Chapter 2

Related Literature Review

Relevant concepts, theoretical bases, research results and conceptual models regarding the development of a model for "Learning Organization" in Human Resource Development (HRD) Department are reviewed and presented in the following topics:

Definitions of Learning Organization

Underlying Assumptions

Challenges

Theories and Principles of Learning Organization

Building Blocks of Learning Organization

Different Models of Learning Organization

Related Research Findings Abroad

Related Research Findings in Thailand

Organizational Culture

The Psychology of Thai People: Values and Behavioral Patterns

The Role of Human Resource Development (HRD)

Related Literature on Research Methodology

Definitions of "Learning Organization"

According to Younger (1993) the term "learning organization" is not widely recognized, nobody knows exactly what the concept means. Although a few companies have already claimed the label and many more are adopting characteristics of the model as it is described in business literature, most observers agree that so far the learning organization is more theory than reality. Management scholars have not yet settled on a standard definition of the term.

1. Some more definitions from various scholars and practitioners are:

A learning organization is a large body of aligned individuals whose members at all levels spontaneously learn and innovate in ways that promote the well-being and mission of the organization as defined by Kramlinger (1992).

In his article, Luthans (1998) pointed out that Argyris and Schon (1998), in **Organizational Learning,** were among the first scholars to examine learning organizations. They described organizational learning as a problem solving process involving the investigation of a group of organizational members into problems within the organization. This process of investigation results in one of three types of learning. "Single-loop learning," as described by Argyris and Schon (1998) occurs when the organization detects errors or problems and then corrects them by inventing and producing new organizational strategies. "Double-loop learning" is similar but involves inquiry into and the restructuring of organizational norms. "Deutero learning" is the process by which an organization learns how to learn.

In the decade following Argyris and Schon's work, the concept of organizational learning remained relatively obscure until Peter M. Senge, management consultant and author of **The Fifth Discipline,** and his colleagues at MIT's Center for Organizational Learning, and the management consulting firm, Innovation Associates, resurrected the idea in the late 1980s. With the 1990 publication of **The Fifth Discipline**, Senge redefined the concept of organizational learning, making it more holistic.

Luthans (1998) also shared Senge's definition of learning organization in his book **Organization Behavior.** According to Senge, in a learning organization, new and expansive patterns of thinking are nurtured, collective aspiration is set free, and the organization is continually expanding its capacity to create its future.

More recently, Peter Senge and his colleagues have examined the learning organization from a systems theory perspective and have made the important distinction between "adaptive" and "generative" learning. The simpler "adaptive" learning is only the first stage of the learning organization, adapting to environmental

changes. "Generative" learning involves creativity and innovation, going beyond just adapting to change but to being ahead of, and anticipating change.

Moreover, in his book, **Organization Behavior**, Luthans (1998) with the theoretical foundation largely provided by Argyris (double-loop learning) and Senge (generative learning), three dimensions of learning organizations can be outlined. Figure 2 shows the three major dimensions that have emerged from the literature. The presence of "tension" -- Senge calls it "creative tension" -- serves as a catalyst or motivational need to learn. This tension stems from the gap between the organization's vision and **status quo.** The "systems" characteristic of learning organizations refers to the shared vision of the employees throughout the whole organization and their openness to new ideas. The third major dimension is an organizational "culture" conducive to learning. The culture of the organization places a high value on the process of learning and goes beyond mere lip service by setting mechanisms in place for suggestions, teams, empowerment, and, most subtly, but importantly, empathy. This empathy is reflected in the genuine concern for and interest in the employee innovations that can be operationalized through reward systems.

Figure 2   Characteristics of Learning Organizations
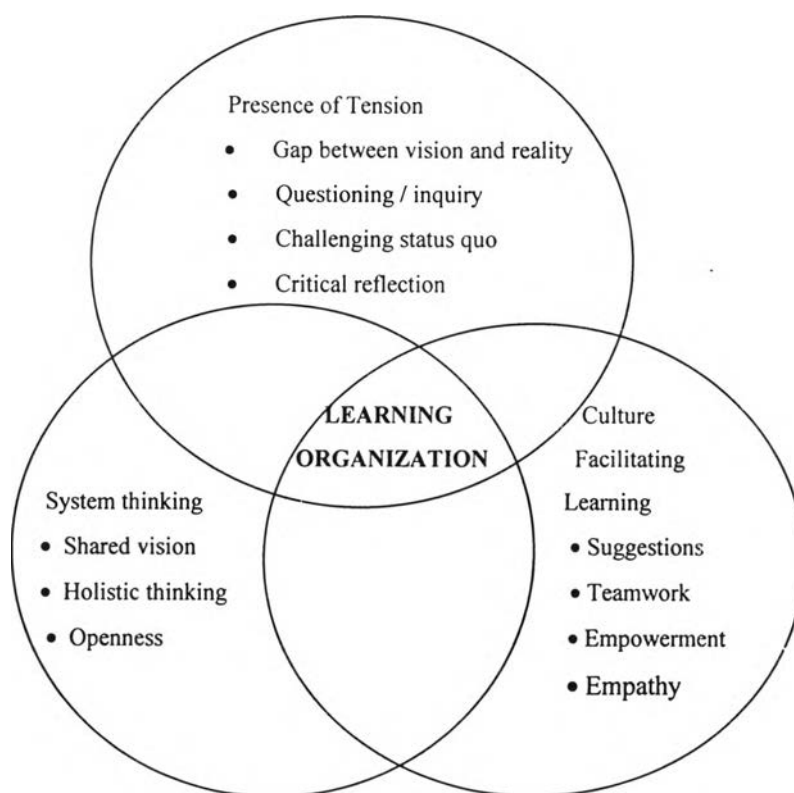
Source: Luthans, Fred . (1998). **Organizational Behavior.** 8th ed., p.45.

Slater and Narver (1995) described organizational learning as the development of new knowledge or insights that have the potential to influence behavior. Presumably, learning facilitates behavior change that leads to improved performance. All businesses competing in dynamic and turbulent environments must pursue the processes of learning, behavior change and performance improvement.

When one reviews the literature of organizational learning, the most consistent themes are :

- the need for organizations to develop a brain-like culture
- the need for learning to take place at all levels of the organization
- the importance of the organization's absorptive capacity

According to Smither, Houston, and McIntire (1996) two theorists, Michael McGill and John Slocum, organization is the process by which organizations become

aware of the qualities, patterns, and consequences of their own experiences, and develop mental models to understand those experiences. A learning organization is composed of self-aware and introspective groups that constantly scan their environments. By contrast, other organizations merely adapt. They attend only to those experiences that may redirect them toward their goals and encourage their managers to make only those changes that fit in the current structure.

Some key phrases from a sample of the many definitions in circulation of a learning organization are:

- A system capable of becoming smarter over time.
- A company that continuously improves by anticipating and creating the skills needed for future success.
- A corporation that maximizes learning opportunities by nurturing and tapping the collective wisdom of the entire workforce.
- A setting where people are constantly, spontaneously learning and applying their knowledge in order to improve the quality of goods, services, work, and life itself.
- An environment where learning is valued as the best, perhaps the only, source of competitive advantage.
- A place, ultimately, where learning has become synonymous with working.

In summary, the learning organization can be defined in two dimensions, as a process or as a product. In terms of process, organizations must change to imbed learning. In terms of product, the organization is assessed as to whether or not it has learned.

From the process dimension, a learning organization can be characterized as follows:

- It will facilitate learning for all its members and continuously transform itself.
- It connects individual learning to organizational learning.

- Members of all levels spontaneously learn and innovate.
- Organizational learning is the development of new knowledge or insights that have the potential to influence behavior.
- It is a self-aware, introspective organization that constantly scans its environment.
- It is an organization that has woven a continuous and enhanced capacity to learn, adapt and change into its culture.
- It continually expands its capacity to create the results it truly desires.
- New expansive patterns of thinking are nurtured, and collective aspiration is set free.
- The organization is continually expanding its capacity to create its future.
- An organization skilled at creating, acquiring and transferring knowledge and at modifying its behavior to reflect new knowledge and insights.

From the product dimension, a learning organization can be characterized as follows:

- It is a large body of aligned individuals whose members at all levels spontaneously learn and innovate in ways that promote the well-being and mission of the organization.
- Learning facilitates behavior change that leads to improved performance.
- Learning results in continuous improvement in areas such as work processes, products, and services, the structure and function of individual jobs, teamwork, and effective management practices. More than anything, it results in a more successful business.

Underlying the foregoing definitions are a few assumptions that have to be considered when working with the term "learning organization". The main assumptions are:

- The concept of learning is grounded in diverse streams of management history.

- Learning matters for three reasons: workforce competence, capacity for change, and competitiveness.

- Learning within the organization comes from both individuals and organizations.

- Learning comes from many small failures.

- Learning often follows a predictable set of processes.

- Learning can occur along a continuum, from superficial to substantial.

2. Types of Learning Organizations

According to Luthans (1998) Figure 3. differentiates four types of learning organizations. The "knowing organization" is the oldest model and the examples are some of the best-known companies. They are single-loop, or adaptive, and can be successful as long as their market remains relatively mature and static. "Knowing organizations" can be successful so long as they don't *need* to learn. Real learning would require managers to give up control, predictability, and efficiency, and to open the organization up to an examination of its own experience.

The "understanding" and "thinking" organizations are "mid-range" learning organizations. The true, double-loop, generative learning organization model on the far right is most distinctive in its approach to change. Whereas the others adapt to change within their existing cultural values and structure, in the double-loop, generative learning organization, changes itself and learning from the change are part of the cultural values and structure.

Figure 3 Types of Learning Organizations

	Knowing	Understanding	Thinking	Learning
Philosophy	Dedication to the one best way: • Predictable • Controlled • Efficient	Dedication to strong cultural values that guide strategy and action. Belief in the "ruling myth.	A view of business as a series of problems. If it's broke, fix it fast	Examining, enhancing, and improving every business experience, including how we experience.
Management Practices	Maintain control through rules and regulations, "by the book."	Clarify, communicate, reinforce the company culture.	Identify and isolate problems, collect data, implement solutions.	Encourage experiments, facilitate examination, promote constructive dissent, model learning, acknowledge failures.
Employees	Follow the rules; don't ask why.	Use corporate values as guides to behavior.	Enthusiastically embrace and enact programmed solutions.	Gather and use information; constructively dissent.
Customers	Must believe the company knows best.	Believe company values ensure a Positive experience.	Are considered a problem to be solved.	Are part of a teaching/learning relationship, with open, continuous dialogue.
Change	Incremental, must be a fine-tuning of "the best way."	Only within the "fueling myth."	Implemented through problem-solving programs, which are seen as panaceas.	Part of the continuous process of experience examine-hypothesize-experiment-experience.
Real-World Organization Examples	The Walt Disney Company. UPS, Toys "R" Us, Blockbuster Video, Avis, McDonald's	Bank of America, Digital Equipment, IBM, Apple, Johnson & Johnson, Procter & Gamble, Sears, GM	Foley's Department Store	Home Depot, San Diego Zoo, Sony, 3M, Wal-Mart, Heinz, Southwest Airlines, Levi Strauss, Motorola, Honda

Source: Luthans, Fred. (1998). **Organizational Behavior**. 8th ed., p.46.

3. Organizational Behavior in the Learning Organization

Luthans (1998) also explained how learning organizations are characterized by human-oriented cultural values such as these: (1) everyone can be a source of useful ideas, so personnel should be given access to any information that can be of value to them; (2) the people closest to the problem usually have the best ideas regarding how to solve it, so empowerment should be promoted throughout the structure; (3) learning flows up and down the hierarchy, managers as well as employees can benefit from it; (4) new ideas are important and should be encouraged and rewarded; and (5) mistakes should be viewed as learning opportunities. The last point of learning from failures is an especially important cultural value for people in the learning organization.

Underlying Assumptions

While debate continues about many aspects of learning organizations, some accepted assumptions have become part of a new learning paradigm which have been concluded by Ulrich, Jick and Glinow (1993).

1. Assumption 1: The concept of the learning organization is grounded in diverse streams of management history. The basic concept of organizations as learning systems can be traced to the work of Frederick Taylor and his development of scientific management in the early 1900s. Taylor's premise was that as management truths are articulated and measured, these learnings can then be transferred to other employees and thus improve the efficiency of the organization.

Further definition and refinement of the concept of the learning organization came from a number of authors who worked at Carnegie Mellon in the late 1950s and 1960s. Of particular note is the work of Herbert Simon and his colleagues on models of decision making. Simon and his colleagues highlighted the decision-making process of "satisfying," for example, choosing a minimally acceptable alternative over an optimal alternative. Work such as this provided the foundation for the study of learning that occurs through organization decision-making processes.

Another contribution to the field comes from the work of Chris Argyris and Donald Schon of Harvard University. Of particular importance is the distinction between first- and second-order learning. First-order learning involves improving the organization's capacity to achieve known objectives and is often associated with routine and behavioral learning. As this overview suggests, the study of organizational learning is not new. What is new, however, is the recent interest in how the concept of the learning organization can help managers build competitive enterprises.

2. **Assumption 2:** Learning matters. In fact, learning in organizations matters more now than in the past, for three reasons: workforce competence, capacity for change, and competitiveness. The acquisition of competence, the ability to change, and the need to be competitive are critical success factors for any public or private organization. By enlarging its capacity to learn, the organization increases its chances **Workforce competence:** Any business pays careful attention to managing its scarce resources and gives far less attention to those resources that are readily available. Traditionally, the scarce resources have been capital. At the same time, the available resources have been those related to competence--employees were easily available and accessible to meet business needs. Thus, most planning cycles emphasized capital over competence.

In recent years, workforce demands have changed in a number of ways. First, the smaller number of entrants into the workforce has severely reduced the overall availability of workforce competence. As knowledge becomes more central to competitiveness, the ability of individuals and organizations to learn becomes a primary means for winning.

Pace of change: Just as workforce competencies are changing, so are almost all other attributes of work. Globalization, higher customer expectations, greater competitive pressures, shorter cycle times/-- each signals a need to do work differently. With a more rapid pace of change, organizations that cannot adapt fall behind in technology and service, become bound by tradition, and fail.

The ability to adapt quickly stems from an ability to learn, the ability to assimilate new ideas and to transfer those ideas to action faster than a competitor.

Without this mental and physical dexterity, a firm will likely fail to recognize changing customer expectations, stay with existing product lines beyond reason, and remain unresponsive to competitors' initiatives.

In brief, learning matters, for the overall corporation's ability to compete and to create new products and services. It matters for managers who are in charged with articulating and implementing ever-evolving strategies. It matters for employees who are required to upgrade current skills or acquire new ones.

3. Assumption 3: Learning within organizations comes from both individuals and organizations. Individual learning within an organization is not the same as organizational learning. Individual learning occurs as people acquire tacit knowledge through education, experience, or experimentation. Organizational learning occurs as the systems and the cultures in the organization change, retain its learning, and transfer ideas to new individuals. This kind of learning is shared across organizational boundaries of space, time, and hierarchy. It survives the turnover of individuals. Managers who want to build learning organizations must focus on both individual and organizational learning.

4. Assumption 4: Learning can occur along a continuum from superficial to substantial. Many researches have described the difference between superficial and substantial learning. Consider what happens when a company's management attempts to create change through initiatives such as quality circles, total quality management, continuous improvement, or re-engineering. If these initiatives merely create a flurry of activity, they stay at the superficial level. When they become a means of shaping the fundamental values and culture of not only employees, but the organization as a system, they move toward substantial learning.

5. Assumption 5: Learning comes from many small failures. A regular incidence of small failures actually promotes learning. Constant success fosters restricted search, complacency, risk aversion, and homogeneity, while frequent small failures provide the variety necessary for learning to occur. Failure has a positive influence on long-term performance by increasing risk tolerance, information searching, problem recognition, information processing, and motivational adoption.

6.   Assumption 6: Learning often follows a predictable set of processes. Many authors have defined the processes, steps, or flow of learning. While the terminology may differ, the processes described are similar (Ulrich, Jick and Glinow, 1993).

Challenges

1.   Challenge 1: Urich, Jick and Glinow (1993) further discussed some of the resulting challenges. A learning organization must avoid the trap of becoming all things to all people. In essence, the concept of a learning organization has become a management Rorschach test. For example, quality consultants view the learning organization as the next venue for quality efforts. Change agents use the learning metaphor to justify their initiatives.

If the metaphor of the learning organization becomes all things to all people, it adds little value to anyone. We need to see the assessment and management of the learning organization and culture change as representing an evolution of management concepts over the last 50 years. The concept integrates, builds on, and enhances decades of management thinking. The concepts are not radical and revolutionary, but progressive and evolutionary. Figure 3 characterizes this progression as a series of steps, each built on the other.

Figure 4   Evolution of Management Thinking

90's
                                                Learning capability
                                                Learning organization
                                                Culture change
                                                Strategic unity
                                                Core competence
                                                Organizational capability
                                                Empowerment

80's
                                                Japanese management
                                                Quality circles
                                                Excellence
                                                Mission/vision/values
                                                Cycle time (competing through time)
                                                Customer service
                                                Entrepreneuring

70's
                            Strategic planning
                            Life cycles
                            Value chain
                            Zero-based budgeting
                            Matrix management
                            Participative management

60's
            Management by objectives
            Transaction analysis
            Team building
            Job enrichment

50's   T-groups
        Theory X/Theory Y
        Managerial grid
        Forecasting

Source: Ulrich, Dave, Todd Jick and Marry Ann Von Glinnow. (1993). "High-Impact Learning: Building and Diffusing Learning Capability", *Organization Dynamics,* p.58.

2. Challenge 2: Learning organization metaphors need to avoid concept clutter. When we read papers and books on learning organizations, we see a plethora of terms: learning organization, culture change, strategy implementation, core competence, organizational capability, quality, etc. The field is littered with conceptual and operational imprecisions. Some commentators use the term "learning

organization" to describe companies that have changed their cultures successfully; others use it to mean organizations that have implemented a process improvement program (e.g. re-engineering). It's difficult to use the metaphor as a basis for action when the picture conveyed is this fuzzy.

3. Challenge 3: Management actions to improve learning capability need to be identified, tested, and assessed through multiple research methods. The challenge is to design models that identify and test what managers can do to make learning happen. To date, there have been far more "thought papers" on why learning matters than empirical research on how managers can build learning capability.

Urich, Jick and Glinow (1993) concluded that multiple types of research are important to help managers develop learning capability. While individual case studies and anecdotes are and will be important to understanding learning capability, additional value will derive from empirical assessments across a large number of companies. By collecting such data, we can empirically highlight managerial decision points that are most salient of learning capability.

Theories and Principles of a "Learning Organization"

Those who write about the learning organization or about organizational learning emphasize learning as a process or product. Various theories are being classified along these two dimensions.

