to transfer, the primary predictor of training transfer in this study.

In general, trainees who perceive training as useful and valuable are far more likely to apply new competencies to the workplace than those who do not. Trainees who are not assured of the importance of training will lack the motivation to learn and apply targeted skills. Organizations would be well advised to devote a portion of their training programmes to communicating the necessity and utility of their training efforts.

Valence is the strength of an employee's preference for a particular reward. Thus salary increases, promotion, peer acceptance, recognition by supervisors, or any other reward might have more or less value to individual employees. Unlike expectancy and instrumentality, valences can be either positive or negative. If an employee has a strong preference for attaining a reward, valence is positive. At the other extreme, valence is negative. And if an employee is indifferent to a reward, valence is 0. The total range is from -1 to +1. Theoretically, a reward has a valence because it is related to an employee's needs. Valence then, provides a link to the need theories of motivation (Alderfer, Herzberg, Maslow, and McClelland). Vroom suggests that motivation, expectancy, instrumentality, and valence are related to one another by equation:

Motivation = Expectancy x Instrumentality x Valence.

The multiplier effect in the equation is significant. It means that higher levels of motivation will result when expectancy, instrumentality, and valence are all high than when they are all low. The multiplier assumption of the theory also implies that if any one of the three factors is zero, the overall level of motivation is zero. Therefore, for example, even if an employee believes that his/her effort will result in performance, which will result in reward, motivation will be zero if the valence of the reward he/she expects to receive is zero (i.e. if he/she believes that the reward he/she will receive for his/her effort has no value to him/her).

7.1.1.1 Expectancy theory in practice: key managerial implications

Expectancy theory has some important implications for motivating employees. The model provides guidelines for enhancing employee motivation by altering the individual's effort-to-performance expectancy, performance-to-reward expectancy, and valence of reward. Several practical implications of expectancy theories are described next (Greenberg, 2011; Helleriegel & Slocum, 2011; McShane & Von Glinow, 2011; Nadler & Lawler, 1983).

7.1.1.1 (a) Effort-to-performance expectancy

A manager should try to increase the belief that employees are capable of performing the job successfully. Ways of doing this include: select people with the required skills and knowledge; provide the required training and clarify job requirements; provide sufficient time and resources; assign progressively more difficult tasks based on training; follow employees' suggestions about ways to change their jobs; intervene and attempt to alleviate problems that may hinder effective performance; provide examples of employees who have mastered the task; and provide coaching to employees who lack self-confidence. In essence, leaders need to make the desired performance attainable. Effective managers not only make it clear to employees what is expected of them but also help them attain that level of performance.

7.1.1.1 (b) Performance-to-reward expectancy

Leaders should try to increase the belief that good performance will result in valued rewards. Ways of doing so include: measure job performance accurately; describe clearly the rewards that will result from successful performance; describe employee's rewards were based on past performance; provide examples of other employees whose good performance has resulted in higher rewards. In essence, leaders should link directly the specific performance they desire to rewards desired by employees. It is important for employees to see clearly the reward process at work. Concrete acts must accompany statements of intent.

Compensation mechanisms can be a powerful incentive in linking performance to rewards. Compensation systems that reward people directly based on how well they perform their jobs are known as pay-for-performance plans (Berger, 2009). These may take such forms as "commission plans" used for sales personnel, "piece rate systems" used for factory workers and field hands, and "incentive stock option (ISO) plans" for executives (Dunn, 2009; Mercer, Carpenter, & Wyman, 2010) and other employees (Barker, 2011). However, rewards linked to performance need not be monetary. Symbolic and verbal forms of recognition for good performance can be very effective as well (Markham, Dow, & McKee, 2002).

7.1.1.1 (c) Valence of reward

Managers should try to increase the expected value of rewards resulting from desired performance. Ways of doing this include: distribute rewards that employees value, and individualize rewards. With a demographically diverse workforce, it is misleading to believe that all employees desire the same rewards. Some employees may value a promotion or a pay raise, whereas others may prefer additional vacation days, improved insurance benefits, day care, or older-care facilities. Many companies have introduced cafeteria-style benefit plans -incentive systems that allow employees to select fringe benefits from a menu of available alternatives.

Another issue that may surface with expectancy theory is the need for leaders to minimize the presence of counter valent rewards- performance rewards that have negative valences. For example, group norms (see e.g. the classic Hawthorne studies, Mayo, 1933; Roethlisberger & Dickson, 1939; Roethlisberger & Dickson, 1939) may cause some employees to perform their jobs at minimum levels even though formal rewards and the job itself would otherwise motivate them to perform at higher levels.

7.1.2 Equity theory

Equity theory is based on the simple premise that people want to be treated fairly (Adams, 1963). The theory defines equity as the belief that employees are being treated fairly in relation to others and inequity as the belief that employees are being treated unfairly in relation to others. Vroom (1964) recognized that individuals seek equity in their jobs; thus, job satisfaction reflects the extent to which rewards received match the rewards the employee believes should be received. Vroom also stated that “the greater the difference between these two amounts, the greater the tension or dis-equilibrium experienced by the person.”

Equity theory (Adams, 1963, 1965) draws from exchange, dissonance, and social comparison theories in making predictions about how individuals manage their relationships with others. Four positions capture the objectives of the theory:

- Individual employees evaluate their relationships with others by assessing the ratio of their out-comes from and inputs to the relationship against the outcome/input ratio of a comparison other

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- If the outcome/input ratios of the individual and comparison other are perceived to be unequal, then inequity exists
- The greater the inequity the individual perceives (in the form of either over-reward or under-reward), the more distress the individual feels, and
- The greater the distress an individual feels, the harder he/she will work to restore equity and, thus, reduce the distress. Equity restoration techniques include altering or cognitively distorting inputs or outcomes, acting on or changing the comparison other, or terminating the relationship.

The theory's distress prediction (proposition 3 above) is based upon the assumption that individuals are equally sensitive to equity; that is, the general preference is that outcome/input ratios be equal to that of the comparison other. This premise has been termed the "norm of equity" (Carrel & Dittrich, 1978; Walster, Walster, & Berscheid, 1978), and both laboratory studies (e.g., Austin & Walster, 1974; Messe, Dawson, & Lane, 1973; Radinsky, 1969) and field research (e.g., Finn & Lee, 1972; Goodman, 1974; Telly, French, & Scott, 1971) show support for the norm.

The above findings are confirmed by Carrel and Dittrich (1978, cited in Ilgen & Klien, 1988), equity theory rests on three main assumptions (1) people develop beliefs about what constitutes a fair and equitable return for the contributions they make to their jobs, (2) people compare their own returns and contributions to those of others, and (3) beliefs about unfair treatment (inequity) create tension that motivates people to reduce that tension. (p. 149).

Mechanisms for reducing perceived inequities include: (1) cognitively distorting the inputs or returns/outcomes, (2) acting on the comparison with others to change his/her inputs or outcomes, (3) changing one's own inputs or outcomes, (4) changing the person with whom a comparison is made, and (5) leaving the situation where inequity is felt (Campbell & Pritchard, 1976). Equity theory predicts that individuals will choose a method of inequity reduction that is personally least costly (Adams, 1963). However, predicting which mode will be seen as least costly has proven to be quite difficult (proposition 4).

Noe (1986, cited in Kilgore, 1997) explained the relationship between motivation to transfer and equity theory: "If an individual feels that by attending training he/she is likely to gain equity in pay or other sought after rewards, there is a greater chance that learning will occur, and such learning will transfer to the job" (p. 55). It can therefore be argued that in studying

motivation to transfer of training, it seems logical to focus on what employees feel they should receive from their jobs.

7.1.3 Goal-setting theory

Goal-setting theory suggests two cognitive determinants of behaviour: intentions and values. Intentions are viewed as the immediate precursors of human action. The second cognitive process manifests itself in the choice or acceptance of intentions and subsequent commitment to those goals (Locke, 1968). It is the recognition that instructions will affect behaviour only if they are consciously accepted that makes goal setting a cognitive theory of motivation. A goal is that level of performance the individual is trying to accomplish; it is the object of behaviour.

According to Locke (1968), goals direct attention and action. Additionally, they mobilize effort in proportion to perceived requirements of the goal or task (Locke, Shaw, Saari, & Latham, 1981). Therefore, goal setting, like expectancy theory, may explain how and why behaviour is facilitated or restrained in the pre-training, training, and post-training processes. Goal setting theory holds that, once a hard task is accepted, the only logical thing to do is to try until the goal is achieved or until a decision is reached to lower or abandon the goal (Locke, 1968).

Research further suggests that both goals and feedback are necessary to improve performance and that participation, incentives, and individual differences impact performance primarily through goal setting (Locke, Shaw, Sarri, & Latham, 1981). McLean and Persico (1994) cautioned, however, that these goals must be valid, which requires that they meet three criteria: data must be derived from a system in a state of statistical control, valid methodology must be used, and employees must be able to meet the goal.

In a study of a management development program for hospital administrators, Wexley and Nemeroff (1975) found that a treatment group assigned performance goals were significantly better at applying learned KSAs than a control group for which no goals were assigned. However, Gist, Stevens, and Bavetta (1991) contrasted the effects of goal setting and self-management as transfer strategies in the use of salary negotiation strategies in a simulation. They found that self-management training resulted in a significantly higher level of transfer than did goal setting.

Goal setting theory is a cognitive theory of work motivation based on the premise that goals are immediate regulators of human behaviour. It makes the assumption that human behaviour is purposeful and that goals direct and sustain individuals' energies towards performing a particular action (Locke & Latham, 1990).

The major consistent finding supporting this theoretical model of goal setting is that setting specific and difficult goals leads to high levels of performance if these goals are accepted by individuals (Locke, 1968). From the above expositions it can be deduced that goal setting can be an effective method of influencing performance by directing attention, mobilizing effort, increasing persistence, and motivating strategy development.

7.1.3.1 Mechanisms for goal setting effects

Given that goal setting works, it is pertinent to ask how it affects performance. According to Locke, Shaw, Saari and Latham (1981) goal setting is most likely to improve task performance when the goals are specific and sufficiently challenging, the employees have sufficient ability, feedback is provided to show progress towards goals, rewards such as money are given for goal attainment, the manager is supportive and assigned goals are accepted by the individuals concerned.

