



University
of Glasgow

<https://theses.gla.ac.uk/>

Theses Digitisation:

<https://www.gla.ac.uk/myglasgow/research/enlighten/theses/digitisation/>

This is a digitised version of the original print thesis.

Copyright and moral rights for this work are retained by the author

A copy can be downloaded for personal non-commercial research or study,
without prior permission or charge

This work cannot be reproduced or quoted extensively from without first
obtaining permission in writing from the author

The content must not be changed in any way or sold commercially in any
format or medium without the formal permission of the author

When referring to this work, full bibliographic details including the author,
title, awarding institution and date of the thesis must be given

Enlighten: Theses

<https://theses.gla.ac.uk/>
research-enlighten@glasgow.ac.uk

THE PROBLEMS OF THE RE-ENTRANT
IN THE TRANSFER OF LEARNING TO
PUBLIC SERVICE ORGANIZATIONS IN
NIGERIA

A DOCTORAL THESIS SUBMITTED
TO
UNIVERSITY OF GLASGOW, FACULTY
OF SOCIAL SCIENCES, DEPARTMENT
OF MANAGEMENT STUDIES

BY

IFECHUKUDE B. MMOBUOSI
B.A., London; D.P.A., Ife; M.A.,
George Washington.

OCT., 1983.

ProQuest Number: 10662297

All rights reserved

INFORMATION TO ALL USERS

The quality of this reproduction is dependent upon the quality of the copy submitted.

In the unlikely event that the author did not send a complete manuscript and there are missing pages, these will be noted. Also, if material had to be removed, a note will indicate the deletion.



ProQuest 10662297

Published by ProQuest LLC (2017). Copyright of the Dissertation is held by the Author.

All rights reserved.

This work is protected against unauthorized copying under Title 17, United States Code
Microform Edition © ProQuest LLC.

ProQuest LLC.
789 East Eisenhower Parkway
P.O. Box 1346
Ann Arbor, MI 48106 – 1346

GLASGOW
UNIVERSITY
LIBRARY

Thesis
6809
COPY 2

TO F.Y. EMANUEL (Mrs.)
FEDERAL (NIGERIAN) PERMANENT SECRETARY

They sent night to my career's way,
and storms to quake its foundation;
but, like a miracle which holds an arm
of one pushed into roaring tide,
you lifted me from their attempted harm,
and helped my shaken stride
to be firm on the road
to fulfilment's abode.

I.B.M.

University of Glasgow.

1983.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

I wish to thank the authorities of the Administrative Staff College of Nigeria (ASCON) for agreeing to sponsor me for this study. Gratitude to the Nigerian Federal Government for approving the sponsorship.

My Supervisor, Mr. A.A. Hurczynski of the Department of Management Studies, University of Glasgow, gave me unforgettable guidance and was a great motivator in various times of externally inflicted difficulties which aimed at killing this study.

I had the opportunity granted by the staff, especially Mr. H. Marshall, of the Royal Institute of Public Administration of London, to listen to lectures on culture and the transfer of learning. To them thanks.

As regards events in my sponsoring organization, I am grateful to those colleagues who helped to argue my case for sponsorship. Messrs. S.T. Udoh and R. Onokwai helped with secretarial work on the earliest draft of the thesis. Other secretarial assistants are also remembered with gratitude, while the same goes to Mr. John-Paul Okwok whose artistry produced the MELT diagrams from my less artistic drawing.

Finally, I am grateful to Edith who, with our kids, endured my absences and coped with the coming of Raphael-Nomso. To those relations and friends who cared about the family in my absences I express deep gratitude.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

	<u>Page</u>
Dedication.....	ii
Acknowledgement.....	iii
Abstract (Summary).....	ix
Chapter 1 : INTRODUCTION.....	1
The research problem and its importance.....	1
Definitions of major terms used in the research title....	17
The arrangement of this study.....	20
Summary of Chapter 1.....	21
Chapter 2 : THE ORGANIZATIONAL DIMENSION OF LEARNING TRANSFER PROBLEM.....	23
Introduction.....	23
Organizational variables as a problem.....	29
How organizational climate may inhibit the transfer of learning.....	34
Empirical evidence of individualized view of organizational climate.....	40
Perceptions, attitudes and organizational climate.....	43
Power-authority politics in organizational life: implications for the transfer of learning.....	52
Some observations on the nature of bureaucracy: implications for the transfer of learning.....	61
The perception of leadership as a climate factor: implications for the transfer of learning.....	69
Internal organizational management of the training function: implications for the transfer of learning.....	72
Summary of Chapter 2.....	79

Chapter 3 : THE LEARNING SITUATION AND ITS IMPLICATIONS FOR THE TRANSFER OF LEARNING.....	81
Introduction.....	81
The principle of relevance.....	82
The principle of understanding the levels of learning.....	97
The principle of appropriate methods.....	99
The principle of motivational learning climate.....	105
Empirical evidence of what constitutes a training programme that has transfer value.....	109
Summary of Chapter 3.....	114
Chapter 4 : THE PERSONALITY DIMENSION OF LEARNING TRANSFER.....	115
Introduction.....	115
Psychological basis of the assumption of personality influence on the transfer of learning.....	117
Implications of personal characteristics for the transfer of learning.....	119
Empirical evidence of personal characteristics as perceivable factors in learning transfer effort.....	129
Summary of Chapter 4.....	131
Chapter 5 : SUMMARY OF THE SURVEYED LITERATURE; INFERRED RESEARCH HYPOTHESES.....	133
Chapter 6 : THE RESEARCH METHOD :: PROTOCOL ANALYSIS.....	140
Introduction.....	140
Epistemological basis of protocol analysis.....	142
Phenomenology - positivism compared :: some specifics.....	149
The mechanics of protocol analysis method.....	160
A problem of protocol analysis method in the Nigerian environment.....	161

	<u>Page</u>
The construction of the protocol 'questions'.....	161
Summary of Chapter 6.....	166
 Chapter 7 : DATA LAY-OUT AND INTERPRETATION.....	 167
Introduction.....	167
Case 1.....	168
Case 2.....	192
Case 3.....	202
Case 4.....	212
Case 5.....	217
Case 6.....	224
 Chapter 8 : ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION OF THE PROTOCOLS.....	 228
The Learning situation.....	228
The organizational situation or climate.....	253
The personal characteristics dimension.....	276
Summary of Chapter 8 and conclusion.....	289
 Chapter 9 : RESOLVING LEARNING TRANSFER PROBLEMS.....	 292
Introduction.....	292
Evolutionary and revolutionary models.....	294
'Pulpit' model.....	304
Leadership-based model.....	305
A mutual expectations (model of) learning transfer (MELT). ..	308
Summary of Chapter 9.....	323
SUGGESTED INTERESTS FOR FURTHER STUDIES.....	325
NOTES.....	328
BIBLIOGRAPHY.....	335

LIST OF TABLES

	<u>Page</u>
Table 1.1 : Federal (Nigerian) Civil Service courses.....	10
2.1 : Dimensions/factors of organizational situational variance.....	35
2.2 : A facet design of O.D. research content.....	57
3.1 : Stiefel's model for programme planning and implementation.....	89
3.2 : Pedagogy-andragogy compared.....	104
3.3 : Baumgartel et al's characterization of training programmes with transfer value.....	110
5.1 : The problem dimensions and their related hypotheses.....	137
8.1 : The valued ends of courses.....	230
8.2 : Illustration of negatively valued ends of courses.....	241
8.3 : A comparison of valued ends (of courses) in earlier studies and this study.....	243
8.4 : Means for achieving valued ends of courses...	244
8.5 : Experiential/consciousness process of recognizing valued ends and means-ends relationships.....	248
8.6 : Perceived organizational inhibitors of learning transfer.....	255
8.7 : Elements of how links are established between perceived factors and transfer failure.....	269
8.8 : Personal characteristics of re-entrants (with explanatory examples).....	278
8.9 : Re-entrants' perceptions of possible link between personality and learning transfer failure.....	287

LIST OF FIGURES

	<u>Page</u>
Fig. 1.1 : Environmental pressures on a public service in Nigeria.....	12
1.2 : Expected causal chain between training and individual-organizational change.....	16
2.1 : The levels and cycle of evaluation.....	25
2.2 : Interfaces in the transfer of learning.....	56
3.1 : Learning activities in the Megginson - Pedler 'Learning Community' approach.....	92
3.2 : The Allner-Teire Experiential Learning Cycle...	94
4.1 : Components of extraversion.....	117
4.2 : Components of emotional instability.....	117
4.3 : Personality types.....	118
4.4 : Components of tough-mindedness.....	119
4.5 : Behaviour as a function of personality - organization (environment) correlates.....	122
6.1 : Research methods.....	140
6.2a: Positivist correlation of object and subject without the mediation of consciousness.....	145
6.2b: Phenomenologist mediation of consciousness to describe subject's behaviour toward object..	145
9.1 : The increasing population of people in the awareness of the need for change.....	295
9.2 : A mutual expectations (model of) learning transfer - MELT.....	310
9.3 : The seven sub-phases of MELT.....	311

ABSTRACT (SUMMARY)

The study sets off to explore why public service managers who return from management and related courses fail to transfer their learning to their work situation. The problem is assessed as important because of the considerable financial and human resources invested by governments in the training and development of staff who are expected to play a part in socio-economic development.

The literature is surveyed for an appreciation of the state of knowledge about the problem as well as to obtain a hypothetical basis for the study. The survey helps the arrival at the decision that the problem be looked into phenomenologically from three dimensions - organizational climate or situation, learning situation, and personal characteristics of re-entrants.

On the organizational dimension, the literature suggests that the problem of learning transfer may be associated with the attitudes of organizational members to learning-imported ideas and the re-entrant himself. Re-entrants' perceptions of the natures of organizational power and authority politics, leadership and bureaucratic complexity and structuralization may also affect learning transfer, positively or negatively. So also their perceptions of the internal management of the training function.

As regards the learning situation, the information synthesized from the literature is that for learning transfer to be likely, the re-entrant must have perceived that essentially the principles of relevance and motivation to learn must have been satisfied. Concerning the dimension of

personal characteristics of re-entrants, the indication is that a training-recipient's perception of his own self-confidence, human relations effectiveness, motivation, and power and authority, beside belief in the idea of progress, could affect his disposition to engage in transfer behaviour.

The learning transfer experiences of six re-entrants are examined with (phenomenology-based) protocol analysis method. It is then found that though learning activities and personal characteristics be learning transfer-conducive, organizational forces, in the re-entrant's perception, are too impeding for transfer to occur or succeed. These forces are pervasive coercive-alienative practices and leadership and co-worker unsupportiveness; overload; re-entrants' tendency to generalize that the failure of change effort elsewhere would be the fate of their own learning transfer behaviour; and the perception of general unawareness, among leaders and co-workers, of the need to utilize the ideas of trained manpower.

Existing models of change and learning transfer are evaluated in the light of these findings. Some of them are shown to be too 'laissez faire' or too addressed to experts and consultants to be entirely useful to a re-entrant. While leadership-based models are demonstrated as better suited to re-entrants, they are shown as having possible loopholes since democratically oriented subordinates may feel being imposed on by leaders or dominant coalitions. Another model is therefore suggested, involving the pre and post-course interactions of all who are expected to be affected by learning-imported ideas. The model is christened 'A mutual expectations (model of) learning transfer'-MELT.

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

This chapter's purpose is

- (i) to state the research problem and why it is considered important;
- (ii) to define the major terms in the title of this volume so as to make them clear in the research's context;
- (iii) to state how the study is arranged in order to establish its coherence in the reader's mind.

(i) THE RESEARCH PROBLEM AND ITS IMPORTANCE

Expressed as a question, the research problem is, "Why do managers who have undergone management or management-related training courses fail to transfer their learning to their organizations in the Nigerian public service?" That this problem exists was hinted at by one or two events in the writer's career.

The first was during a Master's degree work (1975 - 1976) with major in "Behavioural Sciences in Organization Development". The writer had pondered over how his powerless self was going to use the new and appealing concepts as he reflected on the perceived effects of bureaucratic structures. He had submitted his doubts in a dramatic poem to one of his professors. It was then dramatized before the professor and the class, with the writer and three others playing the doubter in dilemma, Argyris, Culbert and Bion (representing some of the authorities read).¹

The following is an extract expressing the problem:

As Culbert's trage-comic tone echoes
in mind, and Bion's wine makes eyes wider,
I know my lords are unconscious heroes
in basic assumption drama,
attacking and defending as if against foes.
Thus I, in search now of Mecca,
voice my doubts to the management angels:
"How may consciousness - raising bells
be heard where prophets are the lowly ants
among enthroned but fosilled elephants?"
.....
Therefore, I say to Chris, Culbert and Bion:
"Be not silent to this giant question
that at me stares and stares -
when I return to Motherland,
how may this tiny, tiny hand
mow piled-up weeds of long, long years;
my ripple in vast ocean of officialdom
raise time's layers of mud to consciousleveldom;
re-kindle lanterns long-time made to die
in systems that raise pigmies to their sky,
crushing their tall men on despair's desert bottom?"

The problem, reflected in the drama, is that of 'so much learnt but with uncertainty of application' because of an environment perceived as innovation-stifling.

The second inspiring incident occurred as recently as February, 1981 while the writer was on tour of Nigerian states' public services to survey the training needs of

senior officers in personnel functional area. Five former mid-level management trainees who had gone through courses run by the Administrative Staff College of Nigeria (ASCON) were stumbled on in three of the states. Asked how they were applying their learning, they variously replied, "I just found I could not do it"; "I am not the boss"; "Immediately I returned, I was posted to an unrelated job". Unfortunately, the problem could not then be pursued because it was not the mission of the tour and the time was tight with effort to keep appointments in a vast country with some transport difficulties.

However, the experience suggested that here was an interesting problem reminding the writer of his own past years' experience concerning the application of management and management-related learning. More important than mere interestingness, the experience suggested that if the millions of naira which governments were, and have been, continuing to invest annually in training was not to be wasted, it was necessary to study, in depth, the nature of the problem and, possibly, suggest a resolution model.

The investment of considerable amount of funds in training indicates the importance which Nigerian governments attach to human aspects of the economy, as will later be illustrated with financial figures. This importance is further noted from the Nigerian Federal Government's commissioning of late Professor Wolle of the University of Ife to survey the training needs of the public services. The Wolle Report (1968) contained the recommendations that the Federal Government should accept the policy of

- (i) training as an instrument for the development of an employee as an aspect of efficient manpower utilisation;
- (ii) anticipating in advance the type and the quality of manpower required to carry out government functions, the exercise being as essential as anticipating the needs for money;
- (iii) ensuring that civil servants are developed to their full potential as a responsibility of the Government;
- (iv) recognizing that failure to provide training for employees is frequently a failure of supervisors to plan their work and recognise the benefits of training.

The Federal Government's reactions to the Report was made public in April, 1969 and titled, 'A Statement of Federal Government Policy on Staff Development in the Federal Public Service'. In it, the Government made a number of proposals which included:

- (i) the re-organisation and re-activation of the Federal Training Centres in Lagos and Kaduna as Civil Service Institutions devoted to staff development;
- (ii) the re-organisation and re-designation of the Nigerianisation Division of the then Federal Ministry of Establishments as Staff Development Division with responsibility for advising Government on staff training in the Federal

Civil Service and promoting training-consciousness;

- (iii) the appointment of departmental training officers in each ministry/department;
- (iv) the establishment of a standing committee on staff development; and
- (v) the setting up of the Administrative Staff College of Nigeria (hereafter referred to as ASCON) to provide for the development of senior executives in all cadres.

The various infrastructural provisions enumerated were implemented by the Federal Ministry of Establishments and Training, currently incorporated within the Office of the Head of the Civil Service of the Federation. A fascinating observation, as the data in Chapter 7 will indicate, is that these provisions and policy statements have not helped the transfer of learning to the work place.

Governments, pursuing training as an important matter of policy, have also not relied solely on local facilities. In the absence of adequate local training facilities, arrangements had to be made with some overseas bodies, for example, the Royal Institute of Public Administration in London, and the University of Pittsburg in the United States of America. Overseas organizations with which no formal arrangements were made but to which officers were sent, and are still being sent, included the Administrative Staff College at Henley-on-Thames and universities in the United Kingdom and America. These have been costly not only in terms of institutional charges and transportation, but also

of overseas allowances paid to officers on courses.

As a follow-up also of the Wolle survey and as referred to above, the Administrative Staff College of Nigeria (ASCON) was born. Although ASCON was recommended to meet the management training needs of the public sector, the Federal Government considered it necessary to extend its coverage to the private sector. By 1978, however, it was clear that the Institution alone could not cope with the copious demands of a vast country. It, therefore, had to be reverted to only the public sector while another government agency, the Centre for Management Development, became assigned to the private sector.

The importance attached to training and expected of learning clearly comes out when it is further noted that the Federal Government spent ₦23.5 million on the construction of the first phase of ASCON, an amount which would have been larger had the vast land not been a donation from the local community and the Lagos State Government. This first phase, spanning broader than 16 acres, has continued to consume more money as more facilities are added.

ASCON, from 1981, no longer charges even the token tuition fee it was charging. This is because the state governments succeeded in persuading the Federal Government to take responsibility for the training of all public service officers sent to the Institution. Though lodging and feeding charges continue to be paid by sponsors, these are heavily subsidized by the Federal Government by higher than 50%.

The considerable subsidy is clear from the following

data of subvention granted to ASCON in each of 1979 to 1982:²

1979	¥3,000,000
1980	¥6,750,000
1981	¥6,750,000
1982	¥7,585,000

The ¥3,000,000 provided by the Federal Government for the sustenance of ASCON in 1979 could have paid the salaries of 200 permanent secretaries or professors calculated at ¥15,000 per annum (each of the staff), the apical earning of a public service career. The subvention for each of the subsequent years would have paid the salaries of more than 400 permanent secretaries or professors (each year). If, to each of those years' subventions, the annual provisions for local and overseas training and development of staff are added, the number of the topmost public servants payable with the total of one year's training fund would be far higher.

Besides, if each year's financial provisions were converted to building factories, hundreds of people would be employed. But the quoted figures pertain to only the federal level, excluding federal corporations, commissions, authorities and similar bodies. If the individual corporation and state training votes were pulled together, the fact that training is consuming what could be used to provide services to benefit thousands of people outside the public sector becomes the more glaring.

The need to refer to the preceding points and data is to emphasize that it is a serious waste of scarce human and financial resources if trainees return to their work

situations without applying or transferring their learning there.

The human effort to make training meaningful has been exemplified by the Soneye (1979) updating of the Wolle survey earlier referred to. The exercise led to the re-organisation of ASCON into a number of departments, interconnected, but each geared to specific need areas of the public sector. This interest in ASCON as the premier management training and development organization of its cost and magnitude is observable from the following statements made by the (Udoji) Public Service Review Commission (1974):

"In reactivating the Standing Committee on Staff Development, two new Institutions should be brought within its coverage: the Administrative Staff College of Nigeria (ASCON), and the Centre for Management Development (CMD). These two institutions, established subsequent to the White Paper, help meet the need of developing managerial talent for Nigeria in Nigeria, and are geared to a multi-sectoral approach. By the nature of its character, we consider that ASCON should take the lead in meeting the high level manpower requirements of the Public Service. However, this will require an analysis and evaluation of the role ASCON should play in the total public service staff development programme. Government must ensure that it complements and enhances the existing structure and resources towards meeting policy objectives.....
.....

We recommend, therefore, that this review be

undertaken as a priority project, either by the Standing Committee on Staff Development itself or by a Special Task Force co-opted for this purpose. ASCON must be brought into full and meaningful participation for top level public management development as soon as possible. This will help impede the flow of Nigerian Public Managers going abroad for training, some of which appears irrelevant to the priority need of the service".

The quoted statements reflect the great expectations and meaning attached to management and related training and development programmes as one of the ways of quickening economic advancement in Nigeria as a developing country. As Baumgartel and Jeanpierre (1972) have pointed out in their study of Indian managers' application of management learning, developing countries have from the 50's embarked on training and developing human resources as a factor of economic development.

It has also become generally recognized that to be merely a worker in an organization is not enough, but to be a worker with ideas, a noted source of which is training and learning. It is moreover pointed out that business technologies have become exacting, and that to improve government and business performances, administrators must be trained and retrained. The serious purpose of the attainment of successful performance has to be paralleled by the desire to learn, learning being a continuing process from recruitment to retirement. Training and learning cannot be once-and-for-all because the need for organizational survival through, among other things, the diffusion and

application of ideas, is a continuing process. Even the need of the individual as regards his growth and development is an on-going phenomenon.

The seriousness with which the governments of Nigeria seem to view training and development for both organizational and the individual's career benefit can be seen from Table 1.1 which indicates the sort of programmes associated with the various levels and cadres of public servants (see Ajileye, 1980):

TABLE 1.1:

FEDERAL (NIGERIAN) CIVIL SERVICE COURSES.

ADMINISTRATIVE OFFICERS	PROFESSIONAL OFFICERS	EXECUTIVE OFFICERS
(i) Induction course (new entrants)	Induction course	Induction course
(ii) (a) Mid-level Management courses (b) Diploma in Public Administration or Development Economics	Professional Courses directly relevant to pro- fessional duties of officers	Certificate in Public Administ- ration (mainly for non- graduates)
(iii) Specific service requirements		
(iv) Advanced Management courses	Advanced Manage- ment courses	Diploma in Public Administ- ration (mainly for graduates)
(v) Sabbatical leave for people in the topmost two or three career positions	Job-related seminars and workshops	Personnel Management course

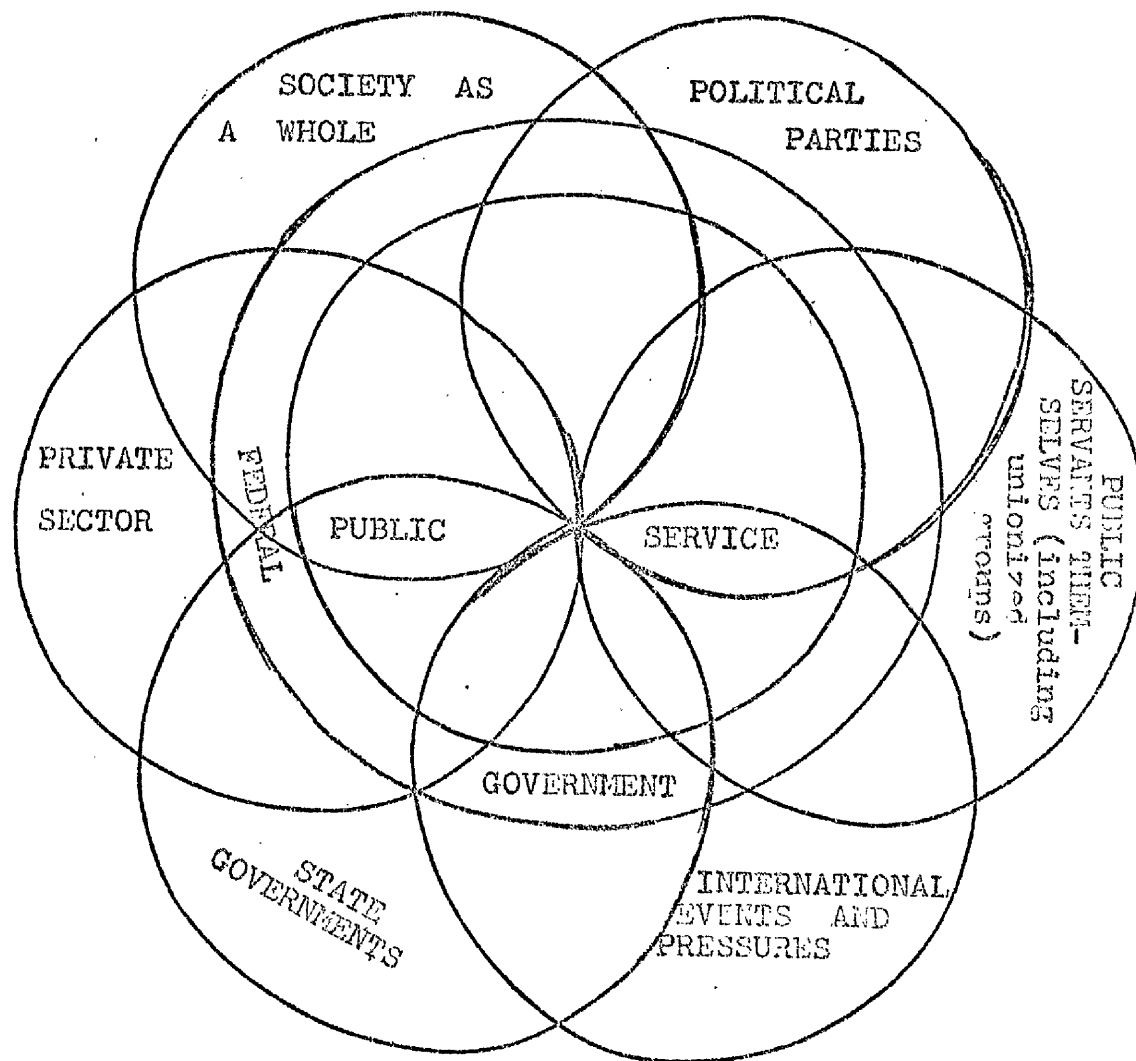
Besides, the continuing explosion of demography and

expectations demands a public service that can cope, that is, a public service with personnel who perform with conscious and purposeful expertise. Fig.1.1 (next page) depicts the environmental pressures consisting of various human groups and other phenomena looking up to a public service and wishing public servants to perceive and satisfy those demands.

Increase in population has meant heavier and heavier demands on agricultural agencies for more food and pressures for more schools, transportation, housing and health facilities, beside employment and various other welfare projects. Education itself has increased awareness of individuals and groups for the good life. From various quarters in a complex and multi-national environment, each public service of Nigeria is the focus of, at times, conflicting expectations. It is arguable that the pressure of environment is more felt in developing countries than in developed countries. Concerning the latter, Toffler (1970 and 1980) has demonstrated that they are faced with technological and other explosions and changes, difficult to cope with and developing into future shocks. The conditions of the developing countries can be said to be worse in that they are not only contending with effort to industrialize but also with the spill-overs of rising 'super-industrial' waves of their developed neighbours.

The state of the pressures is therefore such as cannot be managed by mere, and only, intuition, but also and essentially by conscious awareness of the needs themselves

FIG.1.1 : ENVIRONMENTAL PRESSURES ON A PUBLIC
(FEDERAL) SERVICE IN NIGERIA



and of expertise. The need for training and the application of learning can thus not be over-emphasized. It is not surprising, then, that whenever professional and academic luminaries are invited to deliver key-note addresses to trainees, they either take the initiative to stress the importance of applying management learning or are often

specifically asked to do so. A typical address contains the following:

"It is my hope that you will find your six-week stay here most pleasant and rewarding.

The hope rises from my belief that your nomination and acceptance for these three programmes were in fulfilment of both your personal needs for self-improvement and your organization's quest for effectiveness. If this is so, as I believe it is, then the objectives of these courses, which are essentially two-fold, become clearer. First, you are, as individuals, expected to acquire new knowledge, skills and attitude that will improve your ability to cope with the requirements of your job. Second, it is expected that the newly acquired capabilities will be applied on the job to produce desired improvements in your respective organisations.

To make all these possible entails joint responsibility on the part of both the College and the participants for what goes on in the three programmes in the next six weeks. The participants are expected, if the objectives of the different programmes are to be realized, to show a desire to learn, experiment and share experiences with their participant colleagues as well as ASCON facilitators. The College, on the other hand, is expected to

provide programmes that address the needs of individuals as well as those of their respective organizations and conduct them in such a way that the learning objectives will be achieved. We firmly believe that the content of, and teaching methods to be used in, the three courses answer to these requirements.

It is expected that by the end of the course, the participating accountants and auditors will accept the wider definition of their role which encompasses their traditional roles as custodians and watch-dogs of public funds and the new role as members of a management team on whom organizations depend for their survival and growth.

(As regards the Manpower Development and Training Course). The need to train the trainers as well as public servants in every functional area has assumed greater significance and received more attention of governments in recent years. This importance was underlined in the Lagos Plan of Action for Implementing the Monrovia Strategy for Economic Development on Africa which was accepted by the Assembly of African Heads of State and Government which met in Lagos on 28th - 29th April, 1980. The meeting affirmed, and I quote, that

'to achieve self-sustained, internally self-generating socio-economic development, the need is to realign development priorities

to emphasize the development of human resource both as the object of development and as the custodian and mentor of socio-economic development; as the supplier and consumer of skills as well as the terminal products and services of all development effort.' " (Soneye, 1980)

This typical address to trainees expresses some expectations which deserve comments to stress the importance attached to training and the transfer of learning to the work situation. Its second paragraph refers to training programmes as intended for both self and organizational improvements. The second to the last paragraph refers to using learning to achieve management team effectiveness - that is, an idea that learning should improve individual performance as well as team-mates. The last paragraph (the section in inner quotes) talks of the training-recipient as a consumer and supplier of learnt skills. 'Consumer' applies to the trainee himself while 'supplier' expresses the expectation that he could transfer his learning to other work group or organizational members, so that all, including himself, may be result-oriented. It also has to be noted, in that last paragraph, that the fruits expected from learning are not a peculiar hope of only Nigeria but also beyond.

The address captures the spirit of the learning transfer issue, namely, that it is on the micro-level (self-change) and on the macro-level (organizational,

group, and others). This point will be examined in greater depth in chapter 2. Meantime, the thrust of the address on the importance of learning transfer can be succinctly depicted with a model based on Kirkpatrick's (1976) article, Fig.1.2 below.

FIG.1.2 : EXPECTED CAUSAL CHAIN BETWEEN TRAINING/
LEARNING AND INDIVIDUAL-ORGANIZATIONAL
CHANGE



This fig. and the micro and macro-levels of the expectation attached to training and learning suggest that in the Nigerian context and in many other places, management training is equated with, or regarded as an aspect and a strategy of organization development (O.D.). According to Pym (1968), a training, the benefits of which are not confined to the training-recipient but extend toward organizational improvement is an O.D. effort or process.

It would therefore be a disappointment that, despite these high expectations and the existence of training policy and substantial training facilities in, and outside, Nigeria, learning transfer is either generally not taking place or is unsuccessful. It is expected, then, that this study will benefit the Nigerian public services, the managers of which claim to be concerned with effective utilization of trained manpower. It is also hoped that, though based on the public sector, the study will be valued by the private sector since that sector is also interested in the matter of learning transfer. Besides,

management consultants and business schools are likely to find some of the material here additional to what they have for their work. Finally, the transferer of learning who succeeds with the help of the learning transfer model to be recommended is likely to gain the satisfaction of being an innovator.

(ii) DEFINITIONS OF MAJOR TERMS IN THE
 RESEARCH TITLE

The terms considered necessary for clarification are 're-entrant', 'learning', 'public service organizations', and 'the' (the definite article used at beginning of the subject-title).

By 're-entrant' is meant a person who has returned to, or re-entered, his sponsoring organization after undergoing an external course of training, in this case, management or management-related training. In this study, its synonyms are, at times, 'training-recipient', 'trainee' and 'manager'.

Learning has been defined as "changes in behaviour that result from previous behaviour in similar situations. Mostly, but by no means always, behaviour also becomes demonstrably more effective and more adaptive after the exercise than it was before. In the broadest terms, then, learning refers to the effects of experience on subsequent behaviour" (Berelson and Steiner, 1964, p.163). 'Similar situations' here refers to the trainee's or learner's work place to which he returns to demonstrate,

as a result of his new perception and understanding, an improvement in his pre-training performance.

G. Lippitt (1969) states that learning therefore implies knowing something intellectually or conceptually one did not know before; being able to do something one could not do before - a behaviour or a skill; combining two knowns into a new understanding of a skill, piece of knowledge, concept or behaviour; being able to use or apply a new combination of skills, knowledge, concept or behaviour; and being able to understand and apply that which one knows - skill, knowledge or behaviour.

Therefore, the process of learning should be such as can help the learner to learn how to learn effectively so that more of his experiences can lead toward learning and change. The basic purpose, states Bradford (1958), is to help the learner to open himself for learning by being able to bring his problems and needs to surface, and to listen and accept relevant reactions about his problems and behaviour. It is also to help him to acquire methods of experimenting, analyzing and utilizing experiences and knowledge in daily problem-solving.

In the Nigerian context of this study, however, these purposes of learning should be borne in mind as including the processes of using what has been learnt to influence others in the work situation to perform better than before. Moreover, learning is not only a

process of change but also a substance of what is learnt, for example, new ideas, new processes, new behaviours and practices. This is because it is not only the series of events helping learning that counts, but also the substance of it which is transferred by the learner to work.

In this study, too, learning is not only associated with training but also with development and education. Some authorities (Nadler, 1970; Laird, 1978) have referred to the distinction among these three learning processes. Education is seen as a series of generalizing activities directed at improving overall competence in life as a whole rather than for specific vocations so that a person may be prepared for various situations. Development is seen as preparing a person to move in a balance with his organization as it develops, evolves, changes and grows, while training is geared to improving him in his current job. In the context of work life, these latter processes (development and training) may be said to start where education stops.

The view taken in this study is that, while this differentiation is well taken, it should not be over-emphasized. Training, like education and development, can induce creative imagination, and all of them are seen as complementary as reasoned by Reilly (1979).

As regards what constitute 'public service organizations' in this study, these are the executive agencies

of the Nigerian governments. They are of various types, but this study is not interested in rather fine distinctions. It is considered enough to state that some of them are expected to be profit-oriented, using double accounting system, for example, brewery and airways; while others, though expected to be effective as in private organizations, are service-oriented, for example, ministries and commissions. This study draws data from both broad categories in the hope that, although not all the organizations they embody are covered, conclusions may be safely said to be applicable generally.

In defining the terms used in the subject-title of this study, one may question the use of the definite article, 'the', at the beginning. It is not intended to depict that every possible problem of learning transfer processes has been covered. Rather, it is definite as far as the research findings of this study are concerned.

One may, finally, wish to note that the expression, 'transfer of learning' will often be replaced with such terms as 'innovative behaviour' and 'performance'. This is because learning transfer implies bringing the 'new' to bear improvementally on the 'old': it is also an action or a behaviour.

(iii) THE ARRANGEMENT OF THIS STUDY

Chapters 2, 3 and 4 are a survey of the literature and related literature, each of the chapters respectively covering each of the three dimensions of the research

problem - the organizational, the learning situation, and the personal characteristics of the re-entrants. In chapter 5, the preceding three chapters are summarized and hypotheses developed to reflect the three research dimensions. Chapter 6 presents a discussion of the research method used. The chapter is followed by a display of the collected empirical data with their interpretations (chapter 7). In chapter 8, the interpretations in chapter 7 are discussed. Chapter 9 follows with an examination of existing models of learning transfer. These models are shown to have some limitations in the light of the chapter 8 discussion, and a new model is suggested. Finally, some other issues connected with learning transfer are suggested as possible research interests.

SUMMARY OF CHAPTER 1

This chapter clarifies that the purpose of this study is to find out why public service managers fail to transfer their management and management-related learning to their work-situations. The need to suggest a possible solution is seen in the considerable finance which governments allocate to training as a means of overall socio-economic development of a developing country. To ensure that the major terms used in the subject title of this study are understood in context, a 're-entrant' is defined as a person who returns to his sponsoring organization after a course. Learning

is defined principally in terms of behavioural changes resulting from a person's exposure to training, as well as what is carried from training to work environment. Public service organizations refer to executive agencies of governments whether profit or service-oriented.

CHAPTER 2

THE ORGANIZATIONAL DIMENSION OF LEARNING TRANSFER PROBLEM

INTRODUCTION

This chapter with the next two chapters explores the current and related literature on the transfer of learning so as to provide some insight into the problem. The exploration also provides the material from which the research hypotheses can be sifted to guide the sort of questions to ask the data sources of the study in the Nigerian setting. For presentational clarity, the content of the chapter is arranged and discussed theme-by-theme. At the same time, the interconnection of the themes is demonstrated with reminding linkages.

It should be early stated that, far from the initial impression that the non-transfer of learning was among the negative characteristics of 'under-developed' countries, like Nigeria, the problem is pervasive. In fact, while there is no known work in Nigeria to cite from, it will easily be observed that the works referred to in this study reflect the 'reality' of the problem in the United Kingdom and the United States of America (developed countries) and India (semi-developed country).

