

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

Background

It is generally accepted that Central Government cannot itself carry out all government functions and that some degree of delegation is necessary. The former statement, involves the concept of the actual shedding of power by the Central Government and the transfer of it to another body, which then becomes fully responsible for its existence. This is the case in respect of the establishment of the Lusaka City Council (LCC) where this study was undertaken. The LCC is the largest local authority in Zambia whose primary responsibility is public service delivery. Public service delivery means the provision of public services such as garbage collection; construction of drainage systems; maintenance of public markets among others. In order to make the LCC and other local authorities in Zambia more effective and efficient in the delivery of public services, the Central Government, since independence in 1964, has been implementing a number of Local Government reforms. These reforms can best be described in four phases as explained below.

On gaining independence in October 1964, Zambia inherited a dual system of administration or colonial state. The nature of the colonial state meant among other things, that the whites lived separately from blacks and usually along the line of rail or in some other relatively urban areas. This, in effect, meant that the delivery of services was not a phenomenon that equitably covered the whole community in a given locality (Chikulo, 1993). The blacks were represented by Native Authorities (NAs) whereas as the whites were represented by Urban Authorities (Chikulo, 1993). However, soon after independence, the introduction of the Local Government Act No.30 of 1965 saw the abolition of NAs, which were viewed as symbols of colonial repression

and manipulation. Under this Act, sixty seven (67) local authorities were established of which twenty four (24) were urban authorities and forty three (43) were rural councils. The Act gave local authorities wide-ranging powers to discharge over sixty (60) functions in their areas of jurisdiction. The Act of 1965 also provided for three types of local authorities namely; City Councils, Municipal Councils and District Councils. The enactment of the 1965 Local Government Act was, therefore, seen as an instrument for among other things, ensuring effective and equitable provision of services to the local people (Mukwena, 2002).

In its continuing efforts to provide effective and equitable public services to the people, the government created a network of grassroots participatory structures between the local authorities and the sub-district in order to enhance public participation (Chikulo, 1993). It is worth noting that the abolition of NAs had created an institutional gap between the local authorities and the sub-district level. In order to narrow this gap, Village Productivity Committees (VPC), Ward Councils (WC) and Ward Development Committees (WDC) were established under the Village Registration and Development Act No. 30 of 1971. The functions of WDCs were to consider development needs, get ideas from VPCs, and pass these on to the local authority. This network of committees was supposed to provide the basis for decentralized local governance (Mukwena, 2002).

The government later introduced other reforms which witnessed increased politicisation and the imposition of the supremacy of the ruling party over local governance (Chikulo, 1993). The central and Local Government administration was merged with the ruling party (UNIP) structures to create an integrated district administration, under the 1980 Local Administration Act (No.15). The major objective of the 1980 Act was to ensure the effective integration of the primary organs of the party and other local administration units in the district. The most

significant structural change entailed in the 1980 Act was the abolition of the distinction between party, central and Local Governments. This involved the establishment of an administrative structure composed of party, central and Local Government officials (Mukwena, 2002). The main aim of the reforms was to integrate local administrative departments of the Central Government, local councils, and the party structure in order to improve coordination and eliminate duplication of responsibilities among them. Subsequently, a single integrated politico-administrative structure was created in each district. This single administrative agency also called the district council, was established in each district under the chairmanship of a centrally appointed political appointee, the District Governor. The council was a statutory, deliberative, and consultative body, concerned with the determination of broad policy objectives and critical assessment of development programmes. The new councils went beyond what Mukwena (2002) called 'a single hierarchy model' of government at district level, since they replaced the former tripartite Local Government framework, including the incorporation of the party organization into the new structure. As a consequence, the new structure of Local Government not only brought the decision-making process closer to the public at district level, but also ensured closer party control over the mechanism of field administration. Thus, political control was considered crucial for the effective functioning of the new system of local administration. At the sub-district level, the 1980 reforms were designed to reinvigorate the administrative structures by eliminating the duplication of work between party committees and Local Government committees. As a result, the party organizations from constituency to section level, were merged with WDC and VPC into a single set of structures vertically integrated with the district council (Chikulo, 1993). These structures performed both the functions assigned to the party committees by the UNIP Constitution, and the functions assigned by the 1971 Village

Registration and Development Act. The single hierarchy of committees consisted of ward, branch and section committees. Local Government elections were abolished and replaced with party elections. Party officials were elected as ward chairmen and represented the ward on the council. The 1980 Act increased the representation of local party members and excluded the majority of local residents who were not members. As a consequence, democratic local governance was undermined at the local level, as the party representatives were not elected by universal adult suffrage, yet they were expected to represent and take decisions on behalf of local communities. The system of local governance established by the 1980 reforms was, therefore, basically an attempt to create an institutional synthesis between Local Government, Central Government, and the party (Mukwena, 2002).

Finally, a clamour for multi-party democracy led to the scrapping of the one party state in December 1990, and the introduction of political pluralism (Chikulo, 1993). Therefore, the transition to a multi-party system demanded a restructuring of Local Government as explained below. Firstly, Local Government had to be de-linked from the ruling party and secondly, measures were introduced to strengthen control over administration, and increase its accountability to democratically elected bodies. The promulgation in August 1991 of the Constitution of Zambia Act No.1 and the Local Government Act No.22 de-linked the ruling party from the civil service and state apparatus, repealed the 1980 Local Administration Act No.15, and re-introduced the distinction between the ruling party, the Central Government, and Local Government. The main objective of the 1991 Local Government Act No.22 was to enhance the operations of local councils in the provision of public services. Thus, the 1991 Act has strengthened the role of councils as focal points for wider participation and delivery of social services to the local communities. The Act gave councils powers

to raise and utilize revenue from their own local sources at their discretion.

In spite of the above efforts made by the government to enhance the effectiveness and efficiency of local authorities, the performance of the LCC and other local authorities in Zambia still remains undesirable (Lolajih, 2008). Generally it has been observed that the major reason for this undesirable performance among others is lack of decentralisation. Similarly, Diggs (2011) points out that, a major obstacle to the effective performance of public bureaucracies in most developing countries is the excessive concentration of decision-making and authority within Central Government. The popular remedy for such centralization is decentralization. According to Momba (2002) decentralisation not only increases the level of participation but also leads to increased accountability. The function played by decentralisation in promoting economic development through increased accountability is best summarised by the observations made by Crisp (2002) who argues that decentralisation is one of the magic bullets that is required to bring about efficiency and effectiveness in the operations of local authorities in Zambia. Thus, the need for decentralisation as one of the measures of enhancing the operations of councils in Zambia cannot be overemphasized. In that regard, the government in 2002 adopted the Decentralisation Policy as one of the measures of addressing the shortcomings of local authorities in Zambia (MLGH, 2009). The Policy advocates devolution as the guiding governance principle. Under this system of governance, the local authorities in districts, municipalities and cities are the primary focus of development and service delivery. The practical effect of the implementation of the Policy in Zambia is to redefine the principal mandates in the delivery chain of public services and re-assign them with matching resources to different levels of government. Set within the context of a unitary state, the implementation of the Policy implies a new operational relationship

between Central and Local Government. Central Government's principal role will continue to be that of the execution of its constitutional leadership functions over the entire national territory as well as at all the hierarchical levels of the public service (MLGH, 2009). In this respect, Central Government will retain the responsibility for overall policy-making and regulatory functions such as setting quality standards; ensuring nation-wide development coordination; mobilizing the required developmental resources; and supporting the building of capacities for implementing institutions, including those at the district and sub-district levels. It will also retain exclusive responsibility for strategic functions such as Foreign Affairs and Defence and Security. Under a decentralisation system of governance, local authorities will have more responsibilities (MLGH, 2009). It is however, indisputable to say that the majority of the local authorities in Zambia do not have the capacity to effectively and efficiently manage additional responsibilities that are envisaged to come along with decentralisation. Thus, the government, since the Policy was launched in 2004 had acknowledged the need for capacity building of personnel in the local authorities. In that regard, one of the objectives of the Decentralisation Implementation Plan (DIP) which provides a roadmap for the implementation of the Decentralization Policy is to build the capacity of human resources in local authorities (MLGH, 2009). It is worth noting that one of the imperatives for effective capacity building is training. Similarly Geilen (1982) argues that capacity building is a process which facilitates change in organisations through structural reform of systems and training. To this effect, since the launch of the Decentralisation Policy, local authorities countrywide had embarked on a series of training programmes in form of workshops and seminars including long term training. One such local authority that has been training its personnel is the LCC. The LCC has continued to invest in training with the objective of improving the capabilities of its employees. The LCC

has also developed a training policy which guides its training practices. Guided by this policy, the LCC has continued to provide training opportunities to its employees at different levels. According to Lolojih (2008) the LCC had facilitated training of twenty three (23) members of staff in 2001 in various fields and got qualifications ranging from certificates to masters degrees although the majority did their training on a self sponsorship basis. During the same period, fifty five (55) appointed officials also attended various workshops. In addition, the LCC has been increasing its budgetary allocation to training related activities (Council Budget, 2010).

It is, however, imperative to state that training alone does not guarantee effective capacity building. Of primary importance, is to ensure that the knowledge and skills which employees acquire after training are transferred to their workplace environment for improved performance. Similarly, Bhaskhar (200) argues that training in organisations would only have proved truly useful if employees are able to utilise the knowledge and skills acquired in the actual job situation. The effectiveness of a training program therefore, is largely dependent on the ability of employees to use or transfer their newly acquired skills to the job (Handy, 2008). This process is referred to as transfer of skills or transfer of training. Transfer of skills is the application of the knowledge and skills gained by employees to their jobs (Georgenson, 1982). Transfer of skills is influenced by many factors one of which is the workplace environment. A favourable workplace environment, among other things, must be provided in order to ensure positive transfer of skills. In fact, estimates suggest that in many instances, if the workplace environment is not favourable, only ten per cent (10%) of training is translated into performance improvement (Georgenson, 1982). Lim (2002) similarly argues that literature on transfer of skills reveals that a mere ten percent (10%) of the skills acquired by employees are transferred to the job because of obstacles related to the workplace

environment. Holton (2000) also argues that the most commonly cited estimate in the literature is that only ten percent (10%) of skills are transferred to improve job performance mainly due to workplace environmental barriers. Broad (1992) also posits that most of the investment in organizational training and development is wasted because, well over eighty percent (80%) of the knowledge and skills gained by employees, are not fully applied on the job largely because of environmental factors inhibiting successful transfer of skills. Baldwin and Ford (1988) also contend that workplace environmental barriers alone, account for over 40% of all known barriers known to prevent transfer of skills in organisations. Thus, the status of the workplace environment following training interventions has a very significant impact on transfer of skills. In other words, well delivered training programmes may fail to yield positive results when the subsequent workplace environment is not conducive for transfer of skills (Foxon, 1993). It is, therefore, imperative for any organisation investing in training to examine the status of its workplace environment and remove any barriers that may inhibit transfer of skills in order to maximise the benefits of such training interventions.

Statement of the Problem

The Zambian government in 2004 embarked on the process of decentralising Central Government functions as one of the measures of enhancing the operations of local authorities. The implication of decentralisation once implemented fully, as stated above, is that the LCC and other local authorities in Zambia will have additional responsibilities hence the need for capacity building of human resources working in these institutions which indisputably are inadequate and in some cases ill qualified. To this effect, the LCC like other local authorities countrywide has continued to train its employees. In fact, even before the Decentralisation Policy was launched in 2004, the LCC

had been providing training opportunities to its employees. However, despite training its personnel and having a reasonable number of skilled employees as compared to other councils in Zambia, the services provided by the LCC are comparable to other local authorities in the country. Lolojih (2008) similarly argues that despite having more skilled employees than other local authorities in the country, service delivery by the LCC is below the expectations of the majority citizens. The inability by the LCC to effectively and efficiently provide public services to the communities within its jurisdiction can be observed in areas such as uncollected garbage, dirty markets places and poor maintenance of roads in residential areas. It appears, therefore, that the efforts made by the LCC to train its employees, have not been very effective. Notwithstanding other factors which may have contributed to the seemingly ineffective training, if the barriers related to workplace environment which are commonly known to prevent transfer of skills are also prevalent at the LCC, then there is a very high possibility that these barriers could be among the many other contributing factors. This is because research on transfer of skills, reveals that barriers related to the workplace environment account for more than eighty percent (80%) of all the factors that are known to prevent transfer of skills. However, until this study, it was not known whether or not these barriers were also prevalent at the LCC. Therefore, given the absence of empirical research specifically focusing on examining the status of the LCC regarding the prevalence barriers related to the workplace environment that are commonly known to prevent transfer of skills, this study, was an attempt to fill this knowledge gap. The central question, therefore, that this study endeavoured to answer was: what is the status of the workplace environment at the LCC regarding the prevalence of barriers that are known to prevent transfer of skills?

Research Questions

Specifically, this study sought to answer the following questions:

1. Do supervisors and peers exhibit behaviours which are known to prevent transfer of skills?
2. Are employees given adequate opportunities to use their skills?
3. Do employees have adequate equipment needed to enable them operate effectively and efficiently?
4. To what extent are employees sufficiently and equitably rewarded?

Main Objective of the Study

The overall aim of the study was to examine the status of LCC regarding the prevalence of barriers related to the workplace environment which are known to prevent transfer of skills.

Specific Objectives of the Study

In order to achieve the above aim, the following four objectives were identified for the study.

1. To investigate the extent to which the supervisors and peers exhibit behaviours that prevent transfer of skills.
2. To investigate the extent to which employees are given adequate opportunities to use their skills.
3. To investigate the extent of equipment availability for the employees.
4. To examine the extent to which employees are adequately and equitably rewarded.

Significance of the Study

Previous academic works on local authorities in Zambia did not focus on examining the status of such institutions vis-à-vis the prevalence of workplace environment related barriers that are known to prevent transfer of skills. Therefore, until this study, available scholarly

works on local authorities in Zambia did not provide answers to the question: what is the status of the LCC regarding the prevalence of workplace environmental barriers known to prevent transfer of skills? The significance of this study therefore, is that it was the first of its kind to be undertaken at the LCC with the primary objective of investigating how favourable or unfavourable the workplace environment at the LCC is for transfer of skills. It is expected, therefore, that the findings of this study would provide valuable information about the status of the LCC regarding the extent to which the workplace environment related barriers that are known to prevent transfer of skills are prevalent and consequently extend the current knowledge about what is already known about local authorities in Zambia and particularly the LCC. Finally, the findings could be used by LCC Management as they look for ways of maximizing the benefits of their training interventions. As stated above, while there are several factors which may have contributed to the seemingly ineffective training by the LCC, if barriers related to the workplace environment are also prevalent, then there is a very high likelihood that these barriers among others have prevented the LCC from maximising the benefits of its training interventions.

Geographic and Socio-Economic Profile of the LCC and Lusaka City

Geographical Location of the LCC

This investigation was carried out at the LCC which is situated about 5 km away from the town centre. LCC is located in Lusaka. LCC is responsible for the provision of public services to the residents of the city. LCC's objectives include enhancing revenues in the short term by optimizing income from existing or potential sources; improving long-term income potential by facilitating new economic investment within the city; and achieving an optimal level of effectiveness and efficiency in service provision. LCC is divided into eight departments namely;

Administration, Engineering, Physical Planning, Finance, Public Health Department, Real Estate and Legal Department.

In terms of governance, like all councils in the country, the LCC is managed by technocrats and councilors. The technocrats are appointed based on their experience and qualifications. The technocrats are headed by the Town Clerk and District Secretary in urban and rural councils respectively. The primary role of the technocrats is to implement the policies made by the councilors and provide technical advice. Councilors on the other hand, are elected every three years to run the affairs of the city through the LCC on behalf of the residents of the city. The primary role of the councilors is to make policy decisions on behalf of their electorates. Like all councilors in Zambia, the councilors are part time officials. As stated earlier, full time employees of the council headed by a Town Clerk or District Secretary assist them with the daily management of the affairs of the city. The councilors, however, approve all development projects for the city. The LCC also serves as the planning authority for the city. It, therefore, grants planning permission for all projects that alter the land use permanently. Although the LCC is a corporate body and is expected to manage the affairs of the city independently, it merely operates as an agent of the Central Government, which has delegated about sixty one (61) functions relating to the provision of services to the residents of the city under the Local Government Act CAP 281 of 1991. Other councils have similar responsibilities in their areas. As agents of the Central Government, local authorities in Zambia, including the LCC, do not enjoy financial autonomy. They do not, for example, have tax raising powers and largely depend on the Central Government for their finances (Chikulo, 1993). This dependence is as a result of the Central Government's policy of centralising the control and management of national resources. The ability of the LCC to raise finances independently is further weakened because like other councils in the

country, it is not allowed to borrow or receive grants from other organizations. Thus, the sources of revenue for the council are limited to licensing fees, levies and charges, rates and personal levies.

Lusaka City

Lusaka City is the capital city of Zambia, a country in the Central African Plateau with an average altitude of 1,000 to 1,400 m above sea level (UNDP, 2001). Zambia is generally considered to be a Southern African country, because of its strong social and economic ties with the countries in the Southern African sub-continent rather than those in Central and Eastern Africa. Zambia lies between latitudes 100° and 180° south and 220° and 330° east. It is landlocked and shares borders with eight neighbouring countries. Zambia has a land area of 752,614 km² and a population of just over 10 million (UNDP, 2001). The population of Lusaka is estimated to be about 1.3 million and the city is growing rapidly. The highest population is concentrated in the peri-urban areas. The population of Lusaka, like the rest of the country is predominantly young. Up to 70 percent of the population is below the aged of 30 (UNDP, 2001). The population of Lusaka is diverse and consists of people from all the ethnic groups found in Zambia, as well as a small proportion of people of European and Asian origin (Mulenga, 2003). Lusaka is, however, not a particularly large city when compared with other African capital cities. It was, for example, only a third of the size of Kinshasa in 1986, and was only larger than the capitals of a few countries in Southern Africa (Botswana, Swaziland, Malawi and Namibia) (Wood, 1986). The growth of Lusaka in part is attributed to a high immigration from other parts of the country. Up to 24 percent of the population comprises persons born outside Lusaka. The most likely drivers for immigration into Lusaka remain higher economic prospects, opportunities for higher education and higher wage employment. The Living Conditions Monitoring Survey 2004-2005, indicates that the

poverty level in Lusaka has been steadily increasing over the last two to three decades mainly due to the high levels of population growth, which are not matched by economic growth (Central Statistical Office, 2006) . The majority of the total estimated city population reside in informal settlements. Due to the decline in the availability of formal wage employment, the majority of residents of Lusaka work mainly in the informal sector. The literacy rate in Lusaka is higher than the country's average at 95.5 per cent (Central Statistical Office, 2006). The population of Lusaka is growing and is putting pressure on the public services which the LCC is mandated to provide.