7.1.3.2 Goal attributes and attributes for effective goal setting

According to Locke and Latham (1990) goals have two primary attributes: content and intensity. Goal content refers to the features of the goals themselves, such as the difficulty and specificity of the goals. Goal intensity, on the other hand, is the process by which the goal is set and accomplished. It relates to such factors as commitment, and the cognitive process involved in attaining the set goals. An effective goal setting strategy involves a number of attributes, for example, goal difficulty, goal specificity, participation, peer competition, feedback on goal performance, goal acceptance, goal commitment, and supervisory support (Locke & Henne, 1986).

7.1.3.3 Assigned, self-set goals and commitment

Research has indicated that when goals are imposed, they may be perceived as more difficult to attain, thereby resulting in frustration instead of

accomplishment (Locke, 1988). Assigned goals can have beneficial outcomes, some of which are: affording a feeling of purpose, guidance and explicitness concerning expectations; broadening an individual employee's beliefs regarding what they can accomplish and, directing individuals toward developing high quality plans to realise their goals.

Although assigned goals can increase commitment, studies suggest that participatory goal setting produces even greater commitment. Wood, Mento and Locke's (1987) research which focused on participation, found that employees set higher goals for themselves in a participatory setting than supervisors alone would dare to impose, since individuals seem to be aware of the factors within their control.

Strickland and Galimba (2001) found that the use of self-set goals structured the work pattern of workers; with less switching between tasks relative to work pattern of a group of participants who did not set their own goals. These employees reported less cognitive interference in their efforts to achieve their goals, suggesting that self-set goals are possibly chosen at an easily attainable level, eliciting the required intrinsic motivation, which, in turn, has a positive effect on performance.

Thus, although self-set goals may provide a structuring function and a reduction in on task stressful cognitions, they do not have the same motivational functions associated with assigned goal setting (Latham & Locke, 1990). Setting own goals creates a sense of commitment regarding those goals. It helps individuals to become motivated to pursue the goals in the first place and, also helps them to cope with setbacks and frustrations that occur during the process of goal pursuit (Munroe-Chandler, Hall & Weinberg, 2004).

7.2 Impact of These Theories on Transfer Motivation

According to the theories of transfer, trainees leave training programs with different levels of motivation to utilize their learning on the job. According to Holton (1996), influences on transfer motivation fall into four categories: intervention fulfilment, learning outcomes, job attitudes, and expected utilities. All of these categories can be explained by expectancy theory, equity theory, and goal-setting theory as follows:

7.2.1 Intervention fulfilment

Intervention fulfilment refers to the extent to which training meets or fulfils training expectations and desires (Tannenbaum, Mathieu, Salas, & Cannon-Bowers, 1991). Tannenbaum et al. (1991) conducted a rigorous study and found that training fulfilment played a significant role in understanding training motivation. Training motivation is similar to motivation to transfer because it is a measure of the trainees' perception of the relationship between training success and future job performance (Holton, 1996).

Intervention fulfilment can be explained by goal-setting theory and expectancy theory. If individuals perceive that what they learn is relevant to their goal (what they need to know) or an intervention has met their expectations and fulfilled their need for performance-related learning, they will be more motivated to transfer learning into on-the-job performance.

7.2.2 Learning outcomes

Tannenbaum et al. (1991) also found that performance during training had an independent relationship with post-training motivation. Expectancy theory (Vroom, 1964) suggests that individuals will be more motivated if they are of the opinion that their efforts will lead to enhanced performance. More successful learners would be expected to feel better able to perform and, therefore, more motivated to transfer. In contrast, less successful learners would be expected to be less motivated to transfer learning (Holton, 1996).

7.2.3 Job attitudes

Expectancy theory, goal-setting theory, and equity theory would lead us to speculate that people with high commitment and job satisfaction would be more likely to exert effort to transfer. Noe and Schmitt (1986) investigated the relationship between training transfer and trainees' attitudes concerning jobs, careers and participation in the training programme.

Results of the study suggest that job involvement and career planning are antecedents of learning and behaviour change. Tannenbaum et al. (1991) also found that participants with more positive job attitudes would be expected to be more motivated to transfer learning to work performance.

7.2.4 Expected utilities or payoffs

According to Clark, Dobbins, and Ladd (1993), trainees who perceived training to have more job and career utility are more motivated. These assumptions are consistent with expectancy theory, which states that individuals will be more motivated to transfer if they perceive that their effort will lead to rewards that they value (Porter & Lawler, 1968).

7.3 Theories for Training Transfer Design

According to Holton (1996), one cause of failure to transfer is that training design rarely provides for transfer of learning. That is, cognitive learning may well occur, but programme participants may not have an opportunity to practice the training in a job context or may not be taught how to apply their knowledge on the job. So the training itself can have a direct influence on transfer of training.

It can however be argued that Holton's evaluation model (1996) does not provide guidelines to explain what constitutes appropriate transfer designs. Thus, it is important to understand the theories that provide information about the conditions necessary to achieve positive transfer. The two major viewpoints that describe the conditions necessary for transfer are the identical elements and the principles theories.

7.3.1 Identical elements theory

The theory of identical elements was proposed by Thorndike and Woodworth (1901). According to the identical elements theory, transfer is improved by increasing the degree of correspondence among the training setting stimuli, responses, and conditions and those related factors operative in the performance setting. Holding (1965) summarized this work on transfer by detailing the type of transfer expected based on the similarity of the stimuli and responses.

Holding (1965) explained that, if the task is identical in both training and transfer, trainees are simply practicing the final task during training, and there should be high positive transfer. The second case assumes that the task characteristics--both stimuli and responses--are so different that practice on one task has no relationship to performance on the transfer task. The third case is common to many training programmes. The stimuli are somewhat different in the training and transfer settings, but the responses are the same.

In this case, the learner can generalize training from one environment to another. The fourth case presents the basic paradigm for negative transfer; if the response to identical stimuli in the two settings is different, negative transfer results.

7.3.2 Principles theory

The principles theory suggests that training should focus on the general principles necessary to learn a task, so that the trainee can apply them to solve problems in the transfer environment (Goldstein, 1986). This theory suggests that it is possible to design training environments without too much concern about their similarity to the transfer situation, so long as it is possible to utilize underlying principles.

According to Laker (1990), transfer of training can be near or far. Near transfer is the application of learning to situations similar to those in which initial learning has taken place; far transfer is the application of learning to situations dissimilar to those of the original learning events. Whether one achieves near or far transfer appears to be dependent on which theory of transfer guides the development and presentation of the training programme.

Research reviewed by Clark and Voogel (1985) suggested that the following recommendations would increase the likelihood of near transfer:

- The more the course content and programme reflect the workplace, the more successful the near transfer (Baldwin & Ford, 1988).
- The greater the specificity as to where and how the training is to be applied to the job, the more successful the near transfer (Clark & Voogel, 1985).
- The more overlearning of the task is encouraged, the more successful the near transfer (Noe, 1986).
- The more the procedural nature of the task is emphasized, the more successful the near transfer (Clark & Voogel, 1985).
- The more the application of the training is restricted to only those areas for which the trainee was prepared, the more successful the near transfer (Clark & Voogel, 1985).

Therefore, the identical elements theory influences the acquisition of near transfer. According to Spitzer (1984), near transfer would be the objective of

short-term skill development that can be applied immediately to improve performance in one's present position. Near transfer would seem to be most desired when pursuing technical training (Laker, 1990), because technical training usually teaches particular behaviours and procedures applicable to the individual's current job.

On the other hand, the theory of transfer through principles emphasizes the importance of creating variety and explaining the *why* that underlies what an individual is being taught. From this perspective, the following factors may hypothetically influence the acquisition of far transfer:

- The better trainees understand the underlying principles, concepts, and assumptions of the skills and behaviours they are learning, the more successful the far transfer (Goldstein, 1986).
- The more trainees practice in different contexts and use novelty in their practice exercises, the more successful the far transfer (Baldwin & Ford, 1988; Goldstein, 1986).
- The more encouragement trainees receive during training to discuss and apply the training in situations of their own choosing, the more successful the far transfer (Noe, 1986).
- The more encouragement trainees receive after training to apply the training to situations other than those for which they were trained, the more successful the far transfer (Goldstein, 1986).

Principles theory is critical to far transfer because knowledge can be abstracted and connected to new problems. If trainees can understand the principles and concepts and if they have a chance to practice exercises and apply situations in training programs to their workplace, they are more likely to apply their newly acquired skills and behaviours when they are faced with new challenges and unfamiliar problems. According to Laker (1990), far transfer might be most attractive for management development or creative problem solving, as these types of training are frequently directed toward long-term goals and future positions.

7.4 Theories Supporting Transfer Climate

Training that fails to transfer to the workplace is prevalent in all countries, including South Africa. According to one survey of learning and development professionals, only 34% of trainees apply what they've learned to the workplace one year after a training intervention (Saks & Belcourt, 2006). Yet much research supports the fact that learning transfer improves when one's workplace provides the right kind of support. There are many

ways an organization can have an impact. One can leverage opportunities prior to, during and after training.

A few underlying threads that run through workplace support include an acknowledgement that learning takes time to apply, training must be more than a one-time event, learning is a social process and that learning often happens informally.

Transfer climate was described by Schneider and Rentsch as a "sense of imperative" (cited in Holton et al., 1997) that arises from an individual's perception of his/her work environment. It influences the extent to which that person can use learned skills on the job. Transfer climate is seen as a mediating variable in the relationship between the organizational context and an individual's job attitudes and work behaviour (Holton et al., 1998). Thus, when learning occurs in training, the transfer climate may either support or inhibit application of learning on the job. Organizational climate is at least as important as learning in facilitating transfer (Rouiller & Goldstein, 1993). The conceptual framework and theory that help to explain Holton's transfer climate factor-how organizational environment supports transfer of training--are presented below.

7.4.1 Transfer climate framework

Rouiller and Goldstein (1993) offered a conceptual framework for operationalizing transfer climate; they suggested that transfer climate consists of two types of workplace cues, including eight distinct dimensions, defined in Exhibit 1. The first set of workplace cues--*situation cues*--remind trainees of opportunities to use what they have learned when they return to work. There are four types of situation cues: goal cues, social cues, task cues, and self-control cues. The second set of workplace cues--*consequence cues*--is the feedback trainees receive after they apply their knowledge, skills, and attitudes gained in the training to their jobs.