Another general observation from the cited authorities is that the problem of learning transfer

can be studied in three dimensions:

- (i) the organizational environment, situation or climate;
- (ii) the training or learning situation;
- (iii) the personality, competence or characteristics of the training-recipient who re-enters his organization.

This is not to say that the authorities cited individually cover these three dimensions. Some of them concentrate on one dimension, or do so while referring to the others. The most neglected dimension, as will be demonstrated, is the trainee's personality.

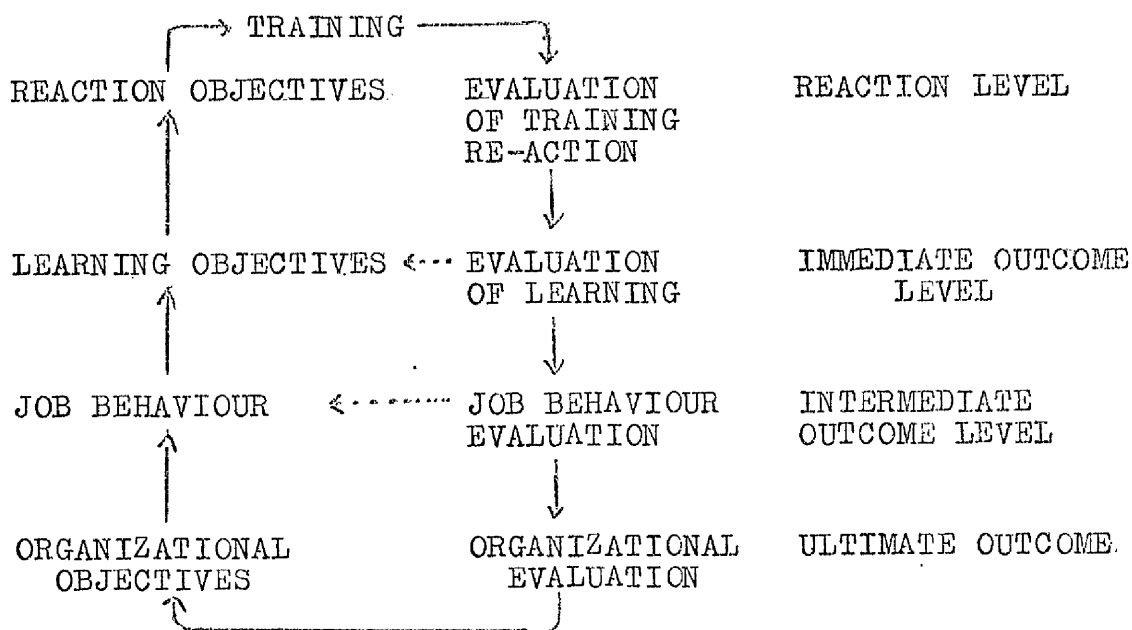
Moreover, the authorities in the area of learning transfer are few indeed when one notes the numerous literature on other management issues, for example, communication, motivation and leadership. Their number is further reduced by the fact that, in this study, selectivity based strictly on relevance is exercised.

The unpopularity of evaluation research is seen as partly responsible for the relative paucity of studies on learning transfer problem. Baumgartel, Sullivan and Dunn (1978) have pointed out that evaluation, as a research interest, is not popular because it does not bring the recognition and acclaim which researchers enjoy in other areas of management or 'organizational behaviour'. It is significant that such observations about 'the state of the art' bear recent dates.

It is also possible that the very nature of

training and its evaluation, especially on-the-job and the total organization, discourages research and, therefore, literature output. Ideally, evaluation has to take place on the four levels (Whitelaw, 1972) depicted in Fig. 2.1 (whether a training programme is internal or external).

FIG. 2.1 : THE LEVELS AND CYCLE OF EVALUATION³



Re-actions level refers to trainees' opinions about, and attitudes to, the trainer's competence, methods of presentation, usefulness of, and interest in, subjects covered, enjoyment of, and involvement in, the course. The major objective of reactions level of evaluation is the improvement of training processes and contents. Immediate outcome level has to do with undergone changes in knowledge, skills and attitudes, identifiable after training and before re-entry.

Evaluation on intermediate level pertains to changed behaviour at work, identified sometime after re-entry, while ultimate outcome level measures the benefit of received training to the organization, that is, cost-benefit ratio as it affects the whole organization.

Evaluation is cyclically depicted in Fig. 2.1 because it may lead to an awareness of a further need for training, re-training and re-evaluation.

In practice, however, evaluators find the first two levels relatively easy as they occur in the learning situation (relatively easy but unreliable as they tend to be uniformly laudatory - Odiorne (1970). Beyond these levels the exercise is fraught with frustrating difficulties. Firstly, it is subjective and the full effects of training are difficult to isolate and measure. As Whitelaw (1972, *op. cit.*) points out, this is because of the interplay of both training and extra-training variables. Besides, the trainer may blow the effects of training out of proportion since he would wish to be perceived as doing a valuable job: so also may behave an executive development and training institution. The sponsoring and client organization may also extol training and send staff for it because it is the vogue, seen as a mark of modern management (Boydell, 1971).

Furthermore, and from the writer's experience, the literature stock is not large because (i) of sheer

complacency of trainers and managers, the idea of examining learning transfer not even occurring to them; (ii) of ignorance of how to tackle the problem; and (iii) trainers and managers expect each other to do it, with the result that it becomes a 'no man's land'. If, therefore, evaluation is not undertaken, a source of understanding the problems of learning transfer is detracted from. It is not a condition for much literature output on those problems.

A final general observation as regards the literature is a failure to portray clearly what is involved in the processes of learning transfer, which makes them a problem. Hagen (1962), commenting on often observed tendency of writers to be vague, has pointed out that innovation (which learning transfer entails) does not exist in the abstract, but has to be clearly seen as involving, among other things, relationships with other persons. It is, therefore, not enough, if an impact is to be made on managers to assist the re-entrant, to state transfer in general terms, but in specific, for example, is it transfer on micro-level or macro or both? What are the implications of the awareness that the transfer of learning entails interfaces on organizational levels (macro) beyond the individual re-entrant (micro)? Since the literature is not always explicit on these questions, one has to look for answers in related 'organizational behaviour' areas

considered enlightening. This will be done as this chapter with the next two is developed.

Nonetheless, the existing literature saves this study from the difficulty usually associated with the origination of new fields of research - that of having virtually nothing to draw from. The main criterion for drawing from the cited literature is the studies being based on empirical data and/or being assessed as thoroughly reasoned by the authors.

As earlier stated, the authorities, when put together, look at learning transfer problem from the dimensions of organizational environment, situation or climate; learning or training situation; and personality factors (though the most neglected is this third mentioned).

The following survey treats each dimension one after the other but with the personal dimension occurring last (chapter 4), as will in the data-collection process, because it is the most sensitive of all. If research starts with asking a subject to give an account of how he sees himself and how he assesses that people see his personality, he may get too inhibited to talk freely of the other dimensions of the research.

Finally, in going through the discussions which follow, the reader is requested to keep surfacing in his mind the questions, "what are the implications of the points made for the re-entrant's disposition toward transferring learning? What hypotheses may

be derived from the literature to guide the development and design of the questions to be asked Nigerian respondents?"

ORGANIZATIONAL VARIABLES AS A PROBLEM

In a post-training evaluation conducted by Fleishman, Harris and Burt (1955) in the United States of America, foremen as re-entrants are found to have experienced psychological and open conflicts over the non-acceptance of new ideas acquired from learning. The authors conclude, from their analysis, that this happens because when the new is juxtaposed with the old in an attempt to achieve the acceptance and implementation of the former, the latter tends to have the dominant influence. It is not easy for long-standing and established mode of performance to yield to innovation. Andrews (1957), also following up post-training organizational events, concludes that organizations contain both supportive and inhibitive forces. The tendency, however, is for the inhibitive to be stronger, with the result that the re-entrant gives up the learning transfer effort.

Pugh's (1965) study is based on trainees' experiences after exposure to T-Group exercises, the objectives of which are to improve sensitivity, enhance diagnostic ability, and develop action skills. These abilities indicate that the re-entrant may have undergone attitudinal changes by which he redefines his organizational role. Yet, as Pugh (ibid) and Katz and Kahn (1966) explain, organizational demands and

expectations, remaining what they were before his training, and also outside his control, are too inhibitive for the sustained expression of his 'new' personality.

Like the Pugh study, Davies (1972) is U.K.-based but on hospital management rather than on T-Group. Noting that organizational factors dampen attempts to transfer learning to the work situation, Davies concludes that the unfavourable reception accorded to new ideas in many hospitals resulted in rapid dissipation of post-course euphoria and frustration for course members who attempted to put some of their knowledge to use.

A point is that the re-entrant is a member of role-set with role expectations and interpretations already established and already operating over time. As Havelock (1970) explains, roles tend to be fixed and rigidly followed. Conflicts may therefore arise when the learning-affected re-entrant starts redefining his role divergently from others' interpretations and expectations.

The support of the boss of a work group has been suggested by Weiss, Huczynski and Lewis (1980) to ensure that a re-entrant transfers learning. These authorities base their conclusion on their analysis of the responses of 48 subjects. The data are shown to correlate significantly with the factor of pre-course discussions with bosses who implicitly or explicitly encouraged the application of learning. However, as will be argued toward the end of this study, it is

doubtful whether reliance on only superiors or formal organizational leaders can always ensure success in the transfer of learning. The transfer of learning does not end with attempts to do so. It involves diffusion of ideas to bosses and others, their acceptance, trial implementation, actual final implementation, and evaluation (Zaltman, Duncan and Holbeck, 1973 on organizational change).

Another study which considers the transfer of learning as dependent on organizational variables is Stiefel's (1974). Stiefel identifies the barriers to learning transfer as formal authority system of an organization, how this authority is exercised, and the behaviour of the re-entrant's primary work group members (whether or not inspiring).

He therefore reasons that the strategies to facilitate the transfer of learning should be geared to these organizational barriers. In making this suggestion, he goes beyond the organization to the course venue itself, meaning that he recognises that the problem may be associated with the relevance of learning activities. This latter aspect of the strategies will be discussed in chapter 3. For now attention should be focussed on the organizational strategies which that authority suggests.

One of these is that superiors should discuss the outcomes of training undergone by the re-entrant, obviously to give him the opportunity to apply what

are considered applicable for organizational benefit. A second strategy is for intact work group members to be trained together (the same course). This is expected to achieve a communality of attitudes and behaviours concerning work, thus eliminating possible conflicts when one trained person returns to his group to try to impart or apply his learning. The third strategy suggested by Stiefel is for 'linking pin' group members to attend the same courses, again for the same reason as in the case of intact work teams.

These strategies are feasible especially if courses are internal. They do not, however, clear the problem associated with the fact that people in those same groups and organizations may, at one time or another, attend external courses in which they have to relate with strangers rather than with their work colleagues and bosses. Hamblin (1970) has succinctly stated that the issue of learning transfer inevitably arises whenever people attend, and return from, externally run training programmes.

Secondly, the evolution of human personality is such that its developmental divergencies do not always ensure that people exposed to the same situations (for example, courses) will, as a result, have the same perceptions and attitudes (Allport, 1961; Monte, 1977). Thirdly, while Stiefel's application of the 'linking pin' concept to training strategy is realistic by recognizing the need for complementarity in programmes

for different staff levels, it does not take into consideration that different managerial levels also require different orientations of knowledge and skills, as Katz and Kahn (1966, op.cit.) point out.

Furthermore, the concept of 'linking pin', developed by Likert (1961), shows an organization as an interlocking structure (chain) of influence. Therefore, to advocate a training and learning transfer strategy based on the concept implies giving all managers the same training at the same time or in groups of different times until all managers are made to undergo the same course. In terms of time and cost, this would or might be unrealistic. What is likely to be more realistic is a learning transfer strategy which enables a re-entrant to apply and spread the benefits of training with relative ease, eliminated or minimal destructive conflicts, and saved time and cost.

As regards the strategy of superiors' having to discuss a re-entrant's training outcomes, one may state that much as superiors can be seen as a dominant coalition in pushing through new ideas, their exercise of authority may be read as autocratic if those under them are democratically inclined. As stated in the brief comment on the Weiss, et al. (1980, op.cit.) finding on the importance of boss' role in learning transfer, this point will be re-examined toward the end of this study (Chapter 9).

With these general observations, made about organizations and the transfer of learning, how organizational

climate may be perceived as operating to hamper learning transfer should be examined.

HOW ORGANIZATIONAL CLIMATE MAY INHIBIT THE TRANSFER OF LEARNING

The concept of 'organizational climate' is an unsettled one and should, therefore, be explained in the context of this study. The literature on it has been mounting, so that if there is too much concentration on it, the reader may be made to forget that this study is not on organizational climate 'per se', but on how it may affect the transfer of learning to the work situation. Therefore effort has been made to extract from the mass of studies what is considered enlightening in the focus of this study.

The confusion surrounding the concept arises from the fact that while some authorities talk of organizational climate, others talk of organizational environment, organizational situation, and organizational situational variance. Some also refer to 'psychological climate'.

From various authorities, James and Jones (1974) have built up a composite of organizational situational variance as on Table 2.1.

Organizational situational variance is thus seen to be composed of organizational context, structure, process, physical environment and values and norms. James and Jones (ibid.) point out that a more comprehensive portrayal of

variance would include individuals, groups and external environmental factors which impinge on an organization.

TABLE 2.1 :: DIMENSIONS/FACTORS OF ORGANIZATIONAL SITUATIONAL VARIANCE

CONTENT	STRUCTURE	PROCESS	PHYSICAL ENVIRONMENT	SYSTEMS VALUES & NORMS
goals/objectives	size	leadership	physical space characteristics (e.g. temperature lighting sound)	conformity rationality
ownership & control	centralization of decision-making	communication		predictability impersonality
charter (diversity of mission)	specialization of procedures	control		loyalty
dependence	interdependence of sub-systems	conflict resolution	personal protection	reciprocity
resources		change	remoteness	adherence to chain of command
age		co-ordination	environmental hazards	local (cosmopolitan) orientation
function		selection	space restrictions and confinement	programmed (unprogrammed)
level of technology		socialization		approaches to problem solving
		reward	endurance demands	
		decision-making	environmental stresses	
		status & power relationships		

A problem arises when some authorities describe organizational climate as made up of the attributes or characteristics determined by, or synonymous with, the components of organizational situational variance, while others see it as the attributes or characteristics of

individuals in the organization. Within the former perspective are two sub-perspectives: (i) multiple measurements - organizational attribute, and (ii) perceptual measurements - organizational attribute. When the individual-based approach is added, the number of perspectives increases to three. The number still increases when these perspectives are combined to give what is seen as the total climate of an organization, that is, that there exist identifiable and objective organizational attributes different from the attributes of individuals, and that both interact to create climate (Gavin, 1975).

The holders of the multiple measurements - organizational perspective define climate as a set of characteristics that distinguish the organization from other organizations; are relatively enduring over time; and influence the behaviour of people in the organization (Forehand and Gilmer, 1964).

Clearly what these authorities say is that climate directs or determines behaviour. The individual is therefore subjected to the environmental or situational variance comprising the elements depicted on Table 2.1 above. Applied to the transfer of learning, this definitional perspective implies that a re-entrant's transfer behaviour depends, not on himself as an active agent, independent of forces in his world, but dependent solely on those forces.

Those who adopt the perceptual measurements - organizational attributes approach see climate as "a set of

attributes specific to a particular organisation that may be induced from the way the organization deals with its members and its environment. For the individual member within an organization, climate takes the form of a set of attitudes and expectations which describe the organization in terms of both static characteristics such as degree of autonomy and behaviour-outcome or outcome-outcome contingencies" (Campbell, et al., 1970, p.390). Here, organizational attributes are mainly in terms of attitudes and expectations, unlike the more multitudinous elements in the Forehand and Gilmer perspective stated in the preceding paragraph.

There, however, appears to be some cloudiness in the Campbell, et al. rendering of the definition. The first part of their definition reifies organizations: the subsequent part makes climate a matter of individual perception, suggesting the mediation of meaning. An effect of reification would be to make the individual climate - dependent on some objectively existent organizational properties. An effect of individualised view of climate is that climate is individual-dependent. If both perspectives are understood as synthesized by Campbell, et al., then their view of climate is akin to Gavin's (1975, op.cit.). However, later on the same p.390 of their work, they state that "the crucial elements are the individual's perceptions of the relevant stimuli", in which case their view is the same as Schneider and Bartlett's (1970) and Litwin and Stringer's (1968) referred to below.

As regards the perceptual measurements - individual attributes, climate is viewed as the attributes of individuals in an organisation, that is, a set of perceptions and attitudes held by individuals and determining how they see, and subjectively, interpret organisational events and other phenomena. The interpretation thus portrays the individual as an information processor, using inputs from events and other organisational phenomena, and his own bank of values and needs.

The concept of climate is therefore personalistic, and for any elements in organisational situation to be related to behaviour depends on the degree of importance the individual, by his subjective interpretation and assessment, attaches to those elements (Schneider and Bartlett, 1970; Schneider, 1973). Therefore, what is of significance to a person must be how he sees his work situation, not how others see it, and not the mere 'objective' existence of factors or components of organizational situational variance.

Unlike the other perspectives, this individualized standpoint subjects climate to the individual (instead of the other way round which personifies climate). Authorities like Forehand and Gilmer (1964, op.cit.) are obviously in the organisational systems stream of thought, while Schneider and Bartlett (1973, op.cit.) belong to symbolic interactionism and action theory of Blumer (1969), Shibutani (1973) and Silverman (1970). In psychology, their theoretical perspective may be identified with Kelly's (1955) theory of 'personal constructs' or Macleod's

(1968) 'psychological phenomenology'.

Space has been devoted to mentioning these points because these personalistic theories have influenced the perspective of this study and, therefore, the research method employed and discussed in chapter 6. The theories are understood as depicting every phenomenon as a symbol which impinges on an individual's cognitive - affective components. These components are anchorages which provide a standard for contrasting and evaluating in-coming communication symbols so that the individual may behave, act or anticipate the future in a certain way. Even where and when he 'behaves' under compulsion, it is still because of his subjective interpretation of symbols as strong enough to coerce him into pro or counter - attitudinal behaviour.

Since the perspective taken in this study is that of action theory or individual attributes of climate, the perspective not only indicates that the transfer of learning depends on how the re-entrant interprets transfer-related situations, but also has important implications for the research method. These implications are, for example, that:

- (i) perceptions, attitudes and other factors in the subjective experiences of subjects have to be used as raw research data;
- (ii) if earlier research instruments are to be used in their original or modified forms, they have to be those related to the personal constructs or individualized

perception of organizational climate and other dimensions of the learning transfer problem. In other words, the research method must be phenomenological.

EMPIRICAL EVIDENCE OF INDIVIDUALIZED VIEW OF ORGANIZATIONAL CLIMATE

Therefore, it becomes necessary at this stage, to look at some empirical evidence of individual attributes of climate as regards learning transfer. As far as the specific research problem of the transfer of learning is concerned, not many authorities have been known to look at it phenomenologically. An exception is Burgoyne (1974), but since his study is related to the value which subjects place on learning, that study is referred to in chapter 3 which is on the learning situation dimension of this study. Other studies do not concern learning transfer specifically, but performance generally. Since learning transfer is an aspect of the general concept of 'performance', two or three empirical studies associated with phenomenology or individualised view of climate are here presented.

Herzberg with others' (1959) distillation of hygiene factors and motivators from interview responses is based on the questions:

- (i) Can you describe in detail when you felt exceptionally good about your job?
- (ii) Can you describe in detail when you felt exceptionally bad about your job?

Herzberg has been criticised on the grounds that his theory, by dichotomizing motivators and non-motivators, is facile, for, individuals differ on what motivates them and what are merely satisficers. However, the criticism, rather than mean that the study be discarded, cautions against over-generalization and simplification. A basic point brought out by Herzberg is that it is not what is in the organizational situation 'per se' that elicits performance, but how the performer interprets it.

The work of Litwin and Stringer (1968, p.189) is clearly intended to be individualized climate in perspective as noted from their statement that organizational climate "is subjective" in that work-related behaviour depends on how people perceive organizational phenomena in connection with their needs for achievement, affiliation, and power, for example, whether they perceive that organizational structure and rules are constraining to autonomy; risk could be taken without the fear or anxiety that punishment would result from failure; reward is available for a well done job; there is a general good fellowship, friendliness and mutual helpfulness; there is implicit or explicit importance of their jobs; managers and other workers entertain divergent opinions and welcome open problem-resolution; and they enjoy a feeling of belonging to the organization.

Litwin and Stringer have, however, been criticized on the basis that their research instruments were entirely people-oriented and that, for example, the meanings which

they gave to 'structure' and 'standard' measure people's affects toward other people instead of the inanimate phenomena which these concepts traditionally represent (Sims and Lafollett, 1975, and Pritchard and Karasick, 1973). These criticisms do not seem weighty because they are partly semantic and do not upset the individualized theoretical perspective of the study. Had Litwin and Stringer given another meaning to the criticized concepts, it is unlikely that a significant difference would have been made on the results. Secondly whatever factors exist in organisations, people are, in the final analysis among the affected resources. Thus in the Tavistock staff studies, (for example, Trist and Bamforth, 1951) it is demonstrated that change in (non-people) technology (coal getting, for example) develops into a people problem (disaffection because of perceived dislocation of already established work team members' relationships).

An adverse criticism one may have for the Litwin -- Stringer studies is methodological. It is considered that since the authors adopted individualized perspective of climate, a more consistent method ought to have been thorough-goingly phenomenological rather than more of logico-positivist. Chapter 6 discusses this point in greater depth.

Other studies which also relate performance, such as innovative behaviour, to individual perception of climate are those of Meyer (1968) and Schneider and Bartlett (1970, op.cit), which beside terminological differences are essentially identical with Litwin and

Stringer's in results.

How, then, does organizational climate, as perceived by people, work to affect performance, including the transfer of learning? It is logical to start answers by looking at perceptions and attitudes as basic factors of behaviour in organizations.

PERCEPTIONS, ATTITUDES AND ORGANIZATIONAL
CLIMATE : IMPLICATIONS FOR THE TRANSFER OF
LEARNING

Perception has been variously defined (see notes)⁴. In this study, Cantril's (1972) definition is adopted, that is, the process by which an individual interprets, or gives meaning to, any environmental phenomenon. It is an identificatory process without evaluative colouring, such as, recognizing an object as a particular thing. Once evaluation enters the process, perception is no longer simply identificatory but the emergence of 'attitude'. The evaluation is a process of a person's comparison of what is perceived to his past experiences as they relate directly or indirectly with the perceived phenomenon.

Though various authorities define 'attitude' in different words, they generally agree that it is relatively enduring over time. For this study, various definitions have been synthesized, so that 'attitude' is defined as a knowledge (cognition) and feeling (affect) developed from a comparative evaluation of the experienced present and the experienced past, which may lead to an overt or covert, implicit or explicit, action toward objects,

issues and events in an environment.

This definition need not give the impression that attitude always occurs after perception, or that it is always a visible cause of behaviour. No doubt the chain may be as causal as Doob (1947) demonstrates:

overt stimulus (perceived object) →
implicit response (attitude) →
overt behaviour (the end-result or goal
of perception and attitude).

But, often too, what an object is identified to be is shaped by already held attitude, hence one of the explanations of the concept of 'selective perception'. Besides, behaviour rather than be the end-product can, in fact, be the antecedent state for reviewing already held attitude. Forced compliance, for example, could finally be a condition in which the compliant starts perceiving the objects of his behaviour differently, so that he may reduce or eliminate the dissonance between counter-attitudinal behaviour and his earlier held attitude. Garner (1977) illustrates this process with the adoption of new ways by coerced indigenes of colonized lands. Schein (1964) does the same with changes undergone by brain-washed war prisoners in China.

One of the implications of these statements on perception and attitude is that the interpretation and evaluation which some organizational members give to the new ideas brought from learning are among the determinants of the acceptance and application of those ideas. Using Doob's (1947, op.cit.) theory, one

may state the elements in learning transfer as follows:

(i) the new ideas from learning provide the overt stimulus; (ii) the attitude roused by the interpretation or evaluation of the ideas is the implicit response; and (iii) the behaviour as end-product of attitude is the acceptance or rejection of the ideas.

The new ideas must be appealing, that is, strong in the positive sense of stirring up favourable attitudes; and the attitudes themselves must be strong, central or primary, rather than secondary or peripheral, to be likely to lead to the acceptance and implementation of the new ideas being imported from a learning situation. But, as Doob (ibid) points out, there may be present, in the environment, other forces which an attitude-holder may interpret or identify and evaluate as behaviourally inhibitive. Therefore a strong attitude to an object may not necessarily be followed with a consistent behaviour. In the organizational situation or climate, in which the re-entrant does not operate as an 'isolate', the re-entrant thus faces the fact that he is not associating with one but many attitudes; the task of ensuring that his package of ideas is a powerful overt stimulus source; and the fact that even if his primary work unit members favourably perceived and evaluated his ideas, there may be other factors in the work environment seen by them as climatically inhibitive to innovation, for example, perceived organizational policy toward change, initiative and autonomy.

Attitudes toward new ideas are only one side of the

problem of learning transfer. There are also the attitudes toward the re-entrant himself as a proponent of innovation. The attitude studies of Hovland, Janis and Kelly (1953) and Zimbardo and Ebbesen (1970) can be used to illustrate this point. They analyzed subjects' responses to determine why a communicator or persuader may succeed or fail to change opinions. They concluded that among the factors is the perception and assessment of the credibility of the influence source. Transposed to the issue of learning transfer, this conclusion means that the process of transfer could be difficult if the re-entrant is regarded by all, or some members of the work situation, as a person of low credibility.

The cited authorities have been criticised on the basis of their using students in their quasi-experimental work and that, since students tend to have things at stake in their relationships with teachers and researchers, responses might have contained some bias. This may be; but it also may not. Even if the researchers had used actual organizational workers, there might be no total certainty of the absence of bias since subjects could wish to please highly respected university dons. Secondly, subjects might also give unreal responses if they wished to cover up any negativities about their organization.

The use of students is empirical and admissible because students are human beings whose study situations and human relations are comparable to organizational work situations. Moreover, if the animal laboratory experiments of behaviourists like Skinner (1953) are

demonstrated as having implications for employee motivation (Nord, 1972), the use of students is all the more related to human work situations.

Beside the communication perceptive of attitude change discussed above, there is the functional view which also has implications for the transfer of learning. Katz and Stotland (1959) see attitudes as having four main functions, all pertaining to motivation: (i) the instrumental, adjustive function, by which a person seeks reduction of experienced pain but increase of reward or that which is utilitarian and pleasurable; (ii) the ego-defensive function, by which he avoids accepting uncomfortable facts about himself or his environment; (iii) the value-expressive function, by which he 'behaves' to reflect those attitudes that are consonant with his self-concept; and (iv) the knowledge function, by which he tries to understand and make meaning out of his environmental experiences.

These motivational bases of attitudes imply, for the person who seeks to transfer learning to his work situation, that a proposed new 'modus operandi' could be rejected by those who see it as punishing in some manner. The very fact that a new practice is being pushed forward for implementation could be interpreted by some members of the work group as an adverse criticism of what they had long accepted as effective, so that a new approach is a piece of unpleasant information telling their organizational world that they were not as result-producing as they had hitherto assumed.

The rejection or acceptance of the new also has an explanation based on social judgement theory of attitude, developed by Sherif and Hovland (1961) and Sherif, Sherif and Nebergall (1965). The relevant aspect of their theory to this study is the point that social influences are, so to say, rooted or anchored in the cognitive-affective field of an individual, and serve as a standard with which incoming ideas and sources of data are assessed. These anchorages for contrasting and differentiating among ideas may be those held by the group to which the individual belongs.

The studies of the cited authorities included the use of individuals from different social groups to determine how group differences may affect attitudes to issues. The stands taken by individuals were shown as tending to reflect their social (group) backgrounds. In some cases, however, a person from a group did not reflect the attitudes of that group. The difference is explained as a desire of the individual to 'toe the line' of the other group if he feels himself threatened or numerically overwhelmed, or wishes to appear liberal. Often, he may opt for a neutral position.

Social judgement theory has been criticised because the judgement or evaluation of objects can be attributed to other factors, like the intellectual level of the judge; and that it is not clear whether attitude follows judgement or 'vice versa' (Kiesler, Collins and Miller, (1969)). However, this criticism does not state that the explanations given by the authorities concerned be

thrown out. Rather, it urges an awareness of alternative explanations or a combination of explanations. Therefore, it does not detract from the value of social judgement theory in appreciating the problems likely in the learning transfer process, as the following paragraph shows.

In a work situation, members may be influenced by the sub-units and informal groups to which they belong. If a learning-imported idea is not in the interest of such groups, members may perceive and interpret it in line with group interest and, therefore, be ill-disposed toward it. This would be particularly if they enjoyed their membership in such groups and might be central characters in them. There is also the possible concern that deviation from group values may earn the deviant ostracization.

Finally, Festinger's (1957) dissonance theory of attitude change may be brought to bear on learning transfer problem. Festinger defines 'dissonance' as frustration and psychological disequilibrium, or the existence of any non-fitting relations among cognitions. Cognition is a person's knowledge, opinions, or beliefs about his environment as well as about his behaviour. Other elements of cognition include desires, what leads to what, what things repel or attract, are important or unimportant. A person strives to achieve consonance or equilibrium when two or more cognitive elements concerning a phenomenon are inconsistent. The movement toward consistency is because dissonance is psychologically uncomfortable. Thus, a cigarette addict, aware of the

health hazard of the habit, may continue with it, reasoning that doctors smoke. If, however, a behaviour is to be manifest to achieve consonance with cognitions, there may be environmental elements inhibiting the overt display of that behaviour.

Applying Festinger, one may then see a re-entrant's package of new ideas as a source of stimulus to generate new cognitions in workmates. These new cognitions are dissonant with former and existing cognitions, and workmates would therefore be expected to strive to achieve consonance either by justifying the older cognitions or by accepting and behaving congruently with the new.

There is a problem here (as pointed out by Festinger) which helps insight into learning transfer difficulties. Firstly, workmates agreeing to new ideas may not be followed with consistent behaviour because they may perceive and evaluate some environmental elements as climatically repressive, for example, work-related unit personnel may strongly oppose the new ideas; freedom to adopt or adapt innovative ideas may be seen as not encouraged by managers. Secondly, they themselves, uninfluenced by these other factors, may be opposed to the ideas and, like the cigarette addict in the Festinger example, justify their rejection with some arguments in order to maintain equilibrium with their existing cognitions of the old 'modus operandi'.

The effect of perceptions and attitudes as regards the problem of learning transfer can be summarized with the statements of Ends and Page (1977) and Cartwright (1950). The average adult is a creature of habit, relatively

comfortable with the way he is used to doing things. Changes in habit require new learning which may call for considerable effort. It takes a powerful stimulus to motivate the overcoming of this inertia, and it may be difficult to exert effort to change unless some personal gain or satisfaction is perceived and interpreted as involved in the change.

Secondly, is the influence which may support a person's belief that he is doing things the correct way. Therefore when an old 'modus operandi' is challenged, he cites instances of his successes with it. Thirdly is the influence of self-concept, that is, a person's image of himself. A person accepts and does those things which he sees as enhancing his self-image, but avoids what does not do so. Fourthly, there is the perception of, and attitude to, the risk of failure. Risk, taken in accepting change, depends on perceived and known amount of self-confidence or sense of security expressed by Cartwright as follows:

$$\text{SECURITY} = f \left\{ \frac{\text{perception of own power} + \text{friendly forces}}{\text{unfriendly forces}} \right\}$$

Fifthly is the consideration of psychological advantage, which refers to an individual's private ideas about what is in his own interest in a given situation. While psychological advantage may not always seem to be in consideration, people are constantly trying to serve their own best interests as they perceive and assess them. What the individual thinks is best seems to depend on how he sees his job situation in terms of rewards and punishments, and how he thinks he

influences the outcome by personal effort.

Underlying all organizational in-fighting and relative calms are mainly these five points on perceptions and attitudes. One of the manifestations of attitude-based in-fighting is power-authority politics which may countermand a training-recipient's effort to transfer learning. This phenomenon is examined in the next sub-theme.

POWER-AUTHORITY POLITICS IN ORGANIZATIONAL LIFE : IMPLICATIONS FOR THE TRANSFER OF LEARNING

People are used to hearing of strains, tensions, stresses and conflicts of varying intensity in organizations. These conflicts are reflections of individuals' differences in perceptions of, and attitudes toward, other individuals, groups, work technology itself, and their organization. Conflicts may arise as people may feel bad about their powerlessness in having their ideas accepted, such as learning-inspired ideas. In this connection, one recalls, for example, the Fleishman, et al's (1955, op.cit) finding that conflicts were experienced by re-entrant supervisors who failed to push through innovative ideas. The concepts of power and authority can be used for appreciating this inability of re-entrants. Since, however, there may be some disagreement concerning the association of politics with behaviour in organizations and, therefore, concerning this association with the transfer of learning, it becomes desirable to justify it (in terms of power and authority).

Eckstein and Gurr (1975, pp. 3-4) have stated that

"until quite recently, the predominant conception of political phenomena was that it had to do with 'governments' or 'state-organisations' as we know it in the modern West, together with organisations subsumed to them, like, local governments, or directly impinging on them, like, political parties." However, to deny that organisations are political structures simply by assigning politics to these higher societal levels only is like saying that politics belongs to only international dimension, not to the state. It does not call for a deep perception to understand that the behaviours exhibited on the higher, structural plane are observable on the organisational. A difference is that of degree such as two triangles identical save for the lengths of their sides. Once there is a struggle, whether subtle or explicit, to control the acquisition and distribution of finite resources, including power or authority itself, power becomes pitched against power. This is politics in motion. Power is a scarce commodity which may be 'fought' for because its being possessed is a precondition for controlling other scarce resources and for influencing the acceptance of new ideas such as may be brought from a learning situation. 'Power' is often used together with 'authority'.

MacIver (1947), Lasswell and Kaplan (1950) and Blau (1964) have all defined 'power' in terms of the ability of a person or a group to control others' behaviours directly or indirectly by the manipulation of available means. To Lasswell and Kaplan (op.cit.), power is transformed into authority by coerced or freely granted consent.

To Blau (op.cit.), it is subjects' reliance on power-wielders that achieves the transformation. Authority may also be seen as the established right, within any social order, to determine policies, pronounce judgement on relevant issues, and settle controversies or, more broadly to act as leader or guide to other people: an authority is a person or body of persons possessed of this right (MacIver, op.cit.)

Power-holders make use of elements of authority, while those who have authority also require the elements of power to exercise it, for example, a legitimate government requires the army and the police to function. In organisations, those in authority may evoke the force of rules to enforce compliance.

This association of power and authority makes it difficult to talk of them as always neatly separate. This is why types of power have their associated types of authority such as in Weber's (1953) typology (traditional, charismatic and legal-rational) and French and Raven's (1959) typology (reward, coercive, referent, legitimate, and expert). One may therefore, at least for convenience, refer to them interchangeably in this study, or use them jointly.

They are important resources in the processes of change of which learning transfer is an aspect though many, if not most writers, on the issue of organisational change, have ignored them, as Pettigrew (1976) has pointed out. The fact is that learning transfer process involves two broad behavioural levels, micro and macro. When a

re-entrant applies learning to affect himself and his own personal work, the transfer of learning is on the micro-level, for example, personal improved style of writing memorandum. When, however, he seeks to make others in his work situation improve their memorandum-writing, his application or transfer of learning is on the macro-level.