1. Organizational Learning as Product (Outcome)

To Watkins and Marsick (1992), a product definition of learning can also be defined by its outcomes. Learning has occurred when a learner has changed either by acquiring new knowledge, skill, or attitudes. In a product model of organizational learning, the organization has learned when it has developed better systems for error detection and correction, changed the mental models of its member of a new way of doing business; changed its organizational memory by changing some part of how it encodes memory (the management information system, the budget, policies and procedures); unlearned old ways of thinking; or has learned how to capture and encode knowledge from experience.

2. Learning as Error Detection and Correction

Watkins and Marsick (1992) discussed how learning is error detecting and correction. This was also concluded by Argyris who defined learning as that which occurs when "members of the organization act as learning agents for the organization, responding to changes in the internal and external environments of the organization by detecting and correcting errors in organizational theories in use, and embedding the results of their inquiry in private images are unclear.

Argyris and Schon (1998) are interested in improving practice over the long term by enhancing the organization's ability to detect and correct unconscious error. They believe that no one ever sets out to deliberately create error, but despite their best efforts, errors occur and often recur persistently. Argyris and Schon suggest that a gap occurs between the formulation of plans and their implementation - a gap that individuals may not see and therefore cannot eliminate. They describe this gap as the difference between espoused theories and theories-in-use. Simply put, espoused theories are what individuals or organizations say or think they do, while theories-in-use are what they actually do. One reason for the difficulty in correcting errors is that individuals and organizations do not dig deeply enough into the underlying values governing actions. This kind of deeper analysis is difficult because governing values are often taken for granted.

According to Argyris and Schon (1998), single-loop learning works well in most ordinary situations where assumptions about cause and effect are correct. Double-loop learning is needed when expected results are not achieved. At the organizational level, double loop learning involves a challenging of the assumptions, values, even the vision and mission of the organization.

Changing Mental Models

According to de Geus, (1998) "institutional learning began with the calibration of existing mental models". The only competitive advantage organizations will have is their manager's ability to learn faster, to continually revise their mental models of the world. He defines institution learning, which is the process whereby

management team changes their shared mental models of their company, their markets, and their competition.

To Shrivastava (1983) mental models are usually embodied in some way in the organization's management information system or its decision support system. Learning system and socio-cultural learning norms may explain the frequent failure of designed learning systems. To the extent that organizations have embedded norms which suppress learning, designed learning systems are often less effective.

Technology has certainly made possible extraordinary new ways for people to work together, to handle information, and to learn. Technologically based strategies are not likely to work if there is a flaw in the ability to and willingness of the organization to adapt and respond to the information generated by technology. A learning organization changes people's thinking and uses technology to create alternative futures, to connect people throughout the organization at all levels and in all places, to make information available at the point of action, and to make systemic problem solving viable. (Watkins and Marsick, 1992)

Capturing Knowledge from Experience: Organizational learning as a change in organizational memory and capacity. An emphasis on capturing knowledge gained from experience is central to the work of March (1975). Organizations learn by encoding inferences from history into routines that guide behavior. These routines are both formal (forms, rules, procedures, policies, strategies, technologies or work processes) and informal (culture, beliefs, paradigms). Changes in these routines constitute a measure of the learning of the organization. March and his colleagues suggested that a theory of organizational learning must take into account information exposure, memory and retrieval, learning incentives, beliefs structures and their micro development in organizations. Organizations, like people, learn only if information becomes sufficiently salient or relevant for them to become aware of it. They are limited in their capacity to store and retrieve information. A learning organization has to create systems which help managers test the accuracy of their assumptions about the lessons of experience. Finding ways to

both surface and capture the knowledge talent in experience is an important feature of a model of a learning organization.

3.   The Process of Designing a Learning Organization

Watkins and Marsick (1992) also addressed how learning organization can be viewed as a process. Some organizational scholars focus on learning as a continuous process, which is highly unlikely to be achievable in any sustained or transformative fashion. In their view, there are no learning organizations, but only organizations in the process of becoming learning organizations. The emphasis in these scholars' work is on the learning process, on creating a culture that supports continuous learning as learning. One such scholar of the learning organization is Peter Senge.

The Fifth Discipline by Peter Senge (1990) Director of the Systems Thinking and Organizational Learning Program at the Massachusetts Institute of Technology Sloan, School of Management, outlined five disciplines that lead to an organization with not only an adaptive capacity but also a generative capacity--the ability to both adapt and also to create alternative futures. Senge envisions an organization characterized by continuous learning and the ability to "run experiments in the margin." He suggests that the total quality movement in Japan was the first wave in building learning organizations.

Systemic thinking is critical to generative thinking. System thinking is the fifth discipline; it is the glue that holds the others together. The other four disciplines are: 1) developing personal mastery with an emphasis on clarifying a personal vision, 2) having mental models which distinguish data from assumptions and which test assumptions, 3) building shared visions, and 4) understanding the power of team learning. According to Watkins and Marsick (1992), Senge, like Argyris and Schon, emphasized metanoic learning - learning which is really a shift of mind. Senge's vision of a learning organization closely parallels that of Watkins and Marsick, (1992) authors of **Informal and Incidental Learning in the Workplace**. Unlike Senge, however, they focus their attention on the nature of continuous learning at the

individual, team, and organizational levels, on building organizational capacity to adapt and change, and are deeply interested in the implications of the learning organization for changing the nature of practice in human resource development. Senge focuses exclusively on the role of managers and leaders.

Watkins and Marsick (1992) also described another model called "The Learning Company" developed by Mike Pedler, John Burgoyne and Tom Boydell. These authors defined the learning company as "an organization which facilitates the learning of all of its members and continuously transforms itself in order to meet its strategic goals". The authors emphasize that this requires a major emphasis on training, but not training, as we now understand it. Rather, training is developmentally conceived to enhance the generic problem-solving capacity of the organization through individual and organizational self-development. Learning is viewed as the key developable and tradeable commodity of an organization. Work tasks are the primary learning vehicle. The Learning Company, the one of which learning and working are synonymous, is peopled by colleagues and companions rather than bosses, subordinates and workers; where both inside and outside are continuously searched and examined for newness—new ideas, new problems, new opportunities for learning.

The Building Blocks of A "Learning Organization"

A study was made by Joan Kremer Bennett , a training consultant from St.Paul, and Michael J. O'Brien, president of O'Brien Learning Systems, on practices that enable companies to successfully apply the principles of organization learning. From the study, they have come up with fundamental factors or building blocks that supply the action behind the rhetoric of perpetual learning. These are the preliminary benchmarks against which virtually any organization can measure its capacity to support continuous learning. To gauge its own practices, identify areas to change, and stimulate discussion about what it should continue, enhance or stop.

Bennett and O'Brien (1994) concluded 12 key factors influencing an organization's ability to learn and change. These factors are:

1. **Strategy/Vision:** An organization and its members must have a vision of where they want to go so that they can anticipate what they need to learn to get there. They must develop a broad strategy for reaching their goal so that they know if their learning is moving the organization toward their vision. Furthermore, if organization learning is to become integral to the company, the vision and strategy must support and promote it.

2. **Executive Practices:** Moving outward from that visionary core, the next building block consists of the practices of executives. What do the leaders say and do to support the vision of organizational learning? Do they hold people accountable for continuous learning and improvement? Do they inspire the rest of the organization to follow them toward the vision?

3. **Managerial Practices:** For any permanent change to occur, managers, those who support and supervise the day-to-day work of individuals and teams, must behave in accordance with the principles of continuous learning. In companies that take learning seriously, managers support their staffs' attempts to grow and develop. They help people integrate what they have learned. They also share the resulting insights and innovations with the executives, who can use this information to explore further improvements.

4. **Climate:** Supportive management practices feed into and are fed by another factor that affects continuous learning: the organization's climate. This is the sum of the values and attitudes of everyone in the organization regarding the way people are supposed to behave as they go about their business. A learning organization adopts a climate of openness and trust; people are unafraid to share their ideas and speak their minds. Barriers between managers and employees are eliminated and, ideally, everybody works together to support the collective well-being.

5. **Organization/Job Structure:** An organization's structure can support continuous learning by allowing for fluid job descriptions that respond to the changing demands of the external environment, as well as to the needs of the organization itself. Practices such as rotating assignments and using self-directed,

cross-functional work teams promote this flexibility. Bureaucratic policies and rules that inhibit or impede the flow of information must be kept to a minimum.

6. Information Flow: Learning-oriented companies use advanced technology to obtain and distribute information. Their computer systems promote easy communication among employees and ensure that all workers get company data relevant to their jobs.

7. Individual and Team Practices: Information is important in part because of its impact on individual and team practices in a learning organization. Shared knowledge can be a terrific asset. Organizations thrive when individuals and teams share learning, when they see mistakes as learning opportunities and not as reasons to blame or punish, when they take responsibility for their own learning, and when they discuss problems honestly, and work toward solutions.

8. Work Processes: This is where the rubber meets the road. An organization may encourage learning through its vision, through its information systems and so on, but does it actually incorporate the use of work processes that encourage continuous learning? For instance, does the company teach and practice some systematic problem-solving techniques? Does it promote learning from others through benchmarking studies?

9. Performance Goals/Feedback: The focal point of any business that intends to succeed must be its customers - what they want and need. Learning for the sake of learning is fruitless in the business world. The value of learning lies in its ability to help the organization better serve its customers.

To build an organization that uses learning as a tool to achieve that end, look at how well your performance goals and your performance-appraisal system support the needs of customers. Do employee goals - the things for which they are rewarded and held accountable - focus on meeting customer requirements? Do employees get regular formal and informal feedback about how well they are meeting those goals? Such feedback is critical to their learning and improvement. It must become a common practice at all levels of the organization.

10. Training/Education: Obviously, structured training and education efforts play a key role in transforming an organization's practices. Training is an

In a learning organization, formal training programs focus on helping people learn from their own and others' experience and become more creative problem solvers. Individual development-planning tools are available to everyone. In addition, powerful nontraditional forms of training such as intact-team training, study teams, demonstration projects, peer mentoring, and business-based learning projects (also known as action-reflection learning). Advanced communication technology can also provide training via satellite and computer.

11. Individual/Team Development: Learning organizations seek ways to encourage their employees to develop individually, but at the same time, they promote the development of entire teams. Organizations can learn only if teams learn collectively, forming "communities of practice" that continuously reinvents their work. Both true teamwork and individual empowerment represent radical shifts in thinking for the business world. And yet they are required of organizations that seek to enhance their learning capacity.

As the pace of change increases, businesses that require employees to wait for decisions and levels of approval will get left-behind. The only alternative is individual empowerment. Similarly, teamwork and team empowerment are essential for fully realizing the learning capacity of an organization.

12. Rewards/Recognition: The final building block supports all of the others. Reward-and-recognition-systems must support and encourage individual and organizational learning. This can take many forms, from honoring individual employees who take risks to offering a profit-sharing plan that benefits everyone when the organization learns and grows.

To facilitate these 12 key factors, an important element which must consider is leadership competencies of the leaders. The cornerstone of the successful learning organization is its ability of the leaders to create the conditions in which employees have the supporting psychodynamics and infrastructure that allows them to move from "change fragile" to "change agile" as viewed in Chawla's book, *Learning Organizations: Developings Cultures for Tomorrow's Workplace* (1995). The transformational leaders provide the critical set of conditions under which employees can unfold, transforms, grow and flourish in

uncertainty. They embody the characteristics of leaders who have a mastery of the "five disciplines" He/She is responsive to the unspoken needs of employees. In Figure 5 is a model designed by Jayme Rolls, described some of the competencies leaders need in order to manage a learning organization juxtaposed to what employees want for themselves in their work environment. Both managers and employees need to practice the five disciplines in order to create and sustain a learning organization. What employees need, requires that the leaders pay particular attention to their desire for the fulfillment - such qualities inherent in personal mastery, team learning and shared vision. For both the leader and employee personal mastery may be the most impacting, difficult and demanding challenge because this is where the greatest self evaluation and personal transformation is required. It also offers the greatest reward because it is those who have transformed who can help others through their transformation.

Figure 5 The Work of the Transformational Leader:A Model of Leadership Competencies and Followership Expectations

The FiveDisciplines	Leadersip Competencies	Followship Expectations
System Thinking	Expansionist thinking Understanding of connectivity Intution Perspective Integration	Understanding the whole
Personal Mastery	Compassion Self and other acceptance Shared power Authenticity Nurturance of spirit Moral leadership Sensitivity Humility Mastery Growth oriented Risk taking Self directed Tolerance Value ambiguity Learning commitment Trust Spirituality Ego subordination	Encouragement Acceptance Empowerment Trust Self discovery Someone worth working for dignity Autonomy Fulfilled potential Growth Supported choice Independence Space to make mistakes Supported in transition Learning Responsibility Self/other connection Ownership of results
Mental Models	Insight Introspection Challenge assumptions Innovation	Innovation Meaning Challenge assumptions
Shared Vision	Principles Personal/co. values alignment Inspiration Goals Vision Vitality Mobilize commitment	Sense of purpose Personal/co. values Alignment Motivation Clarity Co-develop vision Engagement Commitment
Team Learning	Cooperation Dialogue Listening Creativity Promote harmony Encourage relationship	Co-design Self expression Contribution Creativity Social unity relationship

Source: Chawla and John Renesch. (1995). **Learning Organization Developing Cultures for Tomorrow's Workplace.**, p.104.
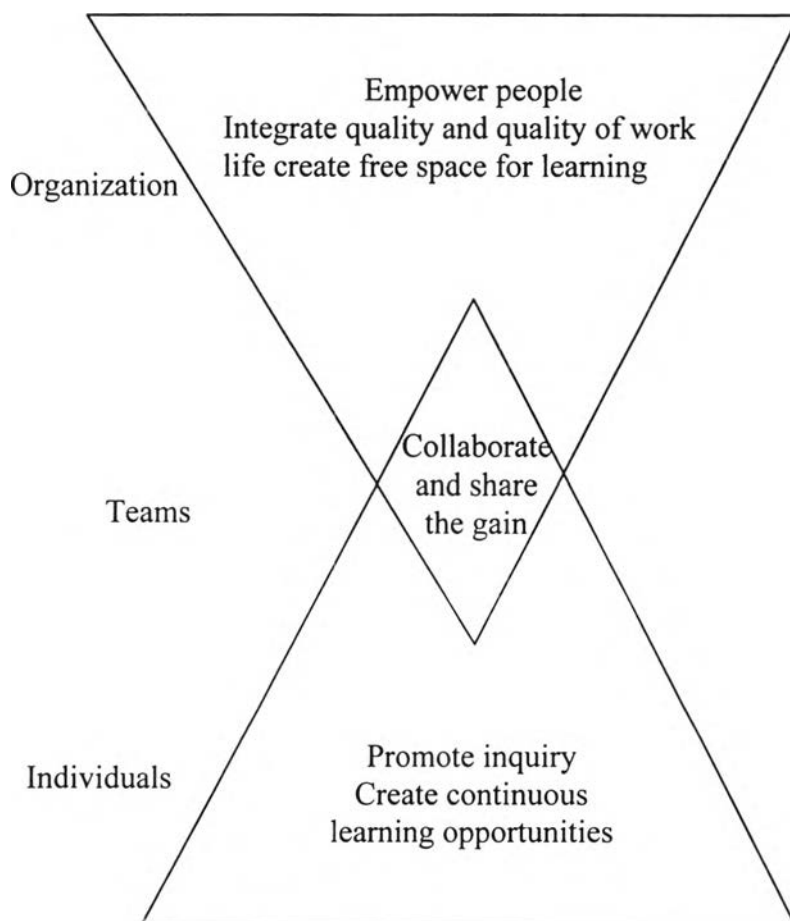
Different Models of a Learning Organization

The following are some of the models which scholars, researchers and consultants have developed.

Marquardt and Reynolds (1994) also illustrated as shown in Figure 6 Karen E. Watkins' and Victoria J. Marsick's model which captures the relationship and learning among individuals, teams, and the organization. This model illustrates a team's nature and the learning organization as the union of individuals (the lower triangle) and organizations (the upper triangle). The key to this model is the overlap. This overlap is where teams function, and it brings the benefits of learning organizations. The utilization of the combined resources and energies of the individuals, teams, and the organization is what creates the learning organization.

Models For Learning Organization

Figure 6 Learning Organization Action Imperatives

Organization

Empower people
Integrate quality and quality of work
life create free space for learning

Collaborate
and share
the gain

Teams

Individuals

Promote inquiry
Create continuous
learning opportunities

Source: Marquardt and Angus Reynolds. (1994). **The Global Learning Organization** p. 24.

Figure 7 is a model developed by Michael Pedler, J. Burgoyne, and Tom Boydell. The model contains five clusters: strategy, looking in, learning opportunities, looking out, and enabling structures. These five clusters comprise 11 features--the energetic, evolving, living aspect of learning organizations. Capturing the linear flow emphasized by arrows give rise to the fountain concept, in which flow continues up and out the top. The fountain idea also suggests feedback as the fountain's spray is returned to its basin for recycling. This model was presented by Marquardt and Reynolds (1994).

