IMPACT OF A LEARNING CULTURE
ON ORGANISATIONAL CHANGE

Dissertation of

Saeed Sabri-Matanagh

Student ID: 11412808

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School of Business
Faculty of Business
Panorama Avenue
Bathurst, NSW, 2795

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ABSTRACT

Organisational learning and organisational change are separate topics in the literature, and there appears to be a lack of practice considering these issues as interlinked factors in one context. There exists a gap in literature and practice concerning the importance of learning in facilitating sustainable change, and consequently, the sustainability of an organisation. This study focuses on the impact of a learning culture on organisational change. The findings of the study aim to bridge the gap in practice within the field of organisational learning, and explore the influence of a learning culture in supporting the implementation of sustainable change initiatives.

This study has the potential to obtain new insights and valuable information on the role of organisational learning in organisational change. The primary objective of this study is the empirical testing of the proposed organisational learning culture framework. Subsequently, a learning culture framework will empower stakeholders to take precise action, even during periods of instability. The aim of a learning culture is to support sustainable organisational change. The findings of the study facilitate the development of best practices in organisational learning, and assist change managers and policy makers in implementing organisational learning in organisational change initiatives.

Key words: Organisational learning; Knowledge transfer; Organisational change; Organisational strategies; Professional development
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CERTIFICATE OF AUTHORSHIP

I hereby declare that this submission is my own work and that, to the best of my knowledge and belief, it contains no material previously published or written by another person nor material which to a substantial extent has been accepted for the award of any other degree or diploma at Charles Sturt University or any other educational institution, except where due acknowledgment is made in the dissertation. Any contribution made to the research by colleagues with whom I have worked at Charles Sturt University or elsewhere during my candidature is fully acknowledged.

I agree that this Dissertation will be accessible for the purpose of study and research in accordance with the normal conditions established by the Executive Director, Library Services or nominee, for the care, loan and reproduction of theses.
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Chapter 1

Introduction
1.1 Background to the Research

In a constantly changing global environment, adaptation has become the key to survival. Organisations operate in an increasingly volatile operating environment, which poses a challenge to remain robust in their structures and attitudes towards change. In this respect, organisational members depend on learning to provide critical guidance for future organisational change initiatives. Learning has become a source of global competitive advantage since the 1990s (Osland & Yaprak, 1995). The gap between practice and theory in the field of organisational learning attributes to failure in sustainable organisational change. The objective of this study is to discover the link between organisational learning and change.

The sustainability paradigm of organisation development has been a challenging area, as the external environment is constantly changing, and challenges are becoming more unpredictable. Sustainability in respect to organisations is defined as “the result of the activities of an organization, voluntary or governed by law, that demonstrate the ability of the organization to maintain viable its business operations (including financial viability as appropriate) whilst not negatively impacting any social or ecological systems” (P. A. C. Smith & Sharicz, 2011, pp. 73-74).

The constant pressure of a competitive environment becoming more rapid, more risky, and less strategic, has influenced organic growth. Therefore, creation of a learning culture in support of the learning capability of subordinates to analyse and digest the flow of information promptly, and implementing changes in a sustainable manner is paramount to an organisation’s survival. Organisational learning influences organisational change and learning transfer climate (Bates & Khasawneh, 2005),
facilitates individual learning, forms transparent communication and cooperation, and develops trust among staff (Aksu & Ozdemir, 2005).

In addition, an understanding of learning is essential for clarifying processes that are central to organisational change (Steiner, 1998). Organisational change initially entails a transition from clarity to ambiguity. Learning occurs during periods of ambiguity, and enables a new state of clarity. Failure in organisational change occurs when confusion and uncertainty remain in an organisation following the implementation of change. If clarity is not achieved, this undermines the ability of an organisation to adapt to change (Corley & Gioia, 2004). Remarkably, it is important to note that 70 to 80 per cent of organisational change projects fail (Fractal Consulting, 2006).

Organisational change is a combination of complex analytical, cultural and political processes (Vas & Ingham, 2003). Successful organisational change necessitates a focussed approach, requiring an understanding of organisational needs and resources (Gotsill & Natchez, 2007). Organisational change requires an environment conducive to change. Thus, a culture of learning is required to sustain this form of environment. The characteristics required include confidence, being open-minded towards new ideas, flexibility, collaboration, encouraging creativity and innovation, and empowering staff to take actions (Tan, 2001).

The framework shown in Figure 1.1 below, developed by Snyder and Cummings (1998), demonstrates the role of organisational learning and knowledge management in improving organisational performance. This is an integrative framework for understanding organisational learning and knowledge interventions, encompassing management theory and practices (Snyder & Cummings, 1998). The framework
demonstrates the criticality of understanding the mechanics of organisational learning and knowledge management, as these are key inputs in the above process.

**Figure 1.1: Integrative Framework for Organisational Learning and Knowledge Management**

### 1.1.1 Organisational Culture

Organisational culture is defined as the values, beliefs, norms, and social ideals shared by members of an organisation (E. H. Schein, 1996; Smircich, 1983). However, culture is often difficult to identify, due to its intangible nature, and less obvious than other organisational factors such as people and buildings. Culture has much deeper meaning, and not only constitutes symbols, values and norms. Culture can be likened to the spirit of an organisation. The organisation’s spirit affects the physical aspect, and ignorance of this factor causes an organisation to become resistive to change, leading to failed change efforts (Long & Mills, 2010).

Correspondingly, Barabasz (2007) argues that understanding the culture of an organisation facilitates the ability of staff to gauge how an organisation is affected by various factors. Consequently, an understanding of organisational culture leads to successful organisational change, and results in enhanced organisational performance. Management staff are only capable of realising the full potential of organisational
members, when they incorporate the organisational culture into their management style, and duly consider the implications of the context in which change is implemented (Barabasz, 2007).

1.1.2 Organisational Learning

Organisational learning seeks to enhance an organisation’s capability to acquire and develop new knowledge (Snyder & Cummings, 1998). The process of organisational learning involves discovery, invention, production, and generalisation. Individuals continually engage in this process in their interactions with other individuals. This process inherently involves obtaining information, understanding the content and meaning of information, and subsequently taking appropriate actions. The learning process begins with discovery, where gaps are identified between expectations and actual performance (Koskinen, 2010).

Subsequently, invention involves reducing this gap, and analysing the situation to create solutions. This is followed by production, at which point individuals take action on identified solutions. The final stage in this process is generalisation, which involves disseminating this information to other individuals within an organisation. Thus, the individual learning process culminates with the transfer of knowledge across an organisation, which enables other individuals to take action, and subsequently, instil change at the organisational level (Koskinen, 2010).

Organisational learning is further encouraged through the establishment of a learning culture. An organisational learning culture emphasises a focus on learning through the open exchange of information and ideas, in ways that facilitate learning and its creative application. Knowledge transfer within an organisational learning culture consists of
key variables that include effort-performance expectations, performance-outcome expectations, performance self-efficacy, openness to change, and performance feedback (Bates & Khasawneh, 2005).

Bates and Khasawneh (2005) suggest that an organisational learning culture directly influences organisational change and learning transfer climate. This relationship is reciprocal, as learning transfer climate in turn influences organisational change, which results in a cyclical process. Learning transfer climate (Holton, Bates, Seyler, & Carvalho, 1997) refers to the behaviours exhibited with an organisation pertaining to learning and its practical application (Bates & Khasawneh, 2005). Organisational learning is widely viewed as a naturally occurring phenomenon, which results from organisational members working and interacting with the surrounding environment. In this respect, learning is referred to as a by-product of work.

1.1.3 Knowledge Management

The effective management of the intellectual assets of an organisation enhance organisational performance and competitiveness in the operating environment. For this reason, knowledge management is of particular interest when studying organisational change (Hendricks & Vriens, 1999). Knowledge management is identified to occur in two forms, generative and distributive learning. Generative learning, is where new knowledge is created, whereas distributive learning involves the sharing of knowledge that already exists within an organisation (Lines, Aramburu, Rivera, & Saenz, 2008). Nevertheless, the sharing of information and knowledge flow is influential to organisational performance. In this respect, organisations are pressured to identify and implement effective approaches to learning (Aksu & Ozdemir, 2005). Thus, focusing on
the human processes of an organisation significantly enhance the knowledge management capabilities of an organisation (Balthazard & Cooke, 2004).

Increasing competition at a global scale has magnified the difficulty organisations face in operating sustainably (G. W. Duncan, 2006). Correspondingly, in an environment where knowledge has become a key to success, Human Resource Managers are challenged to adopt a suitable approach to knowledge management (J. W. Gilley, Maycunich, & Quatro, 2002). This point underlines the key role of management in clearly conveying to staff their responsibilities and articulating organisational goals, in order to motivate staff to achieve set goals, and facilitate collaboration. Staff need to be aware of organisational expectations in order to perform their duties effectively (Aksu & Ozdemir, 2005).

Within this frame of view, there is wide consensus in the literature that the foremost issue in knowledge management is the transfer of knowledge, and consequently, transparency. Increasing the level of transparency within an organisation is now vital to maintaining effective operations, underlining the importance of communication as the backbone of an organisation, a means for enhanced collaboration, and ultimately, a strategy for business sustainability (Cairncross, 2003).

1.1.4 Information Systems

The use of Information Technology is increasingly utilised as a strategy to assist organisations in undertaking learning initiatives, and support critical knowledge management functions through enhanced knowledge transfer (Whitelaw, 2010). In this respect, computer literacy and the training of organisational members using technology are now regarded as key focal points for training initiatives (G. Duncan, Graf, & Fell,
2009; Ruel & Magalhaes, 2008). Technology is influenced by economic, structural, social, and cognitive factors (Taylor & Helfat, 2009). Changes in IT infrastructure require meticulous planning. Correspondingly, the implementation of any new technology should enhance other aspects of an organisation, and provide a supporting structure for learning and organisational change (Whitelaw, 2010).

Organisations generally introduce new technology through the utilisation of existing resources. In this respect, there needs to be a link between implementers of technology and Human Resource Managers in order to effect wide adoption of new technology across an organisation. Although, technology adoption is often undermined, and consequently limited through the inexistence of this link (Taylor & Helfat, 2009). To this effect, Taylor and Helfat (2009) argue that a pivotal link exists between management support and the adoption of new technology. The role of management in supporting the successful integration of technology is an important link that management staff need to acknowledge, and reflect in their relationship with organisational members (Taylor & Helfat, 2009).

Organisational structures are reinforced through utilising Information Technology. Thus, the effective use of technology within an organisation, and the role of technology in guiding organisational policies and processes, directly influences approaches to learning. Organisations benefit from the use of blended learning, which involves combining technology with traditional approaches to learning. Consequently, blended learning contributes to the success of organisational change initiatives (G. Duncan, et al., 2009; Taylor & Helfat, 2009).
1.1.5 Organisational Change

Organisational change is a planned process (Battilana, Gilmartin, Sengul, Pache, & Alexander, 2010) that affects organisational culture (C. F. Chiang, 2010). Change may result from external factors, and is affected by the behaviour of organisational members (Enksen, 2008). The nature of change determines its impact on leadership, culture, and structure (Antonelli, Antonietti, & Guidetti, 2010; Schimmel & Muntslag, 2009). Change is influenced by politics, policies and procedures (Antonelli, et al., 2010; M. Brown & Cregan, 2008).

There is wide consensus in the literature that organisational culture is a highly influential element in organisational change (J. Andrews, Cameron, & Harris, 2008; Atkinson, 2005; Bates & Khasawneh, 2005; Bryson, 2008; Meyer, Hecht, Gill, & Toplonytsky, 2010). The outcomes of organisational change are highly dependent on organisational culture and the cultural fit of staff (Meyer, et al., 2010). The perception of staff towards the culture within an organisation, and the actual culture that exists, affects the commitment of staff to organisational change (Barabasz, 2007; Lucas & Kline, 2008; Yan & Liang, 2007).

In this respect, organisational change initiatives fail due to inadequate analysis of the existing and emerging culture, and the impact of organisational change on culture (Antonelli, et al., 2010; Atkinson, 2005). On the other hand, 90 per cent of culture change initiatives fail in achieving their objectives, which can be attributed to the complex changes involved (Atkinson, 2005). These findings point to the complexity of organisational culture (Bryson, 2008; Parish, Cadwallader, & Busch, 2008), and the need for effectively managing culture to instil successful organisational change (Schimmel & Muntslag, 2009).
Concurrently, organisational change and learning are directly linked (Alas & Sun, 2007). Organisational change is an outcome of learning. Learning also results from the process and outcomes change. In this respect, the interplay between these two factors varies in relation to the nature and source of change. Approaches to change are determined by the need for change. Concurrently, staff require training to adapt to change, underlining the two-way relationship between learning and change (Heikkila, 2009). Organisational change involves a process of cognitive learning (Lines, et al., 2008).

1.1.6 Organisational Performance

Organisational change and long-term performance are by-products of organisational learning culture. Effective organisational change depends on knowledge transfer, in order to create a systematic process linking learning organisation cultures and innovation. Therefore, to maximise the creativity and innovation of an organisation, careful analysis of climate and culture and the design and facilitation of learning is required for innovative problem solving and determining future changes (Bates & Khasawneh, 2005).

There is a need for the recognition of learning and its effect on organisations, specifically how learning supports organisational change (Uberoy, 2007). Learning in organisations has become of increasing importance, and learning is now utilised as a strategy for sustainability. A culture of learning will increase the performance and sustainability of the organisation in a constantly changing environment. Creating a culture that embraces change may make the difference between the success and failure of new management processes and system implementations (Gotsill & Natchez, 2007).
1.2 Research Problem

The study explores the influence of a learning culture on organisational change. Despite the substantive body of knowledge on organisational learning and organisational change, recent research concerning the impact of organisational learning on organisational change remains limited. Furthermore, a framework integrating organisational learning and organisational change within a process is non-existent. From the observations of the literature, a gap in practice has emerged. The business problem addressed in the research is:

How does a learning culture influence organisational change?

The research problem was initially identified in a pilot study that was conducted during the coursework stage of this Dissertation. The pilot study consisted of two phases, and involved seven organisations in a qualitative study. The first phase of this pilot study involved interviews with five organisations. It was during this first phase of the pilot study that a gap in practice was identified in respect to organisations creating a learning culture. This phase set the foundation for succeeding research in this area. In the second phase of the pilot study, an additional two organisations were studied, the results of which subsequently led to this study.

Organisations are generally inclined towards a learning culture, or unknowingly take actions towards that. The business problem addressed in this study concerns integrating learning into the organisational change process. Learning is a key aspect of change. Learning cultures create an environment for sustainable action in terms of learning and its implementation. Thus, a learning culture works to establish excellence in organisational operations, and suffice the momentum of growth of an organisation (E.
Antonacopoulou & Chiva, 2007; Elena P. Antonacopoulou, 2006; Cummings & Worley, 2009). Organisational learning is a systematic approach to subliminally engraving a set of cognitive capabilities into the minds of organisational members (Elena P. Antonacopoulou, 2006).

1.3 Justification for the Research

The study has significance for business theory and practice. The outcome of the research is the development of a framework for managing learning throughout the process of organisational change. The conceptual framework demonstrates how the integration of organisational learning into the organisational change process affects change outcomes. The following objectives outline the aims of the study:

1) To explore the impact of a learning culture within an organisation on organisational change.

2) To understand the role of leaders in establishing a learning culture within an organisation to promote organisational change.

3) Understanding the influence of organisational policies on the learning culture.

1.4 Methodology

This study entailed case studies of two Australian organisations within a qualitative research framework. Due to confidentiality, the two case organisations are de-identified, and referred to in this study as Organisation G and Organisation H. Organisation G is a not-for-profit organisation, with headquarters based in Sydney, Australia, and regional
offices across Australia and throughout the world. Organisation H is an educational institution headquartered in Melbourne, Australia, with a number of campuses across Victoria, and an additional four campuses in the Asia-Pacific region.

The rationale behind selecting the organisations in this research is based on several factors. Most of the organisations selected have been in operation for more than five years and in a phase of rapid growth. The case organisations emphasised on organisational learning. The rationale behind choosing senior and middle management staff as interviewees was due to their access to extensive knowledge of organisational operations, involved in decision-making, and in a position to influence organisational change. In addition, interviewees consisted of employees from positions exposed to a wide range of cultural dynamics indicative of the entire organisation, through personal experiences, involvement in decision-making, interaction with employees, feedback from peers, and observations of the organisation.

The case study approach was utilised for its appropriateness in analysing the individual experiences of employees, and their perspective on the organisation and its environment (Veal, 2005). Case studies acknowledge the importance of considering both history and the present, to analyse what has occurred previously, and how and why it has shaped the present situation, providing insight on the current situation. This approach entails a holistic contextual study, hence its application in business research, as the data obtained in case studies are specific to the context in which they are observed (R. Yin, 1993). The study encompassed a total of fourteen interviews from the two case organisations, involving senior management staff from Organisation G, and middle and senior management staff from Organisation H. Data collection entailed face-to-face in-depth interviews. Verbatim transcripts were employed to record qualitative interview data accurately, and for subsequent transcription to text for analysis.
1.5 Outline of the Dissertation

This dissertation employs a five-chapter structure to detail the undertaking and findings of the research. Chapter two evaluates the literature surrounding organisational learning and change, focusing on the two subject areas as individual research areas and interlinked factors. Chapter three details the methodology employed in collecting and analysing data from the case organisations in order to address the research problem and related objectives of the research. Chapter four analyses the findings generated using the selected methodologies. Perry (2002) states: “In theses using these relatively qualitative methodologies of case studies or action research, the analysis of data in Chapter 4 becomes a categorisation of data in the form of words, with information about each research issue collected together with some preliminary reflection about the information. That is, the thesis still has five chapters in total” (p. 7). Chapter five provides a summary of the research issues, and the theoretical and managerial implications of the research findings. The structure of the Dissertation is shown in Figure 1.2 below:

![Dissertation Structure](image)

Figure 1.2: Dissertation Structure
1.6 Delimitations of Scope and Key Assumptions, and their Justifications

The study is subject to differing interpretations of individuals on the occurrence and success of learning in their workplace. However, the study assumes that organisations are subject to the same process of learning, and differences only occur due to different levels of learning, understanding of the learning process, knowledge transfer, and integration of the learning process into decision-making and strategic planning. This study identifies characteristics and elements that are commonly shared to a certain degree with other organisations, and explores issues faced by other organisations in the areas of learning and change.

Further, it is important to note that this study has taken over two years to complete, and within these two years technology has significantly changed, and market trends are changing. The nature of this study only allowed for consideration of technologies available during the period of data collection. In this respect, one limitation to this research is constantly changing technology. There should be ongoing research within the fields of organisational learning and development in order to accommodate technological advances and their implications for learning within organisations.

1.7 Conclusion

This chapter outlined the research problem that has emerged from observations of the literature, outlined the research objectives set for this study, and defined the scope of the research. The subsequent section discusses learning in organisations, the characteristics that form a learning organisation, and knowledge transfer, with a focus on how these organisational variables are interrelated. This follows with a discussion on how
organisational learning links to change, performance and innovation, and identifies factors affecting the implementation of organisational learning. Further, the theoretical framework that developed from a review of the literature is explored. Subsequent sections detail the research methodology employed and ethical issues involved in utilising the selected approach. Also, the limitations and key assumptions of the study are discussed, and contribution to the existing discussion on organisational learning and management practice.
Chapter 2

Literature Review
2.1 Introduction

Studies of organisational learning and organisational change as independent research fields are extensive. However, limited research is available linking learning culture and organisational change, and whilst extensive literature on organisational change exists, change initiatives are to a great extent subject to failure (Woodward & Hendry, 2004). Thus, a need emerges for examining the link between organisational learning and change. This chapter examines the body of knowledge surrounding knowledge management, organisational learning and organisational change, focusing specifically on the impact of a learning culture on organisational change. Research linking organisational learning and organisational change are cited, including learning, change, culture, knowledge transfer, and organisational performance, to create a point of reference for linking these topics.

This chapter also explores the role of leadership in facilitating a learning culture, and the potential of Information Technology to improve knowledge transfer and collaboration, and as a result facilitate a learning organisation. These areas are discussed within the context of organisational change and learning. The research cited in this chapter leads to the development of the theoretical framework shown in Section 2.9. Studies of the relationship between organisational learning and organisational change encounter the aforementioned research areas. The structure of this chapter is demonstrated in Figure 2.1:
2.2 Organisational Culture

Organisational culture is defined as the values, beliefs, norms, social ideals, stories, vision, dreams and myths shared by members of an organisation (Detert, Schroeder, & Mauriel, 2000; Pettigrew, 1979; E. H. Schein, 1996; Smircich, 1983). Despite the absence of large-scale consensus on the definition and concept of culture, there is a general consensus in the literature that culture is holistic, historically determined, and socially constructed (Detert, et al., 2000). Organisational culture is the collective understanding of a culture embraced by members of an organisation (Ravasi & Schultz, 2006; Sackmann, 1992).
Organisational culture becomes manifest in organisational artefacts, which consist of symbols, heroes, rites and rituals, myths, ceremonies, and organisational sagas (Detert, et al., 2000). Further, Detert, Schroeder and Mauriel propose that organisational culture is identified in the underlying meanings of these artefacts (Detert, et al., 2000). Organisational culture is a process enabling specialist knowledge to be translated directly into policies (Kieser & Koch, 2008). Organisational culture is integrated into organisational systems and processes, and is an underlying function within an organisational management system (Daft, 2001; Pool, 2000).

Organisational culture is formed by social means, and determined by individual interactions (Detert, et al., 2000). Organisations are viewed as entities that process information by applying a set of shared understandings inherent in the social interactions that take place within a specific context (Walsh & Ungson, 1991). These shared understandings are a direct function of organisational learning and performance, and an indirect function of organisational change that results from the aforementioned elements (Schwandt, 1997).

Culture is a determinant of organisational sustainability, and growing in importance as organisations increasingly operate in a multinational environment (Chich-Jen, Wang, & Fu-Jin, 2009). Thus, cross-cultural management is critical for employees to rapidly learn and adapt to different cultures and environments. This requires considering several factors of “localization construction, multicultural coexistence, cultural conflict, and cultural mergence at the time of cross-cultural management” (Chich-Jen, et al., 2009, p. 16). Cross-cultural training is positively linked to organisational performance within a cross-cultural environment, which results from improved staff satisfaction and work performance (Chich-Jen, et al., 2009).
Organisational responsiveness to change is determined by the organisational culture (Ravasi & Schultz, 2006), which is a central factor in the success of organisational innovation initiatives (Detert, et al., 2000). Organisational culture supports organisational development (Bate, Khan, & Pye, 2000). Organisational culture also supports management to implement organisational change (Ravasi & Schultz, 2006), and organisational learning through transparent communication, the challenged work, and cooperation between organisational members (Aksu & Ozdemir, 2005).

According to Barnett and McKendrick (2004), the culture of an organisation is also a source of resistance. The boundaries set by the organisational culture determine the extent of learning (Elena P. Antonacopoulou, 2006). Cultural resistance to organisational change may arise from the inability of employees to adapt to change, or their unwillingness to adopt new processes. Employees may be reluctant to move from a comfortable state of certainty, to an unsettling state of uncertainty, and prefer to maintain the status quo, as humans naturally prefer stability (Detert, et al., 2000). Thus, the cultural fit of individuals within an organisation determines their complementarities and compatibility with organisational objectives (Meyer, et al., 2010).

Organisational culture is a double-edged sword that can facilitate and inhibit learning (Elena P. Antonacopoulou, 2006). Organisational culture supports employees through the change process by providing a framework to interpret the environment and a perception of continuity (Ravasi & Schultz, 2006). Organisational culture regulates employee behaviour. However, where the culture is unable to satisfy both the requirements of employees and the organisation, and sufficient guidance is not provided, organisational members may potentially engage in counter-productive behaviour.
Conservative cultures hinder the practice of learning (Chinowsky & Carrillo, 2007). Learning inherently implies change, and change in organisations is a difficult task when individuals adhere to traditional practices (Chinowsky & Carrillo, 2007). Organisations also encounter resistance due to their size and complexity. Large organisations are generally more complex, and exhibit more resistance to change. However, it is important to note that while resistance to change occurs during the change process, resistance may continue to affect an organisation after change has been implemented (Barnett & McKendrick, 2004).

Organisational culture and psychological climate facilitating learning are of great importance for organisational change. These findings justify the need to maximise creativity and innovation (Bates & Khasawneh, 2005; Reissner, 2005). Such characteristics are achieved through analysis of the organisational culture and climate for behaviours that assist learning, and its application in creative problem solving (Bates & Khasawneh, 2005). Organisations can also facilitate change by creating a culture that is supportive of individual initiatives, collaboration, innovation, creativity, confidence building and transparency (Aksu & Ozdemir, 2005). The level of support provided by the organisational culture determines the extent of organisational learning, hence the latter is a function of the former (Pool, 2000).

Prior to the implementation of change initiatives, an organisation requires an established environment that supports ensuing change (Elena P. Antonacopoulou, 2006). Organisational culture can motivate employees to take on the role of actors and become ‘agents’ when centralised in organisational change initiatives (E. Antonacopoulou & Chiva, 2007; Friedman, 2001). Organisational change initiatives fail due to the inadequate analysis of the existing and emerging culture and learning needs, and the impact of organisational learning on organisational change (Elena P. Antonacopoulou,
2006). Culture is generally viewed as a major barrier to the long-term success of change initiatives (Chinowsky & Carrillo, 2007).

Organisations face the paradox of balancing business, social and environmental sustainability (Benn, Dunphy, & Martin, 2009; Johnson, Connolly, & Carter, 2011). Stakeholder pressures have mounted, as society has steadily grown more aware of social and environmental issues (González-Benito & González-Benito, 2010; Prakash & Potoski, 2012). Dated management theories are incapable in constantly evaluating the change process in terms of risk reduction (Benn, et al., 2009). Therefore, the need for a sustainable process supportive a constant strive towards excellence inside an organisation emerges. Sustainability embeds into organisational culture when an organisation establishes a learning environment, and consequently becomes more aware of environmental and social issues. This requires engagement with multiple stakeholders and implementing suitable governance procedures (Benn, et al., 2009).

### 2.3 Knowledge Management

In studies of organisational development, knowledge management is of great importance, and the effective management of knowledge creates an environment conducive to change. Knowledge is normally obtained using a process of socialisation (Ikuijiro Nonaka, Toyama, & Konno, 2000), which involves observing, understanding, and participating (Eraut, 2000). Knowledge management also involves externalisation, combination, and internalisation (Ikuijiro Nonaka, et al., 2000). Knowledge is acquired through implicit, reactive and deliberative learning (Eraut, 2000). Implicit knowledge is normally more potent than explicit knowledge, despite the latter being readily accessible (Casey, 2005).
Knowledge can be categorised as explicit or tacit. Explicit knowledge is explained, recorded, or documented, and therefore tangible and easily accessed by individuals and communicated (McInerney, 2002). Contrastingly, tacit knowledge is more difficult to access, as it involves intuitive knowledge guided by experience. Tacit knowledge takes the form of knowledge embedded in the minds of individuals. This subconscious knowledge is difficult to transfer (Chinowsky & Carrillo, 2007; McInerney, 2002). The fundamental principles of knowledge management link explicit and tacit knowledge. Knowledge management involves connecting individuals to share tacit knowledge, and/or transforming the tacit knowledge of individuals into explicit knowledge for subsequent adoption by the organisation (Chinowsky & Carrillo, 2007; Eraut, 2000; G. von Krogh, Ichijo, & Nonaka, 2000).

The ‘knowledge assets’ of an organisation can potentially contribute to sustained competitive advantage (Hendricks & Vriens, 1999). The availability and flow of information is primarily influenced by human processes (Balthazard & Cooke, 2004). Human Resource Managers are faced with the challenge of utilising a rigid or fluid approach to knowledge management (J. W. Gilley, et al., 2002). The importance of knowledge management is underscored, as competition has increased globally, continuing to create a difficult operating environment, in which organisations are continually challenged to survive (G. W. Duncan, 2006). Thus, transparency is of increasing importance to organisations, and companies are likely to place more emphasis on the management of staff, rather than physical assets (Cairncross, 2003).

The long-term success of an organisation is a function of the capabilities of an organisation in managing knowledge (I. Nonaka & Takeuchi, 1995). Organisations can magnify the value of individual knowledge by transferring it to the entire organisation, and when this occurs with tacit knowledge, it leads to competitive advantage when an
organisation utilises knowledge that remains dormant to other organisations (Chinowsky & Carrillo, 2007). Hence, organisations require a robust knowledge management program (Chinowsky & Carrillo, 2007; I. Nonaka & Takeuchi, 1995).

### 2.3.1 Knowledge Transfer in Organisations

Knowledge and learning are linked (Chinowsky & Carrillo, 2007). Organisations generally must share information and experiences (Aksu & Ozdemir, 2005). Knowledge transfer is key to knowledge management and learning, and encourages knowledge acquisition and transmission throughout an organisation (Chinowsky & Carrillo, 2007; Chiva & Alegre, 2005). There is consensus that knowledge transfer bears significant influence on organisational change (Chinowsky & Carrillo, 2007; Cummings & Worley, 2009). Schulz (2001) proposes change is an integrative process centred on knowledge. Change occurs through the collection of new knowledge, codification of knowledge, and combination with old knowledge (Schulz, 2001).

Knowledge management is key to the long-term sustainability of an organisation (I. Nonaka & Takeuchi, 1995). Chinowsky and Carrillo (2007) propose that the constantly changing business environment demands organisations to adopt new technologies that facilitate learning across an organisation. There are strong links between knowledge management and on-the-job learning in organisations (Chan & Garrick, 2003). Utilising valuable knowledge and facilitating knowledge transfer across an organisation are crucial to survive and compete (Chinowsky & Carrillo, 2007; Kieser & Koch, 2008; Stonehouse & Pemberton, 1999).

Knowledge transfer considers knowledge and learning of linkages within an organisation, in order to establish links across an organisation (E. Antonacopoulou &
Chiva, 2007; Mitleton-Kelly, 2003). The main purpose of knowledge transfer is to consolidate a culture of cooperation, and facilitate innovative capabilities in individual and collective analysis of the environment. Knowledge transfer sustains organic growth within an organisation, and accelerates the rate of growth without manipulating the administration, who may prevent this process in an ordinary environment due to bureaucracy (Chinowsky & Carrillo, 2007).

2.3.2 Knowledge Transfer Interventions

Knowledge transfer entails training individuals to achieve their highest level of performance and excellence, in order to perform their organisational duties effectively. Such training supports the development of a subliminal culture for practice collectively amongst members of an organisation (Chinowsky & Carrillo, 2007). Eraut (2000) proposes the majority of learning is non-formal. Differences arise between formal and non-formal learning due to the intention to learn (Eraut, 2000). Thus, knowledge transfer interventions often emerge in the form of training programs.

Training is commonly defined as the provision of knowledge and skills (Elena P. Antonacopoulou, 2006). Training enables organisational members to obtain knowledge in a specific field or process (E. P. Antonacopoulou, 2006). The approach that organisations undertake to train their staff and management determine learning outcomes (E. P. Antonacopoulou, 2001). Training, as a learning event, enables the closer examination of an organisation, development of strategies for sustainability, and development of acceptable employee behaviour (Elena P. Antonacopoulou, 2006).

Organisations utilise formal training and education to enable organisational members to adapt to changes in the environment (Casey, 2005). Training is defined as the provision
of knowledge and skills (E. P. Antonacopoulou, 2006, p. 461). Training programs are a formal and effective means of transferring knowledge, and provides organisational members with specific knowledge relevant to their work (E. P. Antonacopoulou, 2006). Further, training enhances the effectiveness and confidence of organisational members through the refinement of knowledge, thus enabling organisational members to adapt to changes within their work environment (Casey, 2005).

Consequently, training entails a process of learning. Antonacopoulou (2006b) defines learning as “the process of acquiring knowledge and skills” (p. 461). Though whilst the majority of learning is encountered in training, such formal learning mechanisms are incapable of retaining knowledge consistently across an organisation, in terms of the time that information is retained (E. P. Antonacopoulou, 1999a, 1999b). Contrastingly, Eraut (2000) proposes knowledge involving an informal process of socialising, where information is obtained by observation, induction and increasing participation, rather than formal inquiry (Eraut, 2000, p. 122).

Human resource development professionals formulate learning programs to assist staff to adapt to change while considering adult learning theories (Knowles, 1990), and training design (Nadler, 1982). Most learning initiatives have focused on formal training programmes, resulting in inconsistent, and lack of uniformity in the time learning remains (E. P. Antonacopoulou, 1999a, 1999b). Knowledge management programs extract and clarify individual knowledge, and provide a structured framework for facilitating the adoption of individual learning in organisational practices, as a result distributing benefits across an organisation (Chinowsky & Carrillo, 2007; I. Nonaka & Takeuchi, 1995).
Formal training outcomes are influenced by the relevance of training packages to organisations, and opportunities for organisational members to apply their learning (E. P. Antonacopoulou, 1999b, 2001; Casey, 2005). Organisations can overcome such issues through facilitating and supporting learning in the work environment and its application (Torraco, 1999). Hence, the literature on learning is shifting focus towards informal learning processes (Casey, 2005).

Organisations adopt induction and training programs to impart vital knowledge and enhance understanding of organisational policies and processes (Corley & Gioia, 2004). Induction programs empower individuals undertaking individual initiatives to propagate the mission of an organisation. Thus, the adaptation of induction programs is justified for reducing organisational bureaucracy (E. Antonacopoulou & Chiva, 2007). Further, there is benefit from complementing formal training with informal learning, such as coaching, mentoring, forums, and providing access to professional journals. Organisations can further encourage learning through rewards and incentives for employees who continuously learn, through funding courses for employees, and learning during work hours (Dymock & McCarthy, 2006).

Mentoring is particularly effective in providing knowledge and skills to less experienced employees, resulting in the increased use of this learning approach within organisations (Weinberg & Lankau, 2011). Mentoring is defined as “a developmental relationship in which a senior or more experienced organizational member provides guidance for a less experienced individual” (Weinberg & Lankau, 2011, p. 1530). Mentoring provides “guidance in the forms of time, effort, knowledge, support, and feedback to a protégé” (Weinberg & Lankau, 2011, p. 1530).
2.4 Organisational Learning

Individuals adopt characteristics from the society in which they reside (J. S. Brown & Duguid, 1991; Jarvis, 1987), where society refers to the wider population, or the culture exhibited by a group of staff in an organisation (Casey, 2005). These characteristics pertain to social variables, which include knowledge, values, beliefs, and attitudes (Jarvis, 1987). Antonacopoulou (2001) proposes that learning is the liberation of knowledge through learning and self-questioning. Organisational learning is a social process influenced by various organisational elements, which include organisational structure, information, communication and control processes (Hedberg, 1981; Pawlowsky, 2001; Simon, 1991). These elements shape the way in which individuals within an organisation learn (Elena P. Antonacopoulou, 2006).