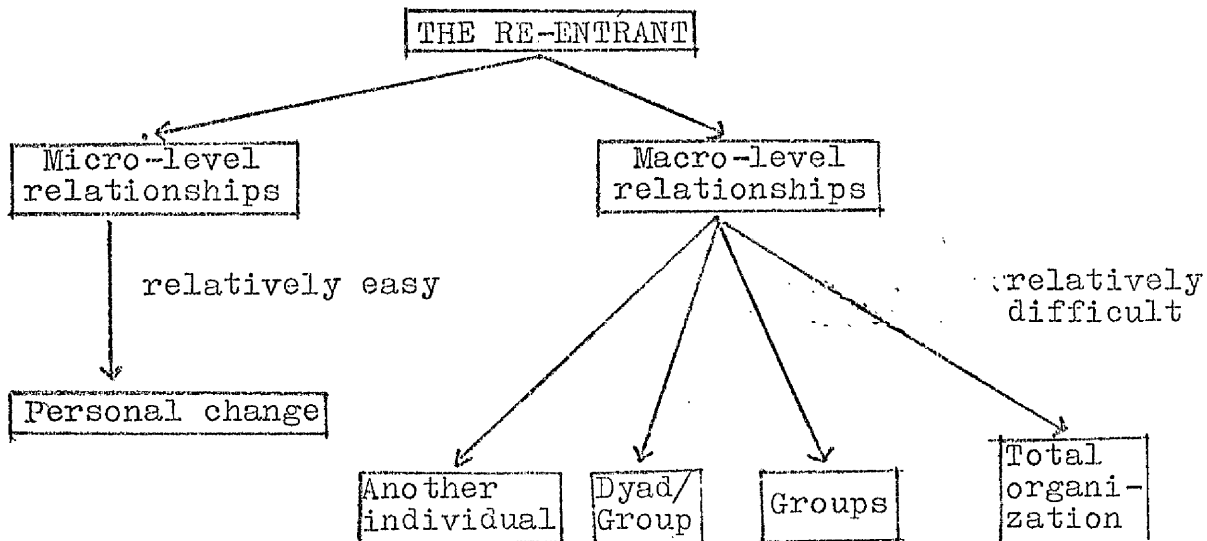
As the protocol analysis data in chapter 7 will indicate, the problem of learning transfer lies principally on this macro-level because, while the individual may be in control of himself as a micro-level of the transfer process, the technology of work and work situation members are extraneous to himself. An alteration in work technology involves carrying people along (Trist and Bamforth, 1951), so that one can say that a learning transfer macro-level problem is essentially a people problem. Often, too, a micro-level transfer of learning can be as problematic as the macro, for example, if members of a whole work unit have fixed a standard that every member should follow, a micro-level change could be seen as a deviant behaviour marking out the re-entrant as better than others, and, therefore, threatening to their interests. The rate-buster could be a problem to his colleagues and his boss and, by incurring others' frown, also attract human relations problems to himself.

It is the tussle between the 'status quo' defenders and change proponents which helps to make the transfer of learning a problem of power and authority politics in an organisation. Burns and Stalker (1961) and Pettigrew (1976 op.cit.) have found that organisational political

activities increase when changes are being considered; and, in fact, that change effort is related to power strategies.

The transfer of learning is a change effort and, therefore, involves power and authority politics, especially when the transfer is on the macro-level. The transactional relations in which the re-entrant may become central in the political situation may be depicted as in fig.2.2(below).

FIG. 2.2 : INTERFACES IN THE TRANSFER OF LEARNING



This portrayal shows that the re-entrant, in wishing to transfer learning, is actually faced with essentially the same problems as experienced by any change agent or researcher in an organization. It is thus easy to see that fig. 2.2 (on the interfaces involved in the process) generally matches the White and Mitchell (1976) design (Table 2.2 below) which epitomizes the content of behavioural levels and targets of change effort.

TABLE 2.2 : A FACET DESIGN OF O.D. RESEARCH CONTENT

FACET	ELEMENTS (OF THE FACET)
A. RECIPIENT OF CHANGE	1 The individual
	2 The group
	3 The total organization
B. LEVEL OF EXPECTED CHANGE	1 Conceptual
	2 Behavioural
	3 Procedural
	4 Structural
C. RELATIONSHIPS INVOLVED IN THE CHANGE	1 Intrapersonal
	2 Interpersonal
	3 Intragroup
	4 Intergroup
	5 Organizational

Facets A and C are really an amplification of the relationships depicted in fig. 2.2. Facet C1 (intrapersonal) is the micro-level relationships in fig.2.2, while C2, 3, 4, 5 are the macro-level. Facets B1, 2, 3 and 4 represent what the re-entrant may be involved with in change effort which entails the human relationships listed as facets A1, 2,3.

The term, 'conceptual', in Facet B, is understood in the Katz and Kahn (1966, op.cit.) sense of managerial knowledge requirements for the ability to visualize and understand the dynamic interwovenness of the internal units of an organization, and how the organization 'relates' with its external world. 'Behavioural' describes the pattern of responses a

person or group exhibits toward organizational work or phenomena which may include persons, organizational procedures and structures stated as 3 and 4 of the same facet B.

'Procedural' also qualifies work technology, for example, the established step-by-step processes an application has to pass prior to a job interview, or the stages which are followed to carry out manpower planning exercises in a particular organization. 'Procedural' therefore includes the way rules and regulation may guide behaviour or performance. 'Structural' describes the arrangement of individuals and groups in their power-authority and social relations.

Any or more of these elements in facet B can be the source of discrepancies which may attract a re-entrant's interest in suggesting change. Thus, though no trainer can be as ubiquitous as to know exactly what a re-entrant will do with his learning, nor follows trainees to their organizations, these elements provide answers in a general way to the question, "What is it that a re-entrant transfers?"

It is observable too that the target of change effort or transferred learning and the involved relationships stated in the White and Mitchell design are also in accord with the French and Bell (1973) list of targets of change effort. These authorities state them as interventions designed to improve the effectiveness of individuals, dyads/triads, teams/groups, intergroup relations, and the total organization. A difference, which is slight, is French and Bell's use of the term 'dyads' instead of 'inter-personal'; and apparently not putting 'triads' under "groups".

The power-authority politics, which Burns and Stalker (1961, op.cit.) and Pettigrew (1976, op.cit.) point out rears up when change is in the air, is played out with the targets (of people) highlighted in fig.2.2 and table 2.2 and in the French and Bell list referred to in the preceding paragraph. It should therefore be clear that once trainers, sponsoring organizations, and others encourage the transfer of learning, or bemoan the failure to do so, what they are, in effect, wishing is that the re-entrant should be an internal change agent.

The wish is easier-expressed than put into effect. Managers may attribute the failure to what they perceive as training and development programmes based on questionable social science theories whereas, as Huczynski and Buchanan (1983) have pointed out, managers themselves fail to generate the climate which re-entrants may evaluate as learning transfer-conducive. Part of this unconducive climate is the dynamics of organizational power-authority politics examined in the next few paragraphs.

The fact that organizations are political pyramids generates a scarcity of positions of power and authority the higher one moves up the hierarchy (Zaleznik, 1970). Those who hold these positions or aspire to them engage in open and subtle activities intended to protect their interests, for example, by opposing ideas which may disrupt held power echelons.

Beside the conditions of scarcity and competition, politics in organizations grows out of the perceived existence of constituencies. A boss who is content with

shifts in resource allocation may have subordinates who are unhappy over the shifts. They may, as members of his constituency, affirm or withdraw support for him, for (as Zaleznik puts it) though appointments are from above, affirmation is from below.

One also observes the formation of coalitions of persons of similar interests, or of those who go along with others to avoid ostracization, frustration, and a further weakening of their positions (Harvey, 1974). Katz and Kahn (1966, op.cit.) have pointed out that there has not been a case of organizational disaster unforeseen by someone or some persons, but unvoiced or unheeded. A potential transferer of learning may find himself the unheeded, or may be too protective of his position to suggest changes which may upset power and authority edifice. He may thus find himself in anxiety and fear which Harvey (1974, op.cit.) calls the 'Hamlet syndrome' of 'to be or not to be', paraphrased here as

To promote change or not at all
That is the question;
Whether 'tis nobler in the mind to suffer
ostracism and likely obstruction
That come from seeking to alter
The 'status quo', or against dysfunction
Take sides with reality
And, finally, may be,
Victory for me and the organization.

Some strategies have been suggested for a change proposer's successful operation in the politics of

organizational life. These will be examined in the last chapter of this study. For now, it should be stated and discussed that the political drama so far looked at takes place in formal organizations to which has been given the name, 'bureaucracy', the very nature of which does seem to be perceived to affect performance, including the transfer of learning.

SOME OBSERVATIONS ON THE NATURE OF
BUREAUCRACY : IMPLICATIONS FOR THE
TRANSFER OF LEARNING

Though designed to achieve rationality and order, bureaucracy does not entirely achieve the purpose because human beings with their perceptions and meaning-based behaviours cannot be readily predicted and neatly slotted into cadres and compartments. Indeed, Weber who idealized bureaucracy, as well as other classical authorities, like Fayol, who sought efficiency and effectiveness through tidy structuralization, have been criticized for their little or no attention to the human and informal sides of enterprise, which may exert a stronger influence on behaviour than formal organizational provisions (Bobbit, et al 1978).

Nonetheless, bureaucracy remains a pervasive arrangement in modern human life and work. Thompson (1961) characterizes it as consisting of elaborate hierarchy of authority, superimposed on highly elaborate division of labour. Amplified, Thompson's description shows bureaucracy as having the following features: specialization of roles

and tasks; the prevalence of autonomous, rational and impersonal rules; and general orientation to rational, efficient implementation of specific goals.

Merton (1962), Hage and Aiken (1970), Etzioni (1961) and other authorities to be cited have pointed out how these features of bureaucracy may be perceived to hamper the adoption of new ideas. Modern bureaucracies, the studies indicate, are complex by virtue of their largeness, multitudinous hierarchies and units, multiple knowledge and skills requirements, the turbulence and fast changes in the external worlds in which they exist, the compounding and astounding heterogeneity of human personalities in them, and the consequent herculian problems of human relationships which they involve, as can be noted in the political climate discussed in the preceding section. How, then, may the very nature and demands of bureaucracies be perceived to affect the transfer of learning?

Firstly, the flow of communication (of learning - acquired ideas) may be inhibited. The existence of a number of work units and how members perceive the quality of inter-unit relationships may be a source of anxiety to the re-entrant. He may be concerned that he could be seen as meddling in related work groups' affairs. This anxiety is likely where work units are interpreted by their leaders and members as their constituent spheres of influence. Such trans-sectional problems might not arise had bureaucracies not been seen to comprise a number of labour-specialized compartments.

A classic example of the problems of cross-unit flow

of information is the familiar conflicts between generalists and specialists in the same organization. The manager who returns from, say, a personnel management course may be a staff personnel who may have been exposed to the idea that a line manager is himself a manager of human resources with responsibility for his own staff, so that he should not abdicate that responsibility to the personnel department, the members of which should be treated as specialists with advisory functions. To the line manager, this may amount to an imposition of a new function outside his professional and departmental specialization. Dalton (1950) points out that line officers who may have had longer experience and more intimate knowledge of their work than generalists or staff personnel often fear staff innovation in that changes may expose some weakness in their work and, in some cases, be interpreted as a threat to their security.

Hage and Aiken (1970, op.cit.) associate the extent of readiness of organizations to embrace innovative ideas with the degree of bureaucratic complexity: the more complex, the more prone to the adoption of innovation. Complexity partly arises from the fact of steady accumulation of knowledge in society - an accumulation which leads to an ever-increasing number of occupations, for example, from general medicine have evolved dentistry, haematology and endocrinology, with the result that one organization may comprise a number of professions and sub-professions. Occupational proliferation, re-inforced by continuing technological explosion which may anachronize people's knowledge and skills, makes training and re-training

necessary. The very exposure of people to training means, among other things, that new ideas may be plentiful and that people may become as liberal as to be more open to change and new ideas.

A paradox, however, is that the large number of professions, copiousness of knowledge and skills under one and the same roof, may hamper the flow of ideas. The problem here is comparable to that of the generalist and specialist referred to above - that is, that inter-professional communication may be as problematic as in generalist-specialist situations. Blau and Scott (1962) illustrate this with the study of communication patterns in hospitals. They found that interactions tended to be more within each professional group than across groups. Doctors communicated more with fellow-doctors, and nurses with nurses. If these findings are applied to learning transfer, they would make one expect a re-entrant to talk of his ideas more with his own group members than with outsiders, or entirely within his own group. The problem would be particularly serious where departmental relationships were already destructively conflictual and characterized by negative stereotyping as analyzed in the Sherif and Sherif (1953) study of inter-group tensions.

Even within the same profession and group, the communication of learning-inspired ideas may not be free. This is not only due to possible interpersonal clashes but also the perception of hierarchy and its often associated defensive interactions. The studies of Wilensky (1967) and Read (1962) have shown that subordinates tend to

communicate what they see as unpleasant to superiors in a manner so toned down that actual impact may be lost. Therefore, a re-entrant may fail to express an innovative idea with the cogency it deserves.

Another characteristic of bureaucracy perceived as likely to stifle innovative ideas is the tendency for rules to be incessantly employed to control behaviour (Merton, 1962, op.cit.; Hage and Aiken, 1970, op.cit.). The complexity of bureaucracy and the fact that it has to pursue its purposes make the existence and application of rules appear necessary. Rules are therefore seen as a means of harmonizing and simplifying complexity. They, however, constitute a problem when administered as if an end in themselves, and blindly against the application of new ideas when those ideas entail a departure from existing operational directions. This rigidity is related to what Merton in another study (1968 pp.251-252) has labelled 'trained incapacity', "the state of affairs in which one's ability functions as inadequacies." His analysis of some already established and organizationally accepted behaviours indicates that action, based on training and skills as well as regulations which have been successfully applied, results "in appropriate responses under changed conditions." The daily ritualization of already applied learning develops a personality characteristic of rigidly preferred behaviour, rather closed to ideas (such as may be brought by a re-entrant).

As regards the factor of centralization as a feature of some bureaucracies, Hage and Aiken (1970, op.cit.)

explain that it could slow down the rate of acceptance and implementation of change. This is because central authorities have to be convinced of the need for change and can veto a proposal on an apparently strong reason, behind which may be the desire to maintain the 'status quo' which favours their centrality. An effect of a high degree of centralization may thus be to bring again into focus the power and authority politics in organizational life, earlier discussed. Besides, by the time proposals have passed through various levels to reach the centre, distortions and delay, for which bureaucracy is said to be notorious, may creep in. Meantime, the proponents of new ideas may be frustrated into losing interest.

The negative characteristics and effects of bureaucracy, especially in innovation -- requiring environments, have been perceived by some authorities as a challenge to seek alternative organizational machinery in matrix and project teams (Bennis and Slater, 1968). It is, however, doubtful whether such alternatives by themselves can really clear the problems of learning transfer which have to do with organizational change, since this survey so far indicates that there is more to the problems than mere organizational structuring, for example, perceptions and attitudes have been shown as important factors.

Bureaucratic negativities notwithstanding, a learning transfer model, workable within bureaucracy, is possible as will be shown in chapter 9, for there is hardly any way of working without bureaucracy. Wu (1979) doubts if modern society can survive without pyramidal structures

to sustain it. Even 'adhocracy' would not be successful without a co-ordinating bureaucracy. Besides, argue Tannenbaum, et. al. (1974) and Lauman, Siegel and Hodge (1970), bureaucratic structures are necessary, useful and inevitable because the heterogeneous skills and specializations, unavoidable for organizational achievement of missions, cannot be lumped together amorphously. Information flow would be diffuse and anarchy result if they were so lumped. It even seems in the nature of things that bureaucracy must develop, for it still emerges where effort is made to play it down into insignificance.

Many negative statements about the nature of bureaucracy would seem to suggest that it is erroneous to reduce most organizational problems to people problems. Perrow (1970) has argued that peoples' attitudes and behaviours are shaped as much by organizational structure as by their pre-existing attitudes. Therefore a change strategy directed at changing a non-people state of affairs can achieve attitudinal and behavioural changes. The difficulty in going along with Perrow lies in his reification of organizations, as Silverman (1970, op.cit.) would put it. It has been explained early in this chapter that the perspective taken of climate in this study is personalized - that is, that people's behaviours are not simply due to bureaucracy 'per se' as an objective reality, but are contingent on how they perceive and interpret their situations.

The irresponsiveness of bureaucracy to innovative ideas is the irresponsiveness of people apart from those circumstances in which they perceive a lack of material

with which to implement ideas. That it is a people irresponsiveness is noted from Taylor's (1972, p.8) twelve principles of the murder of creativity:

- "(i) assume there is only one intelligent type of talent;
- (ii) ignore scientific research about creative talent;
- (iii) teach the best and shoot the rest;
- (iv) keep doing what was done to your ideas - and even do it more;
- (v) react quickly and negatively to new ideas;
- (vi) if you don't understand it, oppose it;
- (vii) keep the rule, "The more creative the idea, the more likely the trouble";
- (viii) have a deadly rejective system for creative persons and ideas;
- (ix) fail to try opportunities (which is better than try opportunities and, may be, fail);
- (x) organize creativities in (under your control) or them out;
- (xi) design all possible features into the organization - features that kill creativity;
- (xii) jealously guard and keep prerogative only to yourself to plan, think and create."

Since these very principles are also distinguishing characteristics of 'negative' leadership in organizations, it is necessary for attention to be focussed further on the concept of leadership as it may affect the transfer of learning.

THE PERCEPTION OF LEADERSHIP AS A
CLIMATE FACTOR : IMPLICATIONS FOR
THE TRANSFER OF LEARNING

The importance of leadership was hinted earlier in this chapter when it was stated that some authorities see superiors' support as importantly related to the effort to transfer learning (Weiss, Haczynski, and Lewis, 1980, op.cit., and Stiefel, 1974, op.cit.). When the limitation of this conclusion was then stated, the idea was not to discard it, but to state the danger of relying too much on it, since peer, colleague and subordinate support could be equally important. In fact, leadership in the effort for organizational survival should not, as Katz and Kahn (1966, op.cit.) have pointed out, be restricted to formally appointed heads, but also be extended to any other creative and influential performer. To explore the concept of leadership further and how it relates to the transfer of learning, one has to examine the works of some authorities.

Boettinger (1971) is helpful, and his work may be paraphrased as follows. When it is said that social or organizational change has taken place, a haziness tends to cloak the observation. Conscious animacy is not necessarily implied in the expression, and the haziness is due to reification. On the other hand, when the statement is made to read, "Change has been made to take place", a conscious, animate and purposeful action is implied. The self-driving and abstract process becomes

concretized action by the directive effort of a person or persons. Boettinger therefore says that change in the sense of a thing to be made "to become different" is active and pro-active. The task of management today is to make things different, not to wait for them to become different. Therefore leadership is the behaviour of making things different in improvemental direction. It follows that the re-entrant who applies learning to achieve this sort of change is himself a leader: so also the superior and/or others who help to push the re-entrant's ideas into acceptance and implementation after due consideration and assessment of their practicality and benefit.

These statements immediately tell of the necessity for leadership in organizations and one of the reasons for the large concentration of studies on it. Stogdill's (1974) survey of the state of knowledge about leadership shows that it has been studied from the perspectives of 'great man', traits, situational and functional.

The 'great man' view is that events are moulded by notable men. While it implies that a potential transferer of learning requires an influential or strong person's help to succeed, the view is questionable to the extent that it ignores the importance of followership. The second mentioned view, 'traits', has also been shown as inadequate since there is no consistency of traits among successful leaders. Leadership is, instead, situational - the traits have to match the situation (Schein, 1970). This view cannot be realistically differentiated from the functional which is a study of what leaders do in

given situations, which make them leaders.

These functions are those of team building, task maintenance, and the meeting of individual needs (Benne and Sheats, 1948; Klein, 1963; Bowers and Seashore, 1967; and Fisher, 1974). Implied in these functions is that the leadership likely to help the transfer of learning is that which recognizes the re-entrant's enthusiasm to transfer learning; perceives/evaluates the relevance of new ideas to work group and organizational tasks or purposes; and gives the necessary support to the re-entrant as a group member.

The existence of situational or functional leaders does not, however, automatically ensure learning transfer. The intervention of meaning, embedded in the subjective view of organizational climate adopted in this study, implies that these leaders must be perceived to exist by the potential transferer of learning.

It must, again, be mentioned that reliance only on formal leadership support may not be enough. However, this point does not reduce the importance of perceived supportiveness of formal leaders. It does, however, mean that one may have to extend the concept of leadership, as Katz and Kahn (1966, op.cit.) do, to include any behaviour from any organizational or group member, which influences others with the result that people and organizational needs are met, if not exceeded. Thus viewed, leadership becomes distributive as well as synergic and jointly held in the work situation (Maslow, 1965). It also means that everyone assumes a constructive followership role to support whoever

has something valuable to offer, such as, ideas from a learning situation. This is one of the lines of thinking that have influenced the emergence of the model of learning transfer suggested toward the end of this study.

INTERNAL ORGANIZATIONAL MANAGEMENT OF THE
TRAINING FUNCTION : IMPLICATIONS FOR THE
TRANSFER OF LEARNING

While the survey so far shows various factors which authorities perceive as climatic, there may be controversy over whether climate also has to do with how training function is internally managed in organizations. A point that may be used to clear such a controversy is that what constitutes climate depends on the perceiver's interpretation. Therefore how the training function is managed may be accordingly perceived, that is, whether it promotes the transfer of learning or does not.

It is noted that, in some organizations, people who do not require training are often among those sent for training. It is not likely that such trainees would, on re-entry, have something meaningful to offer. One of the conditions in which this happens is when managers attribute all performance problems to lack of training, whereas an analysis by those who know how may reveal that the problem could be motivational (Laird, 1978). Therefore, performance shortfall continues despite re-entry (after training).

The mismanagement which may be responsible for this situation is partly because the training function is

regarded as pedestrian, performable by anybody at all. Officials are known to bear training position titles while they are ignorant of what the function is actually about; nor are they given the appropriate training to help understanding and skills. The function then degenerates into a mere routinized collation of nominations from departments and forwarding of these to training institutions, many of which are more interested in collecting their fees than discriminating among nominations and risking losing clients.

As Laird (ibid.) has explained, a potential training need exists when there is a difference between what employees ought to be doing and what they are actually doing; 'potential' because it still has to be determined whether it is training or another measure that may cure the discrepancy. To translate the potential into the actual, it has to be established that there is a lack of knowledge, skill and/or practice. The failure to do so may result in what Boydell (1971) has branded as the 'welfare approach' to training management.

This is that organizational members press for training, not because of their performance incompetence, but because they may see it as a holiday opportunity, an opportunity to enjoy the allowances paid when employees are out of station, or an opportunity to acquire skills intended for use outside the sponsoring organization. For such course participants, the question of transferring learning to current work situation may not be important. The notion of integrating the individual with the organization through

such provisions as training, and as Argyris (1964) suggests, is ruled out since only the individual benefits to the organization's exclusion.

Boydell (1971, op.cit.) points out two other dysfunctional approaches to training management which, by implication, are unlikely to encourage the transfer of learning - the political and the administrative. The former is often observed in the behaviour of training officers as if they were doing favours to prospective trainees, especially when the initiative for training comes from individuals and when the training department is seen as powerful in the final training decisions. Political approach is also used to get rid of those who are seen as troublesome and likely to be posted out after training. Even if such posting were not to be, political manipulation of training at least temporarily rids a boss of people who could, at a particular time, be a source of embarrassment.

In the case of the administrative approach, training functionaries tend to believe in absolute numbers of trained personnel as a sign of doing their work effectively. Absolute number is internally impressive as well as externally impressive, since it is considered that outsiders would see the organization or training management unit as modern. It is like saying, "Training is the vogue: we must train."

The distinction between political and administrative approaches blur in some respects. Where governments, as in Nigeria, insist that indigenes be trained to enable the country to be less dependent on expatriate expertise, and where governments provide that they will refund at least a substantial part of the expenses on such training,

absolute numbers are seen as impressive to political authorities (this happens in the private sector). Both political and administrative approaches are particularly rampant as a financial year draws to a close and it is necessary to justify the same or increased level of the training vote. Often, especially in the private sector, when organizational authorities announce that an employee is scheduled for a course, it is an administrative and political action to motivate the individual and others, for, a new star of status is emerging on organizational horizon (so to say), not that the individual has a performance deficiency.

To these may be added Knowles's (1970) observation that an aspect of training mismanagement which does not help learning transfer is the failure of organizations to have clearly articulated training objectives based on such criteria as:

- * the part that training plays in contributing to the accomplishment of organizational missions;
- * a philosophical commitment to the absolute value of human growth and development and individual self-fulfilment, explicitly stated;
- * the specific purposes (in terms of individual and organizational outcomes) for which training is accepted as an organizational concern, also described but with provision for changes as environmental dynamics may be seen to demand;

- * the nature of the commitment of resources (in terms of priority order in relation to other purposes) of the policy-makers to the furthering of training purposes, made clear and substantial;
- * the relationship of the training unit with other organizational components, preferably with emphasis on their processes of collaboration rather than on their division of authority and responsibilities;
- * the target population to be trained, also specified.

These policy criteria are important because they are a guide to sponsoring the staff likely to benefit from training for themselves and for their organizations. Secondly, the criteria suggest the need for the existence of a group, be it a functional department or a committee, professionally capable of managing the training function. Thirdly, the provision that a substantial fund be allocated to training would indicate to organization members the importance attached to training. This would also imply that there is the need to justify the expenditure by transferring learning to work. Fourthly, the criterion of collaboration between a training unit and others is of special significance. The existence of a training unit does not mean that managers of other units have to abdicate their personnel responsibility. Training specialists are to serve as advisers, facilitating other managers' depth of appreciating where, when and how

training is needed, and by whom. Laird (1978, op.cit.) explains that line managers are usually specialists who know the technical intricacies of their work but may not know of training need analysis and, therefore, may tend to attribute non-training problems to training inadequacies. Here is where internal training specialists can be helpful.

It has, further, been noted by some authorities that the failure to evaluate the effects of training partly accounts for the non-transfer of learning. There may appear to be no need to try to transfer learning when the re-entrant knows that no one cares whether or not he applies learning or when the re-entrant feels that authorities behave as if training were for purposes beside performance improvement. Kempfer (1955, p.399) puts evaluation this way, "The basic purpose of evaluation is to stimulate growth and improvement. Whatever other worthy purposes exist are only facets of the all-inclusive effort to assess present conditions as a basis for achieving better ones." Odiorne (1964) takes the position that the consummate benefit of a person's training is the economic blessing it confers on the organization that has spent valuable and scarce money on it. Therefore training proved to be unaccompanied with transferred learning on this ultimate level should be assessed as not worth the effort and expense. Odiorne's stand has, however, been criticized as extreme because, as Mahler (1953) before him, has pointed out, managerial performance cannot be easily evaluated, being more qualitative than quantitative.

The problems in training evaluation have also been stated when, early in this chapter, reasons were given for the relatively few writings on the transfer of learning. By way of additional point, they are here re-stated from another authority, Knowles (1970, op.cit.). Firstly, human behaviour is too complex, and the number of variables affecting it are too many, for us ever to be able to prove that it is our training programme alone that produces desired changes. Secondly, the social sciences have not yet produced the 'vigorous research procedures' and measurement instruments for obtaining the kind of hard data required for evaluating many of the subtle and more important outcomes of a training programme. Thirdly, the kind of intensive and scientific evaluation usually advocated requires investments of time and money that many policy-makers are unwilling to make simply to document the worth of training which they already assume as valuable.

Nonetheless, ignoring evaluation entirely is as extreme as insisting on economics as the only ultimate value of training. Whitelaw (1972, op.cit.) considers that some way between the extremes should be possible and pursued in organizations. This compromise may give some approximation of the value of a particular training programme.

One other aspect of internal management considered not helpful to learning transfer is the inappropriate choice of where training is to occur. This is different from the selection of the wrong persons for courses. Instead, it is a matter of mixing up the discrepancies resolvable by internal training and those resolvable by external. A

result is that people could return from outside courses with little to offer. Laird (1978, op.cit.) suggests that internal training managers and line managers should decide whether existing internal programmes, self-study, special assignments, coaching and counselling, can serve in place of external seminars, workshops, universities, conferences, and conventions.

To conclude, it is considered that as regards the internal organizational handling of the training function, the major factors affecting the transfer of learning are faulty identification of training needs, nebulous existence of training policies in many organizations, and the general abandonment of evaluation effort. It may be noted that the detail of the techniques for effective internal management of the training function is not discussed here since those techniques are not an essence of this study. The interested reader may, however, wish to see such authorities as Whitelaw (1972), Laird (1978) and Boydell (1971) - all already cited, and Hamblin (1974).

SUMMARY OF CHAPTER 2

The essence of this chapter was to develop from the literature and related literature some ideas and concepts on how organizational forces might be perceived by a re-entrant as inhibitive to learning transfer. The transfer of learning, as a change process, could be perceived by some organizational members as unsettling to their power, authority and career interests. This attitude to change

might be re-inforced with a negative disposition toward the re-entrant should he be perceived as a person of low credibility. The environment of learning transfer was further demonstrated to include possibly within the consciousness of the re-entrant, whether leadership and membership as well as bureaucratic structuralization and rules were learning transfer-conducive. It was finally shown from the literature that the mismanagement of the training function in terms of the faulty identification of who qualify for courses and where, the absence of clearly defined and articulated training policy, and the non-evaluation of training effects could adversely affect learning transfer.

CHAPTER 3

THE LEARNING SITUATION AND ITS IMPLICATIONS FOR THE TRANSFER OF LEARNING⁵

INTRODUCTION

It will be recalled that the approach adopted for this study is to see the problem of learning transfer in three dimensions:

- (i) the organizational situation or climate;
- (ii) the learning situation; and
- (iii) the trainee's/re-entrant's personality or characteristics.

The first-mentioned dimension has been examined in the foregoing chapter. In this chapter, the second-mentioned dimension, the learning situation, is looked into.

The question which should be discussed from the literature is, "what sort of learning situation is a learner likely to experience to ensure that learning really takes place so that the prospect of transferring it to the work place may be enhanced, and how may such a learning situation be brought about?" This question is important because the answers to it provide the ideas to be borne in mind when respondents' perceptions and evaluations of training are analyzed in chapter 8.

As in the previous theme, the approach here is to examine the learning situation in sub-themes, with the views of various authorities brought to bear on each sub-

theme. For clarity and simplicity of presentation, the literature has been synthesized to derive the following sub-themes on how the learning situation could affect the transfer of learning:

- (i) the principle of relevance;
- (ii) the principle of understanding the levels of learning;
- (iii) the principle of appropriate methods; and
- (iv) the principle of motivational learning climate.

The assumption, then, is that any learning situation which is made by trainers and learners to satisfy all, or a combination of some, of these principles is correspondingly likely to be experienced as enhancing learning and at least the likelihood of its being transferred to the work situation.

(i) THE PRINCIPLE OF RELEVANCE

By this principle is meant the designing, developing, and delivery of a training course to relate to work situation or any other situation in which learning is to be applied. In short, it is what Binsted and Stuart (1979) refer to as 'designing reality into management training.' The issue of relevance is of such concern that the literature is replete with expositions on how it may be practicalized in learning. Here, four of the authorities have been selected to demonstrate the principle of relevance which, it should be remembered, considers, inter alia, what should constitute the contents of subjects 'taught' - a matter often determined after a training institution has surveyed the needs of clients and prospective clients, such as was done prior to the mounting

of courses in the Administrative Staff College of Nigeria (ASCON).

Knowles (1970, op.cit.) identifies three aspects of relevance in learning situations: (i) the learning could be relevant to the goals and needs of the learner; (ii) the learning could be relevant to institutional needs, that is, those of the organization in which the learner is to work, or works; (iii) the learning could be relevant to the needs of society.

As regards the first-stated relevance, Knowles points out that no one really wants to be outdated, and that individuals wish to achieve self-identity which is a development toward self-actualization, that is, Maslow's (1954) concept of the fullest unfoldment of a person's potential in his life and work. Learning must, therefore, ideally move the individual

FROM	TO
dependence	autonomy
passivity	activity
subjectivity	objectivity
ignorance	enlightenment
small activities	large activities
few responsibilities	many responsibilities
narrow interests	broad interests
selfishness	altruism
self-rejection	self-acceptance
amorphous self-identity	integrated self-identity
focus on particularities	focus on principles
superficial concerns	deep concerns
imitation	originality
need for certainty	tolerance of ambiguity
impulsiveness	rationality

Of course, these are ideals as Knowles recognizes, and may not largely be attained in, say, one training or educational programme. Yet, by the very fact that training is a way of integrating the learner with his work, there should generally be the element of moving toward self-actualization indicators on the right-hand column in the foregoing paragraph.

As regards training associated with institutional relevance, this, as has been mentioned, refers to the gearing of courses to how an organization's members may operate to achieve the goals of the organization. This enables the trainee to re-enter the work situation with new ideas to be tried.

The third aspect of the principle of relevance, that of meeting the needs of society or a country, is perhaps the most articulated in developing countries, like Nigeria (as explained in chapter 1). Without training and educational programmes (inter alia) that can help to develop their societies, such societies may continue to lag behind others regarded as advanced.

The three aspects of relevance are not always mutually exclusive. Where individual and organizational needs are attempted to be integrated as Argyris (1964, op.cit.) suggests, there is mutual inclusiveness. Where an organization is made to fit into national development plans, its narrow interests then work hand-in-hand with the general interest. Individual interests can also often be both personal and societal, such as when people train for politics or higher administrative services in a country.

All this is not to say that what is relevant to each level is always relevant to the others, for example, some organizations may work to undermine a national economy, while some people train to carry their learning from their sponsors to other businesses, such as in welfare approach to training discussed earlier. However, the concern of this study is relevance as it affects the work situation.

Binsted and Stuart (1979, op.cit.) examine the principle of relevance in three dimensions: environmental, process and content. The third-mentioned will be discussed later under 'the principle of appropriate methods'. As regards environmental relevance, it should be stated without further discussion that since the focus of this study is on courses run outside an organization by outside agencies, it is difficult to replicate exactly an organization's environment in a course venue. Therefore discussion here should be concentrated on the content dimension of relevance. The question is, "How may organizational realities be designed into a management course so that learning can be transferred to the work place?"

Binsted and Stuart (ibid.) are among those authorities who focus on the learning situation as a way out of the problem. They suggest that training events could be taken to the work situation, such as done with 'action learning' or project assignment back in the sponsoring organization. A basic assumption underlying action learning is that the best opportunity for learning takes place in the manager's everyday job. This is because the trainee, as Boddy (1981)

explains, is then the centre of a role-set, involving his boss or sponsor, his workmates, the owners of the problem being worked on, perhaps his adviser or tutor, and other interested persons whose co-operation is necessary for the assignment to achieve its purpose. Project team meetings are held as often as may be necessary to help progress.

Binsted and Stuart (1979, op.cit.) and Boddy (op.cit.) have pointed out that taking learning events to the work situation calls for skill without which action learning may fail. The sort of questions that should guide it are: Will working on the project bring about significant change for the learner and his sponsor? Given the available time and pressure, is it feasible? Is the problem such that the learner can have different perspectives and ways of thinking about it? How (highly) committed is the sponsor to the project? Is the implementation of recommendations within the authority level of the managers or outside authorities?

Action learning has much to commend it, for example, not only may a substantive problem be resolved, but also the learner learns to relate with people, since many persons may be involved in the handling of a project assignment, in which the learner is the centre of a role-set. However, and as Binsted and Stuart have pointed out, if the trainee, carrying out a project in his actual work organization, recalls past negative experiences, or re-experiences them, learning may be blocked.

Another point is that not all courses can be designed to allow for the adequate time necessary for carrying out

meaningful projects. Then also is the point that a project may relate to only an aspect or few of the principles learnt. Since a project may be connected with only some of the many functions of a work unit, action learning may exclude practical learning about those other functions. The possible limitations of action learning should therefore be recognized so that its transfer value may be realistically assessed.

An alternative given by Binsted and Stuart is bringing the job to the learning situation. Here, training is designed so that the trainee sees his job as it relates to learning events. A usual approach is to ask the learner to reflect on his work and his experiences in the light of the principles to which he is being exposed. The trainee can thus see in which job areas and behaviours changes may be necessary.

Learning transfer could also be helped with the provision of a range of alternatives within the learning events, that is, different ways of doing the same thing, so that the learner may select what he considers realistically applicable to his work situation. The work situation could also be changed to match learning events. In that case, the trainee identifies activities in the learning situation which show that current work behaviour requires changing. He then sees the job in terms of what it ought to be in the future. This redefinition of work to become consistent with what is learnt is one of those elements that make the transfer of learning particularly difficult because the transfer process may actually be beyond the trainee. For example, while the exposure to democratic work practices may appeal to a trainee, the transfer of such practices to an authoritarian organizational culture is not likely

to be easy. Classroom activities alone do not provide a resolution of the learning transfer problem. Hamblin (1970), as mentioned earlier, has explained that whenever training takes place away from an organization, the problem of learning transfer arises.