Figure 7   The Learning Company Model

The Learning Company

Enabling structures

Looking in	Looking out
Informating	Boundary scanners
Formative accounting and control	Intercompany learning
Internal exchange	
Reward flexibility	

Strategy	Learning opportunities
Learning approach to strategy	Learning climate
Participative policy making	Self-development for all
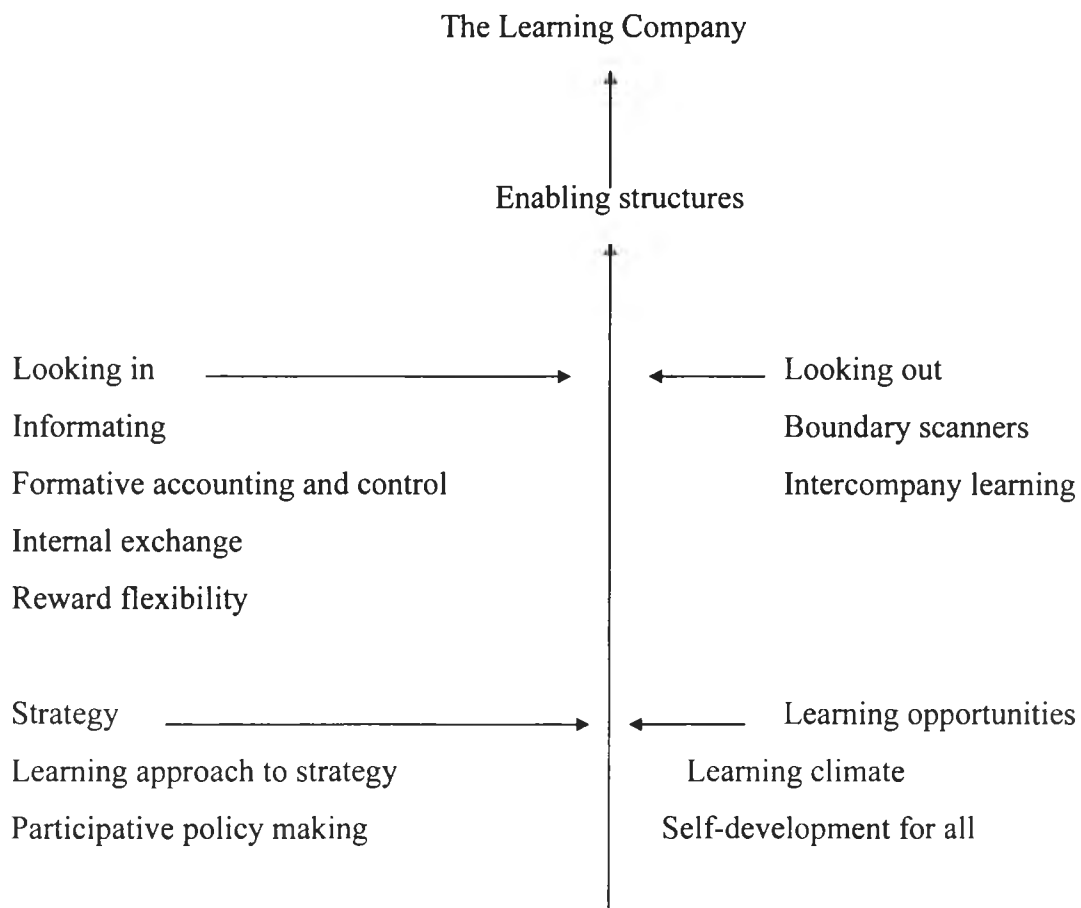
Source: Pedler, Burgoyne and Boydell. (1991). **The Global Learning Organization,** p. 24.

David Schwandt, of the Center for Organizational Learning at George Washington University, has developed a model that integrates the multiple concepts of learning and change. His systems integration model, represented here in Figure 7, Schwandt (1992) described how the interrelationships of the four learning subsystems (environmental interface, action-reflection, memory and meaning, and dissemination and diffusion) enable the organization to understand its changing internal and external environments, and thereby adapt and survive.

Figure 8   Organizational Learning System
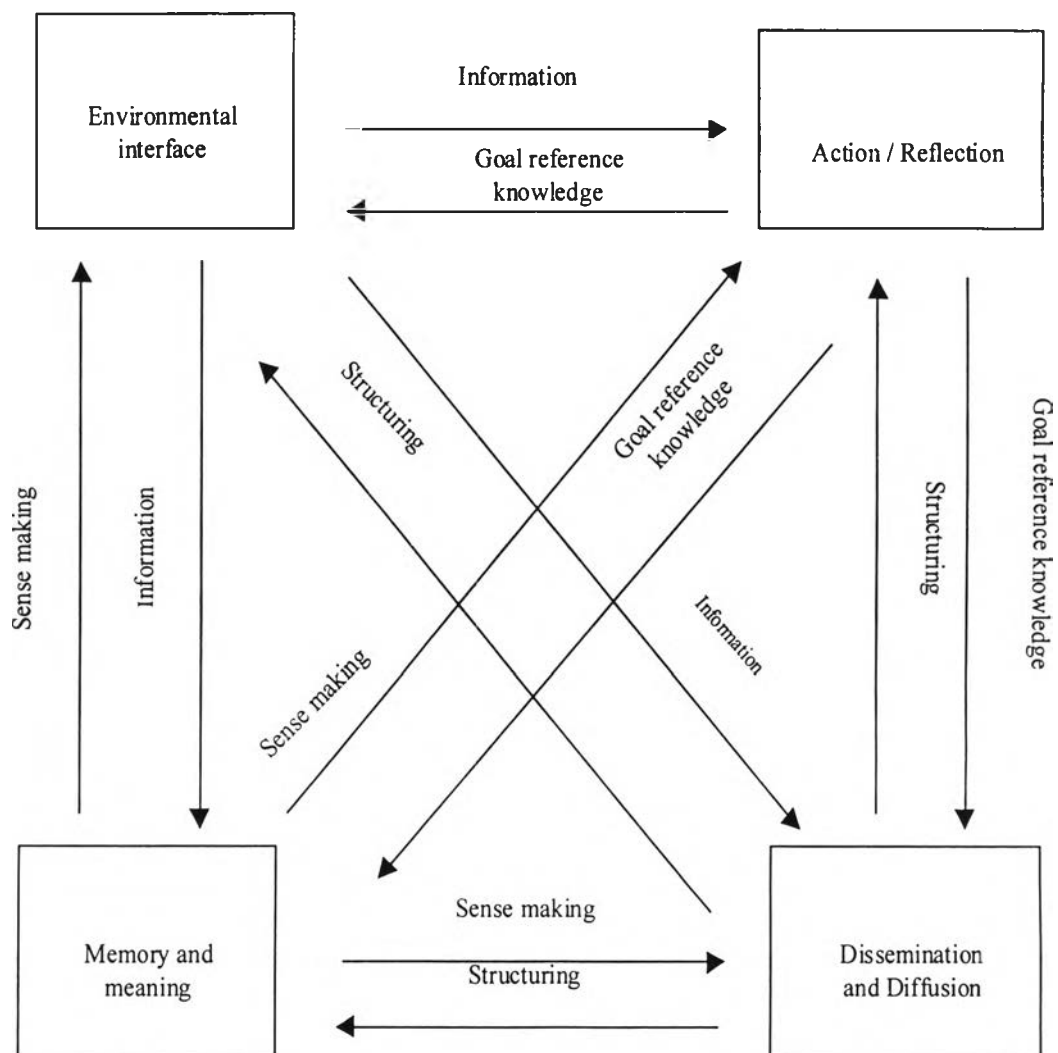
Source: Marquardt and Reynolds. (1994). **The Global Learning Organization**, p. 27.

The environmental interface sub-system serves as the information portal for organizational learning and provides the adaptation function. This function is seen in organizational actions that scan or test the environment. It also selects which inputs are to enter the organization.

The action-reflection sub-system defines the relationship between the organization's actions and the examination of those actions, thus creating valued knowledge from this new information and helping to satisfy the learning goals of the organization. Schwandt sees this function as manifested in organizational actions such as experimentation, research, evaluations, critical thinking, and problem solving.

The meaning and memory sub-system helps the learning organization make sense of its environment and experiences by creating criteria for judgment, selection, focus, and control. This sub-system sustains and creates the cultural beliefs, values, assumptions, and artifacts of the organization. It stores and makes available organizational knowledge and is illustrated in organizational actions such as reasoning processes, comparisons, policy and procedure making, and the creation of symbols reflecting organizational values.

The dissemination and diffusion sub-system coordinates and structures the elements of the learning system. It includes the acts of communication networking, technical processes of electronic data transfer, and determination of leadership roles.

Marquardt and Reynolds (1993) developed a global learning organization model that would contain and portray the important elements of learning organizations. In the model, there are 3 spheres (learning, organization, and global) as illustrated in Figure 9. The spheres hold a total of 19 elements relevant to global learning organizations. The (domestic) Learning Organization model is simply the two innermost spheres of the global one.

Figure 9 Global Learning Organization Model

Acculturization

Outer sphere
global learning

Appropriate
structures

Workforce
diversity

Vision

Corporate
learning culture
Empowerment

Borders

Teamwork
and
networking

Individual
learning

Middle sphere-
organizational
learning

Group
learning

Supportive
atmosphere

Environmental
scanning

Inner sphere-
learning (people)

Strategy
Quality

Learning
technology

Knowledge
creation and
transfer

Leadership

Globalization

Language

Source: Marquardt and Reynolds. (1994). **The Global Learning Organization,**
p. 29.

The inner sphere learning includes individual and group learning, both of which are necessary components in building the organizational learning of the middle sphere.

Individual learning is any learning acquired by an individual through the organization's human resource development system or by any other means. Examples include self-study, computer-based instruction, observation, or even insight.

Group learning is any learning by groups, teams, units, or other organizational subunits. Group learning is most often fulfilled through shared experiences.

The middle sphere, organizational learning, includes the 11 elements needed in the organization itself:

- Appropriate structures

- Corporate learning culture

- Empowerment

- Environmental scanning

- Knowledge creation and transfer

- Learning technology

- Quality

- Strategy

- Supportive atmosphere

- Teamwork and networking

- Vision

These are the elements needed to support maximum learning in learning organizations. Successful global learning organizations are not clones of one another. The differences are especially detectable in the emphasis placed on any of the various elements. Newfound emphasis on one of these elements can foster important business improvement. A clear example is quality. Improving quality will drive many other improvements throughout the organization.

Alan Meyer, a researcher, did a study of doctors that were on strike in Northern California, and developed a model showing how a hospital organization learns and characterizes the outcomes of this learning process as shown in Figure 10.

Figure 10 A Conceptual Framework for the Learning Organization

What is the
Organization's
overall approach
to its environment ?

What stimulates
Learning ?

Jolt Error Futures

Strategy → Theory of Action ← Ideology

How does it select &
attend to stimuli ?

Structure → Organizational Response ← Stack

What characterize the
system of relationships
in the organization ?

What does the
organization do in
response to the above ?

Outcomes :

What resources or capacities
does the organization have
available upon which to draw in
responding to the change ?

- Resilience

Does the organization absorb
the impact of jolts, errors ?

+ Retention +

Does the organization
retain new capacities ?

Source: Walkins Karen E., and Victoria J.Marsick. (1992). "Building the Learning Organization: A New Role for Human Resource Developers." *Studies in Continuing Education.* Vol.14, No.2, p.124.

In his research, Meyer (1982) found two kinds of outcomes to a learning event the organization would either absorb the impact of the jolt without changing, or it would retain new practices or information gained during the change experience and change as shown in Figure 9. Further, he learned that strategy and slack help an organization absorb the shock of jolts, but lead only to incremental within the same framework (first order change or single loop learning). Slack gives the organization the cushion it needs to absorb the impact while strategy leads organizations to a consistent way of framing problems. Meyer termed the outcomes of the organization's responses as either resilience (the shock was absorbed and the

organization returned to its old ways of functioning) or retention (the organization used the lessons learned in the strike to change the way it selected and interpreted information and therefore how it would act in the future).

According to Watkins and Marsick (1992), Meyer's findings helped explain why continuous learning strategies alone are not sufficient to create a learning organization. If people are learning continuously, the overall skill threshold of the organization improves, and a greater degree of slack is created in the learning system. As a result, the capability of the organization to respond to change and to act more skillfully (with total quality) improves. Yet, the organization as a whole is only doing "as before, but more." The organization must also be able to change itself fundamentally, which it can only do by changing the beliefs or mental models of its members. It is through ideology and structure that the organization is able to see new relationships and to change the framework through which the organization works. Ideology shapes the responses of the organization and structure constrains its responses. By changing the ideology and/or the structure, you can transform the organization.

Market Orientation and the "Learning Organization"

According to Slater and Narver (1995) organizational learning is the development of new knowledge or insights that have the potential to influence behavior. Presumably, learning facilitates behavior change that leads to improved performance. All businesses competing in dynamic and turbulent environments must pursue the processes of learning, behavior change, and performance improvement. The differences between adaptive and generative learning, the processes of information acquisition, information dissemination, and shared interpretation that comprise organizational learning are the basis for behavior change.

Slater and Narver (1995) in Figure 11 illustrated the organizational learning process and the boundary that constrains learning to become adaptive. They do not include behavior change as an element in the learning process, though some argue that

meaningful learning has occurred only when there is behavior change. It is possible, however, that new knowledge confirms what was already suspected or changes managerial perspectives. Consequently, behavior may not change, but may be pursued more confidently as a result of the new knowledge, or the stage may be set for some future behavior change to occur. Whether behavior change is actually part of the learning process or a separate and distinct activity is less important than recognizing that, in the long-term, behavior change is an essential link between learning and performance improvement.

Figure 11 The Process of Organizational Learning
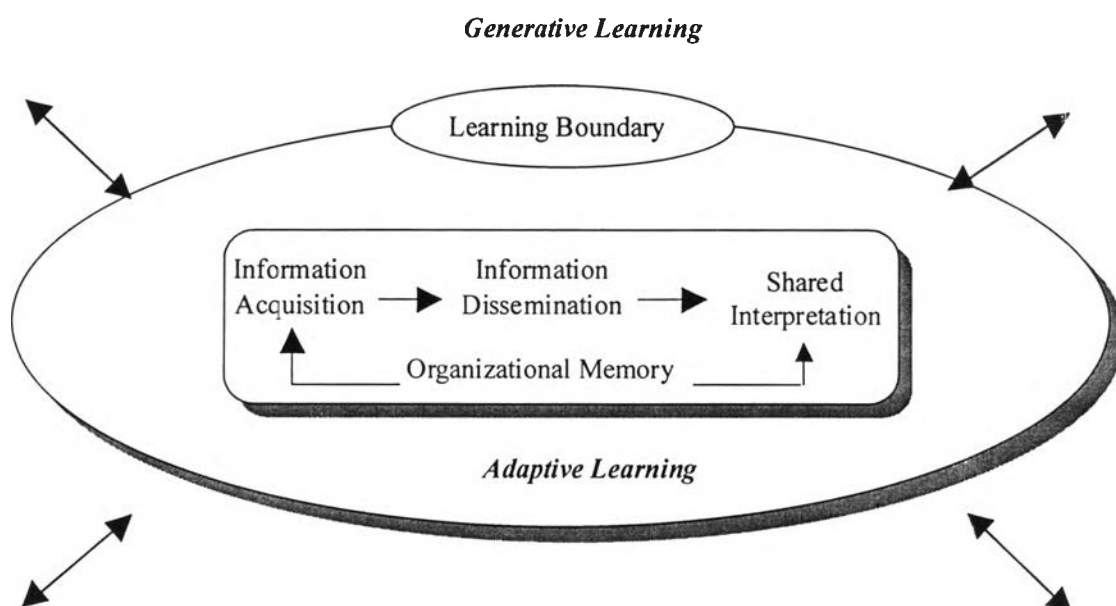
Source: Slater F. and John C. Narver, (1995). "Market Orientation and the Learning Organization", *Organization Dynamics*, p. 66.

Culture and Climate in the Learning Organization

Climate describes how the organization operated its culture, the structures and processes that facilitate the achievement of the desired behaviors. It is important for the organization's culture and climate to be complementary, because it is difficult to develop and sustain appropriate behaviors if the corresponding organizational values are not in place and, conversely, values are difficult to sustain if the appropriate

incentives and examples do not exist. Thus, there is a synergistic relationship among the elements of culture and climate that maximizes learning and its benefits.

In Figure 12 Slater and Narver (1995) also illustrated the five critical components of the learning organization. The two key elements of culture: market orientation and entepreneurship. The three elements of climate: facilitative leadership, organic and open structure, and a decentralized approach to planning have a synergistic influence on learning and performance.

Learning organizations are guided by a shared vision that focuses the energies of organizational members on creating superior value for customers. These organizations continuously acquire, process, and disseminate throughout the organization knowledge based on experience, experimentation, and information from customers, suppliers, competitors, and other sources. Through complex communication, coordination, and conflict resolution processes, these organizations reach a shared interpretation of the information, which enables them to act swiftly and decisively to exploit opportunities and defuse problems. Learning organizations are exceptional in their ability to anticipate and act on opportunities in turbulent and fragmenting markets.

Figure 12 The Learning Organization
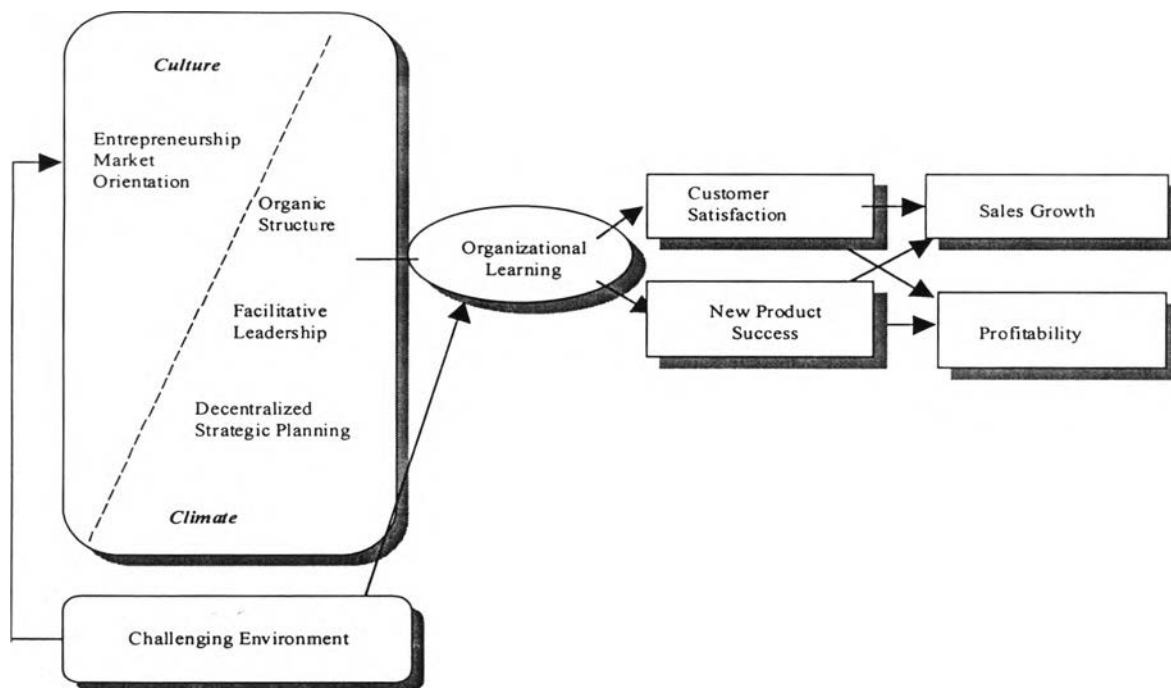
Source: Slater F. and John C. Narver, (1995). "Market Orientation and the Learning Organization", *Organization Dynamics*, p. 67.

Translating Organizational Learning Rhetoric into Reality

Sharratt and Field (1992) have been interested in exploring ways of applying the rhetoric of organizational learning, in the reality of Australian enterprises. A project was carried out in collaboration with Bill Ford and the HRD department at ICI Botany during a plant shut-down. Questionnaires were sent to respondents four weeks after they had attended the seminar.

According to respondents in the sample, one of the major barriers to applying the rhetoric of a learning organization is organizational inflexibility and lack of innovation due to conservative values. A second issue is the lack of an explicit organizational vision. It seems that having a clear organizational direction is a prerequisite to establishing a learning organization. Before employees can learn together, they need to know where they are heading. Commitment of senior managers and directors was also identified as a prerequisite to creating a learning organization.