Economic Issues of Lusaka City

The economy of Lusaka has become more diversified with its physical expansion and population growth. It has in fact grown from the provision of a few services to commercial farmers who had established themselves around it to provision of higher order services, such as financial and technical services, construction and even manufacturing activities. As the capital city of Zambia, Lusaka also provides services including administrative functions to Zambia as a whole. However, Lusaka also plays a significant role in the country's manufacturing. Most manufacturing enterprises are located in Lusaka and the Copperbelt. Food processing enterprises, such as milling, meat processing and production of essential commodities such as detergents and other domestic chemical products seem to be concentrated in Lusaka. In terms of employment, the service sector is the largest employer of the city's labour force (Mulenga, 2003). In comparison to other cities in Zambia, Lusaka City is economically very significant since it provides the market for the absorption of agricultural products from these areas. Manufacturing, financial, transport, and retail businesses are the most important industries in Lusaka. It is estimated that only nine percent of the city's population is engaged in formal

employment. A major reason for this is that the local economy has been drifting towards the private sector and self-employment since the liberalisation of the economy in the early 1990s. Due to its location and the fact that it is the capital and seat of government, Lusaka plays a significant role in the socio-economic life of adjoining rural and urban areas. The overwhelming majority of the economic establishments in the city fall within the wholesale and retail trade categories, which together represent the largest formal employer in Lusaka after the government (UNDP, 2001). Although the economy of the City of Lusaka is somewhat more diversified than the national economy, like the national economy, it only provides formal employment to a small proportion of its labour force. The majority sixty five (65 percent) of the city's labour force, therefore, earns its livelihood from informal economic activities, which predominantly consist of unregistered and unregulated small scale non-agricultural economic activities ranging from petty trading to metal fabrication and wood processing. The bulk of the informal economic activities are, however, essentially in trading. The low proportion of the labour force working in the formal sector has a bearing on the welfare of the residents of the city but also on the revenue base of the LCC. As stated above, one of the sources of revenue for the LCC is personal levy which is only contributed by those in the formal sector.

In view of the above profile, it is beyond doubt that the LCC is confronted with numerous demographic and socio-economic and political challenges. Therefore, it is undeniable to say that some of the factors contributing to the poor performance of the LCC are caused by external factors over which the LCC has very little control. However, there is a lot that the LCC can do to enhance its operations. Thus, in its pursuit to improve the performance of its employees as one of the measures of capacity building in view of the many responsibilities that local authorities will be expected to undertake once decentralisation is

fully implemented, the LCC has been providing training opportunities to its employees. However, as stated earlier, notwithstanding other factors that are known to maximise the benefits of training, it is irrefutable to also state that the benefits of training can further be maximised if the barriers related to the workplace environment that are known to prevent transfer of skills are not prevalent.

Conceptual Framework

This study was anchored on four main concepts namely; (a) capacity building, (b) training, (c) transfer of skills and (d) the workplace environment.

Capacity Building

In general terms, capacity building connotes programmes which are designed to make organisations more effective and efficient (Geilen 1994, 1996). Capacity building is also defined as a process which facilitates and assists change in organisations through structural reform of systems (Lawson, 1998). Similarly, Liebermann (2008) argues that the purpose of capacity building is to bring about organisational change with the object of improving an institution's ability to make effective use of the human and financial resources available. In the context of this dissertation, good Local Government is not just a matter of creating the right legal, political and institutional framework. It is also about actively building local authority capacity particularly the skills and abilities of the technocrats in these institutions responsible for carrying out Local Government functions. Therefore, the term capacity building in our study refers to the process of improving the skills and abilities of employees in local authorities through training.

Training

The meaning of training in this dissertation was adopted by Bhaskar (2009) who defines training as the systematic acquisition of

skills, knowledge, and attitudes that together lead to improved capacity of human resources. Thus, as organizations strive to enhance performance through their human capital, investing in training, has become one of their key human resource management strategies. This belief is supported by many scholars such as Foxon (1993) who holds the view that skilled employees enhance the performance of the organisation. Bates (2000) similarly, argues that most organizations have invested in developing the skills of their employees hoping that the investment will be reciprocated through improved performance. Baldwin and Ford (1988) similarly contend that skilled people are the source of all productive effort in an organisation. Holton (2000) also supports that organisational performance depends upon individual performance of skilled employees. Bhaskar (2009) similarly argues that if the efforts of every single trained individual are coordinated and directed towards the realisation of well established objectives, the synergy so achieved, would demonstrably transcend the sum total of individual performances. Effective training therefore, can yield higher productivity, improved work quality, increased motivation and commitment, higher morale and teamwork, and fewer errors, culminating in a strong competitive advantage (Ling, 2011). A significant purpose of training and development is to improve performance. Training is of little value to organizations unless it is transferred in some way to performance (Holton, 2000). He argues that training is a means, not a primary organizational outcome. Training is an input whereas performance is the output of training. Therefore, training outputs should emphasize performance, not just training. In other words training is only successful if transfer of skills occurs.

Transfer of Skills

As defined earlier, training is aiming at creating intentional learning processes that contribute to improved worker performance in

their present job context (Ling, 2011). Earlier, Bhaskar (1999) identified performance as the key for HRD to become a core business process. To further elaborate as to how work performance improves with training, Nijman (2006) related training as the systematic acquisition of attitudes, concepts, knowledge, roles or skills that result in improved work performance. However, training in organisations would only have proved truly useful if employees are able to utilise the knowledge and skills acquired in the actual job situation (Bhaskar, 2009). In other words, there is a link between knowledge and skills gained through training and their application in the workplace (Tziner, 1991). This link as described earlier is transfer of training. Studying literature on transfer of skills, one can sense that the terms, 'transfer of training' and 'transfer of skills' are used interchangeably (Royer, 1997). The intent of both is just the same, to apply back knowledge and skills learned in training to job environment of the worker. Thus, the effectiveness of training is largely dependent on the employees' ability to apply their newly acquired competencies on the job. Nijman (2006) similarly holds the view that although employees may gain new knowledge and skills through training, learning alone is not sufficient for training to be considered effective. Of primary importance is the extent to which the learning that results from training transfers to the job and leads to relevant changes in work performance. Bates (2000) equally argues that skilled employees are of no value to the organisation unless their skills are transferred to the job. In other words, if the employees do not transfer their skills back to the job, then the organisation will not benefit from its skilled employees. Kozlowski (1997) likewise, suggests that the knowledge and skills acquired by employees during training would not benefit the organization in the long term if transfer of skill does not occur and sustained over time. Geilen (1996) equally argues that the performance of employees is enhanced when transfer of skills occurs. Gist (1990) also supports that skilled employees will have to transfer

their skills back on the job in order to improve their performance. Thus for organisations investing in training, transfer of skills is not a choice but a must. This argument is strengthened by Kozłowski (1997) confirming a strong consensus among research community that acquisition of knowledge, skills, attitudes and behaviours through training is insignificant if new characteristics are not generalized to the work environment and are not maintained over time. Transfer of training can be measured positive, negative and zero (Bates, 2000). A positive transfer is said to occur when learning during training results in a better work performance. According to Noe (2002), a positive transfer of training is demonstrated when learning occurs and positive changes are also observed. Negative transfer implies a poor work performance as a result of training. Noe (2002) interprets an evidence of negative transfer when learning occurs but skills results are less than at pre-training levels. In the same token, a zero transfer indicates learning in the training situation to have no effect on job performance. According to Baldwin and Ford (1988) when negative or zero transfer occurs, the organisation need to investigate whether this situation is caused by factors related to employee characteristics (e.g. ability and motivation), training design (e.g. training methods, content of training, training environment) and the workplace environment (e.g. supervisor support, peer support, opportunity to use skills, resource availability). For purposes of our study, the focus is on the workplace environment.

The Workplace Environment

The workplace environment in this dissertation refers to the day to day environment in which the employee works. Holton (2000) argues that even training programs that are designed and delivered effectively will fail to yield positive transfer of skills when the subsequent workplace environment does not encourage the use of skills. The workplace environmental factors help determine whether or not

employees exhibit learned behaviors once they return to the work setting. Foxon (1993) argues that even when employees have acquired skills after training, certain variables in the workplace environment may impact on their abilities to transfer their skills. Facticeau and Dobbins (1995) also hold the view that when skilled employees attempt to apply their skills on the job, the presence of inhibiting factors in the workplace environment will act to constrain the application of their skills. Kozlowski (1997) similarly contends that in order to perform well, employees need not only to have the requisite skills, but also work in an environment that supports transfer of skills. In other words, a favourable workplace environment is necessary for positive transfer of skills. The characteristics of a favorable workplace environment for transfer of skills include support from supervisors and peers, opportunity to practice acquired skills, adequate equipment and adequate rewards (Rouiller and Goldstein, 1993). These variables, according to Holton (2000) have shown the strongest and most consistent relationship with transfer of skills. In terms of supervisor support, scholars such as Foxon (1993) have argued that perhaps through its impact on transfer of skills, supervisor support is one of the key factors. Similarly, Kozlowski, (1997) argues that the most consistent factor explaining the relationship between the work environment and transfer of skills is the support employees receive to use their acquired skills and knowledge from their supervisors. Supervisor support significantly influences the propensity for employees to utilize acquired competencies in the workplace (Foxon, 1993). Campbell and Cheek (1989) equally maintain that without supervisor support, the transfer of newly acquired skills and behaviours to the worksite would be extremely difficult. Foxon (1993) contends that the extent to which supervisors encourage or discourage the use of newly acquired skills by their subordinates greatly influences the extent to which skills are transferred to the job. Without supervisor support, the transfer of newly

acquired skills and behaviours to the worksite would be extremely difficult. If supervisors create a positive workplace environment then the transfer of skills and knowledge is more likely to occur. However, if the supervisors choose not to support skill application, transfer will be negative or zero (Campbell and Cheek, 1989). Therefore, the behavior of the supervisor can by and large determine the extent of transfer of skills (Brinkerhoff and Montesino, 1995). Similarly, Tannenbaum (1992) identified supervisor supportive behaviors such as coaching, evaluating employee performance and providing feedback. Noe (2004) also supports that performance feedback has shown a strong relationship with the transfer of skills. Supervisors can also enhance transfer of skills by allowing subordinates to set their own goals (Kozlowski (1997). Likewise, William (2008) puts strong emphasis on the importance of employee participation in goal setting activities as one of the effective transfer of skills strategies. Lim (2002) argue that performance evaluation and feedback has a positive impact on transfer of skills. Holton (2000) also argues that employees with job autonomy are more motivated to transfer their skills than those without. Thus, supervisors must allow their employees to plan their work and determine the procedures to carry it out. In summary, the key supervisor behaviours which promote transfer of skills include coaching, performance evaluation and feedback, employee involvement and job autonomy. In terms of coaching, the role of is somewhat similar to what other coaches are expected to do. According to Nijman (2006) the role of supervisor in coaching is to help subordinates overcome their shortcomings. In other words, coaching should focus on helping employees to achieve their goals by facilitating the client's thinking process. A coach should function as a guide who supports and challenges clients in achieving their objectives through a communication process that connects people to performance. Coaches assist people in clarifying their objectives and discovering effective ways

to accomplish their goals (Noe, 2004). Thus, supervisors are expected to guide their subordinates and assist them to overcome any obstacles in achieving their goals. Regarding involvement, there is evidence to suggest that post training activities in the work environment such as employee involvement, improves the transfer of training (Holton, 2000). Noe (2004) found that highly job-involved individuals are more motivated to transfer skills. In terms of performance evaluation, Cromwell (2002) contends that performance evaluation provides information which helps employees understand obstacles encountered in transferring their skills to the work environment. In terms of Job autonomy, Holton (2000) states that employees who have the freedom to plan their work and determine the procedures to carry it out, are more likely to have the desire to transfer their skills to the job.

Like supervisor support, peer support also influences transfer of skills (Noe, 2004). This support refers to the extent to which peers interact in a way that reinforces the use of skills on the job. Support from peers can positively influence employees to transfer their skills to the job (Baldwin and Ford 1988). The influence of peer support is strong especially when peers share knowledge and work as a team. Richey (1990) argues that knowledge sharing among peers has a positive effect on skills transfer. According to Hawley and Barnard (2005) team work among peers and sharing ideas promotes skill transfer. Equally, Lim (2002) contend that knowledge sharing among peers and team work reinforces the use of skills on the job.

Employees need ample opportunities to apply their new skills to the workplace for positive transfer to occur. Thus, lack of opportunities to apply skills can seriously inhibit the use of skills on the job. Burke (2007) contends that when employees have plenty of chances to apply what they have learned on the job, a larger amount of their skills are transferred to the job. The lack of opportunity to use training on the job is rated as one of the biggest barrier to transfer of skills (Lim, 2002). In

order to create more opportunities for employees to use their skills, managers should provide employees with tasks which are relevant to their training (Handy, 2008). Similarly, Huczynski (1980) supports that opportunity to use acquired skills, is enhanced by allowing employees to obtain work experiences which are relevant to their previous training. In addition, workers must be placed in units on the basis of their qualifications in order to enhance opportunity to use skills.

Regarding rewards, Holton (2000) argues that without rewards, even highly trained employees will not be motivated to transfer their skills to the job. Motivation to transfer skills refers to the employee's desire to use the knowledge and skills on the job (Noe, 2004). Put differently, it is the employees' willingness to transfer knowledge and skills to their workplace. Similarly, Quinones (1992) contends that a certain level of competence combined with motivation, facilitates transfer of skills. Noe (2004) also argues that both monetary and non monetary rewards have the potential to enhance motivation levels of employees and consequently transfer skills. Thus, many organisations continue to emphasize the use of rewards such as salaries in an effort to motivate their employees. Nijiman (2006) also supports that rewards such as adequate pay increases motivation levels of employees to transfer skills. Non financial incentives such as involving employees in decision making, has a positive impact on transfer of skills (Holton, 2000).

Finally, Foxon (1993) contends that even if the workplace environment is favourable in terms of supervisor, opportunities to use skills and rewards, employees need equipment to enable them transfer their skills. Holton (2000) similarly argues that equipment availability in the workplace environment determines the extent to which employees transfer their skills. In many instances, non availability of equipment inhibits workers to fully apply their training.

In summary, the foregoing suggests that there are many factors that contribute to successful capacity building of personnel of personnel. First, training interventions must be systematic and focus on the training needs of employees. But most importantly, the skills and knowledge acquired by the employees must be transferred to the workplace environment for improved organizational performance. Thus the effectiveness of a training program is largely dependent on the employee's ability to transfer their skills to the job. However, for transfer of skills to happen, the workplace environment among other factors must not inhibit the transfer process. As explained above, factors such as the behaviour of supervisors, the behaviour of peers, opportunity to use skills, rewards and equipment availability, have been known to either promote or prevent transfer of skills. Accordingly, in this study, these were the key variables investigated in order to determine the status of the LCC regarding the prevalence of barriers related to the workplace environments known to inhibit transfer of skills.

Operational Definition of the Variables

In order to have a common understanding of the variables investigated in this study, the following operational definitions are provided:

Supervisor Behaviour

In this paper, notwithstanding other behaviours exhibited by supervisors, supervisor behaviour means coaching subordinates, evaluating the performance of subordinates, involving subordinates in setting objectives and giving the subordinate freedom to plan their work and determine how such works should be executed.

Peer Behaviour

Peer behaviour in the context of this study must be understood as the ability of co-workers to work as team by helping each other and not

competing with each other. It must also be understood as the ability of co-workers to share knowledge by exchanging ideas in order to overcome work challenges.

Opportunity to use skills

In this dissertation, opportunity to use must be understood as the chance given to employees to perform tasks which are relevant to their previous training. Opportunity to use is also enhanced by deploying workers to Units on the basis of their training.

Rewards

In this paper rewards refers to financial rewards. In particular, the term refers to salaries paid to employees.

Equipment

This term in this dissertation refers to materials resources which employees need in order to enable them use their skills.

Literature Review

The literature review is divided into two parts. The first part presents an overview of transfer of skills and the theoretical underpinnings regarding factors which affect transfer of skills. The second part presents academic works on local authorities so far undertaken in Zambia. The review of such scholarly works helped the researcher to avoid the duplication of work as it provided the knowledge of what had and what had not been investigated regarding the issues investigated in this study.

Overview

Today's most progressive organizations have moved from treating some select human resource management practices (e.g., incentive compensation, employee participation, flexible work arrangements, training) as obligatory cost factors to regarding them as strategic weapons in the battle for competitive advantage. Consistently

included in any discussion of such high performance human resource practices is employee training. Effective training certainly has the potential to increase knowledge, skills, and abilities (KSAs) and to enable employees to leverage their KSAs for organizational benefit. According to a recent American Society for Training and Development study, U.S. organizations spend more than \$125 billion annually on employee training and development (Paradise, 2007). At the same time, organizations continue to question the true yield of their training expenditures. Despite the large investments in and potential benefits of training, organizational decision makers are often not sure to what extent employees perform differently once back on the job. In organizational contexts, original learning in a training experience is rarely enough to render that training effective. Rather it is the positive transfer of training, the extent to which the learning that results from a training experience transfers to the job and leads to meaningful changes in work performance that is the paramount concern of organizational training efforts (Goldstein and Ford, 2002). For example, leadership training programs often present a model of leadership and include some case studies. While this training may be beloved by participants, the extent to which such programs positively affect the leadership behavior of managers while on the job is at the crux of the transfer issue. Concerns raised about investing in training often revolve around these training transfer issues and the return the organization can expect. This so-called *transfer problem* has led to a body of studies that explore factors that can affect transfer and to a search for strategies that enhance the likelihood that acquired knowledge and skills will be applied to different tasks and contexts (Ford and Kraiger, 1995). Therefore, there is need to know which predictors actually make a difference in facilitating transfer not just intuitively or anecdotally, but with support from the extant evidence. The purpose of this part of the literature review is therefore to highlight the factors that are responsible for positive transfer of skills

with empirical evidence. It is imperative to state that while the review presents literature on several factors that influence transfer of skills, our study investigated only those factors that are related to the workplace environment.