Stiefel's (1974, op.cit.) model to aid the transfer of learning may be said to fit the idea of bringing the job to the learning events. He distinguishes between what he regards as current or traditional practice of mounting courses and his own prescription (Table 3.1 below).

Stiefel's model is thorough-going in deed, involving a lot of interactions between trainers and client organizations, and between them and would-be trainees ever before a course is finally set in actual motion. It would also be more costly than the 'current practice' in terms of time, trainer resources and, perhaps, money (expense to the client). Is the cost to the client justifiable?

To answer the question, the prospective client has to place the individual attention-concentrating Stiefel model beside the more general designs of many training institutions and, say, a post-graduate management degree programme. The Stiefel design, by its very nature of considerable individual orientation and resource-consumption, including expertise and time, would indicate the need to admit a manageably small number of trainees. The more generalized designs, though not entirely devoid of individual attention, can afford to embrace many more trainees to the financial advantage of the training-giving organization. Assuming that the client is cost-ready,

TABLE 3.1 : STIEFEL'S MODEL FOR PROGRAMME PLANNING & IMPLEMENTATION.

PRESENT PROGRAMME PLANNING PRACTICE	REQUIRED PRACTICE
<p>Identification of the needs of the participant category</p> <p>↓</p> <p>Translation of needs into educational objectives</p> <p>↓</p> <p>Design of programme</p> <p>↓</p> <p>Printing of brochure with vague objectives & course description</p> <p>↓</p> <p>Recruitment of participants</p> <p>↓</p> <p>Running of Course</p>	<p>Systematic identification of needs of participant category</p> <p>↓</p> <p>Translation of needs into educational objectives</p> <p>↓</p> <p>Printing of brochure explicitly stating philosophy of school plus educational objectives in behavioural terms</p> <p>↓</p> <p>Recruitment of participants</p> <p>↓</p> <p>Selection of participants</p> <p>↓</p> <p>Tutorial relationship with participants in precourse phase</p> <p>↓</p> <p>Identification of instructionally relevant differences among participants</p> <p>↓</p> <p>Translation of individual needs into objectives and learning activities</p> <p>↓</p> <p>Design of programme</p>

and bearing in mind the all-important issue of learning transfer and motivating the trainee to learn because of his need to perceive the value of a programme, one would opt for Stiefel's position.

Its advantages notwithstanding, however, can the model facilitate the transfer of learning which Stiefel has in mind? The comment made on Binsted and Stuart above applies here, namely, that no matter how as close as possible to organizational realities an away-course may be, the learning situation cannot alone determine learning transfer.

Finally, let it be supposed that the traditional model which Stiefel seeks to supplant continued to be operational in training organizations: is that older model useless for the transfer of learning? This writer does not think so. The traditional model can still help, though it may be argued that Stiefel's is better for doing so. The point is that the very factors which militate against the effectiveness of the 'traditional' model are not resolved by the suggested one.

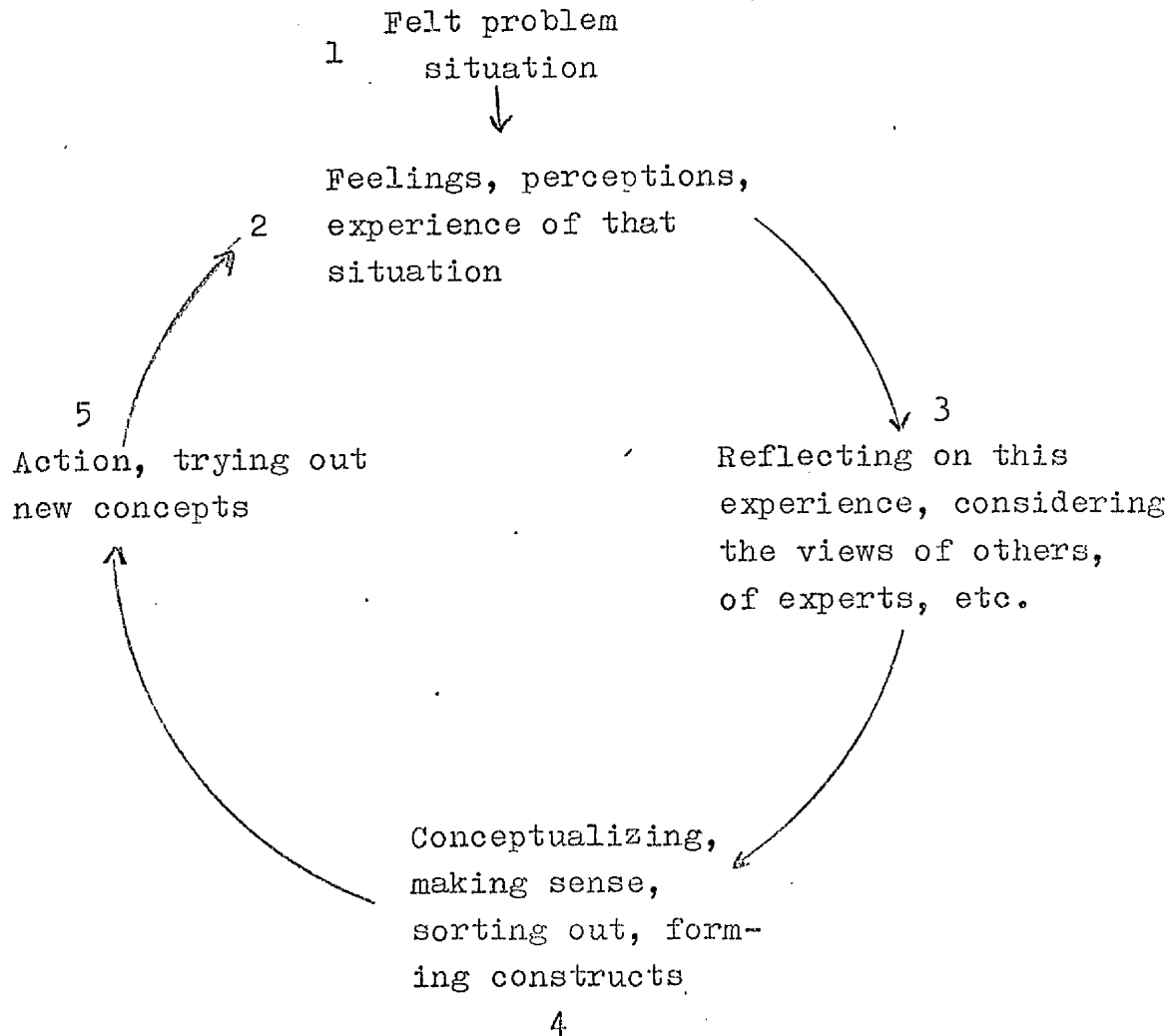
The approach of Megginson and Pedler (1976, op.cit.) to achieving relevance in training programmes deserves attention. They christen it 'the learning community'. There is a uniqueness about it - a uniqueness due to an element which seems an extreme form of experiential learning with the ingredient of 'anarchy' (for want of a better term). It is also interesting to note that the responses of few former training-recipients (see chapter 1) which triggered off this study are the same

as those which set Megginson and Pedler off on the path of developing 'the learning community'. They report having encountered such responses as, "It was great on the course, but when I got back and tried it, it didn't work and I had to start all over again." "I'm sure what you say is right, but we couldn't do it here, neither my boss nor the men would have it."

Megginson and Pedler say that their effort to resolve the problem is based on the awareness that "only the learner could identify his learning objectives.....Learners should be free to learn what they felt was personally significant to them. The concept of a common curriculum was nonsense", for, trainers do "not know the intricacies of his (the learner's) job." The learning community is therefore a collection of homogeneous learning objectives (task) which trainers as facilitators, and trainees as participants with identical or similar objectives, jointly seek to satisfy in a suitably arranged setting (technology), using suitably determined methods (technology). Those participants who wish to attend a particular session sign in (because they have personally determined its relevance and importance). Conversely, a participant could be absent. This is the 'anarchic' element in the Megginson-Pedler design.

Learning activities in the 'learning community', however, involve input from all members, following the processes in fig. 3.1.

FIG. 3.1 : LEARNING ACTIVITIES IN THE MEGGINSON-PEDLER 'LEARNING COMMUNITY' APPROACH



The question has again to be asked, "Does 'the learning community' approach resolve the learning transfer problem it is intended to resolve?" The indication given by its proponents is that it does. However, a close look suggests that this is because trainers, who were the participants when the authors tried the approach, applied it on the micro level, that is, personal facilitating of

learning. When trainers are in the 'classroom', they are free to apply methods as they assess appropriate. The bulk of evidence from the literature so far surveyed shows that it is not so easy on the macro level of learning transfer. There, and as Huczynski (1977) and Huczynski and Lewis (1979) have demonstrated, the transfer of learning is essentially an interaction between the re-entrant and other organizational members and variables.

Secondly, the freedom of a learner to decide when he wishes to participate in a session or be absent could lead to his loss of some developmental elements in training sessions. Thirdly, the opportunity to contribute to others' understanding of certain problems which may not directly affect a person, but of which he may have valuable ideas, could also be lost. Fourthly, he is likely to lose the trend in the case of those themes which are directly and indirectly inter-connected. Fifthly, the Megginson-Pedler design defeats itself because it puts together participants of similar or identical problems whereas, in actual organizational life, members do not relate only with members of the same work content and processes, for example, staff meetings may cut across divisions of labour or be held with organizational outsiders. Learning in external course venues, by putting strangers together, imparts not only skills in relevant work techniques but also skills and experiences in organizational social life.

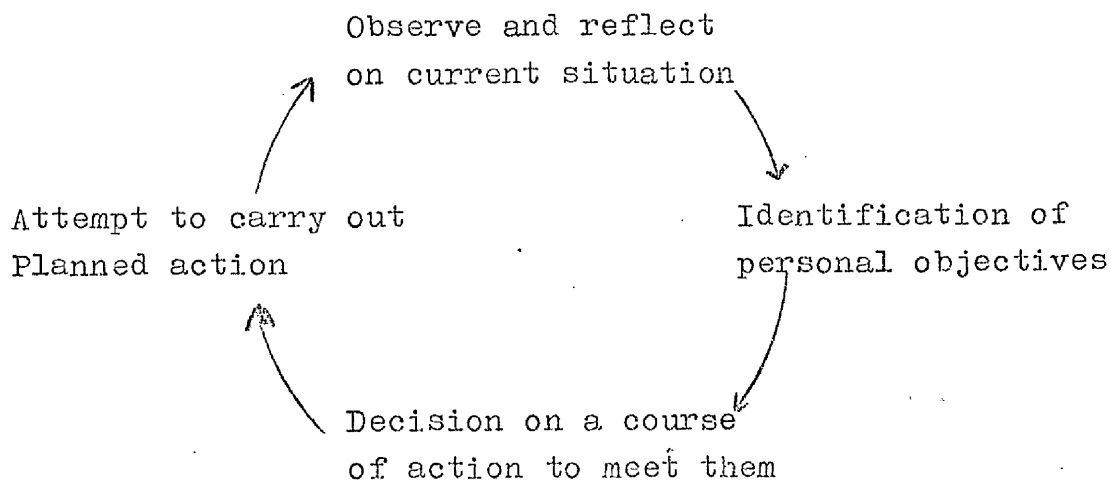
These criticisms are not meant to discard the 'learning community' entirely. The approach has the merit of being concerned with "designing reality into management

training", which deserves to be a continuing concern. Secondly, it has implications for tutorial relationship between trainers and trainees. Tutorials should be included in learning activities. Thirdly, it contains the dimension of process reality in that members are in a democracy of 'equals' (in an adult atmosphere) suggestive of group problem-solving in many real organizations.

Attention should now be turned to the contribution of Allner and Teire (1978) who are also interested in the principle of relevance as a means of aiding learning transfer. Like most present-day trainers, they refer to their approach as 'experiential'.

To them training should influence the trainee through a cyclic process related to his work, that is, reflecting the substantive problems of his actual organization. The activities involved to achieve this are brought out in fig.3.2.

FIG. 3.2: THE ALLNER-TEIRE EXPERIENTIAL LEARNING CYCLE



Observation of current situation refers to both the psychological state of the trainee and his surrounding environment of work. 'Personal objectives' are what he intends to achieve in that environment. This is followed with the determination of how to achieve them and, then, putting the 'how' to test. The action does not end with testing and 'how' because how far it helps the achievement of objectives has to be reviewed so that it may be decided whether the cycle should be repeated partially or 'in toto'. Learning should therefore be a process of helping the learner to see his work situation vis-a-vis himself, following the cyclic model. For training to be able to achieve this, it should use various methods, such as, simulation, after which the learner is ready for lectures, seminars, and discussions.

Allner and Teire base their writing on their experiences and observations of failures of internal training programmes. Nonetheless, their views are applicable to external courses, for, these views have the same features as those of cited authorities who are concerned with external courses. However, like those authorities, they here focus on the 'classroom' to resolve the problems of learning application, so that the same criticism applies to their work.

As regards Miles (1959 op.cit.), the learning situation is again where the action is for tackling the problem, that is, by ensuring that the content of courses is relevant to work. He concentrates on the use of learning groups to discuss and role-play organizational realities. He also considers that for learning to be transferred, both learning

events and job situation have to be thoroughly analyzed with such questions as, "Is this new idea really relevant to me in my job now or in the future?" Miles further points out that not all learning will be equally relevant. Each course should nevertheless include the time to be devoted to each trainee's work situation. While the job situation each participant describes may be unique, the problems raised and the solutions suggested are likely to be of a general nature and, therefore, beneficial to trainees as a whole.

Miles thinks that intervisitation, if possible, should be built into the learning situation. This is the technique that group members can learn from observing members at work and seek clarification of activities or behaviours. They can also assist the observed members to understand and perform better. The arrangement works out best when training sessions are spaced so that, in-between, the visits can take place, or the visits could be post-course.

Finally, courses may include reporting sessions. The trainers invite some former trainees to describe vividly their attempts to transfer learning and their experiences in the process. The invited guest-reporters can, through discussions, also learn more about their work from current trainees.

The 1959 work of Miles is interesting in that it is one of those which indicate that the awareness of learning transfer problem is not as recent as one may think. While it is a classic piece on the use of group

methods to help learning and the work of educational leaders, it has some questionable features. Inter-visitation may be useful in technical work: it is not likely to achieve much in managerial work which may not be easily observed, especially when trainees without experience in observation method are involved. Moreover, the presence of observers cannot surely solve the problem posed by the existence of change-repressive forces in organizations. Furthermore is the fact that some organizations, in a competitive economy, may be so concerned with the likelihood of industrial spying that they may not welcome intervisitation.

As regards the role-dramatization of organizational realities, even the players know that the trainees in a drama are not the actual work situation characters. Therefore, while role-playing helps insight into actualities, it does not necessarily ensure that learning transfer to actual organizations will take place or succeed.

(ii) THE PRINCIPLE OF UNDERSTANDING THE
LEVELS OF LEARNING

This is the principle that for learning to occur as a basis for its being transferred or applied, the trainer has to understand which level, within the learner, is the target of training: otherwise, the approach to, and methods for, achieving learning may be misdirected and the whole training effort wasted.

Knox and Sjogren (1965) and Miller (1964) identify

four levels of learning from what they regard as the simplest to the most complex: simplest (skills of motor responses, memorization, simple conditioning); adaptation (acquisition of knowledge and adapting to a simple environment); complex (interpersonal understanding and skills); and values of individuals and groups (which are subtle and time-consuming, so that few organizations have programmes for changing long-standing, cultural or ethnic values).

Pedler (1978) also arranges the levels of learning in the same order of complexity: memory (in which the learner can recognize, identify and describe the purpose of a tool); understanding (the learner understands how and why the tool works and what to do to use it); application (the learner can use a given tool in a limited number of situations in which the selection of appropriate tool is done by someone else); and transfer (in a wide range of new, unique situations, the learner can select and use the appropriate tool from his repertoire; if need be, he can modify it to suit situations, or can manufacture his own).

Bloom (1965) provides two broad categories of the levels or targets and goals of learning-cognitive and affective - with sub-classifications, the detail of which need not concern us here. However, the levels of learning identified by the authorities cited in the preceding two paragraphs can be slotted into the cognitive and affective categories. Categorization is not strictly water-tight (Bloom, *ibid.*), for example, values may rouse affects, but, in so doing, learning on the cognitive level may antecede the development of affects. This fluidity implies

flexibility in the use of training methods as will be restated in the next sub-theme of this chapter. Nonetheless, it is conceptually and practically useful to recognize levels of learning.

Pedler explains that the simpler levels of learning tend to assume specifically correct answers and ways of behaving or performing. The most complex level assumes that there is no one best way. It is difficult to specify the outcome of learning on that level, or recognize exactly when it will occur. The trainer therefore has to relinquish the stance of the expert and become equal, so to say, with learners. Management training and learning belong to the complex level, and the learning process may be ruined if a selected training method is unsuited to that complex level of learning. In that case, the learning situation as a factor in learning transfer becomes defective. The principle of understanding the levels of learning is thus clearly linked with that of appropriate methods, the sub-theme next discussed.

(iii) THE PRINCIPLE OF APPROPRIATE METHODS

By this principle is meant the trainer's selection of training methods to help the learner to learn effectively and thus, make it likely at all that learning will be transferred to the learner's work situation. To talk of training methods is therefore to talk of processes relevant to, and apt for, a learning situation, in this case, involving the manager as an adult. When, however, we refer to the appropriateness of methods, it is not to

claim that a fixed and an objective criterion is available for appropriateness determination. It is an issue of the trainer's conviction as his own learning and experience may suggest, and as he considers the adult targets who look forward to content relevance discussed already. For example, a professional trainer, considering the subject, 'Manpower Planning', would, inter alia, ask how he would present it to make it meaningfully applicable in the work situation. Method thus has to be inextricably tied with content reality, for, the manager tends to be interested in 'doing' and has a low regard for theory (Huczynski, 1983a).

While factors, such as, the technological and knowledge explosion in the larger environment are playing a part in the continuing development of training methods or techniques, managerial disposition to 'doing' is also an important factor in the proliferation of training methods, many of them eye and ear-catching (Huczynski, ibid.) Huczynski (1983b) has identified 303 different methods. This authority (1983c) has also shown that in the determination of method options, the trainer has to note that a method itself has three components, all of which have to be seen in the light of learning effectiveness.

These components, analytically and conceptually separable but practically blended, are:

- * content, not only the topic to be taught but also the reasons underlying the adopted method.

'Reasons' are not merely expressed with such vague terms as "to make" for effective training

and learning" but, specifically, in terms of primary and secondary foci, for example, whether the trainee is to acquire knowledge or to acquire practice/skill. Content foci are thus identifiable with the levels of learning highlighted in sub-theme (ii) above;

- * process, how the content foci are to be practicalized, for example, by lecturette, individual and/or group projects and assignments, and group discussion;
- * setting, the way in which the trainer arranges the elements of the learning event and the values underlying that choice, for example, teaching (expert-student didactic setting), facilitator-learner or learning (in which the setting is such that the student is there to learn while the teacher is to facilitate the learning); discipleship (the trainee uncritically has to adopt the teacher's ways like a 'true' follower).

The rationale of Huczynski's (ibid.) distinctions among the conceptual constituents of any one method is to stress that methods should not be out of the total context of learning on any level - context which includes what the learning objectives are, what the subject to be presented is, who the training and development-recipients

are, how the subject is to be presented, and where.

It is because of the very nature of the content of management and management-related learning, as well as the fact that adults are involved, that, lectures, for example, are not to be solely relied on. Goldstein and Sorcher (1974) point out that verbal persuasion and logical explanations rarely succeed to change attitudes and managerial behaviour. Binsted and Stuart (1979, op.cit.) explain that an inappropriate application of lectures may well elicit a management trainee's reply, "My work doesn't involve listening to lectures."

Jennifer (1977), Pigours (1976) and Wohlking (1976), stressing that a 'teacher' has to use a variety of approaches and adapt his methods to the needs of 'students' and the unique characteristics of a 'lesson', have suggested various methods of helping learning to occur, for example, brainstorming, buzz sessions, case study, discussion and role-playing. These methods, by involving trainees in activities, also serve as motivators, so that the principle of appropriate method is closely connected with the principle of motivating learning climate, the theme of the next subsection.

Jennifer (1977, op.cit.) also adds 'discovery learning', which makes trainees discover information by themselves. An assumption underlying it is that a learner who discovers things by himself is likely to retain it for application or transfer. The instructor remains in the background during discovery learning, ready to answer questions though usually turning the questions back to the learner. To make

discovery learning effective, the trainer has to start with an analysis of the most critical elements of tasks and cut out or simplify the rest. He next finds out how the task looks like to the learner, where the learner has to start from, and what knowledge he already has. The idea is to build on his existing knowledge level in such a way that he can work most of the time unaided. The trainee works on the set tasks while the trainer records the results of his activities.

It should be pointed out that discovery learning as explained by Jennifer would be particularly apt for in-plant courses in which trainees are required to learn already existing and accepted practices. For the away-management and management-related courses, with which this study is concerned, it may be of limited application since it is generally more suited to problems with correct answers. However, a form of discovery which could re-inforce other methods and techniques is fact-finding individual and group assignments in, for example, a library, and a later discussion of what has been discovered for comparing to an existing answer.

All authorities, as regards methodology to aid learning, agree that methods should be varied in the same sessions or courses to reduce boredom. Films and excursions should, for example, be introduced when judged appropriate. The very fact that differences among the levels of learning (see the preceding sub-theme) are not always clear indicates the need for a methodological mix. Thus, the complex levels of learning in the Knox-Sjogren (1964, op.cit) and Pedler

(1978) studies cannot admit of only one method. On that level, the acquisition of knowledge of factual material, skills and attitudes may all be involved, so that lecturettes, role-playing, simulation, group methods, etc. can be mixed in a session.

Knowles (1978) has also explained that behind the principle of appropriate methods is the need for trainers to be guided by the differences between infant and adult learners, though the differences need not be regarded as in water-tight categories. Table 3.2 displays those differences referred to as pedagogy (infant teaching) and andragogy (adult).

TABLE 3.2 : PEDAGOGY AND ANDRAGOGY COMPARED (KNOWLES, 1978)

CLIMATE	PEDAGOGY	ANDRAGOGY
	AUTHORITY-ORIENTED FORMAL, COMPETITIVE	MUTUALITY, RESPECTFUL, COOPERATIVE INFORMAL
Planning	By teacher	Mechanism for mutual planning
Diagnosis of needs	By teacher	Mutual self- diagnosis
Formulation of objectives	By teacher	Mutual negotiation
Design	Logic of subject matter	Sequenced in terms of readiness
Activities	Transmittal (tech- niques (e.g. by lecture)	Experiential techniques
Evaluation	By teacher	Mutual re- diagnosis of needs/ mutual measurement of programme

The differences are based on the points that in self-concept, the adult is more self-directed and less dependent on the 'teacher' than the infant or adolescent; in experience, the adult, because of his work life and problems, is a rich resource input to the learning situation; in readiness to learn, the youth may be pressured to learn, but the adult learns in order to meet the needs of his social, personal and actual work situation (that is, the need for the application or transfer of learning); in time perspective, adult learning is relatively or generally of immediate application; and in orientation, the infant and youth's is subject-centred while the adult's is problem-centred (again the quest for learning which is transferable). As already stated, the appropriateness of methods has some link with the motivation to learn, since method may stimulate learning. The next sub-theme is, therefore, this matter of the motivation to learn.

(iv) THE PRINCIPLE OF MOTIVATIONAL LEARNING CLIMATE

The question is, "What kind of learning situations is a learner likely to perceive and interpret as helping learning if at all there is to be the possibility of its being transferred to the work situation?" An answer is not easy because, as discussed in chapter 2, climate is according to personal perception. However, the problem does not prevent effort from being made by trainers to provide a learning condition considered likely to be felt by trainees as motivating.

Learning theories contain the element of motivation, intrinsic and/or extrinsic. In Skinner's behaviourism (1953), that element is the behaviour-reinforcing stimulus. In Koffka's (1935) gestalt, it is the learner's satisfying awareness that he is being helped toward achieving a comfortable equilibrium with his world as a whole. In these theories and others, it is the awareness of the learner that learning is relevant to his needs and those of his work. But motivation may be negative at times to achieve learning and the likelihood of its transfer to work, since some people may best learn and retain under discomfort. Motivation, from complex man or situational perspective is not a one-way type phenomenon (Schein, 1970, op.cit.).

However, the relationship between motivation and learning is not always clear, though it is generally felt that there is a link between them. Holding (1965, pp.8-9) puts it this way, "Although it is not clear that this is strictly true...too much motivation may make the learner anxious so that his performance is worse than it would have been at an intermediate level. It is a matter of observation that people can often try too hard." Holding, however, agrees that since an absence of motivation as perceived by the learner could inhibit learning, some motivation must be perceived as present in the learning situation if there is to be some hope that learning will take place (as a basis for a later learning transfer).

The learner's perception of the existence of motivation is important also because the adult may bring some anxiety and tension to the learning situation. Anxiety tends to be

present because the very fact that he has something to learn may be an implicit reflection that he has a shortcoming. Hague (1973, p.55) states, "If a man is sent on a course, he may worry about why he was thought to need it." This mental and emotional construct of the situation may be a blow to his self-concept, according to Jennifer (1977 op.cit.) and Belbin and Belbin (1972). Therefore, he may take refuge in the feeling that what he is learning is for somebody else, or that he is merely being compelled by his sponsor to learn. Anxiety may also be due to ageing and its often-associated feeling that he cannot remember things as easily as in his greener days, that is, that he has entered a period of declining ability to learn. It has, however, been noted that adults do learn as effectively as younger people, provided there is, in their perceptions, the motivation to do so - a motivation which may be brought about with, among other things, learning by activities, for, ageing tends to be accompanied with diminishing memory.

A way of providing for learning to be likely seen by the learner as occurring in a motivating condition is an arrangement of the pace of learning activities to enable the adult to cope. Management work does not always require speed but accuracy, and learning should, accordingly, reflect or approximate to the pace of the familiar management functioning (Jennifer, 1977, op.cit.).

Belbin and Belbin (1972, op.cit.) have further shown that a learning situation in which trainers behave as if they knew better than adults and so, talk down at them,

may be resented. These authorities report an interview in which an adult learner responded, "We aren't going to be told what to do by young so-and-so, when we've known her since she was in her cradle." They, however, point out that this response and attitude are rare where trainers do not pose as authoritarian experts. In other words, the authoritarianism often objectionable to subordinates in real work situations may be similarly perceived and responded to in a learning environment. Knowles (1970, op.cit.) referring to the same point, uses a comparison of 'mechanistic' and 'organismic' work organizations to characterize learning-encouraging and learning-inhibiting conditions. He says that the effort of people concerned with training should be made to ensure that the adult learner is likely to perceive trainers as much like learners themselves.

This is to say that leadership in the learning group should be distributed and should, when necessary, be allowed to emerge as it does in leaderless group discussion (LGD). It may be wondered whether a trainer would thus not lose demonstrating his knowledge in order to establish his credibility. The point is that the perception of his credibility can be established by his style of showing adult learners that they are themselves a rich resource input in the learning situation, by his facilitating mutual support among participants, by his thus providing the likely-to-be-perceived motivation to learn, and by his own effective contribution during proper times. This effective contribution includes, as Jennifer (1977, op.cit.) states, the offer of individual assistance in a non-patronizing manner;

maintaining confidentiality where counselling is confidentially sought; totally accepting the learner for what he is; upholding the principle that the adult is eventually responsible for dealing with his own problems; and avoidance of the use of sarcasm and criticism (by trainers and participants).

All the principles (sub-themes i-iv) discussed above may be said really to revolve around two principles, those of motivation and relevance, whether the relevance is focussed or diffuse. One may, however, wish to see some empirical evidence of what constitutes a training programme or learning situation that has transfer value.

EMPIRICAL EVIDENCE OF WHAT CONSTITUTES A TRAINING PROGRAMME THAT HAS TRANSFER VALUE

To a reader interested in seeing how authorities carried out the researches on which their writings are based, it can be frustrating to go through a book or an article without finding the information. However, the literature is still valuable because the writings derive from the authors' observations, experiences, others' ideas and logical thought. This is not to say that actually undertaken and reported field researches are absent. Two such researches are presented in this section, those of Baumgartel, Sullivan and Dunn (1978, op.cit) and Burgoyne (1974 and 1975) to illustrate the characteristics of training programmes that have transfer value.

Baumgartel, Sullivan and Dunn analyzed questionnaire

responses of training-recipients in India and the U.K. - U.S.A. combined. The results are shown on Table 3.3. together with the training and learning principles underlying them.

TABLE 3.3 : BAUMGARTEL ET AL'S CHARACTERIZATION OF TRAINING PROGRAMMES WITH TRANSFER VALUE

SUBJECTS (MANAGERS)	SCALES	UNDERLYING PRINCIPLES DISCUSSED ABOVE
INDIA	<p>Programme not too difficult for participants to follow</p> <p>Learned specific techniques of value to present job</p> <p>Gained improved decision-making and problem-solving</p> <p>Provided beneficial social relations with training staff</p> <p>Learned useful interpersonal relations skills</p> <p>Programme well organised</p>	<p>Learning at appropriate pace, clarity of presentation and methods</p> <p>Relevance</p> <p>Relevance</p> <p>Perceived motivation climate</p> <p>Relevance</p> <p>Motivation from perceived clarity of structure of course content and activities</p>

SUBJECTS (MANAGERS)	SCALES	UNDERLYING PRINCIPLES DISCUSSED ABOVE
UK-USA	Gained self-confidence and sense of identity as a manager	Perceived motivation to learn (development toward self-actualization
	Contribution to personal growth	Relevance, motivation (toward self-actualisation
	Learned useful interpersonal and human relations skill	Relevance
	Contribution to personal growth	Motivation (toward self-actualization)
	Gained more analytical and logical way of viewing work problems	Relevance
	Grained a helpful new approach or philosophy	Relevance
	Received help in solving specific management problem faced at the time	Relevance

(contd.)

SUBJECTS (MANAGERS)	SCALES	UNDERLYING PRINCIPLES DISCUSSED ABOVE
	Gained improved skills in decision-making and problem- solving	Relevance
	Learned specific management techniques of value to present job	Relevance
	Emphasis on areas of great practical value	Relevance

That the various principles discussed in this section do not all seem to appear on the extreme right column of the table is not important, for, as already argued, all the principles revolve around those of relevance and motivation, or simply, motivation, since relevance may be a learning-urging factor (of satisfaction). Finally, it has to be noted that Baumgartel, et al. do not mean that programme quality alone account for the transfer of learning to the work place. They also, in the reported study, took organizational climate into consideration.

Unlike Baumgartel, et al., who administered ready-made questionnaire statements to subjects for their 'reactions',

Burgoyne (1974, op.cit.) used the phenomenological protocol analysis method to obtain subjects' evaluations of training programmes. His analysis showed that courses were valued for application to life and work if they were perceived as providing: access to, and progress in, careers; flexibility and mobility in careers; ability to help the learner to take overall view of problems; personal confidence; awareness of own aspirations and career; high salaries; general reasoning and problem-solving ability; economic/commercial understanding; understanding of organization and human behaviour; useful work, career and personal content; and social skills.

Burgoyne reported that subjects expressed feelings of frustration where learnt skills could not be used and where expectations generated by learning could not be fulfilled. The differences between the characteristics identified by Baumgartel, et al. (1978, op.cit.) and those identified by Burgoyne (1974, 1975, op.cit.) are partly due to the fact that the former's respondents were senior managers already settled in their careers to which they returned after courses: the latter's subjects were not all in this stable career position. Otherwise both studies arrive at essentially similar programme characteristics of effectiveness, though one has to note an effect of both authorities' methodological difference - positivist vis-a-vis phenomenologist. This effect is that Burgoyne's description presents a fuller picture of reality by letting the subjects articulate their essential experiences which revealed all correlations between courses and their effects (within those experiences or

'consciousnesses') whereas in Baumgartel, et. al., correlations are external to the subjects, being researcher determined. The difference will be more deeply appreciated in chapter 6.

SUMMARY OF CHAPTER 3

This chapter looked at the literature on the learning situation dimension of the problem of learning transfer. This is because if the learning situation had nothing transferable or had no perceivable motivation to learn, the idea of the research problem might be baseless. Accordingly, the literature was shown to indicate that the principle of relevance, understanding the levels or targets of learning, appropriate methods, and motivational learning climate must be satisfied as a basis for the transfer of learning. However, the satisfaction of these principles has to be experienced by the training-recipient.

CHAPTER 4

THE PERSONALITY DIMENSION OF LEARNING TRANSFER

INTRODUCTION.

This third dimension for studying why re-entrants may fail to transfer learning to their work situations is considered important because it is possible that though a learning situation may have been perceived as learning-conducive, and organizational environment be change-receptive, a re-entrant's personal competence and other characteristics may yet inhibit learning transfer. If an individual is, for example, lethargic and passive, and if he does not believe in world and organizational progress, the likelihood that he will be committed to transferring learning, if he has at all learnt, is presumably low. If, on the other hand, he has a pushful personality, but perceives an unconducive organizational situation as a challenge not to be surrendered to easily, he is likely to try to push through his learning-imported ideas.

However, it is found in the literature that this dimension of the learning transfer problem has been generally ignored. How may this observation be justified?

In the Megginson and Pedler (1976, op.cit .) study there are about 37 paragraphs of about 15,000 words: 35 paragraphs deal with their 'learning community', 2 refer to organizational situation, and 0 deals with the personality dimension. The Miles (1959, op.cit.) study

while considering the design of organizational realities into courses, focusses entirely on learning activities. No attention is also paid to personality factors by Allner and Teire (1978, op.cit) who also focus on the learning situation. As regards Binsted and Stuart (1979, op.cit.), their three-part study deals with learning activities to make those activities experiential as an aid to learning transfer. Stiefel (1976, op.cit.) is also shown to develop learning transfer strategies geared to classroom and organizational factors to the exclusion of personality variables.

The noted exception who look at the problem in all three dimensions are Baumgartel, Sullivan and Dunn (1978, op.cit.). There will, however, be a further reference to them at the end of this chapter.

It should be obvious that a question on the place of personal characteristics or competence in the transfer of learning is a question of personality and the disposition to perform. This question may not be fully appreciated without an awareness that no matter on what level organizations are studied -- organization -- environment, group-group, group-individual, etc. -- the individual person is fundamental (Bobbit, et. al., 1978, op.cit.). Inevitably, then, one has to open some pages in psychology to drive home that awareness. The following sub-themes are an attempt to do this and to examine the implications of psychological explanations of personality for the transfer of learning.

PSYCHOLOGICAL BASIS OF THE ASSUMPTION OF PERSONALITY INFLUENCE ON THE TRANSFER OF LEARNING

The basis of this assumption is clear from Cattell's (1965, p.25) statement that personality "may be defined as that which tells what a man will do when placed in a given situation", for example, given an organizational situation, will a particular re-entrant transfer learning?