Overall, the respondents felt that the concept of organizational learning was a worthwhile one, which had the potential to expand the roles of HRD personnel to encompass organizational development and to establish a framework within which it is possible to contribute to organizational transformation. In order to realize this potential, one of the challenges for HRD professionals is to gain a greater understanding of the concept of learning and the role it plays in organizations. For too long, training has been viewed as simply an 'input' with little interest in a holistic view of outcomes. HRD practitioners should view training and learning as integrated concepts, which are both worthy of attention. In the learning organization, the role of the HRD practitioner is to facilitate self-discovery and learning and to take on this role demands a considerable shift in thinking. The new approach focuses on producing a more flexible and adaptable individual who can think independently and cope with high levels of ambiguity as shown in Figure 13.

Figure 13   Organizational Elements That Contribute to Establishment of a Learning Organization
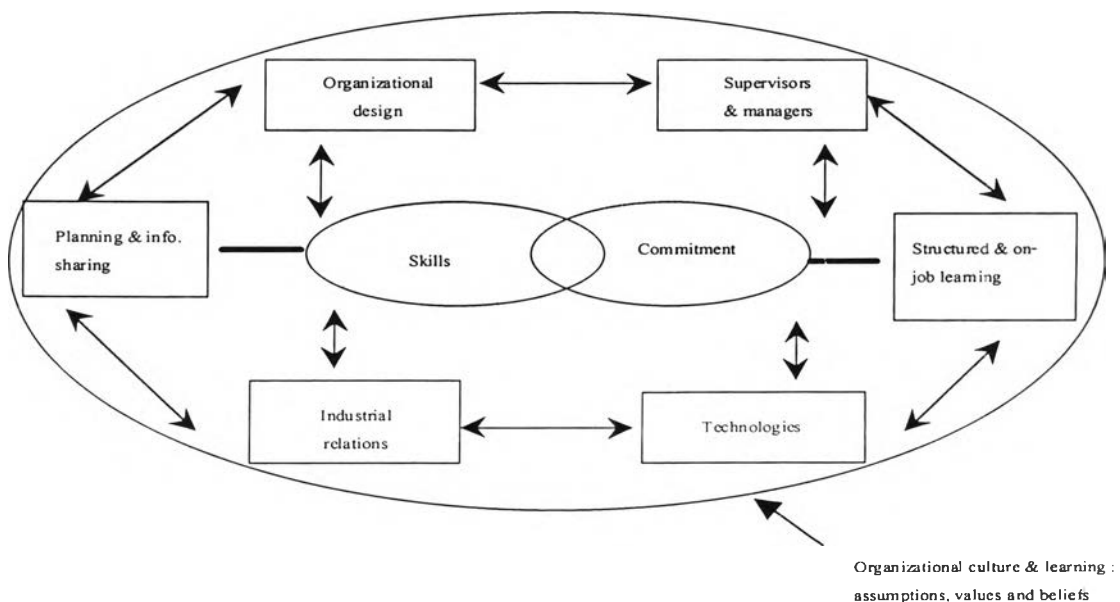
Source: Sharratt, Phil. And Laurise Field, (1992). "Organization Learning in Australia Organization", *Journal of Marketing*, July, p. 133.

The Faster Learning Organization (FLO)

Guns (1996) has developed a model called **The Faster Learning Organization (FLO).** His model showed that the ability to learn faster becomes more significant as corporations become more knowledge-based. If two 'knowledge' corporations have the same intellectual potential, the primary differentiating feature then becomes corporation can learn faster.

The first step is to develop a strategy that creates a stimulating climate for faster learning. That strategy will focus on breaking down opposition to learning within the corporation in order to compete more effectively in the marketplace.

Three different but complementary strategies are encompassed within The FLO as shown in Figure 14. They are:

- The Surge Strategy
- The Cultivate Strategy
- The Transform Strategy

The Surge Strategy is the most focused, short-term strategy. Through strategic analysis, one to three key leverage points are identified to where learning is accelerated it will allow the organization to surge ahead of the competition.

The Cultivate Strategy creates a profile of a faster learner, and then hires and develops people according to that profile.

The Transform Strategy, with the longest time horizon, focuses on a range of methods to accelerate everyone's learning in the organization. When properly implemented, the Transform Strategy creates the greatest impact on organizational learning

Figure 14   The Faster Learning Organization
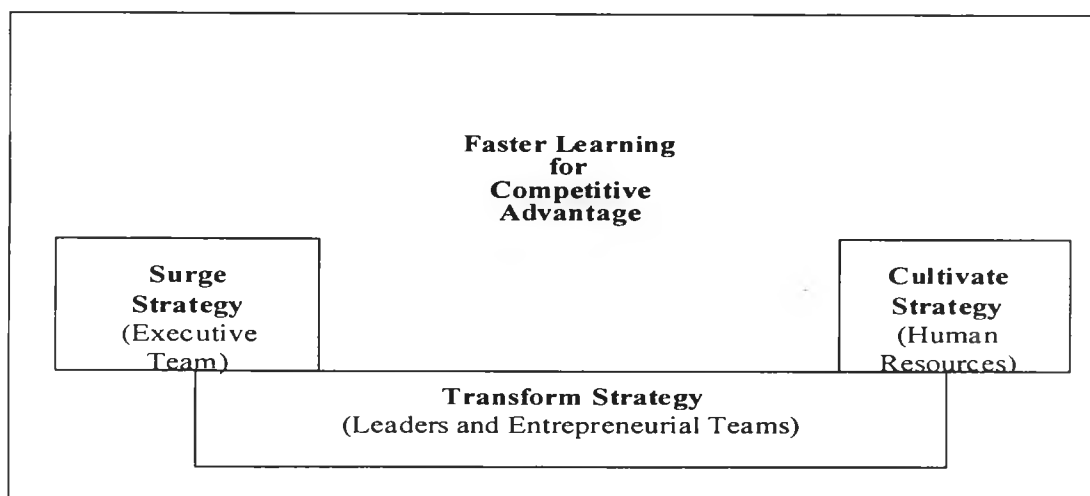

```
                    Faster Learning
                          for
                     Competitive
                     Advantage

    Surge                                    Cultivate
   Strategy                                  Strategy
  (Executive                                 (Human
    Team)                                     Resources)
              Transform Strategy
         (Leaders and Entrepreneurial Teams)
```

Source: Guns, Bob. (1996). **The Faster Learning Organization: Gain and Sustain the Competitive Edge**, p. 45

The Faster Learning Continuum

A new paradigm is the most challenging of all. It confronts a set of significant assumptions held by the people in the organization about the way business has been traditionally conducted. For example, increasing globalization and competitiveness have forced us to reconsider the traditional roles assigned to management and employees, and how power is to be distributed between them. New paradigms present change and learning of the most profound kind: learning new values, beliefs, and attitudes.

The Faster Learning Continuum suggests that if we wish to accelerate our learning, we need to move individuals, teams, departments, divisions, and our entire organizations as close as we dare to the right of the continuum as shown in Figure 15. The implication, however, is that our organizational learners will need to be open and competent enough to embrace the faster learning required of them.

Individual and team learning in organizations demands competence, reflection, and transformation that can thrive only in a faster learning atmosphere stimulated by challenging and supporting leaders and entrepreneurial teams.

However, the most critical first step in creating a faster learning organization is reawakening an interest in learning. If each person is more open, then it becomes much easier to move everybody up at least "one notch" in his or her learning development. That one notch, multiplied by all employees, represents a profound performance leap for the corporation.

Figure 15   The Faster Learning Continuum
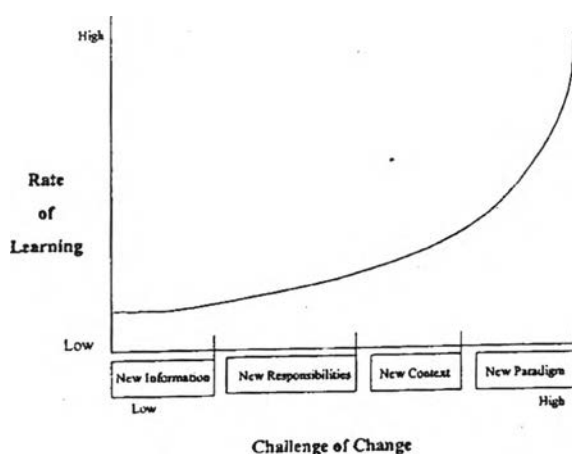
Source: Guns, Bob. (1996). **The Faster Learning Organization: Gain and Sustain the Competitive Edge**, p. 31

Besides, the "Global Learning Organization Model" Marquardt (1996) developed another model called "System Learning Organization Model"

Figure 16 shows the model, which is made up of five closely interrelated sub-systems that interface and support one another. The core sub-system of the learning organization is learning and this dimension permeates the other four sub-systems. Learning takes place at the individual, group, and organization levels. The skills (or disciplines as Peter Senge refers to them) of system thinking, mental model, personal mastery, team learning, shared vision, and dialogue are necessary to maximize organization learning.

Figure 16 System Learning Organization Model
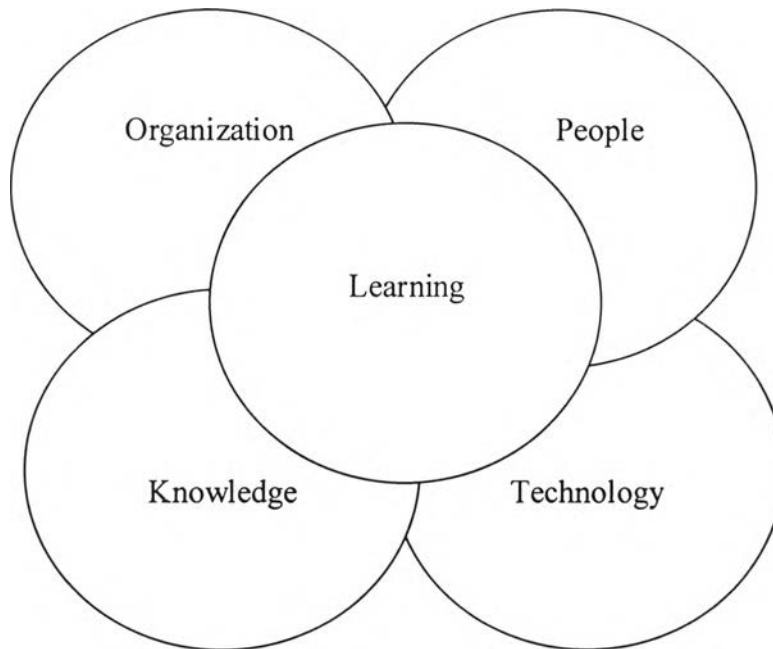
Source: Marquardt, Michael J. (1996). **Building the Learning Organization: A Systems Approach to Quantum Improvement and Global Success,** p.21.

Each of the other sub-system-organization, people, knowledge, and technology are necessary to enhance the quality and impact of the learning. They are indispensable partners for building and maintaining, learning and productivity in the learning organization. The five sub-systems are dynamically interrelated and complement each other. If any sub-systems is weak or absent, the effectiveness of the other sub-systems is significantly weekend.

Learning Sub-system: The learning sub-system refers to levels of learning, type of learning crucial for organizational learning, and critical organizational learning skills as shown in Figure 17.

Figure 17 Learning Sub-system
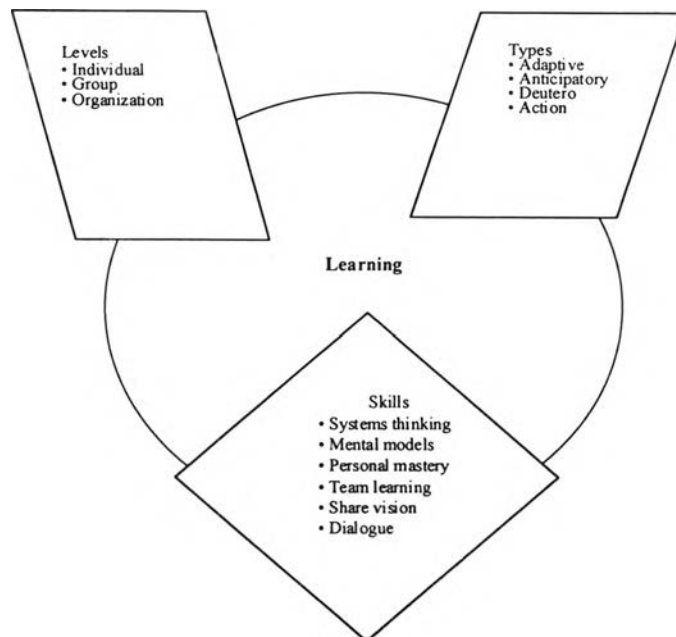
Levels
• Individual
• Group
• Organization

Types
• Adaptive
• Anticipatory
• Deutero
• Action

Learning

Skills
• Systems thinking
• Mental models
• Personal mastery
• Team learning
• Share vision
• Dialogue

Source: Marquardt, Michael J. (1996). **Building the Learning Organization: A Systems Approach to Quantum Improvement and Global Success,** p.22.
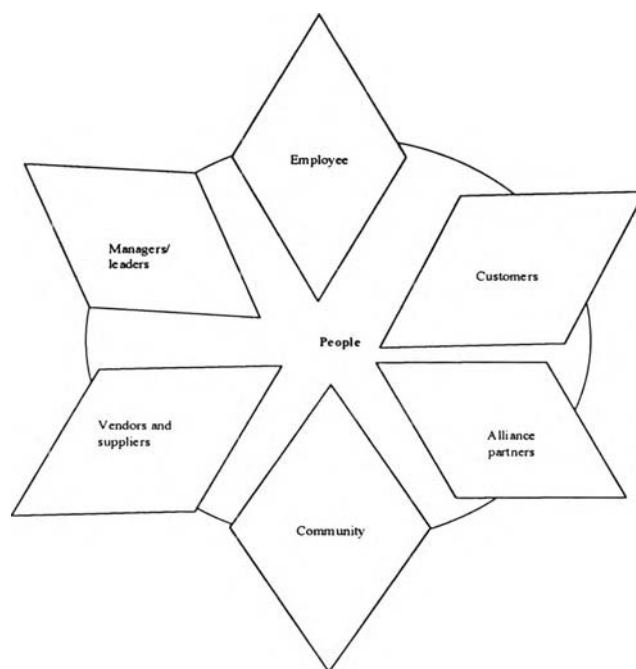
Strategies for building the learning sub-system suggested by Marquardt (1996) are:

1. Develop action learning programs throughout the organization.

2. Increase individuals' ability to learn how to learn.

3. Develop the discipline of dialogue in the organization.

4. Create career development plans for employability.

5. Establish self-development cash program.

6. Build team-learning skills.

7. Encourage and practise systems thinking.

8. Use scanning and scenario planning for anticipatory learning.

9. Encourage / expand diversity, multicultural and global mindsets and learnings.

10. Change the mental model relative to learning.

Organization Sub-system: The second sub-system of a learning organization is the organization itself, the setting and body in which the learning occurs. The four key dimensions of this sub-system are vision, culture, strategy, and structure as shown in Figure 18.

Figure 18 Organization Sub-system
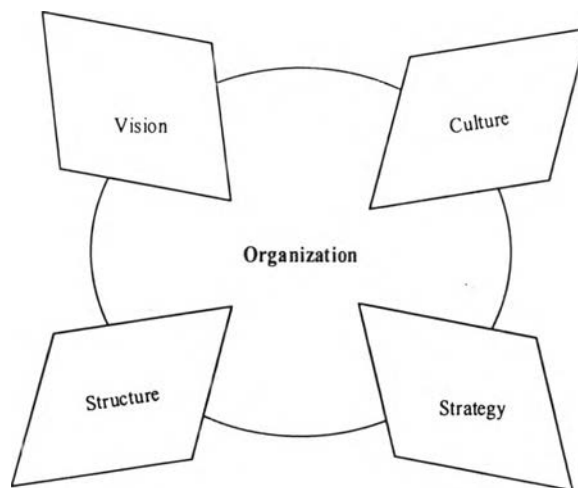
Source: Marquardt, Michael J. (1996). **Building the Learning Organization: A Systems Approach to Quantum Improvement and Global Success,** p.24.

The strategies of organizational transformation suggested by Marquardt (1996) are:

1. Hold a future search conference to develop a vision of a learning organization.
2. Gain top-level management support for becoming a learning organization and for championing learning projects.
3. Create a corporate climate for continuous learning.
4. Re-engineer policies and structures around learning.
5. Recognize and reward individual and team learning.
6. Make learning a part of all policies and procedures.
7. Establish centers of excellence and demonstration projects.
8. Use measurement of financial and non-financial areas as a learning activity.

9. Create a time, space, and physical environment for learning.

10. Make learning intentional at all times and in all locations.

People Sub-system: The people sub-system of the learning organization includes employees, managers/leaders, customers, business partners (suppliers, vendors, and subcontractors), and the community itself as shown in Figure 19. Each of these groups is valuable to the learning organization, and all need to be empowered and enabled to learn.
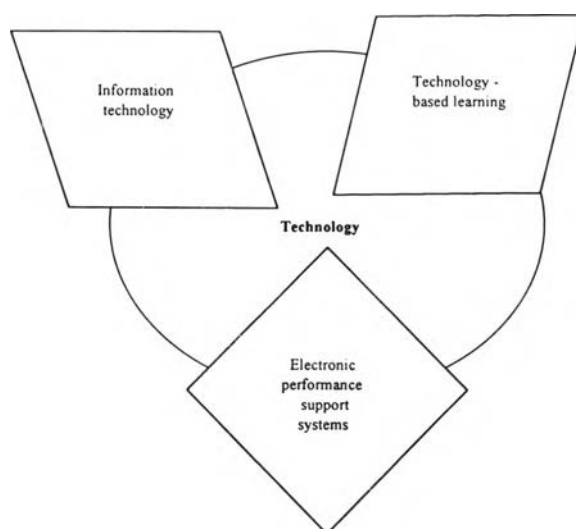
Figure 19 People Sub-system

Source: Marquardt, Michael J. (1996). **Building the Learning Organization: A Systems Approach to Quantum Improvement and Global Success,** p.25.

The strategies for people empowerment and enablement in a learning organization suggested by Marquardt (1996) are:

1. Institute personnel policies that reward learning.

2. Create self-managed work teams.

3. Empower employees to learn and produce.

4. Encourage leaders to model and demonstrate learning.

5. Invite leaders to champion learning processes and projects.

6. Balance the learning and development needs of the individual and organization.

7. Encourage and enhance customer participation in organization learning.

8. Provide education opportunities for community.

9. Build long-term learning partnerships with vendors and suppliers.

10. Maximize learning by forming alliances and joint ventures.

Knowledge Sub-system: The knowledge sub-system of a learning organization refers to the management of acquired and generated knowledge of the organization. It includes the acquisition, creation, storage, transfer, and utilization of knowledge as shown in Figure 20. Acquisition refers to the collection of existing from within and outside the organization.