Schwandt (1997) argues organisational learning is a social system, where individuals in an organisation engage in collective social action in order to learn. Jarvis (1987) proposes that learning is a psychological process, and is closely linked to and affected by the environment in that it takes place (J. S. Brown & Duguid, 1991; Jarvis, 1987). There is wide consensus that organisational learning is a cultural process (Aksu & Ozdemir, 2005; Elena P. Antonacopoulou, 2006; Bates & Khasawneh, 2005; S. D. N. Cook & Yanow, 1993; Yanow, 2000). Organisational learning is a cultural process due to the intrinsic nature of organisational learning and culture to demonstrate ‘inter-subjective meanings’ that determine the actions of individuals (Elena P. Antonacopoulou, 2006). Antonacopoulou and Chiva (2007) argue that learning is a dynamic and complex process bound by ‘social forces’, which work to determine the nature of interactions within a system (E. Antonacopoulou & Chiva, 2007; J. S. Brown & Duguid, 1991). Chiva and Alegre (2005) propose that organisational learning is an
efficient procedure for the processing, interpretation and improvement of representations of reality, which is knowledge (Chiva & Alegre, 2005, p. 62).

Learning has the potential to significantly facilitate business sustainability (Chinowsky & Carrillo, 2007). Similarly, Cook and Yanow (1996) define it as acquiring, sustaining and exchanging the shared understandings of organisational members, through the integration of cultural artefacts and group initiatives (S. Cook & Yanow, 1996). Friedman (2001) views organisational members as organisational learning ‘agents’. Organisational learning has the potential to facilitate individual learning, form transparent communication and cooperation, and develop trust among staff (Aksu & Ozdemir, 2005). Therefore, it is critical for organisations to support these agents to achieve organisational objectives (Friedman, 2001).


Two main frameworks are identified in the organisational learning literature; adaptation, which refers to changes in behaviour, and knowledge creation, which involves cognition (Glynn, Milliken, & Lant, 1994). Popper and Lipshitz (1998) define organisational
learning mechanisms as ‘institutionalised, structural and procedural arrangements that allow organisations to learn non-vicariously, that is, to collect, analyse, store, disseminate and use systematically information that is relevant to their and their members’ performance’. Organisational learning entails the development and application of ‘intellectual capital’ to improve organisational efficiency (Bates & Khasawneh, 2005).

Organisational learning is influenced by uncertainty in the operating environment, and a culture of leadership that supports the learning mechanisms (Casey, 2005). Learning may be enhanced and supported by ‘psychological climates’ and ‘human resource systems’ (Bates & Khasawneh, 2005). Bates and Khasawneh (2005) propose that organisational learning and innovation involve similar processes, and the variables that affect these processes are mostly common between the two. These variables consist of culture, climate, leadership, management practices, and the structures, systems and environment of an organisation. The variables also concern knowledge management and transfer, specifically information acquisition, retrieval, and sharing (Bates & Khasawneh, 2005; Kaiser, 2000). Antonacopoulou and Chiva (2007) agree with Gherardi, Nicolini, and Odella (1998) and Elkjaer (2003), which learning possesses a ‘situated, institutionalised and negotiated nature’ when concerning organising (E. Antonacopoulou & Chiva, 2007; Elkjaer, 2003; Gherardi, Nicolini, & Odella, 1998).

Visible characteristics of organisational learning are approaches to creativity and innovation, the support of human resources in the continual development of employees, and how management channel their efforts towards change and innovation (Bates & Khasawneh, 2005). These characteristics influence individual behaviours towards learning and applying new knowledge and skills, and are evident in individual perspectives and expectations on the learning process and the importance of learning in
change (Bates & Khasawneh, 2005). This is referred to in organisations as the learning transfer climate (Holton, et al., 1997). Bates and Khasawneh (2005) propose that learning is potentially revealed through outcomes such as creativity and innovation.

Individual and organisational learning are linked (Elena P. Antonacopoulou, 2006). Organisational learning is greater than the collection of individual learning in an organisation (Huysman, 1999; Rhodes, Lok, Hung, & Fang, 2008), and is the shared development of new meanings, achievable by facilitating knowledge sharing, equal participation, and integrating other perspectives and experiences shared by organisational members (Dixon, 1997). Collective learning is driven by the systematic occurrence of inconsistencies and tensions within and amongst activity systems (Blackler, Crump, & McDonald, 1999). Learning and the transfer of learning are important processes in organisational innovation (Bates & Khasawneh, 2005). Organisational learning involves changing and developing existing theories (Argyris & Schon, 1996), and is a path to becoming a learning organisation (Bayraktaroglu & Kutanis, 2002).

2.4.1 Learning in the Organisational Context

The literature on learning focuses on action and cognition (Casey, 2005). One view is that learning and knowledge emanate from work activities, and are not reducible to individual actions and learning (Engestrom & Miettinen, 1999). Huber (1991) proposes that learning-related processes include knowledge acquisition, information distribution and interpretation, and organisational memory. Updating knowledge and skills ensures employability, job security and creates opportunities for career advancement (Dymock & McCarthy, 2006). Organisations may implement internal training by consulting with educational institutions to develop effective training programs. To design a vocational
learning program that supports the development of a wide spectrum of skills, managers need to acquire knowledge of organisational diagnosis skills, and traditional training techniques (Casey, 2005).

Chiva and Alegre (2005) view learning as part of a system, arguing that a cognitive system aims to create a highly precise representation of an entity, and learning is a means of improving representation. Gherardi (1999) proposes viewing organisations as entities, in which individuals learn in order to belong to an entity, as opposed to knowing an entity (Gherardi, 1999). Learning is equally conscious and unconscious, and stems from individual and work experiences, training, following exemplars in the organisations, and coaching through apprenticeship and mentoring programs (Elena P. Antonacopoulou, 2006).

Learning occurs within and by organisations (Popper & Lipshitz, 1998). Learning in organisations occurs on several levels, which include individual and team learning, and organisational and inter-organisational learning (Aksu & Ozdemir, 2005). Learning occurs within an organisation through individuals, and organisational learning occurs at the collective level, bounded in organisational processes (Casey, 2005). The identification of learning within organisations is through variables and metaphors. Variables refer to learning designed within and affecting an organisation. Metaphors refer to organisations as culture, and learning is viewed as an element of the culture (Garavan, 1997).

Williams (2001) proposes that learning is either planned or emergent. Planned learning comes from planned change initiatives, whereas emergent learning is a function of the culture. Learning in either form is greatly influenced by the modelling and leadership that assists individuals to create meaning (Williams, 2001). Learning also takes various
forms, depending on the timing and rationale for learning, and the effect it has on those undertaking learning. Learning occurs through an incremental or dynamic process. Incremental learning obtains knowledge as it is required, whereas a dynamic approach involves a proactive search for knowledge prior to when it is required (Chinowsky & Carrillo, 2007). Casey (2005) proposes frequent learning is more effective than formal learning processes in producing learning outcomes, and shaped by technical systems, policies and processes.

The literature on organisational learning centres on two modes of learning, single loop and double loop learning (Aksu & Ozdemir, 2005; Argyris, 2000). The two learning types differ in the level of change incurred (Argyris, 2000). Senge (1990) proposes similar learning styles, with a focus on the timing of learning. Organisations engaging in one-loop learning employ a reactive learning approach (Aksu & Ozdemir, 2005; Argyris, 2000), as in incremental learning (Chinowsky & Carrillo, 2007), proposing a solution to an existing problem, while maintaining their existing assumptions (Aksu & Ozdemir, 2005). One-loop learning involves a process change, by responding to information from past experiences and focusing on problem symptoms (Argyris, 2000). The one-loop learning approach is employed by most organisations (Aksu & Ozdemir, 2005).

Contrastingly, two-loop learning goes further to analyse holistically the underlying and surface elements of an organisation. These elements consist of targets, nature, values, and beliefs (Aksu & Ozdemir, 2005). This dynamic approach (Chinowsky & Carrillo, 2007) proactively resolves procedural problems encountered in learning (Argyris, 2000), normally resulting in organisational culture change (Aksu & Ozdemir, 2005) due to its holistic approach to developing learning solutions. In two-loop learning, symptoms serve as indicators, and learning focuses on finding the underlying cause of a
problem, in order to change the fundamental principles and theories of a process (Argyris, 2000). An organisation that undertakes a two-looped approach is characteristic of a learning organisation (Aksu & Ozdemir, 2005).

Murray (2002) proposes that organisations learn through adaptive and generative learning, similar to Argyris (2000). One-loop learning is associated with an adaptive process, and double-loop learning is associated with a generative process (Chinowsky & Carrillo, 2007). Organisations that utilise one-loop learning or adaptive learning minimally address a need for change (Kululanga, McCaffer, Price, & Edum-Fotwe, 1999). However, the importance of one-loop learning should not be ignored when implementing generative learning (Nevis, DiBella, & Gould, 1995), as organisations eventually encounter problems that remain following generative learning, and require adaptive learning to overcome such problems (Chinowsky & Carrillo, 2007).

Organisations using adaptive learning respond to warnings through definition and interpretation (Murray, 2002). In the adaptive learning approach, an organisation continues to operate with its existing knowledge, until an experience or event occurs that pushes for change (Senge, 1990). This entails learning through output improvement, and is known as level-by-level learning. Generative learning on the other hand provides a new perspective for managing an organisation and understanding customers (Murray, 2002). Generative learning 'enhances ability to create', and emanates from the view that future change is possible, whereas adaptive learning focuses on actualised present changes (Senge, 1990). However, this process needs constant support and allocation of resources. Thus, the creation of a culture of learning reduces excessive usage of resources, enhancing the ability of an organisation to adapt to change and obtain stakeholder support.
However, learning in the course of action is often a difficult and unaccomplished task. Thus, organisations are challenged to engage in “action learning” when employees are focussed on completing tasks, rather than learning in the process (Sofo, Yeo, & Villafañe, 2010). Action learning “is concerned about learning from concrete experience and critical reflection on that experience; the focus is on group discussion, trial and error, discovery, and learning from and with each learner” (Sofo, et al., 2010, p. 208). Learning through this approach is driven by “the questioning of workplace assumptions and problems in complex situations and conditions” (Sofo, et al., 2010, p. 208).

Action learning may involve a generative approach that facilitates processes and outcomes to emerge leading to further cycles of action. The authors also propose “three most critical learning elements or premises in action learning, namely, (a) the need to ask reflective questions; (b) the need for learning at the individual, team, and organizational level; and (c) the need for an action learning coach” (p. 206). Action learning promotes double-loop learning through the engagement of participants in “multifaceted learning strategies” to allow for the liberation of personal ideas beyond causality (Sofo, et al., 2010, p. 207).

Learning entails a change in organisational culture through the development of new attitudes and behaviours (Chan & Garrick, 2003). Thus, learning is enhanced in an organisation through the establishment of a learning culture (Chinowsky & Carrillo, 2007). Organisational learning culture has a direct influence on organisational change. An organisational learning culture directly influences organisational change and learning transfer climate. This relationship is reciprocal, as learning transfer climate, in turn, influences organisational innovation, which demonstrates a cyclical process. Learning transfer climate also forms a link between organisational learning culture and
change. The values and beliefs intrinsic to a learning culture have the potential to influence organisational change (Bates & Khasawneh, 2005).

In organisations exhibiting a learning culture, individuals and organisations are connected through a unified learning system, and the knowledge and skills being learned are ‘social products’ (Chene, 1983). An organisational learning culture shares common values and beliefs on the importance, integration and transfer of learning. Organisations with a learning culture support information acquisition, knowledge transfer, and continuous learning and its role in organisational development. The values identified in an organisational learning culture are that the sum of the individuals is greater than the individuals, there is an underlying notion of equality, and risks, changes and development are encouraged (Daft, 2001).

2.4.2 Individual Learning

There is wide consensus in the literature that individual learning within an organisation involves individuals understanding and interpreting information, in order to implement information into action, and relay information to other individuals. Casey (2005) proposes that individual learning involves a process of socialisation, and is linked to organisational outcomes (Casey, 2005). Individuals socialise to develop constructs of their surrounding environment, and learn from the social interactions in that partake within their respective groups (Gherardi, et al., 1998). Further, individual learning involves risk-taking, perceiving and adapting to change, and encountering and using new experiences (Aksu & Ozdemir, 2005). Individual learning supports the feelings and skills of employees (Aksu & Ozdemir, 2005; Elena P. Antonacopoulou, 2006; Casey, 2005; Friedman, 2001; D. H. Kim, 1993). Individual learning is a path to understanding the ‘collective mind’ of an organisation. The collective mind refers to the mental models
adopted by an organisation, at both the individual and organisational level, which are used to delineate meanings recognised by learning (Weick & Roberts, 1993).

Individual learning occurs in organisations in three forms, formal, informal, and incidental learning. Formal learning occurs from individual learning, as a result of training and development programs in a class setting, and is commonly used to develop managers (V. J. Marsick & Watkins, 1990). Informal learning is the main source of learning in organisations, and involves informal and incidental learning, which occurs in daily interactions in an organisation (V. J. Marsick & Watkins, 1990; Sorohan, 1993). Varying definitions exist on informal learning, from unintentional learning, to autonomy (Garrick, 1998). Marsick and Watkins (1990) define informal learning as incidental learning that occurs in organisations, where the learner determines learning, and not necessarily in a highly structured learning environment, such as a classroom.

Incidental learning occurs as a consequence of another activity, for instance, the completion of tasks, personal interactions, sensing the organisational culture or trial and error experimentation (V. J. Marsick & Watkins, 1990). Individuals encounter incidental learning through various means, for instance, their insights on the organisational culture induced from an assessment, or reward and recognition practices. Individual learning has long been a key to facilitating the capacity of organisations in implementing change and ensuring sustainability (Casey, 2005). The majority of literature on organisational learning models utilises individual learning as a basis, while accepting that organisational learning entails more than the collection of individual learning (Casey, 2005; Crossan, Lane, & White, 1999; J. G. March & Olsen, 1976; Simon, 1991).
Individual learning theories pertain to three categories, behaviourist, cognitivist, and humanist (Merriam & Caffarella, 1991), which focus on the individual being self-directed and autonomous (Chiva & Alegre, 2005). Antonacopoulou (2006a) proposes learning in organisations is more calculative and structured, and determined by how individuals approach internal dilemmas, while balancing their learning priorities and those of the organisation. Individual learning reflects personal interests and histories, and the social identity and authoritative influence of the organisational culture in that individuals are immersed (Elena P. Antonacopoulou, 2006). Learning is key to how staff construct meaning in their personal and shared organisational lives (V. J. Marsick & Watkins, 1990).

Endogenous and exogenous forces affect individual learning in organisations. Contextual factors have a significant effect on individual learning (Elena P. Antonacopoulou, 2006). There are factors that determine the nature and process of learning, for instance, knowledge transfer between hierarchy levels (Casey, 2005; Crossan, et al., 1999; J. G. March & Olsen, 1976; Simon, 1991). Dialogue is often viewed a process for integrating individual and organisational learning, as it involves a process of knowledge transfer (Chiva & Alegre, 2005). However, Oswick, Anthony, Keenoy, and Mangham (2000) propose a slightly different perspective, where dialogue creates individual and organisational learning, and concurrently, meaning and understanding (Oswick, Anthony, Keenoy, & Mangham, 2000).

Organisational and managerial learning practices determine individual learning, and demonstrate the learning approach of an organisation. Managers seek to address local problems identified within an organisation that do not reflect the identity of an organisation, and attribute to its stagnation and inability to change. The identity that managers pursue manifests in their approach towards learning, as their approach to
learning demonstrates their characteristics within an organisation (Elena P. Antonacopoulou, 2006). When an organisation successfully motivates managers to learn, their learning can lead to an inquiry of institutionalised norms and organisational policies and practices (Henderson, 1997).

2.4.3 Organisational and Individual Learning

Organisational learning is facilitated through the capacity and similarity of an organisation to that of its members (Chiva & Alegre, 2005). Organisational learning depends on individual learning and support (Argyris & Schon, 1996; Hurley, 2002; Senge, 1990). Organisational learning occurs when individual learning is transferred to organisational members (Osland & Yaprak, 1995; Rhodes, et al., 2008). Organisational and individual learning are linked through a process of internalisation, which is the conversion of explicit knowledge into tacit knowledge, whereby “personal knowledge is made available to others (articulation) for them to use to extend their own tacit knowledge base (internalisation)” (Rowley, 2001, p. 231). Organisational members and groups assist an organisation to learn (Senge, 1990; Teare, 1997). Although there is no certainty of individual learning occurring with organisational learning (Allen, 1998; Senge, 1990).

Teamwork supports organisational learning (Allen, 1998; Nahrgang, Morgeson, & Ilies, 2009). Casey (2005) points to the importance of teamwork, and proposes viewing work as ‘a collective activity in that valuable learning occurs’, (Casey, 2005). Effective teamwork entails team members sharing and discussing individual learning, viewing teamwork as an opportunity for collective learning, and understanding and believing in targets. Further, management must facilitate team learning (Cunningham & Iles, 2002).
Senge (1990) views teamwork as critical in organisations today, as learning generally occurs in teams.

Organisational learning results from individual learning of existing employees, and knowledge contributed by staff entering the organisation (Rhodes, et al., 2008). Learning originates from the experiences and actions of individuals, and is subsequently shared and retained in the memory of an organisation for use as required (Argyris & Schon, 1978; Osland & Yaprak, 1995). Organisational learning is facilitated through warnings and motivation for change and learning, prevention of stress and threats, the encouragement of experiences, and the view that faults are learning opportunities (Aksu & Ozdemir, 2005; Hurley, 2002). For learning to occur, an organisation is required to consolidate a learning framework (Hurley, 2002).

Learning requires managers and employees to re-align their aspirations, actions and behaviour with the new organisational goals, values and assumptions of their respective organisations (Chan & Garrick, 2003). Organisations invest in staff development to ensure employees possess characteristics that facilitate openness to continuous learning and change, which are intangible, and enable them to perform to organisational expectations (Chan & Garrick, 2003; I. Nonaka & Takeuchi, 1995; G. von Krogh, et al., 2000). Intangibles are organisational ‘assets’, consisting of the knowledge of individuals that is used in practical situations, known as personal knowledge (Chan & Garrick, 2003).

Active participation is a stimulus for learning (Falkowski & Spiliopoulou, 2007), and is based on the social practice of organisational life, which constantly evolves and changes, rather than order and regulation (Chiva & Alegre, 2005; Elkjaer, 1999; N. Marshall, 2008). Argyris and Schon (1996) propose that learning occurs in
Organisations from organisational members tackling and solving organisational problems. In this process, organisational members identify deviations of realised results from expected results, and respond to address these deviations (Aksu & Ozdemir, 2005).

Organisational capabilities, knowledge, and resources determine the capacity to address deviations between performance expectations and outcomes. Engaging employees in capacity building activities improves organisational performance. Capacity building is defined as “the creation of an enabling environment with appropriate policy and legal frameworks”, “institutional development”, and “human resources development and strengthening of managerial systems” (United Nations Committee of Experts on Public Administration, 2006). Capacity building activities may involve “board development, strategic planning, technology upgrades, and management training” (Sobeck & Agius, 2007, p. 238). Capacity building provides a link between organisational and individual learning, through changing “elements of the organization’s environment, which in turn should improve staff knowledge and productivity” (Sobeck & Agius, 2007, p. 238). Capacity building involves creating an environment where individuals engage in a “continuous process of learning and adapting to change” (United Nations Committee of Experts on Public Administration, 2006, p. 8).

Correspondingly, professional development provides a means of linking individual learning to organisational learning. Organisations instigate professional development to alleviate skill deficiencies and enhance individual performance. Professional development enhances understanding and clarity of work roles at the individual level, and provides guidance on how individuals should approach work to perform their roles effectively. Similarly, individuals undertake professional development to work more efficiently, and pursue personal learning aspirations. Thus, professional development is
critical to ensuring that staff are attune to the focus of work within an organisation (Coles, 1996). There is general agreement in the literature that the inherent aim of conducting professional development is to improve organisational performance (Coles, 1996). Leadership development training is a critical element in organisational sustainability (Boyne & Meier, 2009). Succession planning supports leaders to support effective strategic level capabilities, reduces employee turnover, and encourages staff to engage with their work (Y. Kim, 2010; Ndofor, Priem, Rathburn, & Dhir, 2009). Further, mentoring and coaching are a focal point in staff leadership development (Coles, 1996).

The effective pre-planning of professional development ensures satisfaction of staff skill development needs. Further, this enables organisations to identify the right staff to train (Collins & Holton, 2004). Although, leadership development not only prepares future leaders, this also promotes skills development and extends individual capabilities through building on internal expertise (Avolio & Chan, 2008). In this respect, professional development promotes the establishment of a learning culture.

2.4.4 Learning Organisations

A learning organisation is defined as an organisation that ‘is skilled at creating, acquiring, sharing, and applying knowledge, and embracing change and innovation at all levels, resulting in optimum performance and maximum competitive advantage’ (Chinowsky & Carrillo, 2007). A learning organisation imparts information and meaning without restraint (Fiol & Lyles, 1985). The learning organisation encompasses an organisation in its entirety (Aksu & Ozdemir, 2005; Tsang, 1997), and requires the input of all members (Ho, 1999). Pedler, Burgoyne and Boydell (1991) define a learning organisation as ‘one which facilitates the learning of all members and which

Learning organisations empower employees. Decision-making and implementation in a learning organisation is evident across the organisation in different levels of hierarchy. Employees in a learning organisation consider others in the organisation when planning their work (Aksu & Ozdemir, 2005). However, it is argued ‘all organisations are learning organisations’ as learning is a constant, only the nature and level of learning differs (Robinson, Clemson, & Ketaing, 1997). Similarly, Aksu and Ozdemir (2005) view learning as changes that occur constantly, resulting from the application of prior learning and experiences. For learning to occur, it requires a change in behaviour, prior learning and experiences shaping the change in behaviour, and change should remain constant (Aksu & Ozdemir, 2005).

A learning organisation has specific characteristics pertaining to leadership, processes, infrastructure, communication, education and culture. A learning organisation has a culture that supports, promotes, and rewards learning, as it is viewed as a critical factor in improving the organisation (Chinowsky & Carrillo, 2007). Learning organisations share a common set of values and beliefs on the importance, dissemination and application of learning. These value and beliefs function to mould the perceptions and behaviour of individuals during the process acquiring and applying new knowledge and skills (Bates & Khasawneh, 2005). The literature focuses on the role of a learning culture in sustainability. Within a learning culture, management and employees are committed to a continuous process of learning, resulting in the continual creation of new knowledge. Learning organisations undertake a different approach to change,
where change, and the learning that results from change, are viewed as part of the values and value structures of the culture. Hence, learning is derived from change, and this facilitates the development of individuals (V. Marsick & Watkins, 2003). Within such cultures, sustainability is achieved through the reiteration of previous routines that are proven to succeed (Paulino, 2009).

Learning organisations inherently seek to change existing processes and approaches to work. The learning organisation requires change in order to improve. In a learning organisation, learning is the basis upon which the culture of an organisation is developed, in order to facilitate control over opportunities and changes. A learning organisation undertakes conflict resolution by incorporating numerous perspectives from employees across different levels of responsibility through coordination and teamwork. Employees benefit from enriched roles in a learning organisation, where their roles are constantly developed and modified, and subjected to less policies and procedures (Aksu & Ozdemir, 2005). Correspondingly, learning organisations have the potential to congregate different cultures harmoniously with cross-cultural management to promote and accelerate cultural acceptance amongst organisational members (Chich-Jen, et al., 2009).

In such environments, employees find it is their duty to solve problems. A fundamental imperative of the learning organisation is employees share information, and all employees work to facilitate a flow of knowledge. Stakeholders, who include employees, suppliers and competitors, come into consideration when developing strategies. The learning organisation exhibits a culture that is supportive, transparent, promotes equality, and engages in continuous improvement and change. These attitudes inherent in a learning organisation have a positive influence on business sustainability (Aksu & Ozdemir, 2005). The learning organisation implements a specific process to
distribute and store information. Learning involves a process of obtaining, distributing, interpreting, and organising the memory of information (G.P. Huber, 1991). Learning organisations foster the creation of an environment that supports the transfer of knowledge and learning, and facilitates and improves innovation and productivity through the behaviour, attitude and motivation of individuals that is realised as a result (Bates & Khasawneh, 2005).

Learning organisations employ an open and organic system, using an adaptive approach to a constantly changing environment (Daft, 2001). Knowledge flows are unbounded across the entire organisation. The learning organisation also extends its transparency and relationship continuity with its customers (Appalbaum & Gallagher, 2000). Bates and Khasawneh (2005) argue that organisations that support the transfer of learning value learning as a strategy for adapting to change, which is consistent with the values inherent in learning organisations.

According to Watkins and Marsick (1996), learning organisations exhibit seven features. These features consist of constant opportunities for learning, questioning and exchanging ideas, collaborative learning, learning systems for capturing and sharing information, a shared vision, remaining connected with the company environment, and strategic leadership enabling learning (Watkins & Marsick, 1996). A learning organisation has a clear approach to learning, is open to contradictory information, avoids repetition of mistakes, takes action based on knowledge, and retains important knowledge in the organisation, regardless of key staff leaving the organisation (Garvin, 2000).
Learning organisations are more sustainable than organisations that engage in learning to a lesser extent, which is attributed to the valuing of, and attempt to integrate flexibility, teamwork, continuous learning and employee participation and development into its processes (Mabey & Salaman, 1995). A learning organisation utilises learning from all employees (Dymock & McCarthy, 2006), and the combined learning of organisation members results in the increase of organisational performance, which facilitates competitive advantage (Yeo, 2005). The literature emphasises on the important role of employees (Dymock & McCarthy, 2006).

Aksu and Ozdemir (2005) propose that in a learning organisation, the transfer of knowledge, and feedback on that knowledge used in organisational processes, must supplement the conventional practice of solely acquiring and using information, which is inherent in organisations not exhibiting the characteristics of a learning organisation (Aksu & Ozdemir, 2005). Studies concerning the concept of a learning organisation overtake the study of organisational culture, in order to clarify the processes that are central to organisational change (Steiner, 1998).

Appalbaum and Gallagher (2000) hold the view that the features of a learning organisation are primarily determined by psychology and organisational development, management, sociology and organisation theory, strategy, production management, and cultural anthropology (Appalbaum & Gallagher, 2000). A learning organisation matures when leadership, processes and infrastructure, communication, education and culture are addressed at the organisational, community and societal levels (Chinowsky & Carrillo, 2007). To enable individuals to contribute to learning, an organisation needs to create an environment that facilitates learning for all organisational members (Aksu & Ozdemir, 2005). Another perspective in the literature suggests that all organisations are
learning organisations. Differences between organisations essentially arise in terms of the quality, speed and comprehensiveness in which learning is undertaken (Mai, 1996).

2.4.5 Evaluation

Feedback is influential in individual decision-making, and has the potential to improve the ability of individuals to conduct self-assessments (Eberlein, Ludwig, & Nafziger, 2011). Thus, effective feedback enhances decisiveness in individuals, and results in improved decision-making. Consequently, feedback has the potential to incite improvements in organisational performance and sustainability. Whilst the benefits of feedback are wide and varied, the nature of feedback mechanisms utilised within an organisation determine the form and level of change instigated in business processes and decision-making structures (Eberlein, et al., 2011).

Extensively focussing on evaluation processes enhances organisational learning, thus magnifying the importance of evaluation in facilitating learning and change within organisations. Pairing appropriate evaluation techniques with the organisational aspects evaluated is of critical importance. This point highlights the need for feedback mechanisms to employ a tailored approach, as this facilitates the attainment of functional feedback, which is subsequently utilised to instil change and address performance gaps. In this respect, measures of success need to be coupled with effective performance measurement tools (Tuan, 2010).

Correspondingly, evaluation promotes collaboration. Evaluations are important in ensuring that individuals receive required training, and as a result resolve skill gaps and achieve organisational objectives. The reporting of professional development plays a pivotal role in learning and evaluation (Clegg, et al., 2005; Rhodes, et al., 2008).
Performance appraisals are a critical part of evaluation, due to their focus on professional development, and evaluate a wide range of activities within organisations (F. F. T. Chiang & Birtch, 2010; Youngcourt, Leiva, & Jones, 2007). Youngcourt (2007) proposes that performance appraisals also play a role in assisting individuals to understand their role within an organisation. Correspondingly, the approach towards performance appraisals affects individual perceptions towards work (Youngcourt, et al., 2007). Concurrently, the creation of a learning culture supports feedback mechanisms (Kitson, 2009).

Performance appraisals are affected by a range of factors that emanate from within an organisation, and the operating environment. For this reason, organisations need to be conscious of these factors in the implementation of performance appraisals (F. F. T. Chiang & Birtch, 2010). Organisational culture imposes influence on the nature and rationale for conducting performance appraisals (Tuan, 2010). Correspondingly, transparency is a major factor in the effectiveness of evaluation. For this reason, feedback mechanisms require approaches that enhance knowledge transfer, and increase opportunities for incorporating the input of organisational members into management decisions and work processes (Chen, 2008). In addition, the reporting of evaluation is equally important as the evaluation approach utilised by an organisation (Latham & Mann, 2008).

Evaluation enables management staff to monitor the progress of staff in terms of learning. Organisations need to acknowledge the value of systematic evaluation. Further, it is imperative that evaluation processes provide an opportunity for reflection and promote action (Feinberg & Aiello, 2010; Latham & Mann, 2008). Thus, evaluation of training initiatives annual professional development reports are critical in documenting the learning activities undertaken by staff (Coles, 1996).
2.4.6 Organisational Learning and Change

Organisations increasingly face powerful, dynamic, and often ambiguous global forces (Bates & Khasawneh, 2005; Stonehouse & Pemberton, 1999). Environmental shifts, whether of an external or internal nature, require individuals to engage in organisational learning to adapt with the new challenges presented by globalisation (Hayes & Allinson, 1998; Hedberg, 1981; Schwandt, 1997). Organisational change is determined by intellectual capital and the capacity to innovate (Hendry et al., 2008). Thus, training is an important aspect of preparing employees for success in their role (Hendry, 1994). Within an increasingly competitive environment, the sustainability of organisations is threatened by the presence of hypercompetition, which increasingly subjects organisations to change and justifies the need for greater focus on learning (G. W. Duncan, 2006).

Organisations can address such challenges by understanding the factors that influence change, and formulating strategies for managing change (Bates & Khasawneh, 2005). There is wide consensus in the literature that knowledge sharing enhances change outcomes (Bates & Khasawneh, 2005; Reissner, 2005; Rhodes, et al., 2008). Further, there is wide agreement that learning, receptivity and innovation enable organisations to sustain competitive advantage, and have practical and theoretical implications (Bates & Khasawneh, 2005; Reissner, 2005; Stonehouse & Pemberton, 1999). The ‘social process dynamics of change’ are more sustainable when a reiterative social process of changing and learning is undertaken (Woodward & Hendry, 2004).

Organisational learning occurs through planned and unplanned learning activities (Casey, 2005). Organisational learning and change are linked, as organisations are required to learn in order to develop new organisational processes to instigate change.
(Pettigrew, Woodman, & Cameron, 2001). The process and application of learning is critical to organisational change (Bates & Khasawneh, 2005). When organisational change is planned strategically, it considers the implications of changes to the organisational culture, and the sustainability of implemented changes. Culture is a critical human element in organisational change that has the potential to either facilitate or hinder the learning process (S. Cook & Yanow, 1996; Smircich, 1983).

The ability of an organisation to implement change depends on the cognitive abilities of individuals within an organisation (Kieser & Koch, 2008). Successful organisational change considers the perceptions, understandings and vision of organisational members (Bate, et al., 2000). Axelrod and Cohen (1999) argue that schemas (mental patterns) are potentially linked to organisational routines (Axelrod & Cohen, 1999), as these are recurring patterns of interaction among agents and artefacts. Routines emerge from the culture, agents and artefacts that create the conditions governing the interactions of organisational members. Schema-change (learning) normally renders agents more robust to operate in a changing environment and more consistent in performance (E. Antonacopoulou & Chiva, 2007).

Individual and organisational learning processes are the product of trust (K. M. Andrews & Delahaye, 2000), leadership (Hayes & Allinson, 1998), and organisational culture and structures (Bohmer & Edmondson, 2001). The approach undertaken in organisational learning influences the development of strategies (Casey, 2005; Ribbens, 1997; Sadler-Smith & Badger, 1998). Learning can remove tension from organisations (E. P. Antonacopoulou, 2006), and is therefore capable of transforming impossibilities to possibilities, generating relevance, and providing order and continuity (E. Antonacopoulou & Chiva, 2007). Organisations can facilitate learning by promoting cooperation at an intellectual level (Stonehouse & Pemberton, 1999).
A culture of organisational learning leads to organisational change through various processes (Bates & Khasawneh, 2005). These processes consist of effort-performance expectations, performance-outcome expectations, performance self-efficacy, openness to change, and performance feedback. Bates and Khasawneh (2005) found a strong correlation between organisational innovation, organisational learning culture, performance outcome expectations, transfer effort, and performance self-efficacy and feedback. Learning is intrinsic, and therefore critical to organisational change (Fronda & Moriceau, 2008). Learning opportunities arise from the day-to-day activities of an organisation (George P. Huber, 2009), and also occur when the existing organisational culture is incapable of resolving issues emerging from organisational change, and related policies and processes. Hence, organisations engage in learning to develop new solutions and problem solving capabilities to resolve issues and adapt to changes in an environment (Reissner, 2005).

The change process itself creates learning, and therefore may propagate further change (E. Antonacopoulou & Chiva, 2007; Hannan, Polos, & Carroll, 2003). Consequently, change is a possible cause of confusion amongst organisational members. Clarity is therefore required, and entails learning in order to develop understanding and advance change initiatives (Corley & Gioia, 2004). Change is a product of learning, and a continuously-changing environment promotes a learning culture within an organisation (E. Antonacopoulou & Chiva, 2007; Reissner, 2005).

Learning is affected by the form of change undertaken, and the behaviour of organisational members depends on the nature of the change being implemented (Sackmann, 1992). According to Sackmann (1992), employees are more innovative when financial resources are not involved in the change initiative. It is arguable that in these forms of change initiatives, employees are encouraged to learn, and their learning
subsequently results in innovation. However, change initiatives relying on financial resources demonstrate more conservative employee behaviour (Sackmann, 1992).

Human resources are a major factor in the facilitation of change, and are pivotal in creating learning transfer climates. According to Turner (1976), large-scale intelligence failures occur due to the attachment of individuals to existing organisational values and beliefs. In addition, failures occur due to distractions caused by decoy phenomena, the ignorance of influential external elements, difficulties in the management of multiple forms of knowledge, the intensification of hazards by individuals from outside the organisation, a failure to comply with regulations, and the inclination to downplay the full extent of ensuing hazards. The consequences of these intelligence failures are significant (Turner, 1976).