There are four types of consequences: positive feedback, negative feedback, punishment, and no feedback. Rouiller and Goldstein (1993) used this framework in a study of fast-food restaurant management trainees and demonstrated that the transfer climate added significantly to the explained variance in post-training job performance. They also found that a positive organizational transfer climate appears to be important if transfer of training behaviour is to take place.

Exhibit 1. Definition and Illustration of Transfer Climate Items

Situation Cues. Cues that serve to remind trainees of their training or provide them with an opportunity to use their training once they return their jobs.

Goal cues. These cues serve to remind trainees to use their training when they return to their jobs; for example, existing managers set goals for new managers that encourage them to apply their training on the job.

Social cues. These cues arise from group membership and include the behaviour and influence process exhibited by supervisors, peers and/or subordinates; for example, new managers who use their training supervise differently from the existing managers. (This is reverse-scored.)

Task cues. These cues concern the design and nature of the job itself; for example, equipment is available in this unit that allows new managers to use the skills they gained in training.

Self-control cues. These cues concern various self-control process that permit trainees to use what has been learned; for example, "I was allowed to practice handling real and job relevant problems."

Consequences. As trainees return to the jobs and begin applying their learned behaviour, they will encounter consequences that will affect their future use of what they have learned.

Positive feedback. In this instance, the learners are given positive information about their use of trained behaviour; for example, new managers who successfully use their training will receive a salary increase.

Negative feedback. Here, trainees are informed of the negative consequences of not using their learned behaviour; for example, area managers are made aware of new managers who are not following operating procedures.

Punishment. Trainees are punished for using trained behaviours; for example, more experienced workers ridicule the use of techniques learned in training. (This is reverse-scored.)

No feedback. No information is given to the trainees about the use or importance of the learned behaviour; for example, existing managers are too busy to note whether trainees use learned behaviour. (This is reverse-scored.)

Source: Rouiller and Goldstein (1993, p. 383).

7.4.2 Organization theory

Organization theory describes organizational climate supporting transfer of training in Holton's (1996) model. According to Kozlowski and Salas (1997), the need for change, the implementation of interventions, and the transfer of trained skills are embedded within the context of work team, sub-unit, and organizational levels. They propose an organization theory that benefits from the application of concepts drawn from systems-oriented theories. Key concepts that underlie the systems framework include: organizations are open to external environmental influences, subsystem events are embedded in the larger systems context or network of relations, and it is impossible to comprehend complex events in systems by reducing them to their individual elements.

Organization theory enhances the identification of tangible work environment characteristics. Contextual factors exert an influence on individual responses through their perceptions of the organizational environment. This means that important, tangible, and meaningful work environment factors (structure, reward systems, or decision autonomy) are stimuli that underlie perceptions of the context. Under this analysis interpretive perceptions serve as mediating mechanisms to link salient contextual features to individual responses (Kozlowski & Farr, 1988).

Kozlowski and Salas (1997) posited three theoretical concepts or themes--levels, content, and congruence--underlie organizational context from the perspective of climate theory. This framework can be used to identify issues to improve the effectiveness of training implementation and transfer that are missing in Holton's (1996) transfer of training model.

The dominant feature of their model is the distinction among the levels that comprise the organizational system--individual, team or unit, and organization. Second, the model distinguishes between techno-structural and enabling process content which provides a means to identify relevant features that comprise contexts. Third, the framework incorporates congruence as a critical mechanism for conceptualizing configurations or alignments among key variables comprising the organizational system. It addresses the connection of variables within content domains, between content domains, and between levels.

Changes in system functioning produced by training interventions are (a) congruence between content areas within levels, (b) congruence between

higher level embedding characteristics and lower level training targets, and (c) composition processes that link training-induced change at lower levels to higher level change targets.

Training significantly benefits from integration with concepts drawn from organizational theory. According to this theory, trained knowledge, skills, and attitudes at the individual level are embedded in team or unit-level technology, coordination processes, and social system contexts, with broader contextual constraints originating at higher system levels (Kozlowski & Salas, 1997). From this perspective, preparing individuals to accept training-induced change and encouraging them to express their new capabilities in the work environment require training that is delivered at the appropriate level and is congruent with contextual supports.

Kozlowski and Salas (1997) asserted that the transfer processes in this model implicate the pre-training environment as well. If a context does not support or actively discourages the use of new skills prior to the implementation of training, it is unlikely that trainees will be motivated to learn.

Perhaps through its impact on transfer climate, support is one of the most salient aspects of the work environment related to transfer. Both supervisor and peer support significantly influence the propensity for trainees to utilize trained competencies in the workplace. Managers can provide support in various ways and at multiple stages in the training process. Although Baldwin and Ford (1988) reported some ambiguity regarding what constitutes support, subsequent research identifies several broad behaviours that are generally included in this dimension (Salas et al., 2006).

Goal setting, for example, can have a significant impact on transfer outcomes. Prior to training, supervisors should communicate goals regarding the desired performance, the conditions under which the performance will be expected to occur on the job and the criterion of acceptable performance (Burke & Hutchins, 2007). Following training, trainees should be prompted by their supervisors to set proximal and distal goals for applying newly acquired competencies in the workplace (Taylor et al., 2005). Research indicates that specific and difficult goals, in combination with feedback, can greatly enhance motivation and, in turn, performance (Robbins & Judge, 2009).

Importantly, goal setting can facilitate transfer by directing attention, stimulating action, increasing persistence and prompting trainees to utilize

newly acquired knowledge and abilities (Locke & Latham, 2002). It is worth noting, however, that the benefits of goal setting are not without their limitations. Some scholars have argued that when particularly specific or difficult, goals can actually be detrimental due to their potential to narrow one's focus, shift risk attitudes and precipitate the psychological costs associated with goal failure (Ordoñez et al., 2009).

Furthermore, the same goals may not prove beneficial when applied to different people, as individuals differ in their abilities and the degrees to which they identify with certain goals. Nevertheless, research generally indicates a positive relationship between goal setting and transfer (e.g. Burke & Hutchins, 2007).

Managers can likely facilitate optimal transfer outcomes by implementing goal setting while remaining cognizant of its potential limitations. Managers can also support trainees by providing recognition, encouragement and rewards, and modelling trained behaviours (Salas & Stagl, 2009; Salas et al., 2006). In addition, Lim and Johnson (2002) identified supervisors' participation in discussions of new learning, involvement in training and provision of positive feedback as forms of support most recognized by trainees as positively influencing their transfer. Cromwell and Kolb (2004) showed that trainees who received high levels of management support transferred more knowledge and skills 1 year after participating in a training program than those who reported lower levels of support.

Likewise, trainees cited lack of management support as a significant barrier to the transfer of training. Other studies have emphasized the importance of supervisor involvement or participation in training for transfer outcomes (e.g. Gilpin-Jackson & Bushe, 2007; Saks & Belcourt, 2006). Supervisory support in the form of encouragement for the application of new skills (Kontoghiorghes, 2001), information sharing, direct feedback and the provision of resources (Awoniyi et al., 2002) has also shown strong relationships with the transfer of training.

Finally, supervisor support emerged as one of the strongest predictors of transfer in a recent meta-analysis by Blume et al. (2010). Support from peers has also shown consistent relationships with transfer. Chiaburu and Marinova (2005), for instance, reported that peer support showed a strong, direct relationship with transfer, as well as an indirect influence through its impact on motivation.

7.4.3 Factors that support learning transfer

The following aspects can assist in supporting learning transfer (Burke and Hutchins, 2007; Cromwell and Kolg, 2004; Gegenfurtner, et. al 2009 and Saks. and Belcourt, 2006);

7.4.3.1 Go for a positive transfer climate

Transfer climate refers to the conditions in the work environment that inhibit or enable newly learned skills, knowledge and attitudes back on the job. A positive environment that promotes learning transfer provides: a strong alignment between the training program and the organization's goals; various opportunities to apply new knowledge and skills; positive consequences when new skills are used and social support from peers and supervisors.

7.4.3.2 Frame the training

Studies show that a person's attitude prior to training determines his/her motivation to transfer learning to the job. In fact, pre-training motivation to learn and to apply new knowledge and skills is a predictor of post-training transfer. Organizations can influence motivation by framing upcoming learning experiences in a favourable light.

7.4.3.3 promote learner readiness

One can promote learner readiness through these strategies:

- Be clear as to whether training is mandatory or voluntary
- Provide realistic information prior to training
- Allow trainees to provide input
- Communicate the municipality's expectations, and
- Even before an employee engages in a formal learning experience, one's organization can promote or hinder transfer motivation.

7.4.3.4 Make it relevant

An employee's motivation to transfer training back to the job is shaped during the learning experience. It comes as no surprise that when trainees perceive learning as relevant, useful, and valuable, they are more likely to apply their newly learned skills. Some factors that influence the perception of training as valuable include:

- Acknowledgement that the trainee needs to improve his or her job performance
- Belief that the new skills will improve job performance
- Practicality and ease of transferring skills to improve performance
- Create a Culture of Learning, and
- Encourage your organization to promote the importance of learning at work as a value. A culture of learning promotes both formal and informal learning, It acknowledges that employees need opportunities to try out newly learned skills and that mastery or competence takes time. It's possible that creating a culture of learning will reduce resistance to change, because change is an inevitable part of learning and performance improvement.

7.4.3.5 Supervisory support

Supervisor support is an essential dimension of the social aspect of learning. It refers to the extent that managers and supervisors reinforce and promote the use of new skills on the job. Training transfer is facilitated when trainees perceive that supervisors are supportive in this way. An important qualifier here is that when supervisors are coercive, it wipes away the effect. Ways for managers and supervisors to promote transfer are to:

- Participate in training events
- Allow trainees to contribute and provide input to training
- Discuss new learning and how to apply it
- Provide coaching, encouragement and feedback, and
- Hold trainees accountable for using new acquired skills.

7.4.3.6 Peer Support

Support from peers and colleagues is another important dimension of the social aspect of learning. Peer support may be even more important than supervisory support in promoting training transfer. Organizations can promote peer support by encouraging work group discussions and participation. Work group discussions are essential for trainees to share ideas about newly learned knowledge and skills can be transferred to the workplace. Participation in internal and external communities of practice is also essential for effective skills transfer. Opportunities for mentoring of learners must also be provided timeously.