Figure 20 Knowledge Sub-system
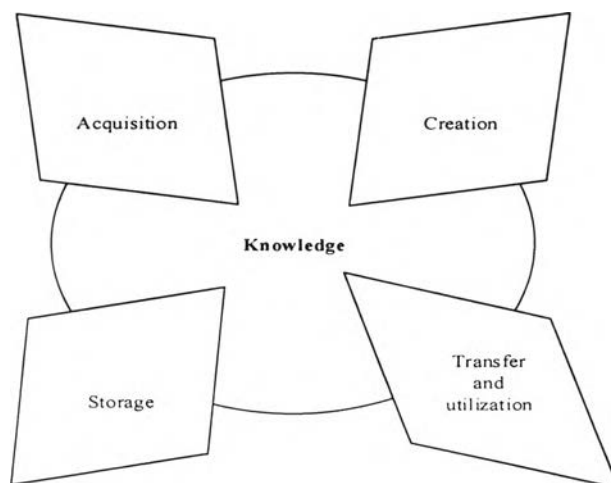
Source: Marquardt, Michael J. (1996). **Building the Learning Organization: A Systems Approach to Quantum Improvement and Global Success,** p.53.

The strategies of knowledge management suggested by Marquardt are:

1. Create the expectation that everyone is responsible for collecting and transferring knowledge.
2. Systematically capture relevant knowledge external to the organization.
3. Organize learning events within the organization to capture and share knowledge.
4. Develop creative and generative ways of thinking and learning.
5. Encourage and reward innovations and inventions.
6. Train staff in storage and retrieval of knowledge.
8. Encourage team mixing and job rotation to maximize knowledge transfer across boundaries.
9. Develop a knowledge base around the values and learning needs of the organization.
9. Create mechanisms for collecting and storing learning.
10. Transfer classroom learning to the job.

Technology Sub-system: The technology sub-system integrates technological networks and information tools that allow access to and exchange of information and learning. It includes technical processes, systems, and structure for collaboration, coaching, coordination, and other knowledge skills. It encompasses electronic tools and advanced methods for learning, such as computer conferencing, simulation, and computer supported collaboration. All these tools work to create knowledge freeways. The three major components of the technology sub-system are information technology, technology-based learning, and electronic performance support systems as shown in Figure 21.

Figure 21 Technology Sub-system

Source: Marquardt, Michael J. (1996). **Building a Learning Organization: A Systems Approach to Quantum and Global Success,** p. 27.

Strategies for technology application suggested by Marquardt (1996) are:

1. Encourage and enable all staff to connect into the information highway.
2. Develop multimedia, technology-based learning centers.
3. Create or expand interactive video instruction.
4. Use technology to capture knowledge and ideas from people within and outside the organization.
5. Acquire and develop competencies in groupware and self-learning technology.
6. Install electronic performance support systems.
7. Plan and develop a just-in-time learning system.
8. Build internal courseware technology and capability.
9. Develop awareness and appreciation of technology as a powerful tool for corporate wide learning
10. Increase technological responsibilities of management and human resources staff.

From the various models presented in Figures 6-21 some conclusions can be made as follows:

1. To develop a learning organization, learning must take place at every level: individual, group, and organizational. The overlap is where teams function. The utilization of the combined resources and energies of individuals, teams and the organization is what creates the learning organization. Learning permeates to other systems as well, such as organization, people, knowledge and technology, which interface and support one another.

2. Organizational structures, climate and strategies are the main features that support and accelerate learning in a learning culture. Its values, policies, practices, systems and structures support and accelerate learning for all employees. Learning results in continuous improvement in areas such as working processes, products and services, the structure and function of individual jobs, teamwork and effective management practices.

3. There is a focus on creativity and adaptability. Two types of learning are essential for embracing changes, adaptive and generative. Adaptive learning is learning for the purpose of adapting to what is known and what is now. Generative learning, on the other hand, is purposeful learning and changing in order to anticipate what might happen - what a customer could want. It means going beyond just fixing problems to seeking continuously. The learning organization views the unexpected as an opportunity to learn.

4. Learning organizations have a powerful, clear vision of where they are and where they are going

5. System thinking is fundamental for a learning organization.

6. Learning organizations are continually transforming themselves and growing

Related Research Findings Abroad

The researcher has reviewed dissertations and theses of researchers abroad and in Thailand. It was very beneficial to see how theories and methodologies were used in the studies of learning organizations. The data will help the author develop guidelines for further study on how a learning organization can be developed in Thailand.

Following are some of the emerging themes that researchers abroad have emphasized. They are organizational culture, organizational transformation, management perspectives, team learning and training, learning process and cross functional teams.

1. Organizational Culture

Stickney (1997) studied culture and student learning emphasizing a case study of a self-renewing school. The members of this school considered learning to be an inquiry journey which has impact on students and teachers in achieving high levels of engagement.

McAnally (1997) studied the facets of organizational culture which support or discourage the creation of a learning organization. She also studied an organization and their linkage to Senge's five disciplines. The results showed the elements which have supported the learning practices including corporate programs, mentoring, selection practices, training and development programs, individual department processes, and slowing the pace of the business. Elements which have discouraged learning include the philosophy of separateness in jobs and departments, limited resources, weak communication systems, tense times, corporate involvement, and the pace of the business.

Owens (1996) studied a learning organization and its culture. The results of the study identified the preferred culture and a theoretical model, called The Owens Maturity Discipline Model was created including measurements, boundaries,

and ways to identify learning organization movement. The Model includes the Senge (1994) deep learning cycle at its core. For a learning organization to emerge, all five disciplines must be present and organizational behavior must be demonstrated by the Covey (1989) Maturity Continuum within the dimensions of each discipline. An educational module was designed to recommend ways to change.

Future research would include a post survey yearly, after the education modules are presented, with the identification of existing and preferred cultures to see if there is movement. Future research is also needed to validate The Owens Maturity Discipline Model. Further continued efforts are needed to change Senge's theoretical (1990) Learning Organization model to one that is flexible, measurable and applicable and understandable to the business world.

Mullern and Ostergren (1995) studied how organizational learning arises and how it was affected by the institutional conditions under which the organizations work. The research strategy is based on in-depth case studies of six organizations. The organizations have recently implemented large re-orientation projects, which make up the empirical focus for studying learning. The learning culture in the municipalities is summarized as reformative-split. The learning culture in the technical consultancy firms is summarized as adaptive-unified. A major finding in the study is that the organizations from the two groups use different mechanisms for learning, both externally and internally.

Research findings from the organizational culture perspective are :
- When learning is considered to be an inquiry journey, it will help students and teachers to achieve high levels of engagement.
- The cultural elements have been linked to Peter Senge's five disciplines.
- The Owen Maturity Discipline Model included Peter Senge's deep learning organization at its core. All five disciplines must be present and organizational behavior must be demonstrated

by the Covey Maturity Continuum within the dimensions of each discipline.

- The learning culture is affected by institutional conditions.

2. Organizational Transformation

Southern (1997) studied the art of conversation in management learning emphasizing organizational transformation in the United States and China. The author concludes that a successful transformation for business and educational organizations into the 21st century will require: learning that is transformative and creates new understanding through meaningful conversation; transformative leadership which challenges and changes existing beliefs and assumptions and takes place through relationships; global relationships around the world which are grounded in communicative action; and globalizing management education.

Madden's (1994) thesis is a study of a government agency which has attempted to turn itself into a learning organization. It briefly surveys the theory of learning organization disciplines used by the agency to guide this change and describes the methodology used in this case study. The case narrative examines the background of the agency, the problems which led to its decision to attempt a transformation, the process it used, and its current situation. The study concluded that the agency has been successful in the beginning of the transformation by integrating the five disciplines. It looks at broader issues which affect all groups attempting to become learning organizations. Implications for this emerging learning organization's future are examined.

Munaker (1997) studied a path to transformation (organization behavior, chaos, systems learning, emotional intelligence). Munaker made a major corporation case study on the potential for a learning organization and applied the model, "A Path to Transformation". The experiment attempts to reconcile two accelerative learning models: Neuro Linguistic Programming (NLP) and Integrative Learning (IL).

In addition to a synthesis of wide ranging paradigms and theories, the study involves intense reflection by a practitioner who has worked as a community worker, teacher, craft union member, corporate executive, NLP trainer and organization consultant.

Hutt (1997) studied the developmental process of a learning organization in public education. He examined the socio-emotional experiences of individuals and groups working in a school district that is attempting to transform itself into a learning organization. A qualitative research approach was employed involving 34 in-depth interviews, and one focus group discussion as well as participant observation and document examination. The data are interpreted through seven themes: (1) initiatives, (2) direction, (3) relationships, (4) social skills development, (5) power, (6) discrepancies, and (7) the learning organization. These themes are integrated into a process model that has both theoretical and practical consequences both for analyzing the learning organization and for addressing the obstacles associated with its implementation.

Research findings on the organizational transformation perspective are :

- A successful transformation for business and educational organizations moving into the 21st century requires learning that is transformative and can create new understanding through meaningful conversation.
- The agency has been successful in the beginning of the transformation by integrating Peter Senge's five disciplines. A Path to Transformation model has been used to examine the learning organization.
- The seven themes of socio-emotional experiences of individuals and groups are integrated into a process model for analyzing the learning organization and addressing obstacles associated with its implementation.

3. Management Perspectives

Johnson **(1996)** did a case study of strategic planning in shared leadership, the planning process and its institutional and individual effects.

Shared leadership may be a key ingredient to the success of learning organizations in the future knowledge society. Johnson's study was to examine the processes through which organizations become learning organizations anchored in shared leadership and, in turn, the major effects on the institution and the individuals in it. Participatory action research and participant observation were methods used to guide this case study of one community college.

Lakeview Community College was a success story in sharing leadership through strategic planning. It was a learning organization with a history and environment in which people animated by leaders, invested in zig zag decision-making processes and the active participation of all members, including tone of voices. It may also be a college poised for success in the emerging knowledge economy.

Genthon (1996) studied organizational learning in financial decision processes of small independent colleges. The colleges in the study were categorized according to McGill and Slocum's typology of learning organizations : knowing, understanding, thinking, and learning. Only one of the seven was a fully functioning learning organization, although two others had made changes that could result in their becoming learning organizations.

The principal finding is that in examining the financial issues, the past is often an inhibitor of organizational learning rather than a facilitator, reinforcing inflexible decision processes, limiting the ways in which a problem can be framed, constraining actions to conform to past successes and failures, and predetermining outcomes. Organizational learning appears to be inhibited by an unexamined mission, rigid specialization, lack of flexibility, and accepting assumptions without examination. Organizational learning is enhanced by committee models of decision

making, spanning internal and external boundaries, questioning assumptions, ongoing analysis of new and old information, and a willingness to change. The president of a small, private college is a significant variable in the organizational learning process. Changes or actions are not essential for organizational learning to occur.

Hamolsky (1996) studied conceptual models and a pragmatic process for conducting reflexive supervisory dialogues in a learning organization. This paper offers one practice process and a "tool" that can be utilized within the culture of a learning organization to develop, nurture and improve the supervisors' and supervisees' experience of the supervisory relationship. The pragmatic process is a structure for conducting a Reflexive Supervisory Dialogue amongst a supervisor, a supervisee and a consultant. The "tool" is a Reflexive Supervisory Dialogue Checklist intended to guide the consultant's participation in the reflexive conversation. Reflexive supervisory dialogues are understood to represent a significant shift in the supervisory relationship. The paper concludes that this difference will encourage further reflexive conversations with the supervisory process and isomorphically among the members of a work team as well as between staff and clients.

Research findings from the management perspective are :

- Lakeview Community College was a success story in sharing leadership through strategic planning
- Organizational learning is enhanced by committee models of decision making, spanning internal and external boundaries, questioning assumptions, ongoing analysis of new and old information, and a willingness to change
- Conceptual models and dramatic processes for conducting supervisory dialogues were used to develop, nurture and improve supervisors' and supervisees' experience of the supervisory relationship

4. Team Learning and Training

Scott studied the nature of administrative team learning. The analogy of how individuals learn through structures, such as executive, long-term and short-term memories, served to identify a number of organizational or collective processes and structures used by administrative teams.

What conditions foster administrative team learning? Although fostering and inhibiting conditions are related, in that the absence of a fostering condition inhibits learning, the case studies provided evidence of additional inhibiting conditions. The lack of appropriate information inhibited systems thinking; interruptions curtailed dialogue; absence of discussion impaired the development of a shared vision; stage of career determined personal mastery; and ineffective leadership affected all dimensions. (Scott, 1997)

Mitchell (1996) studied the degree to which team training is implemented within a large corporation. The purpose of this study was to describe the transition process from the perspectives of a learning organization when moving from a hierarchical organizational structure to a working team concept in a large corporation. A further purpose was to study the impact of this change process upon the corporation's climate, culture, operating expenses, productivity, and interpersonal relationships.

The teams were observed implementing many aspects of the team training including assigning team member roles, using consensus decision making, using structures and techniques taught in the courses, using the team chartering methods, and the recommended management structure of teams. Team sponsors were having difficulty with implementing the new role of sponsor and with using empowerment. The role of the third party, an unbiased facilitator, was observed to influence the team's behaviors and growth. Team members, leaders, and sponsors stated that their interpersonal relationships and communication skills had improved through the implementation of team theory.

The observed teams are in the process of implementing the theories and practices from the team training. Sponsors are having difficulty with implementing empowerment and should be given substantial support. Facilitators are used appropriately and extensively and should be used in all teams. The teams experienced improvements in their interpersonal relationships and their communication abilities. Organizations wanting to make improvements in these areas should investigate using team learning to do so.

Research findings from team learning and training perspectives are :

- Some conditions which inhibited administrative team learning due to the lack of appropriate information which inhibited system thinking, interruptions, curtailed dialogue, absence of discussion that impaired the development of a shared vision and ineffective leadership.

- Team members, leaders and sponsors stated that their interpersonal relationships and communication skills had improved through the implementation of team theory

5. Learning Process

Barron (1997) studied the learning process of becoming a learning organization. The findings characterized a learning process consisting largely of informal dialogue supported by periods of more formal learning. Commitment to the learning organization was identified as the driving force behind the learning process (Barron, 1997).

York's (1996) dissertation showed the experience of learning through collaborative inquiry in the field group and the group of doctoral students. It also reported six eidetic themes that are common to all six groups (the core group and five field groups) that were involved in the research. These eidetic themes were developed through the two- step process cited above. The six common, or eidetic themes are: Learning was experienced as : (1) a striving for equilibrium between the individual and the group; (2) enhanced access to non-linguistic knowing; (3) empowering

process; (4) energizing; (5) a change in critical subjectivity and in critical intersubjectivity; and (6) having a boundary-free quality.

Neely (1997) studied the impact of individual and team learning styles on learning organization perceptions. The study was based upon the assumption that corporations need to become learning organizations. The study investigated the background and techniques for defining, identifying, and applying learning systems so that knowledge-skills can be best applied within the corporation. This study attempted to better understand the learning styles, as the basic learning system component, of product development process teams within a certain large U.S. corporation and answer the questions : What is the current level of learning style differentiation in the process development learning system, and what are the impacts of learning styles and their differentiation to learning organization perceptions?

Certain outcomes of the study verified and supported the basic principles from learning styles research within the organizations, such as the level of learning organization perception of the larger organization within a particular functional or cross-functional unit. The comparisons of certain individual and team learning styles and respective perceptions of the larger organization as a learning organization, highlighted the gaps between reality and vision.

Castleberg (1994) studied organizational learning and process skills: a look at the importance of self-directed learning, collaborative learning, critical thinking, and systemic thinking in the work environment. In this study, the primary barriers to learning process fell under the categories of fear, lack of meaning, and structure. It was found that the participants used these process skills, especially the modes of inquiry, in contexts outside of work but found it much more difficult to use them in their jobs.

Research findings from the learning process perspective are :

- Learning process consists of informal dialogue supported by periods of more formal learning
- Participants used skills, especially the modes of inquiry, in

context outside of work but found it more difficult to use them in their jobs.

Related Research Findings in Thailand

1. Learning Process

Sangjan (1997) studied the concept and the approach of enhancing self-directed learning for the development of human resources in an organization: a case study of the Siam Commerical Bank Co., Ltd. (Public). The results suggested that self-directed learning is suitable for those who are mature and have self-discipline; however, it may not be appropriate for Thai people who are familiar with traditional training in which learners take passive roles. Moreover, the success of SDL depends on self-motivation, knowledge of how to learn, and the availability of knowledge sources.

2. Cross Functional Team Approach

Chotinucht (1997) studied the development of a learning organization through the cross-functional team approach. The research findings show that the concept of a cross-functional team is beneficial and supportive to the learning organization.

Summary: related research findings from abroad show that to transform an organization to a learning organization requires necessary elements such as team learning and training as well as leadership. Peter Senge's five core disciplines are the important elements which help to develop a learning organization culture. Related research findings from Thailand show that a cross-functional team approach is beneficial and supportive to a learning organization whereas self-directed learning is suitable for those who are mature and have self-discipline. The researcher suggested that self-directed learning may be difficult for learners since they are familiar with the traditional method of passive learning.

The main point of what a learning organization should include is the basic assumptions necessary for the understanding of the concept followed by main theories and principles and some related research findings from Thailand and abroad. In addition, to develop a learning organization model for Thai organizations, a review of Thai national culture and values will be beneficial. Following are the findings from a research survey by Dr. Suntaree Komin from the Research Center of Institute and Development of Administration.

Organizational Culture

Organizational culture according to Schermerhorn, et., al (1997) is system of shared actions, values, and beliefs that develops within an organization and guides the behavior of its members. In the business setting the system is often referred to as the corporate culture. Management scholars and consultants increasingly believe that cultural differences can have a major impact on the performance of organizations and the quality of work like experienced by their members.

In the process of helping to create a mutual understanding of organizational life, organizational culture fulfills four basic functions as suggested by Wagner III and Hollenbeck (1998) First, it gives members an organizational identity. Sharing norms, values, and perceptions give people a sense of togetherness that helps promote a feeling of common purpose. Second, it facilitates collective commitment. The common purpose that grows out of a shared culture tends to elicit strong commitment from all those who accept the culture as their own. Third, it promotes organizational stability. By nurturing a shared sense of identity and commitment, culture encourages lasting integration and cooperation among the members of an organization. Fourth, it shapes behavior by helping members make sense of their surroundings. An organization's culture serves as a source of shared meanings to explain why things occur the way they do. By performing these four basic functions, the culture of an organization serves as a sort of social glue that helps reinforce persistent, coordinated behaviors at work.