Psychologists, bearing in mind the various bio-social factors affecting individual development, have put personality into types, while pointing out that types are not neatly separable from other types. Eysenck and Wilson (1975) depict the following broad types, the first two being extraversion and emotional instability with the following components (figs. 4.1 and 4.2):

Fig.4.1 : COMPONENTS OF EXTRAVERSION

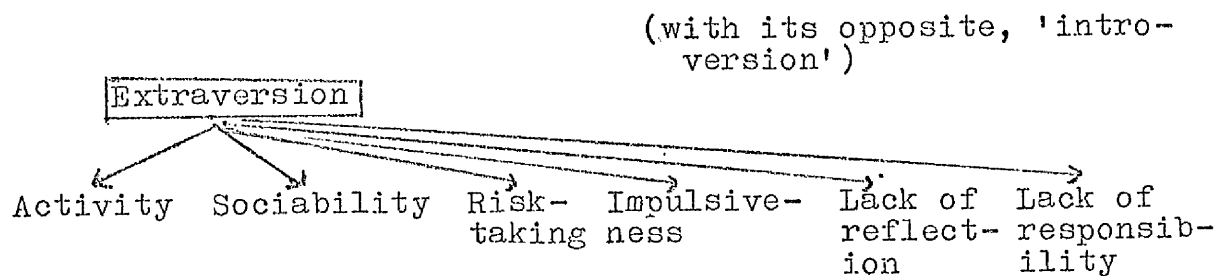
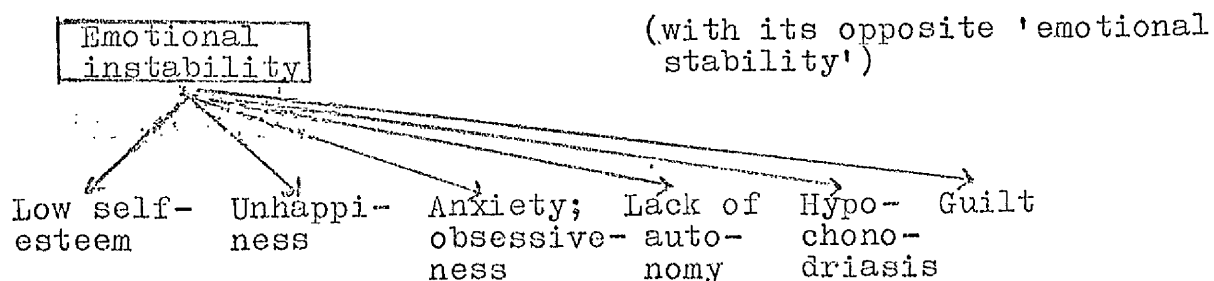
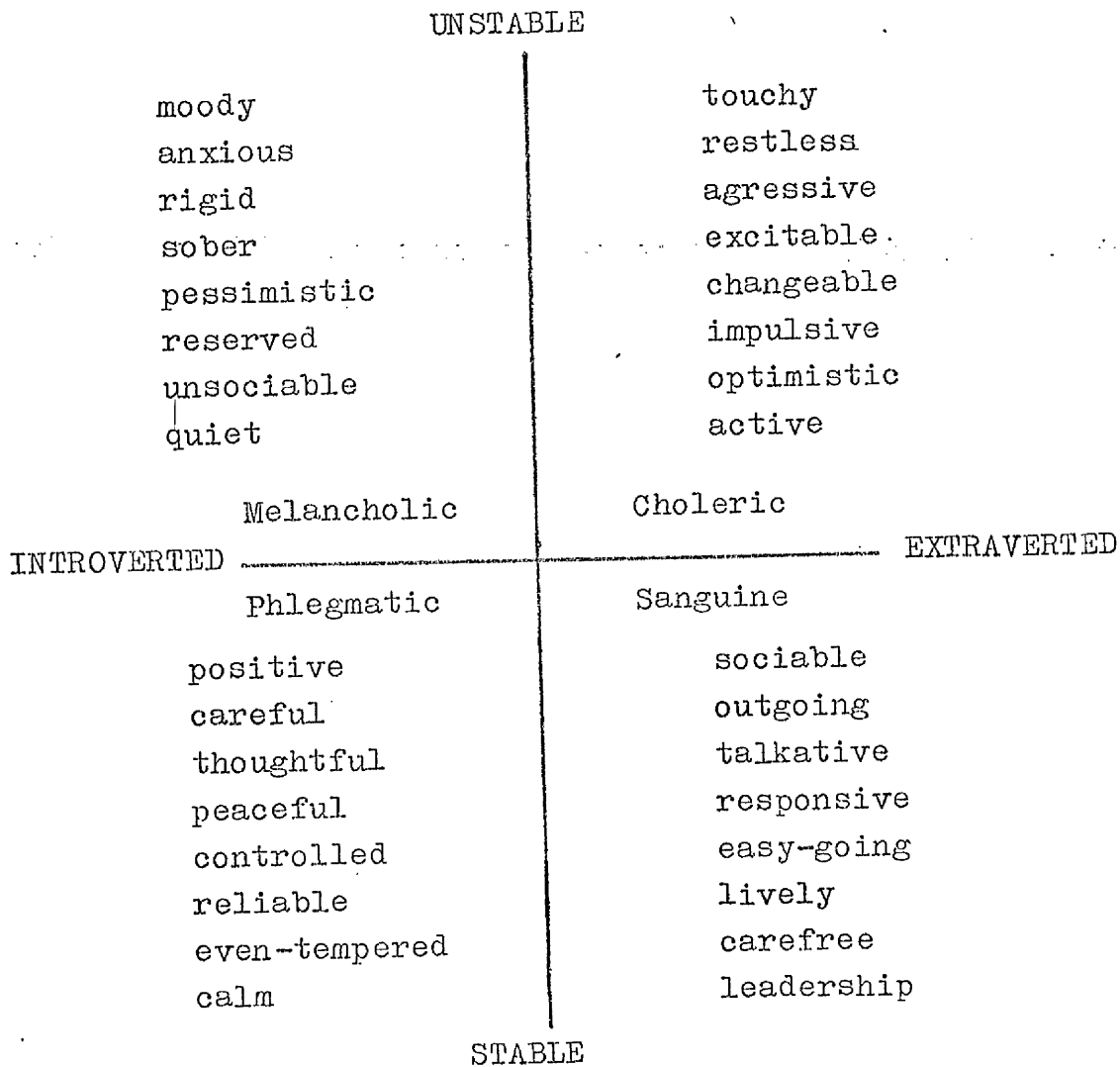


Fig. 4.2 : COMPONENTS OF EMOTIONAL INSTABILITY



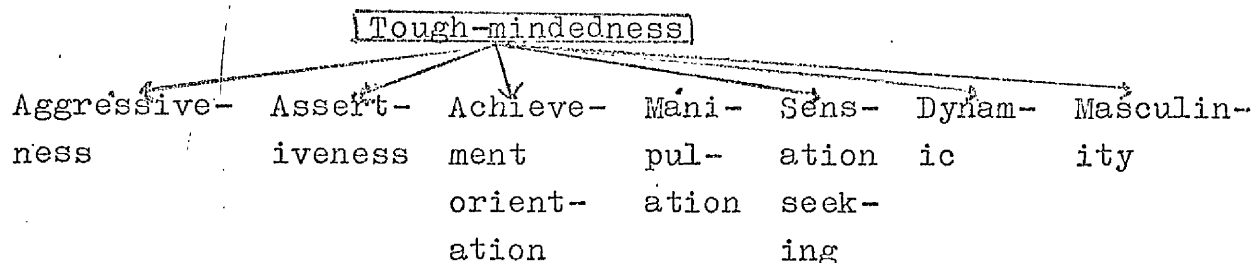
If both pairs are combined because personalities do not rigidly slot into either, the following model of types with their attributes or characteristics emerges (Fig.4.3):
Fig.4.3: PERSONALITY TYPES (Eysenck and Wilson 1975)



The extraversion-introversion and emotional stability-instability axes define four quadrants made up of unstable extraverts, unstable introverts, stable introverts and stable extroverts. The inner quadrants are the ancient Greek typology (with matching characteristics shown beside each type (fig.4.3)).

Eysenck and Wilson (1975, *ibid.*) also depict another type of personality as 'tough-mindedness', composed of as follows:

FIG.4.4 : COMPONENTS OF TOUGH-MINDEDNESS



The authorities state that the characteristics portrayed of the types are neither good nor bad, since what may seem negative may be practical and positive in a given and particular situation, for example, though an extravert may be a social asset, he is changeable, easily bored, and changes friends quickly. He may be all right for work which requires social interaction as in groups, but the introvert would do better in jobs mainly for loners. Since the transfer of learning is not only to self but also expected to entail the diffusion of ideas, we would expect extraverted and tough-minded types to contain at least some of the characteristics likely to be significant in the transfer of learning as the following sub-theme shows.

IMPLICATIONS OF PERSONAL CHARACTERISTICS FOR THE TRANSFER OF LEARNING

SELF-CONFIDENCE

This is related to such characteristics as risk-taking in Fig.4.1, the opposites of Fig.4.2, and some features in Fig.4.3 and 4.4. It is the sense a person has of his own

strengths and abilities. It is an aspect of self-concept or self-image, the strength of which Nylen (1967) explains as varying with individuals and the kinds of experiences they have had in babyhood environment. Though no evidence exists of the baby's sense of self-concept with which self-confidence is associated, it quickly develops as a person grows, depending on if the interpretive faculty has seen events in the environment as enhancing the emergence of self-confidence.

Self-confidence is important because it plays a part in a person's disposition toward taking risks and accepting challenges. The transfer of learning may involve risk since self-concept may be battered if a new idea is seen by others as impracticable and 'senseless'; and a new idea may, if accepted and implemented, not succeed after all, so that the re-entrant who persuaded people to see with him may become a scape-goat of the failure.

A person with low self-confidence (also referred to as low self-esteem) is thus unlikely to attempt the transfer of learning, especially on the macro-level which involves carrying others along. This is, according to Rosenberg (1965) because such a person is more vulnerable in interpersonal relations (deeply hurt by criticism, blame or scolding); he is relatively awkward with others (finds it hard 'to make talk', does not initiate contacts, etc.); he assumes that others think poorly of him or do not particularly like him; he feels relatively isolated and lonely. This personality may often be assessed by others as hostile because he starts by interpreting threats into

events and relations and, letting this attitude affect his interaction with others, stirs up the very response which justifies to him his attitude.

It can, therefore, be expected that should he be a re-entrant attempting learning transfer, if at all attempting it, he could fail immediately or in the process. This is not to assert that a person with high self-confidence necessarily succeeds in the transfer of learning. It does, however, imply that a person without self-confidence may not even try learning transfer. However, that an individual with self-confidence may himself not necessarily succeed may be because his enthusiasm may be interpreted by some other persons as aggressiveness which is often (wrongly) equated with hostility. "The aggressive man is one who has ideas and who puts his ideas into practice whenever he can, no matter what obstacle" (Bannister and Fransella, 1980, p.121).

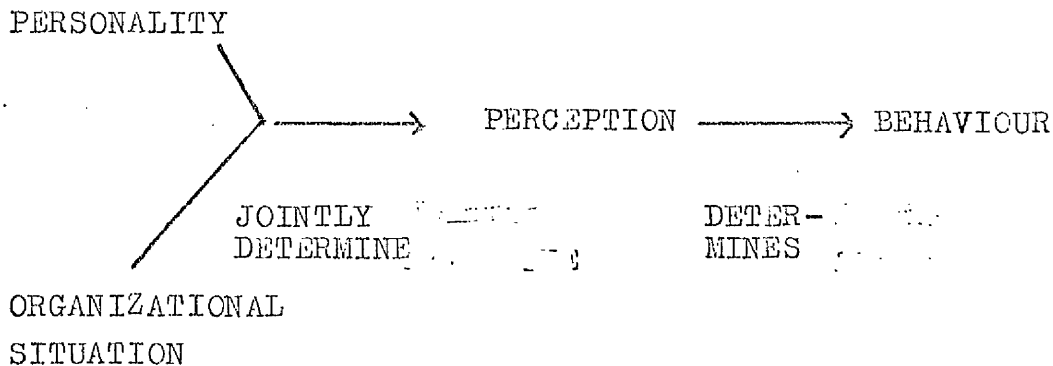
A difference between the 'hostility' of the person with high self-confidence and that of the person with low is, as just stated, that the former is likely to try learning transfer while the latter is unlikely. Secondly, organization managers profess preference for the former. Armed with tact and the skills of influence, the self-confident and aggressive person may succeed in having his learning-imbued ideas accepted and tried. Human relations and personality are here associated and will be given a brief attention later in this chapter.

Related to self-confidence is Johnson's (1974) study of personality correlates with organizations. He found that

individuals with active (or aggressive), high-task orientation generally perceive a more positive relationship with their organisations or with specific features of the organization than do passive and low task-oriented people. 'Active' here includes the capacity of an individual to establish and maintain a satisfying and productive relationship with his environment, as different from 'passive' which is a characteristic of the sense or feeling of being acted upon. The active person's ability, according to Johnson, is a drive similar in strength and importance to sex and aggressive drive. Such a person tries to establish and maintain relationships with his environment through manipulating that environment.

However, Johnson points out that activism is associated with how an individual perceives his organisational environment. This relationship is clear from fig.4.5.

FIG.4.5 : BEHAVIOUR AS A FUNCTION OF PERSONALITY--
ORGANIZATION CORRELATES (Johnson, 1974)



Thus, Johnson's point is that even in the case of the active and aggressive person, personality alone does

not explain behaviour: factors of organizational environment as perceived by the personality owner have to be taken into account. An implication is that in the transfer of learning, one cannot omit either personality or environment as determinants of transfer behaviour. This means that a study which leaves out either in explaining the nature of the problem is incomplete even if, in the end, it is proved that one of them is dominant or insignificant.

CONFORMITY

This is the aspect (of personality characteristics) which begins with a growing awareness that a parent approves and disapproves of some behaviours. The child incorporates these parental attitudes of do's and don'ts which begin the formation of conscience. They become generalized into a code of behaviour as a person grows older. They are reinforced by the moral behaviour code of society. Thus no person is solely guided by the "I want" aspect of his personality, that is, his personal desires: he is also guided by conscience. The sense of self mediates between the opposing forces and ultimately allows him some satisfaction of each of the two, letting him live relatively comfortably with the picture he has in his mind of himself. In some people a strong sense of submerging the "I want" aspect of self in order to yield to established organizational code of behaviour may inhibit the person's pushing of ideas, (such as in the transfer of learning) which may disrupt that code. In others, it may not (Nylen, op.cit. 1967).

MOTIVATION

This aspect of personality is seen to rest on the 'I want' side of a person. According to Nylen (ibid.), it is instinct expressed as the need for food, warmth and other satisfactions, some of which are present at birth, and some of which develop as the person grows and his glands mature. As he develops the sense of self, he has additional needs which relate to his wishing to be thought of as a person, especially as the kind of persons he thinks himself to be. These additional needs have been identified as those of belongingness (affiliation), esteem (self-respect or success), and self-actualization (realizing of one's full potential and use of creative abilities) - Maslow (1954). Litwin and Stringer (1968) refer to the needs as those for power, affiliation and achievement. These needs are seen always to operate within the framework of the individual's perception and attitudes (Reber and Jerry, 1975). Thus, if a re-entrant perceives that any or more of these needs will be fulfilled through the transfer of learning, he is likely to make effort in that direction (of transferring learning).

PERSONAL PHILOSOPHY AS REGARDS PROGRESS

Philosophy here refers to whether a person's interpretation of his environmental experiences from childhood onward is such that he believes that life, including organizations as a part of it, is progressive, and that one should or could contribute to that progress, for example, by bringing new ideas to bear on work situation. Progress

has been defined as the tendency inherent in nature or in man to pass through a regular sequence of stages of development in past, present and future, the later stages - with perhaps occasional retardation - superior to the earlier (Berlin, 1954; Collingwood, 1962; and Carr, 1981). These authorities point out that those who believe in progress tend to act for the elevation of the standard of human development accompanied by conditions which make it possible for a larger and larger number of people to attain this standard.

There may be said to be some controversy over the concept of progress since what is progressive to one may be retrogressive to another. That controversy is outside the scope of this study. It is enough to say that if belief in progress is a characteristic of a person, it could drive him, in the case of the re-entrant, to seek to transfer ideas from learning to his work situation. If not, he may develop a 'laissez-faire' attitude and behaviour toward his world of work.

It would be futile to expect a person with this attitude to seek to improve organizational performance with new ideas garnered from a learning situation. On the other hand, there are people who reject 'laissez-faire' attitudes and hold that man can intervene in situations to direct or quicken events toward future perfectability, though that future be indefinite (Berlin, 1954, op.cit: Sorel, 1969). Such are those likely to be committed to the transfer of learning for organizational progress.

HUMAN RELATIONS

Among the aspects of personality already stated are perception, attitude, and intelligence. These are brought by people to bear on issues, policies and persons as organizational environmental objects. Arguments, dissent, and other manifestations of conflicts of varying intensities are really mechanisms used by people in the situation to carry others along the patterns of their perceptions and attitudes. Therefore, the making of human relations and the extent to which a re-entrant with new ideas has developed the skills of influence may enhance his personality and become important in learning transfer effort.

Tactfulness (social sensitivity), the art of listening and building a psychological bridge across to where others are in order to appreciate their feelings so as to be able to move them to new positions even if short of an advocated one -- all this has to do with personal characteristics and maybe an aid to success in the learning transfer effort.

Aggressiveness and hostility which affect human relations and the acceptance of communication have already been referred to under 'self-confidence' discussed above, and need not be discussed further.

PERSONAL PERCEPTION AND ASSESSMENT OF OWN POWER AND AUTHORITY (AS A FACTOR OF PERSON- ALITY IN THE PROCESS OF LEARNING TRANSFER)

The concept of power and authority was discussed in chapter 2. Here it is examined as a characteristic associated

with the personal characteristics of a re-entrant as he perceives himself, in which case, it can be a weapon or a quality with which he may induce the acceptance of the ideas he has acquired from training. In other words, he can use it for influence should he recognise that it enables him to be advantageously placed in asymmetrical relations with others (Schermerhorn, 1965).

Blau (1964) points out that such relations are determined by four conditions: (i) people perceive a person and assess that they have to be obliged to him because they do not have those things which he has and which they very much need; (ii) the person's resources are not available outside him; (iii) force cannot be used to compel the resources out of him whenever they require those resources; and (iv) his resources are indispensable to others.

These four conditions can provide a perceptive re-entrant with tactics for increasing or sustaining dependency by blocking alternative sources of his resources, which have become an aspect of his personal attributes or characteristics. He could, for example, block the possibility of dependents' using force to extract resources from him, block the paths to alternative owners of the resources, or diffuse ideas which promote dependence on him. The very existence of the phenomenon of asymmetrical relations may, however, be so uncomfortable to others that power conflict could result.

French and Raven (1959, op.cit.) identify five types of power which, in the context of this study, a re-entrant (who has any or more of them) may use to push through

learning-inspired ideas: (i) reward power, which arises from a formal leader's control of such remunerations as salary raise, promotion and recognition which a subordinate may desire, and which the subordinate believes could be his should he conform with his superior's desired behaviour. The effectiveness of this power is, however, a function of the superior's being perceived as in the position of granting reward or influencing the source of the reward. If the re-entrant perceives that he has and wields such influence, his learning transfer effort may succeed; (ii) coercive power, which is founded on a subordinate's fear that failure to carry out directives and conform with rules will earn him punishment. Since punishment may include loss of reward, coercive and reward powers are similar; (iii) referent power, which is a function of the attractiveness of the power-wielder, and is therefore identification-generating. The effectiveness of referent power depends on others' perceived similarities to its owner (that is, as a factor of being identified with by others); (iv) legitimate power, which is based on a person's hierarchical position in an organization, legitimated by the organisation's owners, or by those designated by them to confer hierarchical positions on people. The incumbent of such a position may evoke the authority associated with it as well as established rules and norms to back up the need for him to be obeyed; and (v) expert power, which is a characteristic of a person seen as imbued with a special knowledge and/or skills.

It should, however, be noted that the use of power

to achieve a desired end, such as, the acceptance and implementation of ideas from learning may have limitations. Kelman (1961) has made the point that forced compliance lasts only for as long as the power-wielder's presence is maintained. Even where compliance is based on referent or charismatic power, it persists generally for as long as the source of influence maintains those attributes which generated the identification. In the case of compliance based on the internalization of the norms of an organization which legitimate status, compliance continues for as long as those norms persist. However, the issue as regards the transfer of learning is not only whether or not new ideas are ephemerally or permanently accepted and implemented, but also whether they are submitted and accepted at all. This is where, for a start, a re-entrant's perception that he has power and that others depend on him is important.

EMPIRICAL EVIDENCE OF PERSONAL
CHARACTERISTICS AS PERCEIVABLE
FACTORS IN LEARNING TRANSFER EFFORT

It has been pointed out that the personality dimension is the most ignored in learning transfer studies. Consequently, empirical evidence in this respect is scanty.

Johnson (1974) has already been cited as showing that active personalities, as distinct from passive, tend to be positively perceptive of their organizations and, thus, are high-task-oriented. One may, therefore, infer that they may be associated with performers likely to attempt learning

transfer.

Another evidence is provided by Baumgartel, Sullivan and Dunn (1978, op.cit.). Based on responses analyzed from 800 returned questionnaires, the personal characteristics associated with the transfer of learning are: whether or not tense, negative and depressed; imaginative and risk-taking; tolerant and likes people; achievement-oriented and originating; likes prestige, money and power; likes security and strong leadership.

In the two studies referred to, personality operates, not alone, but in the context of how favourable environmental variables are perceived by subjects. There are, however, other studies which have emphasized personal characteristics more than environmental factors. These have been found in marketing. When it is recollected that the re-entrant was referred to, in chapter 1, not only as a consumer of ideas and skills but also as a supplier of the same 'products' to his work situation members, salesmanship studies become relevant.

Scheibelhut and Albaum (1973) studied successful and non-successful salesmen and concluded that the former showed a higher social interest and lower self-centrality than the latter (self-centrality referring to the tendency to exclude how others perceive things but consider only how the individual himself perceives; while 'social interest' includes self's and others' perceptions, social trust and acceptance of group norms). The cited study also concluded that successful salesmen had greater self-esteem and greater tolerance of ambiguity, as well

as a greater blend of self-esteem and perception of similarities with others.

Another relevant study in the marketing area is Lamont and Lundstrom's (1977) which developed a personality profile of successful salesmen. The profile includes energetic and impressive physical appearance; perseverance, problem-solving orientation and willingness to work long hours; seeking and enjoying others' recognition for effective selling; adaptable and flexible work habits; controlled sensitivity to others' reactions and feelings.

It is easy to see that most of the characteristics identified by the authorities cited in this sub-theme are, but for semantic differences, the same as, or similar to, those in the Eysenck and Wilson (1975, op.cit.) studies, and discussed under the theme preceding, for example, self-confidence, motivation, and human relations.

SUMMARY OF CHAPTER 4

The main point of this chapter was that organizational and learning situation variables may not be adequate for studying the problem of learning transfer, for, the personal characteristics of re-entrants may play a part among learning transfer inhibitors. Psychological literature was therefore surveyed to sift out at least some of those characteristics, the presence or absence of which may help or hinder transfer behaviour. These characteristics covered self-confidence, conformity, motivation, personal philosophy as regards the concept of progress, human relations, and

perception of one's own power in the work situation. A re-entrant has to perceive these traits, or some of them, in his personality before he may make learning transfer effort.

CHAPTER 5

SUMMARY OF THE SURVEYED LITERATURE (CHAPTERS 2-4): THE INFERRED RESEARCH HYPOTHESES

SUMMARY

Chapters 2, 3 and 4 were devoted to a three-dimensional model to guide the collection of data on why public service managers fail to transfer management and related learning to their work situations. The three dimensions are the organizational situation or climate, the learning situation and personality characteristics. In order that insight might be gained into how each dimension pertained to the research problem, a survey of the literature on it was carried out. Chapter 2 dwelt on the organizational, chapter 3 on the learning situation, and chapter 4 on personal characteristics likely to be associated with the transfer or non-transfer of learning.

In chapter 2, the thrust of the message was that organizational climate, as perceived by a re-entrant, might be supportive or antagonistic to learning transfer effort. In other words, the personalized (phenomenological) view of climate was adopted for this study. Since that view does not predetermine the exact elements that constitute organizational climate, it enabled the survey to consider such factors that might be personally experienced by re-entrants as constituting climate in their consciousness - the factors of perception and attitude, power and authority politics in the work environment, the nature

of bureaucracy and leadership functions, and the internal management of the training function.

Perception was defined as the identificatory process by which a person recognises environmental objects. Attitude was defined in terms of cognition of, and affect toward, objects. With the application of such attitude theories as functional, social judgement, and dissonance, it was demonstrated that the centrality and strength, rather than the peripherality, of attitudes toward learning-imported ideas and the re-entrant himself could be experienced as determining the countenancing of his ideas. The theories were also shown to indicate acceptability as dependent on whether one experienced new ideas to be consistent with one's self and social group interests.

Perceptual and attitudinal differences were said to underlie the power-authority politics in organizational life. The emergence and dynamics of intra-organizational coalitions and constituencies as political behaviours might be perceived as inimical to learning transfer effort, since such effort might be evaluated as subversive to favoured power and authority positions.

As regards the nature of bureaucracy, it was shown that a re-entrant might view the complexity and divisions of labour as inhibitive to the flow of ideas, particularly if encouraging inter-unit relations were not experienced to exist. A tendency was for members to restrict discussing new ideas to their own units. Within the same units, however, hierarchical structuralization might be perceived as promoting defensiveness instead of open and free

communication of new ideas which might be critical of on-going 'modus operandi'. Bureaucratic centralization could also be perceived as not only providing for the distortion of ideas as they are borne through various levels but also the possible delay which may frustrate change-proponents and dissipate their enthusiasm. Central authorities might also veto new ideas to sustain their centrality.

Such events led the literature survey to consider the place of leadership in learning transfer process. It was demonstrated that the leadership likely to be helpful was that which a re-entrant perceives as functioning to meet organizational and group needs as well as the affiliative and other interests of individual members.

Finally, on the organizational dimension, how a re-entrant perceived the internal management of the training function was shown as associatable with learning transfer behaviour. The prevalence of political, administrative, and welfare approaches to training needs determination could mean the sending of the wrong people on courses; and such people were not likely to re-enter with applicable ideas. Faulty identification of where training should occur could have the same effects, while the abandonment of training evaluation could indicate to a re-entrant that, with no one caring about the effects of courses, there was no need to transfer learning.

Concerning the learning situation tackled in chapter 3, the argument from the literature was that for learning transfer to be considered at all, the substance of learning must count and the learner must have learnt. The

principles that had to be practicalized in the learning environment and be generally perceived by the learner as satisfied were, essentially, those of relevance and motivation to learn.

The ideas of several authorities concerning transferable learning were indicated to include providing alternative ways of looking at organizational problems; letting learners decide what was relevant and worth learning; and role-playing organizational realities. Trainers had to understand the levels of learning (cognitive and affective) to relate training methods to them. They also had to provide a climate likely to be learner-experienced as motivating.

The third dimension of learning transfer problem - personal characteristics - was taken up in chapter 4 in which it was first shown to be the most ignored by most studies of the problem. The point was made that it was possible for both organizational and learning conditions to be supportive to learning transfer, but that in the absence of sustaining personal characteristics, transfer behaviour could fail to manifest. From the fluid typification of personality as extraversion, introversion, emotional stability - instability, and tough-mindedness, implications for learning transfer were inferred. These implications were that learning transfer was likely to be enhanced by such characteristics as self-confidence, achievement and other motivations, acceptance of the philosophy of progress, human relations in the positive sense, and perception of own power in the work place.

At this point, the question is, "What hypotheses may

be derived from the literature survey to provide the foundations for data-collection?"

THE HYPOTHESES

Since the information from the surveyed literature is tri-dimensional (organizational, learning situations, and personal characteristics), the hypotheses developed from the survey follow the three-dimensional model. Table 5.1 is, accordingly, constructed from the putting together of survey data per dimension, and stating the related hypothesis.

TABLE 5.1 : THE PROBLEM DIMENSIONS AND THEIR RELATED HYPOTHESES

DIMENSION	FACTORS IN THE PERCEPTIONS OF RE-ENTRANTS	ASSOCIATED HYPOTHESES
	<p>Perceptions of, and attitudes to, new ideas and the re-entrant</p> <p>Power-authority politics in organizational life</p> <p>Bureaucratic struct-uralization, complexity and rules</p> <p>Organizational leader-ship</p> <p>Internal organizational management of the training function</p>	<p>The transfer of learning will occur if a re-entrant positively perceives and assesses those factors which, to him, constitute his organization's climate</p>

FACTORS IN THE PERCEPTIONS

DIMENSION	OF RE-ENTRANTS	ASSOCIATED HYPOTHESES
2	Course relevance Making course satisfy cognitive and affective levels of learning Appropriateness of training methods Motivational learning climate	The transfer of learning will occur if a training-recipient perceives and evaluates learning activities as meeting the principles of relevance and motivation to learn
3	Self-confidence Conformity (rigid or situational or creativity-inclined) Motivation Belief in progress Human relations Perception of own power and authority	The transfer of learning will occur if a re- entrant perceives his personality as characterized by such traits as self-confidence, creativity, motivation to achieve, belief in progress, positive human relations, and own power-authority in the work situation.

All the hypotheses could also be combined into one multi-dimensional or compound hypothesis, expressed as follows:

'The transfer of learning will occur if a training-recipient or re-entrant positively perceives and assesses the factors/characteristics of his organization's climate, learning situation and personality'.

Whether one worked with the individually stated hypotheses or the combined one would not make a difference in meanings.

Perhaps a minor point should, finally, be made about the conditional form of the hypotheses - 'if'. Firstly, hypotheses may be predictive. Therefore, the conditions for a prediction to be likely fulfilled may be stated. Secondly, hypotheses may be regarded as propositions. Therefore, following the proposition examples of Cohen and Nagel (1934), Ayer (1946) and O'Connor and Powell (1980), one could adopt the forms A is B; A is not B; Either A is B or C; If A, then B; if not A, then not B.

Now that the hypotheses have been developed, it is necessary to present the method used to look at them with empirical data. This exercise is the next chapter.

CHAPTER 6

THE RESEARCH METHOD: PROTOCOL ANALYSIS

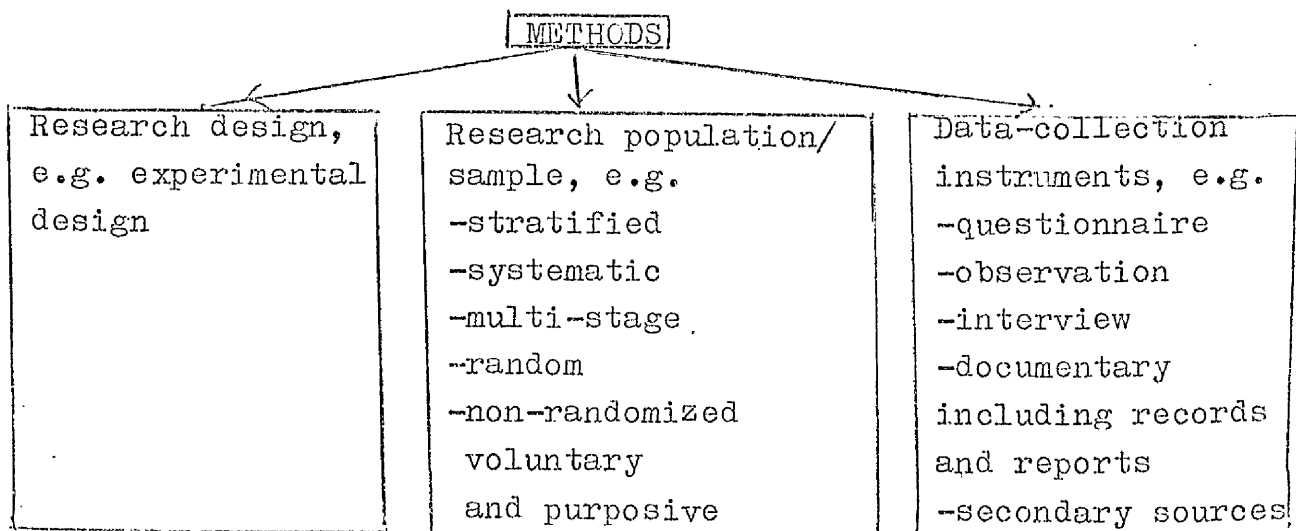
INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this chapter, as hinted in the preceding one, is to examine the methodological options open to this study and, thus, elucidate why a particular method, 'protocol analysis', has been selected, 'protocols' being defined as "the original recording of a subject's introspective notes" (Drever, 1972, p.227) or the 'thinking aloud' articulations of a subject about his experienced object (Burgoyne, 1974). Three sets of methods generally occur to the mind when a social or behavioural science research is contemplated (Suchman, 1967; Isaac and Michael, 1971):

- (i) research design
- (ii) population and its sample
- (iii) data-collection instruments

These are displayed in figure 6.1.

FIG. 6.1 : RESEARCH METHODS



As the figures shows, there is no direct reference to protocol analysis. This may be because the method is not yet popular or accepted, being based on phenomenology for which there is not yet an "orthodox procedure which can be held up as the authoritative method" (Chamberlain, 1974, p.136). The term 'phenomenology' is considered unavoidably introduced at this point: it will be explained a little later.

However, protocol analysis method, descriptive analysis of a subject's articulations concerning his experience of a phenomenon, may be regarded as a sub-type of interview method. In the conventional and better-known method of interview, there is a series of interconnected questions and answers, structured and/or unstructured. It may or may not be recorded, or the researcher may note salient points as responses are articulated. In a general sense, protocol analysis method is an interview method in that there are questions (usually few) or statements (usually few) around which a respondent or subject talks. A difference from conventional interviewing is that "it is essential to phenomenological analysis that the interviews be recorded and that the recording be transcribed" (Sanders, 1982, pp.356-357). The material thus collected is the protocols which then serve the researcher as the raw data for analysis. Another difference is that the conventional type of interview may be about opinions: protocol analysis is principally about a subject's actual experiences.

Other features of protocol analysis method will become clearer as this chapter develops its comparison to other

methods. Before that is done, however, its underlying epistemology (way of knowing) has to be discussed so that its appropriateness for this study may be established.

(a) EPISTEMOLOGICAL BASIS OF PROTOCOL ANALYSIS METHOD:
A GENERAL COMPARISON TO THE CONVENTIONALLY ACCEPTED
POSITIVISM IN SOCIAL SCIENCE STUDIES

Protocol analysis method is derived from the epistemological tradition of phenomenology, the development of which is attributed mainly to Edmund Husserl (1859-1938) in Germany (Macquarrie, 1973; Farber, 1966). The perspective of phenomenology is that individual subjective experience of the world is a valid source of knowledge about the phenomenal world (Drever, 1972, op.cit.). It is the investigation of conscious phenomenal experience or "an analysis of the way in which things or experiences show themselves" in, or as, consciousness (Sanders, 1982, op.cit., p.354).

Phenomenology appears in different nomenclatural guises in the social or behavioural sciences so that the unwary could think that different things were meant. In psychology, it is the psychology of personal constructs (Kelly, 1955; Bannister and Fransella, 1980) or 'psychological phenomenology' (McLeod, 1968). In Social Psychology and Sociology, it is 'symbolic interactionism' (Blumer, 1969; Shibutani, 1973), 'action theory' (Silverman, 1970) and 'cognitive sociology' (Cicourel, 1973). That these authorities are phenomenologists is clear from their common stand that behaviour or action, whether on individual or social setting, arises, not from the mere existence of objects or phenomena.

but from individual subjective meaning-interpretation and meaning-establishment. Behaviour or action is simply 'meaningful lived experience' (Schutz, 1972, section 25).

The appearance of phenomenology in the sub-disciplines of the social/behavioural sciences does not imply that methods, like, protocol analysis, founded on it have gained general acceptance by scientists. Objections have been raised by many scientists who follow, or seem to follow, the positivist tradition associated with Auguste Comte (19th century) as its principal initiator, as Miller (1979) explains. Therefore to appreciate the phenomenological angle, one should have at least a general idea of positivism. Doing so will further help to explain the departure of this study from the rather long-established, accepted and fashionable methods of the positivists.

Positivism perceives the world as having, placed in it or posited, objective phenomena which are observable, so that objective 'facts' about them may be logically deduced as a basis for sound theoretical construction or the development of a knowledge of reality. To positivists such theory is, therefore, superior to religious thought about phenomena - a thought which Comte labelled as 'fictional'. It is also superior to the armchair metaphysical philosophizing of such as Platonic thinkers.

Positivists, for example, Skinner (1953), also argue that that which cannot be objectively observed cannot be subjected to treatment or measurement with scientific instruments. It follows that a theory or an explanation of reality based on the unobservable is metaphysical,

-144-

speculative and perhaps, dubitable.