Factors Affecting Transfer of Skills

The generic model of transfer of skills which is mostly quoted in literature is based on Baldwin and Ford's model. Among early works on transfer of training, Baldwin and Ford (1988) are probably the most influential. Their model has attracted a lot of empirical studies focusing investigating factors that affect the transfer of training process. Their model highlights the importance of three factors namely: the trainee characteristics, training design and the workplace environment (Cheng, 1999). The goal of Baldwin and Ford (1988) was to provide a critique of the existing transfer research and to suggest directions for future research. They analyzed 63 empirical studies spanning the period from 1907 to 1987 and summarized key findings related to the linkage of training input factors and transfer. The review also noted key limitations relevant to the way transfer had been operationalized.

Another transfer model, called Learning Transfer System Inventory (LTSI) was proposed by Holton (2000) and claimed to provide more comprehensive view of transfer of skills process. A critical review of these models clearly shows that factors responsible for transfer of skills fall into three categories namely employee characteristics, training design and the workplace environment. The effect of these factors on transfer of skills is explained below.

First, both Baldwin and Ford's model and the Learning Transfer System Inventory theories support that individual characteristics play a powerful role in ensuring positive transfer of skills. According to Burke and Hutchins (2007) employee characteristics that have shown the strongest and most consistent relationship with transfer of skills include

the ability of employees, self-efficacy and motivation. Similarly, Baldwin and Ford (1988) argue that dominant employee characteristics found to exert a direct effect influence on transfer of skills include cognitive ability, self-efficacy and motivation.

Regarding cognitive ability, research by Quinones (1992) among others, suggests that individuals with high cognitive ability may be better equipped to transfer their skills. The cognitive ability of the people being trained has one of the strongest relationships with training outcomes. 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.

In another study, Velada (2007) examined potential predictors of transfer of skills in a large grocery organization. Results indicated that training retention, a construct they related to cognitive ability, was significantly related to transfer of skills. Equally, strong evidence of the impact of cognitive ability on transfer of skills was found in an extensive meta-analysis based on two decades of training research by Colquitt (2000). The author reported a correlation coefficient between cognitive ability and transfer of skills.

More recently, Blume (2010) echoed these findings in another thorough meta-analytic review of the transfer literature. In his study, cognitive ability emerged as the single strongest predictor of transfer of skills. Overall, research on transfer of skills suggests that cognitive ability is crucial for transfer of skills. Those who are higher in cognitive ability are more likely to successfully acquire and transfer their skills.

Concerning self-efficacy, which is defined by Holton (2000) as an individual's general belief that they are able to change their performance, Bandura (1982) argues that the higher the employees' self-efficacy, the higher their ability to successfully acquire skills and transfer them to the job. In other words self-efficacy is a person's belief about whether he or she has the ability to perform a certain task. This is important because if trained employees do not believe they can learn from training or they can successfully use what they learn on the job, they likely will not. If employees are confident in their abilities, however, they will be more motivated to learn from training and to use their new knowledge and skills. The more motivated trainees are, the more they will transfer training. It is not surprising therefore, that self-efficacy has consistently shown positive relationships with transfer of skills. One example is a study that collected data at two points in time following training of workers and found that self-efficacy was significantly related to transfer of skills (Van der Klink, 2001). Similarly, Chiaburu and Lindsay (2008) also drew similar conclusions after investigating the role of self-efficacy in transfer of skills. It is important to note, however, that high self-efficacy might not unconditionally result in positive transfer of skills. Recent work has identified circumstances in which self-efficacy did not correlate with transfer of skills. For instance, a study by Vancouver and Kendall (2006) found that self-efficacy actually negatively related to motivation to transfer skills when it was examined at the individual level. Nevertheless, existing research continues to demonstrate the significance of self-efficacy in the transfer of skills process. In summary, the extant literature suggests that employees must believe in their ability to perform certain skills for them to successfully transfer their skills.

In terms of motivation, there is growing evidence that the level of employee motivation can have an effect on transfer of skill. Motivation 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 Chiaburu and Lindsay (2008) 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. Interestingly, however, they also found a positive relationship between motivation to learn, and motivation to transfer, suggesting that, motivation to transfer may still play an important, albeit indirect role. Similarly, Colquitt (2000) found a strong correlation between transfer of skills and motivation. Studies have also demonstrated the impact of motivation on transfer of skills. In addition, there are a number of theories which explain the relationship between motivation to transfer and transfer of skills. One such theory is Holton's Theory. This theory has dominated literature on transfer of skills (Burke and Hutchins, 2007). Holton's theory is a combination of expectancy, equity and goal setting theories. This theory suggests that expectancy, equity and goal setting theories deal with the component of individual perception which cannot be ignored when determining factors that either support or inhibit transfer of skills in an organisation. First, expectancy theory states that the tendency of an individual to act in a certain way depends on the strength of an expectation that the act will be followed by a given outcome and on the attractiveness of that outcome to the individual (Vroom, 1964). In other words, Vroom's expectancy theory states that an individual will perform certain actions if he or she perceives that such actions may bring valued outcomes. On the basis on this theory, Holton (2000) supports that the desire of an employee to transfer their skills to the job depends on how strongly they believe that their effort to apply skills in their job, will lead to valuable rewards. Second, equity theory is anchored on the simple premise that employees want to be treated fairly (Adams, 1963). On the basis of this

theory, Holton (2000) argues that if employees feel that by using their skills they will gain equity in pay or other sought-after rewards, there is a greater chance that they will transfer their skills to the job. Based on this theory, Holton (2000) argues that if employees identify any inequities in rewards, their motivation levels are affected and this situation may consequently affect their desire to transfer skills. Similarly, William (2008) reported that equity in rewards affects employee motivation and effort to transfer skills to the job. Third, the goal-setting theory states that self constructed goals, along with performance feedback and job autonomy, increases motivation levels of workers (Locke and Latham, 1981). Likewise, Noe (2004) argues that highly job-involved individuals are more likely to be motivated to transfer their skills. In terms of feedback, Cromwell (2002) contends that performance feedback helps employees understand the results of their work a key element for positive transfer of skills. Gist (1990) also contends that the absence of performance feedback to the employee reduces motivation levels among employees. Cromwell (2002) found that providing feedback to employees increases their motivational levels. Ford and Weissbein (1997) also found that employees who have job autonomy to be more motivated than those without. With respect to transfer of skills, Holton (2000) states that, employees who are involvement in constructing their own goals and receive feedback on their performance are more likely to have the desire to transfer their skills to the job.

Second, the design and facilitation of training has also been found to exert a significant influence on transfer of skills. Training design is defined as the degree to which training has been designed to meet the needs of employees (Holton et al., 2000). Long standing theories of identical elements, stimulus generalization and cognitive load, suggest that training must be designed in a manner conducive to employee needs and expectations. In terms of transfer of skills,

employees are more likely to apply their training knowledge when training design ensures that the learning content and materials used are similar to those used in the work setting (Axtell, 1997). In addition, practice and feedback are also critical aspects of effective training design and have been found to influence transfer of skills. Research by Lee and Kahnweiler (2000), using a post test-only control group found that providing training participants in the experimental group with feedback, resulted in significantly higher transfer scores on a work task than the control group.

Finally, after training, employees have to cope with the dynamics of the workplace environment that might support or inhibit the use of learned knowledge and skills. Work environment factors include transfer climate, social support from supervisors and peers, and the constraints on or opportunities for performing learned behaviors on the job. A good example of these work environment factors is provided by Rouillier and Goldstein (1993), who defined transfer climate as consisting of two categories: *situational cues* and *consequences*. Situational cues consist of things such as manager goals, peer support, equipment availability, and opportunity to practice trained skills. Consequences consist of punishment, as well as positive and negative feedback from both managers and peers when trainees attempt to apply the skills they learned in training. Foxon (1993) similarly argues that workplace environmental factors accounts for 42% of all the known factors inhibiting transfer of skills. These factors include among others, the behaviour of supervisors and peers, opportunity to use skills, equipment and rewards. Broad and Newstrom (1992) also contend that the common workplace environment related factors that influence transfer of skills include, supervisory and peer behaviours, opportunity to practice and rewards. Noe (2002) likewise argues that environmental factors influencing transfer of skills include supervisor support, peer support and opportunity to use acquired skills on the job tasks among

others. Equally, Baldwin (1988) holds the view that four dimensions of the work environment that have received attention with regard to transfer of skills include supervisor support, peer support and opportunity to use skills. Tracey (1995) similarly stressed the importance of equipment and opportunity to use skills as work environment variables that have a significant impact on transfer of skills. Holton (2000) likewise argues that some indicators of a favourable workplace environment for transfer of skills include supervisor support and peer support among others. Similarly Awoniyi (2002) in his study found supervisory support, sufficient resources such as equipment and freedom to decide how to accomplish tasks as factors responsible for transfer of skills. In summary, the common factors related to the workplace environment that have been found to facilitate transfer of skills include supervisor support, peer support, opportunity to use skills, equipment availability and rewards.

First, supervisor support, the extent to which the behaviors of supervisors reinforce the use of skills, is an important work environment variable influencing training transfer (Foxon, 1993). Similarly Holton argues that the failure of supervisors to encourage and reinforce application of the training on the job is the most commonly cited factor inhibiting transfer. It has been observed therefore, that the behaviour of supervisors actually reinforces the use of newly acquired knowledge and skills (Baldwin and Ford, 1988). Supervisors, therefore, are responsible for providing a conducive workplace environment for transfer of skills by exhibiting behaviours that promote transfer of skills. Such behaviours include but not limited to coaching, evaluating the performance of subordinates and providing performance feedback, involving subordinates in setting their goals, and providing job autonomy (Tannenbaum, 1992). Likewise, Nijiman (2006) argues that employees, who are coached by their supervisors, are more likely to apply skills. Similarly, studies by Brinkerhoff and Montesino (1995)

have shown that the extent of coaching encourage the use of newly acquired skills. Campbell and Cheek (1989) equally maintain that without coaching, the transfer of newly acquired skills and behaviours to the worksite would be extremely difficult for subordinates. Studies have also revealed that supervisor behaviours such as evaluating the performance employees and consequently providing performance feedback and job autonomy have positive effect on transfer of skills. For example, in their research, Elangovan and Karakowsky (1999) found behaviours by supervisors such as conducting performance evaluation and providing feedback to subordinates to positively facilitate transfer of skills. Similarly, Axtell (1997) found that employees who had been granted job autonomy by their supervisors, sustained application of trained skills. Axtell (1997) also found job autonomy to have the strongest effect on longer term transfer of skills. In other words, employees having more control over the way they work may find more opportunities to use new skills compared with people with less autonomy in their respective jobs. Yamnill et al. (2005) (1984) also found that behaviours by supervisors such as involving employees in setting goals and allowing them to determine ways of executing their duties, increases the likelihood of transfer of skills. In summary, the behaviour of supervisors can have a significant impact on the transfer of skills.

Regarding peer support, Foxon (1993) argues that the behaviour of peers has also been found to positively influence transfer of skills. In other words, peers or workmates are also responsible for creating a workplace environment conducive for transfer of skills by exhibiting behaviours which promote transfer of skills. Such behaviours include among others knowledge sharing and team work (Richey, 1990). Knowledge sharing in this context refers to the exchange of ideas about work experiences. Lim and Johnson (2002) contend that knowledge sharing among peers reinforces the use of skills on the job. The

influence of knowledge sharing on transfer of skills is stronger especially when peers operate on the same task or in the same department (Holton, 2000). According to Bates (2000) the more employees share their knowledge, the greater the transfer of skills. Empirical studies have also found a positive relationship between knowledge sharing and transfer of skills. For example, Bates (1998) investigated various factors that impact transfer of computer skills acquired after training and found that knowledge sharing, among other factors, accounted for positive transfer of skills. Similarly, Awoniyi (2002) found a significant relationship between team work and transfer of skills. Hawley and Barnard (2005) also found team work and knowledge sharing by peers as factors responsible for transfer of skills.

In terms of opportunity to use skills, Cohen (1990) supports the view that when employees have more opportunities to apply what they have learned in their jobs, a larger amount of their skills is transferred. Ford and Baldwin (1988) also relate transfer of skills to the extent to which trainees are given the opportunity to perform trained tasks on the job. Opportunity to perform actually enables trained employees with to use their skills on the job (Holton, 2000). Therefore, providing employees with more opportunities to use their skills can increase chances of effective transfer of skills. Foxon (1993) equally supports that when employees do not obtain work experiences for which they were trained, transfer of skill is limited. Similarly, Huccynski (1980) supports that opportunity to use acquired skills, is enhanced by allowing employees to obtain work experiences which are relevant to their previous training. Research also consistently shows that lack of opportunities to use skills can seriously inhibit the use of trained competencies on the job. For example, Clarke (2002) found lack of opportunity to perform skills on the job as the strongest barrier to positive transfer of skills. Comparably, the lack opportunity to use trained skills was rated as the biggest obstacle to transfer of skills in a

study conducted by Lim (2002). In their study, Lim and Johnson (2002) demonstrated that the provision of opportunities to use skills enhances transfer of skills.

Lack of equipment might also constrain the use of skills acquired during training on the job (Foxon, 1993). A workplace environment with adequate equipment helps to assure trained employees about the application of acquired knowledge (Rouiller and Goldstein, 1993). Similarly, Foxon (1993) argues that the availability of equipment in the workplace environment, determines that extent to which employees transfer of their skills. Richey (1990) also argues that constraints in the workplace environment such as lack of equipment, reduces the employee's ability to use their skills and subsequently preventing transfer of skills. Tziner (1991) likewise found that an infrastructure supportive workplace environment increases transfer of skills. Equally, in his study, Noe (2004) concluded that employees with adequate equipment had more opportunities to use a variety of their skills acquired in their training. Similarly, the work by Tannenbaum (1992) finds situational constraints such as inadequate equipment to limit the transfer of skills to the work environment.

Finally, rewards continue to emerge as another variable associated with the workplace environment factors responsible for transfer of skills. Holton (2000) found that without rewards, even skilled employees will not be motivated to transfer their skills to the job. Noe (2004) similarly found that rewards such as pay to have a significant impact of motivation to transfer skills. Equally, Kontoghiorghes (2001) reported that adequate pay increase the motivation levels of employees to transfer skills.

It is also worth noting that while the forgoing literature provides insight into factors responsible transfer of skills, a critical review of such literature reveals serious gaps. In other words, although transfer of learning was among the very first issues addressed by early

psychologists, there are several inconsistent and conflicting findings in the transfer literature. For instance, there is need for the operationalisation of the key variables responsible for transfer of skills. Similarly, Baldwin and Ford (1988) observe that progress on research on environmental factors responsible for transfer of skills, requires the operationalisation of key variables such as supervisory support at a level of specificity that allows for testing their effects on transfer of skills. Another important area requiring attention regarding workplace environment factors influencing transfer of skills is the level of analysis. For instance, the existing literature does not take into account studying level of support available to various work groups within an organization. It rather focuses on the correlation of employees' perception of the supervisory support and its influence on transfer of training. Third, although strides have been made on understanding factors related to the workplace environment which are known to prevent transfer of skills, there remains sporadic methodological rigor, particularly in the overreliance of perceptual data and use of limited methodological and analytical approaches. In fact, most studies on transfer of skills are based secondary data. Ford and Wessbein (1997) also contend that more analytical field investigations into uncovering specific variables which influence transfer of skills must be undertaken. Forth, some of the recent studies do not report consistent outcomes and/or do not provide strong evidence for valid causality. For example, Tziner (1991) found that supportive environment alone could not influence employees' use of trained skills. Rouiller and Goldstein (1993), using a sample of managers of fast-food restaurants to study the effect of the workplace environment on transfer of skills found that the workplace environment was not significantly related to transfer of skills. Cheng and Ho (2001) also reported conflicting findings related to organizational support. They noted that while 10 studies found positive relationships between organizational support and transfer outcomes, 2

studies found negative relationships, and 5 studies found that the link was non-significant. Burke and Hutchins further described the mixed findings for the impact of trainee interventions on training transfer.

However, despite these gaps in the literature on transfer of skills, much academic writing on transfer of skills supports the view that for organizations to maximize their return on investments in training, they need to focus on the following determinants of transfer of skills: training design, individual characteristics and the workplace environment.