### 2.4.7 Organisational Learning and Performance

The literature surrounding organisational learning lacks a clear definition of how learning organisation cultures improve critical organisational outcomes (Bates & Khasawneh, 2005; Kaiser, 2000). Change occurs through the process of learning (Lucas & Kline, 2008; Vas & Ingham, 2003). Performance and learning processes may destabilise the balance in a social system, which results in change (Schwandt, 1997). The relationship between culture strength and performance reliability is dependent on the ability of the organisational culture to respond to change, and the capacity and extent to which an organisation can learn. Performance is determined by the responsiveness of an organisation to change (Sorensen, 2002).

Strong cultures are more reliable than weak cultures when subjected to organisational change, which provides an indication that strong cultures exhibit greater predictability.
in behavioural patterns. Strong corporate cultures increase organisational performance through the associated uniformity in the behaviour of organisational members. Strong culture firms react more consistently to their surroundings, exhibit greater reliable performance, and are capable of remaining consistent in volatile environments. Hence, change in a strong organisational culture is normally incremental. Strong cultures are better suited to organisations implementing incremental change, for such cultures possess a highly secured structural framework for perceiving the surrounding environment and responding to it.

According to Schein (1987), a strong culture is more capable of improving organisation efficiency than a comparatively weak culture (E.H. Schein, 1985a). However, strong cultures are less adept in responding to volatile environments, in comparison to weak cultures. Volatile environments require and induce radical change, and strong cultures are obstinate in maintaining their cultural characteristics, and therefore encounter a considerate amount of difficulty in responding to these forms of change. Contrastingly, a weaker culture subjected to a volatile environment is more capable of responding to change, which is attributable to its comparatively mouldable characteristics (Sorensen, 2002). Strong cultures demonstrate an ability to achieve greater performance and performance reliability in a stable environment, in comparison with weaker cultures (Sorensen, 2002). Reliable performance is a function of the strength of organisational culture, and potentially affected by organisational change. Sorensen (2002) defines reliable performance as ‘variance in firm performance’. The reliable performance attainable in organisational processes during change initiatives is reliant on the nature of change (Sorensen, 2002).

However, organisations demonstrating strong cultures are, in general, more capable of mitigating unfavourable impacts on reliable performance, compared to an organisation
exhibiting a weak culture, which is more susceptible to change under pressing conditions, and are easily manipulated. Strong cultures remain consistent throughout change, due to their inherent ability to build established competencies, and therefore possess greater skill and capacity to endorse operational efficiency in the fundamental organisational functions of coordination and control (Sorensen, 2002).

In light of the current economic situation and organisational practices, organisations should aspire to be learning organisations, in order to develop individuals who then diffuse their learning to the organisation, subsequently resulting in the development of the organisation (Aksu & Ozdemir, 2005). Learning has become a source of global competitive advantage since the 1990s (Osland & Yaprak, 1995; Stonehouse & Pemberton, 1999). Organisations need to place emphasis on establishing a solid learning framework to ensure that performance is not affected during change initiatives (Sorensen, 2002).

2.4.8 Barriers to Learning

While learning possesses numerous benefits to individuals and organisations alike, the process of learning is subject to certain barriers that can considerably hinder learning efforts within an organisation (Aksu & Ozdemir, 2005). The common barriers that organisations confront consist of value, focus, culture, information systems and stability (Chinowsky & Carrillo, 2007). The support of employees and leaders is also crucial, as learning is sourced from, and facilitated by, individuals (Reissner, 2005). Organisational identity (Ravasi & Schultz, 2006) and reliable performance (Sorensen, 2002) are also identified as an influence on organisational learning.

Focus in a learning organisation prefers improvement initiatives to outcomes, focusing on knowledge transfer and learning. This contradicts cultures in organisations focussed on project delivery, such as engineering, and requires such organisations to shift from traditional perspectives to long-term organisational improvement, which therefore creates a barrier to learning. Organisations encounter difficulty in quantifying and obtaining financial results directly from knowledge management and learning initiatives, as these provide indirect benefits to an organisation and are naturally intangible. Hence, organisations seek value from initiatives that provide direct financial benefit, as these are more compelling business propositions (Chinowsky & Carrillo, 2007).

Learning blindness is a barrier to learning which manifests in three forms, short-term focus, solely resolving small problems, and focus on success rather than faults (Gupta & Thomas, 2001). Organisations that fail to remain focussed on supporting learning initiatives, following the initial learning stage of knowledge management, are unable to actualise the potential of learning initiatives. The consequences of losing focus during
the transition from knowledge management to learning are pronounced and widespread, and include losing employee support, reduced communication, and diminished knowledge creation and transfer (Chinowsky & Carrillo, 2007).

Change resistance is sourced from organisational members (Erwin & Garman, 2010; Hao, Xu, & Qian, 2009). As such, effective change management requires the acknowledgement of human resistance prior to change (Gotsill & Natchez, 2007). A study by McKinsey & Company found that 80% of failed change initiatives are linked to 13 common errors (Flower, 1998). Of these 13 errors, six related to culture. The study found that organisations that failed to implement change successfully demonstrated the following characteristics relating to culture:

- Failure to distinguish between decision-driven and behaviour dependent change;
- Over-reliance on structure and systems to change behaviour;
- Inability or unwillingness of leaders in confronting how their roles must change;
- Failure to mobilise and engage pivotal groups;
- Failure to understand and shape an informal organisation; and
- Failure to make the whole process transparent and meaningful to individuals.

Organisations also face the personnel dilemma (Steiner, 1998). The personnel dilemma is indecision on two options, for instance, management misinterpreting metaphors of individuals, and an inconsistent management approach towards changes in management thinking (Aksu & Ozdemir, 2005; Steiner, 1998). In light of these numerous forms of resistance, the literature ascertains that effective organisational change involves managing resistance to change (Tan, 2001). Organisational change is successful when there is a focus on ensuring understanding across the organisation (Ravasi & Schultz, 2006). Further, organisations are subject to the issue of employee stability.
Organisations find it difficult to justify implementing knowledge management and learning initiatives in environments where high staff turnover exists, as the value of such initiatives diminishes when employees leave the organisation with knowledge gained from these (Chinowsky & Carrillo, 2007).

2.5 Leadership

The leadership of an organisation facilitates the strength of the culture (E.H. Schein, 1985b). In this respect, the support of an organisation’s leadership plays a pivotal role in the development of a learning culture (Ray & Goppelt, 2011; Tuan, 2010), as learning and knowledge management apply to an organisation in its entirety, and require support beyond that provided by individuals, groups and projects (Chinowsky & Carrillo, 2007). Leadership is strategic when leaders master and facilitate learning, and use learning to improve organisational performance (Dymock & McCarthy, 2006). The creation of knowledge within organisations is influenced by approaches to leadership (Georg von Krogh, Nonaka, & Rechsteiner, 2011). Contrastingly, it is argued that managers have limited influence on organisational learning, and solely seek to learn in ways that maintain the status quo, rather than facilitating change (Chinowsky & Carrillo, 2007).

Organisations engaged in change management are increasingly required to address the dynamics involved in implementing structural and cultural change concurrently. Bate, Kan and Pye (2000) propose that a model incorporating change and change management is required, which considers ‘synchronicity’ and ‘complementarities’ between the cultural and structural processes of an organisation. Transformational change is achievable by integrating the organisational culture and structure into leadership processes. An organisation is capable of instigating change within the
underlying structures of an organisation, through a focus on the sensitive process involved in developing new perspectives on the relationship between organisational culture and structure (Bate, et al., 2000).

2.5.1 Role of Leadership in Providing Strategic Direction

The literature points to leadership involving the guidance of organisational members (Nahrgang, et al., 2009). Leaders provide strategic direction rather than micro-management (Alvesson & Sveningsson, 2003). The role of a leader is to observe, listen, and influence organisational members, in order to impact team dynamics (Kempster, 2009). In addition, effective leadership entails the ability to facilitate constructive meetings (Holmes & Marra, 2010). Planned organisational change requires a customised approach to integrate activities related to the change process, and consider the functions of distinctive leadership competencies in executing such activities (Battilana, et al., 2010).

Leadership style has a great influence on the establishment of learning in an organisation (Jung, Chow, & Wu, 2003). The behaviour of leaders influences the cynicism of employees towards organisational change (Bommer, Rich, & Rubin, 2005). The role of leaders in learning organisations is to create a vision, and empower employees to achieve this vision. Further, leaders encourage effective decision making through a charismatic leadership style. Management can support change by understanding how employees fit into the implementation and adaption of change (Aksu & Ozdemir, 2005). Additionally, management can support a learning culture by setting exemplary behaviours and practices, planning learning opportunities, integrating learning into organisational processes, and being a learning champion (Honey & Mumford, 1996).
2.5.2 Role of Leadership in Promoting Cohesiveness

Managers are able to facilitate a learning organisation by developing a suitable organisational climate that promotes learning. This indicates the crucial role of managers in enabling individual learning. The authority within an organisation determines the significance of learning, and the dependency of organisation members to learn in a manner that is deemed acceptable to the culture of the organisation (Elena P. Antonacopoulou, 2006). In a learning organisation, top management is responsible for developing a shared vision (Aksu & Ozdemir, 2005).

Managers are able to increase individual learning through dialogue with colleagues (Mazutis & Slawinski, 2008), team working orientation, providing training, and rewarding employees (Aksu & Ozdemir, 2005). Inherently, the cohesiveness of a team assists in achieving a common objective, and defines the level of team performance (Tuan, 2010). In this respect, teams require a tailored approach. The diversity of tasks, skills, interactions and personality traits influence the effectiveness of a team. Hence, teams normally encounter different outcomes (Harrison & Humphrey, 2010).

2.5.3 Role of Leadership in Empowering Individuals

An effective leader promotes shared responsibility and mutual accountability, by distributing power over the entire organisation. Through empowering stakeholders and staff, the level of motivation increases, and individual initiatives for implementing change could potentially increase (Jung, et al., 2003; Nahrgang, et al., 2009). Empowerment involves power sharing across an organisation. Empowerment facilitates the engagement of senior management in the change process (Harborne & Johne, 2002). Management can facilitate knowledge management by tailoring strategies specific to the characteristics of departments within an organisation (Choi & Lee, 2002). Thus, a sense
of ownership is needed to be built to create high quality solutions to complex problems, in which staff can commit themselves to take appropriate actions promptly (Van Dyne & Pierce, 2004).

Management must provide employees with access to required resources in order to enable employees to follow through with implementation (Chinowsky & Carrillo, 2007). Therefore, the leader is not the one to carry the heavy load in an organisation. Instead, the hierarchy within an organisation allows the distribution of the work and supports staff contribution. Thus, effective leadership requires consultation prior to any change. A leader finds the balance between letting others to learn, rather than doing difficult things alone (Vera & Crossan, 2004).

2.5.4 Role of Change Agency in Distributed Leadership

Successful implementation of major innovation is achieved by engaging multiple leaders in the change process (Harborne & Johne, 2002). Change agency is facilitated through distinct leadership behaviours that characterise change agents (Lichtenstein & Plowman, 2009). Change agency comes at times when organisational members progress in providing direction and leadership (Chreim, Williams, Janz, & Dastmalchian, 2010). Change agents obtain leadership support by demonstrating the tangible benefits that result from change, and are concerned with the feasibility of an initiative in terms of organisational sustainability (Chinowsky & Carrillo, 2007).

Change agency requires certain conditions to emerge. Lichtenstein and Plowman (2009) propose these conditions are a state of dis-equilibrium, amplifying actions, self-organisation, and stabilising feedback. Change agents embrace ambiguity and debate the effectiveness of current practices (Lichtenstein & Plowman, 2009). Change agents
engage in ‘sensemaking and sensegiving through the artful use of language and symbols’ (Lichtenstein & Plowman, 2009).

Change agents allocate time to finding common ground amongst stakeholders, and developing skills and resources that support change (Chreim, et al., 2010). In addition, they encourage creativity by allowing staff to pilot test change initiatives and support collective action (Lichtenstein & Plowman, 2009). Motivation and communication are important skills in change implementation (A. Gilley, Gilley, & McMillan, 2009). Teamwork is a critical aspect of change agency (Harborne & Johne, 2002).

Moreover, leadership competencies influences change initiative outcomes (Battilana, et al., 2010). It is essential to monitor closely shifts in behavioural patterns in response to leadership during organisational change. Effective change leaders direct organisational change initiatives by being in touch with these patterns, and prevent counter-productive reactions from organisational members to sustaining organisational change (Turnbull, 2008). Effective leaders also consider the constraints of the operating environment and integrate these in order to stabilise organisational systems (Lichtenstein & Plowman, 2009). Organisational initiatives that require the support of management and entail organisational change encounter similar problems to knowledge management and learning initiatives (Chinowsky & Carrillo, 2007).

### 2.6 Information Technology

The management of knowledge and learning within an organisation is determined by the underlying technology employed to support it (Chinowsky & Carrillo, 2007). Information Technology (IT) is viewed to increase the processing, transmission and
storage of information, while reducing the cost of knowledge transfer across organisations. Further, technology extends communication within an organisation by sharing internal developments (Argote, 2009; Cairncross, 2003). Chinowsky and Carrillo (2007) view IT as a key enabler of learning and knowledge transfer.

2.6.1 Role of Information Technology in Knowledge Transfer

In the current business environment, organisations need to adopt new technologies to facilitate the utilisation of individual learning at the organisational level to ensure sustainability. Technology facilitates extended organisation-wide collaboration (Taylor & Helfat, 2009). Although, an organisational structure supportive of technology is required to ensure its effectiveness. Further, Cairncross (2003) proposes that a successful organisation is one with good staff, combined with excellence in the organisational structure and technology employed. The sustainability of organisations is improved by providing training on technologies employed, as this enables organisational members to utilise the technologies available to a greater extent (Cairncross, 2003).

Information Technology potentially facilitates knowledge management (Balthazard & Cooke, 2004). Knowledge management and learning is limited to the ability of existing technology infrastructure to transmit information (Chinowsky & Carrillo, 2007). As technology is evolving, and many organisations are geographically spread, the use of face-to-face synchronous computer meetings is increasingly used, and enables organisations to overcome issues surrounding time and cost of travel for leaders, which are frequently encountered in face-to-face communication formats (Cascio & Shurygailo, 2008; Wakefield, Leidner, & Garrison, 2008). Blended learning using e-learning technologies complements traditional face-to-face communication (G. Duncan,
et al., 2009; LaMendola, Ballantyne, & Daly, 2009). However, the utilisation of Information Technology in the transfer of knowledge is dependent upon the characteristics of an organisation, the attitudes of staff towards the use of technology (G. W. Duncan, 2006).

Tools typically used for personal communication such as social media are increasingly being employed within organisations to enhance knowledge transfer. Social media is defined as "a group of Internet-based applications that build on the ideological and technological foundations of Web 2.0, and that allow the creation and exchange of user-generated content" (Kaplan & Haenlein, 2010, p. 61). Several forms of social media exist. Social networking sites, such as Facebook, allow users to create profiles and invite friends and colleagues to view these profiles, and send emails and instant messages. Social networking sites also enable users to share content such as photos, videos, audio files, and blogs. Organisations utilise social networking sites for engaging potential customers and market research. Content communities, such as YouTube, allow users to share media content (Kaplan & Haenlein, 2010). Organisations use this form of social media to “share recruiting videos, as well as keynote speeches and press announcements, with their employees and investors” (Kaplan & Haenlein, 2010, p. 63).

Knowledge transfer is facilitated in the internal and external communications of organisations through technology, which is viewed as a key element in managing knowledge (Balthazard & Cooke, 2004, p. 1) and integral to supporting learning and knowledge transfer (Chinowsky & Carrillo, 2007). Technology supports organisational change outcomes (Kuruppuarachchi, 2000). However, the sole use of technology does not guarantee effective knowledge management within all organisational hierarchies (Balthazard & Cooke, 2004, p. 1).
2.6.2 Information Technology Integration

The integration of technology is influenced by the attitudes of organisational members. Technology is affected by ‘workforce characteristics, responsiveness, receptiveness, adaptability, flexibility, technology assimilation, experience and willingness to learn and change’ (Kuruppuarachchi, 2000). Further, the cognitive boundaries of organisational members are a barrier to the integration of technology. Technology integration is further hindered by conflict in the needs of end-users. Lack of consensus on implemented systems has follow-on effects from the residual reluctance of organisational members. In addition, the usage of technology is influenced by the age of users and their usage patterns. Hence, user issues can potentially be resolved through analysis of patterns in usage (Ashry & Taylor, 2000).

Further, the dialogue between technology experts and analysts can be affected through the absence of a universal language amongst these stakeholders (Ashry & Taylor, 2000, p. 3). Technology integration is further restrained by limited trust in technology implementers, which can arise from inadequate planning (Ashry & Taylor, 2000, p. 8). Insufficient design and the complex nature of computer systems and software affect technology implementation. Equally, a lack of clarity on staff responsibilities significantly affects the ability of staff to integrate new technology. Another issue is privacy infringement of data shared across an Intranet (Ashry & Taylor, 2000).

Technological innovations pose certain implications for management. Hence, this requires attention to issues involved in technology and the diffusion of technology across an organisation (Ash & Goslin, 1997). Organisational members are encouraged to adjust their practices when the fit of technology within organisational systems is clarified, changes are justified, and staff are consulted (Ashry & Taylor, 2000).
Additionally, staff are also encouraged to use technology through rewards (Ash & Goslin, 1997). Further, technology adoption is improved through enhancing the skills of staff. Organisations can also benefit from using onsite training centres (Ashry & Taylor, 2000).

### 2.6.3 Information Technology and Organisational Change

The high level of competition due to globalisation, continual advancement of new technology, and external threats to business sustainability have forced organisations to put more emphasis into technology infrastructure integration to instigate change. Technology is critical in creating competitive advantage and developing best practices in organisational processes. Technology enhances collaboration across departments, and empowers stakeholders to engage in change more productively (Teng & Calhoun, 1996). Further, technology has facilitated international communication and resolved breaches in communication (Albritton, 2010).

However, the globalisation of organisations presents challenges for the utilisation of technology, affecting the level of collaboration (Ash & Goslin, 1997; Ashry & Taylor, 2000). The implementation of technology requires an understanding of the organisational culture (Nistor, Hanzu-Pazara, & Adascalitei, 2009). Effective technology implementation involves adapting technology to user demands and requirements, and creating a framework within which staff can effectively operate (Albritton, 2010).
2.7 Organisational Change

Organisational change is widely viewed in the literature as a complex process (Poole & Van de Ven, 2004; Reissner, 2005). Organisational change is the result of planned or unplanned change, which emerges from within an organisation or the environment in which it operates. The growth of competition at an international scale and rapid changes in technology have caused organisations to focus increasingly on collaborating (Cairncross, 2003). Huy (1999) proposes that change consists of three dynamics, which include receptivity, mobilisation and learning. Influential change elements are organisational culture, politics and structure. Further, the policies and processes dominant in determining work practices are additional influential sources of change (Bate, et al., 2000; Cummings & Worley, 2009; Reissner, 2005; Vas & Ingham, 2003). Organisational change involves the participation of various groups across the organisation. These groups are defined as strategy leaders, change implementers and the targets of change (Hao, et al., 2009).

Changes in the operating environment pose a threat to reliable performance. Incremental change facilitates reliable performance due to its intrinsic nature to introduce change gradually through minor tuning of practices, while maintaining the underlying assumptions, beliefs and approaches that form the organisational culture, which facilitates the retention of identity (Sorensen, 2002). However, it is difficult to anticipate all changes to the organisational culture throughout the change process (Casey, 2005). Organisations are compelled to implement changes rapidly to become more innovative and efficient with their operations (Barnes, Pashby, & Gibbons, 2000). A high failure rate remains commonplace in implementing collaborative initiatives (Cairncross, 2003).
Organisational change may occur incrementally or radically. The rate of change determines how an organisation approaches the change process. Further, change may occur frequently, or be characterised as diverse (Casey, 2005). Barnes, Pashby and Gibbons (2000) propose that change is required to create a sustainable future. Stimulus for change emanates from needs identified within an organisation (Cummings & Worley, 2009; Pettigrew, et al., 2001; Reissner, 2005). The effects of change are wide and varied, and an organisation may be influenced by change through its leadership, culture, and structure, and is largely determined by an organisation’s politics, policies and procedures (Cummings & Worley, 2009). Change has the potential to render existing organisational policies and processes redundant and contradictory to existing practices, which is inherent in radical change (Sorensen, 2002).

Organisational change entails adopting new approaches, and organisations may experience deficiencies in communication and management (Sorensen, 2002). Organisational change is hindered through numerous factors, which can include an inability to identify change issues concerning the organisational culture and employee behaviour, not engaging multiple teams in the change initiative, inability of culture to support change, and other issues concerning uncertainty and knowledge transfer (J. March & Olsen, 1975). Individual resistance to change manifests in various forms. An individual may resist change explicitly and actively, through withdrawal, or discreetly (Fronda & Moriceau, 2008). Employees exposed to radical change or working within an uncertain environment more readily accept change, as they quickly reach their potential for absorbing and responding to change (Woodward & Hendry, 2004, p. 156). In this perspective, staff commitment to organisational change influences organisational performance, and consequently, the success of organisation change initiatives (Parish, et al., 2008).
2.7.1 Organisational Identity Change

Sveningsson and Alvesson (2003) view organisational identity as a process of work and struggle. Organisational members are likely to perceive the identity of an organisation differently when internal and external elements apply force to the organisation (Ravasi & Schultz, 2006). Role expectation is an adjunct to organisational identity. Fragmentation of organisational and self identity affects organisational change and performance (Sveningsson & Alvesson, 2003). Change is facilitated by maintaining constancy in organisational identity throughout change initiatives, and building upon existing strengths to improve organisational performance (Ravasi & Schultz, 2006).

Ravasi and Schultz (2006) propose that for change to occur, employees need to re-interpret the organisation while maintaining a link with the knowledge structures that are already in place. Organisational leaders can obtain the support of employees by presenting change in ways that employees can relate to their personal experiences. This enables employees to relate to the identity of their respective organisation, and creates a sense of belonging and alignment with organisational objectives (Ravasi & Schultz, 2006).

However, organisational change has the potential to change organisational identity, which can result in ambiguity. Large-scale changes can potentially change the identity of an organisation. The response of an organisation to changes in the environment and collective understandings is determined by how organisational members perceive and react to changes (Corley & Gioia, 2004). Particularly during organisational change initiatives, organisational members attempt to attain clarification through collective understanding (Ravasi & Schultz, 2006).
Identity ambiguity is another barrier to change. Identity ambiguity occurs when organisational members are unable to understand the identity of the organisation, and is therefore unable to support change. Identity ambiguity may arise from changes concerning organisational policies and core competencies (Ravasi & Schultz, 2006). Moreover, it is critical that ambiguity is addressed, as employees who fail to understand the identity of their respective organisation may adopt contradictory values and attitudes that are disruptive to organisational objectives and processes. Therefore, it is the role of management to ensure that all organisational members are clear on the identity of the organisation to ensure the activities of individuals are aligned with those of the organisation (Sorensen, 2002).

Learning may result from a need to clarify uncertainty about aspects of an organisation (Ravasi & Schultz, 2006). Learning occurs during change, as employees work to develop solutions to achieve clarity and adapt to changes in the environment. Hence, a greater period of ambiguity in organisational change initiatives may potentially result in revolutionary culture change (Corley & Gioia, 2004). A strategy to address identity ambiguity during change initiatives is to present organisational identity as a modified version of the existing identity (Ravasi & Schultz, 2006).

2.7.2 Organisational Change Strategies

Successful organisational change necessitates a focussed approach, requiring an understanding of the needs and resources, which must be addressed in any change plan (Gotsill & Natchez, 2007). Organisational change requires an environment conducive to change (Elena P. Antonacopoulou, 2006; Tan, 2001). However, this depends on the approach and timing of change (Sorensen, 2002). Characteristics supportive of change are confidence, being open-minded towards new ideas, flexibility, collaboration,
encouraging creativity and innovation, and empowering staff to take actions (Tan, 2001). Chinowsky and Carrillo (2007) propose several methods for organisations to overcome barriers in obtaining employee support. Organisations can facilitate the advancement of learning initiatives through face-to-face communication, benefit demonstrations and corporate mandates. Organisations can utilise face-to-face communication to improve individual understanding of the rationale behind new initiatives and obtain support, by communicating organisational goals, objectives and plans for achieving visions.

Organisational sustainability is determined by bottom-line factors that include time, cost, and performance (Hannan, et al., 2003). Benefit demonstrations show the tangible and/or intangible gains that are potentially realised through a particular initiative (Chinowsky & Carrillo, 2007). However, the bottom-line factors to create a strong business case in benefit demonstrations is a deterrent to obtaining the support of employees (Aku & Ozdemir, 2005). Therefore, it is evident that benefit demonstrations require adept and meticulous planning for the effective engagement of organisational members (Chinowsky & Carrillo, 2007). Organisations also obtain support for learning through corporate mandates. Corporate mandates are official mandates from senior management, and are used for their effectiveness in gaining the attention of employees. This approach immediately motivates employees to adopt new strategies (Chinowsky & Carrillo, 2007).

Creating a culture that embraces change makes the difference between the success and failure of new management processes and system implementations (Gotsill & Natchez, 2007). Cultural sensitivity assists in the implementation of change (Bate, et al., 2000). Emotions play an important role at the individual level in organisational change (Smollan, Sayers, & Matheny, 2010). The mastery of these three dynamics in an
organisation facilitates revolutionary change by utilising the emotional capacity of individuals (Huy, 1999). Further, ‘emotional aperture’ and its recognition of emotions is critical to identifying the emotional climate within an organisation, as this assists leaders in formulating change strategies (Sanchez-Burks & Huy, 2009).

### 2.8 Gaps in the Current Literature

A plethora of frameworks exist for guiding organisational change, such as the studies of Bouckenooghe, Devos, and Van den Broeck (2009); Buono and Kenneth (2008); Cummings and Worley (2009); Gaffney (2010); and Lüscher and Lewis (2008). However, studies linking organisational change and knowledge management are limited, particularly those concerned with the role of learning in facilitating successful organisational change, such as Armistead and Meakins (2007); Pundzienė, Alonderienė, Buožiūtė (2007); and Schimmel and Muntslag (2009). Further, studies focussing on the link between organisational learning culture and change are limited, i.e. Ji Hoon and Kolb (2009); Joo (2010); and Yoon, Song, Lim and Joo (2010). The scopes of these studies, and the related frameworks intertwining organisational change and learning, have remained somewhat distant. An extensive discussion concerning the role of learning in organisational change remains to eventuate, specifically in providing a structured and uniform managerial organisational change process considerate of all stakeholders in its implementation.

Further, a lack of consensus was identified on the definitions of organisational learning and organisational change, with varying emphasis on different aspects of each research area. Limited research exists in organisational theory regarding knowledge transfer, and the relationship between organisational learning and organisational change. Research on
organisational learning culture as a process is non-existent. The literature surrounding organisational change emphasises different elements of change.

Organisational change and organisational culture appear frequently in the literature as separate topics, though there appears to be a lack of research on these issues as interlinked factors within one context. This gap in literature has created a problem in that some organisations, despite having contributed significant time, effort and financial resources to organisational change, favourable outcomes are rarely achieved from such action. This study is developed in the view that in the absence of a framework for managing learning and change, the rate of failure in organisational change initiatives remains high.

2.9 Theoretical Framework

A review of the literature led to the development of a theoretical framework, facilitating a strategic approach to the planning and implementation of organisational change initiatives. While most initiatives for implementing change and culture are not structured uniformly, this framework supports strategic planning. A review of the literature acknowledged there is a need for an organisational learning culture framework. A review of the literature resulted in the development of the following framework:
2.2 Theoretical Framework for Organisational Learning

The theoretical framework demonstrates the impact of organisational learning on organisational change. Within this framework, specific emphasis is placed on the role of knowledge transfer in creating a bridge between knowledge management and organisational learning. The framework provides a structured process for implementing and evaluating organisational change, which facilitates uniformity throughout the process. The framework demonstrates that organisational change is a process that integrates knowledge management and organisational learning, in order to invoke the understanding, transfer, and implementation of knowledge in change initiatives, as these are viewed as facilitators of this process (Chinowsky & Carrillo, 2007).

2.10 Conclusion

The literature review focussed on organisational learning and its related aspects, which consist of knowledge transfer, organisational change, and organisational performance. There was a consensus in the literature on organisational culture being influenced by the extent and style of organisational learning. In addition, the research identified that
organisational culture is affected by the formation of culture, the perceptions of organisational members, and response to change by the organisation and its members.

Furthermore, a review of the literature explored how learning culture influences organisational change by providing theoretical and empirical evidence for inciting correlations between organisational learning and organisational change. Through the literature, it became evident that knowledge management and organisational learning are integral to organisational change. The literature provided a theoretical foundation for the development of a framework for incorporating learning into organisational change. The theoretical framework has implications for theory and practice on learning within organisations, and requires empirical testing.
Chapter 3

Methodology
3.1 Introduction

This chapter examines the research methodology employed in addressing the research question, beginning with a justification of the paradigm and the methodology used. Next, the strengths and limitations of qualitative methods are discussed, and the circumstances under which this approach is used. Subsequently, the research procedures used utilised, the analysis of qualitative data, and reliability and validity issues involved in the study are explored. The chapter culminates in a discussion of the ethical considerations addressed in the dissertation. The chapter structure is demonstrated below:

Figure 3.1: Methodology Chapter Structure
3.2 Justification for the Paradigm and Methodology

3.2.1 Justification for the Paradigm

A constructivist approach is particularly useful in studying organisational development, as it involves multi-voice reconstruction, to understand and subsequently reconstruct the constructs held by the researcher and research participants through consensus building (Guba & Lincoln, 1994). Thus, motivation helps the researcher to develop new ideas that encompass both their own ideas and those of the research subjects (Guba & Lincoln, 1994, p. 115). Constructivism is the selected approach to address the research questions, due to the nature of this approach to enable researchers to collect complementary and possibly revolutionary perspectives on a phenomenon and develop new insights (Easterby-Smith, Thorpe, & Lowe, 2002; Krauss, 2005; Veal, 2005). Particularly in areas where limited research exists, such an approach provides the required means for developing significant research through encouraging dialogue, rather than a single view (Michael Quinn Patton, 2002).

Consequently, transparency between a researcher and its subjects are improved, hence facilitating knowledge transfer (Guba & Lincoln, 1994). The constructivist approach provides flexibility for new interpretations through data improvement and refinement of research techniques (Guba & Lincoln, 1994, p. 112). Constructivist research integrates values that influence research, hence the intrinsic nature of ethics in this paradigm. The focus of the researcher for reconstruction is supplementary to constructing, and there is an inclination in this paradigm for a process tilt towards revelation (Guba & Lincoln, 1994, p. 115).
The nature of knowledge in constructivism is the accumulation of knowledge by developing constructs through the hermeneutical/dialectical process. Constructivism involves the identification of complementary constructs, or the development of consensus amongst individuals with the capacity to understand constructs in their surroundings (Guba & Lincoln, 1994, p. 111). Knowledge is created through an understanding of the studied phenomenon (Easterby-Smith, et al., 2002; Krauss, 2005). The hermeneutical/dialectical nature of the constructivist paradigm facilitates transparency, as respondents are conscious of the research objectives. Hence, advocacy and activism play key roles in realising successful constructivist research. Respondents are therefore able to form new constructs (Guba & Lincoln, 1994, p. 113).

Further, the constructivist approach entails interaction between and among the investigator and research subjects. Knowledge is created through the interaction between investigator and respondent, and there exists an inherent assumption in constructivism of the possibility that social realities can change through this interaction (Guba & Lincoln, 1994, p. 113). This occurs as the research progresses, where the epistemology employed in this approach is transactional and subjectivist, and the researcher becomes further informed and sophisticated. Hence, in this approach the researcher is capable of influencing research subjects (Guba & Lincoln, 1994, p. 111). In this approach human interests are the main driver of science (Easterby-Smith, et al., 2002). The dependability of research findings is facilitated, as it supports studies that require empirical evidence to draw constructs (Guba & Lincoln, 1994, p. 114). However, this approach simply validates that data exists, and does not confirm the truth of research findings (Guba & Lincoln, 1994).
Constructivism aims to bring parties involved in research to agreement. This requires the researcher to be flexible to perspectives that emerge through data and research method refinement, undertaking the roles of advocate and activist to ensure the success of the research (Guba & Lincoln, 1994, p. 112). Further, such an approach facilitates mutual benefit, where the researcher learns from the organisation being studied, and the findings provide a contribution to the organisation (Guba & Lincoln, 1994). Hence, the objective of the constructivist approach is to identify those constructs with relative consensus, or a development towards consensus between individuals who are able to understand the constructs pertaining to the specific context in which they are encompassed (Guba & Lincoln, 1994, p. 113).

Further, this approach involves the researcher undertaking the role of orchestrator and facilitator of the process of inquiry, which provides greater authority in the gathering and transfer of knowledge, and the influence of research subjects. Ethics is a key characteristic for the engagement of research participants within the inquiry process (Guba & Lincoln, 1994, p. 114). Thus, constructivism is inclusive of values, which are formative, and hence more likely to emphasise on values than other paradigms (Guba & Lincoln, 1994, p. 112).

The constructivist approach is structured such that knowledge is established by understanding a context through the meanings that are associated with the studied phenomenon (Easterby-Smith, et al., 2002; Krauss, 2005). Correspondingly, the constructivist approach requires the transparency of the researcher on the research objectives. Transparency is an important feature of constructivism, particular in conveying to research participants the focus of the research, as this enables them to provide a contribution that is more relevant and aligned with the objectives. However,
respondent awareness of the objectives of the research enables the researcher to uncover and improve constructs (Guba & Lincoln, 1994).

In constructivism, researchers become a part of the research process and engaged with their research subjects, rather than remaining independent. Constructivism is appropriate in studies involving organisational development, as researchers become a ‘passionate participant’. Due to the interaction between investigator and respondent (Guba & Lincoln, 1994, p. 115), the researcher accepts subjectivity, and uses inductive qualitative methods (Veal, 2005). Findings that emerge from research utilising a constructivist approach are highly dependent on the cognitive ability of individuals to interpret their surroundings and convey the information perceive to the research (Guba & Lincoln, 1994).

Thus, the constructivist approach is appropriate for case studies for its development of findings dependent to the environment, and rather than debating what is most feasible, this approach utilises knowledge obtained to form new constructs that consider multiple perspectives (Veal, 2005). Constructivism is inclusive of multiple perspectives. Comparably, other paradigms advocate determining a single overarching view, and do not allow more than one perspective to exist on one context. Where other paradigms seek to debate theories and attempt to justify their validity, constructivism provides a middle-ground where an inclusive approach is used to incorporate multiple perspectives (Easterby-Smith, et al., 2002).
3.2.2 Justification for the Methodology

The case study approach is employed in this study. This approach is selected as the study entails an exploration of social phenomena within a specific context (Veal, 2005), requiring analysis of data through hermeneutics (Remenyi, Williams, Money, & Swartz, 1998). Qualitative research seeks to discover the implications of a studied phenomenon through understanding (Veal, 2005). Qualitative research gathers descriptive data in order to create new constructs, particularly where prior studies of a phenomenon are non-existent (Silverman, 2006). When this approach is used in a contextual study, researchers are able to collect a large amount of data from a small sample of staff within an organisation (Veal, 2005). Bowen (2005) states “the main strength of qualitative research is that it yields data that provide depth and detail to create understanding of phenomena and lived experiences” (p. 209).