8. FACTORS INFLUENCING SELECTION OF TRAINEES

Specifically, the characteristics of the trainees can influence how much is learned and whether it will be transferred. The cognitive ability of the people being trained has one of the strongest relationships with training outcomes. Cognitive ability are brain-based skills we need to carry out any task from the simplest to the most complex. They have more to do with the mechanisms of how we learn, remember, problem-solve, and pay attention, rather than with any actual knowledge.

Cognitive ability is essentially a measure of a person's overall intelligence-it influences how much they can learn, how much they can remember, and how well they can apply what was learned to a new environment. Training scientists have found that the cognitive ability of the people being trained predicts whether what is learned in training will be transferred to the workplace. It is important for trainers to be aware of the influence of cognitive ability when selecting who will participate in training.

Additionally, if trainees believe in their ability to learn from training and to transfer what they learn, they are more likely to do so. A study by Brian Blume, Kevin Ford, Timothy Baldwin, and Jason Huang (2010) in the *Journal of Management* provides scientific evidence for the relationship between self-efficacy and the transfer of training. Self-efficacy is an employee's belief about whether he/she has the ability to perform a certain task. This is important because if trainees do not believe they can learn from training or they can successfully use what they learn on the job, they likely will not. If trainees are confident in their abilities, however, they will be more motivated to learn from training and to use their new knowledge and skills.

Self-efficacy, which has also been linked to the transfer of training, can be defined as a judgement an individual makes about his/her ability to perform a given task (Bandura, 1982). The higher the trainees' self-efficacy, the more

confidence they will have in their ability to successfully acquire targeted skills and perform trained tasks. In challenging situations, individuals with low self-efficacy are more likely to lessen or discontinue their effort, whereas those with high self-efficacy are more likely to exert additional effort in order to meet the challenge (Robbins & Judge, 2009).

Clearly, this notion has important implications for training programmes that often focus on novel or difficult work behaviours. Not, surprisingly, self-efficacy has consistently shown positive relationships with the transfer of training (Burke & Hutchins, 2007). One example is a study that collected data at two points in time following training, and found that performance self-efficacy significantly related to training transfer (Velada et al., 2007).

The more motivated trainees are, the more they will transfer training. Related to self-efficacy is trainees' level of motivation, which is important for transferring training as it influences the amount of effort that people expend toward achieving a goal. The training literature shows that both the motivation to learn and the motivation to transfer can help determine whether training is transferred to the job.

While both types of motivation are important, a study by Dan Chiaburu and Douglas Lindsay in *Human Resource Development International* shows that motivation to transfer is more important, as it is likely to prompt trainees to use what they learned once they return to the work environment (www.acui.org. Rebecca Grossman & Eduardo Sala).

Transfer is also affected by the context of original learning; people can learn in one context, yet fail to transfer to other contexts. For example, a group of Orange County homemakers did very well at making supermarket best-buy calculations despite doing poorly on equivalent school-like paper-and-pencil mathematics problems (Lave, 1988). Similarly, some Brazilian street children could perform mathematics when making sales in the street but were unable to answer similar problems presented in a school context (Carragher, 1986; Carragher et al, 1985).

How tightly learning is tied to contexts depends on how the knowledge is acquired (Eich, 1985). Research has indicated that transfer across contexts is especially difficult when a subject is taught only in a single context rather than in multiple contexts (Bjork and Richardson-Klavhen, 1989). One frequently used teaching technique is to get learners to elaborate on the examples used during learning in order to facilitate retrieval at a later time.

The practice, however, has the potential of actually making it more difficult to retrieve the lesson material in other contexts, because knowledge tends to be especially context-bound when learners elaborate the new material with

details of the context in which the material is learned (Eich, 1985). When a subject is taught in multiple contexts, however, and includes examples that demonstrate wide application of what is being taught, people are more likely to abstract the relevant features of concepts and to develop a flexible representation of knowledge (Gick and Holyoak, 1983).

The problem of overly contextualized knowledge has been studied in instructional programmes that use case-based and problem-based learning. In these programmes, information is presented in a context of attempting to solve complex, realistic problems (e.g., Barrows, 1985; Cognition and Technology Group at Vanderbilt, 1997; Gragg, 1940; Hmelo, 1995; Williams, 1992). For example, fifth- and sixth-grade students may learn mathematical concepts of distance-rate-time in the context of solving a complex case involving planning for a boat trip. The findings indicate that if students learn only in this context, they often fail to transfer flexibly to new situations (Cognition and Technology Group at Vanderbilt, 1997). The issue is how to promote wide transfer of the learning.

One way to deal with lack of flexibility is to ask learners to solve a specific case and then provide them with an additional, similar case; the goal is to help them abstract general principles that lead to more flexible transfer (Gick and Holyoak, 1983). A second way to improve flexibility is to let students learn in a specific context and then help them engage in “what-if” problem solving designed to increase the flexibility of their understanding. They might be asked: “What if this part of the problem were changed, or this part?” (Cognition and Technology Group at Vanderbilt, 1997).

A third way is to generalize the case so that learners are asked to create a solution that applies not simply to a single problem, but to a whole class of related problems. For example, instead of planning a single boat trip, students might run a trip planning company that has to advise people on travel times for different regions of the country. Learners are asked to adopt the goal of learning to “work smart” by creating mathematical models that characterize a variety of travel problems and using these models to create tools, ranging from simple tables and graphs to computer programs. Under these conditions, transfer to novel problems is enhanced (e.g., Bransford et al., 1998).

9. PROBLEM REPRESENTATIONS

Transfer is also enhanced by instruction that assists students represent problems at higher levels of abstraction. For example, students who create a specific business plan for a complex problem may not initially realize that their plan works well for “fixed-cost” situations but not for others. Helping students represent their solution strategies at a more general level can help them

increase the probability of positive transfer and decrease the degree to which a previous solution strategy is used inappropriately (negative transfer).

Advantages of abstract problem representations have been studied in the context of algebra word problems involving mixtures. Some students were trained with pictures of the mixtures and other students were trained with abstract tabular representations that highlighted the underlying mathematical relationships (Singley and Anderson, 1989). Students who were trained on specific task components without being provided with the principles underlying the problems could do the particular tasks well, but they could not apply their learning to new problems. By contrast, the students who received abstract training showed transfer to new problems that involved analogous mathematical relations. Research has also shown that developing a suite of representations enables learners to think flexibly about complex domains (Spiro et al., 1991).

Not surprisingly, the actual training plays a major role in whether it transfers to the workplace. One of the most effective strategies for training is behaviour modelling. In this approach, the trainer provides clear descriptions of the behaviours that trainees are supposed to be learning and presents models of the behaviours being performed. These models might involve the trainer actually acting out the behaviour or presenting a video that demonstrates the behaviour. Following this, the trainees spend time practicing the new behaviours, and the trainer provides feedback.

A study by Paul Taylor, Darlene Russ-Eft, and Daniel Chan in the *Journal of Applied Psychology* found that behaviour modelling increased the transfer of training the most when the models of behaviour included both positive and negative examples, when trainees were able to create their own situations for practicing rather than using situations that were created by the trainer, and when trainees set goals for exactly what they wanted to learn from the training intervention.

Another way to improve training transfer is to conduct training in an environment that realistically represents the actual job setting. It is important for student employees to learn and practice in a realistic environment. This will assist in creating a culture favourable to skills transfer. No matter how good the training, students will not transfer new knowledge and skills to the job unless their work environment encourages them to do so. Certain characteristics of the work environment can make the transfer of training more or less likely. Support has shown to be one of the strongest relationships with transfer
(http://www.businessperform.com/workplacetraining/transfer_of_training.htm
Calais, Gerald J. (2006). Haskell's Taxonomies of Transfer of Learning: Implications for Classroom Instruction).

10. TYPES OF SKILLS TRANSFER

The following types of skills transfer are essential in transferring the skills learned to the workplace (http://www.teachpe.com/sports_psychology/skill_transfer.php):

10.1 Positive Transfer

This is when prior learning or training facilitates acquiring a new skill or reaching the solution to a new problem. In this situation the individual employee performs better than he/she would have without the prior training. This usually occurs when the two skills in question are similar in some way. Having already mastered one of the skills, makes learning the second skill easier. Coaches can aid this positive transfer by making sure the individual understands the similarities between the two skills and by making sure that the basics of the first skill are well learnt so that they transfer more easily into the second skill.

10.2 Negative Transfer

This is when prior learning or training hinders acquiring a new skill or reaching the solution to a new problem. In this situation the individual performs worse than before he was exposed to the prior training. This occurs when having learnt one skill, makes learning the second skill more difficult. This more often happens when a stimulus common to both skills requires a different response. For example, a squash player who takes up tennis may find it difficult to learn to not use their wrist during shots.

Negative transfer can be avoided by making sure the athlete is aware of the differences and making practice sessions similar to match situations to ensure a larger, generalised motor programme. Transfer of skills can work both ways, in that a skill currently being learnt may affect a skill previously learnt, or a skill learnt in the past may affect a skill currently being learnt.

10.3 Zero Transfer

In this situation, past experience or training neither enhances nor hinders acquiring a new skill or reaching the solution of a new problem.

10.4 Proactive and Retroactive Transfer

Proactive transfer refers to a skill learnt in the past affects a skill currently being learnt or to be learnt in the future. Proactive transfer is when a previously learnt skill influences on the way that a new skill is learned. Compared to positive transfer, this is where habits from a previous skill are transferred to the new skill. Retroactive transfer refers to learning a new skill affects a previously learned skill.

10.5 Bilateral Transfer

Where the learning of one skill is transferred from one limb to the other e.g. a footballer learning to pass with their left foot when they have previously learned this skill with their right foot.

11. CHARACTERISTICS THAT INFLUENCE SKILLS TRANSFER

Various characteristics that influence skills transfer in the workplace exist. These characteristics are identified and discussed in the paragraphs that follow.

11.1 Self-efficacy

Closely related to self-confidence, self-efficacy is an individual's belief that they will be able to learn and perform a task. Many studies point to self-efficacy as an overriding force in training transfer. "You can do it" messages in the registration email and early course slides, as well as success stories from previous participants, can boost learners' self-confidence.

11.2 Belief in Usefulness

Workplace learners need to see how they will be able to use what they learn. E-learning and live virtual developers should avoid pressure from subject matter experts to include nice-to-know content and verify with target population representatives which content is need-to-know. National School of Government and MJ Mafunisa Consulting (2017) define E-learning as learning that takes place via a technological platform-also called online learning.