Review of Academics Works on Local Authorities in Zambia

As already stated, it was imperative to review existing academic works on local authorities in Zambia in order to avoid the temptation of reinventing the wheel. The literature review also enriched the study not only by guiding us on the selection of appropriate research instruments but also on the areas of investigation to focus on. Our study, therefore, benefited from the following previous academic works:

Loljih (2008) investigated the performance of local authorities with regard to administration and service delivery during Zambia's Third Republic. Using a case study approach, three councils namely the LCC, Choma Municipal Council and Luwingu District Council participated in the survey. He argues that the performance of the three councils with regard to the delivery of public was far below expectations. He raised a number of issues which have affected the performance of the councils surveyed such as lack of finance, retrogressive and ill timed policies, calibre of councillors and poor working relations among others. Regarding the problem of finance, he points out that the councils have not developed a culture of being independent from Central Government funding. He further points out that the local authorities have exhibited the lack of initiative to execute economic activities that can enhance their revenue base with a view to freeing themselves from the financial dependence on Central

Government. He endorses the view that retrogressive and ill-timed policies and directives constitute another constraint in the operation of the local authorities. For example, he argues that government directive to sell council houses and the policy to transfer the responsibility to provide water and sewerage services and collect road tax from councils to companies have narrowed the revenue base of councils thereby diminishing the capacity of the councils to raise sufficient revenue required to provide quality services. He stresses that the situation has been worsened by Central Government's failure to honour its obligation in terms of paying the level of government support which the council had been advised to include in the budget. The council either receives an amount far less than what was promised or does not receive anything at all. Lolojih (2008) points out that apart from the erratic and inadequate support from Central Government, the local authority faces difficulties in collecting what belongs to it for various reasons. His study also revealed that resistance from the residents to pay and the failure by the council to up-date regularly the Valuation Roll constitute the major constraints associated with revenue collection. In addition, Lolojih (2008) argues that the calibre of councillors in the councils surveyed, leaves much to be desired, in his study, he reports that about 75% of the appointed staff in the three councils had a Grade 12 or even a Bachelor's degree as compared to only 22% of the councillors who had Grade 12 as the highest level of education. He argues that poor working relations among the councillors and between the councillors and appointed officials have also characterised the administration of the three councils. He observes that many councillors seem to be preoccupied with the idea of being the employers and have consequently tended to overemphasise their authority to the dismay of many appointed officials. Whereas Lolojih's (2008) study is informative especially about financial challenges faced by local authorities, he did not look at specific details of capacity building of human resources with

reference to transfer of training. This study sought to narrow this knowledge gap.

Also written in a scholarly fashion, is the theses titled 'the impact of the 1980 Local Government Act on the administration of local authorities' written by Mukwena (2002). He evaluated the 1980 Local Government Act with a view to establishing its contribution to the administration of local authorities and service delivery. He revealed what may be considered as policy contradiction on the part of Central Government. On one hand, government pronounces its desire to enhance popular participation in Local Government and to ensure that councils play a significant role in development process and yet on the other, the legislation embraces features that greatly undermine its desired objectives. He stresses that on December 13, 1972, Zambia was proclaimed a one party state thereby granting the ruling United National Independence Party (UNIP) constitutional supremacy over the administrative machinery, including Local Government. He argues that following the introduction of the one party system, party membership and loyalty became very important considerations in appointments to senior Local Government positions, resulting in the appointment of ill-qualified and incompetent staff to key Local Government positions. He further argues that the supremacy of the party over the administrative machinery also opened avenues for rampant political interference in council operations and financial mismanagement. He points out that political interference led to a decline in the capacity of councils to provide essential services to the communities they served. He further points out that the decline in the national economic performance in the mid-1970s reduced the funding available for public expenditure, including Local Government, hence contributing to the decline in the capacity of local authorities to provide services. He argues that the decline in the institutional capacity of local authorities in Zambia was further worsened in the 1980s by the imposition of inappropriate Local

Government structures under the 1980 Act. For instance, he points out that the merging of the local party structure with the local council opened avenues for rampant financial mismanagement and diversion of council resources to party activities. Like other academic works reported above, Mukwena (2002) did not address the issue of transfer of skills in councils. His study, generally concentrates on the impact of the legal framework on local authorities. Therefore, this study does provide adequate information to answer the research questions for our study.

As regards the problems faced by councils on the Copperbelt province, Mulenga's (1999) study is worth reporting. The sample elements for the study were selected using cluster sampling. The country was divided into nine provinces and then the Copperbelt province was selected. Thereafter, a random sample of councils on the Copperbelt was taken and four councils namely: Ndola, Kitwe, Mufulira and Kalulushi councils were selected. He points out that the major problems faced by councils include (1) poor financial position (2) political interference (3) large labour workforce and (4) lack of equipment. He identifies the problem of finance as a major factor affecting the operations of councils. He argues that grants from the Central Government are irregular and inadequate and usually not even enough to meet salaries of workers. He further argues that not only are the government grants inadequate but the local capacity by councils to raise finances had been reduced following the government policy in 1997 that directed councils to among others things stop collecting license fees, road tax and house rents. He states that councils are only depending on funds raised mainly from property rates. Second, he indicates that councils do not operate freely because of interference from politicians and government. He noted that many times when councils took action, politicians interfered. He gave an example of what had happened in August 1999, where the Kitwe City Council had disconnected water supply to all primary schools in the city because

they owed K4billion. However, the Minister of Education intervened and water supply had been reconnected to the primary schools. He points out that the Local Government Act 1991 has some ambiguities which have affected the operations of councils. The Act is not clear about the relationship between councils, the Local Government Service Commission and the Ministry of Local Government and Housing. He stresses that the Act gave too much power to the Minister responsible for Local Government. Minister had powers to even dissolve the council. He further stresses that the Local Government Act has holes especially regarding the qualifications for someone to be eligible to stand for councillorship. He points out that the Act does not state the minimum qualifications that someone needs to have in order to stand as a councillor. He further points out that as a result of stating the qualifications, councillors do not fully understand their roles in the running of councils. Mulenga (2009) also argues that that councillors need to understand their role such as policy formulation among others. His study also revealed that the councils surveyed had a large work force which was de-motivated. He points that some councils only have qualified manpower in top management while those in middle management lacks qualified human resource. He argues that councils have been failing to pay qualified manpower because of poor conditions of service. Finally, his study revealed that Councils lack technical equipment like computers which can greatly improve their operations. He points out that although Councils have plant and machinery for road maintenance, these machines are obsolete. The study by Mulenga (1999) brings to light challenges faced by the Councils on the Copperbelt province. Many studies on local authorities in Zambia have been undertaken in Lusaka province. Thus, his study provides insight into the experiences of Councils in the Copperbelt province. However, his study was not designed to investigate the status of the Councils regarding the prevalence of barriers that influence transfer of skills.

Moreover, the LCC was not part of the local authorities investigated. Therefore his study falls short of information which could adequately provide answers to our research questions.

More literature on local authorities is contained in Momba's (2002) study who examines financial management practices exhibited by council employees. The study sample was 450 respondents selected from LCC and Chongwe District Council. Momba (2002) argues that poor accounting systems and lack of receipting among others as factors contributing to poor service delivery. He further argues that the critical shortage of funding has led to another major problem facing councils: poor salaries and erratic payment of wages and salaries for employees. He points out that as a result of the critical shortage of money almost all the councils have not been able to pay their employees regularly. He states that in a number of councils, employees had gone for over six months without being paid leading to serious industrial unrest in the councils and leading to generally very low morale among the council workers, and low morale, has been one of the factors leading to the low delivery capacity of councils. He further states that poor service delivery is also caused by the problem of unqualified manpower. He stresses that because of the low salaries, councils are not able to attract qualified manpower. He argues that this situation is one of the huge problems that councils face in their delivery of public services since qualified personnel are a key in the efficient running of any institution. The problem of poor service delivery by councils has led to the development of very negative attitude by the general population towards the local authorities. He points out that generally residents have very low regard for the councils. This is reflected in their contemptuous attitude towards their councillors, the mayor and council operations in general. The poor turn up in the Local Government elections is one of the major indications of the low opinion that the councils have among the residents. Although Momba (2002) examined views of employees in

councils, his focus was largely on financial management practices and not on factors supporting or inhibiting transfer of skills. However, our study benefited greatly from Momba's work in that it enriched our understanding of issues pertaining to financial management practices in councils and their impact on service delivery.

Others who have investigated on local authorities but not on the premise of this study include, Muntungwa (2011) who examined fiscal decentralisation on service deliver at the LCC. The study was both descriptive and explanatory in terms of its design. The objective of his study was to examine the effectiveness of fiscal decentralisation on service delivery by the LCC. He argues that LCC collects less revenue than the cost of services to be provided. He indentifies problems faced by the LCC to include Lack of capital investment, poor work culture, inadequate qualified manpower, poor council management, political interference, Central Government interference and bureaucratic delays and poor attitude by the local people towards the well being of the city. He points out the people of Lusaka City are either unsatisfied or very unsatisfied with the services delivered in their localities by LCC. He argues that the inability of councils to provide services, which the residents are fully aware that the councils should provide, has created enormous problems for the councils in relation to the residents. He reports that the majority of the residents in Lusaka have questioned the rationale for their paying personal levy when the councils are not doing anything for them. He further reports that property owners in particular seem to be the unhappiest in view of what they consider very high rates for no services from the councils. He argues that the major difficulties, exterior to the council, are political interference; Central Government interference and bureaucratic delays; and poor attitude of the local people towards the wellbeing of the city. He points out that political interference is seen in the undue criticism of the councillors from opposing groups and individuals. He further points out that Central

Government interference is partly seen in the tendering process, for instance, through offering projects to contractors favoured by central authorities as opposed to those preferred by the local authority. He argues that the LCC does not have adequate equipment. The council lacks adequate equipment, transport and materials to effectively deliver services to the people of Lusaka. For example, his study revealed that council has neither materials nor equipment to do road patches. He argues that workers have capacity in terms of technique but lack adequate resources. He endorses the point of view that there is generally poor a work-culture at the LCC coupled with delay in the provision of services. He argues that among other tendencies associated with poor work-culture were reporting late for work, early exit, using council time to do private activities and loitering. With the exception of a few instances, the study by Muntungwa (2011) does not provide adequate answers to the research questions of our study. In other words, his study provides insufficient information on the status of the LCC regarding the prevalence of barriers known to prevent transfer of skills. Our study on the contrary, was specifically designed to examine the status of the LCC in terms of the prevalence of the barriers related to the workplace environment known to prevent transfer of skills.

According to Chongwe (1994), people's participation in public affairs in their respective countries is amply demonstrated in the management and governance of local councils. He argues that the local councils typify the grassroots representation of the people in any given country. He further argues that if government of the people, by the people, and for the people is to be achieved, it will be at the Local Government level, where every adult is afforded an opportunity to participate in public affairs. He points out that without participation at the local level, there can be no democracy at the national level. He further points out that people's power and participation are fundamentally related to Local Government. He states that, the Local

Government Act of 1991 recreated and strengthened the desire of the Zambian people to exercise their universal franchise in Local Government. He however, points out that the major problems facing councils in Zambia can be attributed to either poor funding or poor management. In terms of funding, he argues that the financing of Local Government in Zambia raises issues that need immediate attention. He argues that councils need to have more sources of income. He identifies the major sources of council revenue as: property rates; personal levy; water and sewerage charges (which are now a responsibility of private companies) rent, fees and levies; income from commercial undertakings; loans for capital projects; and grants or intergovernmental transfers. He further argues that if the councils could be responsible for collecting these sources of income, their financial base would be broadened. Regarding management, he stresses that qualified personnel are the keys to successful management of any organization. He argues that the success of a district council will to a large extent depend on the finances available and on having competent personnel to manage financial resources prudently. Chongwe's work helped to enhance our understanding of the notion that Zambia's Local Government system is faced with financial problems as noted in his statement, "The major problems facing Local Government in Zambia, however, can be attributed to either poor funding or poor management." His work also enhanced our knowledge about the various sources of local revenue in Zambia. However, his study did not focus on the status of the councils regarding the prevalence of barriers that prevent transfer of skills.

The other literature was written by Okello (1990) who focused on the need for district councils to have financial resources for effective and efficient performance. He argues that the introduction of the financial arrangement under the Local Government Administrations Act (1980) was an attempt by the government to reverse the financial crisis faced by councils. The aim of the financial arrangement was to enable

councils to generate or raise revenue from as many sources as possible with a view to achieving eventual financial autonomy. Thus, according to the financial arrangement, councils had many sources of income including borrowing, various levies, profits from commercial ventures, rates, rents, government grants and government loans. Okello's work however helped to broaden our understanding of the genesis of the current major sources of revenue for LCC by giving a historical background of the same. However, his study does not provide information on the prevalence of barriers to transfer of skills in local authorities.

Lessons Learned from Previous Academic Works

A number of lessons are drawn from the foregoing academic works. First, the study by Lolojih (2008) enriched our understanding of the performance of local authorities with regard to administration and service delivery during Zambia's Third Republic. We learn that during this period that a number of problems have affected the performance of the councils countrywide including the LCC. Such problems include as lack of finance, retrogressive and ill timed policies, calibre of councillors and poor working relations among others. In terms of finance we learn that councils have not developed a culture of being independent from Central Government funding. We also now know that local authorities have exhibited the lack of initiative to execute economic activities that can enhance their revenue base with a view to freeing themselves from the financial dependence on Central Government. It has also been revealed that that retrogressive and ill-timed policies and directives constitute another constraint in the operation of the local authorities. For example, the government directive to sell council houses and the policy to transfer the responsibility to provide water and sewerage services and collect road tax from councils to companies have narrowed the revenue base of councils thereby diminishing the capacity of the

councils to raise sufficient revenue required to provide quality services. This situation had been worsened by Central Government's failure to honour its obligation in terms of paying the level of government support which the council had been advised to include in the budget. We are now informed that the councils investigated in his study either received an amount far less than what was promised or did not receive anything at all. Lolojih's (2008) study also informs that residents resist paying for council services because they do not get the value for paying. We are further informed that the LCC and other councils investigated in his study did not up-date their Valuation Roll regularly. It has been brought to light that the calibre of councillors in the councils leaves much to be desired. Most councillors have very humble qualifications. We also learn that poor working relations among the councillors and between appointed officials had characterised the administration of councils. Many councillors seem to be preoccupied with the idea of being the employers and have consequently tended to overemphasise their authority to the dismay of many appointed officials.

In terms of the impact of the 1980 Local Government Act on the administration of local authorities and service delivery. We learn from Mukwena (2002) that the legislation embraced features that greatly undermined the local authorities. For instance, the Act politicised the councils because party membership and loyalty became very important considerations in appointments to senior Local Government positions, resulting in the appointment of ill-qualified and incompetent staff to key Local Government positions. The supremacy of the party over the administrative machinery also opened avenues for rampant political interference in council operations and financial mismanagement.

Other important lessons are drawn from the works of Mulenga (1999). We learn from his works that Central Government grants for local authorities on the Copperbelt from the Central Government were irregular and inadequate and usually not even enough to meet salaries

of workers. We further learn that not only were the government grants inadequate but the local capacity by councils to raise finances had been reduced following the government policy in 1997 that directed councils to among other things stop collecting license fees, road tax and house rents. As a result, councils were only depending on funds raised mainly from property rates. We are informed from his study that that councils on the copperbelt did not operate freely because of interference from politicians and government. We learn that the Local Government Act 1991 has holes especially regarding the qualifications for someone to be eligible to stand for councillorship. For instance, the Act does not state the minimum qualifications that someone needs to have in order to stand as a councillor. In addition, councillors do not understand their role such as policy formulation among others.

More lessons are drawn from scholarly works by Momba (2002). His study informs that poor accounting systems and lack of receipting by councils in Lusaka Province had contributed to poor service delivery of the councils surveyed in his study. Similar to other studies, we learn from Momba (2002) that inadequate funding led to poor salaries and erratic payment of wages in councils. Because of the low salaries, councils were not able to attract qualified manpower. We learn that poor service delivery is also caused by the problem of unqualified manpower. This situation was one of the huge problems that councils faced in their delivery of public services since qualified personnel are a key in the efficient running of any institution. Our study is informed that poor service delivery by councils has led to the development of very negative attitude by the general population towards the local authorities. We further learn that generally residents had very low regard for the councils that were investigated.

Our study also benefited from Muntungwa (2011) who examined fiscal decentralisation on service delivery at the LCC. We learn from this study that LCC collected less revenue than the cost of services to be

provided. We further learn that the people of Lusaka City were either unsatisfied or very unsatisfied with the services delivered in their localities by LCC. The majority of the residents in Lusaka questioned the rationale for their paying personal levy when the councils were not doing anything for them. In addition, property owners in particular seemed to be the unhappiest in view of what they consider very high rates for no services from the councils. We also informed that the LCC does not have adequate equipment. The council lacked adequate equipment, transport and materials to effectively deliver services to the people of Lusaka. While the workers had the capacity in terms of technique they did not have adequate equipment. We learn that there was generally a poor work-culture at the LCC coupled with delay in the provision of services.

Important lessons are also learned from Chongwe (1994) who reveals that the major problems facing councils in Zambia were attributed to either poor funding or poor management. We learn from his study that the success of a district council in Zambia will to a large extent depend on the finances available and most importantly on having competent personnel to manage financial resources prudently.

In Okello's (1990) study we are informed of the various sources of income for councils. For instance, he identified the sources of income for councils to include borrowing locally, personal levy, rates, rents, water and sewerage, government grants, government loans and profits from commercial undertakings. He informs that councils need more sources of income to enable carryout their duties effectively and efficiently.

In conclusion, two major lessons are drawn from the previous academic works on local authorities in Zambia. First, we learn that regardless of their size and location, local authorities have similar challenges. But most importantly, with the exception of few instances, none of the studies reviewed provides adequate information to answer

the research questions for our study. In other words, until this study, there was no study which provided adequate information on the status of the workplace environment at the LCC regarding the prevalence of barriers known to prevent transfer of skills. Therefore the question: what is the status of the LCC regarding the prevalence of workplace environmental barriers known to prevent transfer of skills could not be adequately answered by the existing scholarly works on local authorities in Zambia. For this reason, it was imperative to undertake this in order to provide more information on the prevalence of workplace environmental barriers at the LCC.

Methodology

Study Design

This study was descriptive in terms of its design. It was descriptive in that it provided an account on the status the LCC regarding the prevalence of workplace environmental barriers of barriers known to prevent transfer of skills. This design was also adopted because the aim of the study was not to examine any relationships between the variables investigated. In other words, no examination of some potential cause or effect relationships between variables was investigated.

Population and Sample Size

The sampling frame for the study was all non-management LCC employees on the council payroll. The total number of employees on the payroll was 806 out of which 200 employees were selected using systematic sampling method. This sampling method was used because it gave every employee on the payroll an equal chance of being selected Van dev Merwe (1996). In addition, this sampling method is appropriate in situations where the sampling frame is available and the elements are serially numbered. In this case, the council payroll was used as a sampling frame and every 4th candidate on the payroll was selected. The

LCC has eight departments namely Finance, Public Health, Physical Planning, Administration, Legal Services, Community Development, Engineering and Real Estate.