Qualitative research normally entails a fluid approach throughout the research process (Veal, 2005). The intrinsic nature of this research approach develops a refined and evolved hypotheses progressively over the period of study, which can lead to the discovery of new knowledge that may otherwise be unidentified using an alternative research approach (Silverman, 2006). Qualitative research facilitates greater data collection, which is achieved through the personal interaction between researcher and respondent during the research process (Veal, 2005). This approach is used to define and understand the meaning of naturally occurring social phenomena (Van Maanen, 1983). Data analysis is a critical aspect of research, particularly qualitative research, as this step determines the value obtained from data collected (Veal, 2005).
3.3 Case Studies

Case study research involves a distinctive form of empirical inquiry (R. K. Yin, 2008). In the literature, the definition of case studies has manifested in different ways. Eisenhardt (1989) defines case studies as a research strategy focusing on understanding the dynamics present within single settings. Veal (2005) provides a simpler definition of a case study. A case is a study of a single example of a certain phenomenon, therefore a case study focuses on a single example such as an organisation, part of an organisation, a work unit or an event (R. K. Yin, 2008).

Additionally, the case study approach draws on multiple sources of evidence to obtain data necessary for convergence into a triangulation of data (R. K. Yin, 2008). This focus on a single example distinguishes the case study approach from other research methods that are normally based on several and often numerous cases (Veal, 2005). This approach to research is useful in situations where it is difficult to define the boundaries between phenomenon and context (R. K. Yin, 2008).

Case studies have the inherent capability to provide detailed accounts of the elements and interconnectivities within a context (Eisenhardt, 1989). Further, this approach is appropriate for exploring the cause and nature of social phenomena, particularly for addressing research problems that seek to explain some present circumstances, and require a comprehensive description of various social phenomena (Veal, 2005; R. K. Yin, 2008). The case study method is applicable in numerous contexts for studying individual, group, organisational, social, political, and related phenomena.
The case study approach is also utilised in the study of economics (R. K. Yin, 2008). Case studies are also applicable in research projects where multiple cases are studied, though in this form of research, cases normally involve studying comparable types of data. Cases are independently analysed to remain identifiable, and a feature of the research the comparisons between the cases (Veal, 2005). What distinguishes the case study approach from other research approaches are the conditions it satisfies (R. K. Yin, 2008).

Case studies are of a generally qualitative nature (Veal, 2005), though as the literature suggests, cases studies can be of a qualitative or quantitative nature (R.E. Stake, 1994; R. K. Yin, 2008). Case studies may be applied for one of three purposes, which are also applicable to other research methods. The research may take an exploratory, descriptive or explanatory nature. This approach is used by researchers to address research questions concerning how and why a phenomena exists, requires no control of behavioural events, and focuses on contemporary events (R. K. Yin, 2008).

Case studies may take one of two scenarios, explanatory or evaluative research. Explanatory research concerns theoretical issues. This approach involves the development of new theoretical propositions or insights where there is no known relevant theoretical framework. Explanatory research tests a single existing theory and an alternative theory, and results in the development of a new theory in the absence of an existing one. Evaluative research is similar, focusing on policy issues (Veal, 2005).

Case studies are used in this study for its contextual specificity to frame individuals and their experiences, the organisation, and events in their respective context through hermeneutics (Bolman & Deal, 2003; Veal, 2005; R. K. Yin, 2008). As case studies are context-specific, there is no requirement for the generalisation of data to a broader
This approach is used for its ability to understand social phenomena with complex natures (R. K. Yin, 2008).

### 3.3.1 Justification of the Use of Case Studies

Case studies are used in this study to explore the studied phenomenon within the context of an organisation. This approach is chosen for its contextual specificity to frame individuals and their experiences, the organisation, and events in their respective context (Bolman & Deal, 2003; Veal, 2005; R. K. Yin, 2008). Case studies are used to describe, understand, and explain a phenomenon within a certain context, particularly social phenomena (Veal, 2005; R. K. Yin, 2008). Case studies describe a context and the elements within it, understand the relationship between the contextual elements, and explain how these elements and relationships apply within a larger context (Hamel, Dufour, & Fortin, 1993).

The case study approach involves a holistic study to incorporate all factors present within a case (Veal, 2005). Case studies analyse elements within the context relevant to a phenomenon, and how these elements interact (Eisenhardt, 1989). This approach is used for its ability to understand social phenomena with complex natures, and describe cause for existence in a context where the researcher is not required to control the behaviour of individuals encompassed within the context of study (R. K. Yin, 2008). As case studies are context-specific, there is no requirement for the generalisation of data to a broader demographic. Case studies provide scope for the adjustment of research design to enhance research procedures for improved suitability to suit the objectives of research (Veal, 2005). The pragmatic approach of case study research and its contemporary focus justify its use in business research (R. K. Yin, 2008).
Contrary to most research methods, which aim to generalise phenomena across many contexts and develop universal theories, case studies enable researchers to ‘place staff, organisations, events and experiences in their social and historical context’ (Veal, 2005). The case study approach does not require the researcher to generalise a phenomenon in one context to a defined wider population. Case studies provide a holistic approach to researching a subject rather than limiting a study to certain contextual elements (Veal, 2005).

The inherent multiple methods utilised in case study research facilitates the exploration of phenomena, and the consideration of all data relevant and applicable to the studied context. This provides greater insight into the studied context, and may assist in explaining the situation and its contributing factors (Veal, 2005). Case study research provides a distinct advantage over other research methods (R. K. Yin, 2008). The case study approach appeals to researchers, as the process of data collection is controllable when resources are limited for single or multiple cases. Researchers benefit from the flexibility of the data collection strategy entailed in this approach, and the researcher may adapt their research strategy as the research proceeds (Veal, 2005).

Case studies have several distinguishing characteristics, which are in unison with qualitative research, describing, understanding, and explaining. Description is the illustration of an entire situation and its elements, understanding establishes the relationships and forces linking these elements, and explaining places this system into a broader context on which its origin, stability and decline eventually depends on (Hamel, et al., 1993).
Case studies are slightly different to other research methods, in that cases are studied in their entirety, rather than the collection of variables. Researchers are motivated to employ this approach for its applicability in interpreting specific cases and defining the causal interconnections that produce specific outcomes. The elements forming the case, and the relationship between these elements are understood (Hamel, et al., 1993). This approach is utilised for its capability to understand complex social phenomena, and enables investigators to sustain the meanings of the phenomena studied and a holistic focus on real-life events (R. K. Yin, 2008).

Case studies are applicable in business research, as this approach is used to investigate a contemporary phenomenon within its real-life context (R. K. Yin, 2008). The case study approach is applicable in situations that require a contextual-based analysed, hence its utilisation in organisations is attributed to the nature of the research approach to cocoon an organisation within its own boundaries. Case studies are generally not a universal study of phenomenon existent across a wider population, the approach implies a focus on a specific case, though the results of case studies have the potential to be used to support the inference of a generalisation across a broader context (Veal, 2005; R. K. Yin, 2008).

The main objective of the case study research is to study how organisations or divisions of organisations operate (Veal, 2005). A researcher may use the case study approach to apply to a specific event (M. Q. Patton, 1990). The role of the case study approach in business research is to study a phenomenon within a given context. Case study research can be used to broadly define a focus area, though not for generalising to a universe or population (R. Yin, 1993). The case study approach is applicable in business research due to its informed information gathering nature (R. K. Yin, 2008).
Researchers normally undertake a thorough review of the literature concerning the context and subject, and the meticulous development of research questions or objectives (R. K. Yin, 2008). Case studies are suited to developing on existing understandings of theoretical propositions and hypotheses in a situation where the context is critical, and events cannot be manipulated (R. Yin, 1993). Though as case studies on a particular case, with a designated time and place, it is possible to draw conclusions that present general propositions relating to theory and policy issues, and possibilities (Veal, 2005).

The case study approach is suitable for studying the nature of a phenomenon, and how it occurs, within a context where the researcher is not required to control behavioural events (R. Yin, 1993; R. K. Yin, 2008). Hence researchers prefer utilising this approach for the examination of contemporary events in situations where the relevant behaviours cannot be manipulated (R. K. Yin, 2008). It is particularly useful where research requires direct observation and systematic interviewing, and considers both the contextual conditions and the phenomenon of study (R. Yin, 1993).

Case studies are widely appealing, and have frequently been utilised in psychology, sociology, political science, anthropology, social work, business, education, nursing, and community planning. The tailored approach intrinsic to case studies enables researchers to study case elements, and in research where multiple cases are involved, case studies can provide individual insights on each case, and the comparison between cases can result in insights on several contexts (R. K. Yin, 2008).

The characteristics exhibited in the case study approach provide a filter for the elimination of irrelevant facts. When this approach is used to study an organisation, it provides insight specific to the organisation, and the findings may influence decision-making, and used as an invaluable business examination tool for assessing and
understanding the entirety of a situation before taking action. This specific data may therefore, be used to guide organisational change initiatives, culture change, policy and procedure reviews, and to implement revisions on other business activities (Veal, 2005; R. K. Yin, 2008).

Case studies are a means of contributing new theories through the discovery of useful information applicable to the studied context, particularly in niche areas that have not been exhaustively studied. The competitive global business environment creates new challenges for organisations, and exposes them to unique and often difficult situations. Case studies are a valuable form of research that can offer new insights. The thorough analysis involved, and potential to increase clarity on the business environment are beneficial to the sustainability of organisations, and provide a pathway for organisations to navigate through unchartered waters (M. Q. Patton, 1990).

3.3.2 In-Depth Interviewing

Data collection involved in-depth interviewing of two organisations, a not-for-profit organisation, identified in this study as Organisation G, and an educational institution, referred to as Organisation H. Participants from Organisation G and H are numbered as G1-6 and H1-8 respectively (see Appendix A). The intrinsic nature of in-depth interviewing develops a refined and evolved hypotheses progressively over the period of study, which can lead to the discovery of new knowledge that may otherwise be unidentified using an alternative research approach (Silverman, 2006). Qualitative research facilitates the collection of data, through the personal interaction that occurs between the researcher and respondent during the research process (Veal, 2005). This approach is used to define and understand the meaning of naturally occurring social phenomena (Van Maanen, 1983).
The in-depth interviewing method is used in this study to gather a detailed account of individual experiences and understanding of the phenomenon within the studied context, in order to develop meaning from research findings (Eisenhardt, 1989; R. K. Yin, 2008). In-depth interviewing is an unstructured and open-ended interview process (Lincoln & Guba, 1985; Silverman, 1993). The open-ended and informal nature inherent in an unstructured interview approach is the essence of qualitative research (Silverman, 2006). In an unstructured approach, the researcher allows the interviewee to explore a phenomenon through their ideas to facilitate knowledge and understanding, while considering the overall aims of the study (Macnee & McCabe, 2008).

This approach is undertaken due to the added benefit of studying change from multiple perspectives (Reissner, 2005). In-depth interviewing utilises the benefit of face-to-face interaction (Reinharz & Rowles, 1998; Veal, 2005), encourages greater interviewee participation, and facilitates descriptive data gathering (Veal, 2005). In-depth interviews were undertaken at the offices of the case organisations. Research was conducted in a familiar setting to invoke a sense of comfort and increased participation (Veal, 2005). The location in which interviews are undertaken should encourage research participants to engage in introspection (Reynolds & Gutman, 1988). However, the location of interviews is equally important to the emotions of research participants at the time of interviewing, as emotional status may cause bias in interviewee responses (Bolman & Deal, 2003).

In qualitative research, interviews are rarely semi-structured or structured, as these two approaches impose control over the way in which an interviewee responds (Macnee & McCabe, 2008). The use of an open-ended schedule enables the interviewee to express their ideas and impart knowledge without restriction (Taylor, Sinha and Ghoshal, 2006). Interviewing employed an interview guide (see Appendix B), combined with
supplementary questions to validate data (Bolman & Deal, 2003). Probing is used to encourage interviewees to elaborate on their responses, and to ensure that data obtained from interviews is relevant to the research question (Whyte, 1982). The combination of these technique enables researchers to obtain a large amount of data from a small number of research participants (Veal, 2005).

In-depth interviewing utilises the benefit of face-to-face interaction (Reinharz & Rowles, 1998; Veal, 2005). This format allows for a productive relationship to emerge with research participants (Buchanan, Boddy and McCalman, 1988), encourages greater interviewee participation, and facilitates descriptive data gathering (Veal, 2005). Interview data is recorded in the study using electronic verbatim transcripts to extract facts, ideas, opinions, emotions and motives (Silverman, 1993). Verbatim transcripts provide a comprehensive record of original information, and are used due to the large amount of descriptive data inherent in conducting qualitative research (Veal, 2005).

Active listening is used to facilitate the collection of valuable data (Silverman, 2006). Participation is shared by the researcher and interviewee using an interactionist approach, in order to obtain further insight on the experiences of individuals (Silverman, 1993). Qualitative research entails empathy with research participants, and it is the role of the researcher to reflect the experiences of other staff and the significance of their experiences (Silverman, 2006).

Research is conducted in a familiar setting to invoke a sense of comfort and increased participation (Veal, 2005). The location in which interviews are undertaken should encourage research participants to engage in introspection (Reynolds & Gutman, 1988). However, the location of interviews is equally important to the emotions of research
participants at the time of interviewing, as emotional status may cause bias in interviewee responses (Bolman & Deal, 2003).

3.3.3 Units of Analysis

The units of analysis in this study are two Australian organisations, (i) a not-for-profit organisation based in Sydney, Australia, with regional offices across Australia and throughout the world; and (ii) an educational institution headquartered in Melbourne, Australia, with a number of campuses across Victoria, and an additional four campuses in the Asia-Pacific region. These organisations were specifically selected as they are experiencing rapid growth and implementing a number of changes. The units of observation are (i) senior management staff members, and (ii) middle management staff members. The study involved interviews with fourteen management staff across two organisations, due to the added benefit of studying change from multiple perspectives (Reissner, 2005), and as a result enhances understanding of the research problem (Bryman & Bell, 2007).

3.4 Data Analysis

Data analysed in this study consisted of verbatim interview transcripts. The analysis of interview data obtained in this study initially involved transcription of verbatim audio recordings of interviews. Transcripts were imported and analysed in NVivo 9, which is a Computer Aided Qualitative Data Analysis Software (CAQDAS) package. During the analysis of data in NVivo, a tree node structure was employed using the categories identified in the literature review and data collected during the interviews to create the parent and child nodes. Analysis involved the use of a coding template to categorise
data are shown in Appendix C. Analysis involved axial coding to utilise relational and variational sampling. This allows a moderated approach in comparison to a biased coding practice (Strauss & Corbin, 1998). Analysis involved two sets of data to separate responses to the interview questions according to the organisation. Datasets were then manually searched, and coded to the relevant constructs. Constructs were developed through analysing the relationships between constructs within the studied context. The study employed qualitative data analysis using the constructivist approach, which involves the collection of empirical evidence (Guba & Lincoln, 1994). This approach creates constructs through the personal experiences of interviewees who have been involved in change initiatives (Guba & Lincoln, 1994).

3.5 Reliability and Validity

The characteristic of rigorous research is not only to address the research question, it is also to acknowledge errors and implement procedures to minimise or eliminate their effect on research (Macnee & McCabe, 2008). There exist numerous influential factors, which are internal and external to research, and both the researcher and research participants affect the validity of a study. Data collection and analysis employed in this study designed to protect the integrity of data (Blaxter, Hughes, & Tight, 1996). It is the role of the researcher to obtain value from collected data, maintain the integrity of research and minimise unnecessary influence (Stoecker, 1991; Veal, 2005; R. K. Yin, 2008). Each research approach has limitations, and researchers utilise various methods to validate data (Lucas & Kline, 2008).
Denzin and Lincoln (1994) identified several errors encountered in data collection of qualitative research. The errors considered in this study consist of trustworthiness, confirmability, transferability and credibility (Lincoln & Guba, 1985; R.E Stake, Denzin, & Lincoln, 1994). The internal validity of research is affected by trustworthiness, which is the honesty of data collected from or about research participants. The issue of trustworthiness is addressed in this study through the selection of research participants who are willing to cooperate in the study, in order to obtain information that otherwise be unnecessarily obscured. This issue of validity is also addressed through the use of a consistent data collection procedure (Lincoln & Guba, 1985).

Data obtained through in-depth interviewing is subject to the ability of research participants to represent reality. The way in which research participants perceive their surrounding environment, and their awareness of and bias towards it, determine the usability and significance of their responses (Bolman & Deal, 2003). Responses of research participants vary due to beliefs, scope of knowledge, attitudes, perception, personal experience and circumstances, and their surrounding environment (Kimmel, 1990; C. Marshall & Rossman, 2006; Silverman, 2006). The roles of individuals in their environment shape their perceptions, attitudes, biases, and level of understanding on phenomena occurring in their environment (Bolman & Deal, 2003).

Elements of an individual’s response are defined as either intentional or unintentional (Blaxter, et al., 1996). The intentional aspect refers to an individual’s conscious awareness of their ideas, opinions, knowledge and attitude. The unintentional aspect refers to an individual’s unconscious awareness of knowledge and attitude, which is due to their conditioning in a particular setting, and may apply to other individuals in the same setting. These factors determine how an individual perceives truth, and the
distance create from the truth. Hence as researchers endeavour to accurately represent reality, credibility becomes an issue (Blaxter, et al., 1996; Lincoln & Guba, 1985).

The responses of research participants are determined by their motivation to cooperate in a study, and the degree of transparency in knowledge flows, hence influencing the depth of research in a field of study. This also has pronounced effects on data analysis and research findings (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2003; Veal, 2005). Researchers encounter difficulty in maintaining data uniformity throughout research (Silverman, 2006). Therefore, it is critical to ascertain the motivation of research participants for involvement in a study in order to anticipate and control undue influence on research outcomes (Lincoln & Guba, 1985; Veal, 2005).

Another issue concerning internal validity is confirmability. This entails consistency and repeatability in decisions on data collection and analysis. Confirmability is addressed in this study through an audit trail. An audit trail is a document maintained by the researcher detailing decisions on data analysis and collection processes (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). Data uniformity is difficult to achieve in qualitative research, particularly when using an unstructured approach (Reissner, 2005; Silverman, 2006). Researchers undertaking the case study approach often succumb to a deficient methodology, lacking a systematic research process, and allowing bias to manipulate research direction and subsequent findings (R. K. Yin, 2008).

Qualitative research has limited scope for protection from researcher-influenced bias. Hence this approach is unable to provide experimental control, and provides no certainty of reliability or internal validity (Veal, 2005). Research outcomes depend on the ability of the researcher to consider the data that is relevant to address the research question, discuss aspects of the research that are important, interpret data and draw
conclusions (Stoecker, 1991; Veal, 2005). Therefore, well-developed qualitative research is achieved through a comprehensive understanding of the processes involved in qualitative research (Stoecker, 1991; Veal, 2005).

Further, the issue of transferability is encountered in qualitative research. Transferability measures the external validity of a study, and is the degree to which the concepts, themes or dimensions identified are applicable in other groups outside the context in which data was originally collected from (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). In order to facilitate transferability, the study incorporated diversity into data collection using two case organisations, and interviewees from different hierarchies, in order to explore the effect of the studied phenomenon in other settings (Bolman & Deal, 2003).

The second issue of external validity is credibility. Credibility is the confidence that the researcher and research user have in the validity of research findings, and is related to transferability and trustworthiness (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). For research to be valid it needs to represent reality (Blaxter, et al., 1996). The limitation of the constructivist approach is its inability to confirm the validity of facts, rather it merely confirms their existence. This is due to the nature of research, as it implies that realities may change through the interaction between researcher and respondent (Guba & Lincoln, 1994).

Thus, the issue of credibility is resolved in this study through the use of triangulation (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). Case studies use multiple sources of evidence to triangulate data (R. K. Yin, 2008). Triangulation is utilised to confirm data validity. Triangulation is a multiple-methods approach to obtaining different perspectives on the same issue (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). The rationale for validating data through triangulation is due to the compatibility of case studies with this validation approach to generate more knowledge on phenomena (Konecki, 2008). The use of multiple sources of evidence

3.6 Ethical Considerations

The study required consideration of the need for ethics approval for interviewing the employees from the selected organisation. The requirement of ethics approval is required to conduct a study on the organisation, as the study involves human participation, and the study requires anonymity of employees partaking in interviews. Details excluded from the case study include name, age, gender, length of employment, and specifics regarding position. The positions of staff are generalised under the categories of management, subordinates, and volunteers. These measures are in place to protect the identity of the organisation, its employees and all associated parties. Employees accepted to be research participants by voluntary participation, in accordance with the conditions imposed by the Charles Sturt University Human Research Ethics Committee.

3.7 Conclusion

This chapter detailed the research design and procedures employed to study the phenomenon identified from the review of literature. Through a study of literature, it became evident that a qualitative approach is the required approach to address the research question. The following chapter discusses the results from the analysis of the data, which was obtained using the methodology and paradigm detailed in this chapter.
Chapter 4

Analysis of Data
4.1 Introduction

This chapter discusses the results of the analysis of two case studies. The research participants consisted of senior and middle managers that had been involved in recent changes in their respective organisations. A constructivist approach was employed to analyse interview transcripts. This chapter also outlines the conceptual framework that initially emerged from a review of the literature, and has become extended through the research findings. The findings of this study offer insights on knowledge management, organisational learning, organisational strategies, organisational change, and evaluation. The analysis of data within this chapter is structured in alignment with the conceptual framework, the order of which is depicted below:

![Figure 4.1: Analysis Chapter Structure](image-url)
4.2 Knowledge Management

Participants across the case organisations highlighted the importance of articulating to organisational members the goals of an organisation, and attempting to instil in staff a sense of urgency and passion about meeting organisational goals. Participants identified that staff need to be aware of organisational expectations in order to perform their duties effectively. G5 identified key focal areas in knowledge management:

Key functions... from an organisational perspective, what the organisation expects you to do as a division as a whole... do we have all the skills to satisfy those expectations, those functions which the organisation expects... where we need to learn. (G5)

Various communication channel mediums are utilised to stream knowledge across an organisation, which is important in facilitating collaboration. The study identified that knowledge transfer involves both intra and inter-organisational communication. G4 stated:

E-newsletter, and those are produced for publications... internal... focused emails... if something fairly significant has happened... we have a media monitoring service... we send out to people who have nominated to receive them, daily clippings of what’s happening in the press... Which mentions us, or might talk about... things that we think are relevant... there’s a whole lot of email circulars that come. (G4)

4.2.1 Knowledge Transfer

Participants across the case organisations highlighted the importance of sharing experiences and information. The findings of the study correlated with the literature that the flow of knowledge across an organisation is a key factor in the performance of an organisation (Aksu & Ozdemir, 2005; Lines, et al., 2008; Schimmel & Muntslag, 2009). The majority of participants across the case organisations view that knowledge
facilitates organisational performance, and highlighted the importance of finding an efficient means of learning and maximising knowledge transfer. H4 stated:

Developing really high quality flows of information about the broader context in which we operate... so that people can understand, right on the top to the bottom... that people understand these changes in a way which is communicated very easily to them. (H4)

H1 concurred with this view, highlighting that a positive relationship exists between the empowerment of organisational members, and the capabilities of individuals in articulating change requirements:

If you keep people in the dark, they can’t change anything, if you open their eyes to what their potential is, then... change flows from that, because people see there’s potential in the future. (H1)

Whilst transparency is critical to the learning process, G3 highlighted this is difficult to achieve. Staff meetings are viewed as one means of engaging staff in regular communication. G3 stated:

How much you can inform people... communication about what it’s really doing, and it’s a problem, and we do keep trying to get better at it, which is why... we’re having regular meetings now, whereas we used not to... they were kind of very ad hoc and they were not considered important enough to say, yes we need to stick with this date that we’ve set, and we’re having... more regular senior management meetings. (G3)

H1 added that staff engagement and knowledge transfer are hindered when individuals revert to self-preservation. In these instances, H1 identified that the full potential of staff is not realised:

They put in the effort, they haven’t... seen the results because middle and senior managers haven’t actually funded initiatives, or they haven’t provided tools or
whatever... they become emotionally restrained, so they go back to self preservation. (H1)

The importance of cross-learning between stakeholders is essential to the creation of a culture of learning, which not only supports the sharing of information, also promotes active engagement in the learning process. G4 stated:

Learning from each other is very important in creating this culture... knowing that that’s part of the work... it’s not accidental, incidental, this sharing... it’s not just... we might be bumping into each other in the kitchen and... if that information... and that sharing isn’t in-built into... how things are done in the organisation, it’s going to be... a huge challenge to grow the organisation. (G4)

There was a general agreement that groups are encouraged to share their developments and facilitate wider adoption, highlighting the importance of staff input into change. G1 expressed:

You got to have all of the conversations with people so that, you can figure out how to build the system, then you have to figure out how is it going to interface with what our people in the field can do. (G1)

G4 added that knowledge transfer is enhanced when employees take an interest in the work of their colleagues:

Whenever anyone comes back from overseas, or comes down from the Indigenous Programs, you will see, everyone turns up... everyone’s keen to share more information and to find out what each of us do, so there’s still lots of people that come along and, I think really appreciate it... feel that sharing this information... is part of their work... I really value the fact that people can share information with each other. (G4)

Further, G1 identified that sourcing external expertise is occasionally required to instigate change:
Did start to do that internal... we realised that we needed some extra help... we’ve bought in a person who’s sitting in our office now... to help develop the new structure. (G1)

G2 identified that while knowledge flow is extensive, there remains concern on the content of information shared within organisations across hierarchies:

It’s not always clear what the information means, so... you can find out what going on, it’s not always clear who’s the decision-maker or what, what decision has been taken. (G2)

However, Organisation G encourages tolerance towards ambiguity. G2 indicated a positive correlation between ambiguity and the exchange of ideas:

I think our structures encourage dialogue... they tend to encourage dialogue... we have a high tolerance for ambiguity... and diversity... which is fine, helpful in some contexts... we tend to transfer that tolerance of ambiguity and, and diversity across to some policy domains as well. (G2)

Continuous improvement within an organisation is directly linked to the level of transparency across an organisation. A culture of trust needs to be instilled prior to the establishment of a culture of learning. Confidence building and transparency form the foundation of this process (Aksu & Ozdemir, 2005). G4 highlighted that transparency is critical to business sustainability:

Transparency in terms of competition is, we need to... keep that up, because... if we don’t... continue to sort of improve what we do, we will fall down in competition, and we won’t be able to raise much money, which... we won’t be able to help as many people... and also supporters will... start to turn their back on us if they feel that we’re not up to scratch, and that has the same knock-on effect... that’s just going to mean that we’re not able to help people, so people value staying ahead of the game in these things. (G4)
Knowledge transfer mechanisms need to encompass the unique characteristics and learning needs of an organisation (G. W. Duncan, 2006). The findings highlight the critical role of knowledge transfer in the continuous improvement of an organisation. In this respect, individuals are encouraged to place transparency as a foremost consideration. Correspondingly, effective knowledge transfer mediums need to be established to facilitate transparency.

### 4.2.2 Modes of Knowledge Transfer

There is wide consensus amongst the case organisations that knowledge transfer occurs through both formal and informal mechanisms. G3 holds the view that people have a natural preference for obtaining information by obtaining it from others:

> People can summarise it all into the particular form that you want... rather than you having to read around... to come up with your own summary... and that’s what we assume asking somebody else will give us. (G3)

Participants across the case organisations (e.g. H3, G4) identified that the sharing of information integrates into the majority of day-to-day work, correlating with the findings of Nonaka and Takeuchi (1995) that a clear link exists between work-based learning and knowledge management. G4 stated:

> The fact that people do come back and share the knowledge of... what’s happening in a particular country... if they go away to a training, quite often they’ll type up notes and distribute them... either to people who are unable to go to training, or may not necessarily have, appeared to be as relevant to them... keeping an eye out on what you think other people are maybe interested in... or that you can share with the group... there’s a lot of distribution of information in that way. (G4)

Concurrently, G2 described systematic tools for capturing knowledge:
The internal data will be... staff satisfaction surveys... capability reviews... the external stuff may be capacity reviews... monitoring and evaluation. (G2)

Similarly, H4 highlighted the importance of staff networking in the facilitation of knowledge transfer, and that networking supports collaborative work between stakeholders within an organisation:

There are networks of people who will ring each other up if they’ve got a problem... the links can be very strong. (H4)

Knowledge transfer takes place through various meetings and reviews. Meetings enable organisational members to engage in cross-regional knowledge transfer. G2 highlighted that within organisations operating at an international scale, knowledge management entails cross-regional knowledge transfer:

Three ways, we’ll come together for... a regional meeting... we do that every year, and every second year we’ll bring them together for... a large international meeting... the third way is that some of them are involved in... cross-fertilising by being involved in... program reviews or capacity reviews, partnership reviews, so periodic reviews... a mid-term and an end-of-program review. (G2)

4.2.2.1 Staff Meetings

Staff meetings are viewed as a regular and effective knowledge exchange medium for transferring knowledge across an organisation. Staff meetings are a key knowledge exchange activity. G6 stated:

There are some quite robust discussions at the management meeting... there’s been some clarity around the information, so we’ve agreed to things like, to always finish... the meetings and minutes with an action list... which clearly defines what action needs to be undertaken, and by whom and by when. (G6)
The majority of participants conferred that meetings are opportunities for organisational members to remain current in their knowledge and aware of their surrounding environment. H3 highlighted the importance of regular staff meetings:

Promoting some policy... process or some procedure, that you want staff to be mindful of. (H3)

Within Organisation G, the majority of learning was perceived as often unintended and limited in attainment. Whilst the organisation held an intention to learn, individual learning remained minimal, and unsystematic. G2 stated:

The learning that happens is incidental rather than deliberate. However, there is some attempt to deliberately capture learning, although there is no agenda for it at the individual level. It does not tend to get processed very much at all... However, it is very low level of capture. Instead the focus is more on this secondary level of effectiveness. (G2)

To effectively share departmental news, organisations require allocating more time aside from working hours for staff by reducing the workload. G3 highlighted:

If there’s been a discussion, or a change in the senior management group because something else happened... say that to people. We have staff meetings where people try and impart news and changes in the organisation every two months... it’s always a difficulty with meetings, staff meetings as to what you can put on an agenda and how much discussion you can have. (G3)

Further, G1 sees value in engaging staff from various departments in regional meetings, particularly when meetings involve staff internationally, highlighting the benefit of inter-departmental learning:

We make sure that in... regional groups, at least it’s not just the Director of International Programs who goes to them, that we try and have somebody else
from that group go, part of that is about trying to ISO stuff of get some... coherency in the organisation. (G1)

Whilst the organisations studied described difficulty in gathering a wide representation of staff from various departments to attend staff meetings, there was consensus that regular meetings are essential. The difficulty of gathering staff was attributed to differing work schedules, varying levels of responsibility, and geographic dispersion.

### 4.2.2.2 Inter-Departmental Knowledge Transfer

The participants identified that departments have their own methodologies. H4 viewed that as such, cross-learning between departments facilitates collaboration. Chinowsky and Carrillo (2007), who propose that the value of knowledge is increased through sharing across an organisation, concur with this view. H4 highlighted the benefits of knowledge transfer, using an example of a cross-departmental committee:

All the participants come from different areas... by being in that group, they learn a lot about each other’s areas... they might pick up an idea from somebody else on the group, and go back and institute that, or they might... in the program say... this is a good idea, why don’t we get together... and bring about some change in this area, it’s very very powerful. (H4)

H8 perceived that while knowledge transfer within departments is adequate, inter-departmental knowledge transfer is not highly developed, and departments remain relatively isolated:

Probably the sharing within the departments is fine... I don’t know about the sharing of information between departments... because there is still that silo effect. (H8)
The findings confirm the research of Goh (2002) that addressing silos is important as such characteristics impinge on knowledge transfer, and adversely affect cross departmental collaboration. Thus, avoiding a silo mentality and promoting horizontal information flow (Goh, 2002) facilitates transparency and cross departmental collaboration, ultimately promoting a learning culture. H4 concurred with this view, highlighting that communication amongst organisational members is pivotal to organisational learning, and a lack of collaboration across an organisation leads to the isolation of staff:

If you don’t put in place the mechanisms whereby these people can meet and swap ideas, and get to know each other, then you have what we call silos... they’re just in their little compartments... because that is the organisational learning about the other areas of the institute... and that can be very important because... not only do I get an empathy for them, but I may actually learn something concrete that’s useful to improve my area... that’s a very important way in which people... get organisational learning. (H4)

H6 highlighted that organisations benefit from allowing and encouraging staff to work with other divisions and share ideas. Similarly, the literature identified that the use of multidisciplinary teams facilitate learning (Tarnoff, 2009). H6 stated:

The sort of development, the learning that the individuals undertaking may just be a time based thing, it might be they need time off duties to attend a particular program... they would negotiate that with their manager... as long as it’s relevant to the work they are undertaking, or may undertake in the future, they’ll just be given time off, with pay... no cost to the employee, the manager has to... accept the cost of the loss of the employee’s labour for those two days... and it goes through to someone’s undertaking, perhaps a Masters or a PhD would be negotiating time to attend. (H6)

Thus, cross-learning amongst staff promotes awareness of how an organisation operates, the current state of an organisation, and how other departments function, which potentially enhances the understanding of staff regarding their role within the
wider organisational context. Whilst individual departments may differ in the way in which they operate, inter-departmental knowledge transfer promotes collaboration through linking cohorts across an organisation. This results in the alignment of staff with organisational objectives, and channels the efforts of staff into a single direction. The findings highlighted that strategic planning is enhanced through the implementation of a unified approach to learning and collaboration.