This position of what constitutes scientificness can be illustrated with the following example, If, whenever a dish of food is present a subject behaves in a certain way, it is scientific to conclude that the behaviour and the food are correlated - both food and behaviour are observable phenomena. To the phenomenologist, there is a questionable assumption or presumption in this positivistic conclusion. It may be observed that the same subject may vary his behaviour in the environment of the same food. The positivist who leaps to connect object and subject does not provide a generally convincing behavioural theory or explanation. This is because, contrary to the phenomenological principle that we should go in to study reality without assumptions, beliefs or presuppositions (that is, the principle of 'epoche' or 'bracketing out' biases), the positivist 'naively' establishes causal relations by what actually amounts to commonsensical logico-deduction: "Since whenever this food is here Mr. Adebimpe behaves in that...that...that manner, the food is the cause of the behaviour."

Kohak's (1978) translation of Husserl's work and Schutz's (1972) work demonstrate, from the phenomenological standpoint, that the gap in positivist view is the omission of a subject's consciousness which is equated with experience. The constituents of consciousness/experience include, not just 'seeing' which is the mere registration of an object on the retina, but perception, attitudes, reflection, comparing, remembering, affects or emotions: in other words,

elements constitutive of consciousness or experience.
 Figs. 6.2 (a) and (b) depict a difference between positivist and phenomenologist modes of explaining or describing the reality of experience.

FIG.6.2(a) POSITIVIST CORRELATION OF OBJECT AND SUBJECT WITHOUT THE MEDIATION OF CONSCIOUSNESS OR EXPERIENCE (BLACK BOX)

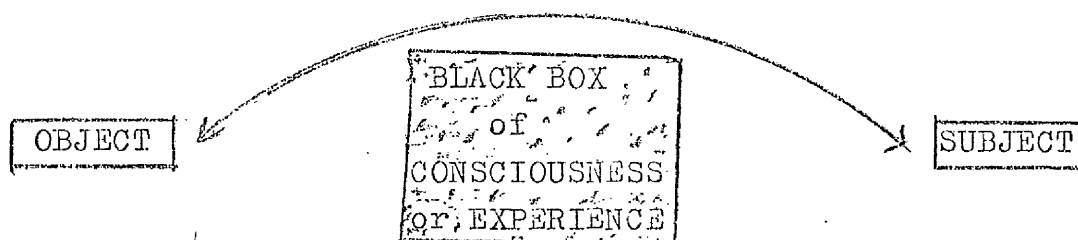
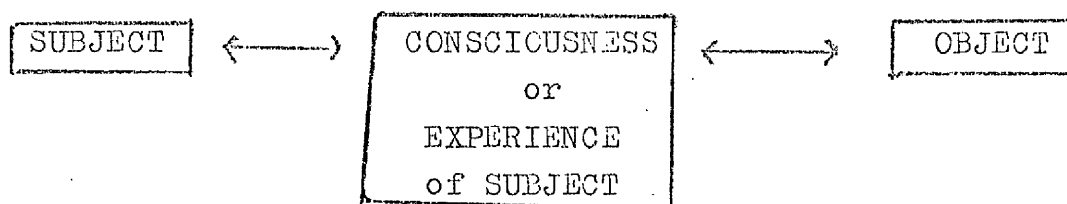


FIG.6.2(b) PHENOMENOLOGIST MEDIATION (OF BLACK BOX) OF CONSCIOUSNESS OR EXPERIENCE TO DESCRIBE SUBJECT'S BEHAVIOUR TOWARD OBJECT



The arrows are interactive because behaviour is not one way, for example, in interpersonal or social relations; even in the case of animate-inanimate relations, sense data flow from object, and subject 'reacts'. Unlike in positivism, consciousness (in phenomenology) processes objective data, giving them meanings which precede behaviour,

action, reaction and whatever else we may choose to designate experiential consequences, whether overt or covert, explicit or implicit.

One then understands why Burgeyne and Hodgson (1982) argue that the logical position of positivism "is weak in the extreme", for, consciousness or experience involving meaning-interpretation and meaning - establishment are indivorceable from behaviour. One also then appreciates why Silverman (1970) charges systems and some other theorists of 'reification', the attribution of organisimic and personality qualities to abstractions and non-conscious objects. Schutz (1972, op.cit.), a prominent phenomenologist, expresses the intervention of consciousness-based meaning with the succinctness that action is defined through meaning.

The phenomenologist, delving beneath or beyond positivist superficiality, does not mean that the 'essence' of experience is hidden or in inner psychological core of a subject. 'Essence' phenomenologically refers to 'overtness' and a bringing to light, so that the essence of experience is simply how experience or consciousness shows itself, or "how a phenomenon presents itself in experience" (Kohak, 1978, op.cit., p.9) since "the reality of a phenomenon is reality-in-experience" (Kohak, ibid., p.53).

The process of 'delving' in to understand how experiences show themselves is eidetic reduction (Sanders, 1982, op.cit.) or the process of phenomenological 'seeing' which is not casual but "is a matter of looking, looking again, then again, each time with greater precision, until

we reach a clear evident grasp" (Kohak, 1978, op.cit., p.23). This phenomenological prescription is obvious in Burgoyne's (1974, op.cit.) study of management students' judgement processes in programme evaluation, using protocol analysis method.

It is, however, because of the phenomenologist's reliance on individuals' experiences to understand the world of behaviour that he is criticized by positivists on the grounds of subjectivity. The criticism would seem to arise from both a terminological misunderstanding and a failure to perceive the purity (that is, the transcendental aspect) of subjectivity in phenomenological context. This misunderstanding requires rectification.

Firstly, 'subjectivity' is not synonymous with the colloquial usage, 'bias' or 'individual preference'. Secondly, it has nothing to do with that which is private, as such. If it were private, it would be difficult, if not impossible, to share the fruits of knowledge, including phenomenology itself. There would be no basis even for institutionalized education or training itself since each 'participant' would be in his water-tight shell of privacy.

Subjectivity is used not only in the individualized sense but also in a transcendental sense, that is, that a common possession of humanity is consciousness and, hence, a common experiential structure. By this common structure for experiencing, an individual uses his share from it not only to interpret phenomena but also to share his consciousness or experience with others. Thus, subjectivity is not only expressive of the reality of individual

-140-

experience but also of the reality of social, interpersonal, or "intersubjective understanding", as phenomenologists often refer to it (Schutz, 1972, op.cit., section 20; Kohak, 1978, op.cit., chapter 4). Schutz, in the cited section, presents subjectivity as follows (edited here slightly for space): "No two experiences duplicate each other precisely....though lived individually, human acts do exhibit analogous structure....As Husserl notes, experience even in the first person is not private but has definite generic characteristics."

The openness, rather than 'privateness', which characterizes phenomenological 'subjectivity' implies the possibility of human mutual influence. Consciousness or experience becomes shareable as in the socialization effects noted in Lauer and Handel (1977), the influence of 'significant others' in Payne and Mansfield (1978), Berger and Luckmann (1971) and the effects of background similarities in generating some common perceptions and motivation among people (Cottgrove, 1975).

To summarize the discussion so far on phenomenology as the epistemological basis of protocol analysis, we note:

- (i) that phenomenology seeks to understand the world of phenomena by looking within individual consciousness or experience to see how objects or behaviours show themselves;
- (ii) that though phenomenology is 'subjective', its subjectivity is not private: experience is shareable; and

- (iii) in effect, therefore, it is particularly appropriate for understanding human behaviour, for example, why re-entrants fail to transfer learning to their work situations.

However, the comparison which the foregoing exposition has entailed may be said to be general. For a reader familiar with such methods and sub-methods as experimental design, quantitative and sampling, specifics of comparison may drive home an appreciation of protocol analysis method in this study.

(b) PHENOMENOLOGY-POSITIVISM COMPARED : SOME SPECIFICS

(i) QUALITATIVE VIS-A-VIS QUANTITATIVE:

Positivistic social scientists usually ask computers to analyze respondents' reactions/responses to researcher imposed variables and scales in terms of statistical indications of central and dispersal tendencies. This is some time after administering statements said to represent aspects, or all, of reality of the object of study. The statements, as Burgoyne and Hodgson (1982) have argued, are basically subjective, having been derived from earlier studies of 'subjective others' and/or the researcher's subjective observations. This point should be borne in mind when the use of questionnaires will be discussed later.

Another misrepresentation of reality in quantitative analysis is clear from the following example. The average of ten people's assessment of the quality of a pot of soup does not represent the objective reality of the soup when

the average has been fed back to them. The average is different from the real soup and what is real to each subject is as he perceives or experiences it, no matter what the positivist average may be said to be. Reality is "intelligible only from the perspectives of those experiences" and reality is "reality-in-experience" (Kohak, 1978, op.cit., pp.68 and 72). Andresky (1972) has, while extolling qualitative methods like phenomenology-based ones, accused many established social scientists of using the smoke-screen of statistics to confuse understanding and to lift insignificant contributions to the level of significance. Andresky's attitude to the use of statistics may be extreme, but there is no doubt that qualitative research has been unnecessarily neglected.

(ii) PROTOCOL ANALYSIS AND EXPERIMENTAL DESIGN.

In a typical experimental design, there is an experimental group as well as a control group, the members of both having been randomly selected from the same population. There is then a pre-experimental measurement of their characteristics. The control group is held constant, that is, not exposed to the experimental treatment given to the experimental group. This is done so that a post-treatment measurement may establish whether there is a difference between the two groups, a difference which may then be attributed to the experimental treatment.

Hamblin (1974, p.72) has, however, pointed out that as regards the evaluation of learning, the use of a scientific experiment would not be satisfactory because evaluation is cyclic whereas an experiment tends to have

a beginning, a middle, and an end, so that, at the end, the experimenter "can confidently state that certain statements have been proved true or false. It is necessary to adopt a more discursive, exploratory approach...in which we are...simply trying to find things out." Protocol analysis method, applied to real work situation, appears to be better than experimental design in satisfying this approach, especially because, since the ideal training evaluation is cyclic (see Fig.2.1 of chapter 2), findings from protocol analysis can be fed back to organizational members. Protocol analysis method is thus more reality-oriented than experimental design.

The subjects in the organization are adults capable of knowing what differences have been made on them by exposure to courses. In other words, a person embodies within himself the pre-experience and the post-experience measurement characteristic of an experimental design. Burgoyne (1974, op.cit., p.543) states as follows on protocol analysis method:

"....results show that many of the features of valid judgements, like the use of objectifiable criteria and control group...are present.. in the judgement processes underlying evaluative opinions. This suggests that a certain amount of validity can be attached to opinion-based follow-up studies..." using protocol analysis.

Burgoyne's justification of his use of protocol analysis is also a justification for its being employed in this study.

(iii) PROTOCOL ANALYSIS METHOD AND RANDOM SAMPLING

Random sampling is a process of ensuring that every member of a population from which a number of individuals is selected for a study has an equal opportunity of being selected (Kattsoff and Simone, 1965; Harper, 1980) so that a fair generalization may be made about the selected number and, possibly, the population. As fig.3.1 early in this chapter depicts, there are various types of sampling. What is however necessary is to explain why a sample of any type is not used here.

A phenomenological method does not have to depend on sampling to provide for sound conclusions. Sampling is usually necessary when a population is large, and when a survey type of study is undertaken; but, again, phenomenology does not necessarily depend on the largeness of a population for truth: protocol analysis goes in for a deep intentional analysis of a subject's experiences.

In fact, large populations and samples may yield masses of data which do not serve better than a lesser number of information sources such as in protocol analysis method. Bannister and Fransella (1980, op.cit., p.10) have succinctly expressed this point: "While it (personal constructs or a phenomenology-based method) does not argue against the collection of information, neither does it measure truth by the size of the collection. In deed, it leads one to regard a large accumulation of facts as an open invitation to some far-reaching reconstruction which will reduce them to a mass of trivialities." - parenthesis mine.

Sanders (1982, op.cit., p.356) makes the same point as follows: "The first crucial rule for the phenomenological researcher is: more subjects do not yield more information. Quantity should not be confused with quality. The phenomenologist must learn to engage in in-depth probing of a limited number of individuals.....approximately three to six individuals."

(iv) SURVEY QUESTIONNAIRE AND PROTOCOL ANALYSIS METHOD

It may be correct to say that survey questionnaires have been used in some studies which became classics, for example, Likert, 1961; 1967. They have been so popular that, often, eyebrows are raised when a social science researcher says that he will not use them. Before the reasons are given for the leaving out of survey questionnaires in this study, one may wish to have at least some idea of what they look like.

In his 1961 study of performance variables in organizations, Likert developed and used what has become known as 'Likert-type scales', each of which consisted of statements ordered along a continuum that ranged from 'strongly agree' to 'strongly disagree' as follows:

1 The vacation policies of this company are
not liberal enough:

- (a) strongly agree
- (b) agree
- (c) no opinion
- (d) disagree
- (e) strongly disagree

2 My supervisor is a forceful Leader:

- (a) strongly agree
- (b) agree
- (c) uncertain
- (d) disagree
- (e) strongly disagree

Likert's (1967, op.cit.) 'Management Systems Questionnaire' which he used to describe management (leadership) styles and their effects is actually a linear horizontal variation of the earlier one exhibited above. His questionnaire designs have since been followed in one form or the other which need not concern us here.

Many of the questionnaire-based studies, for example, Stern (1970) and Litwin and Stringer (1968) focussed on organizational climate and performance. Since learning transfer is an aspect of performance, the designs of such studies could be used or adapted for a study of the present theme, such as done by Baumgartel and Jeanpierre (1972)

and Weiss, Huczynski and Lewis (1980).

A major distinction between their method and phenomenology-oriented protocol analysis is, as already stated, that questionnaires better apply to survey type, large population studies. Protocol analysis method, however, brackets out the possible biases in questionnaire usage, for example,

- (a) questionnaire items may be more than what might have occurred to respondents in their actual experiences, in which case they could be tempted to include opinions rather than the essence or facts of experience;
- (b) no single researcher may claim to know all items that could be significant to a respondent in his actual experiences, in which case, a questionnaire could be restrictive to a subject's experiential frame of reference. Thus, Campbell, et al. (1970), reviewing many studies on performance variables, conclude that there are still many factors to be uncovered;
- (c) it is doubtful if the data-related mental and emotional processes of a respondent can be adequately reflected with questionnaire scales and items, but we have already argued, as seen in the black box in fig.6.2(a) that these processes are indivorceable from human behaviour and provide the data on how experience or consciousness and its 'intentional' objects show themselves;

(d) therefore, (a) - (c) above indicate that while the 'image' of experience is fragmented by the use of questionnaires (it is the researcher who decides what is to be correlated with what), protocol analysis presents a fuller and more coherent 'image' of reality (the data of experience and all correlations are within a subject's experience/consciousness, so that what the phenomenologist or protocol analyst does is to obtain the data from within articulated experience). In other words, all the 'what, why, how, where, etc.' of experience are given, not in questionnaires or external objects, but in a subject's consciousness or experience. Intentional analysis or reduction (with protocol analysis method) delves in to study the subject's process of experiencing (noesis) in order to understand or gain knowledge of the experience itself or its product (noema). Thus, unlike questionnaire, protocol analysis, despite its name, is descriptive of reality as a 'given' in consciousness.

(v) PROTOCOL ANALYSIS METHOD AND OBSERVATION

A weakness of relying solely on observation is that the meanings which a subject attaches to phenomena may not coincide with the observer's. To use an example from Walsh and Lehnert's (1972) translation of a work of the phenomenologist, Schutz, a positivist observer may perceive an action as conscious and purposeful, but the phenomenologist, by

'genetic' delving (going into the roots of behaviour in experience/consciousness) may find that the action is absent-minded.

Another weakness of observation is the possibility that the observer may be observing what he set out to observe - a sort of self-fulfilling prophecy (Burgoyne and Hodgson, 1982, op.cit.). However, participant-observation may fill the gap in pure observation. Since, any way, a phenomenological study has the additional advantage of being able to grasp reality after it has been experienced, the inability of observation or participant-observation to do so means that what has gone before is lost to the positivist. Protocol analysis method achieves this superiority by using as data the research-stimulated recall, reflection and articulations of a subject. This advantage will become obvious in the analysis in chapter 8 of this study.

This comparison should, however, not be overplayed. The phenomenologist himself does use observation since he must have experienced and observed something before deciding on a phenomenological in-depth study. This point explains why one may disagree with those writers, for example, Sanders (1982, op.cit.) who say that phenomenology does not begin with some hypotheses (such as have been stated in chapter 5 of this study). To exclude hypotheses always is to misunderstand the phenomenological principle of 'epoche'. Where hypotheses are relevant to a problem, they could be stated (Farber, 1966, op.cit.) and be tested with subjects' articulated experiences. It is however

possible for a person to observe behaviours or actions without being able to develop a hypothesis concerning them. He may then move straight to study them phenomenologically. This is the sort of circumstance which gives the impression that hypotheses are absent from phenomenology.

(vi) PROTOCOL ANALYSIS METHOD AND CASE STUDY

Case study here refers to a study based on an analysis of an historical organizational situation. Since protocols may be historical reflections or recalls of experiences, protocol analysis method is, in a general sense, similar to case study. Secondly, since case study is accepted in social science research, it justifies the research use of protocols, the records of which are case study material. Thirdly, case study may be a starting point for a protocol analyst since the analyst can, on going through a case, go to obtain the articulations of those involved in the case.

However, protocol analysis, as phenomenological, has an advantage over a study that depends only on conventional case study. The latter may be records of opinions rather than of actual experiences of subjects. Protocol analysis establishes direct contact with actual 'dramatis personae' of behavioural events.

(vii) PROTOCOL ANALYSIS METHOD AND CRITICAL INCIDENT

REPORTING

Critical incident can be appreciated with Herzberg, et al. (1959) as an example. Subjects were asked to give accounts

of when they felt 'exceptionally good' about their work, and when they felt 'exceptionally bad'. It can therefore be said to be akin to protocol analysis method by its being experiential and by its stimulating recall of lived experiences. However, subjects, as Burgoyne and Hodgson (1982, op.cit.) have pointed out, may get on to report observations outside their experiences, whereas protocol analysis is definitely slanted toward actual experiences.

(viii) PROTOCOL ANALYSIS METHOD AND REPERTORY GRID

Like protocol analysis method, repertory grid is a phenomenological way of knowledge since it has to do with a subject's perceptions and evaluations of phenomena-in-experience or phenomena-in-consciousness. That it is so is made clear by Easterby-Smith (1980) who, explaining how it may be used in human resource development, describes it as derived from the theory of 'personal constructs'.

As Burgoyne and Hodgson (1982, op.cit.) state of repertory grid, it can be used to examine the constructs people use to differentiate roles, jobs, global tasks at the macro-level as well as for specific activities, people, problems or any other elements derived from specific job contents. When, however, managers are asked to describe and differentiate between people and activities, they may do so according to what they believe are good characteristics and qualities rather than what they have actually experienced. Thus, while repertory grid and protocol analysis methods are of the same epistemological family, the latter better brings out mental processes, feelings, and other actual experiences.

(c) THE MECHANICS OF PROTOCOL ANALYSIS METHOD

By 'mechanics' here is meant the question, "How may phenomenology be translated into a method or technique in the study of human behaviour in organizations, such as, the behaviour of the failure to transfer management and management-related learning?" which is the subject of this study.

Sanders's (1982, op.cit.) article and Burgoyne and Hodgson's (1982, op.cit.) study provide answers. According to the former's article, three types of data-collection may be used: (i) indepth, structured oral history interviews with the subjects that are tape-recorded and transcribed; (ii) a documentary study in which the writings of the subjects are reviewed to derive meanings from them - a technique often used with the first-mentioned; and (iii) participant-observation techniques. This is followed with interviewing to explore particular behaviours in greater depth.

Burgoyne and Hodgson's (1982, op.cit.) study presents the method in much the same way as Sanders's; and this is essentially the pattern used in this study: (i) obtain a description of the subject's psychological experience; (ii) break down the description into its natural meaning units that are interpreted as aspects of the whole description; (iii) classify the natural meaning units until the deeper sense of the whole that these units imply, in the light of the researcher's project, is discovered; (iv) a comprehensive description of the structure is provided and it serves as a means of dialogue for returning to actual

life situations in order to enlighten them; (v) since total neutrality may not be possible, the researcher's aims are also described so that conclusions may be understood in the context of those aims - hence the statement of hypotheses in chapter 5 and the reasons for this study in chapter 1.

(d) A PROBLEM OF PROTOCOL ANALYSIS METHOD IN THE
NIGERIAN ENVIRONMENT: RESOLVING THE PROBLEM

A foreseen problem in the use of protocol analysis method in the Nigerian context was the reluctance of people to have their statements verbatim - recorded (by tape-recording). This was not surprising partly because the hangover of the fear of spying during the thirteen-year military government was not yet over, civilian administration having been restored as recently as October, 1979. As regards those who volunteered protocol data and recording, the inhibition seemed to have been moderated or eliminated with introductory and persuasive appeal for Nigerians to be aware of the considerable financial investments in courses, to play a part in making courses meaningful and to note the importance expected of training in socio-economic development.

(e) THE CONSTRUCTION OF THE PROTOCOL 'QUESTIONS'

It will be recalled that the hypotheses of this study on the problems of learning transfer were developed from a survey of the literature and related literature

(see chapter 5). These hypotheses, it will also be recalled, revolve around three dimensions of the problems, namely,

- (i) the organizational situation or climate;
- (ii) the learning situation; and
- (iii) the personality or personal characteristics of the re-entrant.

Protocols - generating questions therefore have to reflect these three dimensions.

Care has to be taken to ensure that the questions are not leading ones, the aim being to minimize or eliminate researcher 'demand characteristics'. At the same time, the questions have to be as clearly constructed as possible to restrict the subject's talking to his actual and personal experiences of the phenomenon in question. To achieve this as much as possible, it became necessary to conduct a pilot study, using five subjects.

Since the purpose of the pilot study was to test if subjects would adhere to 'classroom' and organizational experiences only, as well as to help the writer to sharpen the questions, it was not considered necessary at this stage to make verbatim recordings but to listen attentively and to make notes. This exercise revealed as follows:

- (i) if a question was simply expressed, "How did you assess the course you attended?" or "In what ways did the course prove useful?", the tendency was for subjects to talk of both the learning situation and re-entry together;

- (ii) if a personality question simply read, "How do you and others see you?", the tendency was for subjects to wander off beyond their work situations. In one case, the subject talked of how he perceived that his wife and children perceived him;
- (iii) the three dimensions of this study tended, in subjects' articulations, to overlap, so that one could obtain information about personality from statements about organizational environment.

The first -- mentioned observation from the pilot exercise is not a weakness of question design as such, since one can learn about both learning activities and re-entry problems from protocols geared to only the re-entry phase. But since the writer's approach is to have as much detail as possible about each dimension, while recognizing inter-connectedness of dimensions, it became necessary to redesign the questions in such a manner as to gear protocols to each dimension. This was reasonably achieved by introducing pre-question directives, for example, by asking a subject to concentrate on one dimension. As regards the personality dimension, a phrase, like, "in your organization and work group", had to be introduced (so that wandering away to non-work environments might be obviated). These precautions did not, and were not expected to, achieve complete distinction among the three dimensions of learning transfer problems. They sufficiently approximated to a distinction for the purpose of analysis (while one should bear in mind that they are all related to the problem

being studied.

The following are the finally designed questions for the generation of protocols:

THE DIMENSION OF THE LEARNING SITUATION (Card 1)

In talking around the following request or statement, I wish you, please, to concentrate on the venue of the course you attended. Please, give an account of your experiences and perceptions of the course. That is, how you evaluated the learning activities, contents and delivery of the course.

THE DIMENSION OF THE ORGANISATIONAL SITUATION OR CLIMATE (Card 2)

Please, supply the highlights of the report you submitted about the course to your sponsor and how the report was used by your work group and/or organisation - that is, if you wrote a report. Also talk of your experiences in applying your learning to your work and how your work group or organisation used your learning. (An alternative way of seeking this information would have been as follows:

"In applying what you learnt, what difficulties or ease did you meet in your work group and/or organisation?"

This format was not used because the words, "difficulties" and "ease" might have been leading by directly triggering off positive and negative reflections.'

THE DIMENSION OF PERSONALITY/PERSONAL CHARACTERISTICS

(Card 3)

Please, tell me, in some detail, how in your work unit and/or organisation, you perceive your own personality and characteristics (in relation to work and other people, including your boss). It will also be helpful if you could talk of how you see that others, including your boss, see you.

(f) OTHER SOURCES OF DATA FOR THIS STUDY

In protocol analysis method, the articulations of subjects are the data for analysis. However, it is traditional in research to apply other data, like, secondary sources and records or reports, if need be. These have been used not to depart from the phenomenological perspective of this study but to provide information on the 'state of the art' and hypotheses as in chapters 5 and 1-4, and to help analysis etc.

SUMMARY OF CHAPTER 6

Principally this chapter explains that protocol analysis method is used for this study because, as it examines an individual subject's experience, it is particularly consistent with the phenomenological view adopted. Phenomenology, the study of reality-in-consciousness, is discussed and contrasted with logico-positivism in order to compare protocol analysis method to other methods, (e.g. repertory grid and critical incident reporting) with which it belongs to the same epistemological tradition. It is also compared to methods (e.g. sampling, questionnaire, experimental design) associated

with logico-positivist ways of knowing. Essentially, it is demonstrated that, contrary to logico-positivist claim that scientificness can only be based on the objective observation of objective phenomena, the subjective perceptions and experiences of individuals can provide an acceptable explanation of the world, since reality is as an individual perceives and experiences it with the result that the what, how, why, when and other questions about the world can be found in a person's consciousness.

It is also explained in the chapter that some contacted subjects were inhibited about releasing unfavourable data on their organisations, but that appeals did succeed with some others. Protocols - generating questions were designed to avoid leading questions and to pin respondents to their actual experiences within their actual organisations.

In the next chapter, the protocol data from six subjects are displayed with their indexed interpretations.

CHAPTER 7

DATA LAY-OUT AND INTERPRETATION

INTRODUCTION

This chapter, as stated in the preceding one, is to display and interpret the protocols articulated by six re-entrants so that the essences of the subjects' learning transfer experiences may be discussed and conclusions drawn as regards where learning transfer problems lie -- the learning situation, the organizational situation or climate, and/or the personal characteristics of re-entrants.

The protocols are presented in tabular form with the interpretations of their contents indexed on the right side column of the protocols. It will be noted that the protocols are in what look like paragraphs. These paragraphs are intended to correspond to the units of protocol meanings -- hence the interpretations on the right. These meanings are later collected into various tables per research problem dimension not only to remind the reader of the essences of the protocols but also to help comparisons of re-entrants' experiences. For easy reader cross-referencing, the tables are also, where possible, indicated beside the indexed interpretations of the paragraph-seeming units of protocols.

One or two final introductory remarks remain to be made. Firstly, the indexed interpretations are elements of 'analysis', so that once the reader relates interpretations to their associated protocols, the need for copious discussion references to protocol text becomes reduced;

reduced rather than entirely avoided as total absence of repetitiveness is not possible in this type of analysis. In fact, without some repetition by way of illustrating points of analysis and discussion, the reader might be inconveniently forced to overdo the flipping backward and forward to relate discussion to protocol text.

Secondly, there was considerable thought on whether the protocols should be placed as an appendix. It was decided that they be where there are because, in a phenomenological study, experiential articulations represent consciousness, the genesis of analysis, which is too important to be an appendix. Moreover, since interpretations are arranged 'pari passu' with protocol units, and we cannot place protocols as appendix without carrying the interpretations to the same appendix, the protocols have to be within the body of the study.

The following cases are the protocols, each of which is preceded with a brief biographical note to help to put the protocols in as clear an organizational context as possible. (The letter, 'Q', in the right column, stands for related 'question' guiding analysis and discussion in chapter 8).

CASE 1

(From an extra-ministerial department solely on personnel work. Subject was mid-level manager on Grade Level 10; boss was chief executive seven levels higher, that is, the peak of administrative career; subject had one subordinate, three levels below his. Political appointees - chairman and a number of commissioners - formed a sort of

board on full time basis placed over the organisation).

(a) THE LEARNING SITUATION

INDEX

The course I wish to talk about was on management in the public service. It contained much that was useful to me as an administrative officer specifically, and generally by way of enabling me to appreciate better the administrative work not within my schedule of duties. When I talk of the particular course, don't think that it was the only one I attended. You know, one tends to remember those things which made impact more than others, and you seem interested in a specific course.

You see, I came into the civil service with a University degree. That degree did not prepare me for any particular career, and to have depended on it to understand the nature and intricacies of management in the public sector is out of the question.

In fact the later in-service course I attended filled the gap in general career preparation because it had to do directly with my work and public service system as a whole and its role in country development.

Under 'general remarks' section of

Recall (to identify specify which course - Q.1.iii, p.229; Table 8.5, p.248. Relevance (focussed and diffuse) Q.1.i, p.229; Table 8.1, p.231.

Comparison (of course to degree course) Q.1.iii, p.229; Table 8.5, p.248.

Relevance (of course to career) - Q.1.i, p.229; Table 8.1, p.231.

the end-of course administered evaluation sheets, I pointed out that such in-service programmes run by your institution should be intensified and that you should have branches in several locations in the country so that you may be able to train thousands of us each year..

We covered many subjects. I cannot now remember all of them by titles, but they included communication and human relations skills, organization theory, motivation, performance evaluation, salaries and wages administration, interviewing, and personnel records....

During the course, I was thinking of my work, my workmates, and the public service as a whole, especially those ministries in which I had worked before my posting when I came back from your course. In each case I found a lot that could be improved on. I found a confirmation of much that I did right and a negative confirmation of what I did not do right. It made one feel like going back to re-do certain things

Suggestion made to indicate course very relevant to work - table 8.1, p. 231
Question 1.i, p.229

Recall (of specifics of course content
Question 1.iii, p.229
Table 8.5, p. 248

Recall of reflection during course -
Question 1.iii, p.229
Table 8.5, p.248

Relevance (focussed)
Question 1.i, p.229
Table 8.1 p.231

even though those things were accepted and praised by superiors -which means that they themselves do not know enough.....

You see, it is one thing to work with intuition; it is another to have awareness of your methods. For example, I was happy how I wrote minutes and memos but the course showed that what I did well I could do better. I was happy how I related with people but those ideas we came across made me more conscious of the factors in relationships. I used to think of smooth human relations as an every-time thing, but when I read and we discussed various authorities, I began to see why smooth relations did not always pay. Everything, you know, depends on its context.

You see, my university degree did not provide all this understanding, at least not directly. I like university attainment; perhaps everybody does. I am not condemning it - no, not at all. Universities are a necessity. After all, subjects like Economics and History deal with

Knowledge/skills
(reference) -

Question 1.i, p.229

Table 8.1, p. 231

Comparison (before
after course):

Table 8.5, p.248

Question 1.iii, p.229.

Also relevance to
work: Table 8.1, p. 231
Question 1.i, p.229

Comparison (of
courses to express
preference) -

Question 1.iii, p.229

Table 8.5, p. 248.

human behaviour. They help a person to become analytical and able to fit into many job and human situations. However, not necessarily specific job and human situation. I believe that the more academics have some organisational experience outside book citadels, the more their lectures will be made more direct with real life examples, just as we went into real work problems in that course. .

The more academics adopt or adapt, the words often used in the course, the methods of the management trainers, the better too.....
.....

You know, there is no realism in expecting every trainer to be equally good as another, but all of them had one thing in common. They made all of us participants contribute from our learnings and experiences. Occasionally I was up-front to present my group's ideas on practical problems. Fantastic and exciting indeed.....

Training techniques/
methods (andragogic)
to achieve valued
ends of course --
Q.1.ii, p.229;
Table 8.4, p.244

Training technique
to achieve valued
end - Table 8.4,p.244;
Q. 1.ii, p.229.

Satisfaction (motiv-
ation to learn) -
Q.1.i, p.229;
Table 8.1, p.231.

Some lecturers in the course were average, no doubt. Yet they were all right. I wouldn't rate them average but higher if there were no other trainers to compare with them. Even though average, the course remained fantastic all through. The magic that made an average facilitator good was presentation, joint discussion of familiar problems, etc.

We were given individual projects. The individual project I carried out helped me to see at the time what I saw as unfair remuneration and lack of equipments of the police, teachers and nurses. I wondered then why fat-salaried and fat-allowanced politicians and ministers of education forgot teachers though they, many of them, were formerly teachers themselves. I remember that I predicted plenty of trouble from teachers and nurses when they would become aware of being neglected and stirred up by escalating economic hardship I also said so about railway workers. I questioned the rationality of a

Dissatisfaction
(negative motivation
but not serious -

Question 1.i, p.229;
Table 8.1, p. 231

Training techniques
and relevance -
Questions 1.ii & 1.1;
Tables 8.4 and 8.1, p. 244
p.231

Training techniques
(project) as means
of valued end -
Question 1.ii, p.229;
Table 8.4, p. 244

Knowledge/insight
gained - Table 8.1, p 231,
Question 1.i, p.229

of a multitude of salary scales and the dychotomy between executive and administrative scales, and why salaries bore alphabets of different names when identical jobs were concerned. These things have happened as I saw ahead, and Udoji corrected many of the anomalies.....

.....

There was also group project. The group project was a useful part of the course. In fact, it was what gave me insight into the then conditions in Railways Corporation. It was where I found motivation at its lowest apart from nurses and teachers. Structure was bad and made people, who entered the same profession at the same time and assessed sound, lag for years behind others.

So, you see, the course had much to commend it. I would not have known such things when I did had I continued with only my university degree, no matter how valuable.

.....

Let me think for a moment. Yes, I think I said it would be unrealistic

Training techniques related to insight gained - Table 8.4, p.244
Question 1.ii, p.229

Comparison (of before after effect of course) - table 8.5, p. Question 1.iii, p.229

Knowledge - table 8.1, p.231; Q.1.i, p.229

to expect hundred per cent perfect course. As if a small world, the thirty of us made friendships and foeships, so to call it. This did not hamper learning any way.

.....

The other problem was the programme conjection. To cover eleven to fifteen themes in a few weeks was too much. I felt the burden. Fortunately, the usefulness and excitement helped. In fairness to the organizers, it would be difficult to remove any of the subjects. A trainer told me that it helped to make Nigerians know that attending in local course is not a holiday. He was right because I personally expected a lot of rest from work, especially as my attendance was shortly after the annual estimates work during which we spent twelve hours or longer hours in office. A way out of the course conjection which many of us suggested then was to extend the time. The trainers said that sponsors would not release officers for longer. I had pointed out that the argument was weak. Sponsors allow people to go

Satisfaction (motivation intrinsic to learn) - Table 8.1, p.231;
p. Question 1.i; p.229

Dissatisfaction
(negative motivation)
but not serious -
Question 1.i, p.229
Table 8.1, p. 231

on foreign courses for long periods but would not allow them the same time for a local course perhaps more relevant and certainly less costly. That is Nigeria looking down on its own.

.....

Let me think for some seconds.. I think I have talked enough on this card.

(b) THE ORGANISATIONAL SITUATION/CLIMATE

I believe that many of us who attended the course returned to work bubbling with ideas.

I really bubbled with ideas, you know, and I looked forward to the praise for the ideas I was going to suggest. Let me tell you right away that it was all fiasco.....
If a child of Israel bubbled with enthusiasm in getting into Egypt, he was to start bubbling with enthusiasm to have exodus. This epitomizes my experiences as you will see.

.....

You are in the system yourself and you know that administrative officers are posted from ministry.

Recall (of enthusiasm to transfer learning)
Table 8.5, p.248
(Re-entry with enthusiasm)

Statement (of fact illustrated with the whole experience) - (table 8.7, p.269; Q.2.iii, p.254; Analogy Table 8.7, p.269; Q.2.ii, p.254.

to ministry or department.

I appealed to the postings officer to post me to where work was heavy because I hate to sit where few files flow into trays and cause one hour to be like a whole day. He sent me to where, for the sake of anonymity, let us call "Motivation Organisation". The pseudonym is appropriate because it is ironic. He cautioned that people usually begged not to be sent there because of the strict formality and 'ogaism' of the big guns there.

I said it suited me: it was a challenge to prove my charm, confidence and competence. You know, that was a postings drama reminiscent of dramatic irony in Shakespeare. The postings officer knew what he was talking about but I did not. I went in with zeal, but I came out in disaster.

.....

Surprise number 1: I took over from an unmanned table, only dusted when the Chief Executive had asked a messenger to conduct me to my new

Posting (as a factor?) -

Question 2.1, p.254;
Table 8.6, p. 255

Innuendo (to establish cause of learning transfer failure)
Table 8.7, p. 269;
Question 2.ii, p.254.