11.3 Openness to Experience

Trainees who are open to new experiences are better able to capitalise on learning successes, to acquire skills faster, and to transfer the new skills to their jobs. It is of no value to learn new skills but later fail to transfer those skills to the workplace. Training courses can set the stage and encourage learners to open their minds as they experience the training.

11.4 Career Link

Learners who have career plans that they regularly consult and update, and learners who see a link between specific training and their career paths, are more likely to apply their learning to their job performance. Career Paths is a resource designed to help you identify the skills and abilities you need to progress within some of the main job areas in today's marketplace.

11.5 Commitment to the Organisation

There is a relationship between identification with workplace groups and the desire to obtain and use new work-related knowledge. Trainees, who have a strong commitment to their organisation, or to their team or work unit, are more likely to use in their jobs what they have learned in their training. A popular term closely associated with this is employee engagement.

11.6 Knowing how to Learn

Trainees, who have metacognitive skills such as how to focus, self-regulate, and take tests effectively, are better able to learn and transfer technology-assisted training. These types of skills are helpful for participants in face-to-face learning environments too, but due to the increased isolation-physical and psychological-of e-learning and live virtual training, metacognitive skills play a larger role in participants' ability to transfer their learning.

11.7 Attitude

Learners with positive mental emotional states-or at least the absence of negative mental emotional states-are more likely to transfer their training.

Whether in regard to the training itself, or a general life attitude, positive attitudes support better skills transfer.

11.8 Motivation

Internal and external trainee motivation before, during, and after training plays a key role in transfer of training to the workplace. Internal motivation to learn and use the training may help propel the trainee toward learning and use but will likely falter without support from the environment. Motivation to learn and use the learning also affects and is affected by openness to experience and links to career progress.

In more recent years, trainee motivation has emerged as a significant contributor to the transfer of training (Baldwin et al., 2009). Motivation refers to the processes that account for an individual's intensity, direction and persistence of effort toward attaining a goal (Robbins & Judge, 2009). For transfer to occur, trainees must believe that they are capable of learning, that their effort to learn will change their performance and that a change in their performance will lead to valued outcomes (Factione et al., 1995).

In relation to transfer, motivation has been conceptualized and studied in various ways. Specifically, pre-training motivation, motivation to learn and motivation to transfer have all exhibited important relationships with training outcomes (Burke & Hutchins, 2007). Naquin and Holton (2002), for example, developed a construct termed motivation to improve work through learning (MTIWL) that encompasses both motivation to learn and motivation to transfer. The authors found that MTIWL predicted transfer significantly greater than other relevant variables in their studies. In an investigation of the effects of trainee characteristics on training effectiveness.

Tziner et al. (2007) found that Johnson (2002) explored factors that were thought to facilitate or hinder transfer, and identified motivation to transfer as a primary supporting variable. Other studies have also demonstrated the impact of motivation to transfer and pre-training motivation on the transfer of training (e.g. Chiaburu & Lindsay, 2008; Chiaburu & Marinova, 2005). Blume et al.'s (2010) meta-analysis provides additional evidence of a positive relationship between motivation and transfer.

11.9 Computer Confidence

If participants are uncertain about using the technology associated with the training, the learning is less likely to be applied. While most (but not all) employees in today's workplaces are comfortable using a personal computer, some may not be completely comfortable using technologies associated with live virtual training, such as VoIP (Voice over Internet Protocol), threaded discussion, type-in chat, and virtual breakout groups.

11.10 Cognitive ability

Trainees' cognitive abilities affect their levels of learning and how much they apply their learning to the job. This factor is closely related to knowing how to learn.

11.11 Age

Younger learners tend to achieve higher levels of learning transfer in technology-supported training because they have been users of related technologies for most, if not all, of their lives. Initial learning is necessary for transfer, and a considerable amount is known about the kinds of learning experiences that support transfer. Knowledge that is overly contextualized can reduce transfer; abstract representations of knowledge can help promote transfer.

Transfer is best viewed as an active, dynamic process rather than a passive end-product of a particular set of learning experiences. All new learning involves transfer based on previous learning, and this fact has important implications for the design of instruction that helps students learn (Ericsson et al., 1980).

12. TRAINING TRANSFER AND BEHAVIOUR CHANGE STRATEGIES

Some trainers are faced with the challenge of motivating their training program participants to use the new skills they learned during the program back in their workplace. Whether it is using the new software system to enter customer interactions, acting in a more collaborative manner with other team members or delegating more often to direct reports, this is what the

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training program is meant to be all about. If the training program does not in the end change workplace behaviours, public funds and time spent on training is simply wasted.

All trainers have experienced at one time or another training program participants that are neither interested in the program nor motivated to apply the skills and knowledge in their jobs. Here are some tips that one as a trainer can use to assist participants want to learn and to transfer that learning to their jobs. Working towards training transfer starts before the training course begins and continues on after the training completes. So, training transfer tasks have been separated into things you can do before, during and after the training is completed.

Behaviour modelling has emerged as an effective training strategy, perhaps because it incorporates several different learning principles. Based on Bandura's (1977) social learning theory, this approach includes clearly defined explanations of behaviours to be learned, models displaying the effective use of these behaviours, opportunities for trainees to practice learned skills and the provision of feedback and social reinforcement following practice (Taylor et al., 2005).

In a meta-analytic review, Taylor et al. (2005) concluded that behavioural modelling facilitated transfer the most when mixed (both positive and negative) models were provided, when trainees generated their own scenarios during practice, when trainees were prompted to set goals, when trainees' supervisors also underwent training and when rewards and sanctions were instituted in the work environment.

Behavioural modelling thus appears to be an effective strategy for promoting the transfer of training. Providing opportunities for trainees to observe and practice targeted behaviours enhances their ability to learn and retain new information. Of the array of learning strategies to choose from when designing training programs, research suggests that behaviour modelling is of particular importance for the transfer of training.

Error management is a related training strategy that has also proven to effectively promote transfer (Burke & Hutchins, 2007). Allowing trainees to make errors and providing error management instructions have emerged as effective ways to facilitate the proper use of targeted knowledge and skills in the workplace. Heimbeck et al. (2003), for example, found that training transfer was greater for trainees who were provided with error training and

error management instructions as compared to trainees who received error training alone or those who were prevented from making errors during the training process.

Error-based training allows trainees to anticipate what can go wrong, and equips them with the knowledge of how to handle potential problems. Furthermore, such training can enhance the perceived utility of training by exemplifying negative outcomes that can occur without the acquisition of trained skills (Burke & Hutchins, 2007).

Additional support was found in a recent meta-analysis in which error management training yielded greater transfer outcomes than error-avoidant training methods (Keith & Frese, 2008). Error management training was especially effective for post-training, rather than within training performance, and for novel, rather than similar tasks, two critical components of training transfer. In sum, transfer is facilitated when training incorporates information regarding potential errors and how they should be dealt with. Providing information about incorrect behaviours appears to be equally as important as communicating target behaviours. Organizations can benefit from recognizing error management as an effective strategy for promoting the transfer of training.

12.1 Before Training

Get the participants' supervisors or managers to conduct a pre-course briefing with each participant. If they do not know how, show them. This briefing is the place for each manager to introduce discussion about how the principles, techniques and skills learned will be applied practically once the participant returns from the training event. Their manager is also in the best position to ensure that participants have completed any pre-requisite reading or exercises. Most important of all, the pre-course briefing sends a powerful message that the organization cares about the employee's development and is serious about seeing the benefits of training.

12.2 During Training

For training to be effective, the fundamentals of training design will need to have been followed. These basics include selecting the right trainees, matching performance objectives to organizational outcomes, delivering at the right time and choosing the appropriate methods and delivery modes. In

addition, the following four points need to be kept in mind during the conduct of the training sessions.

12.2.1 Goal orientation

Participants actively engage the subject matter when they see a purpose in the learning. This could be reducing time to market for new products or minimizing the company's environmental impact. If there is a sense that the program is "going somewhere", that there is a significant point to the training beyond the training room, many trainees will latch onto that purpose—so long as there is a "hook" to make that connection. That "hook" may be personal. It may be the social acceptance that will come from passing the course, or it may be earning the eligibility to join a respected professional association, for example. So, ensure that the organizational objectives of the program are clearly described to trainees at the start of the program and state the WIIFM ("What's In It For Me").

12.2.2 Real work relevance

Showing how the program relates directly to people's day-to-day work significantly lifts the level of participant interest in the program. Firstly, demonstrate your expertise in the knowledge and skills being taught, or at least rely on subject matter experts at the appropriate times. Next, use a host of real-life examples and scenarios from the participants' own workplaces. Make role-plays, simulations and examples as true to life as you can.

In addition, demonstrate how models, theories and principles need to be contextualized for each workplace situation. Involve participants in making those connections by generating free and frank discussion about how the learning can be applied back on the job. Another fruitful strategy is getting the participants' supervisors and managers to introduce the program or each session. Doing this sends a strong message that the person to whom they report considers the program to be practical and relevant to their work. Even better, where possible, get the participants' supervisor or manager to deliver one or more components of the program.

12.2.3 Practice

Building in opportunities for practice during the training helps to spark participants' interest as they experience new aspects of the skill and builds

their self-confidence as they gain success. Factoring in opportunities for practice also increases motivation to use the skills on the job by revealing to participants first-hand how the new skills can improve their work on the job. Be sure to intersperse theory with practice sessions. The variety of physical movement and mental activity also helps to maintain participant interest.

12.2.4 Interpersonal Interaction

Learning in the workplace is largely a social activity, in which goals and aspirations are shared, experiences are discussed, different approaches are debated and ways of doing things are demonstrated. In some programs, participants will learn more from each other than from the trainer. And when the participants return to their workplaces, shared learning between participants will be paramount. Interactions that encourage participation and collaboration will foster motivation and transfer.

Relationships can quickly become fractured and learning blocked through the actions of one or more attention-seeking, disruptive or abusive participants. So, be sure to establish ground rules at the start of the programme. Lastly, give trainees rewards to mark their achievements. Success that is recognized helps to develop team spirit, especially if all of the participants are striving toward a common goal. That goal will be to acquire skills relevant to their workplace.