4.2.3 Knowledge Transfer Across Geographic Boundaries

Participants in Organisation G perceived that learning, to a great extent, is sourced externally. There was wide consensus amongst the case organisations that increased focus is required on international HR. G2 stated concern regarding the lack of a systematic skills profile for staff overseas:

Still trying to get an accurate picture of... who are our staff overseas... it’s not mapped against... a systematic skills profile... we need to create... an easier way for people... to answer... cultural, or historically. (G2)

Learning from external sources enables an organisation to develop best practices. The findings coincided with the observations in the literature that one element of the learning process is externalisation (Ikujiro Nonaka, et al., 2000). G5 stated:

Learning from others...we are not proud that we are the only organisation which you can learn from, but we can also learn from others so there’s a lot of... cross-organisational learning from other organisations, because of the similar structures, in that sense is much easier... that’s a policy difference, and second will be... in the next phase, we will demonstrate best practices... through extending the on-the-job training. (G5)

In addition, learning from external relationships is an important aspect of organisational learning. Learning shapes the perceptions of individuals. H4 added:
That changes the organisation because it means we become a little bit more... tied to other parts... more helpful in the community, and it changes our perception of ourselves too... and it makes the organisation more outward looking, and that’s good. (H4)

Significant emphasis on international knowledge transfer was identified within Organisation G, highlighting that learning at an international scale facilitates mutual learning. G5 stated:

There’s a lot of, regionalisation, internationalisation of the learning, and unlike other international organisations where everything comes from headquarters... we have... cross-regional... mutual learning... the person has to know the local culture first... what are the best way of... providing learning or training, or in capacity building... valuing the local culture. (G5)

G3 highlighted that while international knowledge transfer is beneficial, this also presents challenges:

It’s communicating backwards and forwards from here, and the time zones... that... can make for a bit more problem at times. (G3)

Within one of the case organisations (H2), a staff exchange program is in the process of implementation to enhance knowledge transfer on an international scale. H2 stated:

We need to be able to make sure that the curriculum that they’re delivering is pretty similar to what we’re doing... because obviously... there can be problems... when there are big differences in a country. (H2)

Further, G4 highlighted that when staff return from exchange programs, there is great interest amongst other staff to learn, and in such instances, knowledge is generally shared informally:
People will come back from a country... you can just go over and welcome them back and then share... what happened... certainly there’s a lot of interest, when anyone comes back from overseas, we try and sit down and go through some of the photos that we’ve taken, and talk to people about what’s happening... when one of the staff from overseas come... half hour session where everyone is invited to come in, and we’ve just kept it really informal. (G4)

The study identified that organisations benefit from considering outside perspectives for internal improvement, and cross-learning from other organisations facilitates the development of best practices. Correspondingly, regional management meetings provide opportunities for sharing experiences and gaining new knowledge, and obtaining new perspectives on existing issues. Whilst cross-learning amongst staff within an organisation also contributes to the development of best practices, participants clearly identified the positive influence of outside perspectives on organisational performance and sustainability.

4.2.4 Knowledge Management and Technology

The use of technology within organisations assists organisational members to transfer knowledge. G3 emphasised strongly on staff understanding and adopting technology in order to implement new approaches to work. Further, it was identified that such learning tools require continuous monitoring to ensure the effectiveness of utilised technology, and identify areas requiring improvement. G3 highlighted:

Those electronic tools can help to at least keep information, make them more accessible to people, which can help with efficiency, work, and then hopefully if they can access more information more readily... that you can help sort of learn a bit better. (G3)

H2 expressed that the use of computers has become a form of literacy:
Most young people just use computers in the same way we took pen to study when we were at school... they don’t use pen and study, they can’t write, but they can... use a computer, so it’s a form of literacy that... is well established with young people and less so with... older people... technology can be a barrier, but is increasingly less a barrier, because more and more people have gotten used to the idea now of... using this technology. (H2)

Further, technology facilitates international knowledge transfer within an organisation. G2 stated:

One place where technology may come in is how do we... share and pool our knowledge across countries. (G2)

H5 identified the extensive use of technology within organisations being commonplace, highlighting the importance of remaining up-to-date with new technology:

We can become very... technology dependent... it’s all done electronically, and monitoring... the management that goes with that... it’s all very technology hungry... we do need to keep abreast of... what’s happening. (H5)

Correspondingly, G1 clearly identified the pivotal nature of Information Technology in influencing learning:

It’s important in terms of showing... strong sense that... technologies... have a big impact on whether an organisation can be a learning organisation. (G1)

H4 highlighted that technology assists organisations in developing an understanding of organisational processes amongst staff, which enhances work effectiveness:

People need to understand... the process that they need to follow... there could be a lot more education material, videos, interactive multimedia... about the organisation, about the processes of the organisation, about the people in the organisation, about... the communities of practice, about the... context in which we operate. (H4)
4.2.4.1 Knowledge Management in Online Communications

Online learning was perceived as a solution to overcoming issues involved in face-to-face training delivery. This correlates with the findings of a study conducted by Leonardi (2007), who found that the use of online communication tools in knowledge management has become paramount for organisations, and enables advanced knowledge transfer within an organisation. G6 stated:

E-learning... environment... will be a significant change for us, because what we would have done is to in fact eliminate some of the current obstacles we have, where people... are not available to attend for logistical reasons... so we’re saying, this stuff is really important, and, there is no reason, why you cannot do this. (G6)

There was general agreement amongst the case organisations that awareness and utilisation of technology differs across individuals. G3 stated:

There’s such a range of technological skills or understanding... there would need to be a cultural shift in terms of actually educating people, and giving them a motivation. (G3)

G1 expressed that online learning requires tailoring to suit the specific training needs of individuals:

Part of the issue is that... it’s very seldom that you can just pick up online learning that somebody else has done... you have to adjust it for yourself... and so my concern about this always is that if we are going to use online stuff, that we need to have the time and put the time in to actually tailor the programs so that they actually talk to our organisational circumstance... or our particular area of work... always makes it a lot longer process. (G1)

G6 highlighted that online learning is a solution to overcoming work constraints on learning, as it provides flexibility in training:
The e-learning environment will eliminate a lot of that inability to go... We'll make sure that we get the messages out there, and people can do the training at their... own pace at a time that’s convenient to them. (G6)

G4 highlighted that information overflow amongst organisational members is problematic:

A while back there was a kind of belief that we were getting email overload... and information overload... as we grow as an organisation it’s imperative that people at least know where the information is... even if they don’t want to access it... it’s coming across their desk... it’s then up to them whether or not how involved they get with it... manage their own subscriptions to these kind of emails... therefore reducing, not only the administration on them to send it out, but meaning that it’s personalised, people can decide... so it’s kind of putting power back in the hands of people to... monitor their own... flow of information really. (G4)

The findings correlated with the literature that online communication is now a priority for organisations (Shepherd, 2011; Volkoff, Strong, & Elmes, 2007). Enhancements in communication technologies result in greater collaboration, provide strategic advantage, and ultimately, enhance business sustainability. Correspondingly, participants identified that organisations can enhance accessibility to information transferred through the Internet, by utilising such knowledge within an Intranet.

4.2.4.2 Knowledge Management Within an Intranet

Participants from the case organisations viewed that linking the Intranet and staff sharing are important for effective knowledge transfer. H3 identified that the role of an Intranet is to enhance accessibility to information. Participants conceded that an effective Intranet is vital for communication. G2 in particular highlighted this view:

If we’re actually going to use an Intranet as a communication tool, to help... understand what the organisation is doing and to be able to communicate changes and those sorts of things... that needs to be a better tool... to help people
sharing information, I think they need to... improve the management of information, the electronic information... that people rely on so much... and that it’s easy to be done. (G3)

G3 agreed, while maintaining a preference for traditional communication methods. G3 highlighted that the Intranet assists new staff in settling into an organisation:

It’s helpful for them to find out information about... some of the history of the organisation... the policies... that new staff need to know, some of the templates that they need to use for documents... easily, but it’s more of that functional information. (G3)

Further, the issue of management systems arose when discussing Intranets. The management system was identified as a guidance framework containing policies and procedures, within which employees are required to develop their work practices. H5 described the role of management systems as a facilitator of knowledge transfer, and elemental in succession planning. Similarly, H3 stated:

Documents... for staff to actually be able to work out... what they need to do, who needs to do it, how they actually... process it... document a policy locally... then we upload it to an Intranet... very much a knowledge sharing, transparency, to make sure... what’s happening on one campus is the same as another campus. (H3)

Additionally, H6 described the implications of a quality system in maintaining a systematic approach to learning:

A whole range of procedures from governance issues... such as how the delegation of powers occur within the institution, through to, issues about delivery of teaching programs, through to finance procedures, human resource procedures... it’s a broad-based system which has... some qualities... certification status... learning into the formal policies... where the learning and the professional development... is quite clear... at the local level. (H6)
4.2.4.2.1 Network Drives

Participants highlighted that within computer networks, access to information is sorted at departmental and hierarchical levels. Within Organisation G, data is stored on various drives on an Intranet, with differing levels of access and permissions. G3 stated:

H Drive... is where people have their own personal... separated logical drive on the network, which is where they can only see the information, it’s still part of the network, but it’s... personalised, locked off... C Drive... they don’t usually have administrator rights... but they can write data there. (G3)

Correspondingly, H5 stated that shared drives are utilised to provide organisation-wide access to files required by an entire organisation:

Communal filing cabinet... Q drive... policies and procedures... all of our staff take some responsibility for... parts of that, or most of that... access to various things... marketing information... templates. (H5)

In addition, department-specific information is stored and shared on one drive that is separated into folders according to departments. G3 described:

N Drive is... for data storage... locked into... divisional read/write... which is... the network that everybody has different sections of. (G3)

The study identified that network drives are a valuable knowledge management tool for sharing knowledge within departments, and across an organisation. The study identified that knowledge transfer is regulated within these networks through different levels of access, and that sensitive commercial information is reserved for decision-makers in the upper organisational hierarchies, which can range from senior management staff to the CEO.
4.2.4.2 Records Management

Participants from Organisation G viewed that staff require education on basic records management. The study found that a lack of knowledge in this area adds to the difficulty of work for staff. Further, a lack of awareness on basic file management procedures was identified. G3 raised the issue of data archiving:

It’s still fairly hit and miss when you want to... find the older information about something, and it’s not in an order that you think it should be in. (G3)

H7 emphasised on the importance of the digitisation of organisational resources, which increases the accessibility of stakeholders to critical documents and learning resources:

Digitising everything... access within... and obviously, off-site as well. (H7)

One major issue with records management is varying file management practices across departments. File management ranged from organised to disorganised across different departments. G1 identified this is caused by a lack of awareness amongst staff on effective file management practices, highlighting that organisations are required to provide effective training for staff. Similarly, G3 identified a lack of procedure on the notification of document changes. Within the same organisation, records management practices required reviewing:

There isn’t a full procedure for saying, ok, this is actually something that needs to go to our archival storage... where is this, what is this, how do we recognise what should be an archival piece of material, when should it be disposed of, when should it be moved to archives... we need really to have a look and implement a fully functioning records management system... whether it’s manual, whether it’s electronic... and obviously we would need both aspects of that. (G3)
Further, changes in technology require cross-departmental collaboration to identify the needs of an organisation and the resources required. H7 highlighted the importance of collaboration in determining the outcomes of change across an organisation:

Looking at how it would work across the institute, where the services are required... quite clearly that learning process is feeding out... to those other departments. (H7)

In addition, the issue of version control became evident in records management within Intranets. The study identified that records management is streamlined using version control. G3 highlighted that staff require education on version control:

We’re trained up to know version control... that would be one thing... then having access in one place so you don’t get confused... as to which is the latest version... the electronic document and records management system will do, that will have version control, and for anybody to edit... a document... you have to check it out... you can then make changes, you put it back in again, and nobody else can make changes to it while you’ve got it out... it’s that control. (G3)

Participants viewed records management as important, particularly in work environments where technology is used extensively. The findings identified that records management systems facilitate a systemised approach to knowledge management through the use of technology. Further, version control enables streamlined collaboration across an organisation. However, there is concern that employees are not adequately trained to utilise records management and version control software, and as a result, are unable to use these technologies effectively.

4.2.4.2.3 Issues in Intranets

Within Organisation G, it was identified that intranets are largely affected by accessibility issues, which reduce the usability of such systems, and consequently
hinders knowledge transfer. G3 highlighted a preference for simplified access to the Intranet, adding that the effectiveness of an Intranet is influenced by user skills:

You have to log in to access it... but people around... want to log in once a day... I want to streamline my logging in... we log into our network, we log into the Intranet, if you really don’t think the Intranet’s got anything for you, why are you going to bother to login... even when we’re looking for electronic documents in the records management system... it’s going to slow people down from using the tool... we’ve got a look at security, but... we are getting to the stage where we need to look at streamlining... to make it easier for people to share information. (G3)

Further, the duplication of information impinges the effectiveness of Intranets. G3 identified that duplication occurs when Intranets contain the same information that organisational members can readily access on the Internet:

One of the problems was the way it was actually introduced, and the actual software chosen and the resources allocated to it... provides the tools so people can search for information... in terms of finding other information that they don’t know about, they would go to... Google, and search... they’d go for their own... associations or the sites where they have found information before... or they’re associated with through their work, and they’d find information that way. (G3)

G3 added that certain types of information are useful for inclusion on an Intranet:

We have cut down the amount of work that we put into doing that, the other things that we do put on the Intranet are the policies and procedures and some of the basic information about the organisation, there’s a staff directory so people can find out who’s there. (G3)

G3 also highlighted the need for vigilant planning of the objectives and expectations of an Intranet, strongly underscoring that knowledge transfer is enhanced through systematic and strategic utilisation of an Intranet:
Have a structure and understanding of what you want it to do, then set it up to be that way, then copy all that information into that system. (G3)

The use of intranets as knowledge management tools is a widely adopted approach to facilitating knowledge transfer across an organisation (G. Duncan, et al., 2009). The study identified that whilst intranets facilitate collaboration across an organisation, accessibility in Intranets remains a major issue. The findings highlight the importance of planning in the successful utilisation of intranets.

4.2.5 Strategic Planning

There was wide consensus amongst the case organisations that the leading issue around learning and organisational change is at the strategic level. G2 identified that strategic planning is a form of evaluation and facilitates reflection:

The counter point to that is we have... a strategic planning cycle, a lot of time is invested in... gathering data about and reflecting upon our past experiences as an organisation, so there is a very strong... concern for... what works, what doesn’t work, what do we do differently based on that, so there’s a bit of a disconnect, we... have that as a bedrock... in the organisation. (G2)

H5 highlighted that the strategic planning process involves departments developing strategic plans that are guided by the organisational strategic plan:

Through from those procedures... we are bound to... prepare centre strategic and business plans... which relate to human resources and needs there, as well as to... areas of change... prepare plans... at the centre level, and then we also have plans for all staff... institute strategic plans, and then the centre strategic plans... and then the changes to that strategic plan, which adds in a fourth value, onto higher learning and consensus on that... the institute strategic plan will then influence the centre strategic plan... that will then influence... the professional development plans, to a certain degree. (H7)
The study identified that strategic planning plays a key role in setting direction, and acts as a guidance framework in which staff are required to operate. Strategic planning cycles inherently provide an opportunity for staff to reflect on past practices. In this respect, strategic planning enables management staff to incorporate perceptions and feedback from across an organisation, and devise new approaches to work. Thus, strategic planning is critical to the sustainability of organisations.

4.3 Organisational Learning

Participants highlighted that learning can occur through formal means, and there are many opportunities for sharing skills in less formal and internal ways. There was a general view that learning is the responsibility of individuals. Learning was identified as an influential factor in change management. Participants from the case organisations viewed that learning is critical in enabling staff to respond to changes in the environment, as a lack of support from employees can become a major issue. Learning is important from a retention perspective to reduce staff turnover.

There was consensus across the case organisations on the importance of developing innovative and encouraging ways to facilitate organisational learning, in order to motivate staff to engage in inter-departmental knowledge exchange with other staff. Participants suggested that training and information sharing sessions are a means of facilitating the transfer of these forms of knowledge. However, participants recognised that transferring learning across departments is a difficult task within an organisation.
4.3.1 Organisational and Individual Learning

Organisational learning is enhanced through promoting regular opportunities for knowledge transfer between organisational members. Participants from the case organisations viewed that learning facilitates a shared vision across an organisation. Discussions on organisational learning frequently centred on knowledge transfer across departments in both case organisations. Participants highlighted the importance of determining practical learning approaches, which emanated particularly in the views of G1, who highlighted that staff learn more effectively without an increase in workload, and as a result, gain value from learning and maximise potential for skills development:

Find practical ways that actually work for people... that don’t add a lot of extra time... don’t add a lot of extra resources. (G1)

The findings identified that staff meetings facilitate the development of a unified direction for channelling the efforts of organisational members towards a common goal. The views of G5 reiterated this:

When you have a common... direction, it’s easy to learn from each other. (G5)

The issue of differing behaviours across departments necessitates implementing a robust approach to inter-departmental knowledge transfer (Choi & Lee, 2002). G1 viewed that knowledge transfer within and across departments is a crucial source of learning. Similarly, many participants highlighted the importance of team-building (e.g. G1, G2). G1 reiterated this point, clearly identifying the necessity of collaboration and learning that encompasses the different viewpoints of organisational members. There was consensus that learning is facilitated through the organisational structure. G2 agreed with this view, raising the following point:
Have a good amount of organisational space for thinking and reflecting, it is part of governing structures. (G2)

Learning from multiple sources was viewed as important to organisations. The majority of participants highlighted the importance of learning from people within and outside an organisation. There was consensus that learning from external sources provides valuable knowledge formative to achieving organisational objectives. Engaging staff in activities outside an organisation assists in their work, and such activities enable further opportunities for learning and networking, and ultimately have a positive effect on an organisation. Senior management in particular highlighted the importance of individual learning and its role in business performance and sustainability. G1 stated:

Try and constantly say to people in different areas of the organisation, we need to learn from each other, we need to learn from people outside... use that information to improve what we do... the importance of actually achieving what we want to do. (G1)

Further, there was general agreement amongst the case organisations on the importance of new staff inciting a learning culture and developing best practices. G5 described the interaction between existing and new staff that leads to the creation of a learning culture:

A lot of new ideas... from the new people to the old people... that’s one way of promoting a culture of learning... we have been with the organisation for 10 years, 15 years... 5 years... this is the best way of doing things. When outsider comes it brings new knowledge, then it takes time to synchronise... it’s fairly interesting, but... you can see some strange behaviour. (G5)

Diversity of staff was highlighted as a critical attribute of a learning organisation. Similarly, the literature points to the importance of exchanging knowledge across departments, as the multitude of talents within an organisation enhance the learning
process, and facilitate cross-learning and collaboration (George P. Huber, 2009; Ma, 2009; Tarnoff, 2009). Participants identified that a diverse range of skills and experience are required to facilitate a culture of learning within an organisation. Further, participants viewed that encouraging creativity and acknowledging different perspectives contributes to a learning culture. G1 added that a learning organisation actively pursues a learning culture:

You actually have to have... the tools... that allow you to learn from what you are doing, and that allow you to, learn the lessons in a relatively painless way, in a fairly quick way... and a cost effective way. (G1)

G1 continued, describing the role of management in linking organisational members:

The Strategic Management Group and the Management Group play very important functions in bridging what is happening... across the organisation, we’re very interested in how we can strengthen that. (G1)

Within Organisation G, management provide professional development support to staff to enhance their learning with opportunities for postgraduate education. G2 highlighted that organisational learning through the implementation of policies results in enhanced staff support to undertake postgraduate studies:

What criteria do we use for providing postgraduate support, how do we link that back to the organisation’s future needs to make sure that the content of the study is relevant... linkage between the recipient... we’re not providing scholarships to random people there, we’re investing in the future workforce. It’ll be a fairly simple policy mechanism... we need to articulate it, and think through that. (G2)

Participants perceived a lack of systematic decision-making in the selection of candidates for undertaking postgraduate studies. G2 stated:
There’s been something, but it’s hit its limit... they want a systematic decision to say, who will we support, strategically where will we get the most leverage, it was more here’s an opportunity, let’s say yes to it. There would be other staff who would equally be viable candidates for either PhD support or Masters support... and the equity issue... is one that we haven’t grappled with. (G2)

H8 expressed that staff have a tendency to learn from role models within the organisation, and emulate the positive behaviours of organisational members in their own work. H8 concurred with this view, explaining that individuals who seek to enhance their work effectiveness adopt good behaviours:

Influenced by the good practices of someone else. (H8)

Further, G5 identified that learning is implicit for staff members when they first enter an organisation, and perceived tension during the first few days when a new staff member is employed. However, it was acknowledged that new staff members bring new knowledge through their awareness of the operating environment. G5 explained that new staff provide an outsiders perspective, which enables an organisation to effectively learn and adapt:

From the newcomer... people who have been here for quite some time, they’ll learn what is happening in the outside world, outside their work... in the organisation, similar objectives... that is happening quite implicitly, so new people will tell the people that, hey, don’t think that the ways you are doing the things now may not be always right, and there are different ways of doing things... I think organisational learning is there... I think... which... is good and quite exciting. (G5)

The study identified an imperative link between learning and the learning requirements of an organisation. Further, management play a critical role in the translation of individual learning into organisational learning (Kitson, 2009). Aksu & Ozdemir (2005) propose that the needs of an organisation correlate with the needs of individuals. Thus,
the findings of the study correspond with the literature, validating the link between individual and organisational learning.

4.3.2 Training and Development

There was wide consensus amongst the case organisations that training has the potential to address a wide range of issues. G6 highlighted that great emphasis is placed on providing adequate training and learning opportunities for staff. G1 outlined that a range of training is utilised within organisations to enable organisational members to interact with their colleagues effectively. Further, training was found to enhance individual understanding, and as a result, enable staff to undertake tasks efficiently. G1 stated:

Key things that we believe the organisation as a whole has... weaknesses in that we want to try and address... the HR division is responsible for developing... our group organisational learning and training program... making our staff much more aware... cross cultures that our organisation works with... it can be from very broad things that... sit in the background to help inform how a person understands what they’re doing, to a concrete task. (G1)

Across the case organisations, training entails a process of consultation to determine the skills requirements of new and existing staff. G5 highlighted that consultation is critical in determining the training needs of an organisation, and the subsequent development of training plans:

There’s a formal structure... before the budgeting system every year, every department... does a kind of structured interview... guided discussion with a team that what kind of... training you need next year... not only budgeting, we also call it annual planning... then they will start... identifying the needs for training... then that training from the department will be... incorporated. It will be costed, and given to other all the other sections or departments, and they will prepare a Master Training Plan. This has both... profits of the department, as well as, we’re also talking about on the job training. (G5)
Training needs are identified through the performance review process, or arise due to external changes. G2 highlighted that training is undertaken on a case-by-case basis, rather than systematically:

It’s not systematic... and it is very much based on what the needs are of the particular individual in the role. (G2)

G2 continued that training would become more systematic in the future:

We will probably end up at a point which will be more systematic than that... if you think of a competency framework, what are the competencies needed now and into the future. (G2)

H3 added that staff recognise certain training needs by assessing their knowledge gaps. Further, analysing the capabilities of staff is an important element in fulfilling staff training needs:

Looking at... workforce capabilities, so what we’re basically doing is looking at... what are the skills we need for the job, what are the skills of the current people... have we got succession planning... prepare them for it... there’s staff and management level meetings and current awareness and statistics and things like that... that can help us with all that... have... training plans that... staff can say... what sort of professional development they would like... from that... we’ll have feedback so... that feeds back into... our awareness and... Creates learning for everybody. (H3)

G5 described that training plans are a regular focus of meeting agendas, and are regularly reviewed to accommodate changes in the operating environment:

Management group, which consists of the managers of different... divisions... they meet every month, and one of the questions they have in that meeting is, have we done, against that... training plan... is there any need of changing that plan, so there’s a structure we discuss around... what kind of organisations that are available in the market to provide us training we have identified. (G5)
Within Organisation G, participants acknowledged the importance of learning at an international scale to approach individuals as one cohort, rather than providing training individually. G2 stated:

Efficient to have at least a unified framework underneath it... a lot of the content can be generic... program management, or your team leadership, enough of the concepts in those spaces are generic, but it doesn’t matter who’s doing the training. (G2)

The case organisations conceded that many factors influence training. G6 described that identifying training needs involves identifying priority training areas in order to fulfil critical knowledge gaps:

There are a lot of things that in fact influence... what sort of training happens... collated the information about the organisational training... go to the managers and we discuss which are our priorities... where our greatest needs are... it’s a collective decision that’s made amongst the managers. (G6)

Concurrently, the qualifications of new staff entering an organisation are influential in the professional development process. H3 stated:

We certainly provide learning... environment for... contract and ongoing staff... if you train them up they’ll go and work somewhere else... that’s the risk you also take with a contract and ongoing staff member... if you had a panacea to be able to... change anything and everything, would be that the staff member that... walked through the door... to work for you had the required qualifications, or you had the wear with all to give them those qualifications, to... be able to undertake whatever it is. (H3)

H3 highlighted that training is affected by staff retention. Correspondingly, G5 highlighted that staff retention is essentially the aim of training. The study identified that extensive resources are expended to induct staff and keep their knowledge current.
Thus, there was a focus on enhancing long-term employment opportunities for staff. G5 highlighted there is an aim to retain staff through continual training:

Our main focus is on getting the right people, train them, and retrain them, we don’t want to see any staff turnover. (G5)

G5 identified that management group meetings facilitate commitment to training plans. Similarly, H3 expressed the importance of work plans:

The programs we are delivering... learning within our centre, so we have individual... professional development plans, and then that forms the basis of a departmental-wide learning plan... put together a centre-wide learning plan, which ties into our... strategic plan. (H3)

H3 added that learning needs are varied across an organisation, and require tailoring to the responsibilities and needs of staff:

Everyone has a different role of course... have different needs. (H3)

G6 highlighted that partnering with external training providers has enabled the fulfilment of staff training needs. Similarly, inter-organisational partnerships are highlighted as a focus area, due to the enhanced learning resulting from collaboration and consulting an outside perspective. G5 explained:

One of the areas which is quite challenging is... what will be this area is partnership, we can’t do everything on our own... so we are pressing on partnerships now with other organisations. (G5)

G1 recognised the importance of understanding diversity of staff skills, expressing that the skills of staff within an organisation are complementary:
Cannot expect one person to have all of the strengths that you need... can’t try and change people's basic DNA, and so, if you decide you want their strengths, then you look simultaneously at where are they weak, and how can you reinforce the organisation. (G1)

Concurrently, G2 highlighted the importance of ensuring an organisation has the right workforce:

The capacity of in-country teams to meet our... strategic objectives is that we push through an agenda that... are fairly ambitious growth and expansion... how do we make sure that we have the right workforce... straightforward strategic workforce planning. (G2)

In this respect, external forces influence learning within organisations. G6 highlighted that meeting individual needs and staff retention are challenging, though nonetheless key considerations:

What are we going to do to attract people into the organisation, and to meet their needs... how are we going to meet those people’s needs, and how are we going to keep them, because what we don’t want to invest a whole bucket load of money in people, only to have those skills walk away... so this whole notion... of attracting and retaining staff... will be an ongoing challenge. (G6)

Correspondingly, there was a perception that management are responsible for ensuring job satisfaction of their staff. H1 particularly emphasised on this point:

Personally as a leader, I believe that’s my job... to ensure that people are happy in what they do... and sometimes that means diversifying. (H1)

Within Organisation H, the majority of professional development is initiated by an organisation through strategic planning. H2 stated:

There’s the professional development... requested by the institute, which is really about... development of the institute... changes that are taking place in the
institute... a fair amount of professional development... originates originally in the strategic plan of the institute... cultural change in the organisation. (H2)

However, accessibility was identified as having significance influence on learning, particularly when traditional training formats are used. This issue arose within Organisation G, and was attributed to a lack of staff availability to attend training. G3 continued, identifying e-learning as an alternate solution for induction, orientation, and other training.

4.3.2.1 Induction Programs

Induction programs are identified as a structured and tailored process within Organisation H. Correspondingly, with Organisation G, induction involves an initial first day induction program, which provides basic training to staff irrespective of their department. Organisation-wide inductions are conducted on a quarterly basis. Employees also undertake department-specific training with their respective managers on a one-on-one basis. H6 stated:

Inducted into the various... organisational units of the institute which they will have involvement with. So we do presentations either from, the Chief Executive or one of the other Directorate members, they then hear from... Finance Department... Computer Services Department, HR Department... the next level is that at each departmental level for fixed-term staff, ongoing staff and casual staff... all new staff are required to complete this with their manager. (H6)

Implementing a suitable format for induction programs was identified as pivotal in establishing healthy knowledge foundations for organisational members. Participants viewed inductions as a familiarisation in the initial days a new staff member is employed. G6 in particular shared this view:
Ensuring that people are familiar with the policies and procedures of the organisation, how we work, who the other divisions are within the organisation... who the other people are... the structure of the organisation, what its mission, vision, values are, what its... strategic framework is, people contribution to that. (G6)

G3 viewed that the nature of induction programs necessitates conducting induction programs in a face-to-face format. However, participants highlighted that induction programs are influenced by the work schedules of staff. G1 added that the timing of induction programs is influenced significantly by variances in work schedules across different roles:

People’s other schedules get in the way... sometimes we’ve even had a situation where... one person that ends up being six months before they have that. (G1)

However, Organisation G faces difficulty in prioritising the publishing of induction packages on the Intranet. G3 stated:

Never really got around to having the time to put it into a format that we could put on the Intranet... one of the issues we might have is that we don’t have a very big bandwidth at the moment... it’s a cost involved... that seems to be just not capable of doing that very well. (G3)

The case organisations exhibited structured induction and orientation processes. However, participants expressed a perceived inadequacy in induction programs (e.g. G1, G3). This was particularly evident in Organisation G, where limited resources have largely hindered creativity within the deliverance of induction program. G3 stated:

There’s discussion that we want to make e-learning... tools or tutorials, and that some of the induction things would be available that way... haven’t really been resources to create that kind of... item, videos or self-learning tools... human resources section, which are responsible for writing induction packages, we call them, but again, sometimes if you don’t know you need them, you don’t know to
go there... we'll introduce it to people and then say that these things will be on [Intranet]... so you can resource them later on as well. (G3)

Within both case organisations (e.g. H8, G1), there was an emphasis on providing the right amount of information to staff. H8 identified that this is particularly critical in induction programs, where new staff require a subtle induction to an organisation to avoid confusion. G1 reiterated the importance of a subtle approach to induction programs, highlighting the need for organisations to employ a simplified approach to first-day inductions.

4.3.2.2 Professional Development

Professional development opportunities are identified to involve learning and networking through presenting papers at conferences, attending workshops, and undertaking PhDs. H2 highlighted that these forms of professional development are required to enable the actions of staff to remain relevant to the focus of work. Within Organisation H, employees are required to select certain professional development activities, aside from professional development activities set by the organisation. Professional development was found to range from a basic understanding of organisational culture, to more specific issues encountered at work. Invariably, the different forms of training utilised in the professional development of organisational members sought to enhance performance at both the individual and organisational level.

H1 stated:

Training that allows staff to explore... that are difficult for them... emotional intelligence, around dealing with difficult staff, around managing up, learning to be, to succession planning, general leadership skills, that affect everybody. (H1)
Correspondingly, G5 highlighted that cross-departmental training, and training by external providers, are viewed as effective and continuous forms of learning:

Our own department can also train other departments, then... we can also hold internal... trainings that way... cross... divisional... training as well.... the learning process is then... looking outside the organisation for trainers to provide training to us... that’s a continuous process. (G5)

G2 highlighted there is a need for a basic skills development program within organisations:

How do you teach someone to complete this type of program report, or to do that sort of process... see that as being fairly routine linear stuff... training people that don’t have a skill, something that other people in the organisation have a skill to do. (G2)

Within Organisation H, participants recognised that a structured professional development approval system is used, which requires staff to seek permission prior to undertaking professional development activities endorsed by the organisation. Further, the reporting of professional development was identified as critical to the process of learning and evaluation. H1 identified that professional development approval systems enable documentation of the professional development undertaken by staff across an organisation, and the collection of statistics on the forms of training undertaken:

If a program is being run within the department, they are having their own professional development days, conferences... that we don’t necessarily organise, that’s still captured in the data, so ultimately we can report to Senior Management on what’s happening in a centre, we can break that down into what management training is happening, what basic training is happening, what targeted industry training is happening, so we can subset that down. (H1)
Within the same organisation, professional development days are held at a departmental level. H2 explained that these forms of training provide staff with department-specific training, and enable staff to develop skills within their specific work area:

In some departments... one day... every term, and... in some it’s one day every semester... a session where... all the teaching staff in the department will... take time off their teaching and engage in... a workshop... where they want to... improve their practice, also where the organisation is going in terms of its development... and the change that... we would want to see. (H2)

Similarly, G3 highlighted that workshops are an effective method of providing specific and targeted training, highlighting the need to implement flexible training solutions:

Not just an email out to say check this when you’ve got time, ‘cause no one’s ever got time. Though unless you actually do it with them there and then, run the basics... it’s hard to get some people to take those things on board. (G3)

Within Organisation G, individual and group training is sourced externally. Further, G2 highlighted that staff development retreats are one method employed for group training, whereas individual training needs are fulfilled on an individual basis:

The group training program... run several activities in the course of the year... run a staff development retreat for a couple of days.... and then the individual program... will identify individual needs... prioritise them, source training providers. (G2)

The case organisations expressed an increasing focus on learning, and its effect on individuals. This was particularly evident in H3’s response:

Look at scholarly activity, so staff... presenting papers at conferences, undertaking higher qualifications... being on a... advisory board with some other industry body... implementing organisational learning it’s a high priority... a number of staff that are undertaking their Masters or their PhD. (H3)
H2 added that within the same organisation, there is a clear intention for staff to engage in continuing professional development, which is aligned with the continuous improvement strategies of an organisation:

A continuing reflection of... their teaching practice, and that’s what we want to see... in these... performance reviews... most staff... are very willing... to do this, and they see it... as a part of their... role as a professional. (H2)

Learning is supported through internal and external learning opportunities. H6 highlighted that numerous learning opportunities are provided for staff to continue learning:

We offer a range of internal programs, but we also encourage people to look outside of the organisation to identify suitable initiatives that both support them in their current role, but hopefully open up opportunities for future roles, so the Chief Executive for the organisation is a very strong supporter. Of the need for people to continue lifelong learning, primarily focussed around workplace... we’re moving more and more into encouraging, particularly the academic staff, to present papers in interstate and internationally, and attend symposium and workshops interstate and overseas. (H6)

Organisation H holds workshop retreats bi-annually. Participants highlighted that these external learning opportunities facilitate positive work behaviour and work-life balance. These programs are highly regarded amongst staff. H7 stated:

The objectives for the residential was to give plenty of time to include all of those extra-curricular activities... that was much more relaxed, and it was a great environment to do it. (H7)

The findings highlighted that professional development enhances the ability of individuals to operate within an organisation, and effectively engage in work through enhancing individual understanding of the nature and purpose of work. Participants also pointed to the role of professional development in promoting understanding of the
underlying functions and structures of an organisation, which assists in minimising role ambiguity and performance gaps (Kovoor-Misra, 2009).