Sources of Data

The data for this study was gathered from two sources namely primary and secondary sources. A field survey was undertaken to collect data from primary sources. This data was collected through interacting with the respondents who provided answers to various questions asked relating to the topic under investigation. A desktop survey on the other hand was employed to gather data from secondary sources such as previous reports.

Method of Data Collection

Both quantitative and qualitative data were collected. In order to achieve this, a questionnaire with closed ended questions was administered to 200 workers who were selected using systematic sampling. On the other hand, an interview guide with open ended questions was used to collect in-depth information from a few informants among the 200 workers. The selection of these informants was based on the years of experience among other factors.

Analyses of Data

As stated earlier, the study was descriptive in nature with no attempt to examine the any relationships of the variables investigated. Therefore, single variable analysis was employed to analyse quantitative data. Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) was used to generate frequency distributions on each variable measured. Qualitative data were analyzed manually using the narrative approach. The typical views (statements or expressions) of the interviewees were presented in narrative form.

Ethical Considerations

Permission was sought from LCC management before collecting data from the respondents. All the respondents were asked to give consent to participate in the study voluntarily. In addition, the respondents were informed about the purpose of research in which they were requested to participate. In addition, the respondents were instructed to answer the questions on anonymity terms. This was done in order to protect their privacy.

Organisation of the Dissertation

The paper is divided into three chapters. Following chapter one (1) which has provided the introduction and background of the study, the conceptual framework, literature review and the methodology of the study is chapter two (2) which presents the findings. Finally chapter three (3) contains the conclusions, recommendations and suggests direction for future research.

CHAPTER TWO

FINDINGS ON THE PREVALENCE OF WORKPLACE ENVIRONMENTAL BARRIERS KNOWN TO PREVENT TRANSFER OF SKILLS

Introduction

As stated in chapter one, the objectives of the study was to investigate the prevalence of the workplace environment related barriers known to prevent transfer of skills at the LCC. Notwithstanding other workplace environmental barriers known to prevent transfer of skills, this study focused on barriers related to: (1) the behaviour of supervisors and peers (2) opportunity to use skills (3) equipment (4) rewards. As mentioned earlier, the study was descriptive in nature. Thus, only single variable analysis was performed in analysing the data collected. The findings for each variable investigated are as follows:

The Behaviour of Supervisors

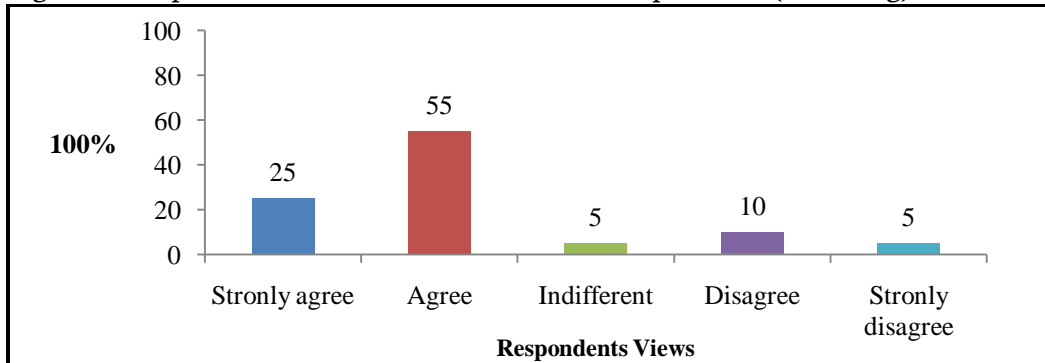
As stated earlier, the behavior of supervisors can either inhibit or promote transfer of skills. Behaviors such as coaching subordinates, evaluating the performance of subordinates, providing feedback, providing job autonomy and involving subordinates in setting goals, have been known to promote transfer of skills. Thus, the behaviour of supervisors in our study was analysed based on these variables as shown below.

Behaviour of Supervisors towards Coaching

Coaching according to this study means the supervisor helping subordinates to overcome obstacles in achieving their goals by guiding them. Therefore, in order to determine the behaviour of supervisors towards coaching, respondents were asked to indicate their level of agreement or disagreement with the statement that their supervisors provide guidance and help them to overcome obstacles in achieving their goals on a likert scale ranging from Strongly Agree to Strongly

Disagree. Figure 1, shows the percentage distribution of respondent's views over coaching.

Figure 1: Respondents Views on Assistance from Supervisors (Coaching)



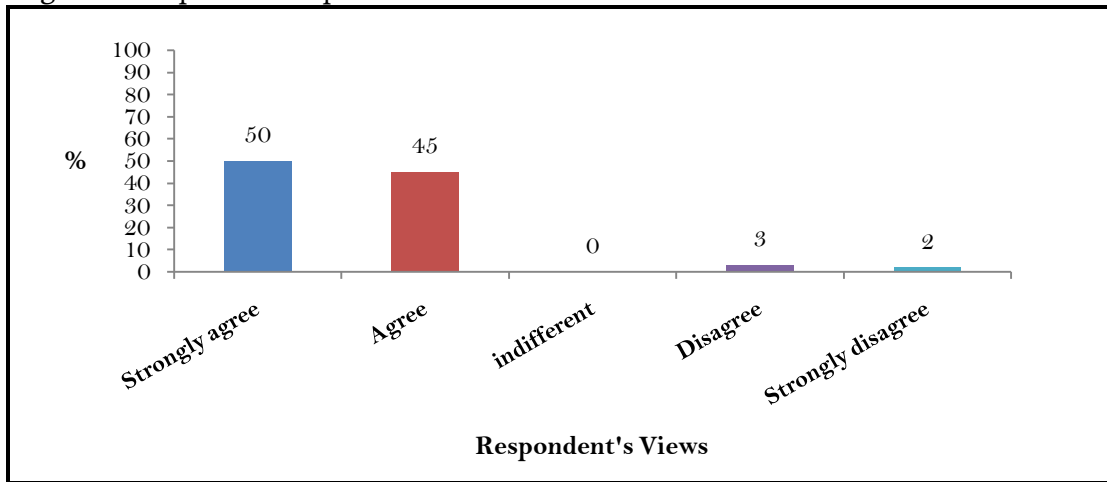
Source: Field data

Figure 1, shows that the majority of the respondents represented by fifty five percent (55%) agreed and twenty five percent (25%) of the respondents strongly agreed with the statement. Figure 1, further shows that five percent (5%), ten percent (10%), five percent (5%) remained indifferent, disagreed while other respondents strongly disagreed respectively. When asked about the attitude of supervisors towards coaching, one of the interviewees from the Legal Department stated that: “My supervisor guides me on how to carry out my duties. He is always available for advice.”

The Behaviour of Supervisors towards Performance Evaluation and Feedback

In this dissertation, performance evaluation refers to the regular appraisal of the performance of the employees by their supervisors. In order to examine the behaviour of supervisors towards performance appraisal and feedback, the respondents were asked to indicate their level of agreement or disagreement with the statement that their performance is not regularly appraised on a likert scale ranging from Strongly Agree to Strongly Disagree. Figure 2 shows the percentage distribution of the respondent's views on performance evaluation and feedback.

Figure 2: Respondents Opinion on Performance Evaluation & Feedback



Source: Field data

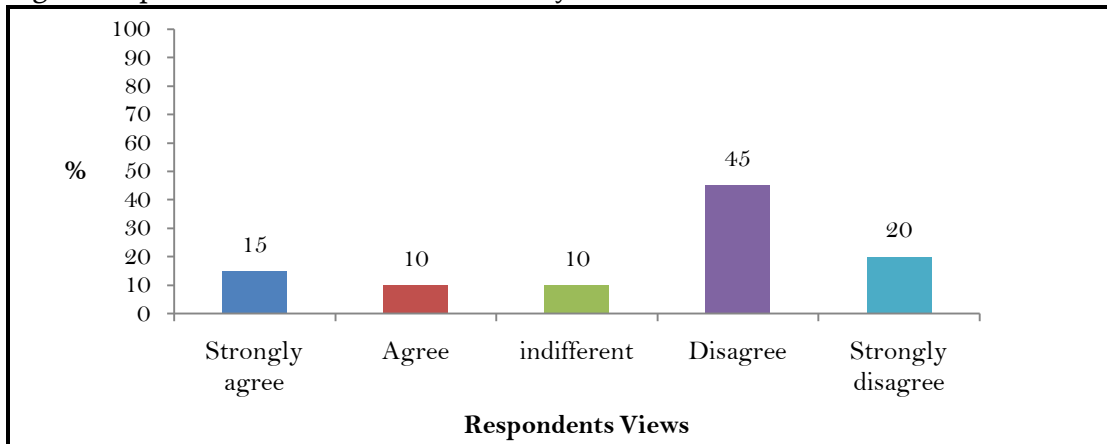
As can be seen from Figure 2, the majority of the respondents, representing fifty percent (50%) strongly agreed with the statement. The second largest group of respondents, representing forty five percent (45%) were also in agreement with the statement. Figure 2 further shows that only three percent (3%) and two percent (2%) of the respondents disagreed and strongly disagreed with the statement respectively. One of the employees interviewed from Administration Department said that: “Performance appraisal is not usually conducted so most of us do not know whether or not we are performing well. Every person has weaknesses and strengths which must be known through appraising employees. I think it is important to have a continuous process of appraising the performance of employees.”

The Behaviour of Supervisors towards Job Autonomy

Job autonomy in this study has been defined as the freedom given to employees by their supervisors to plan their work and determine how to carry it out. In order to know whether or not employees have job autonomy, the respondents were asked to indicate their level of agreement or disagreement with the statement that their supervisors gives them the freedom to schedule their work and determine the procedures to be used in carrying it out on a likert scale

ranging from Strongly Agree to Strongly Disagree. Figure 3 shows the percentage distribution of the respondent's views on this matter.

Fig. 3: Respondents Views on Job Autonomy



Source: Field data

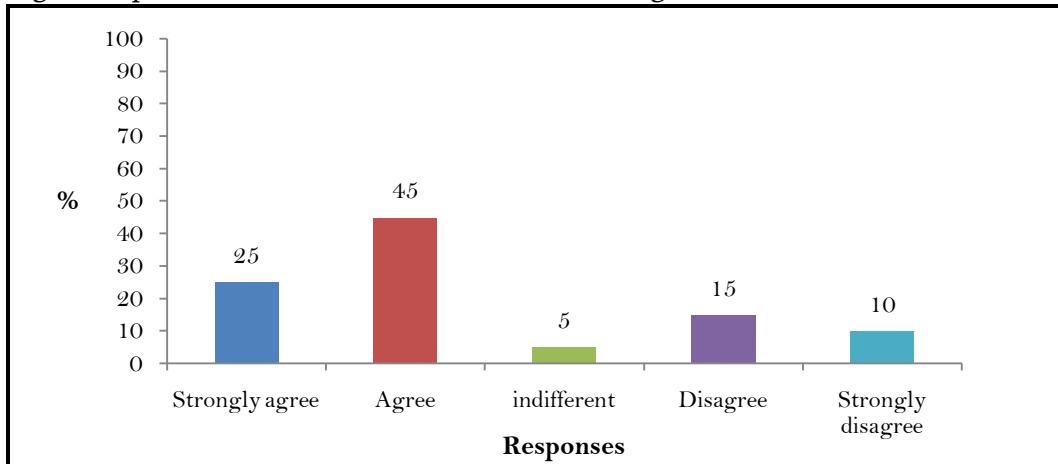
Figure 3, depicts that the majority of the respondents, representing forty five percent (45%) disagreed with the statement. Figure 3, also shows that twenty percent (20%) of the respondents strongly disagreed with the statement. Further, the Figure 3 shows that fifteen percent (15%), ten percent (10%), ten (10%) of the respondents, strongly agreed, agreed and others remained indifferent respectively. The sentiments of one of the employees interviewed from Finance Department are worth noting. The employee among other things disclosed that: “You have to do everything according to procedure. Without approval by the boss, you cannot go ahead and do anything. I have to ask my boss what should be done and how it must be done.”

The Behavior of Supervisors towards Involvement in Setting Goals

Involvement in setting goals in this paper refers to the extent to which employees participate in formulating their own goals. In order to know whether or not employees were involved in setting goals, respondents were asked to indicate their level of agreement or disagreement with the statement that they were not involved in setting their own goals on likert scale ranging from Strong Agree to Strongly

Disagree. Figure 4 shows the percentage distribution of respondent's views on involvement in setting goals.

Fig.4: Respondent's Views on Involvement in Setting Goals



Source: Field data

Figure 4, shows that the majority of the respondents, represented by forty five percent (45%), twenty five percent (25%) agreed and strongly agreed with the statement respectively. Figure 4, further shows that five percent (5%) of the respondents remained indifferent whereas as fifteen percent (15%), ten percent (10%) disagreed and strongly disagreed with the statement respectively. An employee interviewed from the Real Estate Department stated that: “I am not usually consulted when setting goals for the department. My boss usually makes decisions alone. I am just told what the plan is for the day and I do what it is needed to be done. In the past, we started having meetings where we agreed on the departmental plans. This was a good idea but now we have stopped.”

Discussion of Findings on the Behaviour of Supervisors

The forgoing findings on the behavior of supervisors indicate that some supervisors exhibit behaviors which do not enhance transfer of skills. It is imperative, however, to note that there are other behaviors exhibited by supervisors which promote transfer of skills which were not explored in this study. However, in the context of this study and on the

basis of the behaviors investigated, the results indicate that some supervisors exhibit behaviors that do not promote transfer of skills. Such behaviors include: not involving subordinates in setting goals, not providing job autonomy and not assessing the performance of their subordinates let alone provide feedback on their performance. The study has also revealed that some supervisors exhibit behaviors that promote transfer of skills. For instance, this study has shown that the majority of the respondents were of the opinion that their supervisors coach them. As shown in figure 1, the majority of the respondents were of the view that they were coached by their supervisors. Coaching as already explained, enhances transfer of skills. This is achieved through among other ways clarifying the objectives of the subordinates and assisting them to overcome any shortcomings in their performance. It is salient to state that the findings of this study regarding the behavior of supervisors are not comparable to what has been reported in the previous academic works on local authorities in Zambia. This is not unusual because as stated earlier, academic works on local authorities in Zambia focusing on transfer of skills have been neglected. Our study therefore, has extended current knowledge on local authorities regarding the behavior of supervisors towards coaching, job autonomy performance evaluation and employee involvement.

Findings on the Behaviour of Peers

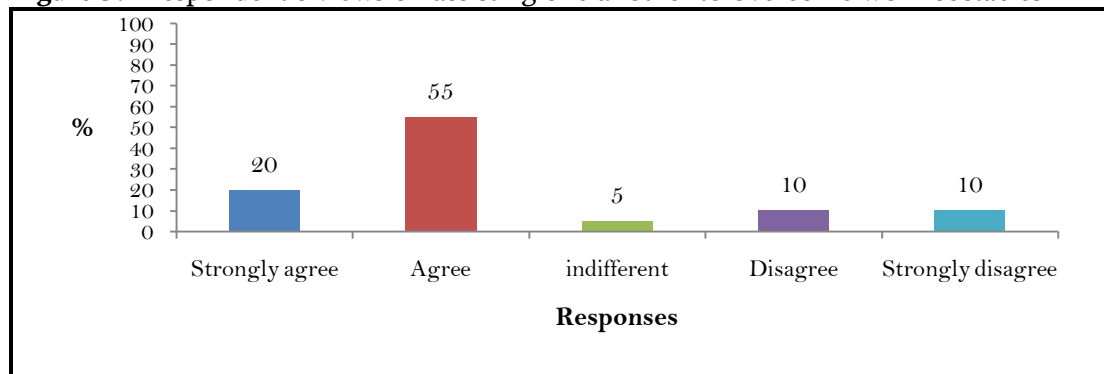
Similar to the behaviour of supervisors, the behaviour of peers can either promote or inhibit transfer of skills. Behaviours such as team work and knowledge sharing have been found to have a strong influence on transfer of skills (Foxon, 1993). In this study therefore, the behaviours analysed to determine the extent to which peers exhibit behaviours which are known to promote transfer of skills include (a) team work and (b) knowledge sharing. In this study, team work is defined as peers helping each other to overcome work challenges rather

than competing with each other. Knowledge sharing on the other hand is defined as peers sharing ideas on work experiences with their colleagues. The findings on these two behaviours are as follows:

The Behaviour of Peers towards Team Work

In order to examine the extent to which peers assist one another in overcoming performance obstacles, the respondents were asked to indicate their level of agreement or disagreement with the statement that they help one another to overcome work challenges and do not compete with each other on a likert scale ranging from strongly agree to strongly disagree. Figure 5 shows the distribution of the respondent’s views on this matter.

Figure 5: Respondent’s views on assisting one another to overcome work obstacles



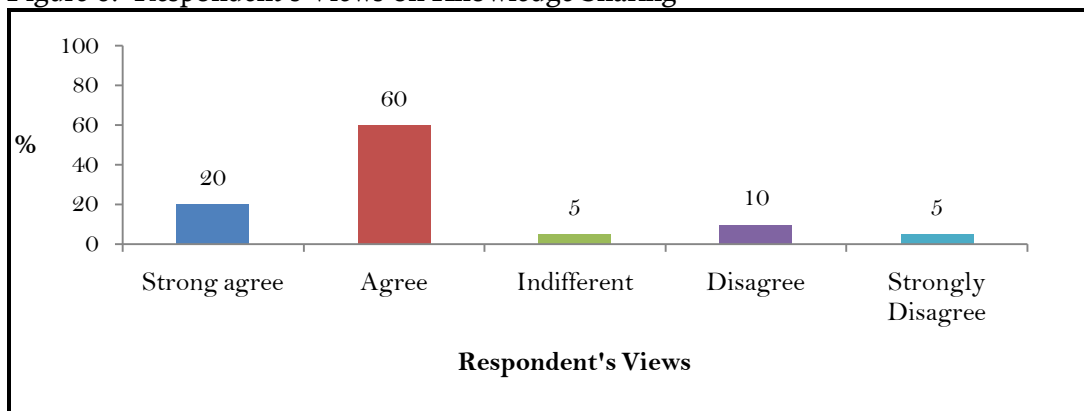
Source: Field data

Figure 5, shows that the majority of the respondents represented by fifty five percent (55%) agreed, (20%) also strongly agreed with the statement. The Figure further shows that five percent (5%), ten percent (10%) and another ten percent (10%) of the respondents remained indifferent, disagreed and strongly disagreed with the statement respectively. Similarly, the sentiments of one of the interviewees indicate that peers help one another to overcome work related obstacles. The employee among other things noted that: “My co-workers are very helpful. If I need any help, my friends are available for me.”