12.3 After Training

Transferring skills to the workplace at the conclusion of the training program begins with a post-course debriefing. Continuing on from the pre-course briefing, get participants' managers to review with the participants the content of the training and the participants' experiences. The post-course debriefing is an ideal juncture at which to identify, plan and agree with the employee where the skills will be applied and to set specific goals for their application
(http://www.businessperform.com/workplace-training/training_transfer.htmlExpert View Author: Leslie Allan).

13. INTERNATIONAL BEST PRACTICES IN SKILLS TRANSFER

When analysing international case studies, each case (although specific to its own context) provides some guidelines for a future approach to capacity building.

13.1 The Case of Burkina Faso

In Burkina Faso, a governmental health and nutrition project highlights that maintaining the correct balance between autonomy and flexibility is important when using grant allocations and enhances accountability. In this project, districts were allowed greater freedom to use capacity-grant allocations to address their particular capacity needs, while the accountability element was strengthened by the signing of transparent management agreements.

These management agreements addressed issues such as payment modalities, obligations of the recipients, financial management and auditing requirements, and issues of termination (World Bank, 2005). The introduction of audits with predetermined objectives could facilitate the collection of more reliable and relevant data on capacity-building efforts in municipalities, thereby contributing to more independent and objective assessments of the success of capacity-building initiatives.

13.2 The Case of Ghana

A study conducted in Ghana into the human resource development challenges facing local government found a need to professionalise the human resource development practitioners appointed in these local government roles. The importance of building the capacity of those responsible for capacity building within local government therefore becomes of cardinal importance (Antwi, Analoui and Cusworth, 2007). This calls for a professional and responsive human resource development department in municipalities, with clear and innovative strategies to respond to capacity building, recruitment, staffing, career development and retention.

13.3 Brazil, Venezuela and Zambia

Defining minimum capacity requirements for key positions is a crucial condition for decentralisation policies to produce benefits in countries such as Brazil, Venezuela and Zambia (Vergara, 2003). The need for an integrated approach Coherent capacity-building efforts should take all three elements of capacity into consideration. A common example of a lack of integration of individual and organisational capacities is persistent efforts in training

individuals to perform certain tasks prior to the organisation being ready to allow them to use such skills (Thomas, 2006).

Theoretical frameworks for capacity building recognise the need to integrate individual, institutional and environmental capacity because they affect each other. Such a coherent approach to capacity building also demands a move away from a focus on short-term gains to a sustained, longer-term commitment to a capacity-building programme.

13.4 The Case of Tanzania

In Tanzania, lessons learnt about an integrated approach to capacity building in the public sector included the need for (Kiragu, 2005; Morgan and Baser, 2007):

- Securing political will and commitment,
- Strengthening key institutions involved in capacity building,
- Stabilising key positions and appointments,
- Championing innovation and technical assistance,
- Adopting a maintained, comprehensive support rather than a 'big bang' approach,
- Following a sector-wide approach, and
- Restoring integrity and ethics.

Integrity is one of the enduring values of ethical governance. Ethics deals with values relating to human conduct, with respect to rightness or wrongness of particular actions and to the goodness or badness of the motives and ends of such actions. Ethical governance refers to the right and justified conduct of activities of an institution (or government) to serve the larger public interest.

The Tanzanian case study's lessons are, to a certain degree, mirrored in the Philippines–Canada Local Government Support Programme, which focused on the development of local government capacity in the Philippines. Here, the success of the programme was ascribed to (Agriteam Canada Consulting, 2006):

- The programme's scope and longevity,
- The use of appropriate and innovative delivery methodologies (peer-to-peer exchange and on-site coaching for context appropriate support), and
- Local ownership.

There is a move to include systems thinking in capacity-development theory. The appeal of this approach lies in its coherence, whereby capacity building

is considered an ongoing cyclical process that includes all parts of the system(s), in addition to the linkages between them (AusAid, 2009). A systems thinking approach recognises the complexity and interconnectedness of an organisational system, suggesting that precise measurement and impact evaluation based on 'gap analysis' (which assumes a static reality) may not always be an accurate reflection of reality. This has implications for defining capacity development in a way that can be measured and monitored.

13.5 The Ugandan Case

Uganda's use of local market forces to provide for local capacity-building needs was deemed successful because the government recognised that measures to stimulate supply and demand for capacity development at the local level would be required for sustainability. The Ugandan Ministry of Local Government (Nelson, 2007) played a leading role in setting minimum standards, developing capacity incentives, and monitoring progress in open, published reports. This market for capacity building was created by providing an annual "capacity building grant" to local governments, which is used to procure the services of training providers on a competitive basis. The Ministry of Local Government assesses these service providers in terms of their competencies and past performance on an annual basis.

13.6 Papua New Guinea and the Solomon Islands Perspective

AusAid and its partners reflected on the role of technical assistance in capacity building, as a result of lessons learnt in deploying Australian civil servants in. Although the civil servants were specialists, they had little experience in overseas development. AusAid began a more staged approach to capacity building, where technical advisors would move gradually – from direct implementation to indirect support for capacity development.

As competencies were developed, systems and processes improved and other issues relating to a lack of capacity were addressed. However, despite this change in approach, the challenge remains to shift from the 'hands-on approach' to relying on context-specific understanding and interventions that recognise longer-term capacity-building methods which are required in order to build and sustain capacity (AusAid, 2009).

In Indonesia, the importance of external agencies as facilitators of capacity and change processes has been emphasised. The role that external agencies can play in providing innovation and learning to promote capacity within government is critical (Land, 2004).

Vergara (2003) argues that capacity-building interventions should not create dependency. International and local experience shows that the impact and sustainability of capacity-building interventions are limited when they are consultant driven and not embedded through knowledge transfer in the daily operations of the municipality. This is because the municipality being capacitated is assumed to be able to draw upon sufficient capability, strategically align different instruments, build local networks and drive a coherent development agenda (Sibisi, 2009).

Nurturing competitive, but fair market for service providers one of the lessons learnt from global municipal capacity-building experiences is the importance of promoting the role of other entities as producers of technical assistance (Vergara, 2003). No country has successfully established one capacity building institution as the sole producer of technical assistance. Dynamism in the sector also needs to be fostered, and a diversity of capacity-building tools will allow for innovation.

13.7 South African Context

Despite undergoing the biggest transformation process in the South African history, municipalities in South Africa still have a long way to go before they can claim to be sustainable and functional. The municipal transformation process itself has been a process beset by capacity constraints and performance challenges.

Questions have been raised about the viability of such a large number of municipalities in South Africa, the changing powers and functions of various municipalities, political leadership problems, the scarcity of skills, the lack of clarity on roles and responsibilities of municipal functionaries, and the service delivery protests.

The municipal institutional capacity needs to “encompass a broad range of issues, such as policies and procedures, knowledge management and institutional memory, competency profiles of staff, background and experience and organisational ethics” (National Treasury, 2011). Municipalities should ensure that institutional capacity, which includes operational capacity, is maximised for the benefit of service delivery.

Environmental capacity is found outside municipalities' formal structures, in areas that are beyond the control of the municipality. Examples include socio-economic and demographic composition; the political, legislative and social capital within communities; the ecological, geographic and non-municipal infrastructure; and the natural, mineral and environmental resources available.

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Environmental capacity can be enhanced by interventions that might improve the intergovernmental fiscal system and operating environment of a municipality, and changing national policies and legislation that affect the municipality (CoGTA, 2009). In 2009 the National Treasury's discussion document Strategy to Address Municipal Performance Failures captured the issues underlying municipal performance failures and initiated a discussion on how to address the performance failures. The strategy builds on the National Capacity Building Framework for Local Government (CoGTA, 2011) and suggests a structured approach to defining and addressing the challenges experienced by under-performing municipalities.

The strategy defines well-functioning municipalities, or well-performing municipalities, as those municipalities that perform their functions (as defined in the Constitution), achieve their desired outcomes and where both political leadership and organisational capacity support sustainable performance levels.

According to the National Treasury (2011), the lack of success with previous capacity-building initiatives can be mainly attributed to:

- Uncertainty surrounding the roles and responsibilities of municipalities (changing powers and functions),
- The assumption that a lack of capacity is the root cause of all municipal performance failures,
- A lack of clear articulation of national, provincial and other role-players' roles and responsibilities in local government,
- A lack of capacity in provinces and district municipalities to support local municipalities,
- A lack of performance incentives for municipalities to address performance failures,
- Perverse incentives inherent in the hands-on support approach,
- A lack of prioritisation of municipal needs,
- A lack of performance monitoring,
- The absence of a mechanism to manage the transition between support and intervention, and

To the above factors contributing to the lack of success with previous capacity-building initiatives can be added the lack of management support for trainees to transfer what they learnt to the workplace.

Some of the lessons that should inform future local government capacity-building initiatives are identified by the National Treasury (2011) as follows:

- Identifying and addressing the true root causes of local government performance failures,
- Ensuring a sustainable, long-term, dynamic process for performance improvement,

- Incentivising good performance,
- Getting the basics right,
- Sequencing initiatives correctly,
- Properly designing, developing, managing, implementing and evaluating capacity initiatives, and
- Allowing for performance failure in extreme instances.

14. THE PROBLEM OF TRAINING TRANSFER

Many municipalities encounter challenges in skills transfer, because they fail to implement the skills learnt and there is no monitoring and evaluation. "Transfer of training", as it relates to workplace training, refers to the use put by training participants of the skills and knowledge they learned to their actual work practices. (Note that it is sometimes referred to as "transfer of learning".) Why is this considered so important for managers and training professionals? To get the best value from skills transfers the following two workplace training scenarios should be considered.

John, the Executive Director, caught a number of employees smoking in the lunchroom in spite of the company's no-smoking policy. He instructed the Human Resources department to send all employees on a training session covering the no-smoking policy. Two weeks after the training session, John exploded talking with the Human Resources Manager, "I found a Production Team Leader smoking in the Foyer. That training cost us a packet. You were supposed to fix the problem!"

In another company, a new inventory system was installed. Employees in the Purchasing Department were sent off to learn the new software. One month later, the Purchasing Manager finds that only two out of the twelve Purchasing Officers are using the new system. The expected cost savings have not materialized and the Purchasing Manager resolves to take issue with the Training Manager at the next weekly meeting.

Capacity-building experts estimate that somewhat less than twenty percent of training investments lead to some organizational benefit. This anomaly is commonly referred to as the "problem of training transfer". Why is it that such a small proportion of training ends up being used back in the workplace? With increasing marketplace competition, leaner resources and a greater focus on tangible outcomes, more and more managers are asking this question.