Hint on personality (love for challenge and self-confidence)
Table 8.8, p. 278;
Question 3.i, p.277
Dramatic irony (to establish cause of failure) Table 8.7, p.269
Question 2.ii, p.254

No predecessor (a factor?) Question 2.i, p.254
(table 8.6, p. 255)

office. This surprise followed an earlier one actually. When the Chief Executive introduced me to the Chairman, the Chairman had said, "I have learnt that you come from the same area with the Chief Executive. Don't take advantage."

Surprise number 2: I found that neither the Chief Executive nor any other member of staff was willing to put me through anything or give information on the purposes of the place. I was simply told to look for files and to study them along with the constitution. I should seek information from whatever person I could: therefore no handing-over notes.

I went to an officer I knew in another ministry, who was on posting there and had been there for some time. He said I should simply endorse recommendations that my subordinates routed through me to commissioners. This surprised me because it would make me a robot. He replied that that was the usual way. On one occasion, about

Social insensitivity
(tactlessness) of
leadership.

Table 8.6, p. 255

Question 2.i, p.254.

Unsupportive leadership
and staff (table 8.6
p.255Question 2.i,p.254)

a week after my posting, I did this. The Chairman sent for me and wondered whether I did not have the intelligence to comment on recommendations as expected I was to advise commissioners. I said I was still studying files to understand the procedures. When I reported this to my 'friend', he said that he was sorry to have been insufficiently clear. The way he laughed told me he had purposely misled me. I had however, learnt something, namely, that I must prove to the Chairman and commissioners that I could be incisive in comments and insight into alternative ways of tackling problems; and secondly, the attitude of staff was "Depend on none but on yourself".

.....

The first two or three weeks passed and though I was still bubbling with new ideas which I expected to affect the entire public service, I was too busy trying to master the behaviour of people, the intricacies of work, and clearing the long piled-up work uncleared when my predecessor

Unsupportive staff
(perceived as calculatedly misleading)
Question 2.i, p.254;
(table 8.6, p. 255)

Unsupportive staff
Question 2.i, p.254
(table 8.6, p. 255)

Posting to a new
place and overload
(have effect but not
considered very inhibitive) Question 2.i
p.254 table 8.6, p. 255.

was posted out without a replacement. I was working till 8.00pm and coming to work on the work-free days, but I still found it possible to see how I would suggest changes.

When an officer on an entirely different schedule was sick with 'apollo' I was told to include his duties in mine -- no one to put me through and I entirely depended on reading files. When the weight of work caused me to submit a memo affecting the strange schedule by five hours late, I was given an inferno of verbal warnings by a Commissioner and the Chief Executive to whom he had reported me as if tardiness was a habit with me.

By the end of the first three months, it dawned on me that the posting officer knew what he was talking about. Here the place in which everything was set to time, come what may, and everything must be done as the patterns set in pre-colonial days. It was much worse than in colonial days -- no one could go to eat; you had to bring your food to the

Emphasis on
threat and
punishment

Question 2.i, p.254
(table 8.6, p. 255)

Dramatic irony
Question 2.ii, p.254
(table 8.7, p. 269)

office -- though officers managed daily to go to eat, lying that they were going out to collect information. Only clerks and other junior employees did not feel or know what their seniors were undergoing. One senior officer whose relation was the wife of a Commissioner enjoyed it all -- he was a good boy and a darling to the big shots, he looked for faults to query and report to the Chief and politicians.

I detected questionable appointments and secondments and transfers and when I consulted a colleague on what I saw as unfair deals, he replied, "Just do your work as they want, and you are o.k.". I found this pattern of behaviour in the Chief Executive. How? Because any time both of us were with the Chairman or a Commissioner, he would yes-sir at least three times before a full sentence was completed. Even then, I still bubbled with ideas.

In our so-called Monday meetings, we sat in horse-shoe formation, the Chief in front of us. My mind would reel back to one of the Communication

Emphasis on conformity and obedience (table 8.6, p. 255)
Question 2.i, p. 254.

Contents of the course I returned from. Our pattern was in accordance with wheel or star pattern of communication, in which the incumbent of centrality tended to be more motivated than others. The issues were usually introduced as follows by the Chief. "The Chairman has said that we should do.....Any questions? That was the pattern, and after noticing that I was usually the only officer with questions, I asked a colleague why, and he said, "You will learn. Wait and see". People were unwilling to give me detail. I later learnt that this was for fear that I might tell tales. I felt bad about "Motivation Organisation" and the people in it.

On two occasions when I saw that the Chairman had acted in a way that could create far-reaching negative precedents, I asked the Chief why the Chairman's attention was not drawn to those things. He replied, and I quote word for word, "The Chairman is the owner of Motivation Organisation: his word is law." Can you imagine a person claiming ownership of his employer's

Emphasis on conformity and obedience (table 8.6, p.255; Q.2.1, p.254.

(Unsupportive staff - mutual suspicion)
Q.2.1, p.254.
(table 8.6, p.255)

Emphasis on obedience
(table 8.6, p.255)
Q.2.1, p.254.

organisation, especially public service.

Another shock was yet to come. The course had affected me to see the need for a certain change in the entire public service, and this change could be initiated in which ever ministry or extra-ministerial department to which one was posted or returned after a course. I had been inspired to see, among other areas, weaknesses in the then format for evaluating the performance of officers. It was a confidential reporting approach that was in use. I felt that open reporting which enable the reportee to know exactly how his supervisor assessed his performance would be more motivating and that existing practice had aspects which were vague.

I cannot go into the sordid detail of what happened. However, I first interviewed a number of people, including the Chief Executive of "Motivation Organisation".

A senior officer said my ideas if put into practice would encourage the murder of a reporting officer. The Chief Executive said the idea was sound and that I should put up a memo on it which he could forward to the commissioners and the then Ministry of Establishments and

Fear of discomfort
from new ideas
Question 2.1, p254
(table 8.6, p.255)

Training Matters.

When I did, boom! came the bomb on me. The Chief Executive sent for me and said he had read it. He thoroughly blasted me for seeking indirectly to know all that he wrote about my work, and for pretending that my ideas were for general benefit. He told me how I wanted reporting officers to be exposed to unnecessary ill-feeling of those reported on. I simply was too stunned to say a word. I went away after he had finished washing me.

After that, any job I did was found faults in. The memo disappeared -- no courtesy of returning it to sender. The Chief was so bent on fault-finding that if in any minute I stated "therefore" without comma, he would insert the comma and tell that he had amended the whole memo, that is, even if he inserted one comma in a ten-page submission.

In fact, fault-finding was noticed in two other superiors, a politician and a career officer. For example, when an officer tied

Onomatopoea

(to establish
cause of failure)
Question 2.ii, p254;
table 8.7, p. 269.

Emphasis on threat,
conformity (punish-
ment for innov-
ative effort) -
Question 2.i, p.254,
table 8.6, p. 255

Emphasis on threat
(fault-finding) -
Question 2.i, p.254;
table 8.6, p. 255.

two files together in such a knot which a commissioner could not easily undo, the commissioner assumed that I was the one who submitted the files. He sent for me and after washing me for the shoddy job of impossible tying of files, he ordered me to leave his office with the file and return a better done tying immediately. I re-made the knot, returned the files, and drew his attention that the work was not in my schedule. It was then he read the name of the officer with her signature and, then, laughed, admitting he thought I was the one.

As regards my submission on the confidential reporting affair, there was an interesting irony. Four years later, the Udoji Commission recommended, and the Government accepted, the very ideas for which I was crucified though I did not die.

I had had enough and I lost respect for the highly educated yes-sir Chief Executive and his kind-whom I had expected to know better. My reward for seeking innovation was a loss of promotion

Emphasis on threat
(fault-finding) --
Question 2.i, p. 254;
table 8.6, p. 255

Effect of climate
on re-entrant --
(under 'discussion')
loss of respect for
superiors, etc. loss
of promotion

in a mass promotion in which I was one of the five or so drop-outs among more than seventy officers.

When my experience was wanted elsewhere and in an acting capacity with higher pay, the Chief replied, "He is good but he can go", though there was a position for me to act in "Motivation Organisation". He however delayed releasing me to ensure I lost about three months of acting allowance. As I was leaving when I went to bid him farewell, I banged the door of his office, saying to him as I did so, that I was being sent to my natural habitat.

banishment - effect
of transfer effort
on re-entrant

Indeed, it was a statement fulfilled because though I pursued no innovation again, my new boss gave me the liberty to do my work as I thought best. Within three months, and on a certain day, he called me to say that the quality of my work was such that he was surprised I was only acting and had seen the recent promotion list omitting my name. I told him my story which he said he believed.

Generalization
Question 2.ii, p.254;
(table 8.7, p. 269)

Although my lot improved, I had

already concluded that civil service administration was not my type of work conditions. I was not sure I would continue to meet my new type of boss of Gobirian liberalism. My one and a half years in "Motivation Agency" had cost me a total of two years of insomnia as I kept thinking day and night of injustice. A doctor told me that I had developed high blood pressure and that its level was such that he was surprised about my survival. I later opted out for a different occupational type in the public sector.....

Yes, yes, I must not forget to say that while in "Motivation Organisation", I decided to do a number of things - to record as many questionable and favouristic decisions as I was aware of and to use them as precedents to force the same decisions to be taken in other cases. The commissioners and the Chief were always embarrassed and would often take

insomnia health problem - effect of learning transfer effort on re-entrant

retaliatory action - aggressiveness - effect of climate on re-entrant

months to findways of clearing such cases. In my confidential report, the Chief commented, "Intelligence - very satisfactory... He is always quoting precedents and the work of the Motivation Agency does not require that...He should learn to show tact when dealing with his superiors." A friend secretly showed me the detail. It cost me the promotion. Another thing I did was to investigate the background of the commissioners and the Chief Executive.

One commissioner was a medical doctor, long retired and did not seem to have come by any course or literature on human behaviour and motivation, though he was appointed to serve in an essentially human resources management agency. Two others did not have beyond secondary school equivalent. The Chief Executive did classics. He had accumulated ill-gotten wealth and worked himself as closely as possible to people of power for protection in case of palaver. He was fond of carrying turkey to the big ones during festivities. I concluded that one

Ignorance of using
trained manpower
(as an inhibitive
factor) -

Question 2.i, p.254;
table 8.6, p. 255

of the reasons for their behaviours was ignorance and unawareness. I say one of the causes because I think they had basic personality make-up which sensitivity training might not have modified. The sweetness of power also distorted them -- to work in "Motivation Organisation" was to sit in power over hundreds of civil servants.

I hope I'm not emotional. I get carried away when I remember those terror days. Boy, oh boy, was I glad when those commissioners were removed by a new military coup-- though I had sympathy for one or two of them?

I think I have talked more than I thought would flow out, you know, when I began. If you are o.k., I would like to see the next card--I suppose the last one.

(c) PERSONAL CHARACTERISTICS

I think with this card, I see clearly what you are really after in this interview. You indirectly with to find out if my personality has to do with my not using what I learnt.

Perception of possible causal link between personality and learning transfer (table 8.9, p. 287)
Q.3.11, p.277

I used it for my work. Where I failed is in making others see sense in what I had to offer the service then. It should be obvious that no one could have got through in "Motivation Agency", you know. The old adage applies here - a tree does not make a forest. Before a tree can do so, it must reproduce its kind plenty. This would take years. The soil of "Motivation Agency" was not fertile for such a reproduction.

I love work. I am not lazy and malingering type. Fancy the Chief Executive meeting me saying hello to a colleague who had been sick and had now shown up for days, and he telling me that I had left my office to malingering in another officer's office.

However tough a job is I put in extra time and clear it. This is why some ladies thought I was more married to my office than to my wife. They threatened to influence my wife to protest against it.

I used to enjoy being accorded recognition but no more of that. I am different. I am undergoing spiritual training - I am learning detachment.

Organization over-
powers personality

Loves work
Question 3.1, p.277;
table 8.8, p. 278

Loves work and
challenge
Question 3.1, p.277;
table 8.8, p. 278

Becoming detached
Question 3.1, p.277;
table 8.8, p. 278.

I simply do my share and best and let the powers that are accept or reject - that's all. I have been sensitive - very sensitive, but I am learning to conquer this. Occasionally I succumb to it when I see people being cheated.

I do not wish to be a messiah when I obviously know that a given state of affairs is as rock-rigid as to be able to break any hand which tries to make it softer. I just do my best, my own share and leave it at that for them to do what they will with it.

I think I should stop here. Oh, yes, yes, I remember you want me to talk of how I see others see me. I am generally liked, the exceptions being those who see my presence as a threat to an assessment of their own competence. They feel that my presence is a rival to their occupying the next higher seat. I pity them because my interest is elsewhere.

Dislike for pain
table 8.8., p.278;
Question 3.i, P.277.

Liked (generally)
table 8.8, p.279;
Question 3.i, p.277.

CASE 2

(Subject is from a para-statal, non-profit, management development and training organization. Status - deputy departmental head; top of career)

(a) THE LEARNING SITUATION

I would prefer to talk of the course I last attended as it is the freshest in my mind. It was a trainers' course, management trainers'. Thrilling to be in it. Participants came from different parts of the world. This made it have some moments of anxiety, especially at the initial stage. People from different cultural backgrounds would naturally feel anxious about their behaviours, especially at the initial stages. Even the foreign venue itself had its own cultural setting too. The atmosphere got more settled by when we had done a fortnight of the eight weeks.

As a management development professional, I saw the course as very useful to my work. This was as regards both the content and the delivery process. Learning theories and principles of adult education were generally effectively presented and supported how my

Recall (to identify course)
Question 1.iii, p.229;
table 8.5 p.248

Satisfaction
(motivation - intrinsic)
Question 1.i, p.229;
table 8.1, p. 231.

Relevance
(table 8.1, p. 231)
Question 1.i, p.229
Training techniques as means of relevance (table 8.4, p.244)
Question 1.ii; p.229.

colleagues and I have been performing in management training.

An earlier trainers' course I attended had exposed me to various approaches to experiential learning. It was better done in this course, may be because, unlike the earlier one, only experts in the field were called in as trainers. Apart from this, I had attended the earlier course without enough of trainers experience. This time, I had accumulated at least one and a half years of practical work and was better placed to appreciate more critically.

Groups were used and mixed with individual projects, having to do with his particular organizational roles or work. Each individual project was not imposed but chosen by the participant. The only imposition was that it had to be an actual thing or going-on in his place of work. The other condition was that it had to be submitted on return to work for the consideration of colleagues and boss. This gave me the opportunity of looking back vis-a-vis others' contribution in the course and vis-a-vis the principles dis-

Reflection on work
table 8.5, p. 248;
Question 1.iii, p.229
Comparison (to
express preference
of value) -
table 8.5, p. 248;
Question 1.iii, p.229

Reflection (on
experience) -
Question 1.iii, p.229
table 8.5, p. 248

Training techniques
as means to valued
end - table 8.4,
p.244 Question 1.ii,
p.229.

Reflection
Question 1.iii, p.229,
table 8.5, p. 248.

cussed there from the books, articles, and trainers.

In the course of all this, I concluded that in spite of cultural differences that we hear of so much, management and training problems perhaps everywhere have a lot in common. Therefore I considered that all such courses should be encouraged.

The only problem was not having my choice of project group. The one I preferred and dealing with my type of interest, Organizstion Behaviour, was said to be over-subscribed, and other alternatives were so too. So I got forced into the group handling financial management and accounting. I went into it rather half-heartedly and wondering whether I would find worth in an area outside my professional interest.

However as time went on, I found that my fears were not entirely justified. Financial management and general management have much in common. My interest was roused more and more to the extent that I no longer regretted being in that group. I don't teach the subject or do accounting, but I

Insight valued -
Question 1.i, p.229
(table 8.1, p. 231

Generalization
Question 1.iii, p.229
(table 8.5, p. 248)

Dissatisfaction
(negative value)
Question 1.i, p.229
table 8.1, p. 231

Satisfaction (intrinsic/extrinsic) -
table 8.1, p. 231,
Question 1.i, p.2.

gained insight into how accounting itself may be related to behaviour in organizations. I learnt that there was room for accountants to be less rigid than they are generally noted to be. I could also appreciate how the technology of the profession could affect the personality of the finance people, the accountants.

There is no way I could apply all that I experienced in the project group. As I said I don't teach accounting or finance. But it was clear that the teaching principles and practices in other aspects of management could apply in finance, and vice-versa - simulation, films, lectures, etc.

I was intrigued by the group approach to training in which more than one trainer served as facilitators in one and the same session. I had not watched but heard of my colleagues who used it. I had never tried it. Its effectiveness, if as well handled as those chaps, was demonstrated beyond doubt. It did not allow a dull moment to creep in and cause one to get drowsy.

insight valued

Question 1.i, p.229

(table 8.1, p.231)

Relevance (focussed and diffused) --

Question 1.i, p.229;

table 8.1, p.231.

Training method

in terms of (relevance and means

to achieve valued

end - table 8.4,

p.244, Question 1.ii, p.229.

Changes in voice, switches of methods and the flow of in-put into in-put were some of its features. At the same time, participants were fully involved like the joint trainers themselves.

A feature that was somewhat disruptive was the presence of a Nigeria-sponsored Asian. He claimed to be a professor in one of our universities. I was not the only one surprised that such a person was a professor. He did not show high intellectual level, and his contributions were never relevant. He seemed obsessed with corruption in Nigeria as if his country were holy land, and he continuously butted his pet obsession into all sessions. There was no point challenging him as doing so might have created more confusion. He was already a laughing stock. I blame the trainers who did not seem to have called him for a private chat to mend his ways. He was extremely socially insensitive. If there were an equipment to measure the quantity and quality of learning from time to time, the distraction he caused could be detected. Fortunately, he was not successful in destroying anybody's will

Dissatisfaction

Question 1.i, p.229;
table 8.1, p. 231.

to learn. He did embarrass those of us from Nigeria and wasted time for more useful and constructive contributions.

The physical infrastructure of the venue was o.k., being residential on a university campus. We made friends, and foes; we ate together. The food being foreign naturally did not satisfy me and I found alternatives at times. I appreciated the difficulty - you can't satisfy every nationality or transplant Nigerian 'egusi' or 'edikaniko' to the U.K. university campus.

If it is possible for you to see our records, you will easily find there the positive effects of the course - my report and recommendations submitted and accepted by my boss.....

I don't think I have more to say except to say once more I enjoyed the course.

(b) THE ORGANIZATIONAL SITUATION/CLIMATE

I would like to remark that it would be an exception rather than the rule if anyone attended a course and came back with nothing to offer. This is so there where I work. There must be something wrong with the course or

Satisfaction
(extrinsic) -
Question 1.i, p.229;
table 8.1, p. 231

Relevance valued
Question 1.i, p.229;
table 8.1, p. 231

Satisfaction
(intrinsic/
extrinsic)
Question 1.i, p.229
table 8.1, p. 231

the returnee.

The Chief Executive is open to ideas and he continually encourages us to suggest improvements. He expects them. Every recommendation made when I came back was accepted by him. He asked us to form a committee for each major recommendation he had approved so that we might decide how best to carry them out. We did, appointing members and chair-persons.

However, two of the recommendations suffered hitches and have not taken off the ground. One of my colleagues whom we knew as had the competence in carrying them through refused to act or was cold about taking action. He argued in a lengthy memo that one of them involved the exercise of artistic gift. The artist did not necessarily work among a crowd but could derive inspiration in odd moments, even suddenly waking at night with ideas as if those ideas woke him up.

In confidence he explained that he had first suggested those ideas but because he was not liked by the boss and certain others, his suggestions were ignored or brushed aside. When

Leader open to ideas - opposite of unsupportive leadership. Table 8.6, p.255
Question 2.i, p.254

Unsupportive staff (despite leader's openness to ideas)
Question 2.i, p.254;
table 8.6, p. 255

the same ideas came from the favoured group, they were approved and those members were praised for originality. Then also was his point that although the apparent initiators knew the truth, they failed to refer to the fact that the ideas had been earlier put forward. They phonily claimed initiative and hoped that he would do the donkey job. He further argued that the development of the ideas entailed a lot of conversance with managerial behaviour and O.D. skills. The final product was likely to bring some income to our organization. The authorities and those in power with them would wish the job done anonymously so that they may all claim to have done the job or claim joint production whereas the actual performer had toiled sleeplessly. He wanted to be sure of acknowledgement and share of the profit. Another reason he gave was that since he was being acknowledged as the expert, he ought to have been given the free hand to choose those he felt could do the work with him. He feared the presence of a spy of the Chief Executive, who had nothing to offer but always wanted

All these articulations expand the factor of unsupportive staff - hence illustrative statements to establish cause of failure - table 8.7, p.269; Question 2.ii, p.254.

to lead and pose others' products as his own.

It is unfortunate that those things we recommended are still unacted on. I know my colleague has the competence. He would have done the work despite his points. He would have because it is his nature to feel guilty when he complains and seems to be taking retaliatory action.

Well, this was my experience. I can't think of any other things that happened.

(c) PERSONAL CHARACTERISTICS

This is not an easy card to talk about. It is not easy to talk of one's personality, you know. If a person talks well of himself, he may seem conceited. I shall, however, do it. After all it is a matter of take it or leave it, and one should not pretend not to understand oneself at least to a considerable extent.

I see myself as a conscientious person. I am strong-willed and determined when I am convinced about a thing to be done whether at work or somewhere else. If I can't personally succeed in what I set out to do, I use subtle influences such as diplomatic appeals and contacts.

Conscientious/
loves work
strong-willed
Question 3.i, p. 277
table 8.8, p. 279

I know when to do what I wish to do, unlike those who do the right things at the wrong time. I am diplomatic and know how to get what I want. I can be pushful.

I believe I am generally liked though I sense here and there I am thought to be over-strict in disciplining sub-ordinates. Some people think me narrow-minded and selective of those I move with.

I have a feeling you wish to connect all this to what I did with the course I returned from. I have explained that we made our recommendations and that the boss approved but that the whole thing was only partially successful because of a colleague, not me.

I have friends here but I cannot be sure I trust them and they trust me. All the same, I feel at home in the place. I can fit into any situation.

As I said, it is not easy to talk much about myself, but I have said all I think necessary.

Diplomatic/pragmatic

Question

table 8.8,p.

Liked (generally)

Question 3.i,p.277;

table 8.8,p. 279.

Perception of possible link of personality with learning transfer
Question 3.ii,p.277
table 8.9,p. 287

Liked (generally)

Question 3.i,p.277;

table 8.8,p. 279

CASE 3

(Subject from an health care para-statal, non-profit.
Is senior on Grade Level 13, reporting to head of
personnel department on Grade Level 15; directly responsible
for three mid-level staff on Grade Level 9 to 10).

(a) THE LEARNING SITUATION

I participated in ASCON's PMC
meant for mid-level managers, though
I was already a senior. I had to attend
because we felt that for me to be on more
senior courses I should be exposed to such
a course in my area of work which is
personnel.

Recall (to
identify specific
course)
Q.1.iii, p.229;
table 8.5, p.248.

I am glad I was on the course. Who-
ever designed it did a good job because
they did their homework well. I can hardly
think of any part of the course which was
not relevant to personnel work which I do,
though some were not of immediate applic-
ation.

Satisfaction
(extrinsic/in
trinsic)
Q.1.i, p.229
table 8.1, p.231
Relevance (focussed)
Q.1.i, p.229;
table 8.1, p.231

There was so much fun too that a
casual passer-by might not have know that
serious work was going on. There was never
a dull moment and when I came out of sessions,
I had a feeling of very fast time.....

Satisfaction
extrinsic/in
trinsic) -
Q.1.i, p.229;
table 8.1, p.231.

I had a lot to learn from the kind of
excellent relationships I observed among
your staff from trainers to the

people in the FMS Department in charge of the course, and between them and course participants. There was nothing I needed which they did not attend to. You will remember that within a short time we know you by your nick-name and it was all fun. I enjoyed myself indeed and it all created the atmosphere you encouraged us to help to create when you introduced the entire course.....

It was fascinating to undergo a management course because the teaching was different from what I expected. I expected what we all experienced and enjoyed in our university days..... Thrilling show of erudition, gripping lectures. It was obvious that an expert can know his work and impart it without much talking....You started by saying that as practising personnel managers, we could not be taught like students. Rather we were there to reflect on our experiences and bring one another's experiences and small talks and exercises together to understand more. Precisely this was fulfilled.

It is a pity to waste money to go abroad most of the time for what we

Satisfaction

(intrinsic)

Question 1.i, p.229 ;
table 8.1, p. 231

Satisfaction

(intrinsic)

Question 1.i, p.229;
table 8.1, p. 231

Training technique

as means -

table 8.4, p. 244

Question 1.i, p.229

Comparison (of
training methods)

Question 1.iii, p.229
table 8.5, p. 248

Training techniques

as means

Question 1.ii, p.229;
table 8.4, p. 244

have in this country. I made this point to your staff, and it worried me. I even heard some participants express the same view. Some who had gone to other local courses run in the private sector said they gained more from ASCON PMC. We felt oh yes, the government should prevent people from going out for the better things we have locally unless ASCON can't cope with the demands. But it can if it can have branches in three to five places centrally located in different parts of the country like Kaduna or Abuja and Enugu. I and some others said all this.

Such eye-opening programmes are useful. I saw that we did many things wrong and we think we are doing fine because we don't know. A simple thing as basic as job description is confused with schedule of duties. Imagine my being a senior personnel officer but had not known what is actually done in manpower planning. I have moved around and I found this lack of knowledge and skills is very common, for example, we tended to think of manpower planning during the preparation of estimates. We did not see how linked it is with appoint-

Satisfaction/relevance (leads to suggestion about courses)

table 8.1, p.231;
Question 1.i, p.229

Knowledge/skill gained -

table 8.1,p. 231;
Question 1.i,p.229

Comparison of before - after state of knowledge/skill

table 8.5,p. 248
Question 1.iii,p.229

ments, promotions, etc. The more people attend the course the better.....

I was impressed by the unassuming pose of the trainers, though at times I wondered if they were not pretending. I knew that they know and commended the knowledge and skills. Their unassuming way paid off any way since everyone then had the opportunity to get involved. It was all consistent with the Director-General's opening address which touched on how ASCON handled courses.

The crowning experience was the group project which was that we should analyze the structure and jobs in ASCON's Administration Department. We learnt from it not only analytical skill but interviewing. Everyone agreed, including your staff, that what we did was better than what many consultants did with high fee.

I wish I had been of a more senior status in my place of work, say, the overall head. I would have imposed what ASCON taught us on the entire organization.

There was an aspect which,

Generalization

Question 1.iii, p.229;

table 8.5, p. 248

Training techniques

as means to valued

ends - table 8.4, p. 244

Question 1.ii, p.229.

Training techniques

as means - table 8.4

p. 244 Question 1.ii, p.229.

Skills gained -

table 8.1, p.231

Question 1.i, p.229

Training techniques

(feedback) as means -

table 8.4, p. 244

Question 1.ii, p.229

(Reference to

learning transfer

problem - power and

authority as factors.)

though not condemning, called for
ASCON's attention. Everything we
did was necessary but the time of
six weeks was too short. A result
was that in some cases appetite was
whetted. I don't buy the argument
that organizations can't let their
people go for longer than six weeks.
People die and the work is done.
People in the same organizations
go abroad for twelve weeks.

.....

Can I go on to the next card?
I don't want to repeat myself if I
have not already done so.

(b) THE ORGANIZATION SITUATION/CLIMATE

One word sums up my experience
here - ignorance or unawareness. I
found that we were quicker while in the
course to talk of action plan to which
we devoted almost a day and a half.
It is more difficult to carry out on
return to work. Though one may not say
so or emphasize it during course, one
knows and expects problems in having
what is learnt put into general use.

Dissatisfaction
Question
table 8.1, p.

Ignorance of using
trained manpower
table 8.6, p. 255;
Question 2.i, p.254.

Surely, the course was useful. My work cannot be the same again. I used to be as comprehensive as I could in looking at problems. I am even more so now. I often do as a researcher or consultant does - ask my co-workers their views and these help me to bring more thought to my work.....

It is difficult to express all the usefulness of the course. Some usefulness is consciously known and used; others are unconscious, for example, I find that things I thought I had forgotten suddenly pop up when I am tackling problems. So what is learnt is somewhere in the sub-conscious coming to help as if by some magic

The problem is selling ideas successfully. You know that many of us are like politicians. We keep saying staff should be creative; they should bring improvement ideas. It is generally on lips. You mention a report submitted about the course. The need for a report with recommendations was also stressed during the course.

Report - oh, yes, I wrote and

Comparison of pre and post-course state (to be discussed under learning situation dimension)
table 8.5, p. 248
Question 1.iii, p.229.

Relevance of course (diffused and focussed) to be discussed under learning situation
table 8.1, p. 231;
Question 1.i, p.229.

Analogy (simile)
table 8.7, p.
Question 2.ii, p.269
Fake encouragement for new ideas --
table 8.6, p.255;
Question 2.1, p.254.

submitted. What happened to it? The question is on your card. It was presumably read by my boss and perhaps by someone else I don't know. It came back to me with a remark, "Seen. T.Y. (Thank you)", by my boss. That's all. Nothing followed. My boss didn't seem to care to push the ideas about job descriptions and manpower planning. Yet, he is a great worker with a lot of influence with the Chief Executive. He is keen on ideas. I have been puzzled that he is yet to pursue what I said. What is the meaning of "Seen. T.Y." Does it mean the ideas are welcome or what?

I felt like asking him but I don't want to seem to be applying pressure on him as if I had a personal benefit, like, making a name for myself. There is a limit to which one can go in taking advantage of good bosses and good relations. It is like a point which came out of one of our course exercises when the most liked in our group once got wild with anger over an assumed attack on his person. I have

Indifference to
ideas - therefore
unsupportive
leadership -
table 8.6, p. 255,
Question 2.1, p. 254.

moved around and I have known of people who suffered a lot for being very enthusiastic over the need for changes

As I was saying, people have been expressing the need for new ideas on the hips only. I shall illustrate. When Udoji came, he with his Commission which cost the Federal Government millions of naira, recommended the merging of classes just as Fulton did in the U.K., unified salary scales, Mb8, PM, etc. That was 1972-74 and the recommendations were accepted. But you know how long these took to get implemented: salaries were quick to be implemented but not the merging of classes, etc. PPBS had to be by presidential imposition barely two years ago. Till today, not all have been put into effect, yet all were accepted ideas. I can compare the Udoji thing to my report in a way. My report has a worse fate in that it was simply marked with a nebulous "Seen. T.Y." whereas Udoji got at least partial implementation.

.....

Generalization
(Heard of punishment of others for innovative behaviour)
Question 2.ii, p.254;
table 8.7, p. 269
Also dislike of pain - see
table 8.8, p. 280;
Question 3.i, p.277.

Analogy -- failure elsewhere compared to anticipated failure of learning transfer --
table 8.7, p. 269;
Question 2.ii, p.254.

People are simply not aware of the need for certain things. I think this explains why my good boss and others have not acted. I don't think I would have been any different had I not been exposed to your course.

Ignorance of
using trained
manpower
Question 2.1, p.254;
table 8.6,p. 255

.....

I don't think I have talked for long but this is o.k. and I would like to go on to the last card.

(c) PERSONAL CHARACTERISTICS

This card reminds me of the personality exercise we did in the course. It was a simple exercise but interesting and difficult to carry out especially when it came to admitting to one's weaknesses. I have since applied it again to myself.

However, I am a pragmatist, practical. I don't believe in extremism. People around me know this and one or two have remarked so.

Pragmatic
Question 3.i,p.277;
table 8.8,p. 279

If you think I am weak and could not have my learning accepted, you are wrong. I have told you what happened. Take interviewing skills as an example. How do I get together members of the committee to teach them interviewing skills for appointments to positions.

Perception of
possible link of
personality and
learning transfer
Question 3.ii,p277
table 8.9,p. 287

Such can be done by running an internal course for them and this is my report....

I am afraid there is nothing to add here.

CASE 4

(Subject is from a profit-oriented para-statal with wharf-related functions; is a mid-level officer on Grade Level 9, has no subordinates, and reports to deput head of personnel unit who is five levels above him.)

(a) THE LEARNING SITUATION

Your PMC was excellent. If I had attended it before I went for Master's, Master's would have been easier for me. As it is it came after. I had a lot of materials from the course.

Those exercises and group work helped me to see more quickly than books. When a trainer used cigarettes to demonstrate the difference between perception and attitude, it was amazing and unforgettable and simple. Within three minutes what took me longer before to think I understood from lectures and books was clear.

I must confess that initially I did not like how the trainers were doing their work. It was all boring compared to the lecturing I was used to in the university. I complained that we were being treated like the mentally unable. I was also dis-

Recall (to specify course --

table 8.5, p. 248;

Question 1.iii, p.229

Relevance (focussed/diffused)

Question 1.i, p.229;

table 8.1, p. 231

Training techniques

as means - real

life illustrations

Question 1.ii, p.229

table 8.4, p. 244

Non-academic

training techniques

as means -

table 8.4, p. 244

Question 1.ii, p.229

appointed that the course organizers had not seemed strict in selecting participants. Several of the participants talked as if they were from secondary school.

The head of the department running the course happened to be known to me and I went to him to state my feelings. It was the second week. He explained that I had to appreciate that all participants did not come from the same backgrounds and did not have the same experiences. For the first time the whole situation was clear. I was myself being unfair. I had assumed that everyone held at least a bachelor's degree. He also reminded me of what was said by the two trainers who began the programme with what they called 'Climate Setting' during which the differences were drawn between adult learning and child. From then on, I really got involved.

In fact, the course became so interesting that I wish I had not yet complained. I began to relate what was going on to the one-and-a-half-year experience I had in management.

Recall of event
Question 1.iii, p229
table 8.5, p. 248

Satisfaction (extrinsic) -
table 8.1, p. 231
Question 1.i, p229

. Among the things I enjoyed was the friendship with some of the staff. We are still friends. The same is true of my relationship with some participants though not as many as I would have liked. Some did not like me and I did not like them.

(b) THE ORGANISATION SITUATION/CLIMATE

Talking of my experience in using the course, I must confess that my work does not cover everything we did, but some. Therefore some were of immediate use, for example, when I tackle trade union matters, I really dig for information. I sound staff opinions and feelings so that I may anticipate better than before likely views of staff side representatives. My boss has remarked on the quality of work.

I also work on the basic that personnel work entails a lot of human consideration. It has a multiplier effect. One has to know that a delay and a decision affect the well-being of more than the staff. It affects their families, dependants and friends.

Relevance/comparison with experience; and Reflection - table 8.5, p.248, Q. Satisfaction (intrinsic) table 8.1, p.231, Dissatisfaction, Q.1.i, p.229

Relevance of course (to be discussed under learning situation) table 8.1, p.231; Q.1.i, p.229

Micro-level philosophical application of learning - with a philosophical touch

When I see how others, many of them, toy with the job, I remember ASCON and wish they could be sent there.

As I said the course covered too much to be entirely applied at once. Many of what I learnt will continue to lie inside to be called up whenever needed. I am confident that I can fit into any other schedule of duties to which I may be posted.

I surely submitted a report on the course. My boss said it was good and that he will apply certain things there. The report contains my impression about content, relevance, and the approach to training.

Come to think of it, I did not recommend much for use. I simply described and praised and critized the course as too much for too short a time. Come to think of it, I wish I had tried to make people see how we could work better. Not that I would have succeeded with certainty, but may be I would have. After all, my seniors put me there. The Chief Executive is a friend and a father to me. In fact, it did not occur to me to try.

Relevance of course
(to be discussed
under learning
situation)
table 8.1,p.231
Question 1.i,p229.

Ignorance of
use of trained
manpower
Question 2.1,p254;
table 8.6, p. 255

(c) PERSONAL CHARACTERISTICS

I am dedicated to my work. I see myself as intelligent and my lecturers and bosses know this and say it too.

I behave freely and laugh a lot most of the time. This has given some people a wrong notion that I am not serious with life. They are wrong and will see this if they saw my work. My boss reposes confidence in me and tells me I have a bright future in the corporation.

I enjoy the company of my work-mates and they enjoy mine, but I am more cautious than people think. I have learnt from the raw deal of co-workers against people I know.