The Behaviour of Peers Regarding Knowledge Sharing

As stated above, knowledge sharing in this study is operationally defined as the exchange of ideas on work experiences. In that regard, respondents were asked to indicate their level of agreement or disagreement with the statement that they exchange ideas on work experiences with their peers on likert scale ranging from strongly agree to strongly disagree. The results on the behaviour of peers regarding knowledge sharing are shown in Figure 6.

Figure 6: Respondent's Views on Knowledge Sharing



Source: Field data

Figure 6, shows that the majority of the respondents, represented by sixty percent (60%) agreed, twenty percent (20%) also strongly agreed with the statement. The Figure further shows that five percent (5%), ten percent (10%) and another five percent (5%) of the respondents, remained indifferent, disagreed and while others strongly disagreed with the statement respectively. The view that knowledge is shared among the workers was also ascribed to by one of the interviewees who stated that: “We share ideas on many things in our department so have no problem with sharing knowledge.”

Discussion of Findings on the Behaviour of Peers

The findings presented in Figure 5 and 6, show that the majority of the peers assist one another in overcoming performance obstacles and

share their knowledge with their colleagues respectively. In that regard, it can be argued that the majority of peers do not exhibit behaviours that may prevent transfer of skills. However, it must be noted that there are other peer behaviours which may promote transfer of skills which this study did not analyse. Thus, within the context of the peer behaviours analysed, our study results indicate that the majority of the peers exhibit behaviours which promote transfer of skills. Our findings have extended current knowledge on the two variables given the absence of research in Zambia specifically focusing on the behaviour of peers in local authorities. As mentioned earlier, peer behaviours such as knowledge sharing and team work in form of peers' rendering support to one another in overcoming performance obstacles have a positive impact on transfer of skills. This impact is strong especially when peers operate in the same unit. Richey (1990) found that knowledge sharing among peers has a positive effect on skills transfer. Hawley and Barnard (2005) also found that knowledge sharing among peers promotes skill transfer. Equally Lim (2002) contends that knowledge sharing among peers reinforces the use of skills on the job.

Findings on Opportunity to Use Skills

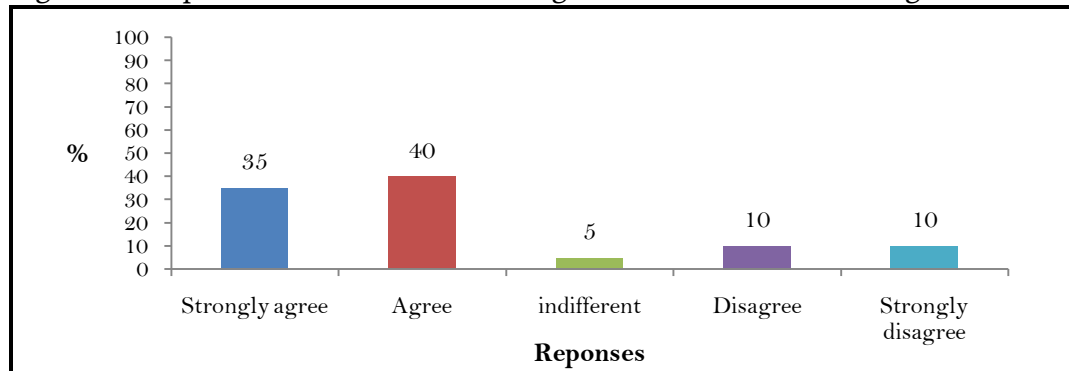
As stated above, the other objective of the study was to investigate the extent to which employees are given the opportunity to use their skills on the job. In this study, opportunity to use is defined as the extent to which employees are given tasks which are relevant to their training. This is because, as earlier explained, opportunity to use is enhanced when employees performs tasks which are relevant to their training. Further, opportunity to use skills is enhanced when placement of employees is done according to their qualifications or training. Thus, two variables namely (a) performing tasks relating to training and (b) placement according to qualifications were analysed in order to

determine the extent to which employees have the opportunity use their skills at LCC. The findings on each the said variables are as follows:

Findings on Performing Tasks Related to Training

Ensuring that employees obtain work experiences related to their previous training is one of the strategies of creating opportunities for them to apply their skills. Thus, the respondents were asked to indicate their level of agreement or disagreement with the statement that they are given tasks which were relevant to their training. Figure 7 shows the distribution of respondent's views on performing tasks relevant to their training.

Figure.7: Respondents Views on Performing Duties Relevant to Training



Source: Survey data

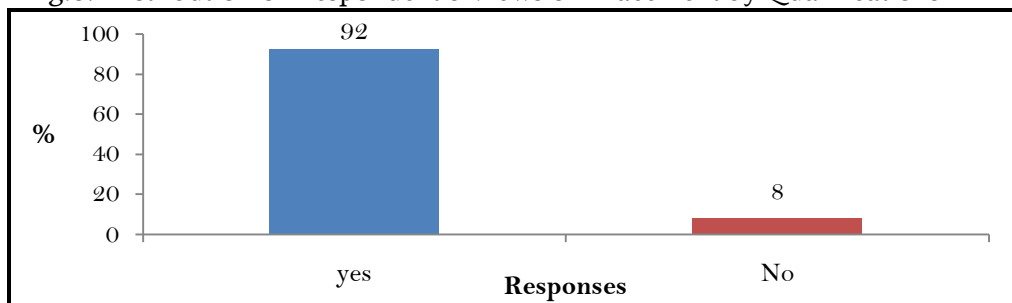
Figure 7, shows that the majority of the respondents, represented by forty percent (40%) agreed, thirty five percent (35%) also strongly agreed with the statement. Figure 7, further shows that five percent (5%), ten percent (10%), ten percent (10%) of the respondents remained indifferent, disagreed and strongly disagreed respectively. Those interviewed were also of the view that they were given tasks which were related to their previous training. For instance, one of the interviewees disclosed that: “My work is related to my training. But I need to go for more studies. Technology is advancing and I need to move with time.”

Findings on Placement According Training

Figure 8, shows the percentage distribution of respondent's views on placement according to qualifications. As shown in Figure 8, the

majority of the respondents, representing ninety two percent (92%) said that they were placed in departments according to their qualifications while the minority of the respondents, representing eight percent (8%), were of the opposite view. Knowing whether or not employees have been placed according to their skills was an important variable to measure because if workers are misplaced, they will not have the opportunity to apply gained skills in their jobs.

Fig.8: Distribution of Respondent's Views on Placement by Qualifications



Source: Field data

Discussion of Findings on Opportunity to Use Skills

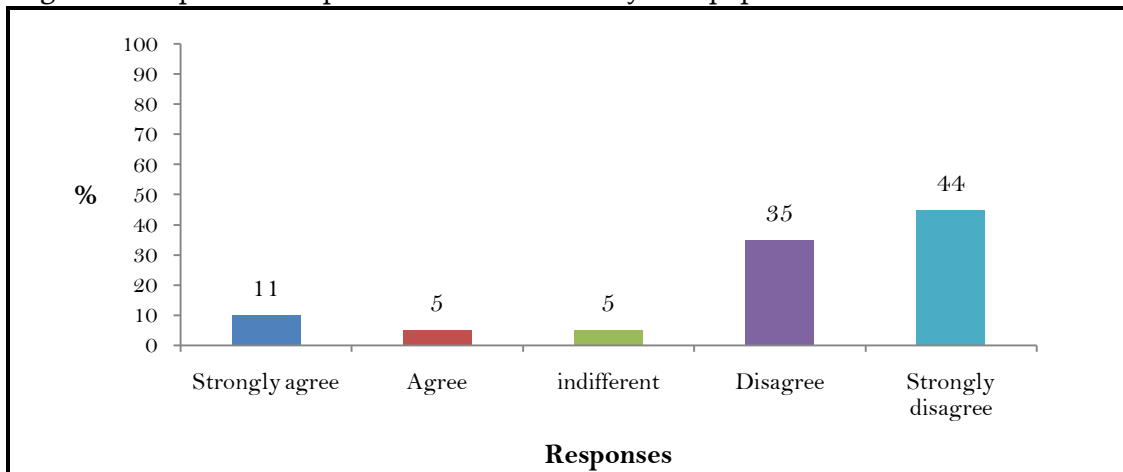
On the basis of the above findings, our study found that the majority of the respondents were given tasks related to their training. Further, our study found that the majority of the employees were placed in departments based on their qualifications. In this regard, it can be argued that the workplace environment at the LCC provides the majority of the employees the opportunity to use their skills. Until this study, it was not known the extent to which the workplace environment at the LCC provides employees with the opportunity to use their skills. These findings, therefore, have extended existing knowledge on local authorities in Zambia.

Findings on the Adequacy of Equipment

The third objective of the study was to examine the adequacy of the equipment for the employees at the LCC. As mentioned in the previous chapters, excessive constraints such as lack of equipment can have a negative impact on transfer of skills. In order to find out whether

or not employees have adequate equipment, respondents were asked to indicate whether or not they agreed or disagreed with the statement that they had adequate equipment to use on a likert scale ranging from strongly agree to strongly disagree. The views of the respondents are presented in Figure 9.

Figure 9: Respondents Opinion on the Availability of Equipment



Source: Field data

Figure 9, shows that the majority of the respondents, represented by forty four percent (44%) strongly disagreed while thirty five percent (35%) of the respondents disagreed. The Figure further also shows that five percent (5%) of the respondents remained indifferent. The figure depicts that eleven percent (11%), five percent (5%) of the respondents strongly agreed and agreed respectively. One of the interviewees was also of the view that equipment is not adequate. For instance, the interviewee disclosed that: “I cannot apply all my skills because we do not have all the necessary equipment to use. The council should buy more equipment.”

Discussion of Findings on the Availability of Equipment

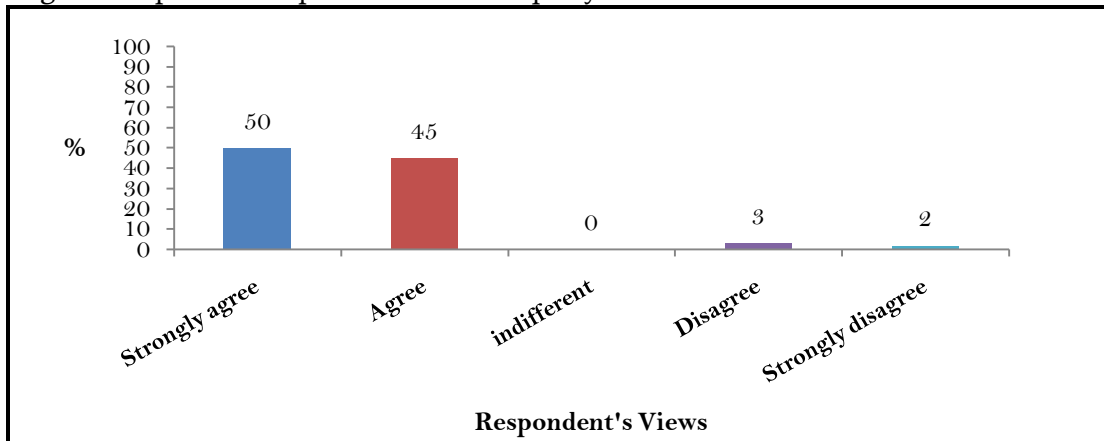
The results of the study indicate that the majority of the respondents were of the view that equipment was not adequate. These findings are somewhat consistent with what has been reported in previous academic works on local authorities in Zambia. For instance,

Lolajih (2008) argues that lack of equipment is among the major constraints experiencing local authorities in Zambia. Similarly, Mulenga (1999) points out that the major problems faced by councils on the copperbelt in Zambia include limited sources funds, large labour workforce, political interference and lack of equipment. According to Tziner (1991) an infrastructure supportive workplace environment for employees can enhance their skill transfer levels and consequently improve their level of performance. Similarly, Foxon (1993) contends that even if the workplace environment is favourable in terms of supervisor and peer support and opportunities to use skills, employees need equipment to enable them transfer their skills effectively. Holton (2000) likewise argues that equipment availability in the workplace environment, determines the extent to which employees transfer their skills.

Findings on Rewards

The fourth specific objective was to examine whether or not employees are adequately and fairly rewarded. In this study, notwithstanding other rewards which are common in most organisations, our study focused on financial rewards in form of salaries. In order to get the views of the employees on the adequacy of their salaries, respondents were asked to indicate their level of agreement or disagreement with the statement that their salaries were not adequate. Figure 10, shows the views of the respondents regarding the adequacy of their salaries.

Fig.10: Respondents Opinion on the Adequacy of Salaries



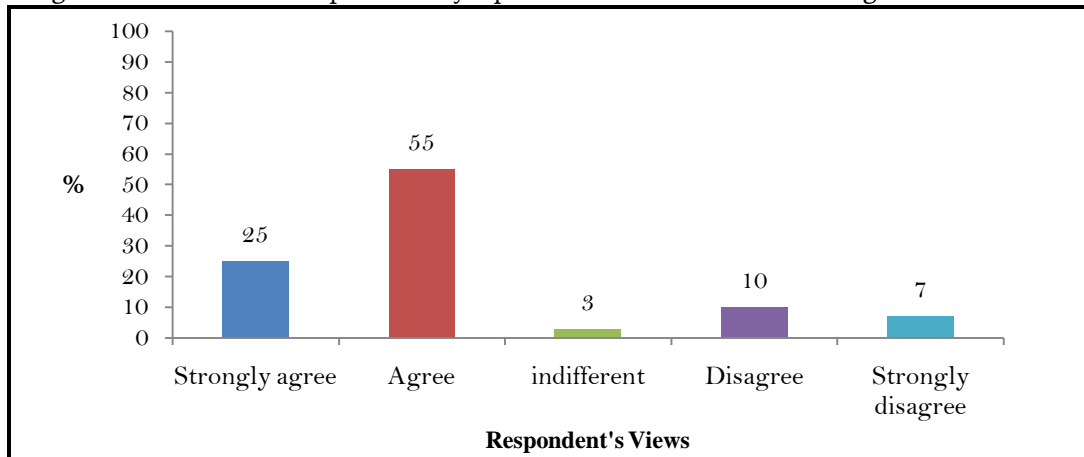
Source: Field data

As can be seen from figure 10, the majority of the respondents, representing fifty percent (50%) strongly agreed with the statement. The second largest group of respondents, representing forty five percent (45%) were also in agreement with the statement. Figure 10 further shows that only three percent (3%) and two percent (2%) of the respondents disagreed and strongly disagreed with the statement respectively. The view that the LCC employees are not adequately paid was also ascribed to by one of the interviewees. The employee said: “Our salaries are poor and most of the time the salary is delayed. We depend on small loans. But the Council makes a lot of money so I do not understand why management does not want to increase our salaries. Management should do something about increasing our salaries. Nowadays things are expensive so we can afford to make ends meet with our poor salaries.”

In addition, an attempt was made to examine the views of the employees on fairness in the manner in which salaries were distributed. In that regard, respondents were requested to indicate their level of agreement or disagreement with the statement that their salaries were not fairly distributed. Figure 11, shows that the majority of the respondents, representing fifty five percent (55%) agreed with the statement whereas twenty five percent (25%) of the respondents strongly

agreed. Figure 11, further indicates that three percent (3%) of the respondents remained indifferent, while, ten percent (10%), seven percent (7%) disagreed, strongly disagreed with the statement respectively.

Fig.11: Distribution of Respondents by Opinion on Fairness in Distributing Salaries



Source: Survey data

When asked about fairness in the distribution of salaries one of the employees interviewed stated that: “there is a problem of unfairness in the distribution of rewards. For example, when it is Labour Day, some of us are not recognised. In some Departments, people are easily recognised and rewarded. Usually these rewards are characterized by favoritism and nepotism.”

Discussion of Findings on Rewards

Our findings indicate that the majority of the employees were not adequately equitably rewarded financially. These findings are in agreement with what previous scholarly works on local authorities in Zambia have reported. For example, Momba (2002) points out that it is very difficult for local authorities to attract qualified human resources because of the prevailing conditions of service including salaries. He further points out that local authorities in Zambia, including the LCC have difficulties to adhere to critical statutory and recurrent obligations such as timely paying of adequate wages and salaries. Our findings are

also comparable to the findings of Lolojih (2002). In his study, he argues that because of poor salaries, local authorities in Zambia are not able to attract qualified manpower. In terms fairness in the distribution of rewards, our findings indicate that the majority of the employees were of the view that salaries were not fairly distributed. In other words, some employees perceived unfair treatment. Notwithstanding other rewards that affect transfer of skills, available literature on transfer of skills supports that when financial rewards for employees are inadequate and unfairly distributed, workers get de-motivated and consequently this affects their motivation to transfer skills. Likewise, Kozlowski (1997) argues that if employees feel that by applying more skills they will gain equity in pay, there is a greater chance that they will be more motivated to transfer their skills to the job. Therefore, fairness in the distribution of financial rewards if not achieved can inhibit employees to transfer their skills to the job. In this study, the findings show that financial rewards are both inadequate and unfairly distributed at the LCC.