4.3.2.3 Succession Planning

G6 highlighted that leadership development training has the potential to influence an organisation. Within the same organisation, focus has increased on leadership development, and management are planning to link that into performance reviews and succession planning. This finding confirms the research of Weinberg and Lankau (2011) that organisations are increasingly employing mentoring as a learning technique for career advancement. G6 added that the use of mentoring and coaching will become an intricate part of training and leadership development within the organisation, and influence the approach to learning:

If we clearly articulate, what it is that we’re looking for in our leaders, skill people up... introduce support strategies or learning strategies that... your mentoring, your coaching... and create those opportunities... the strategy will in fact change... the organisation’s approach to learning once you introduce new initiatives. (G6)

Within Organisation H, a Business Enhancement Program was implemented internally to promote leadership development. Within this program, employees with the potential to develop the organisation are chosen to undertake leadership development training for a period of 12 months. H6 explained:

Encouraged small teams... to identify projects that they think could be introduced into the institute, and then, they did preliminary work during their program, but when that program finished... the projects that were assessed as having real merit were then given financial support through the Chief Executive’s office to get out into the institution, and hopefully introduce whatever the particular project was... which we believed we could develop with intensive training, who would then become future leaders and Project Managers within the institute. (H6)
Career development and succession planning are key focus areas within the case organisations studied (e.g. H3, G6). H3 highlighted the importance of succession planning for enhancing the skills base of staff. Correspondingly, G6 stated:

I see it all as being intellect, and... we have... learning cascading across the entire organisation, and that we have some very strong leaders being developed within the organisation, that have the ability to in fact influence, the... arena. (G6)

The findings highlight that professional development, and to a greater extent, leadership development, are key to enhancing the readiness of future leaders in providing direction and exhibiting sound decision-making. Further, professional development enhances internal knowledge and expertise, and takes advantage of insider perspectives held by existing staff, through preparation of existing staff to undertake higher levels of responsibility. Thus, the findings urge focus on succession planning for both skills development to enhance individual capabilities, and instilling leadership qualities.

4.3.3 Organisational Learning and Policy

Participants from Organisation G highlighted that changes in policy influence organisational learning. G6 added that organisations have a responsibility to ensure that their staff are adequately trained when changes occur, whether they originate internally or externally:

It impacts to the extent... if there is something important happening within the organisation... say we’ve had a shift in policy for whatever reason, and if there is a need to skill people up, then... make sure people have the responsibility and the skills required... to change if necessary... some of those needs are... identified through performance reviews, others are identified because of... change that is happening within the organisation, sometimes it might be... changes outside the organisation, like legislative changes. (G6)
Within the same organisation, gaps in policy are identified to hinder to learning, and contribute to a lack of a systematic approach to learning. G4 stated:

The fact that we... haven’t had... a really systematic performance appraisal process rolled out everywhere, haven’t had... any policies to support what training is covered, what training is prioritised, we haven’t had any study leave training policy, we haven’t had any policy around what study support will guide us. (G4)

Participants from Organisation H identified that there are many external changes impacting the organisation. H2 emphasised that in the current operating environment, organisations require greater accountability:

Difficult for managers and even systems administrators to keep on top of them... complain all the time about these sort of changes... it’s because there’s much more accountability in the system these days than there was in the past. (H2)

There was concern amongst participants in Organisation G that policy reviews, despite expressing an intention to revise existing work practices, lacked discipline in following through to implementation. G3 stated:

People might have ideas, they’re not necessarily always incorporated into a better policy the next time round, which is obviously time consuming, but that’s the difficulty... want to have a policy... share it to everybody... that will be reviewed in 12 months, to see what can be improved, but, often people don’t actually get the time to review them in its natural timeframe. (G3)

Concurrently, participants from Organisations H viewed that the management system is the main driver of policies and processes. Further, it was identified that the audit and review process facilitates the development of best practices. H3 concurred with this view:
Training to be able to go out and audit the processes, and so whilst they undertake the training about the process, they are actually learning about the policies as well... once they are involved in that... audit process... if you send them out somewhere, it will identify best practice in another area... it’s that sharing of information around the organisation. (H3)

Learning was described as a cyclical process across the case organisations. H5 identified that the application of learning is an important element in the learning process, and effectively enables an organisation to adapt to a changing environment:

It’s an ongoing thing, that we’re... always updating... and revisiting and looking at what we do, and that’s really important to us. The policies and procedures are regularly updated to meet the current needs. Utilise what you’ve learnt... to update. (H5)

There was general agreement amongst participants in Organisation G that obtaining accreditations supports learning within an organisation in terms of implementing industry-standardised policies on learning, further credibility, and improved organisational performance. G4 identified that certain policies have a direct influence on learning:

Policies that influence are the various processes that we have around evaluation and evaluation review cycles. That obviously feeds directly back into learning about our practice. (G4)

Similarly, participants from Organisation H highlighted that learning policies emerge from across an organisation. H6 continued that undertaking policy revision entails multi-level endorsement up to the senior management level prior to implementing new policies:

A policy that has been established over many years... developed over many iterations since then, and invariably these sorts of policies are endorsed all the way through to a Management Systems Committee... an operational line
manager might prepare the actual policy documents or variation to the
document, but it would not become endorsed as institute policy until such
time as the Chief Executive has ultimately sign off on it. (H6)

Participants across the case organisations recognised that the learning process ultimately
benefits an organisation, through enhancing the knowledge of individuals and
improving organisational processes. H8 perceived that learning within an organisation
inevitably translates to an updated set of policies and procedures:

Policy does support organisational learning, and often you find... a better way to
do something, which you then feed... into the continuous improvement process.
It might take some time for it to become a formal written procedure. Sometimes
you have to refine and act more quickly. (H8)

Within Organisation G, structured training policies are found to greatly influence the
consistency and continuity of training, and the extent of learning undertaken by staff.
Similarly, participants clearly identified that a barrier to effective training is a lack of a
systematic processes for identifying training needs. G2 added that as a result,
organisations experience inadequate skills development, and the inability of staff to
perform their tasks confidently:

The barrier is mostly that’s been under-conceptualised, under-thought...strategic
workforce development... isolated training activities by request, and that’s not
sufficient given... some of the challenges that we’re facing... what skills, what
number of people, where are we now, what do we need to trek there... we don’t
have policies for strategic Human Resources Development... we also don’t have
great consistent practices... around helping people become skilled in their
current job... required to do things, and are struggling to do things. (G2)

Correspondingly, study leave policies are employed within the case organisations.
These policies allow staff to apply for time release while undertaking study relevant to
the organisation. G4 added that individual learning is encouraged through study leave.
H2 highlighted the importance of establishing policies for learning:
Take more into account what an organisation like this does... incorporate in... the scholarship plans the fact that this organisation... engages in... a number of scholarship activities... staff are doing things... that should be part of the... scholarship policy, but are not included in it at the moment... that then... leads to change in the scholarship policy, which is then hopefully approved by the... Executive Committee. (H2)

Participants from Organisation H highlighted that the majority of organisational learning involves staff initially pursuing postgraduate qualifications. H2 added that a policy was recently implemented to support staff in undertaking higher education, underlining the importance of implementing policies to fulfil the learning needs of staff:

So they put in a professional development form... identify... how much it’s going to cost, and then the institute makes a decision to support them... staff member first of all pays... upfront, and then once they have... passed the unit or units in the course, they make a claim on that fund. (H2)

The study identified a reciprocal relationship between organisational learning and policy. The policies of an organisation are a potential barrier to organisational learning, and to a create a culture of learning, policies can support the creation of such a culture, and will encourage staff to get involved with the process, without creating an obligation for staff to be involved in learning.

4.3.4 Organisational Learning Interventions

Participants highlighted various forms of interventions that organisations employ to advance learning. Several participants highlighted the importance of Annual General Meetings (AGMs) in enabling staff to network with various stakeholders, and engage in cross-divisional interactions in a more formal way by sharing experiences. These networking opportunities are perceived to facilitate successful collaboration amongst staff. Participants highlighted that occasionally the information presented at regional
management meetings and departmental annual conferences will proceed to executive decision-making. Another intervention identified was regional management meetings. Participants from Organisation G considered these meetings as important sources of organisational learning. G1 stated:

Once every two years, we bring together, all of our main people from our International Program offices... which is all dedicated towards joint learning and sharing. (G1)

These forms of meetings involve staff primarily presenting updates, promoting dialogue on issues emerging within the organisation, and developing discussions around addressing those issues. The case organisations also identified value in regularly sending staff to deliver conference papers internationally, as while staff shared knowledge, learning was also gained from people outside the organisation. H7 explained:

When we send someone to deliver a study, it’s two-fold, you’re both delivering and you’re learning. (H7)

There was wide consensus amongst the case organisations that external seminars, conferences, and hiring speakers from outside the organisation are useful in broadening the knowledge of staff and providing an outside perspective. H4 described:

Sent off to conferences where they’ve talked about the broader context of... what’s happening in the world... and... sometimes... too much information to take in all at once, but it’s immensely useful... we’ve had speakers in like that... it makes people think about... the context of the world and how we need to change... to accommodate it. (H4)
H7 viewed that the reporting of learning from conferences is important, as the learning gained is applied across an organisation. H7 recognised that the reporting of conferences varies according to the level of relevance across an organisation:

Varies on the conference, it varies on how broad the area is... sometimes it’s less formal than others, and sometimes it might just be notes that are sent around. (H7)

Organisational learning interventions also took the form of departmental annual conferences. Participants from the case organisations highlighted that these conferences require compulsory staff attendance, and canvass various issues that influence how business is conducted, and provide workshops to support staff in dealing with those changes. One of the organisations mentioned hiring consultants in resilience training and change management for two-day conferences, focussing specifically on organisational issues and meeting those challenges. Organisational learning interventions are perceived as valuable learning opportunities.

4.3.5 Organisational Learning and Change

The findings identified that the relationship between learning and change differs according to the nature and focus of change. The study identified that the approach to change and learning differs when there is a strong need for change. There was consensus amongst the participants that change influences learning, and that changes in work practice involve a process of training. H3 shared the views of most participants that organisational members require training in order to adapt to change:

We get change, we train the staff... we then implement a new culture... there’s some change, and it may be imposed upon us, and as part of that change we then need to train the staff... have staff awareness... that then will influence... the way the organisation operates, and I suppose that has influences to the extent of... are
we meeting the required guidelines... at some stage someone has to evaluate whether the change was successful or not. (H3)

In this respect, the learning process potentially leads to changes in policies and procedures. H2 stated:

Staff will make... suggestions about... how we could improve, for example, the scholarship... policy and... procedures... those would be taken into account by the... Executive Committee. (H2)

The response of G2 reiterated the importance of considering variable aspects of change, highlighting that change within an organisation entails instigating a new mindset across and organisation:

Our agenda is transformative, what are the things that we need to do... then there’s some completely new behaviours, and some completely new thinking. That needs to be enacted in the organisation. (G2)

In line with the above statement, G6 highlighted the role of change in learning:

Equally, the organisational change... will influence more the content... about what is learnt. (G6)

G1 highlighted that dialogue within an organisation should lead to action:

Obviously talking about something is not enough, and if there is a big gap between your talk, and what you actually do, then it becomes more harmful, the talk becomes more harmful. (G1)

Correspondingly, G2 identified that internally-focussed change is often hampered through an extensive focus on dialogue with minimal action. G2 incited that in such
cases, organisational members are inclined towards prioritising tasks over learning from the process of completing tasks, overtaking the importance of learning:

   Tends to be done without regard for learning... so it’s... short term pragmatic, task-focused outcome, rather than... thoughtful practice and by prior experiences. Particularly when they’re internal changes rather than program change, will be short, sharp and blunt. (G2)

There was wide consensus amongst the case organisations that additional learning requires keeping up-to-date with new standards and expectations. This was particularly evident in discussions with H2 and G5. Further, G5 perceived that the provision of sufficient learning is a fundamental role of managers. In addition, participants across the case organisations generally viewed that employees need to be informed of changes within an organisation through formal training. H8 explained that:

   Introducing a change to a policy, or a change to a procedure, promoting or putting together workshops to explain those sorts of changes to staff. (H8)

There was wide consensus amongst the case organisations that technology influences learning. G2 expressed that whilst there was some focus on technology, undoubtedly changes in this regard still require an organisation to adapt:

   There are some issues out in... technology... which will change the content and design... of our sectional HRD, which will in turn change what our internal staff... that’s at the margins, that’s not a core focus, it changes and we adapt. (G2)

Participants across the case organisations value the presence of a consultation group during change initiatives. G3 provided an example where a group was formed during a major change involving a change of premises, in order to gain the acceptance of organisational members:
Get some feedback on that... took some of that on board... and it was certainly helping people to establish a sense that there was consultation, and it wasn’t just a straight top down, although the ideas that we had to move was a top down decision, but then all the same well alright, we’ll try and... Have people come on board with us. (G3)

There was a general view within Organisation G that the focus of learning is mainly external. Further, G2 mentioned that whilst organisational members perceived the existence of a learning culture, this remained external to the organisation, and failed to manifest within the organisation at the level of the individual:

The learning culture is very strongly felt and strongly practiced, but as soon as you... step away from programs and say, what about us, for ourselves, no we don’t have a learning culture, slightly schizophrenic. (G2)

G5 highlighted that the initial tension experienced by new staff is dissolved more rapidly through greater receptivity to change within an organisation:

Here people welcome change, that’s why the people... who are new members of the organisation are accepted... quite well, so that tension almost disappears after four to... six weeks. (G5)

G5 added that the main concern was that change generates resistance amongst staff that are more averse to change:

People are used to... working... in a way and organisational change means you have to do... things in a different way, not everybody likes that. (G5)

The findings clearly identified that organisations need to be receptive to change in their environment in order to survive. This becomes a challenge as the external environment frequently changes. Learning is vital in guiding the practices of organisations, and
developing sustainable intervention frameworks. Learning has become a source of global competitive advantage (Argote, 2009).

4.4 Organisational Strategies

4.4.1 Organisational Culture

G2 highlighted that the founding culture of an organisation has a residual effect on organisational culture. G3 viewed that growth affects learning, and increases the difficulty of learning. The study also identified that geographic dispersion is influential in learning, highlighting that head office staff having skewed perspectives on staff in other office location. G3 stated:

Can’t understand what problems they are facing... unless you actually get to go and see what they’re really doing... it’s often hard to keep that in mind, so people do try and do that... a number of managers and people have been able to travel around, so they can keep that in mind. (G3)

G3 added that staff lack understanding on the varying cultures of offices in other regions:

They often don’t understand how culturally different it actually can be... the head office might not... see as much... so they’re working... or the difference between trying to interpret between the two sides can always be a great deal of difficulty. (G3)

Similarly, G2 highlighted that resistance from the organisational culture is a further hindrance to sustaining a learning culture:
There are also cultural barriers around how learning happens... on some of the more sophisticated things that we’d want to train on, whether it be communicational leadership, or advocacy, or partnership, now you can bump up against a few cultural dynamics. (G2)

H1 viewed that the most fundamental barrier to organisational change is breaking down the culture inside an organisation. Further, H1 perceived that the history of an organisation often forms a barrier to change:

History often forms a barrier, so historical context... the more people that have been around a long time, the more resistance there is, and the more barriers there are... the more people that have a vested interest in what was existing... there to protect it... wisdom, and... experience in an organisation is critical, otherwise you just fall over, because... you have to have that balance. (H1)

In line with the above statement, G5 highlighted the importance of internal barriers:

The internal barriers are more important... it reflects the nature of the people. (G5)

Further, G3 highlighted the issue of resistance from organisational members, and the importance of managing resistance:

How can we work with that particular person or group of people to make those changes into a new format, or a new way. (G3)

G3 added there are varying levels of resistance within an organisation that affect the receptivity of an organisation to change:

The attitude, the culture of how easily do we change... as an organisation and as people... and it can be varied, obviously, within the organisation... it’s more accepting and being open... to innovation, and change. (G3)
Congruently, G5 identified that some staff are unwilling to learn. Nonetheless, learning is enhanced when a combination of new and existing staff are able to collaborate:

Some of the people who have been here for long... think... there is nothing to learn... practical barrier... there is tension initially, but... in 99 per cent of cases... when there’s a good balance... the team works very well... the main barrier would be... we don’t know everything, we know only the organisation, we have seen how the organisation is driven, and we have been able to manage the growth. (G5)

In respect to the willingness of staff to learn, and subsequently adapt to change, participants identified that receptivity to learning and change are influenced by the age of individuals. H2 highlighted that older staff are generally more averse to change than their younger counterparts:

The internal barriers... very often have to do with... locked into a view of... practice as it existed in the past... when we... implemented scholarship policy and professional development policy... a lot of older staff... have not been used to this. So, whereas younger staff is not a problem, they are used to it... you encounter cultural barriers... see this as a change... and some of them might see it as a... burden, and as some of them don’t want to change the way they deliver, some of them have been doing the same thing forever... and they’re reluctant to change. (H2)

Similarly, there was consensus across the case organisations that the duration of employment within an organisation influences the level of resistance from staff:

It’s taken a lot of the people, particular those that have been here a while... to cope with the fact that we’re not that little organisation any more... you actually have to make some sort of effort to share that information. (G3)

H1 acknowledged that organisations are subjected to hidden agendas:

In some areas knowledge... is very transparent... very easy to.... analyse... in other areas it’s absolutely like mud... and most people would know exactly why,
so there’s lots of hidden agendas, and in any... large organisation... there are multitude hidden agendas. (H1)

Participants generally expressed concern that minimal time is spent on evaluation. H8 highlighted that in task-focussed environments, staff often finish projects and move directly to another project without conducting evaluation. H8 added that evaluation is often difficult to undertake, as staff are often engaged in new and existing projects:

Not spending enough time sometimes just reflecting and reviewing... what did we learn from this, and how would we do it differently next time... in our rush to implement...we’re not fully closing that... loop at the finish. (H8)

Participants highlighted that culture is elemental in organisational change. The study identified that organisational members need to understand the culture of an organisation, upon which time an organisation can proceed to instigating change for alignment with organisational objectives (Nistor, et al., 2009). G1 clearly identified the importance of consistency between dialogue and action:

Trying to walk the talk... then the talk itself is important in an organisation because it sets the value, it’s the atmosphere, it sets the ether... of an organisation... because you can’t always get the perfect match. (G1)

In this respect, H7 highlighted that staff play an influential role in promoting a learning culture:

We promote... a culture of learning around content in an ongoing way that comes from staff themselves. (H7)

G6 highlighted that staff have a particular interest in undertaking postgraduate studies, and identified the need for organisations to support the learning aspirations of staff:
There’s a very strong appetite for learning, at the... postgraduate level in particular... one of the things we need to do is... look at developing some sort of systems or frameworks around... training and development... look seriously at how we are going to support people who are interested in... further studies. (G6)

G5 viewed that employees remain connected to an organisation through significant emphasis on organisational learning:

Learning which keeps the stakeholders or employees connected to the organisation, and that reduces the staff turnover too at the same time... we need to accept, overall... that is the culture... highly important people think learning is. (G5)

Similarly, G2 strongly indicated the need for a means of linking different cohorts across the organisation, particularly at an international scale. G2 stated:

Create communities of practice... there would be a very valuable role for someone... to host those communities of practice and steward them. (G2)

Further, H4 added that focusing on communities of practice facilitates organisational change:

That whole issue of communities of practice... could be a very powerful... agent for change... both... strategic change, but also just making things work better at the local level. (H4)

G2 highlighted that varied perspectives exist within an organisation that prevent a systematic approach to learning:

Given that we have an... HR Manager... thinking about... workforce planning in the international programs... the Deputy CEO thinking about OD... the International Programs Director thinking about program-based HRD, it’s quite fragmented, and all those people have very diverse perspectives on it, and there is no systematic attempt to... it’s stronger than no connection, occasionally they’re at odds with each other. (G2)
Further, H7 identified that breakdowns in communication are a major barrier to knowledge transfer:

Not getting information... feedback... evaluation, not listening... not getting input from people who are learning... non-communication. (H7)

The major difference between the case organisations is the availability of financial resources for learning initiatives. The net income of Organisation H is higher, and allows the organisation to allocate more financial resources to professional development activities. According to G2, staff commonly perceived finance as a barrier to learning, highlighting a perception that financial resources need to be concentrated in other areas:

There is perceived... scarcity of fund... there is certainly a sense of... if we’ve got dollars, we should spend them on programs, not on ourselves. (G2)

Further, G2 identified that a major external barrier to learning are geography and different time zones:

The facts of geography are influential, the fact that we have small groups, geographically dispersed in different time zones... often in very remote locations with poor technological links... so phone conferencing... there’s not always bandwidth for that... so geography, time zone, that kind of remote logistics. (G2)

The study identified that organisational culture influences the responsiveness of an organisation to change (Ravasi & Schultz, 2006). An organisational learning culture supports organisational development, particularly in the areas of communication, technology, and human resources. In this perspective, culture is a focal point in the success of organisational innovation initiatives (Detert, et al., 2000).
4.4.2 Human Resource Management

The organisations studied held the view that it is important staff engage in professional development, and that staff are encouraged to continue with education and keep up to date with their particular trade or area of interest. The study identified that the resources required by staff to undertake professional development activities are time release and relieving staff down the track of responsibilities. H6 highlighted the importance of having a very strong commitment to the development of staff:

Encourage them to undertake fulltime studies to fast-track them through to completing those requirements. (H6)

There was general consensus that while the organisations valued the development of sufficient human resources, Human Resource Development (HRD) remains externally focused, rather than internally focused on staff. G2 explained:

HRD is up there as one of the five things... we have a very fundamental focus on it... when it’s external... there’s not much prioritisation that get done, and so, people end with a lot of... long to do list, lots of good intentions, and general agreement... we should do something about that, but not necessarily translating that into action. (G2)

G2 continued that whilst resource planning is undertaken, translating planning into action remained difficult:

That’s our trait... we have an execution gap... focus the efforts on the internal stuff rather than the external program stuff... the tracking and planning of our human capital and human capacity is... a fundamental piece here. (G2)

H8 added that employees also engage in professional development through reading various industry and academic publications. These publications include subscriptions to
trade magazines, trade journals, campus reviews, and papers circulated at senior management meetings and heads of departments meetings. H8 described:

I think that also promotes... encourages people to learn about the industry they’re working in, and things that are impacting them. (H8)

H4 highlighted that staff may become acculturated to an organisation through job rotation:

Organisational learning by moving around other parts of the institute. So that actually is a very... important... part of things. (H4)

G2 identified a concern that minimal human resources restrain study leave options:

The candidates that we would be most likely to support... to go and do a Masters... would be the Country Manager, and we don’t have a great succession plan in most of our offices are too small, so if our Country Manager goes away for six months, what do you do? (G2)

Participants across the case organisations clearly identified that the focus of work within an organisation has a significant impact on learning approaches. Correspondingly, G2 highlighted that time is a major barrier to learning for staff:

It’s difficult for them to find time for training, because they’re so busy, with program activities... so it tends to be... bottom of the queue, rather than top of the queue... for their own skill development, some of the issues... arise from the nature... of their program activity, so they’re often travelling to remote areas... which means that they can’t attend a training course at a local university, because they... can’t meet the attendance requirements. (G2)

H1 described insights on learning from interacting with new staff:
Creates a culture of people wanting to work, and... wanting to do a good job... and they want to do a good job for themselves, not just because to please me in case I yell at them. (H1)

G4 viewed that workload is an issue for all organisations. However, within Organisation G, extra workload for staff is encouraged:

Encouraged in this organisation, in this type of staff, it means that, people, eventually can make it a priority... people certainly... feel that growing the business... an important thing and therefore... has the backing of management and their level means that people find the time for it... as they find the time for everything else that they do. (G4)

Although, a multitude of barriers exist in the effective management of human resources. G2 highlighted that time and financial resources are perceived barriers, rather than actual barriers. Similarly, G2 expressed concern about a lack of focus on developing objectives for learning:

These partnership reviews and regional meetings are, they don’t have, learning goals around those five target competencies, people go and they do whatever sharing... and they do whatever reflection they do afterwards, so... it’s not quite focussed enough to be optimised. (G2)

The study identified that staff need to understand the origin of their work, as a lack of understanding inhibits the ability of staff to undertake tasks effectively and intuitively, thus limiting individual creativity. H1 described:

Need to understand where their work is coming from, and what it is for... as documents come over their... desk, they actually can provide some quality overlay. (H1)

Interestingly, G4 highlighted that one of the most potent barriers to learning within organisations is internal focus:
This sector has... internal focus... it attracts a lot of people who are very passionate... and who really believe what they’re doing... and believe that, ‘cause they’re doing it for the right reasons, they might think that they’re doing it in the right way... and because we are such a compassionate sector, it is hard to challenge that sometimes.... I think that one of the challenges to organisational change and organisational learning is a feeling of... it’s not very responsive to that change. (G4)

In this respect, one area of concern was the focus of individual departments. H1 highlighted this point, providing an example of one department that overtly focuses on technology:

They only think of the systems, which is what they are employed to do, but we’re in a learning culture, and they don’t understand the learning imperatives. (H1)

G6 highlighted the importance of work-life balance, ensuring that employees have access to knowledge, being adequately motivated, and emphasising on training. Further, participants highlighted that while there is interest in learning, work constraints are a barrier:

There’s an appetite for organisational learning, one of the real barriers has been an inability for people to get away from their jobs, and to actually attend training, and, more often than not... it’s very legitimate, it’s travelling reasons or, something happens and they just literally can’t get away. (G6)

H7 acknowledged that politics within organisations create challenges for learning, which centres have problems with delivering training courses:

It comes from two areas... there is a little bit of politics here... recognise... that other centres do deliver and do organise their own... maybe the extent to which we do that... they don’t fully appreciate. (H7)
G4 highlighted there was consensus that the focus of work influences the ability to sustain a learning culture:

People aren’t being asked to step up and really try new ideas... playing with other people’s money, and you’re very accountable for that... even though, in an organisation like us, we want to keep innovative, and to try new things and want to... not be afraid of making mistakes because, sometimes that’s where the most benefit is. (G4)

Learning activities within an organisation are fully funded, whereas for staff undertaking Higher Education, an organisation may provide complete or partial funding. H3 emphasised that externally-sourced learning for individuals is considered on a case-by-case basis, and depends upon staff successfully completing a course of study. The study identified that learning is resourced directly through training budgets or program project budgets. G2 described:

Allocate money to evaluation cycles or... specific HRD initiatives... have a direct budget, we probably had an indirect budget insofar as... we allow people to do things that are, that have learning as part of their role... direct allocations within our program budget to do evaluation activities, and explicit, external HRD activities. (G2)

H1 highlighted that departments allocate individual funding to oversee the development of their staff:

Payment... doesn’t equate to the actual cost of the programs, but what it does do is create buy-in... it works if there’s buy-in, and people turn up... say your quite welcome to do this training, it’s available to you but we can’t pay for it... it allows for that sort of bit of flexibility... it means that it’s equitable... and from a management... practice here, it means that we’re not making those judgements that are being made. (H1)
G2 highlighted the need for an organisational development manager to oversee change initiatives. Similarly, G2 perceived that an organisation could benefit from creating a Head of Organisational Development role:

Put that role on the... senior management group, at the moment it’s marginalised because it’s a footnote there... the person who does that role needs to be... our existing people... framework for that, the focus should be across, it should integrate across... globally, it should cover Australia and international... someone who’s, you need to... frame that up... as a primary organisational responsibility. (G2)

In addition, H8 held a preference for a significantly larger bank of resources specifically for professional learning, and allocate time, which is generally viewed as an important resource. H8 also stated the need for a staff member dedicated to coordinating development activities:

Allocate... a person... to coordinate that organisational development function. (H8)

In addition, H6 highlighted that specific policies are implemented to manage the financial aspect of learning:

Formal policy in relation to reimbursement of fees, depending on what the individual negotiates with their manager the resources to meet the financial costs... can be met by the individual manager out of their budget for their department or centre... can seek additional funding from the directorate area of the institute for special high cost training... allocation of resources is... multi-level... depends on, whether its labour... fee reimbursement for participating in a particular program, or other costs such as travel and conference fees. (H6)

Participants also discussed the budgeting of training. Participants from Organisation G expressed that annual budgeting involves specific monetary allocations for training. G1 explained:
Annual budget, every worker in the organisation is allocated a sum of money, it’s the same sum of money, whether the person is the... newest arrival on the admin staff, or the CEO. It’s written into each organisation’s divisional budget, and the manager of that division is, supposed to really encourage their staff to take up their entitlement. (G1)

Similarly, within Organisation H, individual departments manage funds. H1 added this is necessary to addressing the needs of different industries:

The organisation also funds individual departments... so each centre has its own professional development funds... so as that people can up-to-date with their own industry needs... because we work in an environment where we’re dealing with... many different industry sectors, the professional development required for these industry sectors are often quite different, so each centre has... funds to be able to offer targeted training. (H1)

Participants from Organisation G highlighted that training is affected by the absence of a systematic approach to budgeting for learning initiatives. G2 expressed concern on a lack of planned expenditure on learning:

We haven’t provided guidelines... it’s typically spent based on the conversations that happen... through the performance management program... quite ad hoc in some places... we don’t have our Human Resources practices highly developed... can’t be a responsible spender of the funds without knowing kind of whether it’s working. (G2)

However, G1 also identified that there are variations in the use of individual training budget allocations by staff:

During the course of a year... what we were finding was that... some people did... use their allocation more and others didn’t. (G1)

G4 added that within the same organisation, staff who undertake postgraduate studies, and have not used their individual training budget allocation, are entitled to use the
remainder of their allocated budget towards payment of course costs for education deemed relevant to their work.

4.4.3 Information Technology

Participants clearly identified the importance of organisations utilising new technology and remaining innovative. The findings on technology and change support the literature, whereby organisations are challenged to effectively utilise existing resources in order to support the implementation of new technology (Taylor & Helfat, 2009). The study identified that the adoption of technology is facilitated through undertaking small scale tests and skills maintenance, across areas of both primary and secondary focus, in order to remain up-to-date with recent technology, and be involved in, and aware of, the latest technological developments. G4 considered these important in remaining proactive and responsive to change, and creating competitive advantage, in line with the majority of those interviewed across both organisations:

Got to keep innovative, even though it’s not our primary piece of work, to know that we’re at least involved and hooked into these things and aware of what’s happening so that if suddenly we do need to respond... we’re not going to start from so far back in the field... The organisation needs the new technology. (G4)

Communication was a recurring topic in discussions regarding learning and technology. There was wide consensus amongst the case organisations that working in regions where technology and infrastructure are not necessarily strong can create difficulties in communication. Further, disparities in the availability of technology between offices are a contributing factor to the extent and nature of communication that occurs between organisational members across regions. The views of G3 reiterated this point:
They’re travelling out to the outer-lying remote communities, where again there’ll be no mobile phone connections, no Internet... and they’re over rough roads and isolated roads... when people at times have emailed... why aren’t they responding. They’re too busy to realise that they’re out on the road. (G3)

Creating a link between technology and learning was viewed as critical for the effective use of technology. This correlated with a study that identified that individuals benefit from blended learning combining traditional learning with technology (G. Duncan, et al., 2009). G5 stated that:

Technology itself is certainly useful, but it must be part of blended learning. (G5)

Participants from Organisation H identified that face-to-face online communication facilitates communication with staff working internationally. Communication technologies enhance regular communication and collaboration, and alleviate issues that are frequently encountered when using other means of communication. H3 highlighted the benefits of utilising technology in communication, describing the application of technology in advancing communication efforts across geographically-disperse organisations:

I can actually speak to them face-to-face, and we’re finding that that’s probably a better way than trying to email someone... so we’re using technology very much as a process to try and circumvent some of our problems that we’re... experiencing, now not saying that they do away with all problems, but certainly it helps... be able to access me on a regular basis, otherwise it is just trying to define mobile phone or email contact... we see that as being a vital process. (H3)

Within Organisation H, participants held the view that the growth of an organisation bears a significant influence on communication channels. Correspondingly, H4 highlighted that the expansion of organisations causes the communication process to
become more elaborate, and requires specialised infrastructure capable of managing the complex communication needs:

It has been great stability of staff, and it was, in those days it was fairly easy to resolve problems personally, and, by picking up the telephone, when get bigger, need very complex systems. (H4)

There was wide consensus amongst the case organisations that technology is helpful to underpin certain organisational aspects. One of the case organisations viewed social media as both a transitional and fully-fledged communication medium for attracting interest in the objectives and activities of an organisation. One of the case organisations viewed social media as a means of expanding publicity into a wider community of interest. G4 described the ability of social media to capture attention through promoting dialogue between an organisation and the wider community. G4 used a social media website as an example:

It’s still a great way to put something out there, at very low cost, so we put it up there, and we put it out in front of our supporters... the annual general meeting... make the case internally... It’s powerful enough that maybe we should look at adopting it in our actual style, so it became the precursor to what is our television advertisement. (G4)

In this respect, the usefulness of social media websites (e.g. YouTube) was highlighted in trialling promotional material, and expanding online communication within a wider community. G4 stated:

We use YouTube as a testing ground because of its... accessibility... and the fact that it’s free... to basically put our messages out there in a slightly altered way, and because of the response and the feedback... then be adopted into our more traditional media formats... we’ve now got a YouTube channel, also we try and get more and more material up there. (G4)
Further, organisations need to analyse the value of technology-based initiatives. G4 highlighted that the investment of resources into social media requires justification in terms of the outcomes:

As long as it passes that... effort for impact test... is that I can’t be spending, people who work for me, spending weeks putting videos together that are only going on YouTube... we know that it’s not going to return the investment, or increase the awareness in Australia we need. (G4)

The above statements corresponding to the use of Information Technology in organisational change highlight the fact that organisational structures are bolstered through the use of technology. Further, the findings reiterated observations in the literature that learning and change are enhanced when technology is effectively utilised and intertwined throughout organisational policies and processes (G. Duncan, et al., 2009; Taylor & Helfat, 2009).