15. BENEFITS AND DISADVANTAGES OF SKILLS TRANSFERS

It is essential to transfer skills learnt in the training session to the workplace. The following are some of the benefits associated with skills transfer in the workplace (Thorndike, 1923):

- Employees are confident, open to change and supportive of each other
- They are motivated to apply learning and expect to achieve improved performance as a result
- They have the time and energy to implement new skills as well as the necessary human, financial and physical resources, and
- They do not experience supervisor/manager sanctions when implementing new learning.

There are several disadvantages associated with skills transfer. These advantages are listed below (Cree, and Macaulay, 2000):

- Implementation of new learning on the job is not perceived to lead to positive outcomes for the individual
- Failure to apply new learning is not seen to be noticed or dealt with
- Trainees receive little supervisor/managerial consultation/support either before or after training. They are not well briefed or prepared for training
- The training content is not clearly relevant
- Employees do not associate improved performance with positive outcomes or reward although it may be noticed/valued, and
- The implication is that learning cannot be rushed; the complex cognitive activity of information integration requires time.

16. RESEARCH QUESTIONS AND FINDINGS

The review of the skills transfer literature prompts several questions that descriptive-analysis is uniquely suited to address. The research questions below concern aspects related to skills transfer to the workplace. These aspects include learners support and motivation and barriers to effective skills transfer.

Research Question 1 B: What are the key barriers (if any) affecting the learning process in your workplace?"

Responding to the question: "*What are the key barriers (if any) affecting the learning process in your workplace?*", some respondents cited lack of relevant equipment to use in performing assigned duties, office accommodation, financial constraints for funding the training, lack of job descriptions and lack of conducting performance assessments. Financial constraints were raised by several respondents as one of the barriers affecting the learning process in the workplace. Other barriers identified by the respondents include:

- Language
- Limited resources
- The training itself, in that the training provided is in most cases not relevant to the work that employees perform in their various departments
- Workload
- Resistance to change
- No skills audit conducted before training
- Lack of study leave
- Lack of infrastructure, especially for artisans
- Lack of team work during training
- Senior personnel not willing to transfer skills to junior ones, and
- Managers who do not understand the value of skills development in the workplace.

A manager who has 17 years experience in Emergency Services indicated that the attitude of longer serving staff members who believe that they cannot be taught anything by anybody and also the mindset of personnel who are of the opinion that facilitators must provide solutions to all scenarios in the learning environment are barriers to effective learning.

It must therefore be argued that municipalities must set aside enough budget to cover the training costs for, at least, scarce and critical skills to ensure effective service delivery. Job description must also be drafted for all employees. Relevant municipal employees must be involved in the drafting of those job descriptions as they are involved with the activities which are to be put in the job descriptions. These job descriptions must be adapted periodically for them to meet the demands of the ever-changing positions. It

is the duty of senior staff members as change agents to change the attitude of long serving personnel to start to believe in other people as nobody knows everything. This refers also to them.

Research Question 2 B: What percentage of learning do you think is applied back at the workplace in your municipality?

Responding to the question: *What percentage of learning do you think is applied back at the workplace in your municipality?* some managers indicated, on average, that 50 per cent of what is learned in training is applied in the working situation. In the case of the Department of Finance the research respondents are of the opinion that 98 per cent of what is learned in training is applied back at the workplace.

This confirms the statement that finance officers are motivated by the unqualified audit reports they have to attain and also by the principle of public accountability. The other statement confirming this is that the training finance officers get is part of preparation for the workplace.

Research Question 3 B: Responding to the question the question: “How (if at all) does your organization measure whether effective learning transfer has happened or not?”

Responding to the question the question: *“How (if at all) does your organization measure whether effective learning transfer has happened or not?”,* some respondent indicated that they conduct skills audit, some indicated that they utilizes the services of an implementing agents to come and assess the learners individually to determine whether each learner has acquired relevant skills, others are of the opinion that improved service delivery is used as a measure to determine whether indeed effective training has indeed taken place or if they successfully implement the skills instilled in them during training. In the Emergency Services Department, the municipalities measure whether effective learning transfer has happened by conducting drills to test personnel on outcomes of training attended.

Annual performance assessments are also used to determine whether effective learning did take place. One respondent from the Department of

Finance indicated that in finance it is easy because their work is mainly compliance to standards such as GRAP 17, GRAP 12, 13 and 26 and Annual Financial Statement. The office of the Auditor-General's role is to check whether one has applied these standards.

Research Question 4 B: How (if at all) are learners/trainees systematically prepared to apply learning (post-training) at their workplace?

Responding to the question the question: *How (if at all) are learners/trainees systematically prepared to apply learning (post-training) at their workplace?* some supervisors indicated that there is not official preparation provided, other managers indicated that in finance, training at academic institutions is part of preparation, other managers indicated that mentoring before learners undergo training is used as part of preparation. Other respondents believe that filling in a skills audit form serves as the preparation for the learners.

Research Question 5 B: How are learners/trainees motivated to directly apply what they have learned at the workplace? (List as many as possible?)

Responding to the question the question: *How are learners/trainees motivated to directly apply what they have learned at the workplace? (List as many as possible?)*, finance officers are of the opinion that the motivation for them is accountability as they have to account for all they do. Another motivation is for them to obtain unqualified report opinion to indicate that their financials are reliable. Trainees are also assigned tasks which demand that they apply the skills learned in training (and the mentor will assess their performance). Some respondents argue that employees are motivated if they are trained on the aspects of the work at hand.

Learners are also provided with testimonials that can assist them when applying for a job or promotion. Other managers indicate that they encourage them to work hard and also participate fully in training sessions. Other supervisors feel that the mere fact that they are entrusted with the duty to serve members of the public is a motivation in itself. Involving juniors in making decisions and problem solving have also been identified as factors

that motivate trainees to directly apply what they have learned at the workplace. Trainees can also be given an opportunity to come up with innovative solutions to challenges tasks at the workplace.

Research Question 6 B: How (if at all) does your organisation reward post-learning application of acquired skills or knowledge at the work environment? (List as many as possible)

Responding to the question the question: *How (if at all) does your organisation reward post-learning application of acquired skills or knowledge at the work environment? (List as many as possible)*, managers who were interviewed for this study indicated that there is no direct reward for any post-learning application. However, indirect or long-term reward include placing learners to the positions where they are best fitted in terms of their skills and promoting them to senior positions. Some managers indicated that in case there is a need for those skills they try to convince their seniors to create posts for those learners. Some managers stated that what is important is not the reward to be provided to them by their municipality but personal satisfaction.

Research Question 7 B: How does your municipality ascertain that each employee has an agreed learning plan to inform the learning journey?

Responding to the question: *How does your municipality ascertain that each employee has an agreed learning plan to inform the learning journey?* in the questionnaire for this study, some respondents indicated that they make use of workplace skills plan where all employees submit their training needs to the skills development facilitators.

In other words, work skills plan assists the municipality to identify the skills needs of each municipal employee. They further indicated that skills audit is also utilized in this regard. Personal development plan must be prepared for municipal employees. These plans must also include training and development needs of of employees and they must be adapted annually for them to be relevant.

Research Question 8 B: How does your municipality ascertain that sufficient support is afforded to learners/trainees to enable attainment of learning objectives?

Responding to the question: How does your municipality ascertain that sufficient support is afforded to learners/trainees to enable attainment of learning objectives?, municipal officials indicated that the municipality provide payment for accommodation in close vicinity to the training institutions and training costs to service providers and or training institutions. Municipalities also provide travelling and subsistence allowance to the employees who attend training.

A face-to-face meeting between the trainee and the supervisors are held in which the supervisor will determine the challenges the trainee is experiencing in his/her work. These meetings are also platforms for the trainees to raise their concerns with regard to their learning process.

Research Question 9 B: How does your municipality continuously review learning quality to keep it aligned with agreed objectives and required output?

Responding to the question: *How does your municipality continuously review learning quality to keep it aligned with agreed objectives and required output?* managers who responded to this question in the questionnaire indicated that the municipality continuously review learning quality through skills assessment and also by conducting annual reviews.

But these skills assessments and annual reviews are done haphazardly- there is no planning or systematic way of doing it by the municipality. It can therefore be argued that there must be continuous review of learning quality within municipalities and haphazard review of training is not systematic and can not instil a culture of learning in municipalities.

Research Question 1 C, 2 C and 3 C: Which 5 skills would you say are abundant (i.e. readily available) within your municipality? and: Which 3 critical skills (skills that would positively impact service delivery) should be developed urgently within your municipality?

Responding to the questions: *Which 5 skills would you say are abundant (i.e. readily available) within your municipality? and: Which 3 critical skills (skills that would positively impact service delivery) should be developed urgently within your municipality?*, managers who responded to this question in the questionnaire of this study identified financial skills, technical skills, administration skills and communication skills as the skills which are readily available in some municipalities whereas job evaluation skills, operational management skills, leadership development skills, policy development skills, project management skills, monitoring and evaluation (M&E) skills and management skills are the skills which are critical in some municipalities.

Management can be defined as a directing activity aimed at achieving the predetermined goals or objectives of an institution through the optimal utilization of the workforce (labour), money, materials and information. Some managers identified planning as a critical skill within the municipality, which is not surprising as planning is part of the management principles. Listening and communication skills are also identified as critical skills.

Planning is defined as the fundamental management function that determines what an organization wants to achieve and how it should go about this. In other words, it involves those activities of management that determine the mission and goals of an organization, the ways in which these are to be attained and the deployment of the necessary resources to realise those goals.

It can therefore be argued that it is necessary for senior municipal officials to be capacitated on management principles for them to can manage their juniors and resources effectively, economically and efficiently. Other resources to be managed by municipal officials include financial resources, time and information. The management training provided to senior municipal officials must include: planning, organising, leading and controlling. Leadership development training must include the attributes of a leader, leadership styles and theories of motivation.

It is the duty of the municipality to also ensure that the planning skills, organizational skills, communication skills and coordination skills learned by the senior municipal officials in the learning or training environment must also be transferred and applied back to the learning environment.

17. CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Connecting with the employee about the training experience after training is as important as connecting with employees before they attend training. This is because the learning experience is fresh in the employee's mind and the motivation and inspiration acquired during training still exists immediately after the employee returns. To ensure that the employee applies what was learned, it is important to invite the employee to talk about and share the learning experience with the manager and even the larger team.