When people join an organization, they bring with them the values and beliefs they have been taught. Quite often, however, these values and beliefs are insufficient for helping the individual succeed in the organization. The person needs to learn how the particular enterprise does things

Edgar Schein defined organization culture (1992) as a pattern of basic assumptions—invented, discovered, or developed by a given group as it learns to cope with its problems of external adaptation and internal intergration- that has worked well enough to be considered valuable and, therefore, to be taught to new members as the correct way to perceive, think, and feel in relation to those problem.

Organizational Culture has a number of important characteristics as suggested by Luthans. The following are:

1. *Observed behavioral regularities.* When organizational participants interact with one another, they use common language, terminology, and rituals related to deference and demeanor.

2. *Norms.* Standards of behavior exist, including guidelines on how much work to do, which in many organizations come down to "Do not do too much; do not do too little."

3. *Dominant values.* There are major values that the organization advocates and expects the participants to share. Typical examples are high product quality, low absenteeism, and high efficiency.

4. *Philosophy.* There are policies that set forth the organization's beliefs about how employees and/or customers are to be treated.

5. *Rules.* There are strict guidelines related to getting along in the organization. Newcomers must learn those "ropes" in order to be accepted as full-fledged members of the group.

6. *Organizational climate.* This is an overall "feeling" that is conveyed by the physical layout, the way participants interact, and the way members of the organization conduct themselves with customers or other outsiders.

Earlier, it was mentioned how cultural differences may impede significantly on organizational performance and the quality of the worklife of employees, indeed, it can be said that the organizational culture of a company is often reflected in the cultural values and beliefs of its people.

Therefore, in developing a learning organization model for Thai organizations, it is of importance to recognize elements of corporate culture pertinent in most Thai organizations nowadays. Through the study of the Psychology of Thai people, the concept of culture may be more easily understood.

Psychology of the Thai People

1. National Character in Nine Value Clusters

According to Komin (1990), author of **Psychology of The Thai People: Values and Behavioral Patterns**, the concept of values, more than any other, is the core concept across all social sciences. It is the main dependent variable in the study of culture, society, and personality, and the main independent variable in the study of social attitudes and behavior. It is an important concept, because many disciplines find it necessary to invent it for use, when coming to grips with the cognitive behavior of man, with man as a social actor and decision maker, with the ways in which man is molded by his culture and its social institution, and more widely, with the distinctive characteristics of societies or cultures. It is therefore imperative to be clear on all concepts involved in the present study of Thai value systems and behavior patterns in order to have a better understanding of Thai culture and personality.

Komin (1990) further explained that the grouping of value clusters for explaining the Thai national character is based on instrumental values - - the common means for the relatively varying goals, due to its nature as well as its findings. Logically, different cultures may have subtly different socialized means to attain goals. Therefore, the findings of Thai instrumental values should be able to reveal the culturally learned patterns of social interactions, whereby Thai people learn to use them to survive and function effectively in Thai society. Together with in-depth

studies, research data lend support to the overall picture that the Thai social system is first and foremost a hierarchically structured society where individualism and interpersonal relationships are of utmost importance.

Komin (1990) described nine value clusters according to their relative significant positions in the Thai cognitive system. They are:

(1) Ego orientation

(2) Grateful relationship orientation

(3) Smooth interpersonal relationship orientation

(4) Flexibility and adjustment orientation

(5) Religio-psychical orientation

(6) Education and competence orientation

(7) Interdependence orientation

(8) Fun - pleasure orientation

(9) Achievement - task orientation

(1) Ego Orientation: Thai people have a very big ego, a deep sense of independence, pride and dignity. They cannot tolerate any violation of the "ego" self. Despite the cool and calm front, they can be easily provoked to strong emotional reactions, if the "self" or anybody close to the "self" such as one's father or mother is insulted. This "ego" orientation is the root value underlying various key values of the Thais, such as "face-saving", "avoidance", and the **kreng jai** attitude which roughly means "feeling considerate for another person, not wanting to impose or cause the other person trouble, or hurt his/her feelings". The "face" is identical with "ego" and is very sensitive. Since Thais put tremendous emphasis on " face" and "ego", preserving one another's "ego" is the basic rule of all Thai interactions both on the continuum of familiarity-unfamilarity, and the continuum of superior- inferior, with difference only in degree. Even a superior would also observe not to be taken for granted. They intuitively observe this root of interpersonal social rules. Each knows his appropriate role, appropriate means to handle interactions when roles come into contact, and how far one can go.

(2) Grateful Relationship Orientation: Reciprocity of kindness, particularly the value of **gratefulness** is a highly valued characteristic trait in Thai society. The Thai are brought up to value this process of gratefulness -- the process of reciprocity of goodness done, and the ever-readiness to *reciprocate*. Time and distance are not factors to diminish the **bunkhun**. It is an important base for relationship. In general, having high value for sincere and meaningful relationships as a base, followed by those social smoothing interpersonal relation values, one can say that Thai relationships are usually a presentation of sincerity. Deep and long-term relationships result from a process of gradual reciprocal rendering and returning of goodness and favors, through successful experiences of interpersonal interactions. In fact, Thai people make friends easily. Deep friendship is not difficult to develop, even across hierarchies and culture, provided that their "ego" is not slighted in the process of be friending (Komin, 1990).

(3) Smooth Interpersonal Relationship Orientation: Unlike the Americans whose top values tend to focus on self-actualization, ambition and achievement, down-playing such values of self-control and politeness, the Thai, place a high value on a group of "other-directed" social interaction values—all added up to project a picture of smooth, kind, pleasant, no-conflict interpersonal interactions. In short, it is the "surface harmony" as observed by many. This orientation is characterized by the preference for a non-assertive, polite and humble type of personality (expressed through appearance, manners, and interpersonal approach), as well as the preference for a relaxed and pleasant interaction which accounts for the "smiling" and "friendly" aspects of the Thai people which fascinates most foreign visitors.

(4) Flexibility and Adjustment Orientation - Besides ego and smooth interpersonal relation values, the Thais are flexible and situation oriented. Because of this value, it is not surprising to find a "decision shifting" behavioral pattern quite common for the Thais, such as vote switching, position switching, or even switching of principles.

It is always the "person" and the "situation", over the principles and system. Principles, rules, policies, and even agreements might not be upheld when weighed against personal relations. Instead they are dispensable and can be overruled by self and group interest.

In general, this "flexibility adjustment" value orientation has perhaps accounted for the various interpretations of the Thai being "unpredictable", "non-committing", "irresponsible" or even "selfish" and "opportunistic" by foreigners.

(5) Religio-Psychical Orientation: Theravada Buddhism, the religion professed by 95% of the total population, undoubtedly has directly or indirectly exerted a strong influence on Thai people's everyday lives. As revealed from the data, it seems that Buddhism serves a psychological function for Thais more than anything. It basically provides a psychological cushion, whether in its function of explaining the "how and why" things happen like in the usage of karma as after-event justification, or in its function of providing a 'road map' to cope with one's social environment for one's social and psychological survival, or in its function of providing salvation as a "way out " of trouble (in times of crisis)- - be it the notion of heavenly reward or a means to escape an unpleasant supernatural assistance.

(6) Education and Competence Orientation: With respect to the value of education and its related values, the findings of the Thai Value studies revealed that education and competence values receive a medium level of importance. Knowledge for knowledge's sake value does not receive high value in the cognition of Thais in general. Education has been perceived more as a "means" of climbing up the social ladder. In her study, Komin (1990) indicates that Thai people value and give importance to form more than content or substance.

(7) Interdependence Orientation: This value orientation reflects more the community collaboration spirit, and in a sense, the value of co-existence and interdependence. The findings of the Thai Value study, has helped shed some light on the long-time dispute over the "loosely-structured" model of Thai society, especially those analyses that applied to the rural closely systems. Cooperation in rice

agriculture by members is nothing new in Thailand. This is succinctly reflected through the value priorities of the rural Thai, where the two highest discrepancy values that distinguish the rural Thai from the urban Thai are the religious values and the community-oriented values of **Brotherhood spirit** in helping one another and for being **Interdependent and mutually helpful.**

(8) **Fun and Pleasure Orientation:** This can be looked at and explained from two aspects: the abhorance of hardwork, and the fun-leisure and "smiling" aspects. As far as the avoidence of work is concerned, research data shows that the private sector and the lower class works hard, and rank work over fun and pleasure. It is Bangkokians and particularly government officials who prefer havong fun over work, and are generally known to be very lax and inefficient in job performance. As for the fun-leisure and "smiling" aspect, it can be explained as resulting from maintaining a pleasant and smooth face-to-face interpersonal interaction, which is a higher value. Most Thai social interactions are pleasant, light, possibly superficial, yet fun and humorous in nature. Joyful behaviors can be observed at any Thai party, usually characterized by small talk, gossip, jokes, teasing one another, making fun of all kinds of non-personal inconsequential things and events, including playing with words, using puns and kham phuan (spoonerisms for taboo words), etc. in a clever, humorous and amusing fashion. Besides these essential mechanisms of the so-called "social cosmetics" which are so deeply rooted that they appear as a genuine presentation to project the "smiling" image, it is also a projection of the basic inclination of being kind, generous, sympathetic towards other human beings, strangers and foreigners included.

(9) **Achievement - Task Orientation:** Komin (1990) concluded that the task achievement value is usually inhibited by social relationship values. While submissiveness and good relations, with or without work, has always paid off, a task which is seen as a threat or without submissive relations to superiors, does not lead to success in life. In the Thai cultural context, achievement in the Western sense would not fit. Nor would those management theories that have no place for a culture of larger power distance with strong social relations.

2. Cultural Relativity and Management Theories

In the study, Komin (1990) pointed out that the significant implication of the Thai Value Systems finding is that it supports the latest theoretical development in the field of Organizational Behavior (Handbook of Organizational Behavior, 1987) which introduces the concept of "national culture" and its influences on organizational culture and work-related behaviors. As a result of the cultural value study there are some general implications of Thai value systems for the motivation and management of Thai employees. The Thai value systems which function like the "cognitive blueprints" of the motivational patterns of the Thai people in general, also display motivational behavioral patterns in organizations in particular. Although the contingency philosophy in the field of organizational behavior is the ultimate dictum for practitioners, and that there is no instant recipe for management, it is possible to deduce some broad implications for supervisory behaviors that could be directed toward motivating and managing workers, in terms of what would and would not be in congruence with the existing value systems.

(1) As a culture which values "ego" and "face", straightforward negative performance feedback, strong criticisms, and face-to-face confrontation techniques should be avoided. When necessary, indirect means are used. "Face-saving" is a key criteria in handling all person-related decisions, particularly negative ones. And compromise is often used as an effective means to save face, and to keep the "surface harmony", even at the expense of some task or organizational progress.

(2) Thai employees can be motivated to work devotedly for leaders they like and respect. Reasonable authority and special priviledges are accepted. An impersonal, cut-and-dry type of system-oriented managerial style is not as effective as the benevolent paternalistic leadership style. Straightforward, ambitious and aggressive personalities, although highly capable, are not tolerated and are hardly ever successful. But a personal approach with a "soft" and polite approach often guarantees cooperation. A participative model of management should be selectively used where truly appropriate, because although democracy is an attractive legitimate "form", the substance of democracy is still lacking in the basic value systems of the Thai.

(3)   As a culture loosely committed to any ideology, any new system approach or new organizational culture (a system of shared meaning among organizational members) can be indoctrinated, but not without a relation-oriented leadership style, and not overlooking the above two general guiding implications. As a result of looking at the motivational process in Thai organizations from a cultural value systems perspective, inevitably one comes to the issue of cultural relativity. To what extent do American management theories reflect American cultural boundaries? Are they truly universally valid, as is mostly assumed? As people's values and belief systems are culturally conditioned, likewise, authors of theories are no exception: theories reflect to some extent the cultural environment in which they are written. Thus, theories by American theorists would reflect American culture, theories by Italian theorists would reflect Italian culture, and so on.

3. Hofstede's Cultural Dimensions

Geert Hofstede, a well known Dutch researcher did an organizationally-based study by sending out questionnaires to 116,000 IBM employees in 70 countries. From this data, published in 1980, he identified four major cultural dimensions: individual collectivism, power distance, uncertainty avoidance, and masculinity femininity.

Individualism / Collectivism and Power Distance. Individualism is the tendency to take care of oneself and make immediate furiously. Collectivism is characterized by a light social framework in which people distinguish between their own group and other groups. Power distance is the degree to which employees accept that their boss has more power than they do (Luthan, 1998).

In general, Hofstede found that wealthy countries have higher individualism scores and poorer countries have higher collectivism scores. The collectivism cultural dimension would be more compatible with the new emphasis on teams in the workplace. However small power distance cultures may be compatible with newly emerging decentralization , flat structures, and empowerment dimensions of today's organizations .

Uncertainty Avoidance

Uncertainty avoidance is the extent to which people feel threatened by ambiguous situations and the degree to which they try to avoid those situations by doing such things as

- Providing greater career stability
- Establishing more formal rulers
- Rejecting deviant ideas and behavior
- Accepting the possibility of absolute truths and attainment of experience.

Countries which have weak uncertainty avoidance and small power distance tend to have less hierarchy and more interaction between people. Risk-taking is both expected and encouraged. Employees in countries which have large power distance and weak uncertainty avoidance tend to treat their organizations as traditional families. Employees in countries that have small power distance but strong uncertainty avoidance tend to work in organizations that are highly predictable without needing a strong hierarchy. Roles and procedures are clearly defined in these cultures.

Masculinity / Femininity

According to Hofstede (Luthan, 1998), masculinity is the extent to which the dominant values of a society emphasize assertiveness and the acquisition of money and other material things. Femininity is the extent to which the dominant values in a society emphasize relationships among people, concern for others, and interest in quality of work life.

4. Trompenaar's Cultural Dimensions

Fons Trompenaars, another Dutch researcher has identified five cultural dimensions from extensive data on how people deal with each other.

- **Universalism versus Particularism**

Trompenaars defined universalism as the belief that ideas and practices can be applied everywhere without modification while particularism is the belief that circumstances dictate how ideas and practices should be applied. Highly universalist cultures would emphasize and be guided by strict formal rules. On the other hand, highly particularistic cultures focus more on personal relationships and trust rather than on formal rules and legal contracts. Attitudes and style of management would be quite different in these two types of cultures. Universalists would tend to have a "let's get down to business" attitude and not deviate from the rules and regulations while particularists would tend to engage in a lot of small talk to get to know one another and let the situation dictate their actions. Particularists would be flexible and not let the rules get in the way of what is the right thing to do between friends.

- **Individualism versus Collectivism**

To Trompenaars, individualism refers to how much people regard themselves as part of a group. Although, these two dimensions have the same basic meaning as those of Hofstede, theory and measurement are different. The implications that these dimensions have for cross-cultural analysis would be in areas such as reward system, decision making, and work design.

- **Neutral versus Affective**

Trompenaars explained that in a neutral culture, emotions are held in check and not outwardly expressed. However in affective cultures, emotions are openly expressed.

- **Specific versus Diffuse**

By a specific culture, Trompenaars means one in which individuals have a large public space they readily let others enter and share, and a small private space they guard closely and share only with close friends and associates. A diffuse

culture is one in which both public and private spaces are similar in size and individuals guard their public space carefully, because entry into public space affords entry into private space as well. Individuals in diffuse cultures often appear to be indirect and introverted and work and private life are often closely linked.

Trompenaars further explained that in diffuse cultures, outsiders should respect a person's title, age and background connections, and should not get impatient when people from the diffuse culture are being indirect or circuitous. When dealing with individuals from specific cultures, outsiders should try to get to the point and be efficient, learn to structure things and minimize the use of titles and play down achievements or skills that are irrelevant to the situation.

Achievement versus Ascription

Achievement culture as defined by Trompenaars is one in which people are accorded status based on how well they perform their functions. An ascription culture is one in which status is attributed based on who or what a person is. Achievement cultures give high status to high achievers. Ascription cultures accord status based on age, gender, or social connections.

Figures 22-24 show the different dimensions of cultural similarities and differences found in countries around the world provided by Hofstede and Trompenaars.

By definitions given by Hofstede, Thailand is identified as collectivist, large power distance and strong uncertainty avoidance (pyramid of people) and a feminine culture. Figures 25 according to Trompenaar's research findings, Thailand is classified as particularistic, collectivistic, neutral, diffuse and ascription cultured.

Figure 22　The Position of Selected Countries on Power Distance and Individualism
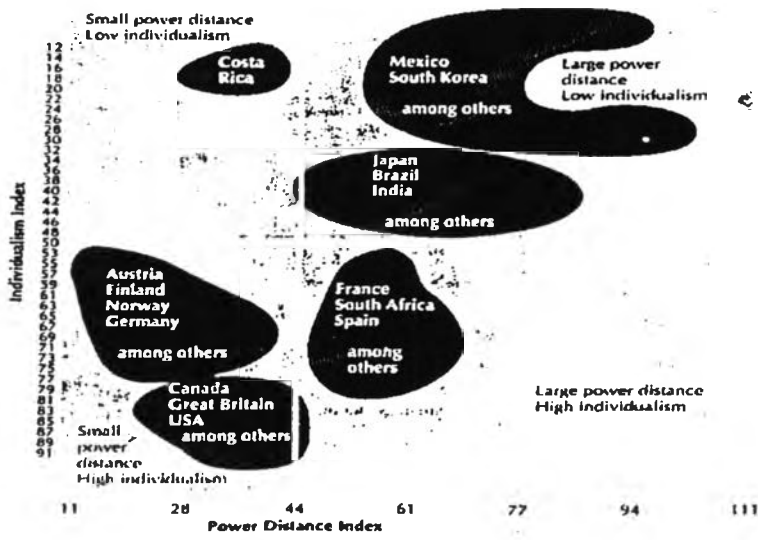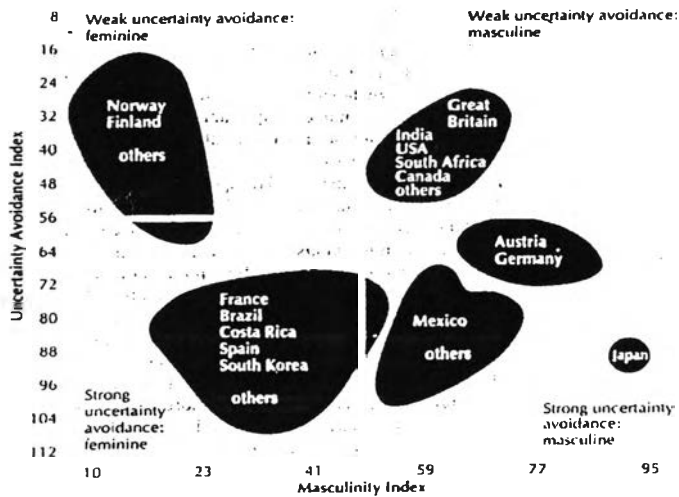

Source: Luthans, Fred (1998). **Organizational Behavior**, p.597.