### 4.5 Organisational Change

The study clearly identified that the relationship between organisational members has a critical influence in the success of organisational change, pointing to the importance of organisational culture in change initiatives. H1 clearly identified that management need to understand the culture of an organisation in order to implement change:

Have to understand the culture that would affect any change... so gain respect before you can understand the culture, gain respect... then you can make change, you can’t do it otherwise. (H1)
G3 identified the need for organisations to establish an environment that encourages staff to follow through from dialogue to action. In this respect, H4 highlighted that one method for staff instigating change is through conducting pilot programs:

> It’s got to be on a very small scale, it’s got to be manageable, it’s got to be something that you have the authority to do, authority is very important... went to the Directorate... developed a proposal, and then went back to the Directorate, and you keep them in the loop all the time. (H4)

H7 identified that dramatic change is normally imposed from external sources, particularly where such changes are implemented rapidly:

> There are usually reasons for it... it is more often external... usually if we’ve got that sort of... dramatic change... need to make a lot of dramatic changes... get in touch at higher levels to get permissions and approvals and agreements and timetables... so dramatic change might move quickly. (H7)

In regards to the implementation of change, G5 highlighted that change can occur rapidly, particularly in technological change:

> Once the people start implementing... then you can see other technologies coming in the market only, then in that case, you can link the external barriers with the internal barriers... but this is an ongoing process, so in some cases it’s difficult to keep up with the new abreast of the new developments... in the market... fast emerging technologies... people have no time to digest... the impact of the technology is already... invested. (G5)

### 4.5.1 Executive Support

Participants across the case organisations value managers that facilitate an understanding of and contribution to organisational change. G2 added that consultation is key to staff engagement and acceptance of change. H1 highlighted that in decisions affecting an entire organisation, senior managers are pressured to make decisions without posing long-term negative impacts on staff. Similarly, G2 pointed to the
importance of consultation in cross-regional change implementation, identifying that a culturally sensitive and non-imposing approach to change is required. Further, H1 highlighted the decision challenges involved in employing a strategic approach to decision-making mainly revolve around encompassing different perspectives and the future impact of decisions on an organisation:

Make reactive decisions that have long term negative impact, and that to me is a fundamental question... I will say, this is what I think, what do you think... usually if I ask the question... another perspective will be given to me, straight away, like it’s not, that you have to take a lot of time, but you actually have to seek a perspective, so I would seek a perspective on... a decision that I had to make quickly, and I found that when I do that, I make a better decision. (H1)

There was wide consensus across the case organisations (e.g. G1, G3, H1) that the support of executive staff is pivotal in organisational change. This corresponded with the findings of a recent study, which identified that the role of the CEO is to remain attentive to the needs of an organisation, and strategise direction in order to meet those needs (Eggers & Kaplan, 2009). Correspondingly, G3 pointed to the need for endorsement from higher management levels for instigating organisational change initiatives:

We want to get the buy in from the CEO and senior management because otherwise we think it won’t happen, unless they say change. (G3)

G1 highlighted that managers employ different approaches to change and obtain results accordingly:

Some people do it better than other... some units do it better than others... often because of the person... who is the manager... some people are better and more focussed about making sure things are understood across their division than others. (G1)
In this respect, H1 highlighted the importance of management understanding staff and adjusting management styles accordingly:

I need to understand my own area, I need to understand where each and every person’s coming from, and what may have influenced their behaviour on a given day... I need to adjust my management style accordingly. That doesn’t mean I compromise... I just adjust my approach... not the outcome. (H1)

The above statement corresponds with the view of G2 that setting learning as a key focus area facilitates change:

Space created in our... strategic planning to think about and grapple with that, and to create initiatives around it, and we will resource for it. (G2)

Participants across the case organisations generally perceived that management are extensively involved in the activities of an organisation across all levels of hierarchy, particularly in the case of the CEO. However, G3 highlighted that the role of executives has changed:

CEO, if he needed some information from the Information Services section... he’d walk down the hall and just ask us, and that’s part of that... it’s a good attitude... from the CEO... you could actually touch and see him talking to people... his role has actually been changing and becoming a bit more global, he actually won’t be here to do that sort of thing, and there’ll be a lot less visibility of who the people are, and the key people particularly. (G3)

In this regard, G4 highlighted that a flat organisational structure facilitates learning:

Managed to keep that very flat structure in place... which makes it a lot easier for people to... know what’s going on, and also to have access to people, like the CEO... it still feels like a small organisation in terms of... that kind of interaction and ability to know what’s going in the CEO’s head... he’s really committed to these... goals, and one of these goals is organisational improvement, so we have to continue to challenge it ourselves. (G4)
Contrastingly, G4 added that an open door policy facilitates staff engagement:

If they don’t feel they can approach the CEO, certainly where you can approach other parts of the organisation, senior management... and feel that you’re going to get a good hearing... but there’s definitely an open door there... and people are encouraged through staff meetings and other forums. (G4)

G5 clearly identified the importance of staff understanding their roles, highlighting the need for managers to explicitly clarify the roles of their respective staff, and align individual perceptions with organisational expectations in order to remain aligned with organisational objectives:

Need to know what the organisation expects from the department... there is always a lack of clarity between what they expect, and what the organisation expects... the organisation might want different role from me, so this will bridge the gap... this is an opportunity... tell the team... that this is what the organisation expects... are we ready to satisfy these functions, if not, why, where are the gaps, what training I can provide you, not only in a formal training, but basically what we need to learn. (G5)

In this regard, H1 identified that renewing senior management staff harbours new perspectives, and is critical in sustaining individual receptivity towards change within organisations:

Senior managers have been around a long time, so there’s no one to challenge the thinking, they just go along with what the existing thinking, so you... need a mix of new senior managers, and... established senior managers to create any form of change, and that’s usually the main thing. (H1)

The above statements correspond with the literature that the cognitive abilities of managers influence their level of support in change initiatives (Battilana, et al., 2010; Del Missier, Mäntylä, & de Bruin, 2011; Ray & Goppelt, 2011). Further, the degree of specialisation of a CEO within a specific area of an organisation will determine their
approach and ability to envision development within those areas accordingly (Eggers & Kaplan, 2009).

4.5.2 Employee Support

Participants generally view that staff play a pivotal role in organisational change. The findings supported the literature, whereby the support of employees is influenced by the relationship with management staff, job satisfaction, and the level of autonomy extended to employees. These factors affect the commitment of staff to organisational change (Parish, et al., 2008). G4 highlighted that individuals have differing interests and areas of focus, which determine their input into change:

Some people will be very focused on a particular area... somebody else might come up with an idea, which might be a perfectly good one... they just have to prioritise things. (G4)

Similarly, G1 highlighted that staff often underestimate the expression of values within an organisation. There was general consensus that staff diversity is important, and that the skills of staff are complementary. G1 highlighted:

There are other people who make up for... weaknesses... and it has worked incredibly successfully... how people jigsaw together... who make sure the systems work... somebody in... who is a little bit more creative, who’s a little more chaotic, who’s able to look at things from a slightly different perspective. (G1)

G4 highlighted the importance of valuing the ideas of staff:

When you get an organisation as big as this... senior people can’t be expected to be able to focus on everything all at once, or... come to grips with it, to understand it in detail... it becomes like a responsibility... or an opportunity for people... at every level to come up with good ideas. (G4)
G4 added that a lack of employee support is not a consistent barrier within organisations:

Ideas might simply not get prioritised, even though they’re simply perfectly good ideas, it’s just that... how much can you do... sometimes the best ideas won’t get forward... how do you present the information... how do you present it... how you try to persuade, how you make the case. (G4)

Further, G2 highlighted that transparency becomes a greater issue when obtaining data on staff working overseas, as in certain situations minimal data is available on the quality of service in overseas offices:

How do we learn about... the result... and the quality of service... when we find out about the quality... is by tracking... outcomes by looking at the records... tend to be fairly sensitive about giving you the bad news... conflict of interest in providing them information. (G2)

The difficulty of remaining transparent is magnified when operating internationally. G2 clearly identified the need for a careful approach is required when obtaining information on the service quality of staff:

Need to create a climate of... learning and continual improvement amongst your cohort... one of our questions around quality is not just... how do we gather the data about triggering defensiveness... instead bring it into a climate of... where you’re stimulating their appetite for learning and improvement. (G2)

These statements are important indicators that organisations need to implement structures that enable staff to effectively engage in learning. The adaptability of staff to change is enhanced through increased participation in the change process. In this regard, organisations obtain wider acceptance of change through inclusive and decentralised management structures (M. Brown & Cregan, 2008). The literature also supports the findings that employee commitment to change has a significant impact on
organisational performance, and to a greater extent, the success of change initiatives. These findings pose a significant motivation for managers to remain attentive to these issues and prioritise job satisfaction (Parish, et al., 2008).

4.5.3 Change Agency

G6 highlighted that staff across an organisation develop ways of implementing ideas while collaborating with other staff. Further, both organisations conceded that there are different levels of change agents, and that staff that have the greatest capacity to influence the organisational direction of the senior management team. G2 highlighted that change agents are either self-identified, or given responsibility to instigate change. In this regard, G2 recognised that change agency implies advocacy as a core competency. G1 clearly identified that change agents are mainly within management, highlighting that the primary change agent is the CEO. Further, there was consensus that the CEO is a visionary and enabler of change. Further, G4 stated that senior management increase the rate of change by providing a clear vision, which empowers staff to become change agents:

Clear vision... enabled all parts of the organisations to be change agents in their own particular areas, but without that kind of tick of approval from the top... change would have been a lot harder, and would continue to be a lot harder... it might be at more underground... it can definitely be on the surface... that makes it easier to be implemented, if people feel that they’ve got... a mandate... to move quickly, and to... implement innovative ideas. (G4)

There was consensus across the case organisations (e.g. G1, H2) that the role of the CEO is to undertake organisational development:

The main change agent is obviously the CEO, he is the one who... brings together the... objectives of the organisation into the strategic plan... approved by
the Board, and then the Executive Directors and the Associate Directors then implement them in their area. (H2)

H3 identified that Executive Directors and Associate Directors are also change agents:

The executive level are certainly change agents... when you’re at an Associate Director level, you’re involved in quite a lot of committees, quite a lot of working areas... so certainly you get very much involved in the policies and the processes. (H3)

H6 clearly identified the role of senior management as providing vision and direction, and consequently, critical in the implementation of change:

Senior management... are charged with the responsibility of identifying strategic directions and initiatives... they spread those values and goals and objectives through to the next level of management. (H6)

Multiple change agents exist within an organisation. G6 agreed with this viewing, adding that individuals have different skills, and there is a broad range of capacities and potential throughout organisations for staff to become change agents. G1 stated:

I think that we have a CEO who is a very strong change agent... who... takes a broad brush picture... asks the right questions... gets agreement on some major strategic things we’re going to do... pushes it through... gets people to push it through... we have... a wide variety of change agents within the organisation. (G1)

Complementary to this view, G1 also perceived that organisations benefit from the presence of multiple change agents:

The people that we put into management positions are the people that drive change... in their area, and across the organisation... we have variable... success... in terms of our managers... each one of them does manage change... and does make things happen... we also have some people who sit in the organisation who are not managers who also drive that change. (G1)
G2 expressed that the manner in which change agents implement change is at times problematic, particular when implemented by internally-focused staff:

Agree with the principles underneath it, but kind of the... implementation timeframes, not realistic... so there are some internal change agents... but they’re... not... embedding their work in nice change frameworks. (G2)

The findings of the study support the view in the literature that the successful implementation of organisational change is achieved through the engagement of multiple leaders within the change process (Harborne & Johne, 2002). The above statements underline that ineffectiveness within change agency beckons a need for staff empowerment through training, and the engagement of departments across an organisation.

4.5.4 Resistance to Change

The outcomes of organisational change vary from positive intended effects on performance and sustainability, to unintended and negative effects, such as increased cynicism of employees towards organisational change (M. Brown & Cregan, 2008). There was consensus that implementing change requires confronting numerous challenges. These findings corresponded with the literature, in that knowledge transfer reduces the scepticism of staff towards change (M. Brown & Cregan, 2008). G5 highlighted that the foremost challenge in change is communication. Participants perceived the change management overall as a difficult process. G3 added:

For some people learning a new tool is not always that easy... and for some people, they’ll still always rather get up and walk around, and... hello... tell me face-to-face. (G3)
G5 highlighted that some individuals are more averse to change than others:

They’re already used to working within that framework... I’d say at least half of the people are averse to change, some people express, some people do not express... because that means extra workload... you have to do your daily business, but on top of that, you need to adapt to new technology... mindset... then fear of extra load... if, they follow new technology or new ways of doing things. (G5)

There was wide consensus that a change of culture does not happen overnight. H1 stated that employees require time to understand and adopt changes:

Change of culture, doesn’t happen overnight, and you really need to nurture people to the point we’re they’re able to move forward with you instead of just putting up the blockers... most people don’t like change... they want security, they want predictability... whether if that’s negative predictability, predictability in itself... defines... a sense of space... innovation requires energy... risk taking... everybody has a different work ethic... you can’t have cultural change unless you actually understand it. (H1)

G3 agreed that change is not an instant process:

You can’t just make it all happen overnight... without pressing all the right buttons... that’s going to take some time. (G3)

Change strategies are generally centred on the presumption that employees willingly accept change. H1 highlighted that attitudes to work are key to the acceptance of change:

It doesn’t matter how much we teach here, how much we look at... what is best practice in teaching, how do you do all of this... it’s not supported back in the workplace, they say what’s the point, go back to the easy way. (H1)
In addition, H3 highlighted that senior and middle management teams are generally stagnated and subject to minimal changes. Correspondingly, senior and middle management have reservations towards change, highlighting that a multitude of agendas exist within organisations. H1 explained:

Management... are not open to change because they are threatened by it, not open to say that... your processes aren’t correct, and that’s what happens... the barriers... generally not down at the lower level... that’s an emotional barrier... the barriers are usually your middle and senior managers... either there’s some... other agenda at play, so there’s always those agendas you don’t know about... hidden agenda... lack of security in your own position, a lack of training. (H1)

4.6 Evaluation

Participants highlighted a strong focus on development practice, in which evaluation processes are matched with the organisational aspects that they assess. The study identified that program evaluation works at different levels within an organisation. Program evaluation can be activity-based, and therefore some program evaluation may require the use of different techniques. G2 highlighted that the level of transparency exhibited by organisational members limits evaluations. Learning was identified as pivotal in enhancing effectiveness within organisations. The importance of evaluation in enhancing organisational performance became evident in H4’s response that greater focus on evaluation is needed. This was echoed in a discussion with G5, who highlighted progress towards implementing a formal mechanism of learning for evaluating organisational initiatives:

There will be structured survey... on how did you learn from this... guideline for the future... this is in-built in all initiatives... in the guidance document we have saved, the results of this will be judged against, staff’s learning mode... not necessarily... time involved, but overall, whether they’re satisfied... what they
learn... added any wealth to the organisation, or what they think they have added. (G5)

4.6.1 Feedback

The key focus of feedback mechanisms was key learning barriers, and whether an organisation provides ample learning opportunities. H7 highlighted the role of staff satisfaction surveys:

That always has to be a two-fold thing where staff are learning to use... a database... a management system... they’re going to implement a new procedure for their staff, they’re going to have to learn it, but as soon as they’ve learnt it, they’re going to be feeding back in terms of, it’s too time consuming, or it’s too impractical. (H7)

Training evaluations are common practice. Evaluations are important in ensuring that individuals receive the required training, in order to resolve skill gaps and achieve organisational objectives. G6 described:

Make sure that the training is in fact hitting the mark, that people are learning from the training what they... expected... sometimes the feedback is about things like venues or providers, style of learning... so if we’re getting negative feedback... about a particular provider, we have a look at another way... another... provider as an alternate option. (G6)

There is consensus that the reporting of professional development plays a pivotal role in learning and evaluation. H6 stated:

Where someone does a course of external study, the Line Managers usually require that person to submit a report when they’ve completed the study... there is a requirement in completing this form, how will it benefit the department... and how will it then be reported... and that data is collected. (H6)
Concurrently, G6 identified that employee satisfaction surveys result in the development and actioning of key priority areas. Similarly, H1 highlighted that senior management have specific concerns for staff engagement and satisfaction. G6 described the results of a recent employee satisfaction survey, and the role of this information in influencing strategic planning:

Career progression was considerably smaller, there were fewer opportunities... whether that is front of mind for people, or what the specific issues are, but what we will do with that information... we will feed it back to managers and staff... look at determining... priority areas of actioning... it’s also got to accommodate some change in focuses... an increased emphasis on advocacy. (G6)

In-line with this view, H5 added that the use of professional development feedback forms is essential in relaying information that is then used in planning:

After... somebody undertakes professional development... they can complete that form... depending on what the professional development is, there’s something... that relates to somebody else... or, another committee... then... can be documented there or... use... in our planning... or for action by that... committee. (H5)

G2 highlighted that Organisation G is affected by a lack of power to mandate sending out evaluation forms to staff working overseas, pointing to the difficulty of the evaluation process in geographically-disperse organisations:

It’s not very robustly taken up... probably need to find other ways... to correlate the feedback we get directly from... other members of our countries. (G2)

Participants highlighted that feedback is a key part of learning within an organisation, and enables individuals to assess individual and organisational performance (Eberlein, et al., 2011). In this respect, well-formulated feedback mechanisms enhance the ability
of staff to contribute to the learning process, and as a result instigate change. Thus, feedback plays a critical role in the performance and sustainability of an organisation.

4.6.2 Performance Appraisal

Performance appraisals evaluate a wide range of activities within organisations. Most discussions centred on the evaluation of learning activities within organisations. Correspondingly, participants perceived a relationship between learning and evaluation as intertwined processes. Further, participants from the case organisations highlighted that the development and learning of skills requires staff accountability to assist an organisation in achieving its objectives (e.g. G3, G4, H1). G3 stated:

Development and learning of skills is... something that each staff needs to do, to help the organisation... has it actually impacted on people’s jobs... we need to test and evaluate and measure whether they’ve actually achieved the outcomes we want... as a learning organisation we do have that for the programs... but in terms of whether the organisation is developing and learning and changing and improving its own practices... evaluate what we are doing in this organisation... a lot more. (G3)

Correspondingly, professional development activities are reviewed annually using performance appraisals within Organisation H. H7 added that annual professional development reports track the learning activities that staff undertake:

Once a year they will need to report... how the systems works here... we keep records of that data... entered into this, so at the end of the year the staff can get their own report. (H7)

In this respect, performance evaluation is integrated into all roles. Participants generally conceded that evaluation is a critical element of individual learning that leads to organisational learning. G2 stated:
We put different degrees of emphasis on it, and all of them will have some evaluation within their job description, in some countries, have one specialist role that only does monitoring and evaluation... quite a heavy investment in it. (G2)

Similarly, H2 highlighted that annual performance appraisals will enhance professional development within an organisation:

There is a performance appraisal... at the end of the year... which... assesses that, and in the beginning of the year... the staff will be handed a professional development form... which outlines the professional development they would like to do... during the year... and then as they do the professional development, that gets logged on... a database... there’s professional development, or scholarly activities. (H2)

Further, it was highlighted that performance reviews require action corresponding to different performance levels. H1 stated:

Unsatisfactory requires improvement, satisfactory, and generally if I haven’t viewed any of these... I’m putting it right on this line here, I can’t say you require improvement because, we haven’t actually demonstrated it... then, next time we’ll talk about it. (H1)

H1 continued, pointing out that evaluation is amongst the most difficult tasks within an organisation:

Evaluation is always the hardest... can always get manipulated... we evaluate... our programs at the local level, we synthesise those up, so we’ve got a process for that... straight-forward procedures on how we evaluate that... evaluate it in terms of... the growth of the department... how much financial... capability we generate in the next year, because we’ve done a good job in the previous year... we can evaluate it on... sustainable... growth. (H1)

Evaluation is about measuring the value of the training to the organisation. Organisations undertake evaluation through surveying, benchmarking and continual
evaluation mechanisms for reviewing performance. The way in which individual training needs are identified is primarily through the performance review process.

### 4.6.3 Evaluation Processes

There was wide consensus amongst participants across the case organisations (e.g. G2, H2, H8) on the critical role of evaluation in promoting learning and continuous improvement within organisations, and ultimately, resulting in change. H2 highlighted that performance reviews enable management to monitor the progress of staff in undertaking professional development, and ensure that staff engage in the minimum level required:

> Performance review of staff... at the end of every year, and of managers... part of that is... evaluating... professional development of the scholarship... it’s one-to-one... make sure they’ve met the minimum requirement... discuss with them how it went... and set them thinking about the following year. (H2)

Participants expressed that annual performance reviews are integrated into a process of evaluation. G4 stated:

> People can highlight what they think are some significant steps forward that they’ve taken over the past year, and they can also highlight areas where they think they need to undergo some more development... they would like to seek out more opportunities, so that’s fully integrated... that then feeds into the work plan, process... and the allocation of budget. (G4)

Within Organisation G, there is a perceived lack of systematic processes around defining learning goals and tracking individual staff training. G2 stated:

> Incorporated into our ongoing system of performance appraisal... which is under-developed and under-practiced... quite weak evaluation mechanisms... externally, stronger... when it comes to internal... externally we have this ongoing cycle of... evaluations and... mid-project reviews, end-of-project
reviews... we have the kind of longitudinal research studies showing the impact and effectiveness... systematic, embedded evaluation processes, that are explicitly there before we even start the activity... so externally we’re miles ahead of where we are internally. (G2)

G2 highlighted the importance of feedback in evaluating activities within an organisation. Further, there was consensus amongst the case organisations on the value of systematic evaluation. In this respect, H8 described the nature of evaluation processes to provide an opportunity for reflection and promote action:

For every program that we run, we evaluate it... when my trainers come back... review those evaluation sheets... if there’s something majorly wrong, you want to pick it up fairly quickly... something that’s done by every department... before we move on... let’s just spend a couple of hours looking back and seeing... what went well, what didn’t... what should we take on board for the next time round. (H8)

G6 clearly identified the importance of evaluation. Correspondingly, H4 highlighted that staff feedback is obtained through both informal and formal processes:

Formal in the sense that... we review our professional development plans every year... at the centre level, departmental... evaluate that, and we’d get feedback from all the different stakeholders and participants. (H4)

Several participants highlighted the importance of the timing of evaluation. This was particularly evident in discussions with G6, who provided an example of when evaluations had previously coincided with a critical budgeting period:

It’s been happening around September, we actually want to move it forward... to... July to mid-August... and the reason for that... is because September... we have budgets being developed, and it’s a very busy and stressful time... so it gets us away from that... about three years ago, there was an employee satisfaction survey done... and that gauged... how employees are fairing. (G6)
In this regard, H7 identifying the importance of encouraging staff to provide feedback, highlighting that gaining the trust of staff during change initiatives is critical to the success of organisational change:

Administrative change, or systemic change, changing systems and processes is often slow, and what might happen there is because we can’t just change things immediately or always, people might then... get a bit jaded, and think that giving that feedback is not worthwhile. (H7)

The study identified that staff input is essential in the evaluation process. Further, participants highlighted that consultation of a wide range of perspectives within an organisation is key to obtaining effective feedback. Changes in work practice are result from the outcomes of evaluation processes. In this respect, the importance of evaluation prior to and during change implementation is evident.

4.6.4 Rewards and Recognition

Rewards and recognition is an important aspect of staff retention, and maintaining morale within the case organisations. H4 highlighted that rewarding staff with international exchange programs provides organisational members with valuable experience and insight, which is subsequently transferred to the organisation:

If the work is valuable, if it can interact with the work in the country, it’s an opportunity to go, for someone who doesn’t get to go and see this work, someone who... works in finance or works on the phones, or works in any area where there’s not the need to go into a country, it’s the opportunity to go and spend some time, to see that work happen, and to share some of their skills. (H4)

Within the same organisation, participants recognised that management generally overlook employee achievements. In this respect, H3 identified a need for organisations to focus on rewarding employees:
Find a way to reward exemplary practices... or reward staff who go above and beyond... annual reviews... with staff... look at what learning has been undertaken. (H3)

Concurrently, in respect to the form of rewards provided to staff, G5 highlighted that monetary benefit is not a great motivator for all staff, underlining the need for organisations to instigate an individualised approach to the rewarding of staff. Within this regard, G5 holds that a suitable work climate is important:

Better work climate, they need that first, of course you need to offer basic minimum... that’s absolutely important to support a family, if you offer that, on top of that, people will be looking at better work climate... lighter work balance, and, after all, recognition of their work... but if you give recognition... work-life balance, but if there’s not enough money... to feed your family... then that won’t work either... these three factors... people are ready to change. (G5)

The study identified that an organisation can further encourage learning through staff incentives and rewards. The acknowledgement of high performance by management staff is an important aspect in staff retention. Further, the rewarding of staff ensures that a high level of staff morale is maintained.

4.7 Organisational Learning Culture Framework

The conceptual framework is linked to the research question. The role of learning is demonstrated within the organisational change process, and how organisational learning affects organisational change. The framework consists of a sequence of processes that involve understanding, transferring, and implementing information. The organisational learning culture framework facilitates an environment in which organisations support a cultural of learning, to create a constantly advancing organisation with minimal effect on resources, where a number of strategies can be implemented. The conceptual
framework emphasises on management systems as a critical part of organisational strategies, and key to the process of continuous improvement within organisations.

4.7.1 Development of New Framework

Despite organisations allocating dedicated resources to organisational change initiatives, the objectives of most change efforts are not realised (Reissner, 2005; D. Smith & Elliott, 2007). The failure of organisational change initiatives is attributable to the limited research available on the relationship between organisational learning and organisational change (Pettigrew, et al., 2001). The current literature provides a model for linking organisational learning and knowledge management (Chinowsky & Carrillo, 2007). The organisational learning culture framework shown in Figure 4.2 provides a new approach to how a learning culture can support organisational change.

![Organisational Learning Culture Framework](image)

The organisational learning culture framework was developed, as while the literature provides critical views of organisational learning and change, there is limited discussion on how an organisation can integrate organisational learning into the process of
organisational change. Analysis of the data confirmed observations of the literature that a more advanced framework is needed, which resulted in the development of the conceptual framework shown in Figure 4.2 above. This framework provides a bridge between organisational learning and organisational change. Organisational learning captures these values and characteristics, and is argued to facilitate the organisational change process.

### 4.7.2 Initiation

Planning is pivotal in achieving change realisation. At the initiation stage, management establish change processes and implement provisions for the necessary resources and personnel to maintain the system. Where there are limited human resources available to aggressively develop the business, Human Resource planning becomes increasingly important. Before implementing change, people need to be involved in the process to bring ideas, contribute to discussions and develop actions. Management can obtain support for change through cohesiveness, as this gives organisational members a sense of belonging.

At this stage, change objectives are developed and analysed in relevance to short-term and long-term organisational objectives. The context of change is determined at this stage, and entails developing Key Result Areas that define the roles of organisational members and departments. Organisational change may require inter-departmental taskforces where projects are common projects for the entire organisation. Department-specific change requires a consultation process between the departments involved in change.
Further, planning is required to integrate departmental strategic plans with those of the organisation. The strategic planning process is important in promoting cohesiveness across departments to ensure objective alignment, and enables organisations to maintain direction in achieving short and long-term objectives. Organisations normally use the planned approach to initiate change (Battilana, et al., 2010), and the framework applies specifically to organisations employing such an approach. This facilitates a uniform approach to implementing change.

The findings highlighted the importance of a strong focus on evaluating organisational mission, and engaging in reflective learning. In this respect, the findings identified that strategic planning cycles need to take account of successful work practices, attitudes that need to be further exhibited by staff, what needs to be done more often, and where the issues exist.

### 4.7.3 Knowledge Transfer Interventions

Knowledge transfer interventions are key opportunities for reflection and learning. The interception of the knowledge transfer and organisational learning phases creates a period of commotion that needs prior strategic planning. Thus, organisations develop knowledge transfer plans. In the absence of a plan, organisations place a block on information due to concerns about privacy and future disturbances caused by the release of information. In such situations, blind spots emerge when an organisation wants to implement change, and wants to move forward, and that is when organisations encounter problems.

Consultation, mentoring, feedback mechanisms, and generating solutions to suit learning criteria are imperative when undertaking major changes, and need to occur
before and during change implementation. Mentoring in particular plays a significant role in succession planning for effective preparation of future leaders. Mentoring provides focussed and contextualised knowledge otherwise undiscovered through other means of communication. These factors all contribute to the effectiveness of this learning approach as a valuable knowledge source and effective communication channel for sharing role-specific information (Weinberg & Lankau, 2011). Balancing meeting agendas and formats is also critical. Meetings require flexibility to satisfy the interests of various stakeholders, and facilitate timely and effective engagement of staff members. The support of administration in releasing the knowledge essential to the implementation of organisational learning is a key factor in the success of the process.

4.7.4 Learning Process

The personal development process enables a person to improve self-awareness, self-knowledge, recognise and develop talents and strengths, and identify or improve the potential that exists to enhance the work style. The personal development process results in work-life balance, to empower a person to fulfil personal aspirations. The findings indicate that organisations can facilitate personal development through professional development plans. Professional development plans are linked to departmental and organisational learning plans. This promotes cohesion between staff development and the strategic plan.

Learning is facilitated by allowing individuals to undertake professional development in their areas of interest that are relevant to the organisational goals, and as individuals reach their own personal development goals, at the same time they are achieving the professional development goals of the organisation, because the expertise, knowledge and experience they gain supports organisational performance. Consequently, staff
improve themselves and enhance the personal development of others (Coles, 1996). This influences learning programs, assessment processes and techniques, and evaluation in an organisation. In this respect, when an organisation emphasises on developing their middle management, this enhances organisational professional development outputs, and subsequently, learning within an organisation obtains the support of management.

4.7.5 Organisational Strategies

Structural issues of planning and process components are key considerations in developing strategies. Further, organisational strategy is influenced by human resource issues pertaining to organisational members, personal capabilities and political awareness (Kalman, 2008). The different areas and implications of management systems are identified as a guiding force beyond culture, learning and change (Daft, 2001; Pool, 2000). Participants across the case organisations highlighted that the attributes of a management system have a significant impact on organisational performance and sustainability.

The literature and findings of the study concur that organisations need to remain current with new technology. Changes in technology infrastructure require delicate planning and optimisation to positively influence organisational performance and promote rapid change. Further, where change involves technology, equal attentiveness on the technological issues and other issues relevant to the change being implemented need to be maintained (Yuhn & Park, 2010). Increased knowledge transfer creates a reciprocal enhancement of innovation diffusion. Training on technology is required to enable staff to utilise systems effectively. Technology is used to facilitate the change process and to promote training in order to realise technological potential.
4.7.6 Organisational Change

The process of organisational change uses organisational learning and knowledge management as inputs. These inputs are subject to modification through organisational strategies (Cummings & Worley, 2009). Low receptiveness to learning was identified as the major barrier to change. Organisational change is difficult when organisational members are unwilling to relinquish old practices. Receptivity to change was viewed by participants to differ across organisations. Reservations on change also arose due to uncertainty on the impact of change on workload, and learning to use new technologies.

Leadership is viewed as playing an important role in organisation change. Leaders provide direction and channel the efforts of organisational members towards a common objective. Further, they reassure members of the benefits of change to obtain buy-in from organisational members to facilitate their acceptance of change. Executive support is highlighted as a model element, as management are identified as being extensively involved with the issues that occur within an organisation across hierarchies (Battilana, et al., 2010). The role of executives in change is to give authority to stakeholders to undertake tasks. Executives regulate the process of trial and error, resulting in minimised risk and increases productivity due to its non-partisan nature (Aksu & Ozdemir, 2005).

Correspondingly, the empirical research identified that organisational change involves change agency. There was wide agreement amongst participants that change agency is an organisation-wide phenomenon, and there are numerous change agents across an organisation that are encouraged and empowered to develop and instigate change initiatives. Interviewees established that management are the main change agents within an organisation, and that this is part of their visible roles. There was general consensus
that change agency is a fundamental aspect of the role of a CEO (Eggers & Kaplan, 2009). A critical role of change agents is to pursue management to support change initiatives, and diffuse change across the organisation.

4.7.7 Evaluation

Evaluation is a key element in the organisational change process, as this provides further development of the skills of organisational members and promotes accountability across an organisation (You & Li, 2008). Evaluation processes involve various informal and formal feedback mechanisms that work to identify key barriers to learning, and measure the adequacy of learning undertaken by staff. Mentoring is inherently an evaluation tool, as mentors constantly provide feedback to less experienced individuals (protégés), which increases personal learning (Weinberg & Lankau, 2011), and creates a learning culture. Evaluation is also a key aspect of rewards and recognition, which assists in reducing staff turnover, improving morale and work performance, and providing organisational members with a sense of belonging.

Participants across the case organisations generally highlighted the importance of evaluation, expressing that the various evaluation processes employed by organisations provide an opportunity for reflection on past practices. Further, most participants expressed a need for systematic evaluation processes. Evaluation is important in providing a process for learning goal definition (Eberlein, et al., 2011; Enksen, 2008). Evaluation was generally viewed as a difficult task in the organisations studied, though important in facilitating staff engagement and satisfaction. The interviews revealed that evaluation processes require careful planning and implementation so as not to detract from the value of such activities. The timing of evaluations, and continuity in this process, is vital to change and effecting learning.
The interviews revealed that reporting of professional development enables organisations to measure the effectiveness of structured learning within an organisation, and whether the learning obtained from professional development activities satisfies the knowledge requirements of organisational members. The findings of professional development reports are utilised in the planning of future learning interventions (Coles, 1996). Staff satisfaction surveys are found to provide vital information on the perceptions and attitudes of staff towards their work. The participants generally viewed that this form of survey has the dual purpose of gauging job satisfaction, and organisational performance as perceived by organisational members. The information contained in staff satisfaction surveys enables organisations to develop and implement key priority areas, and improve work climate.

4.8 Conclusion

The study identified common issues across the two case organisations pertaining to learning. The study identified that knowledge transfer takes place through various formal and informal activities, and both communicative and collaborative means. The findings identified that learning is enhanced by implementing creative learning opportunities, as organisational members are then motivated to participate in knowledge transfer activities, particular in more formal learning (Kitson, 2009). The case organisations differed in their utilisation of Information Technology within the learning process. Organisation H was identified to use a greater deal of technology than Organisation G. Invariably, the findings ascertained that Organisation H benefits from an extended use of technology within the learning process. The study identified that technology enhances knowledge transfer, and increased accessibility and flexibility in learning.
Further, new insights are gained on the role of organisational learning in organisational change. Organisational learning is identified as integral to the organisational change process. The findings resulted in the refinement of the theoretical framework, leading to the development of the organisational learning culture framework, shown in Figure 4.2, bridges the gap in practice within the field of organisational learning. There was wide consensus that inter-departmental knowledge transfer is often a difficult task, and therefore a major challenge to implementing a learning culture (Tarnoff, 2009). The findings conclude that a learning culture involves creating an environment for sustainable action within the process and implementation of learning, in order to facilitate excellence in organisational performance. Thus, the findings demonstrated that organisational learning is influential in organisational change, and enhancing business sustainability. The following chapter draws on the implications of the findings for theory and management practice. In addition, recommendations are discussed to improve focus on the creation and sustainment of a learning culture within organisations, and to facilitate learning, collaboration, and professional development.
Chapter 5

Conclusions and Implications
5.1 Introduction

This final chapter of the Dissertation summarises the findings, and explores the implications of the findings for theory, practice and methodology. The findings confirmed the observations in the literature that organisations are frequently subjected to change, and due to resource constraints, implementing an organisational learning culture is essential to the sustainability of an organisation. This chapter concludes with a discussion on further research, with a particular emphasis on the utilisation of technology in the learning process. This chapter is developed in the sequence demonstrated in Figure 5.1 below:

Figure 5.1: Conclusions and Implications Chapter Structure
5.2 Conclusions for the Research Objectives

Staff commitment to change is influenced by numerous factors. The compatibility of staff with long-term objectives affects alignment of staff with the overall direction of an organisation, and impacts on individual and organisational performance (Meyer, et al., 2010). Commitment is also affected by the relationship between staff and managers, the level of autonomy given to staff, and job satisfaction (Tamasila, Taucean, Pugna, & Giuca, 2009). The resultant combination of these factors is influential in successful organisational change (Parish, et al., 2008).

Equally, the mindset of organisational members towards the use of knowledge is viewed as influential to organisational learning (E. Antonacopoulou & Chiva, 2007; Parish, et al., 2008). The empirical research identified that learning becomes the vehicle for change particularly where change entails influencing the agenda and directions of the organisation. The culture within an organisation requires time to change, and needs to be approached by allowing staff to absorb and instil change. This requires staff actively listening to understand the process of change, take note of events, actively engage in dialogue, and contribute to discussions. Creativity and strategic thinking are important to organisations, and are characteristics of a learning culture. This entails asking the right questions, and having different perspectives on the same issues.