CONCLUSION

In this chapter, the findings on each of the variables investigated have been presented quantitatively and qualitatively. The analysis and discussion of the findings on each of the variables examined can be summarised as follows:

First, the findings of our study show that some supervisors exhibit behaviours which are commonly known to prevent transfer of skills. These findings are based on the behaviours examined which include; evaluating the performance of subordinates, involvement subordinates in setting goals and providing subordinates job autonomy. In terms of performance evaluation, the findings indicate that supervisors rarely evaluate the performance of their subordinates. Further, supervisors rarely provide feedback on such evaluations.

Regarding involvement, the findings reveal that most of the supervisors do not involve their subordinates in setting objectives. The findings further reveal that the majority of the supervisors do not give their subordinates freedom to plan their work and determine how it should be executed.

Second, on the basis of the peer behaviours examined, which include; team work and knowledge sharing, the findings of this study show that peers behave in a manner that promotes team work. As explained earlier, team work in this study is operationally defined as the ability of the peers to help one another to overcome work challenges rather competing with each other. On the other hand, knowledge sharing was defined as the culture of exchanging ideas on work experiences adopted by peers. The findings of this study regarding team work revealed that the majority of the peers help one another to overcome work challenges. In terms of knowledge sharing, the findings show that the majority of the employees share their ideas with their peers.

Third, the findings show that the majority of the employees have the opportunity to use their skills. This is because the results show that in many instances, placement of workers at the LCC is done according to someone's qualifications. Placement of workers according to their qualifications increases their chances of using their skills in their jobs. The results further reveal the majority of the workers are given tasks that are relevant to their training.

Forth, the findings of the study indicate that inadequate equipment is one of the major challenges of the LCC. The majority of the respondents were of the view that they either had inadequate or no equipment to use at all.

Fifth, the results indicated that the majority of the employees were not sufficiently paid. In addition, the majority of the employees were of the opinion that salaries were not fairly distributed. Our

findings therefore, have shown that financial rewards at LCC are inadequate and unfairly distributed.

Our findings have extended current knowledge on local authorities in Zambia in some areas. For instance, until this study, it was not known whether or not employees at the LCC exhibited behaviours which are known to inhibit transfer of skills. Further, it was not known whether or not employees had plenty of opportunities to use their skills. In fact, in general, previous academic works on local authorities in Zambia had neglected the issue of transfer of skills. Therefore, until this study, no study had been designed specifically to investigate the status of LCC or any other local authority in Zambia regarding the prevalence of barriers known to prevent transfer of skills. However, like any other study, not all findings reported in our study were new. In many aspects, our findings are comparable to other findings reported in other academic works on local authorities in Zambia. For example, similar to our findings, Lolojih (2008) found that salaries paid to workers in local authorities were poor. In terms of equipment, Mulenga (1999) also found that local authorities did not have adequate equipment to enable workers carryout their duties effectively and efficiently. The implications of our findings in relation to the objectives of our study are given in the subsequent chapter.

CHAPTER THREE

CONCLUSION

Introduction

This chapter highlights the major findings of the study including their implication in relation to the overall objective of this study. The chapter also suggests recommendations on the basis of the findings and proposes directions for future research.

As explained in chapter one, the Zambian government adopted the Decentralisation Policy in November 2002 as one of the measures of addressing the shortcomings of local authorities in Zambia (MLGH, 2009). This Policy was subsequently launched on 20 August 2004. The main objective of the Decentralisation Policy is to make the Local Government system more efficient and responsive to local demands by decentralising a selection of functions, authority and control of resource allocation and utilisation from Central Government to democratically elected Councils. Thus, the Policy provides for the strengthening of Local Government through the re-activation of mandates at this level as well as the transfer of additional responsibilities. The practical effect of the implementation of the Decentralisation Policy in Zambia is to redefine the principal mandates in the delivery chain of public services and re-assign them with matching resources to different levels of government, focusing on the improvement of overall delivery. This entails that local authorities will have more functions. In order to ensure that local authorities effectively and efficiently undertake these functions, a number of measures have been put in place. One of the measures is capacity building. In terms of human resources, capacity building is being achieved largely through training interventions among other things. Thus, the LCC has continued to train its workers in various aspects of its operations. It is worth noting that even before the Policy was launched in 2004, the LCC had been investing training

activities. To this effect, the LCC has relatively more skilled personnel than other local authorities countrywide. However, despite having more skilled personnel, the performance of the LCC is not different from other local authorities in Zambia. It appears therefore that training has not been very effective. Put differently, it appears that the LCC has not maximised the benefits of its training investments. Notwithstanding other factors which could prevent the LCC from maximising the benefits of its training programmes, if there are any barriers in the workplace environment that are known to prevent transfer of skill, these barriers could prevent the LCC from maximising the benefits of its training interventions. Therefore, given that existing academic works on local authorities in Zambia could not provide adequate information on the status of the workplace environment at the LCC regarding the prevalence of barriers known to prevent transfer skills, it was imperative to undertake this study in order to narrow this empirical gap and extend current knowledge about what is known on local authorities in Zambia.

This study was anchored on four concepts namely; *capacity building*, *training*, *transfer of skills* and *the workplace environment*. In this study, it was hypothesised that the expected increment in the number of functions to be executed by local authorities in Zambia in view of decentralisation will demand among other things *capacity building* of personnel which is mainly attained through *training*. But most importantly, the skills which workers acquire after training must be applied in their jobs. The process of applying skills to the workplace is what is referred to in this dissertation as *transfer of skills*. However, the application of skills to the workplace is usually determined by many factors which include among others *the workplace environment*. If the workplace environment is unfavourable due barriers which are known to prevent transfer of skills, then transfer of skills will be negative or zero and consequently the full benefits of capacity building through training will not be realised. In fact, it is estimated that only about ten

(10%) of the skills acquired by employees after training are put into practice if the workplace environment is not conducive for transfer of skills.

In this study, notwithstanding other barriers known to prevent transfer of skills that are related to the workplace environment, our study focused on barriers related to (1) the behaviour of supervisors and (2) the behaviour of peers (3) opportunity to use skills (4) equipment availability and (5) rewards. In this regard, these were variables investigated in order to determine the status of the workplace environment at LCC regarding the prevalence of the barriers which are known to prevent transfer of skills. It is imperative to clarify here that that our study did not in any measure attempt to investigate the effect these barriers on employees. In other words, the study was not designed to analyse any relationships between or among the barriers investigated. The study was designed to investigate the presence of the barriers related to the workplace environment. The lessons drawn from our findings on the barriers examined are as follows:

First, behaviors exhibited by supervisors such as coaching subordinates, evaluating the performance of subordinates and providing feedback, providing job autonomy, involving subordinates in setting goals, have been known to promote transfer of skills. Accordingly, these were the variables investigated in this study to determine whether or not supervisors exhibit behaviors that are known to prevent transfer of skills. The findings revealed that the majority of the superiors do not: (a) evaluate the performance of their subordinates (b) involve their subordinates in setting goals (c) give their subordinates freedom to plan their work and determine how to carry it out. However, the results show that the majority of the supervisors coach their subordinates. However, it is imperative to state that there are other behaviors exhibited by supervisors which influence transfer of skills but were not part of the variables investigated in this study.

Second, the behavior of peers influences transfer of skills. The influence of peer support is strong especially when peers exhibit the spirit of team and share knowledge. In this study, team work must be understood as the culture of peers helping each other to overcome work challenges and not competing with each other. Knowledge sharing on the other hand means peers sharing ideas on work experiences with their colleagues about work experiences. In this study the findings revealed that the majority of the peers assist one another in overcoming performance obstacles and share ideas with their colleagues.

Third, it is imperative to ensure that employees have plenty opportunities to use their skills. Opportunity to use skills enhances transfer of skills. As discussed earlier, employees need ample opportunities to apply their new skills to the workplace for positive transfer to occur. Lack of opportunities to apply skills can seriously inhibit the use of skills on the job. Holton (2000) argues that when employees have plenty of chances to apply what they have learned to the job, a larger amount of their skills are transferred to the job. The lack of opportunity to use training on the job is thus rated as one the biggest barrier to transfer of skills (Lim and Johnson, 2002). In order to ensure that employees have the opportunity to use their skills they must be placed in right units or departments based on their qualifications. Opportunity to use skills can also be enhanced if the workers are given tasks which are related to their training. Therefore, in order to find out if opportunity to use skills was one of the barriers prevalent at the LCC, two variables namely (1) placement and (2) performing tasks related to someone's training were investigated. Our study revealed that the majority of the employees are not misplaced. In other words, placement at the LCC is usually done according to someone's qualifications. Further, our study revealed that the majority of the employees were given tasks which are related to their training.

Forth, employees need to be rewarded in order for them to have the desire to use transfer their skills. In other words, employee must be motivated to transfer their skills. Similarly, Quinones (1992) contends that a certain level of competence combined with motivation, facilitates transfer of skills. In fact, Holton (2000) holds the view that employees with high competency but without motivation may not have the desire to transfer their skills to the job. Notwithstanding other factors that are known to motivate workers, it is widely accepted that most employees are motivated by financial rewards (Noe 2004). Thus most organisations continue to use financial rewards such as competitive salaries to motivate their workers. In our study, financial rewards in form of salaries, was one of the variables analyzed to determine the prevalence barriers known to prevent transfer of skills. The findings indicate that the salaries for most of the workers at the LCC are not competitive. This is owing to the fact that the majority of the respondents were of the view that their salaries were poor. In addition, the majority of the employees were also of the view that salaries were not fairly distributed.

Finally, even if the workplace environment is favourable in terms of support from supervisors and peers, plenty opportunities to use skills and adequate rewards, employees need equipment to enable them transfer their skills. Holton (2000) similarly argues that equipment availability in the workplace environment determines the extent to which employees transfer their skills. In many instances, non availability of equipment inhibits workers to fully apply their training. In our study, the findings revealed that the majority of the employees do not have adequate equipment to use.

In view of the foregoing, the implications of the findings in relation to the study objectives can be summarized as follows.

Regarding the first objective, which was to investigate whether supervisors and peers exhibit behaviours which promote transfer of

skills, the writer is of the view that based on the findings on this matter, there is a high probability that supervisors exhibit behaviors that prevent transfer of skills. However, it must be clarified that even if there are indications of the presence behaviours which are known to prevent transfer of skills, this does not mean that workers at the LCC are not able to transfer their skills. In other words, the prevalence of behaviours which prevent transfer of skills exhibited by the supervisors may not prevent transfer of skills. This is because transfer of skills is a complex process which is influenced by so many other factors other than the behaviours of supervisors. Supervisors however, do play a critical role in creating a workplace environment that promotes transfer of skills. For instance supervisors should involve their subordinates in setting goals. The more employees get involved in setting their targets the higher the chances of skills transfer. It is also imperative for supervisors to regularly evaluate the performance of their subordinates and provide performance feedback information. The performance of employees including their ability to transfer skills improves once they receive feedback about their performance levels. Supervisor can also play a critical role in enhancing skills transfer by ensuring that employees have job autonomy. In other words, supervisors must allow their subordinates to plan their work and determine the procedures to be used in carry out their tasks.

Co-workers or peers also exhibit behaviours which promote transfer of skills. Such behaviours include team work and knowledge sharing. Team work among peers, which is mainly achieved through assisting one another, enhances transfer of skills. Peers need to complement each other rather than compete with each other in order to create an environment that promotes transfer of skills (Foxon, 1993). More recent studies on transfer of skills have also found a correlation between team work and skills transfer. The more employees work as a team, the greater the chances of transfer of skills. On the basis of the

findings presented above on the behaviour of peers regarding team work and knowledge sharing, the author is of the view that there is a high likelihood that the majority of peers do not exhibit behaviours that prevent transfer of skills. However, as the case is with the behavior of supervisors, not all peer behaviors were explored in this study. Therefore, the argument that there is a high likelihood that peers do not exhibit behaviors that are known to prevent transfer of skills is based on the two behaviors analyzed.

In terms of the second specific objective which was to investigate whether employees have the opportunity to use their skills. As discussed earlier, two key factors which enhance opportunity to use skills include (a) performing tasks which are relevant to training (b) placement of workers on the basis of training. On the basis of these two factors which were analysed in this study, the author is of the opinion that the majority of the employees have the opportunity to use their skills. As indicated above, the findings reveal that the majority of the employees are given tasks which are relevant to their previous training and are deployed to units or departments on the basis of their qualifications. Therefore, there is a high likelihood that most of the employees have the opportunity to use their skills. However, it is imperative to state that there are other factors which also affect opportunity to use skills. Such factors, however, were not part of the variables investigated in our study.

The third specific objective was to investigate whether or not the LCC employees have adequate equipment. The findings of the study indicate that the majority of the respondents were of the view that equipment is inadequate. As stated above, even if the workplace environment is favourable in terms of supervisor and peer support and opportunities to use skills, employees need equipment to enable them transfer their skills. On the basis of the findings, the author is of the

view that lack of equipment as a barrier to transfer of skills is prevalent at the LCC.

Regarding the fourth specific objective, the author investigated whether or not employees were adequately and equitably financially rewarded. As mentioned earlier, employees need to be rewarded to enable them transfer their skills. In other words, employee must have the desire to use skills on the job. In this study as already stated notwithstanding other rewards that are known to motivate workers, financial rewards were the basis upon which the extent to which employees are rewarded was determined. On the basis of the findings, the writer is of the view that there is a high probability that financial rewards are not adequate. Further, the author of the opinion there is a high likelihood that financial rewards are not equitably distributed.

Overall, the results of our study indicate that there is a high possibility that barriers related to the workplace environment which are known to prevent transfer of skills are prevalent at the LCC. However, the presence of these barriers may not necessarily imply that most of the employees at the LCC have challenges to transfer their skills to their jobs. As already explained, transfer of skills is a complex processes which is influenced by many factors. In fact, a review of scholarly works on the concept of transfer of skills reveals many gaps on the key factors responsible for transfer of skills. For instance, Baldwin and Ford (1988) argues that research on environmental factors responsible for transfer of skills require the operationalisation of key variables such as supervisory support at a level of specificity that allows testing their effects on transfer of skills. For instance, job autonomy and employee involvement can take many different forms. Studies on transfer of skills have not been very specific on the level of job autonomy and employee involvement that has a significant impact on transfer of skills. Equally, Baldwin and Ford (1988) argue that there is need to research all possible

variables constituting supervisory support in order to formulate interventions for affecting improvement in the work environment factors influencing transfer of skills. However, despite these gaps, much academic writing on transfer of skills supports the view that for organizations to maximize their return on training investments they need to create a workplace environment that supports transfer of training. Some studies as shown in the literature review section have confirmed that factors such as the behaviour of supervisors and peers, opportunity to use skills, equipment availability and adequate rewards have a positive impact on transfer of skills.

Recommendations

As stated above, there is need for capacity enhancement for personnel in local authorities in view of the Decentralisation Policy. In that regard, one of the objectives of the Decentralisation Implementation Plan (DIP) which provides a roadmap for the implementation of the Decentralization Policy is to train personnel in local authorities (MLGH, 2009). To this effect, the LCC like other local authorities in Zambia has continued to invest in training in order to enhance the skills of its employees. However, if the workplace environment for the employees at LCC is not favourable for transfer of skills, the LCC may not maximise the benefits of its training interventions. As already mentioned, training alone may not result in improved performance unless the barriers in the workplace environment which are known to prevent transfer of skills are removed among other things. In this study, the findings have revealed that there is a high possibility that the workplace environment for employees at the LCC is not favourable for transfer of skills. This is because our study found a high likelihood of the presence of barriers such as inadequate and inequitable salaries, lack of performance evaluation and feedback, lack of employee involvement, lack of job autonomy and inadequate

equipment. Some of these barriers have also been reported in previous academic works on local authorities in Zambia. On the basis of these findings, the LCC may wish to implement the following measures in order to make the workplace environment for employees more conducive for transfer of skills:

- a) The LCC should consider paying its workers competitive salaries. This can be achieved through among other things, introducing a market rate pay system. A market pay system is based on salary surveys. These surveys provide information on how competitive a firm is in terms of remuneration. On the basis of this information, a firm may wish to adopt a lead pay policy in order to attract and retain skilled employees.
- b) The LCC must ensure that salaries are equitably distributed. In other words, the LCC must achieve internal equity in the distribution of financial rewards. This can be achieved by putting in place a job evaluation system. Job evaluation is a process of determining the relative worth of a job. The main objective of job evaluation is to have external and internal consistency in the salary structure so that inequalities in salaries are reduced. Through job evaluation, harmonious and congenial relations can be maintained between employees and management, so that all kinds of salaries controversies can be minimized. The process of determining the salary differentials for different jobs also become standardized through job evaluation. This helps in bringing uniformity into salary structure. Thus, a successful job evaluation system can help develop a pay system that is equitable, understandable and legally defensible.

- c) The LCC must involve its employees at different levels of decision making. At Unit level, supervisors must involve their subordinates on matters such as setting performance targets.
- d) Regular performance assessments must be conducted and feedback on the performance of employees must be provided.
- e) The LCC must provide employees some degree of job autonomy in order to allow them use their initiatives and skills where necessary.
- f) The LCC must provide adequate equipment to all its employees in order to enhance their performance.

Direction for Future Research

Like any other research, it was not possible to explore all the factors that affect transfer of skills. Another study may consider investigating other variables influencing transfer of skills which were omitted in this investigation. For instance, theoretically, transfer of skills is not only influenced by factors related to the workplace environment.

Further, another research may adopt a different research design from our study. The present investigation was merely descriptive in nature where single variable analysis was employed. Single variable analysis does not provide information on the relationship between two or more variables. However, by employing this type of research, it was possible to achieve the overall purpose of the study, which was, to investigate the status of the LCC regarding the prevalence of workplace environmental barriers known to transfer of skills. Other designs could provide information on the relationship of the variables investigated in our study. For example, a relational type of research design would allow the researcher to determine the effect of one variable on the other.

Study Limitations

Like any comprehensive attempt to undertake academic research, this study has some limitations that warrant mention. First, the major limitation of this study is that the variables used to measure the prevalence of barriers known not to prevent transfer of skills, have not consistently shown the same effect on transfer of skills as reported in previous studies. Second, it is also imperative to mention that our scope of analysis was only limited to workplace environmental variables responsible for transfer of skills. Therefore, caution should be exercised in generalizing the findings of our study to other local authorities or indeed other similar organisations in Zambia given that there are many other variables that are known to influence transfer of skills.