Figure 23   The Position of Selected Countries on Power Distance and Uncertainty
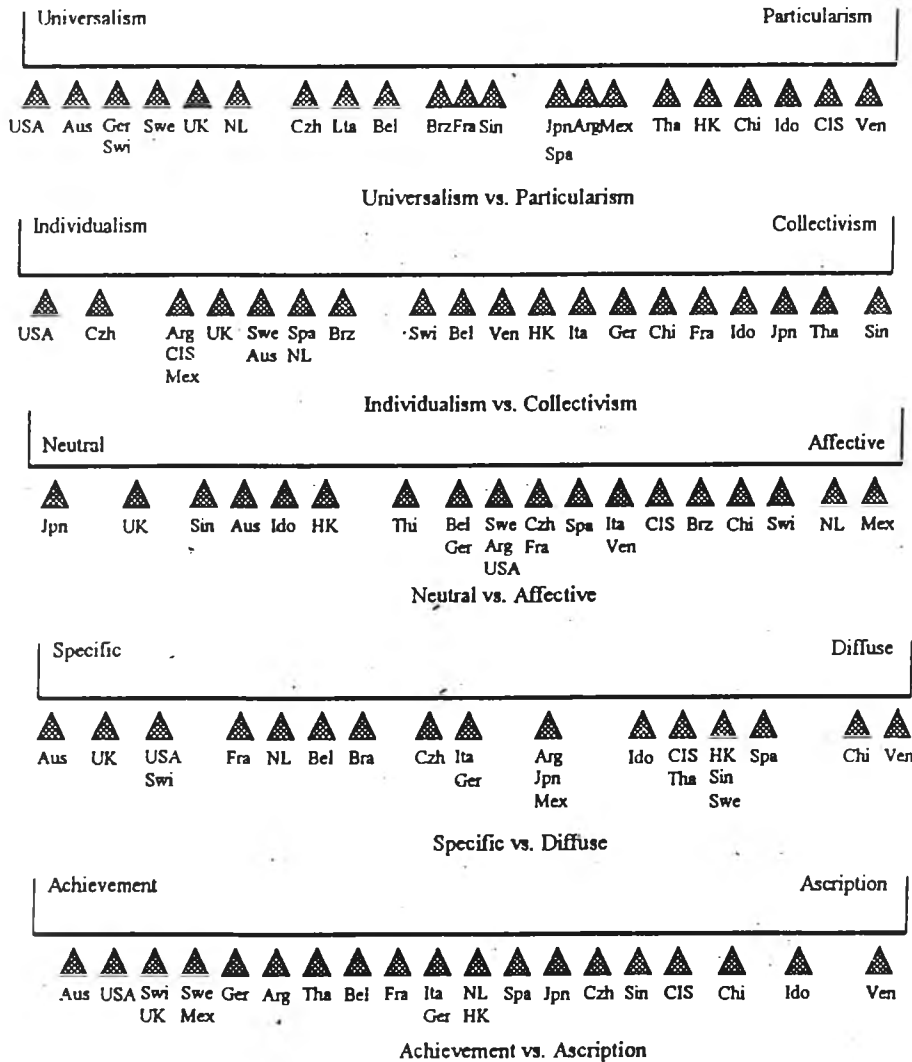Avoidance
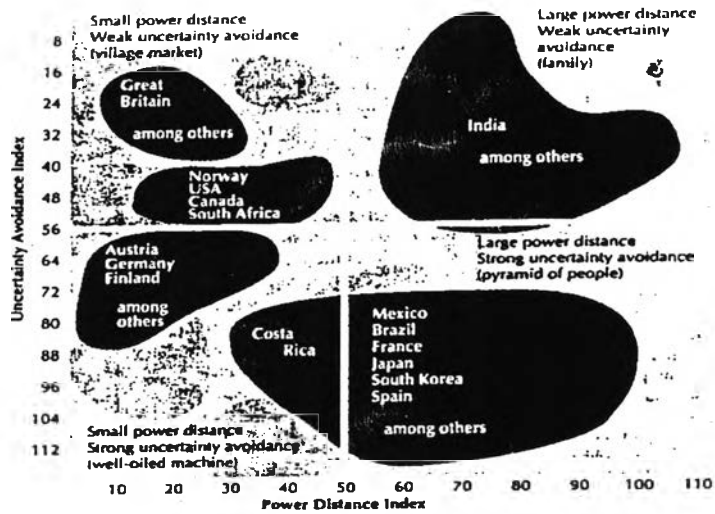
Source: Luthans, Fred (1998). **Organizational Behavior,** p.598.

Figure 24   The Position of Selected Countries on Uncertainty Avoidance and
Masculinity/Feminity

Source: Luthans, Fred (1998). **Organizational Behavior,** p.599.

Figure 25 Trompenaars' Cultural Dimensions by Country Dimensions by Country (abbreviations).

Universalism				Particularism

USA Aus Ger Swe UK NL   Czh Lta Bel   BrzFra Sin   JpnArgMex Tha HK Chi Ido CIS Ven
Swi   Spa

Universalism vs. Particularism

Individualism				Collectivism

USA   Czh   Arg UK Swe Spa Brz   ·Swi Bel Ven HK Ita Ger Chi Fra Ido Jpn Tha   Sin
             CIS   Aus NL
             Mex

Individualism vs. Collectivism

Neutral				Affective

Jpn   UK   Sin Aus Ido HK   Thi Bel Swe Czh Spa Ita CIS Brz Chi Swi NL Mex
                                       Ger Arg Fra   Ven
                                            USA

Neutral vs. Affective

Specific				Diffuse

Aus UK USA   Fra NL Bel Bra   Czh Ita   Arg   Ido CIS HK Spa   Chi Ven
         Swi   Ger   Jpn   Tha Sin
                                                 Mex   Swe

Specific vs. Diffuse

Achievement				Ascription

Aus USA Swi Swe Ger Arg Tha Bel Fra Ita NL Spa Jpn Czh Sin CIS   Chi   Ido   Ven
          UK   Mex   Ger HK

Achievement vs. Ascription

Abbreviation	Country	Abbreviation	Country
ARG	Argentina	JPN	Japan
AUS	Austria	MEX	Mexico
BEL	Belgium	NL	Netherlands
BRZ	Brazil	SIN	Singapore
CHI	China	SPA	Spain
CIS	Former Soviet Union	SWE	Sweden
CZH	Former Czechoslovakia	SWI	Switzerland
FRA	France	THA	Thailand
GER	Germany (excluding former East Germany)	UK	United Kingdom
HK	Hong Kong	USA	United States
IDO	Indonesia	VEN	Venezuela
ITA	Italy		

Luthans (1998)

Source: Luthans, Fred (1998). **Organizational Behavior,** p.601.

The Role of Human Resource Development (HRD)

1. The Role of HRD as Higher Education.

Following is a comparison of higher education institutions and human resource development units in terms of their higher education function. Data are from the following authors: **Meister (1998), Castling (1996), Methakunavudhi (1989), Sanders, (1998), Srisa-an (1975)**

Higher Education Institution (HE)		Human Resource Development (HRD) Unit
• Board of University	*Governance*	• Shareholders
• Administration		• Board
		• Management
• Teaching and Learning	*Vision/Mission*	•HRD is the integration of
• Research		training and development,
• Community Services		and career development
• Enriching, Maintaining and		to improve individual,
Disseminating of		group and organizational
Culture		effectiveness
• Government	*Funding*	• Shareholders
• Enrollment fees		• Customers
• Private Donations		• Government
• Decentralized	*Organization*	• Centralized and
		Decentralized
• Faculty	*Stakeholders*	• Employees
• Students		• Suppliers
• Community		• Guest speakers
• Industries		• Industries
• Graduates	*Products/Service*	• Template for Learning
• Course Curriculum		Solutions

• Publications		• Curriculum Development
• New Knowledge		• Formal and Informal Training
• Academic Services		• Learning Initiatives that on the Job Learning
• Various Higher Education Institutions	*Learning Partners*	• Training Vendors/ Consultants • Higher Education Institutions • Education Firms For-Profit
• Desktop Learning (Intranet or Electronic Performance System) • Online, Satellite Video Tele or…..and Desktop	*Technology*	• Desktop Learning (intranet or Electronic Performance System) • Online, Satellite Video Tele or …and Desktop
• Kirkpatrick's Four Levels of Measurement • Pre- and Post- skill test skill test • Classroom Assessment on Techniques and Courses • Instructor Rating Form • Examination • Follow-up after Graduation (Job placements) (Job Placements)	*Measurement*	• Kirkpatrick's Four Levels of Measurement • Customer and Employee Satisfaction Surveys • Classroom Assessment on Techniques and Courses • Instructor Rating Forms • Pre-and Post-Skill Tests • Follow-up with Managers • ROI (Return on Investment) (What impact does it have on external and internal customers) • Expectation of Stakeholders • What Happens after Training, Improved Performance for Higher Position

	Focus	
• Reactive		• Reactive
• Proactive		• Proactive

	Scope	
• Tactical		• Tactical
• Strategic		• Strategic

	Delivery	
• Instructor-Led		• Instructor-Led

	Audience	
• Wide Audience		• Wide Audience Customized Curricula for Job Families

	Enrollment	
• Open Enrollment		• Open Enrollment
• Entrance Examination		• Just-in-Time Learning
		• Selected-Target Group

	Outcome	
• Increase in Job Skills		• Increase in Job Skills
• Increase in Job Performance		• Increase in Job Performance

	Operation	
• Operates as a Staff Function		• Operates as a Staff Function
• Operates as a Business Unit		• Operates as a Business Unit

	Image	
• University as Metaphor for Learning		• Go Get Trained
		• Training Department as Metaphor for Learning

	Marketing	
• Faculty Dictated		• Trainer Dictated
• Consultative Selling		• Consultative Selling

	Place	
• Campus		• Company
• Building		• Building
• On Demand Learning		• On Demand Learning

Anywhere, Any Place		Anywhere, Any Place
• Specialized Knowledge	*Content*	• Upgrade Technical Skills
		• Build Core Workplace Competencies
• Learn by Listening	*Methodology*	• Learn by Listening
• Action Learning		• Action Learning
• Students	*Audience*	• Employees
		• Intact Team of Employees, Customers, and Product Suppliers
• Internal Professors/ Consultants	*Faculty*	• External University Professors/Consultants
• Visiting Professors		• Internal Seniors Managers
• External Professors		• Internal Trainers and Instructors
• Guest Lecturers		• Guest Lecturers
• General Education	*Field of Study*	• General Training
• Specialized Education		• Specialized Training
• Exploratory Education		• Exploratory Training
• Enrichment Education		• Enrichment Training
• Compulsory Courses	*Curriculum*	• Required or Core Courses
• Elective Courses		• Complimentary or Elective Courses
• Long Term and Short Term Courses		• Long Term and Short Term Courses
• Thematic Based		• Thematic Based
• Competency Based		• Competency Based
• Career Based		• Career Based
• Experienced Based		• Employee Based
• Student Based		

	Teaching/Training Cycle	
• Value Based		• Value Based
• Future Based		• Future Based
• Needs Analysis		• Needs Analysis
• Planning and Design		• Planning and Design
• Delivery		• Delivery
• Evaluation		• Assessment
		• Evaluation
• Interdisciplinary	*Frequency*	• Interdisciplinary
• One Time Event		• One Time Event
• Continuous Learning Process		• Continuous Learning Process
• Build individual's Knowledge and Skills	*Goals*	• Build Individual's Inventory of Skills
		• Solve Real Business Issues and Improve Performance on the Job
• Faculty	*Roles*	• HRD Professional
• Need Analyst		• Needs Analyst
• Program Designer		• Program Designer
• Researcher		• Researcher
• Material Developer		• Materials Developer
• Instructor/Facilitator		• Instructor/Facilitator
• Evaluator		• Evaluator
• Organization Change Agent		• Organization Change Agent
• Administrator		• Administrator
• Marketer		• Marketer
• Career Development Adviser	*Roles*	• HRD Manager
		• Career Development Advisor

In this comparison, it can be confirmed that higher education institutions have functions similar to HRD unit.

2. Objectives of HRD

Change is part of today's working environment and, as such, needs to be integrated with human resource development.

By definition, all HRD activities and programs imply change, whether it may be at the individual, workgroup or organizational level. Thomson and Mabey (1994) identified different objectives for HRD.

First, use HRD as a tool in the pursuit of quality, cost reduction and some form of enhanced performance. Second, it is to gain a competitive edge, both through the content of such activities and the way in which they are developed. More and more organizations are using HRD as a way of integrating their business planning processes with wide organization development and human resource activities from recruitment through to succession planning. This may be achieved by introducing each training event with a module linking it explicitly to the business context and strategy, or by only designing programs containing principles and activities that demonstrably meet customer requirements. Third, HRD can create a general climate of learning in the organization. The focus is on the learning needs of individuals. Within each member of staff, there is a vast creative potential waiting to be unleashed. Accordingly, the trend is away from structured, taught courses and towards a learner-centered approach. Fourth, there is a growing recognition that HRD can be a key device in engineering organizational change and, in particular, in managing change.

3. The Role of HRD in Managing Change

According to Thomson and Mabey (1994), there are two ways in which HRD plays a central role in managing organizational change. The first is by responding to a succession of externally driven changes at an organizational level, and subsequent shifts in strategic direction, each of which has significant effects on development orientated practices in the workplace. Second HRD can and should have an influential role internally by developing and shaping the appropriate competencies, practices and

attitudes that will help the organization deliver its products and services. Figure 26 shows the key place of HRD in linking human resource systems and policies to the competitive capability of an organization. It starts with a range of factors that represent external stimuli for change, or the "outer context" of an organization. There is evidence that increasing numbers of people are and will be engaged in "knowledge work" which requires judgement, flexibility's and personal commitment rather than mere adherence to procedures. Creating the structures, skills and opportunities for more staff to independently generate and act on ideas for improvement is a major HRD challenge for organizations in the 21 century.

Part of the purpose of an organizational mission statement is to anticipate some changes in the external environment and to articulate where an organization is going, and what it wants to achieve. The success of any subsequent changes depends equally upon the inner context of the organization. This refers to an organization's capability to change (in the form of leadership, organization structure and culture), the values and attitudes of the workplace, the personalities of key people, the effectiveness of political processes and the adequacy of current competencies and practices to deliver the mission. Patently, HRD has a major impact on these inner capabilities for change, both in the "softer" areas of motivation and attitudes, as well as the harder areas of skill levels and management expertise.

How HRD can contribute in these areas is represented by the three boxes in the HRD column in Figure 26

Figure 26 The Role of HRD in Managing Strategic Change.
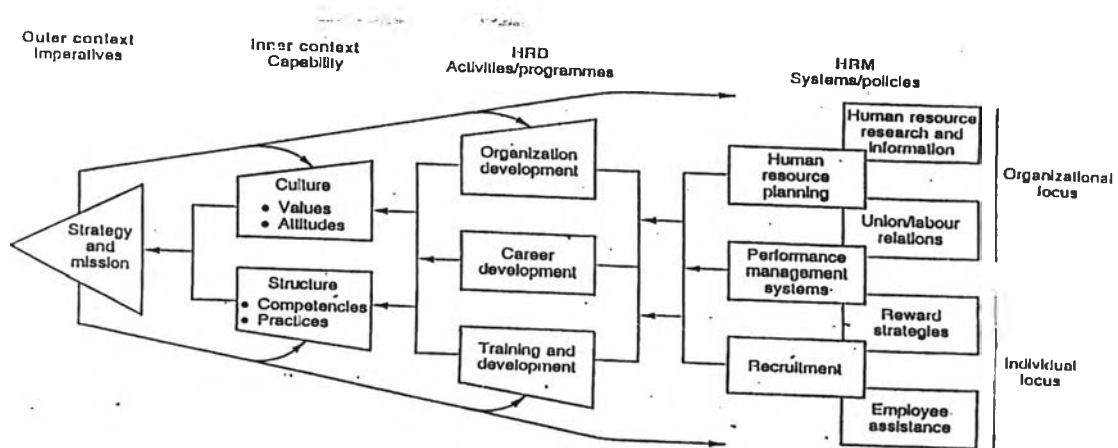
Source: Thomson and Mabey. (1994). **Developing Human Resource**. p. 219.

Through the integrated use of organizational development, career development and training and development, HRD can improve the individual, group and organizational effectiveness.

Relating to these primary HRD areas are a number of HRM systems and policies. Human resource planning determines the organization's major human resource needs, strategies and philosophies. Performance management systems ensure individual and organizational goals are linked through such things as appraisal and assessment procedures. The selection and staffing attempts to match people and their career needs with available jobs and career paths while each of these HRM systems incorporates 'development', this is not the primary orientation or process.

The three development areas of HRD can be viewed as a set of key leverage points in bringing about effective organizational change. The job of those responsible for HRD is to anticipate strategic changes and interpret these in HR terms. For example, what new mindset skills and attitudes are needed? They should then design and implement appropriate development activities in one, two or all three development areas

to ensure that the wider HRM systems and policies of the organization support and reinforce the required behaviors in the workplace.

Proposals to initiate HRD activities and programs will usually come from the identification of particular areas for change in the organization.

Problems or issues that might hinder the performance of the organization and the well-being of its workforce are categorized and presented in Figure 26. For each set of "symptoms", some examples of action are given, ranging from the remedial to the more radical. The resulting matrix represents a framework for understanding and identifying what change is necessary in an organization and what methods to consider when initiating the change process. Although all the methods have a human resource emphasis, not all are developmental in focus. The key indicates those that can be broadly classified as organization development, career development and training/development initiatives respectively.

There are two dimensions to the matrix representing the two main factors that have to be identified when preparing an HRD intervention: level of analytical focus and degree of required intervention. Where is the problem located in the organization? What level of analysis is the diagnosis going to focus on? Do the courses stem basically from behavior at the level of the individual, group, between groups or sub-units, or organization?