5.2.1 Objective 1: Learning Culture and Change

A learning culture has a significant impact on the ability of an organisation to implement change successfully (Bates & Khasawneh, 2005). The empirical research identified that an organisation that masters the process of learning and integrates it into all processes becomes a learning organisation, which engages members in extensive analyses of information. A learning culture was identified as one in which employees
engage in continuous learning to cause an organisation to continuously adapt and implement changes. Organisational culture has a great influence on organisational change, and organisational change initiatives fail due to inadequate analysis of the existing and emerging culture, and the impact of organisational change on culture. Learning cultures employ a systematic process of information awareness, where the use of such a system enables an organisation to find the right time to implement change.

The empirical research identified that organisational change results when needs are identified from within an organisation, which arise from execution gaps. The successful implementation of change requires organisational members to understand the nature and cause of change, in order to adopt change. Thus, successful organisational change is dependent on the level of learning that employees engage in during the planning and implementation of change. Change is a product of learning (Lines, et al., 2008). The effective engagement of staff in change initiatives requires an understanding of organisational learning processes. In this respect, the high rate of failure in organisational change initiatives (Flower, 1998) is attributable to a lack of understanding of the learning process.

The empirical research identified that employee participation is a key aspect of learning cultures, and encourages employees to collaborate and generate solutions, and facilitates the engagement of staff and their acceptance of organisational change. Organisations that clearly focus on creating a learning culture and allocate dedicated resources to learning are able to develop effective policies and procedures (Chen, 2008), which contribute to the successful implementation of organisational change (Alas & Sun, 2007). However, motivating staff to participate in all learning activities is not feasible. Congruently, a learning culture encourages the development of shared values,
contributing positively and significantly to organisational sustainability (Bates & Khasawneh, 2005).

The exchange of knowledge between an organisation and the external environment, and the learning that results from this interaction, are critical to responding to change drivers (Ma, 2009). The empirical research identified that constancy in the learning process assists stakeholders to advance their knowledge. Although during periods of rapid change, the learning process becomes prioritised rather than integrated, and the outputs of an organisation take precedence over learning. Consequently, staff become task-oriented and less concerned with learning. This creates disturbance across an organisation, and complicates the continuity of learning. There is widespread concern that organisational members have limited time to communicate extensively when change beckons greater urgency, and outcomes are prioritised over learning and other aspects of an organisation.

5.2.2 Objective 2: Leaders Influence on Creation of a Learning Culture

Leadership plays a major role in establishing a learning culture to support organisational change. Leadership and the level of executive support are a key factor in the creation of an organisational learning culture and instilling it within the DNA of an organisation (Ray & Goppelt, 2011; Georg von Krogh, et al., 2011). Leadership also impacts on the organic processes of an organisational learning culture. Individual perspectives within organisations are influenced by level of responsibility. The empirical research identified that the perspectives of management staff on what occurs across an organisation may differ to the perceptions of staff. The findings also highlighted that staff need to be equipped with the skills and tools required to undertake their work and achieve
organisational objectives. In this respect, leaders play a critical role in identifying and providing training when skills gaps exist.

The research identified that learning is hindered by a lack of resources, lack of focus, and a lack of prioritisation (Schimmel & Muntslag, 2009; D. Smith & Elliott, 2007). The empirical research identified that to overcome these barriers to learning, organisations need to engage in continuous improvement. Hence, organisational learning involves an increasing focus on continuing learning and improving information flows, for staff to develop a level of understanding to become change agents, and then being empowered to focus on an area and develop it. Employees have different needs and expectations of training. As individuals are unique, and generally inexperienced in some area, the learning process should accommodate those differences and skill gaps. Equally, locating the necessary resources to learn is important.

Further, the empirical research identified that multiple agendas exist within an organisation that significantly influence the potential of individuals. Leaders retain information to sustain their position within an organisation (Battilana, et al., 2010). The empirical research identified that when a minority retains information required for sustaining the future of an organisation, this becomes a cause for conflict. The findings confirmed that power bias towards the leadership of an organisation is harmful to the exchange of knowledge. In this respect, architecting a team and individual skill development are key management functions that need to be actively addressed, in order to facilitate successful learning and change within an organisation. Further, leaders are able to utilise a learning culture by creating a vision for the organisation, and achieve their vision by generating dialogue with employees and clients. A learning culture was found to be further facilitated by provide training to improve organisational processes.
and outputs, which also assisted in convincing employees to accept organisational change.

The empirical research identified that employees also support the development of a learning culture through change agency. Change agents are generally found at the executive level. Although, change agents work within different areas of an organisation, and across all divisional boundaries. (Battilana, et al., 2010). The findings of the study concur with this view. Thus, Human Resource Managers are prompted to identify the needs of staff, and create an environment that facilitates learning amongst staff. The study identified that employees who support a learning culture are those who maintain a high level of job satisfaction, continuously learn through work, and find new approaches to work that improve organisational performance.

Managers hold the floodgates of information, and view that staff need to know certain information for themselves (Georg von Krogh, et al., 2011). Therefore, staff may not receive news on the latest developments within an organisation. The empirical research identified that opening the floodgates is an important factor in supporting a learning culture. However, in situations where projects arise unexpectedly, staff may find themselves in a situation where a lack of knowledge about the latest developments in an organisation prevents individuals from making the right decisions in times of sudden change. Rigid leadership approaches to knowledge transfer have varying effectiveness on the outcomes of the process of change.
5.2.3 **Objective 3: Understanding Policy Influence on Learning Culture.**

Policy change involves learning best practices due to a policy direction, or where a team is forced to learn new ways of working. Changes in policy result directly from learning, and effective policy change requires a learning culture. Organisational growth requires changes in policy to simultaneously control and support organisational learning (Weiner, Amick, & Lee, 2008). The empirical research identified the existence of a reciprocal relationship between policy and learning. Organisational policies need to move with the needs of the time and environment, as outdated policies cause organisational members to lose touch with the day-to-day operations of an organisation. Thus, without a focus on maintaining contemporary organisational policies and regular policy reviews, the efforts of staff become counter-productive.

5.3 **Conclusions About the Research Problem**

Learning has become a source of global competitive advantage since the 1990s (Osland & Yaprak, 1995). Organisational learning influences organisational innovation and learning transfer climate (Bates & Khasawneh, 2005), and facilitates individual learning, forms transparent communication and cooperation, and develops trust among staff (Aksu & Ozdemir, 2005). A learning organisation takes the right actions, learns from those actions, and learns to implement action at the right time. An understanding of learning is essential for clarifying the processes that are central to organisational change (Steiner, 1998). The high failure rate in organisational change initiatives is a dire indication of the increasingly challenging business environment that exists today. Hence, a discernable need exists for integrating learning into organisational change initiatives (Aksu & Ozdemir, 2005).
Culture is a liquid form of rules and regulations that the organisation could promote without determination of the awards and punishment (Aksu & Ozdemir, 2005). The power of hierarchical supremacy could have a great influence in promoting a learning culture, or manipulating it substantially to create chaos in building a self-sustained mechanism for leadership (Appalbaum & Gallagher, 2000). The continued absence of a solid theoretical organisation for developing management practices for overcoming barriers to change.

The findings of the empirical research potentially lead to the development of best practices in organisational learning, and provide a managerial framework for the effective implementation of organisational learning in organisational change initiatives. However, this study indicates the importance of technology infrastructure in the context of change momentum, and its theoretical and practical implications. The interview data identified commonality in the lack of analysis and diagnosis during the initiation stage of the organisational learning culture framework, shown in Figure 4.2.

5.4 Implications for Theory

The study contributes to the existing discussion on organisational learning, and provides a clear view of the effects of learning on organisational change, and is likely to extend current understanding on the role of organisational learning in organisational change. The findings of the study promote clarity on the organisational learning process, and the role of organisational learning in organisational change. The research has significant potential to assist organisations in understanding the relationship between learning and organisational change.
The empirical research explored the correlation between the forces of time, technology, and scope in organisational change. Further, the findings of this study complements the literature in relation to the effect of change on human resources, and its role in enhancing individual competencies through the learning that results from the change process (Antonelli, et al., 2010). Further, the effects of integrating new technology infrastructure in organisational change positively influence organisational learning, particularly in technology-focussed organisations (George P. Huber, 2009).

The findings also provide enhanced insight for organisations to successfully implement technology in organisational change initiatives, in order to promote organisational learning. Consequently, this study provides a basis for addressing the absence of a sufficient body of knowledge on the correlation between technology integration and organisational change. In addition, the framework that emanated from the findings, shown in Figure 5.2, provides a managerial framework that facilitates the successfully integration of learning within organisational change initiatives.

5.5 Implications for Policy and Practice

The empirical research resulted in the development of a framework for managing learning throughout the process of organisational change. The study has the potential to benefit organisations that aspire to pursue a learning culture to solve problems during the change process. The findings of this study provide an understanding of the benefits of pursuing a learning culture, and have the potential to motivate individuals working within all hierarchical levels to embrace the significance of learning in the change process, and integrate learning into organisational culture and processes.
Following the interviews with one of the case organisations, a number of senior managers mentioned they had learned a great deal from the interview process. Consequently, the indirect result of the interviews was that the organisation recently evaluated its strategic planning cycles, and condensed these cycles from four years to two years, as there was a sense that a changing climate requires shorter-term strategic planning. The interviews also influenced changes in human resources.

A framework integrating organisational learning and organisational change as a process is non-existent, as researchers have tended to separate organisational learning and change. The findings of the empirical research advance existing discussions on organisational learning and organisational development, and provide a foundation for research on organisational learning culture. Further, the findings facilitate the development of best practices in organisational learning, and have the potential to assist change managers and policy makers in effectively implementing organisational learning mechanisms into organisational change initiatives.

Organisational change requires an environment conducive to change (Vas & Ingham, 2003). The study highlighted the importance of understanding the mechanics of organisational learning and knowledge management, as these are key inputs in the organisational change process. The findings highlighted that organisational learning seeks to enhance the capabilities of an organisation in acquiring and developing new knowledge, and where learning is extensive, facilitates the creation of a learning culture.
5.5.1 Creation of a Learning Culture

Within a learning culture, the stream of information is unpolluted, flowing, accessible, and protected from hierarchical interference. Once individuals understand information, their role is to transfer knowledge to other organisational members. An organisational learning culture is a systematic approach to subliminally engraving a set of cognitive capabilities into the human factor of an organisation. A learning culture supports heroes in an organisation to undertake initiatives that change the course of business, and creates a characteristic of decisiveness in stakeholders. This enables stakeholders to make decisive decisions, which facilitate the alignment of the efforts of organisational members with organisational goals and objectives.

In this perspective, a learning culture is needed to ensure constancy within the process of learning, and the practice of learning in order to reduce counter-productivity from excessive time spent for retraining. Every organisation is unique in terms of its structure and policies. Creating a learning culture entails developing strategies that facilitate organisational responsiveness. Organisations that focus on creating a learning culture are able to implement change successfully and continually in policies and processes. Organisations require intercultural awareness to reduce the risk of the formation of unauthorised and unethical sub-cultures. The notion of learning and development require acknowledgement as being significantly influential in business sustainability. Organisations need to upskill employees in order for them to meet the requirements of their roles and ensure the currency of their skills.

Professional development is a tool for creating a learning culture, and common ground for inter-departmental dialogue. Workshops and activities, in particular milling exercises, are effective in network creation and the breakdown of sub-culture build-up.
Through the creation of a common culture, an organisation is more capable in managing resistance from invisible and unorganised sub-cultures. Organisations can facilitate a learning culture by supporting key staff to engage in personal development. The role of management is pivotal to the sustainability of an organisation. Leaders nurture individual initiatives to increase productivity, which attributes to an organisational learning culture. To create a culture of learning within an organisation, key staff need to be supported in terms of personal development, in order to assist other organisational members to develop. Providing leadership training prepares future leaders who are ready to provide direction. Thus, succession planning is paramount for organisational sustainability.

5.5.2 Knowledge Transfer

The flow of information is the lifeline of an organisation. The main purpose of learning is to increase the level of knowledge. Therefore, a constant flow of information that is both relevant and current is essential to maximising this process. Organisational cohesiveness should be a prioritised. Cross-departmental collaboration needs to be encouraged to create suitable knowledge management systems. Further, knowledge transfer strategies and communication channels require continual focus on strategic planning, meetings and other knowledge transfer interventions. A hierarchical-based access code in an organisation is essential to the flow of knowledge. However, extreme caution needs to be taken so that knowledge does not become a source of gaining through the hierarchy, rather than using it as a tool to implement change or increase performance.

The literature suggests that knowledge is a source of competitive advantage (Chen, 2008; Kitson, 2009; Ma, 2009). Correspondingly, the empirical research identified that
organisations should encourage an open door policy, where staff are encouraged to approach Management, Senior Management or the CEO to share their ideas. This can be achieved by creating knowledge transfer opportunities that promote dialogue between management and staff, and empower staff to bring creativity into their work, and provide a sense that their efforts are valued. However, a moderate approach to an open door policy is needed, as due to the heavy load of work on management, such a policy is be counter-productive if it is not defined within organisational policies.

Collaboration tools such as Microsoft SharePoint enable employees to further engage with their colleagues and share information, documents and reports. The scope of usability in this software is wide. IT Professionals are able to reduce training and maintenance costs and maintain focus on higher priority tasks. Developers use SharePoint to “build custom applications and components to rapidly respond to business needs” (Microsoft Corporation, 2011).

Organisations ultimately receive the benefits of staff undertaking training and development. Induction programs are a fundamental element of a learning culture, and have a positive role in human resource training. Organisations require specific focus on orientation activities to develop sustainable learning foundations for organisational members. The use of professional development plans for organisational members is suggested to assist in creating a structured and tailored learning environment, and empower individuals to learn how to become more productive. This reduces staff turnover, as people can follow their career while working with the organisation.
5.5.3 Flexible Training Programs

The learning processes in organisations are unique, and knowledge management needs to be aligned with the specific characteristics, and knowledge and learning requirements of an organisation. Organisations need to implement training programs that support the organisational culture, and the values held by organisational members in regards to knowledge and learning. Further, it is recommended that organisations utilise proven effective learning mediums to establish solid knowledge bases and enhance knowledge transfer.

In addition, unified training programs are recommended to ensure consistency in skill development, facilitate collaboration, and prevent the establishment of destructive sub-cultures. Thus, the training process needs to be aligned with individual needs. The training process needs to be fluid in order to accommodate the needs of each individual as a progressive mechanism of ever-advancing career path. The dynamics of this process empowers individuals to take initiatives that are the elements of a learning culture. To share departmental news, organisations need to allocate more time besides working hours for staff, by reducing the workload, as employees are spending time for staff meetings. As organisations are naturally task-oriented, getting me getting off work to attend meetings doesn't mean which the workload has been reduced to.

5.5.4 Evaluation

The empirical research clearly identified that organisational learning is enhanced through a strong focus on evaluation processes, thus magnifying the importance of evaluation in facilitating learning and change within organisations. The findings underlined the critical importance of pairing appropriate evaluation techniques with the organisational aspects that are evaluated. This point highlights the need for feedback
mechanisms to entail a tailored approach, as this ensures that organisations receive functional feedback that can subsequently be utilised to envelop change and address performance gaps.

In this respect, measures of success require effective performance measurement tools. Evaluation involves a process of reflection. One model prevalent in this area is the GIBBS Reflective Cycle, a 6-stage process of reflection that provides a holistic approach to reflecting, evaluating, and enacting on evaluation (Gibbs & Andrew, 2001).

The six stages of the GIBBS Reflective Cycle are as follows:

- **Description** - Describe as a matter of fact just what happened during your critical incident or chosen episode for reflection.
- **Feelings** - What were you thinking and feeling at the time?
- **Evaluation** - List points or tell the story about what was GOOD and what was BAD about the experience.
- **Analysis** - What sense can you make out of the situation. What does it mean?
- **Conclusion** - What else could you have done. What should you perhaps not have done.
- **Action Plan** - If it arose again, what would you do differently. How will you adapt your practice in the light of this new understanding?

Transparency is a major factor in the effectiveness of evaluation. For this reason, feedback mechanisms require an approach that enhances knowledge transfer, and increases opportunities for organisational members to have input into how an organisation operates. Correspondingly, the empirical research identified that evaluation promotes collaboration. Training evaluations are common practice. Evaluations are important in ensuring that individuals receive the required training, in order to resolve skill gaps and achieve organisational objectives. Consequently, the reporting of professional development plays a pivotal role in learning and evaluation.
Senior management have specific concerns for staff engagement and satisfaction. Employee satisfaction surveys play a key role in strategic planning. Professional development feedback forms are another essential evaluation method for relaying information to management, which is subsequently used in planning. However, the process of obtaining feedback when operating at an international scale is difficult. The creation of a learning culture supports feedback mechanisms. Concurrently, Information Technology streamlines the collection of feedback, irrespective of the location of staff, and promotes the consideration of a wider range of perspectives within an organisation.

The empirical research highlighted the need for the development and learning of skills. Further, evaluation promotes staff accountability, and assists organisations in achieving objectives. Performance appraisals are a critical part of evaluation, due to their focus on professional development. Performance appraisals evaluate a wide range of activities within organisations. Correspondingly, professional development activities are reviewed annually using performance appraisals. In addition, the reporting of evaluation results is equally important in the evaluation process. Annual professional development reports are critical in tracking the learning activities undertaken by staff.

Similarly, performance reviews enable management staff to monitor the progress of organisational members in undertaking professional development, and ensuring employees engage in a minimum level of training. These findings underlined that need for organisations to create a systematic process around defining learning goals and tracking individual staff training. Organisations need to acknowledge the value of systematic evaluation. In this respect, it is imperative that evaluation processes provide an opportunity for reflection and promote action. The empirical research also highlighted the importance of the timing of evaluation, to gain optimal results.
When organisations fail to learn from their experiences they continue to create mistakes. Lessons learned from successes and failures are a key element in learning (Driver, 2009). The empirical research identified that a considerate approach to managing failures is needed. Organisations require tolerance towards mistakes, and should avoid scrutinising organisational members that have been involved in an incident, and approach these as learning through a process of trial and error. Whilst organisation should record detailed documentation on failure occurrences, individuals involved in incidences of failure need to remain anonymous in the reporting of those incidents.

Organisations should refrain from recording bad histories for staff and departments, and rather approach these as learning opportunities. Such an approach assists in risk management and contingency plan. Thus, the findings indicate that learning from evaluation manifests in various forms. Revised practices may form part of improved organisational policies and operational frameworks that guide the activities of staff. Nonetheless, within any form of feedback manifestation, new work practices result from evaluation outcomes.

5.5.5 **Rewards and Recognition**

The most valued staff rewards include professional rewards associated with the work itself, the career development process, and the organisational processes employed. Organisational reward systems have the potential to encourage the usage of new technology. Rewarding staff with time-release for holidays facilitates work-life balance, improves morale, and ensures that staff are leading a balanced lifestyle, which enables fulfilment of personal and organisational objectives. Time-release also allows staff to pursue professional development and Higher Education. Correspondingly, the adoption of technology in organisations is enhanced through staff incentives, highlighting the
need for a systematic approach to rewarding organisational members. In this respect, rewards and recognition are viewed as a critical part of facilitating technology adoption amongst staff.

5.5.6 Succession Planning

Leadership development training is a critical element in organisational sustainability. The impact of an ageing workforce on organisational sustainability highlights the need for management to prioritise succession planning and integrate leadership development into strategic planning. Although, leadership development not only prepares future leaders, this also promotes skills development and extends individual capabilities, through building on internal expertise. Succession planning supports the leadership to support effective strategic level capabilities, reduces employee turnover, and encourages them to engage with their work. Further, mentoring and coaching are a focal point in staff leadership development.

5.5.7 Adoption of New Technology

Effective utilisation of technology creates competitive advantage. Organisations need to understand and engage new technology to enhance communication and collaboration. In a new era of technology and audio/visual telecommunications, these communication tools should not remain confined to Boards of Management, and need to be distributed for use by all organisational members. Further, e-learning is a solution for conducting induction programs as a supplementary learning resource to traditional face-to-face training modes, and mitigates issues that are frequently encountered in traditional learning modes.
The adoption of technology needs to be coupled with a focus on improving computer literacy amongst staff, particularly for regional offices. Technology adoption is also encouraged through reward systems. Creating a culture of learning supports continuous change in Information Technology within an organisation. In addition, technology-based activities should only be utilised when there is value in it within a wider context. Further, a dedicated role for managing online communications is recommended. Similarly, Public Relations is enhanced through the use of social media marketing, and organisations may benefit from integrating this into existing communications strategies. However, technology adoption should be planned delicately, particularly during periods of rapid growth and radical change.

5.6 Further Research

Organisations use Information Technology to create learning and promote culture, with the aim to increase the performance of an organisation. Ever-advancing technology has brought organisations to the realisation that the influential forces of new technology on organisational performance are inevitable. This demands further research on the use of Information Technology within organisations, and its correlation with organisational learning culture and change. Further research might even discover areas such as utilising new software to analyse organisational performance and evaluate outputs. The evaluation process has increasingly become a major component of organisational learning.
GLOSSARY

The following definitions are sourced from Cummings and Worley (2009):

**Accountability** Responsibility to produce a promised result within a specific time.

**Active listening** Reflecting back to the other person not only what the person has said but also the perceived emotional tone of the message.

**Adaptive** A term used to describe the behaviour of many kinds of systems. Originally used mainly to describe individuals (for example, adaptive behaviour), it is now applied to groups and organisations vis-à-vis their environment.

**Benchmarking** A process where companies find out how other companies do something better than they do and then try to imitate or improve on the activity.

**Change management** The tools, techniques, and processes that scope, resource, and direct activities to implement a change. Change management is less concerned about the transfer of knowledge, skill, and capacity to manage change in the future than organization development.

**Competency** The skills and knowledge necessary to carry out some specific activity or task.

**Continuous improvement** A philosophy of designing and managing all aspects of an organisation in a never-ending quest for quality. The notion is that no matter how well things are going, there are always opportunities to make them better, and hundreds of
small improvements can make a big difference in overall functioning. Also known as kaizen.

**Diversity** The mix of gender, age, disabilities, cultures, ethnic backgrounds, and lifestyles that characterise the organisation’s workforce and potential labour pool.

**Double-loop learning** Organisational behaviours directed at changing existing valued states or goals. This is concerned with radically transforming an organization’s structure, culture, and operating procedures.

**Employee involvement** Any set of techno-structural interventions, such as quality circles, high involvement organisations, or total quality management, that adjust the power, information flows, rewards, and knowledge and skills in an organisation. Also known as quality of work life.

**Evaluation feedback** Information about the overall effects of a change program. It is generally used for making decisions about whether resources should continue to be allocated to the program.

**Facilitate** A process by which events are “helped to happen.” Facilitating is a kind of influence role that is neither authoritarian nor abdicative.

**Feedback** Information regarding the actual performance or the results of the activities of a system. In communications, it concerns looking for and using helpful responses from others.
**Growth** A term reflecting theorists’ and practitioners’ concern for improvement in personal, group, and organisational behaviour. Identification of growth stages, rates, and directions is a major focus of contemporary theory and research.

**Hidden agenda** An undisclosed motive for doing or failing to do something. For example, a plant manager began to use team-building sessions, not because he wanted them but because he knew that his boss was in favour of such sessions.

**Human resource systems** These comprise mechanisms and procedures for selecting, training, and developing employees. They may include reward systems, goal setting, career planning and development, and stress management.

**Inputs** Human or other resources, such as information, energy, and materials, coming into the system or subsystem. Also, more informally, used to describe people’s contributions to a system, particularly their ideas.

**Integration** The state of collaboration that exists among departments that are required to achieve unity of effort by the demands of the environment. The term is used primarily for contingency approaches to organisational design.

**Interaction** Almost any behaviour resulting from interpersonal relationships. In human relations, it includes all forms of communication, verbal and nonverbal, conscious and unconscious.

**Intervention** Any action on the part of a change agent. Intervention carries the implication that the action is planned and deliberate and presumably functional. Many
suggest that an OD intervention requires valid information, free choice, and a high degree of ownership by the client system of the course of action.

**Knowledge management** A process that focuses on how knowledge can be organised and used to improve organisation performance. KM tends to focus on the tools and techniques that enable organizations to collect, organize, and translate information into useful knowledge. Organisationally, KM applications are often located in the information systems function and may be under the direction of a chief technology officer.

**Leadership** A process of influence exercised when institutional, political, psychological, and other resources are used to arouse, engage, and satisfy the motives of followers.

**Leadership development** A training and education intervention aimed at improving the competencies of managers and executives of an organisation.

**Learning organisation** An organisation where everyone is involved in identifying and solving problems, enabling the organisation to continuously experiment, improve, and increase its capability.

**Mission** A statement of the organisation’s purpose, range of activities, character, and uniqueness.

**Model** A simplification of some phenomenon for purposes of study and understanding. The concrete embodiment of a theory. To behave in an idealised way so that others
might learn or change their behaviour by identifying with and adopting those behaviours displayed.

**Motivation** The conditions responsible for variation in the intensity, quality, and direction of ongoing behaviour.

**Need** A central concept in psychology, referring to a biological or psychological requirement for the maintenance and growth of the human animal. It is used among practitioners chiefly to refer to a psychological demand not met in organisational life, with the emphasis on the search for ways in which more such wants can be satisfied.

**Openness** Accepting the communications and confrontations of others and expressing oneself honestly, with authenticity.

**Organisational culture** This is the pattern of values, beliefs, and expectations shared by organisation members. It represents the taken-for-granted and shared assumptions that people make about how work is to be done and evaluated and how employees relate to one another and to significant others, such as suppliers, customers, and government agencies.

**Organisational development (OD)** The system-wide application and transfer of behavioural science knowledge to the planned development, improvement, and reinforcement of the strategies, structures, and processes that lead to organization effectiveness.

**Organisation development practitioner** A generic term for people practicing organisation development. These individuals may include managers responsible for
developing their organisations or departments, people specialising in OD as a profession, and people specialising in a field currently being integrated with OD (for example, strategy or human resource management) who have gained some familiarity with and competence in OD.

**Organisation effectiveness** An overall term that refers to the outputs of organisation strategy and design. Typically includes financial performance, such as profits and costs; stakeholder satisfaction, such as employee and customer satisfaction; and measures of internal productivity, such as cycle times.

**Organisational learning (OL)** A change process that seeks to enhance an organisation’s capability to acquire and develop new knowledge. It is aimed at helping organisations use knowledge and information to change and improve continually. It involves discovery, invention, production, and generalisation. In organizations, OL change processes are typically associated with the human resource function and may be assigned to a special leadership role, such as chief learning officer.

**Performance appraisal** A human resource system designed to provide feedback to an individual or group about its performance and its developmental opportunities. The performance appraisal process may or may not be closely linked to the reward system.

**Planned change** A generic phrase for all systematic efforts to improve the functioning of some human system. It is a change process in which power is usually roughly equal between consultants and clients and in which goals are mutually and deliberately set.

**Process** The way any system is going about doing whatever it is doing. Social process is the way persons are relating to one another as they perform some activity.
Organizational process is the way different elements of the organisation interact or how different organizational functions are handled.

**Quality (outcome)** Meeting and exceeding customer needs for both internal and external customers.

**Quality (process)** The continuing commitment by everyone in the organization to understand, meet, and exceed the needs of its customers.

**Rewards, extrinsic Rewards** given by the organization, such as pay, promotion, praise, tenure, and status symbols.

**Rewards, intrinsic Rewards** that must originate and be felt within the person. Intrinsic rewards include feelings of accomplishment, achievement, and self-esteem.

**Role** A set of systematically interrelated and observable behaviours that belong to an identifiable job or position. Role behaviour may be either required or discretionary.

**Role ambiguity** A result of inadequate information regarding role-related expectation and understanding. This occurs when the individual does not clearly understand all the expectations of a particular role.

**Self-awareness** A positive goal of most training techniques that aim at behaviour changes. Self-awareness means becoming aware of one’s existing patterns of behaviour in a way that permits a relatively non-defensive comparison of those patterns with potential new ones.
**Single-loop learning** Organisational behaviours directed at detecting and correcting deviations from valued states or goals. This is concerned with finetuning how an organization currently functions.

**Stakeholder** A person or group having a vested interest in the organisation’s functioning and objectives.

**Strategic change** An approach to bringing about an alignment or congruence among an organization’s strategy, structure, and human resource systems, as well as a fit between them and the larger environment. It includes attention to the technical, political, and cultural aspects of organizations.

**Strategy** A plan of action defining how an organisation will use its resources to gain a competitive advantage in the larger environment. It typically includes choices about the functions an organisation will perform, the products or services it will provide, and the markets and populations it will serve.

**System** A set of interdependent parts that together make up a whole; each contributes something and receives something from the whole, which in turn is interdependent with the larger environment.

**Technology** Consists of the major techniques (together with their underlying assumptions about cause and effect) that an organisation’s employee use while engaging in organisational processes or that are programmed into the machines and other equipment.
**Training** An educational intervention typically focused, on supervisors and individual contributors that is intended to increase the skills and knowledge of the workforce.

**Values** Relatively permanent ideals (or ideas) that influence and shape the general nature of people’s behaviour.

**Visioning** a process typically initiated by key executives to define the mission of the organization and to clarify desired values for the organisation, including valued outcomes and valued organisational conditions.
# APPENDIX A: Participant List

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Case No.</th>
<th>Interview No.</th>
<th>Interview Code</th>
<th>Position</th>
<th>Department</th>
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<td></td>
<td>H2</td>
<td>Director</td>
<td>International Centre</td>
</tr>
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<td>3</td>
<td></td>
<td>H3</td>
<td>Associate Director</td>
<td>Design, Arts and Science</td>
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<td>Associate Director</td>
<td>Vocational College Department</td>
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<td>Manager</td>
<td>Human Resources</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td></td>
<td>H7</td>
<td>Director of Studies</td>
<td>Language Centre</td>
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<td></td>
<td>H8</td>
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<td>Business Training</td>
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<td>Administration</td>
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<tr>
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<td></td>
<td>G2</td>
<td>Specialist</td>
<td>International Human Resources</td>
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<td>Communications &amp; Community Education</td>
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<td>G6</td>
<td>Manager</td>
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</table>
APPENDIX B: Interview Guide

IMPACT OF A LEARNING CULTURE ON ORGANISATIONAL CHANGE

INTERVIEW GUIDE

Estimated interview time: 45 - 90 minutes

1) How does the organisation promote a culture of learning?
2) What does the organisation do to implement organisational learning?
3) How does the organisation allocate resources to organisational learning?
4) How does the organisational policy influence organisational learning?
5) How does the organisation integrate learning into policies and processes?
6) Who is the change agent in the organisation?
7) In the organisation, how does the learning process influence organisational change?
8) What are the barriers to implementing a culture of learning in support of organisational change?
9) How does the organisation evaluate the organisational learning process?
APPENDIX C: Coding Template

1. Organisational Learning
   1.1. Modes of Learning
      1.1.1. Meetings
      1.1.2. Organisational Learning Interventions
   1.2. Organisational and Individual Learning
   1.3. Organisational Learning and Change
      1.3.1. Changing Work Practices
   1.4. Organisational Learning and ICT
      1.4.1. Communication
      1.4.2. Human Resource Information Systems
   1.5. Organisational Learning and Performance
   1.6. Organisational Learning and Policy
   1.7. Training and Development
      1.7.1. Professional Development
      1.7.2. Identification of Training Needs
      1.7.3. Induction Programs
      1.7.4. Graduate and Traineeship Programs
   1.8. Learning Organisations

2. Knowledge Management
   2.1. Knowledge Management Technologies
      2.1.1. Knowledge Management Within an Intranet
         2.1.1.1. Network Drives
         2.1.1.2. Records Management
         2.1.1.3. Management Systems
      2.1.2. Knowledge Management in Online Communications
         2.1.2.1. Social Media
2.1.2.2. Online Induction Programs

2.1.2.3. Online Learning

2.2. Knowledge Management Barriers

2.3. Knowledge Transfer

2.3.1. Modes of Knowledge Transfer

2.3.2. Knowledge Transfer Across Geographic Boundaries

2.3.3. Transparency

2.3.4. Inter-departmental Knowledge Transfer

3. Organisational Change

3.1. Innovation Diffusion

3.2. Role of Knowledge Transfer

3.3. Organisational Change

3.3.1. Change Agency

3.3.2. Sources of Organisational Change

3.3.3. Strategies for Organisational Change

3.3.4. Resistance to Change

3.4. Risk Management

4. Evaluation

4.1. Performance Appraisal

4.2. Feedback

4.3. Systematic Evaluation Processes

5. Organisational Strategies

5.1. Communication Channels

5.2. Human Resource Management

5.3. Inter-organisational Partnerships

5.4. Resource Allocation for Organisational Learning

5.5. Organisational Culture

5.5.1. Culture of Learning
5.5.1.1. Challenges to Sustaining a Culture of Learning

5.5.1.1.1. Situational Awareness
5.5.1.1.2. Executive Support
5.5.1.1.3. Employee Support
5.5.1.1.4. Work Focus
5.5.1.1.5. Cultural Resistance

5.5.2. Communities of Practice

5.6. Strategic Planning
APPENDIX D: Consent Form

IMPACT OF A LEARNING CULTURE ON ORGANISATIONAL CHANGE

CONSENT FORM

The purpose of the research has been explained to and I have read and understood the information sheet given to me.

I understand that free to withdraw my participation in the research at any time, and that if do will not be subjected to any penalty or discriminatory treatment.

I understand that any information or personal details gathered in the course of this research about are confidential and that neither my name nor any other identifying information used or published without my written permission.

I understand that interviews digitally recorded.

Charles Sturt University’s Human Research Ethics Committee has approved this study. I understand that if have any complaints or concerns about this project can contact the Committee through the Executive Officer:

Executive Officer
Human Research Ethics Committee
Office of Academic Governance
Charles Sturt University
Panorama Avenue
Bathurst NSW 2795

Phone: (02) 6338 4628
Fax: (02) 6338 4194

Principal Investigator:

Mr. Saeed Sabri-Matanagh
Student
Charles Sturt University

- Master of Entrepreneurship and Innovation

Mobile: 0430 389411
Email: ssabri02@postoffice.csu.edu.au

Supervisor:

Dr. Glen Duncan
Lecturer
School of Business
Charles Sturt University

- Bachelor of Science (Honours)
- Graduate Certificate in University Learning and Teaching
- Doctor of Philosophy

Panorama Avenue,
Bathurst, NSW 2795
Ph: (02) 6338 4780
Email: glduncan@csu.edu.au

Participant’s signature: __________________________
Date: __________________________
APPENDIX E: Coding Summary

(See attached)
APPENDIX F: Node Summary

(See attached)
APPENDIX G: Peer Reviewed Conference Paper


(See attached)
APPENDIX H: Peer Reviewed Conference Paper


(See attached)
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