Conclusion

In conclusion, our study has established a high likelihood that the workplace environment for the majority of employees at the LCC is not favourable for transfer of skills. This based on the fact that our findings have revealed a high possibility of the presence of barriers known to prevent transfer of skills. If these barriers are not addressed, it will be very difficult for the LCC to maximise the benefits of its training investments. As explained earlier, there is a strong consensus that acquisition of knowledge, skills, behaviors and attitudes through training is of little value if they are not generalized to the job setting and are not maintained over time (Kozlowski, 1997). In other words, training is useless if the skills acquired cannot be transferred to the job and translated into performance. Therefore, if training truly has to make a significant impact on the performance of the LCC, the workplace environment among other things must support transfer of skills. In other words, the workplace environment must not have barriers that are known to prevent transfer of skill. Moreover, the LCC is expected to have additional responsibilities once the Decentralisation

Policy is fully implemented. To this effect, the LCC will have to improve its operations in many areas. One such area that needs attention is the workplace environment for its employees which on the basis of our results, appears not to be conducive for transfer of skills. The escalating level of investment made in training and the accompanying expectations that the LCC will improve its performance must take into consideration the workplace environment. While there is growing evidence that investments in training lead to demonstrable results that positively affect individual and organizational performance, training alone, does not guarantee improved performance. To a large extent, the status of the workplace environment determines the degree of transfer of skills and consequently improved performance.

REFERENCES

- Adams, J.S. (1963). Towards an Understanding of Inequity. *Journal of Abnormal & Social Psychology*, 57, 422-436.
- Awoniyi, E.A., (2002). Environment fit and Transfer of Training . *International Journal of Training and Development*, 6(1), 25—35
- Axtell, C.M., (1997). Predicting immediate and longer term Transfer of Training. *Personnel Review*, 26(3), 201—213.
- Baldwin, T. T., & Ford, J. K. (1988). Transfer of training: A review and directions for future research. *Personnel Psychology*, 41, 63–105.
- Bates, R.A. (2000). The Role of Interpersonal Factors in the Application of Training in an Industrial Setting. *Human Resource Development International*, 3, 19-42.
- Bhaskar, C. (2009). Human Resource Management: A Contemporary Text: New Delhi: Sterling Publishers.
- Blume B. D., (2010). Transfer of Training: A Meta- Analytic Review. *Journal of Management* Vol. 36 No. 4, July 2010 1065-1105
- Brinkerhoff, R. O., & Montesino, M. V. (1995). Partnerships for training transfer: Lessons from a corporate study. *Human Resource Development Quarterly*, 6, 263–273.
- Broad, M. L., (1992). Transfer of Training: Action packed strategies to ensure high payoff from training investments. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.
- Burke, LT. (1999). Workforce Training Transfer: a Study of the Effect of Relapse Prevention Training and Transfer Climate. *Human Resource Management*, 38(3), 227-242.
- Campbell, C. P., & Cheek, G. D. (1989). Putting Training to Work. *Journal of European Industrial Training*. 13 (4), 32–36.
- Central Statistics Office (2006) Living Conditions Monitoring Survey 2004-2005 Report, Lusaka: Central Statistics Office.
- Cheng E. W. L., Ho D. C. K., 2001. A review of transfer of training studies in the past decade, *Personnel Review*, 30(1), 102–118.
- Chiaburu and Lindsay (2008). The importance of self-efficacy and instrumentality for training transfer. *Human Resource Development International*, 11(2) pp.199-206
- Chikulo, B (1993). Local Government Reforms in Zambia: A review. *Commonwealth Journal of Local Governance* Issue 2.
- Chikulo, B., (1993). Local Government Reforms in Zambia: A review. *Commonwealth Journal of Local Governance* Issue 2.
- Cohen, D. J. (1990). What motivates Trainees? *Training and Development Journal*, 44 (11), 91.

- Colquitt J. A., (2000). Toward an Integrative Theory of Training motivation: A meta-analytic path analysis of 20 years of research. Journal of Applied Psychology, Vol 85(5), Oct 2000, 678-707.
- Colquitt, J.A., LePine, J.A., & Noe, R.A. (2000). Toward an integrative theory of training motivation: A meta-analytic path analysis of 20 years of research. Journal of Applied Psychology, 85(5), 678—707.
- Crisp J., (2002). Exploration of factors affecting transfer of training into the workplace. Master's Thesis. Western Australia University.
- Cromwell J., (2004). An Examination of Work-Environment Support Factors Affecting Transfer of Supervisory Skills Training to the Workplace. Human Resource Development Quarterly, vol. 15, no. 4,
- Diggs, B.K., (2011). Perception of Transfer Climate Factors in the Macro and Micro Organizational Work Environment. PhD Thesis. North Carolina State University.
- Elangovan A.R., & Karakowsky L., (1999) The role of trainee and environmental factors in transfer of training: an exploratory framework", Leadership & Organization Development Journal, Vol. 20 Iss: 5, pp.268 - 276
- Facteau, J. D., (1995). The Influence of General Perception of the Training Environment on Pretraining Motivation and Perceived Training Transfer. Journal of Management, 21, 1–25.
- Ford, J. K & Weissbein, D.A. (1997). Transfer of Training: An Updated Review and Analysis. Performance Improvement Quarterly, 10(2), 22-41.
- Ford, J. K., Quinones, M. A., (1992). Factors affecting the opportunity to perform trained tasks on the job. Personnel Psychology, 45, 511–527.
- Foxon, M. J. (1993). The Influence of Motivation to Transfer, Action Planning, and Manager Support on the Transfer Process. Performance Improvement Quarterly, 10(2), 42-63.
- Geilen, E.W. (1996). Transfer of Training in a Corporate Setting: Testing a Mode. In E.F.Holton (ed.). Proceedings of the 1996 Academy of Human Resource Development Annual Conference (434-441), Austin, TX: Academy of HRD.
- Georgenson D.L. (1982). The Problem of Transfer. Training and Development Journal, 36 (10), 75-78.
- Gist, M., (1990). Transfer Training Method: It's Influence on Skill Generalization, Skill Repetition, and Performance Level. Personnel Psychology, 43, 501-523.
- Handy, W., (2008). PhD Thesis: The Importance of the Work Environment Variables on the Transfer of Training. Carolina University.
- Hawley, J. D., & Barnard, J. K. (2005). Work Environment Characteristics and Implications for Training Transfer: A Case Study of the Nuclear Power Industry. Human Resource Development International, 8(1), 65 - 80.

- Holton, E., (2000). Making Transfer Happen: an Action Perspective on Learning Transfer Systems. *Advances in Developing Human Resources*, 8, 1-6.
- Huccynski, A.A. (1980). An Empirical Study into the Learning Transfer Process in Management Training. *Journal of Management Studies*, 17,227-240. Industry Report 2003. (2003). 2003 Industry Report. Training, October, 24-33.
- Kirkpatrick, D.L. (1998). Evaluating Training Programs: The four levels.2nd edition. San Francisco: Berrett-Koehler Publishers Inc
- Kontoghiorghes, C. (2001). Factors affecting training effectiveness in the context of the introduction of new technology: A US case study. *International Journal of Training and Development*, 5, 248—260.
- Kozlowski, S.W.J. (1997). Improving training effectiveness in work organizations. Hillsdale: Erlbaum
- Lawson, R. B. (1998). Individual and Organizational Motivation. New York, NY: Oxford University Press, Inc.
- Liebermann, S. (2008).The impact of practical relevance on training transfer: evidence from a service quality-training program for German bank clerks. *International Journal of Training and Development*, 12(2), 74-76.
- Lim, D. H. (2002). Trainee Perceptions of Factors that Influence Learning Transfer. *International Journal of Training and Development*, 6(1), 36-38.
- Ling, P. (2011). The Relationship between Work Environment Factors and Transfer of Training among Plantation Workers. PhD Thesis: Malaysia University Technology.
- Locke, E. A., & Latham, G. P. (1981). Goal-setting and task performance: 1969-1980. *Psychological Bulletin*, 90: 125-152
- Locke, E. A., (1981). Goal-setting and task performance: 1969-1980. *Psychological Bulletin*, 90: 125-152
- Lolajih, P.K., (2008). Local Government Administration and Service Delivery in the Third Republic: A Case Study of Lusaka City Council, Choma Municipal Council and Luwingu District Council. PhD Thesis: University of Zambia.
- Lusaka City Council 2010 Council Budget.
- Miles, M. B., (1994). Qualitative Data Analysis: An Extended sourcebook (2nd. ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Ministry of Local Government and Housing (MLGH, 2009)
- Momba, J.C., (2002). Problems of Effectiveness in Service Delivery, Accountability and Transparency of Local Authorities in Zambia. Report of a Study Commissioned by Transparency International Zambia (TIZ).

- Mukwena, R.M., (2002). Building the Institutional Capacity of Local Authorities in Zambia in the Third Republic: An Assessment. Africanus, vol. 29, No.1, pp.1-2
- Mukwena, R.M., (2002). Building the Institutional Capacity of Local Authorities in Zambia in the Third Republic: An Assessment. Africanus, vol. 29, No.1, pp.1-2
- Mulenga, C., (2003). Urban Slums Report: The Case of Lusaka: Lusaka. Institute of Economic Research, University of Zambia.
- Mulenga, K., (1999). Problems Facing Local Authorities in Zambia. BBA Dissertation. Copperbelt University.
- Muntingwa, N., (2011). Fiscal Decentralisation and Service Delivery: A case study of Lusaka City Council. MA Dissertation. University of Zambia.
- Nijman, D. J. J., (2006). Exploring Differential Effects of Supervisor Support on Transfer of Training. Journal of European Industrial Training, 30(7): 529-549.
- Noe, R.A., (2004). Employee Training and Development. New York: McGraw Hill.
- Okello, E. (1990). Progress and Problems in Implementing the Local Administration Act, 1980: A Case Study of Lusaka Urban District Council. Lusaka: UNZA Press
- Okello, E. (1990). Progress and Problems in Implementing the Local Administration Act, 1980: A Case Study of Lusaka Urban District Council. Lusaka: UNZA Press
- Paradise, A. 2007. State of the Industry: ASTD's Annual Review of Trends in Workplace Learning and Performance. Alexandria, VA: ASTD.
- Quinones, M. A., (1992). Factors affecting the opportunity to perform trained tasks on the job. Personnel Psychology, 45, 511–527
- Richey, R.C., (1990). The Effects of Organizational Climate Factors on Industrial Training Outcomes. Paper presented at the Convention of the Association for Educational Communications and Technology, Iowa.
- Rouiller, J.Z., & Goldstein, I.L. (1993). The relationship between organizational transfer climate and positive transfer of training. Human Resources Development Quarterly, 4, 377—390.
- Rouiller, J.Z., & Goldstein, I.L. (1993). The relationship between organizational transfer climate and positive transfer of training. Human Resources Development Quarterly, 4, 377—390.
- Royer, James M. (1979). Theories of the transfer of learning. Educational Psychologist, 14, 53-69.
- Tannenbaum, S. I., (1992). Training and development in work organizations. Annual Review of Psychology, 43, 399–441.

- Tziner, A. (1991). Personal and Situational Characteristics Influencing the Effectiveness of Transfer of Training Improvement Strategies. *Journal of Occupational Psychology*, 64,167-177.
- UNDP (2001). Zambia Human Development Report 2000, Employment and Sustainable Livelihoods, Lusaka: United Nations Development Programme.
- Van der Klink, M.R., Gielen, E., & Nauta, C. (2001). Supervisory support as a major condition to enhance transfer. *International Journal of Training and Development* , 5(1), 52—63.
- Van dev Merwe, H. (1996). The Research Process: Problem Statement and Research Design. Pretoria: Van Schaik.
- Vancouver, J. B. & Kendall, L. N. (2006). When self-efficacy negatively relates to motivation and performance in a learning context. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 91, 1146-1153.
- Velada R., (2007). The effects of training design, individual characteristics and work environment on transfer of training. *International Journal of Training and Development* Volume 11, Issue 4, pages 282–294
- Vroom, V. (1964). Work and Motivation. New York: Wiley.
- White C. J. (2005). Research: A Practical Guide. Pretoria: Ithuthuko Investments Publishers.
- William, D.J., (2008). An Analysis of the Factors Affecting Training Transfer within the Work Environment. MA Thesis. Air University.
- Wood, P., (1986). “The population of Lusaka” In: Geoffrey Williams J. (1986) *Lusaka and Its Environs Zambia Geographical Associations Handbook Series no. 9, Lusaka*. pp.164-188.
- Yamnull, S., & McLean, G.N. (2005). Factors Affecting Transfer of Training in Thailand . *Human Resource Development Quarterly*, 16(3), 323—344.

Appendix A: Informed Consent Form

Title of Research:

Investigating the Prevalence of Workplace Environmental Barriers known to prevent Transfer of Skills at the Lusaka City Council

You are invited to participate in an exciting research study. The purpose of the study, as stated above, is to find out whether or not workplace environmental barriers inhibiting transfer of training are present at the LCC.

You will be asked questions to assess various aspects of your work environment. You are providing your opinion and beliefs, so there is no right or wrong answer. For more information and a complete description of what you will assess, refer to your questionnaire attached. I want to thank you in advance for agreeing to participate in this study.

Your participation in this study is voluntary and is not a requirement nor is it part of your employment. You are free to decline participation at any time without penalty and without loss of any benefits. If you withdraw from the study before data collection is completed, your data will be returned to you or destroyed at your request.

CONTACT:

If you have questions at any time about the study or the procedures, you may contact the researcher, Aaron Mpembamoto at aaronsembile@yahoo.co.uk, or call 0977-604093.

CONSENT:

I have read and understand the above information. I have received a copy of this form. I agree to participate in this study with the understanding that I may withdraw at any time.

APPENDIX B: QUESTIONNAIRE

Introduction

This questionnaire is only for academic purposes to enable the researcher to complete studies at the University of Zambia. Please follow the instructions and be honest in answering the questions.

Instructions:

1. Please tick [√] in the space next to the question/statement to indicate your choice.
2. Do not write your name on this questionnaire.

Section A: Demographic Characteristics

Code

Q1. Gender

Male [] Female []

Q2. Age group

1. 15-19 []

2. 20-24 []

3. 25-29 []

4. 30-34 []

5. 40-44 []

6. 50 and above []

Q3. What is your highest qualification?

1. Certificate []

2. Diploma []

3. Degree []

4. Masters []

5. PhD []

Q4. Which department do you belong to?

1. Administration []

2. Finance []

3. Community Development []

4. Legal []

5. Engineering []

6. Public Health []

7. Real Estate []

8. Physical Planning []

Q5. I have been placed in the right department according to my qualifications?

1. Strongly Agree []

2. Agree []

3. Indifferent []

4. Disagree []

5. Strongly Disagree []

Q6. How long have you served LCC?

1. Above 1year but below 5 years []

2. Above 5years but below 10years []

3. Above 10 years but below 15years[]

4. Above 15years but below 20 years[]

5. Above 20 years []

Please indicate your level of agreement or disagreement to the following statements.

Q7. My salary is not adequate to meet my expectations?

1. Strongly Agree []

2. Agree []

3. Indifferent []

4. Disagree []

5. Strongly Disagree []

Q8. There is no fairness in the distribution of salaries?

1. Strongly Agree []

2. Agree []

3. Indifferent []

4. Disagree []

5. Strongly Disagree []

Q9. I am not involved in setting objectives?

1. Strongly Agree []

2. Agree []

3. Indifferent []

4. Disagree []

5. Strongly Disagree []

Q10. I am informed about my performance appraisal results?

1. Strongly Agree []

2. Agree []

3. indifferent []

4. Disagree []

5. Strongly Disagree []

Please indicate your level of agreement or disagreement to the following statements.

Q11. My supervisor helps me to overcome work challenges?

1. Strongly Agree []

2. Agree []

3. Indifferent []

4. Disagree []

5. Strongly Disagree []

Q12. My co-workers help me to overcome work challenges?

1. Strongly Agree []

2. Agree []

3. Indifferent []

4. Disagree []

5. Strongly Disagree []

Q13. I am given tasks which are related to my training

1. Strongly Agree []

2. Agree []

3. Indifferent []

4. Disagree []

5. Strongly Disagree []

Q14. We share ideas on work experiences with each other in the department?

1. Strongly Agree []

2. Agree []

3. Indifferent []

4. Disagree []

5. Strongly Disagree []

Q15. We have adequate equipment in our department to help us use apply our skills more effectively?

1. Strongly Agree []

2. Agree []

3. Indifferent []

4. Disagree []

5. Strongly Disagree []

Q16. I have sufficient working hours to apply and practice my skills?

1. Strongly Agree []

2. Agree []

3. Indifferent []

4. Disagree []

5. Strongly Disagree []

Q17. Our departmental budget is not adequately funded?

1. Strongly Agree []

Agree []

2. Indifferent []

3. Disagree []

4. Strongly Disagree []

Q17. Our departmental budget is not adequately funded?

1. Strongly Agree []

- Agree []
- 2. Indifferent []
- 3. Disagree []
- 4. Strongly Disagree []



APPENDIX C: Interview Guide

Q1. In your own words, do you think the salary is adequate or inadequate to meet your expectations?

Q2. In your words, would you say that the salaries are fairly or unfairly distributed?

Q3. In your own word, would you say that you are involved or not involved in setting objectives for your department?

Q4. In your own words, would you say that you are informed about the results of performance appraisal?

Q5. In your own words, would you say that your supervisor helps you to overcome your work challenges?

Q6. In your own words, would you say that your colleagues help you to overcome work challenges?

Q7. In your own words, would you say that you are given tasks for which you were trained?

Q8. In your own words, would you say that your colleagues share their ideas on work experiences with you?

Q9. In your own words, would you say that your department has adequate equipment to use?

Q10. In your own words, would you say that you have adequate working hours to practice your skills?

Q11. In your own words, would you say that your departmental budget is adequately funded?