Figure 27 Deciding on Appropriate HRD Initiatives

	BEHAVIOUR *What is happening now?*	**STRUCTURE** *What is the required system?*	**CONTEXT** *What is the setting or culture?*
Organizational Level	low morale; stress and suspicion, low response to environmental change e.g. *survey feedback, organizational mirroring,* **business awareness workshops**	business strategy poorly understood; inappropriate organization structure; inadequate mechanisms for monitoring environment e.g. *participative development of mission statement;* radical restructuring; redefine business processes (re-engineering)	poor performance due to geographic setting, market pressures, labour market, physical condition, basic technology e.g. change strategy, location, physical set-up; *change work attitudes, quality/culture; change programmers; organization-wide communication briefings*
Inter-Group Level	lack of effective co-operation between sub-units; conflict and excessive competition; unresolved feelings and issues e.g. **training in management skills (influencing negotiation, leadership etc.);** *inter-group confrontation, role analysis and negotiation*	lack of integrated task perspective; poor sub-unit performance e.g. redefine roles and responsibilities; improve co-ordination and liaison mechanisms; delayering; networking structures	conflicting values/attitudes between departments and sub-units; physical distance e.g. reduce psychological and physical distance; exchange roles and attachment; **cross-functional group working;** *group problem-solving and goal setting*
Group Level	inappropriate working relations; poor understanding of goals; leader not trusted, respected e.g. *process consultation; team building;* **interpersonal skill development**	task requirements poorly defined; role relations unclear; leader's role overloaded; inappropriate reporting procedures e.g. **multi-skilling;** redesign rock; relationships (socio-technical systems); self-directed teams; **competence-based appraisal and development**	insufficient resources; poor group cohesion; inadequate physical set-up; personality clashes e.g. change technology, work layout; cnange group composition
Individual Level	failure to fulfil individual needs; frustration responses; unwillingness to consider change e.g. **counselling/career planning; basic training (functional skills and specialist knowledge)**	poor job definition; task too easy or difficult e.g. job redesign; enrichment; **agree on the objectives and competencies; development centre** and **personal development planning**	poor match of individual with job; recognition and remuneration at variance with objective e.g. personnel changes **improve selection, induction and promotion procedures; targeted education and training;** revise reward strategies

Source: Thomson and Mabey. (1994). **Developing Human Resources**, p.223.

4. HRD as The Change Agent

Anyone who intervenes in the problem-solving efforts of a social group or organization can be described as a "change agent", but there are a number of different ways in which such intervention can take place. The change agent can and should specialize in helping with that part of the process where he/she has the best chance of making a difference. As Havelock and Zlotolow (1995) pointed out, there are at least *four* primary ways in which people can act as change agents. These are:

(1) The Change Agent as Catalyst

Change agents are needed to prod and pressure the system to be less complacent and to start working on its serious problems. They energize the problem-solving process and get started. They are the arousal as well as the relationship builder. An example of an instrument used to illustrate how HRD can be a catalyst is shown in the activities called Bizarro I Fairy Tales and Culture.

(2) The Change Agent as Solution giver

Being an effective solution giver involves more than simply having a solution. One has to know how it relates to people's needs and concerns and be prepared to adapt oneself and one's innovation to satisfy those concerns. An example of an instrument used to illustrate how HRD can be a solution giver, is shown in the activity called Five-Stage Creativity I.

(3) The Change Agent as Process Helper

The process helper is someone who assists the system in all aspects of the change process from awareness of need through relationship-building and defining the problem to search for and apply solutions. Because most people who want to bring about change are not experts on the "how - to" of change, they can be helped greatly by others who are skilled in the various stages of problem-solving. An example of an instrument used to illustrate how HRD can be a process helper is shown in the activity called Busk I.

Figure 28 The Change Agent as Resource Linker

Effective problem-solving requires the bringing together of needs and resources. A very special and underrated change role is that of the "linker". It is the person who brings people together, helps clients find and make the best use of resources inside and outside their own system. An example of an instrument used to illustrate how HRD function can be a resource linker is shown in the activity called Get Stuck

Figure 28   Four Ways to Be a Change Agent
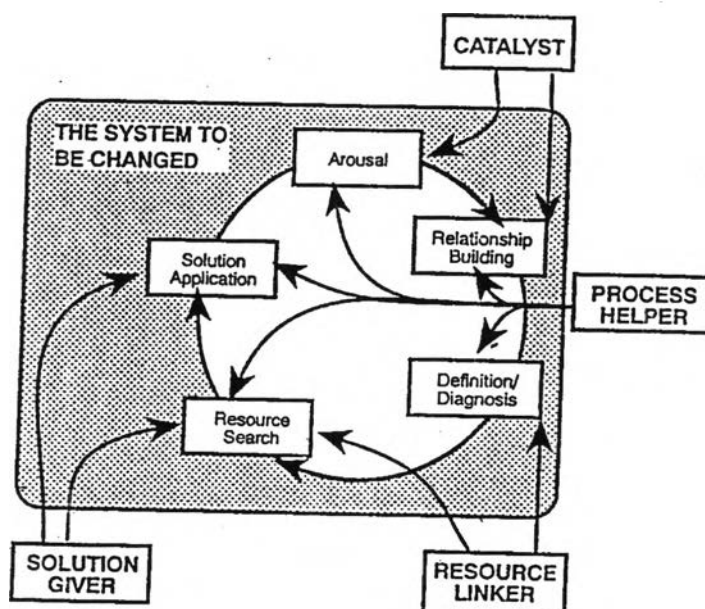
Source: Havelock, Ronald G. and Steve, Zlotolow (1995). **Change Agent's Guide,**
p. 9.

The Stages of Planned Change

Stage 0: Care

The first task of the change agent is to develop some sense of what the concern is, a sense of where the system seems to be hurting, and where the need for change is most pressing.

Stage 1: Relate

The Change agent must develop good relations with all key members of the system and must assert the members of the system to relate better among themselves to the point that they are capable of collective action.

Stage 2: Examine

In this stage, diagnose which elements are most urgently needed for change and which are most likely to yield to a change effort.

Stage 3: Acquire

With the adequate information in hand, the change agent and the system can begin to reach out for resources that might be relevant in contributing to the change effort.

Stage 4: Try

With a well-defined problem and an assemblage of relevant resources, the system is in a good position to choose a solution or a set of possible solutions.

Stage 5: Extend

A chosen solution or innovation must be put into action and must come to be accepted by the system as a whole.

Stage 6: Renew

Part of renewal is building an internal system capacity for change which allows continuation of successful problem-solving. The renewal stage should include consideration of when and how the change agent relinquishes control.

Havelock and Zlotolow (1995) suggested that the change agent who enters the situation from outside must be sensitive to where the system's internal and on-going problem solving processes might be at the time the agent enters the scene. In Figure 29 step-wise model of change is presented.

Figure 29 The Stages of Planned Change
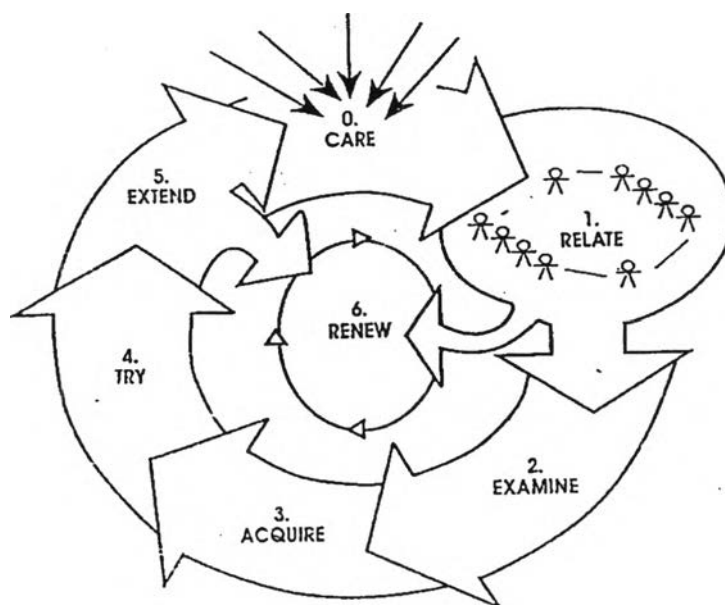
Source: Havelock, Ronald G. and Steve, Zlotolow (1995). **Change Agent's Guide,** p. 11.

Related Literature on Research Methodology.

1. Models and Models Building

The essential characteristic of a model is the proposed structure of the model, which is used in the investigation of interrelations between the elements. In order to be useful, a model should fulfill the following requirements.

a. A model should lead to the prediction of consequences that can be verified by observation.

b. The structure of a model should desirably reveal something of the casual mechanisms which are involved in the subject matter being investigated. Thus the model should contribute not only prediction, but also explanation.

c. As a model contributes explanation, it should become an aid in the formulation of new concepts and new relationships.

d. A model should contain structural relationships rather than associative relationships.

In sum, a model is explicit and definite. Models can be built, tested, and if necessary rebuilt in the course of inquiry. They relate to theory and may be derived from theory, but they are consequently different from theory itself.

Several types of models have been identified by Kaplan (1964) and Tatsuoka (1968). These include analogue models, semantic models, schematic models, mathematical models, and causal models.

For the purpose of this research, the semantic model is appropriate. The essential feature of such models is that they are expressed in verbal form. Frequently such models employ figures of speech or metaphors. Since all language involves the use of metaphors and figures of speech, to a greater or lesser extent, semantic models are expressed as figurative or metaphoric models. Semantic models are in common use in the field of educational research.

According to Keeves (1997), a common deficiency of such models is their lack of precision which renders them not readily amenable to testing. However, because they are expressed in verbal form, they provide a valuable explanation of the subject matter that, in general, is readily understood.

2. Case Study Design

According to Yin, (1994), case studies in general are the preferred strategy when "how" or "why" question's are being posed, when the investigator has little control

over events, and when the focus is on contemporary phenomenon within some real life context. As a research strategy, the case study is used in many situations, including:

- Policy, political science, and public administration research
- Community psychology and sociology
- Organizational and management studies
- City and regional planning research, such as studies of plans, neighborhoods, or public agencies
- The conduct of dissertations and other research studies in the social sciences, the academic disciplines as well as professional fields such as business administration, management science, and social work

Definition of the Case Study as a Research Strategy

1. A case study is an empirical inquiry that
   - investigates a contemporary phenomenon within its real-life context, especially when
   - the boundaries between phenomenon and context are not clearly evident.
2. The case study inquiry
   - copes with the technically distinctive situation in which there will be many more variables of interest than data points, and as one result
   - relies on multiple sources of evidence, with data needing to converge in a triangulating fashion, and as another result
   - benefits from the prior development of theoretical propositions to guide data collection and analysis.

In other words, the case study as a research strategy comprises an all-encompassing method with the logic of design incorporating specific approaches to data collection and to data analysis. In this sense, the case study is not either a data collection

tactic or merely a design feature alone, but a comprehensive research strategy (Yin, 1994).

Types of Research Questions

Figure 30 displays three conditions and how each is related to five major research strategies in the social sciences: experiments, surveys, and case studies (Yin, 1994)

Figure 30 Relevant Situation for different Research Strategies

Strategy	form of research question	requires control over behavioral events?	focuses on contemporary events?
Experiment	How, why	Yes	Yes
Survey	Who, what, where, how many, how much	No	Yes
Archival Analysis	Who, what, where, how many, how much	No	yes/no
History	How, why	No	No
Case Study	How, why	No	Yes

Source: Yin, Robert K.(1994). **Case Study Research Design and Methods,** Second Edition.
P.6.

The "how" and "why" questions are more explanatory and likely to lead to the use of case studies, histories, and experiments.

Designing Case Studies

A research design is the logic that links the data to be collected (and the conclusions to be drawn) to the initial questions of a study. Every empirical study has an implicit, if not explicit, research design.

Components of Research Designs

For case studies, five components of a research design are especially important:

1. a study's questions,
2. its propositions, if any,
3. its unit(s) of analysis,
4. the logic linking the data to the propositions, and
5. the criteria for interpreting the findings.

Case study Designs

Figure 31 Basic Types of Designs for Case Studies

	Single-case Designs	**Multiple-case Designs**
holistic (single unit of analysis)	TYPE 1	TYPE 3
embedded (multiple units of analysis)	TYPE 2	TYPE 4

Source: Yin, Robert K. (1994). **Case Study. Research Design and Method,** Second Edition, p.39.

Figure 31 illustrates basic types of designs for case studies. They are single-case (holistic) designs, (b) single-case (embedded) designs, (c) multiple-case (holistic) designs, and (d) multiple-case (embedded).

Single cases are a common design for doing case studies, and two types have been described: those using holistic designs and those using embedded units of analysis. Overall, the single-case design is eminently justifiable under certain conditions—where the case represents a critical test of existing theory, where the case is a rare or unique event, or where the case serves a revelatory purpose.

A major step in designing and conducting a single case is defining the unit of analysis (or the case itself). An operational definition is needed and some precaution must be taken before a total commitment to the whole case study is made to ensure that the case in fact is relevant to the issues and questions of interest.

The Case Study Investigator: Desired Skills

The skills required for collecting case study data are much more demanding than those for experiments and surveys. In case studies, a well-trained and experienced investigator is needed to conduct a high-quality case study because of the continuous interaction between the theoretical issues being studied and the data being collected. During data collection, only a more experienced investigator will be able to take advantage of unexpected opportunities rather than being trapped by them-and also to exercise sufficient care against potentially biased procedures. (Yin, 1994) The following are a basic list of commonly required skills:

- A person should be able to ask good questions—and to interpret the answers.
- A person should be a good "listener" and not be trapped by his or her own ideologies or preconceptions.
- A person should be adaptive and flexible, so that newly encountered situations can be seen as opportunities, not threats.
- A person must have a firm grasp of the issues being studied, whether this is a theoretical or policy orientation, even if in an exploratory mode. Such a grasp focuses the relevant events and information to be sought to manageable proportions.

- A person should be unbiased by preconceived notions, including those derived from theory. Thus a person should be sensitive and responsive to contradictory evidence.

The Components of Data Analysis

According to Merriam (1988) several levels of analysis and interpretation are possible in case study research. Some case studies are little more than case records-basically descriptive accounts of the phenomenon under study that contain little analysis or interpretation of the data. Intensive Analysis, the first level takes twice the time spent collecting the data. Raw data need to be organized. It can be done by arranging transcripts, field notes, and documents chronologically according to when they were collected or according to the logical chronology of case. A second level of analysis involves developing categories, themes or other taxonomic classes that interpret the meaning of data. The third level of analysis transcends the formation of categories, for a theory seeks to explain a large number of phenomena and tell how they are related. A theory grounded in the data also contains elements of control and prediction, both of which can be interpreted in terms of the applied nature of educational research

Composing the Case Study "Report"

The reporting of a case study can take written or oral forms. It is one of the most difficult phases to carry out. The following are aspects of composition and reporting that are related to case studies:

1. Audiences for case studies
2. Varieties for case study compositions
3. Illustrative structures for case study compositions
4. Procedures to be followed in doing a case study report
5. And, in conclusion, speculations on the characteristics of an exemplary case study (extending beyond the report itself and covering the design and content of the case)

The Discrepancy Model To Training

Hickerson and Middleton (1997) designed a model, which divides the training design process into six phases. These are (1) Job Analysis; (2) Decision to Train; (3) Setting Training Objectives; (4) Designing Training; (5) Implementation; (6) Support and Summative Evaluation. In Figure 31 is a model showing the major steps in developing training programs based on performance discrepancies.

Figure 32 A Discrepancy Model of Training Design
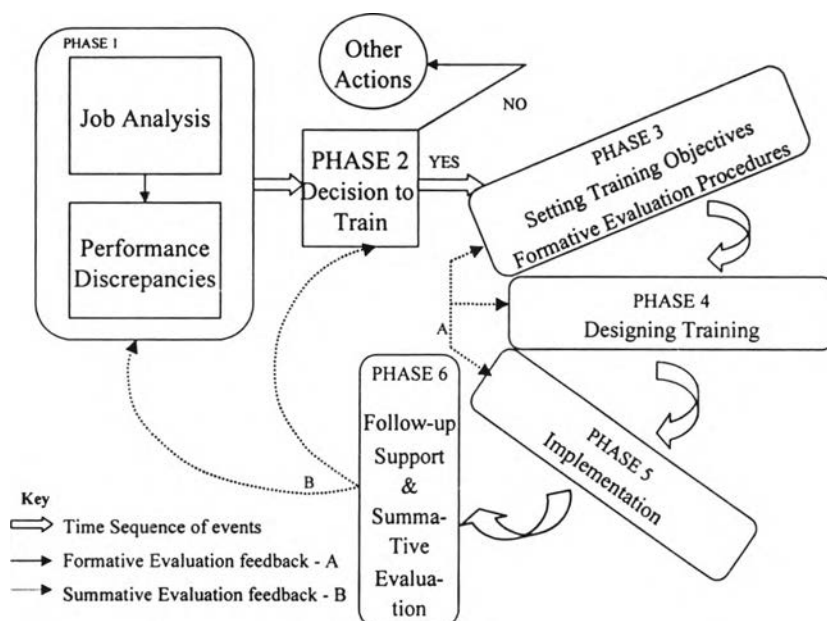
Source: Hickesson and John Middleton. (1997). **A Module For Trainer, A**
   Professional Development Module East West Communication Institute, p.23

Phase 1 : Job Analysis

The analysis phase of training design will result in the identification of performance discrepancies for the job category of interest. These discrepancies, if they have been identified by working with real people doing jobs in organizations, will be real

problems in job performance. A training program based on these discrepancies that can best be eliminated by learning will not be a waste of time. It will be interesting and motivating to trainees and lead to improved job performance.

Phase 2 : Decision to Train

Training is not always the proper action to take to correct performance problems unless those problems concern knowledge and skill, and a formal learning program will have little impact on these kinds of problems. Other changes, often administrative, are required to eliminate discrepancies in performance. Trainers should be alert to the possibility that training is not always the correct response to performance problems.

Phase 3 : Setting Training Objectives

Learning objectives are derived directly from the performance discrepancies for which learning is the appropriate response. This is a key step in assuring that the training is " relevant to trainee and organizational needs." Procedures for formative evaluation are developed at the same time that training objectives are set. Formative evaluation is designed to develop information on the effectiveness of the Training program in meeting training objectives.

Phase 4 : Designing Training

The major activity of designing training is planning learning activities which will help trainees achieve objectives. This requires that the trainer apply basic principles of learning instructional design, regardless of the particular teaching methodology that will be used.

Phase 5 : Implementation

Implementation requires the application of the trainer's art in building a viable and effective training group. A critical part of implementation is the successful carrying out of formative evaluation strategies for program modification.

Phase 6 : Support and Summative Evaluation

Support strategies requires the application of resources and a high degree of trainer commitment to trainee success. Summative evaluation is implemented after the program is finished. This kind of evaluation is focused on whether or not training has led to the changed job performance desired.

Feedback Loops

The model incorporates two dotted lines as described by Hickerson and Middleton (1997). The first (A) links formative evaluation with training design and objective setting (Phase 3 and 4). This linkage shows that formative information is used primarily to modify training objectives and training design.

The second feedback (B) links summative evaluation with analysis, including discrepancies, and the training decision (Phase 1 and 2). It tells how well training changed performance and leads trainers to revise their analysis and review the basic decision- -to train or not to train.