In similar fashion as the pre-course meeting, the manager should review with the employee the content of the training and the overall learning experience. The post-course debriefing is an ideal juncture at which to identify, plan and agree on next steps including how the learning experience will be implemented. Suggestions of sample items to discuss with the employee upon returning from training include:

- What was the employee's impression of the course? Did this training meet the needs identified during the pre-course discussion?
- Does the employee believe he / she has met his / her objectives by taking the course?
- How is the employee going to apply what he / she learned?
- What barriers to implementing learning exist? How can the supervisor manager help the employee remove these barriers?
- On what date will the employee and manager meet again to review whether training is being implemented as planned?

Supervisors or managers are in a key position to set the stage for training success. Their involvement or lack thereof before, during, and after training sends a strong message about the organization's commitment to employee development and its expectations about seeing the results of training. It is therefore important that managers remain visible in their support for employee training, through ongoing communications and connection with the employee.

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(LGSETA funded project)

This report focused on skills shortage challenges facing local government in South Africa, how workplace support learning transfer, factors influencing selection of trainees, training techniques to assist transfer skills, characteristics that influence skills transfer, types of skills transfer, training transfer and behaviour change strategies, international best practices in skills transfer, the problem of training transfer and the benefits and disadvantages of skills transfer.

Types of skills transfer identified and discussed include positive transfer, negative transfer, zero transfer, proactive transfer, retroactive transfer and bilateral transfer. Characteristics that influence skills transfer to the workplace which are identified and explained are self-efficacy, belief in usefulness, openness to experience, career link, commitment to the institution, knowing how to learn, attitude, motivation, computer confidence, cognitive ability and age. It was argued that initial learning is necessary for transfer, and a considerable amount is known about the kinds of learning experiences that support transfer. Knowledge that is overly contextualized can reduce transfer; abstract representations of knowledge can help promote transfer.

Transfer is best viewed as an active, dynamic process rather than a passive end-product of a particular set of learning experiences. All new learning involves transfer based on previous learning, and this fact has important implications for the design of instruction that helps students learn.

In closing, following are some final recommendations for managers in communicating the value and importance of training transfer in all employee discussions.

1. When choosing training courses, ensure the training is specific to the skills the employee needs to develop. For example, it is a waste of time if the manager sends an employee to a general communications course, when in fact the employee needs training on dealing with customer complaints. Make sure training is customized to meet the immediate learning need.
2. Provide information about why the new skills or information the employee will acquire in the training is necessary ensuring that the employee understands the link between the training and his / her job. Take this one step further by describing how the learned skills contribute to the larger organization's objectives.

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3. Provide training opportunities that are immediately applicable on the job. Identify or set up work situations which provide time to practice the learned skill. Make sure these situations immediately follow the training and are frequent, to help the employee retain the newly acquired skills.
4. Employees should be recognized for successfully completing and subsequently applying learning on the job. Informal recognition such as mentioning the accomplishment in a team meeting, or more formal recognition such as making mention of the completed training session in the company newsletter all create an attitude of motivation.
5. In general, trainees who perceive training as useful and valuable are far more likely to apply new competencies to the workplace than those who do not. Trainees who are not assured of the importance of training will lack the motivation to learn and apply targeted skills. Organizations would be well advised to devote a portion of their training programmes to communicating the necessity and utility of their training efforts.
6. The better trainees understand the underlying principles, concepts, and assumptions of the skills and behaviours they are learning, the more successful the far transfer. It is the duty of the supervisors and trainers to ensure that learners understand the underlying principles and assumptions of the skills and behaviours they are learning.
7. The more trainees practice in different contexts and use novelty in their practice exercises, the more successful the far transfer. It is therefore essential to ensure that learners practice what they learned in different context to ensure effective skills transfer.
8. The more encouragement trainees receive during training to discuss and apply the training in situations of their own choosing, the more successful the far transfer. The facilitator must encourage learners to participate in the learning process and thereafter apply what they learnt in the job setting.
9. The more encouragement trainees receive after training to apply the training to situations other than those for which they were trained, the more successful the far transfer. Supervisors must create an environment conducive for skills transfer for their junior officials.

10. Financial constraints were raised by several respondents as one of the barriers affecting the learning process in the workplace. It must therefore be argued that municipalities must set aside enough budget to cover the training costs for, at least, scarce and critical skills to ensure effective service delivery. Job description must also be drafted for all employees.

Relevant municipal employees must be involved in the drafting of those job descriptions as they are involved with the activities which are to be put in the job descriptions. These job descriptions must be adapted periodically for them to meet the demands of the ever-changing positions.

11. It was established that there is no planned or systematic way for municipalities to conduct continuous review of quality learning to keep it aligned with agreed objectives and required output. It can therefore be recommended that there must be continuous review of learning quality within municipalities as haphazard review of training quality cannot instil a culture of learning in municipalities.

12. It was established that management skills are the skills which are critical in municipalities. It can therefore be argued that it is necessary for senior municipal officials to be capacitated on management principles for them to can manage their juniors and resources effectively, economically and efficiently. Other resources to be managed by municipal officials include financial resources, time and information. The management training provided to senior municipal officials must include: planning, organising, leading and controlling.

Leadership training must include the attributes of a leader, leadership styles and theories of motivation. It is the duty of the municipality to also ensure that the planning skills, organizational skills, communication skills and coordination skills learned by the senior municipal officials in the learning or training environment must also be transferred and applied back to the learning environment.

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ANNEXURE A: REQUEST FOR PERMISSION TO DISTRIBUTE A QUESTIONNAIRE



Polokwane Local Municipality
P.O. Box 111
Polokwane, 0700
10 January 2017

Dear Sir/Madam

RE: REQUEST FOR PERMISSION TO DISTRIBUTE A QUESTIONNAIRE IN YOUR MUNICIPALITY

The Department of Public and Development Administration, University of Venda is commissioned by the LGSETA to conduct a study on **Skills Transfer in Municipalities in South Africa**. The information gathered will be used for building a body of knowledge on skills transfer with specific reference to South African local government. The study will shed light on the skills profile within local government in South Africa and enable future planning and development in relation thereto. The information gathered will be distributed through the LGSETA Seminar Series, which are held throughout the year.

We hereby request for a permission to distribute this questionnaire for completion by at least twelve (12) employees (especially senior ones) within your municipality.

Hoping to receive a positive response at any time now.

PROF. JOHN MAFUNISA

HOD: PUBLIC & DEVELOPMENT ADMIN & STUDY LEADER

ANNEXURE B: QUESTIONNAIRE

Dear Sir/Madam

Please note the Department of Public and Development Administration (University of Venda) is commissioned by the LGSETA to conduct a study on **Skills Transfer in Municipalities in South Africa**. The objective of this project is to shed light on the skills profile within local government in South Africa and enable future planning and development in relation thereto. The information gathered will also be used for building a body of knowledge on skills transfer with specific reference to South African local government. The information gathered will be distributed through the LGSETA Seminar Series, which are held throughout the year.

Would you please follow the instructions below and complete this questionnaire. Your responses will be treated as confidential.

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(LGSETA funded project)

Skills Development Questionnaire			
Section A: Biographic Details <i>(to be completed by all respondents)</i>			
Race	Gender	Department/Unit	Level of Work (e.g. Supervisor)
Section B: Learning Environment & Processes <i>(To be completed by all)</i>			
1. What are the key barriers (if any) affecting the learning process in your workplace?			
2. What percentage of learning do you think is applied back at the workplace in your municipality?			
3. How (if at all) does your organisation measure whether effective learning transfer has happened or not?			
4. How (if at all) are learners/ trainees systematically prepared to apply learning (<i>post-training</i>) at their workplace?			
5. How are learners/trainees motivated to directly apply what they have learned at the workplace? <i>(List as many as possible)</i>			

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<p>6. How (if at all) does your organisation reward post-learning application of acquired skills or knowledge at the work environment? <i>(List as many as possible)</i></p>	
<p>7. How does your municipality ascertain that each employee has an agreed learning plan to inform the learning journey?</p>	
<p>8. How does your municipality ascertain that sufficient support is afforded to learners/trainees to enable attainment of learning objectives?</p>	
<p>9. How does your municipality continuously review learning quality to keep it aligned with agreed objectives and required output?</p>	

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Section C: Scarce & Critical Skills <i>(To be completed by all)</i>				
1. Which 5 skills would you say are abundant (i.e. readily available) within your municipality?				
2. Which 5 skills would you consider scarce within your municipality (i.e. the municipality does not have these skills but should develop)?				
3. Which 3 critical skills (skills that would positively impact service delivery) should be developed urgently within your municipality?				
<p><i>Respondents are required to rate their own skills or those of others in line with the rating scale provided below (mark your response with an X):</i></p> <p style="text-align: center;">Rating Scale 1 = entry level 2 = intermediate 3 = advanced 0 = urgent development needed (udn)</p>				
<p>Section D: Strategy & Leadership: Rate your municipality on the strategic and leadership skills below <i>(To be completed by all)</i></p>				
	1 = entry level	2 = intermediate level	3 = Advanced level	0 = urgent development needed
1. Internal and external strategic alignment				

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2. Translation of strategic municipality objectives into deliverables				
3. Balancing delivery and political expectations				
4. Strategic planning and execution				
5. Concise and standard monitoring and reporting metrics				
6. Relevant legislation and compliance				
7. Project Management skills				
8. Leadership of people and related transformation				
9. Defining and monitoring the business scorecard				
10. Municipality values, culture and code of conduct				

Section E: Management, Implementation & Supervision

Rate your municipality on the managerial, implementation and supervision skills below *(To be completed by all)*

	1 = entry level	2 = intermediate level	3 = Advanced level	0 = urgent development needed
1. Planning and delivery against operational plan				

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2. Manage financial resources				
3. Manage and comply with total municipality value chain				
4. Manage People				
5. Monitor and report against set targets				
6. Meet all standards of work and set work requirements				
7. Identify & filter bottlenecks back to system quality assurance				
8. Act as frontline brand ambassador for the municipality				
9. Overall public service delivery against planned targets and standards				

Section F: Any General Comments or Additional Information may be included below:

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Thank you for completing this questionnaire to shed light on the skills profile within your municipality and enable future planning and development in relation thereto.