I would like to stop now if you don't mind.

Loves work;
intelligent/self
confident -

Question 3.i, p.277;
table 8.8, p. 280

Generates confidence
Question 3.i, p.
table 8.8, p.

Likes people
and liked (generally)
Question 3.i, p.277;
table 8.8, p. 280

CASE 5

(Subject was from a non-profit-oriented para-statal with a regulatory function over transportation. Was of mid-level rank, reporting to head of staff development department, five grades above him; had no subordinates).

(a) THE LEARNING SITUATION

Talking about that (MDT) course, for a start, I think the venue was alright; in fact, it was much more congenial and much more quiet and conducive to learning than I pre-conceived before I came there. So I think the location of the place is alright.

The specific venue again..... that is classrooms, I had expected at that time something much more elaborate than what I saw because for most of the time actually we were about 14 or 15 of us, most of the time in just one classroom except for the few occasions when we went out into syndicate groups. In that classroom, it was kind of tight and it was classroom - like.....rather small and I was expecting to see more facilities in the classroom. It was just a bare

Recall, specifying
course attended
Question 1.iii, p.229;
table 8.5, p. 248.
Satisfaction
(intrinsic)
Question 1.i, p.229;
table 8.1, p. 231.

Dissatisfaction
Question 1.i, p.229;
table 8.1, p. 231.

classroom except for the chairs, so in that respect, I think my expectations were not met as far as what I expected of the facilities in that room to be.

As for the content of the course, there was no doubt about it. Well, in retrospect, having been to other similar courses even outside the country, I think it was just as good as any other course I have been to. About a year after that I went to a course in London which was supposed to be a very top training of trainers course. To say the truth, there was absolutely little or no difference in the content of what we did there and what we did in this sort of place.

As far as the delivery is concerned, the learning activities, and so on, the delivery was also o.k. The other approaches (syndicates and so on), the non-classroom activities I thought could have been more than that. Apart from the classroom, the other learning activities we did really was syndicate group work. I would have loved to have seen more of the other kinds of methods of training apart from syndicate. But I understood, at that time, that we

illustrated
statements
Comparison (to
express preference)
Question 1.iii, p229
table 8.5, p. 248

Satisfaction
(extrinsic)
Question 1.i, p229;
table 8.1, p. 231,
Dissatisfaction
Question 1.i, p.229;
table 8.1, p. 232.

were the first to participate on that course at that venue because the College has just moved on to that venue. So, that may be the excuse for that kind of thing, otherwise I would have loved to see the other methods of training apart from instructing and apart from the syndicate work.

Of course, the delivery of the course was o.k., I mean. The delivery was alright; the facilitators were o.k. I do not think the facilitators we have when we go overseas on other courses are better geniuses of any difference -- may be the colour of their skin, that's all.

When I came in to that course, I was a training officer, so, I could not have gone to a more relevant course. Well, what I mean actually was that as a training officer where I worked I was responsible also, to some extent, for some categories of staff for the identification of training needs. I was also responsible for execution of training as well as for co-ordinating and administering training for some other categories... some very senior members of the staff. So in that sense, I identified training needs

Comparison (to express 'preference')

Question 1.iii, p229
table 8.5, p.248.

Relevance (focused)

table 8.1, p. 231
Question 1.i, p229.

of planning a training, of effecting it, and also of administering training to the different groups of staff in the organisation. I think the training was quite relevant.

(b) THE ORGANISATIONAL SITUATION/CLIMATE

Well, when I returned to my organisation I did write a report. It is usual, when you go on a course like that, to come back and tell them what happened and what you thought about the course. I wrote a report to my immediate boss who was the head of the department. Frankly speaking, I cannot tell you, I have no idea, whether the report was useful. In other words, as soon as I submitted the report, as far as I know, that was the end of it. Nobody called me to question about it; nobody asked my opinion; nobody consulted me or said he wanted to implement or do anything about it. As far as I was concerned, the whole thing was finished as soon as I passed the report on to my boss. And that was that!

Well, I did not think it was wise for me to pressurise him or to press him or to teach him what to do about my report

Indifference to
ideas -- unsupport-
ive leadership
Question 2.1, p. 254;
table 8.6, p. 255

.....I kept quiet. As far as the applying of the principles were concerned, I had to do everything on my own. By the time you are planning to get anything done, there is pressure for you to do something and you have to abandon your plan. In the final analysis, I found it was tedious and cumbersome. It was easier to go on doing a lot of things as before and there was no favourable comment as I was.....I eventually fell back into that old way.

Overload

Question 2.i, p.254;
table 8.6, p. 255

PERSONAL CHARACTERISTICS

In the organisation as I said, I was in the training department and as far as I think it was not easy in that department. Let me say that prior to my entry into the department.....it was a small department; the person who threw his name around and threw his weight around and the person who was solely identified with the department was the head of the department, so even when I came around, it was the head of the department that was the department. Everything went out in his name. He alone was projected.....so I think

Implicit denial

that personality

has to do with

learning transfer

failure - by

talking of

organization

Question 3.ii, p.277

table 8.9, p. 288.

even when I came people were just doing things.....they didn't see you as though you did matter in that department. People thought that anybody that matters was the head and if they wanted anything to be done in that department, it was the head of the department, and you only came into the picture if he referred something to you or referred somebody to you - it was only then that you perceived some legitimate power or having some authority. Otherwise everything was with the head of the department; so, I really did not count very much...all of us.....I do not think we really were perceived as anything more than small fries in that department. In a sense, it was a one-man show. I don't think that I was perceived any differently from my other colleagues. But.....I had never had the self conception that made me perceive myself as small, unimportant or nothing. I did not perceive myself that way and I realise that people perceived me. To me I ignored it.....In fact I do not think their perception was accurate. I don't reckon with it.

Anything that I thought should be done, I put up my idea.

That was how I perceived myself.

Sees himself as important in work place -- differently from others perception

Takes initiative

Question 3.i,p277;
table 8.8, p. 280

Of course as much as I can, I went out to initiate things, despite the tradition of the department because it was only the head who could do, but I went out to initiate things and of course I often landed in trouble.

Takes initiative
Question 3.i, p.277;
table 8.8, p. 280
Punishment for
innovative
behaviour -
table 8.6, p. 255,
Question 2.1, p.254.

CASE 6

(Subject is from a profit-oriented travel business/para-statal; personnel department. Was a mid-level manager on Grade Level 12, responsible to Chief Executive as a personal assistant in personnel matters; also supervising staff to four grades below himself).

THE LEARNING SITUATION

It was your 1981 Personnel Management course I attended and would like to talk about. Em..it was a good course and..em..I think it was perhaps more advanced than what I had for my Diploma in Personnel Management. Very relevant to my work.. you know, I am a personnel man and I am still so.

I enjoyed the exercises..em.. very useful aid to understanding and learning more of my work. Em..I remember one in particular, the Prisoners' Dilemma..an eye-opener..it revealed what really happens in some of my organisation's palavers. Some of the exercises apart from the Prisoners' Dilemma I have incorporated or modified in my booklet on manpower planning and development.

Recall
(identifies course)
Q.1.iii, p.229;
table 8.5, p.248.
Comparison to
another course
Q.1.iii, p.229;
table 8.5, p.248.
Relevance - table 8.1
p.231; Q.1.i, p.229.

Satisfaction (relevance)
table 8.1, p.231,
Question 1.i, p.229
Training techniques
as means -
Q.1.ii, p.229;
table 8.4, p.244.
Relevance (diffused) -
Q.1.i, p.229;
table 8.1, p.231.

The trouble is that...em...you know...the exercises and other things were very nice in the class..outside difficult to apply.

Reference to learning transfer problem

I enjoyed myself too...within two weeks, friends, friends all around including your facilitators.....I still have communication with some of my friends.

Satisfaction (intrinsic) Q.1.i, p.239. table 8.1, p.231.

You may be aware that I tried to be sponsored for another of your courses related|to personnel..em..training and development or MDT, you call it. I was told it was too early: others should be given a chance. Surely your course is good, otherwise I would not want to come again.

Satisfaction (extrinsic/intrinsic) Q.1.i, p.229; table 8.1, p.231

(ii) THE ORGANISATIONAL SITUATION/CLIMATE

Sure, I wrote a report highly commending the course. Em..you see, the report was photocopied and every head of department was sent a copy.... No further action on all I said.

Unsupportive leadership (indifference to report) -- table 8.6, p.255; Q.2.i, p.254.

They said I am revolutionary. They want gradual process. I can't force them I can only recommend..

Fear of discomfort of change. Q.2.i, p.254; table 8.6, p.255.

Something like manpower planning - we don't do it as purposefully as we saw and did exercises in class. When I have my own organisation, I will do it.

Let me tell you something else - when I pursued the welfare of a certain staff as seriously as a personnel man should...em..you know... to show staff that management is interested, I was told I was usurping our doctor's function. So that's it...one man cannot do much you know.

I, however, use the course a lot in my lectures to our trainers in our training school.

(iii) PERSONAL CHARACTERISTICS

I am confident in myself; my boss is confident in me. I relate well with my peers, boss and others. You can even see how people come in with smiles..... Em..this doesn't mean..you know..... that I play with people all the time. Work first, but goodness and kindness to people too.

My boss so likes my work, you know

Perception of own powerlessness vis-a-vis organisation

Illustrative statement to explain failure - table 8.7, p.269 Q.2.ii, p.254; and trouble/threat for innovative behaviour - table 8.6, p.255; Q.2.i, p.254.

Self-confidence; Generates others' confidence in him; liked by people. Q.3.i, p.277; table 8.8, p.281.

...em...he knows that I love this job and I do. So he recommended me for promotion within a year and a half of my other promotion. He told me my work quality is higher than my grade level.

I have no important human relations troubles with anyone here..... That's all.

In case somebody feels my personality is why my report was not acted on...em...you see...that is not so...em...remember I said they say gradual-by-gradual but, my brother, I don't see any gradual there...it is the same old way.

The following chapter discusses the protocols with their indexed interpretations.

Liked by boss;
generates confidence
Question 3.i, p.277;
table 8.8, p. 281

Liked by people
Question 3.i, p.277;
table 8.8, p. 281

Perception of
possible link
between personality
and learning
transfer
Question 3.ii, p.277;
table 8.9, p. 288

CHAPTER 8

ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION OF THE PROTOCOLS

INTRODUCTION

Following the tri-partite dimensions -- organizational, learning situation, and personal characteristics -- developed in chapters 2, 3, 4 and 5, the protocols had to be generated per dimension as obviously noticeable in the preceding chapter. It follows that the analysis and discussion of the protocols have to be in three dimensions, in the order in which they appear in chapter 7. It was, however, explained in chapter 6 that the dimensions should not be regarded as strictly independent of one another -- some articulations in a dimension may be relevant to another. Thus if the organizational dimension reveals something of value to the personality dimension, the piece of information is taken as additional to the data on the latter and accordingly discussed.

1. THE LEARNING SITUATION

Firstly, then, is the learning situation dimension, the corresponding hypothesis of which states:

"The transfer of learning will occur if the training-recipient perceives learning activities as meeting the principles of relevance and motivation to learn".

The questions associated with this hypothesis, the answers to which are to be looked for in the protocols, are

1. (i) What is it that a trainee, the would-be re-entrant, values in a course? -- that is, the valued ends perceived by the re-entrant. The question arises because if nothing valuable to work is experienced, the idea of learning transfer would be out of place.
1. (ii) Is the training-recipient aware of the means by which the valued ends have been achieved? (This question is important because we would expect a person who claims that he has valued something to be able to tell us how that something came about, especially where the situation, like a learning situation, is a conscious, purposeful environment of activities. Thus, if a trainee/re-entrant tells us that he valued course relevance, part of his sharing with us the reality of the consciousness of relevance is his indicating his awareness of the means by which that end was achieved.)
1. (iii) By what experiential or consciousness processes does he establish an end as valued; and an element, as a means to that end? (This is a relevant question because it helps us to avoid a 'prima facie' acceptance of a person's mere

assertion that he valued something. If, for example, a trainee evaluated a course as of relevance (valued end), and his articulation of protocols indicated that he exercised reflection (a process of experience or consciousness), then the ability of a course to rouse that reflection would be a credit to it, thus re-inforcing the factuality of the valued end, and thus helping to exculpate the learning situation from being responsible for the non-transfer of learning.

The following examination of the dimension of the learning situation and its place in learning transfer problems follows the pattern of the preceding questions.

(i) THE VALUED ENDS OF COURSES AS PERCEIVED
BY THE RE-ENTRANTS

A perusal of the index column of the protocols on the learning situations shows that the following elements (Table 8.1) comprise the valued ends of courses:

TABLE 8.1: THE VALUED ENDS OF COURSES

	CASE 1	CASE 2	CASE 3	CASE 4	CASE 5	CASE 6
a)	relevance (focussed)	relevance (focussed)	relevance (focussed)	relevance (focussed)	relevance (focussed)	relevance (focussed)
b)	relevance (diffuse)		relevance (diffuse)	relevance (diffuse)		relevance (diffuse)
c)	knowledge/ skills insight	knowledge/ skills insight	knowledge/ skills			knowledge
d)	Satisfac- tion (extrin- sic)	Satisfac- tion (extrin- sic)	Satisfac- tion (extrin- sic)	Satisfac- tion (extrin- sic)	Satisfac- tion (extrin- sic)	Satisfac- tion (extrin- sic)
e)	Satis- faction (intrin- sic)	Satis- faction (intrin- sic)	Satis- faction (intrin- sic)	Satis- faction (intrin- sic)		Satis- faction (intrin- sic)
f)	dissatis- faction negatively valued	dissatis- faction	dissatis- faction		dissatis- faction	

(a)(b) RELEVANCE (FOCUSSED AND DIFFUSE)

Firstly, then, all re-entrants value the element of relevance perceived in their courses. Relevance is focussed when it has to do with applicability to current work. It is diffuse when not of immediate applicability to current work but to a visualised future or elsewhere outside the on-going work situation.

Focussed relevance is indicated when the Case 1 re-entrant describes the course as filling "the gap in general career preparation because it had to do directly with my work" and providing a "joint disucssion of familiar problems". The re-entrant's association of relevance not only with the reality of organizational problems but also with career development is interesting, for it is a pointer to an underlying point that if relevance helps in his work, it could enhance his growth or advancement within his chosen career. It would therefore be reasonable to infer that the course being evaluated by the Case 1 re-entrant has a transferable value - hence relevance (focussed) to current work and career.

The Case 1 re-entrant also indicates diffuse relevance as a valued end. To illustrate, he evaluates the course as making for a better appreciation of "administrative work not within my schedule of duties" and being geared to the public service operations as a whole. Underlying this information can be inferred the expectation that those course aspects which are not of immediate application will somewhere, some day, be applied or be helpful in some manner.

In Case 2, only focussed relevance is articulated, that is, relevance of both course content and course methods. Unlike in Case 1, to whom relevance is in terms of course content, in Case 2, it is both content and methods - a difference arising from the vocational difference of both. The re-entrant in Case 2 is a trainer

himself; the re-entrant in Case 1 is a public service manager. An obvious implication here is that relevance is also a function of the nature of participants' professions.

In Case 3, relevance is again inferrable as both focussed and diffuse. This is a fact made explicit by the re-entrant's statement, "I can hardly think of any part of the course which was not relevant to personnel work which I do, though some were not of immediate relevance". Later, the focussed aspect of relevance is made specific by his pointing out that there was something worth learning from the excellent relationships among trainers and between them and trainees; and that if he had the power, he would impose what he learnt on his organization. Besides, manpower planning as 'taught' enables the trainee to find the shortcomings in the process as practised in his organization and elsewhere of his work experience.

The trainee in Case 4 articulates focussed and diffused relevance. Focussed relevance can be illustrated with the observation that, though initially not satisfied with the training methods, the trainee's negative evaluation gives way to the positive as he begins to appreciate andragogic approaches and relate learning activities to his work experience. The diffusedness of relevance is, however, clear from his perceiving how easy his Master's degree work would have been had the attended course pre-dated it. This is a clear case of a valued end which does not have transfer value since the transfer location is in the past. Nonetheless, focussed relevance indicates elements transferable to work.

As regards the Case 5 trainee, his emphasis is entirely on focussed relevance and he makes one understand that, as a trainer himself, he could not have attended a more relevant course than the particular one he is talking about.

With respect to the trainee in Case 6, the perceived relevance is notable from his relating the attended course to his personnel work. When he reveals that he wished to undergo another personnel-related course run by the same institution, it is difficult to attribute this interest to only intrinsic satisfaction: the interest is relevance - based since, if one remembers that he is a personnel functionary, he connects the intended second course with personnel work. It is the relevance of, and trainers' effectiveness in handling, courses which encourage the desire for a second institutional experience. This point is, in fact, made explicit by the re-entrant.

However, there is an indication that relevance is also diffuse in this case. The immediate work of the former trainee in his back-home organization is personnel, not the publication of a booklet on manpower planning. He however finds the course attended as containing elements of value included in the booklet. It is in this sense of application to an area outside current work that relevance may be referred to as diffuse.

THE ACQUISITION OF KNOWLEDGE/SKILLS/INSIGHT

In Case 1, knowledge and skill are implicitly and

explicitly articulated as valued ends -- implicit in that they are inferrable from the facts of focussed and diffuse relevance mentioned in the foregoing section. They are also explicit in that the course is perceived to have helped awareness of work methods as distinct from "intuitive" operation. That knowledge with skill is a valued end also emerges from the fact that the trainee, reflecting on his work, feels like going to re-do what he had done before. Among the pre-course weaknesses the trainee becomes aware of as a result of exposure to the course is his discovery that the application of smooth human relations irrespective of situation does not achieve desired results. The knowledge valued is, therefore, that the style of human relations should be contingent on circumstance. Presumably, this knowledge will influence his human relations skills.

In Case 2, the value attached to knowledge and skill is articulated with the trainee's now learning of group 'teaching' methods which he can adopt as a trainer himself. The element of knowledge with skill as a valued end is emphasised with his description of the methods as "effective beyond doubt". "Changes in voices, switches of methods", "the flow of input into input", and participant involvement at the same time that the trainers are using the methods -- all emphasize the valued ends of knowledge and skill.

Case 3 trainee's acquisition of knowledge and skills as valued ends is made explicit by his comparing what he knew before and after the course, for example, the import-

tance of, and how to do, job analysis as well as the need for a properly done manpower planning. There is, furthermore, in Case 3, the specific mention of the acquisition of the knowledge and skills of analysis and interviewing.

As regards Case 4, knowledge (not necessarily with skills) is shown to be a valued end by implication. The regret that the course did not pre-date the trainee's Master's programme to make that programme easy implies that the course has had the value of imparted knowledge. Though this knowledge is not necessarily relevant to work if one should look at it in terms of the already completed Master's degree, it is valued since the trainee later perceives its valuable connection with current work.

With reference to Case 5, there is no explicit articulation of knowledge and skills as valued ends unless, by inference, one considers that the trainee's attachment of value to relevance embodies knowledge.

Concerning Case 6, knowledge (not necessarily with skill) is implied as a valued end when the trainee states that learning activities are "very useful aid to understanding and learning more of my work." Here, as elsewhere, knowledge and relevance go together: insight is here involved in knowledge.

It will be observed that the title of this subsection includes 'insight' (written beside 'knowledge/skill'). It may sound tautologous to separate 'insight' from 'knowledge' since knowledge may be as thorough and as involving the understanding of beneath-surface interrelationships of aspects of phenomena as to be referred to

as insight, a term meaning "penetration" and "discernment" (The University English Dictionary).

The discernment of relevance of course to work, through reflection, implies an acquisition of knowledge and insight concerning work. In that case, insight is a valued end implied in knowledge and common to all the cases. However, we may also use 'insight' to refer to discernment of situations outside a trainee's immediate work. In Case 1, this insight is a valued end expressed in terms of the appreciation of the course coverage of "the public service as a whole" and empathy with victims of negative motivation (railway men, teachers and nurses). The style of articulating this insight indicates it as a valued end, there being a touch of bitterness in the expression, "fat-salaried and fat-allowanced politicians" who seem not to care about the workers' conditions.

In Case 2, 'insight' as 'discernment' comes out from the trainee's discovery that despite the heterogeneous cultural backgrounds of course participants, management problems are common. In the other cases, 'insight' in this beyond-immediate-work discernment does not come out so clearly beside the general association of the concept (of insight) with relevance, focussed and diffuse, as already mentioned.

SATISFACTION/DISSATISFACTION

'Satisfaction' refers to contentment or motivation derived from being on a course, that is, that which makes

for continued psychological presence, rather than mere physical, in the learning situation. It can be extrinsic and/or intrinsic. Extrinsic aspect pertains to attached value because of perceived applicability to work situation, while intrinsic has to do with perceived value of interest in a course 'per se' akin to Maslow (1954) and Herzberg's (1959) concept of work itself being a motivator. Though extrinsic satisfaction is of more direct relevance to learning transfer, intrinsic satisfaction has to be seen as valuable since it does play a part in a trainee's perception of those meanings by which he stays on to derive extrinsic satisfaction.

In Case 1, the trainee's description of the course with such words as 'magic', 'fantastic', 'commend' and 'excitement' suggests the valued end of satisfaction with the contents and processes of learning, related to transferability of learning to the work situation or the generation of empathy with workers elsewhere. Extrinsic rather than intrinsic value of satisfaction is, however, the emphasis underlying Case 1.

Case 2 contains both aspects of satisfaction. Specifically, the articulations, "it was thrilling to be in it (the course)" and "the course (was) very related to my work", indicate explicitly extrinsic value. Yet, there is something about the adjective, 'thrilling', which also suggests intrinsic worth. The adjective is immediately succeeded by the statement that participants converged from various parts of the world and, thus, from heterogeneous

cultural environments. Anxiety is therefore experienced before the atmosphere of learning settles. The intrinsic satisfaction that is embedded in 'thrilling' lies in a sort of dialectic process -- thesis (thrilling) blends with anti-thesis (anxiety, discomfort) to yield intrinsic satisfaction (synthesis). At first sight, this dialectic process may seem of no value to the question of learning transfer. On second thought, it is valuable since, as earlier stated, intrinsic value helps extrinsic as the desire to stay on to reap the extrinsic value is energised by the intrinsic.

In Case 3, extrinsic satisfaction is implied in the perceived relevance of the course to work, as well as the valued ends of knowledge and insight. It is explicit in the trainee's articulation, "There was nothing I needed which they did not attend to, including comfort." The intrinsic satisfaction derives from the course participation itself as may be noted from contentment indicated in the reference to participants and trainers by their first and nick-names. However, both types of satisfaction are inseparable because the trainee points out that there was something useful to learn from the very interactions of people. So satisfying is experience that the trainee loses awareness of passing time.

Extrinsic satisfaction as regards Case 4 is implied in the perception of relevance of course to work. Intrinsic is more explicit from the trainee's reference to enjoying friendship during the course.

The Case 5 trainee has extrinsic satisfaction only

as we find that he sees every learning event with the eye-glasses of a trainer which he is. "When I came on that course, I was a training officer. I could not have gone for a more relevant course." An essence of his presence is to compare the course to others of his experience and evaluate which satisfies him in terms of relevance to his professional work. Relevance is where his satisfaction lies.

Case 6 trainee displays both extrinsic and intrinsic satisfaction in explicit terms. When he says that he enjoyed the course exercises, it is in relation to his work (extrinsic). When he says that he enjoyed "friends, friends all around, including facilitators....I still communicate with some of my friends", it is intrinsic satisfaction as a valued end, since while this factor helps psychological presence in the learning situation, it does not by itself relate directly to learning transfer.

There is, however, the other side of satisfaction, that is, dissatisfaction - this time, as a negatively valued end which, by its nature, if it had predominated in the learning situations could have detracted from the perception of transferable value of courses. Dissatisfaction can quickly be illustrated with the following examples (Table 8.2):

TABLE 8.2 : ILLUSTRATION OF NEGATIVELY VALUED ENDS OF COURSES

CASE	EXAMPLES OF DISSATISFACTION
1	Some lectures are not sound enough; time-table congested.
2	Being placed in a project group not of total relevance to own work; the presence of a deviant embarrassing Nigerians.
3	Congested time-table (six weeks for what should take longer).
4	Initial dissatisfaction with andragogic training methods (and participant mix).
5	Monotony of training methods (instruction and syndicate group; pedagogic classroom arrangement).
6	(No dissatisfaction indicated).

Although the method used in this study differs from the methods (positivist) of earlier studies, with the exception of Burgoyne (1974, op.cit.), the valued ends articulated by the six re-entrants essentially tally with findings in those earlier studies. In relating those studies to the present one, one has to note that it is reasonable to interpret satisfaction, knowledge/skills/insight, and relevance as inter-related. This point will be clear if it is agreed that all of them do constitute the motivation to learn in order to obtain the transferable. Besides, relevance and satisfaction or motivation

can be said to embrace the valued ends of knowledge, skills and insight.

To emphasize the similarities between earlier studies and this one as regards what course participants value about courses, two examples of such studies in the same general theme of management training and development are placed side by side with this study - Table 8.3. The apparent differences among the findings are mainly in semantic specifics.

As already pointed out, all the valued ends revolve around 'relevance' and motivation'. However, the question is, "Is a trainee/re-entrant aware of the means by which these valued ends have been achieved? This question has been stated, earlier on, as important because a claim to valued ends can be a mere assertion unless, inter alia, it is demonstrated that the claim-articulator is aware of the means to those ends, particularly in a situation of conscious and purposeful activities, such as learning.

TABLE 8.3 : A COMPARISON OF VALUED ENDS IN EARLIER STUDIES
AND THIS STUDY

Baumgartel, Sullivan and Dunn (1978, op.cit.)	Burgoyne (1974)	This study
Programme not too difficult for participants to follow: well organised	satisfaction (extrinsic and intrinsic)	satisfaction (extrinsic and intrinsic)
Learned specific techniques of value to present job; useful inter-personal and social relations skills	skills	skills; relevance
Gained improved decision-making and problem-solving; gained more analytical and logical way of viewing work problems; received help in solving specific management problems faced at the time	ability to take overall view of problems; general reasoning and problem-solving ability	knowledge/ skills/insight
Gained a helpful new approach or philosophy		knowledge (such as empathy with others' plight as regards victims of motivation)
Emphasis on areas of great practical value	useful work, career and personal development; helped aspirations and career fit	relevance generally (case 1 refers also to relevance of course to career)

(iii) AWARENESS OF THE MEANS FOR ACHIEVING THE VALUED
ENDS OF COURSES

From the protocols dealing with the learning situations, we have ample evidence of re-entrants' awareness of the means for achieving their articulated valued ends.

Table 8.4 is built from those means-associated protocols.

TABLE 8.4 : MEANS FOR ACHIEVING VALUED ENDS OF COURSES

CASE 1	CASE 2	CASE 3	CASE 4	CASE 5	CASE 6
Training techni- ques -experient- ial/andrag- ogic; indiv- idual projects; -group pro- jects; invol- vement of learners in learning activities -real life illustrations	Training techni- ques - experient- ial/andrag- ogic; train- ee - chosen projects; group pro- jects; trainers' group teaching method	Train- ing - techni- ques - ex- periential andragogic unassuming behaviour of train- ers; group pro- jects; feedback to confirm correct behaviour	Real life illus- trations Non- academic methods	Train- ing techni- ques - instruct- ion;- group method	Train- ing tech- niques experi- ential exer- cises

In case 1, the trainee so appreciates that the various training methods or techniques help the attainment of valued ends that he compares his earlier experienced 'academic' and pedagogic techniques to those of adults used in the course he has attended, and urges academics to adapt or adopt the latter for greater effectiveness than before.

Concerning Case 2, there is also a link between andragogic methods and the valued ends of course. A unique articulation of the trainee in this case is the information that projects are chosen by trainees rather than by trainers (as normally the practice in pedagogic situations). Even when over-subscription compels him to belong to a project group which he had not considered relevant to his professional line, he soon perceives its relevance to an applicable extent. Thus, valued insight that financial management does not significantly differ from other managements is attributed to participation in an initially unwanted project group.

As a trainer, moreover, the Case 2 trainee values not only the relevant content of learning but also the processes of training. He tells us explicitly that one of the means of achieving these valued ends is group teaching methods.

Case 3 reveals two additional instrumentalities of valued ends - the "unassuming pose" of trainers and feedback by which the 'correct' responses (likely to be transferred) are made known to the trainee.

Case 4 trainee discloses the connection between his valued end of relevance and the trainers' use of real life illustrations (cigarettes) to illuminate concepts. Although the Case 5 re-entrant complains of the monotony of training methods (instruction and syndicate group), he perceives that these methods are 'o.k.' for the achievement of the valued ends of relevance and satisfaction. Finally, in Case 6, understanding/knowledge and relevance are all related to course exercises as a means for achieving them.

In all cases, there is no doubt about the trainees' awareness that whatever is valued in terms of learning transferability is a function of mainly training techniques or methods. Even the mere participation in courses, that is, participant involvement in learning activities, is experienced as instrumental to at least the intrinsic aspect of satisfaction which helps trainees' psychological presence to appreciate valued ends.

The perception and relation of valued ends to means is an issue of the establishment of causal relations. Copi (1961) has explained that without the determination of causal relations, it is doubtful if man would be able to know what happens to him and his environment in order to become a master of it and of himself. It is a basic axiom in the study of phenomena that events, valued ends, or effects do not just happen but occur only under 'necessary' and 'sufficient' conditions.

Copi (ibid) further explains that there is, however, a difference between 'necessary' and 'sufficient' conditions. A necessary condition for an event to occur is the circumstance in the absence of which it cannot manifest. Oxygen has to be present for combustion to take place, but, though a necessary condition, it is not a sufficient one. The sufficient condition is the high temperature applied to the combustible phenomenon in the presence of oxygene.

In the context of establishing transfer-related valued ends of a course, the course content may be regarded as a necessary condition for ends to be perceived as manifest; training methods may be regarded as a sufficient condition.

In other words, and where we are dealing with adults who have, presumably, come to learn, no matter how sound a course content may be, the 'transmittal' method is still a 'must' for the valued ends to be appreciated. From the analysis of protocols, it is safe to state that both necessary and sufficient conditions have been met. Therefore, left to the learning situation, as so far acceptable, the transfer of learning to the work place should be expected.

However, the re-entrants' establishment of cause-effect relations is interesting from another relevant angle - that of indicating how scientific the layman can be and, therefore, how his articulated experiences may be relied on as a description of reality. Indeed, one of the principles of a phenomenology-based analysis is that the layman can be as much a scientist as the scientist, and vice versa (Bannister and Fransella, 1980). "It is the business of the scientist to search for causes...genuine scientific knowledge is always a knowledge of causes" (Kneale, 1949, p.47). The re-entrants have, precisely, been demonstrated to achieve this.

While the foregoing discussion helps one to begin to decide whether the failure to transfer learning lies in the learning situation, it is still necessary to answer the third question posed early in this dimension, that is "By what experiential and consciousness processes does a trainee/re-entrant establish an end as valued, and an element as a means to the end?" It was argued that the relevance and importance of this question is that it helps one to avoid a 'prima facie' acceptance of mere assertions. It is a question that helps to deepen analysis to the root level of

behaviour, using articulated evaluations of a course.

(iii) THE EXPERIENTIAL PROCESSES OF ESTABLISHING VALUED
ENDS AND CAUSALITY BETWEEN MEANS AND ENDS

The protocols on the dimension of the learning situation reveal evidence of the re-entrants' processes of experience or consciousness for recognising the valued ends of courses as well as establishing means - ends relationships. From the articulations of the protocols and indexed interpretations, Table 8.5 has been constructed.

TABLE 8.5 : EXPERIENTIAL/CONSCIOUSNESS PROCESSES OF
RECOGNISING VALUED ENDS AND MEANS-ENDS
RELATIONSHIPS

CASE 1	CASE 2	CASE 3	CASE 4	CASE 5	CASE 6
recalling	recalling	recalling	recalling	recalling	recalling
reflecting	reflecting	reflecting	reflecting	reflecting	reflecting
comparing	comparing	comparing		comparing	comparing
	generalis- ing	generalis- ing			

RECALLING

'Recall' is "the form of remembering in which the subject demonstrates retention by repeating what was earlier learnt" or experienced (Hilgard, 1962, p.630). It involves a mental looking back through, so to say, the door of memory which is according to de Bono (1969, p.41), "what is left behind when

something happens." When a memory is powerful, "it requires no effort of interpretation at all. This is because the memory actually recreates the event which caused it" (de Bono, *ibid.*, p.42).

A stimulus, such as the researcher's question that a former trainee should 'think aloud' of a course he attended, serves as a trigger or an opener of the door of memory store. Since memory may retain a number of courses and the stimulus requires responses pertaining to only a course, the respondent has to carry out a scanning to identify or specify the particular course of his interest and experience. In other words, there is a selective process in cases of more than one course. The stimulating question, the surveying of memory store, and the identification, specification and selection of a course for articulation have the effect of pinning down the respondent to particularities.

At first sight, giving space here to 'recalling' may seem out of place since recalling does not seem to offer data related to learning transfer problem. It seems more relevant to a study of 'consciousness' or 'experience' as a subject 'per se'. If, however, one considers that recall with its sub-processes pins down the articulator to a specific event, the relevance of considering 'recall' here becomes clear since a concentration on a selected specific would tend to assure us that the person involved in an experience knows what he is talking about - the reality of his consciousness - and wishes his listener to know of it too. In that case, recall of specifics is a re-entrant's response of telling us, "The particular course

I am talking about was real and what I am telling you about it is real." Not only are all the protocols dependent on recall but also their very beginnings achieve the specificity which is important to scientists. Each set of protocols begins with "The course I wish to talk about is....."(or expressions of identical meaning).

REFLECTING

By this process of consciousness or experience, attention is turned to lived experiences and "the experiences are apprehended, distinguished, brought into relief...marked out from one another" (Schutz, 1972, p.51). There is protocol evidence that this process was taking place while learning activities were being experienced - that is, imaging the work situation and perceiving it in the light of on-going activities and ideas generated in the learning situation. In Case 1, the trainee says, "I was thinking of my work, my workmates and the public service as a whole..." He also feels like going to redo what he did wrongly. In Case 3, the trainee, reflecting on his work, finds that group teaching methods are adoptable or adaptable to his performance needs. The Case 3 re-entrant states, "I can hardly think of any part of the course which was not relevant to the personnel work which I do..." As regards Case 4, the re-entrant confesses, "I began to relate what was going on to my one-and-a-half-year management experience." These examples are enough and show that the courses satisfied Binsted and Stuart's (1979, op.cit.) principle

of bringing the work situation to the learning situation to design reality into programmes.

Perhaps without the reflective process, the transfer of learning would be impossible for, how would it be possible if there is no reflection to determine areas of applicability?

COMPARING

The process of comparing involves the juxtaposition of evaluable objects. Therefore, the just-discussed 'reflecting' is itself a comparative activity - between current experience (course) and past (work situation). Comparing however has other functions in the articulations, for example,

- (a) comparing a course to another course to make a preferential choice, for example, the case 1 re-entrant prefers the andragogy of his course to the pedagogy of other courses of his experience; the Case 2 re-entrant prefers the methods of the course he is evaluating to those of an earlier course he had attended; in Case 5, comparison of local and foreign courses yields no choice other than to assess local courses as 'o.k.' in transfer value;
- (b) differentiation between pre-course and post-course state of knowledge/skills/insight. This activity is akin to experimental group treatment compared to a control group, the difference being attributed to

1272

the experimental treatment. Burgoyne (1974, op.cit.) brings out this point in his analysis and discussion of the judgement processes in students' evaluations of management programmes. Examples are the new levels of understanding human relations and of insight into other employees' motivation crisis (Case 1) and the better appreciation of job description and manpower planning (Case 3);

(c) telescoping the work situation to the learning situation or vice versa, such as when, in Case 1, the trainee says that he was thinking of his work, workmates and the public service as a whole. The close connection between reflecting and comparing is such that the earlier examples given of the former can go for the latter. As in the former, we can also state that perhaps without the process of comparing, the manager may have nothing to take home. This is because as de Bono (1969, op.cit.) has explained, learning involves retention without which application is unlikely.

GENERALISING

To emphasise the value he perceives in his course, the Case 2 re-entrant concludes "Therefore all such courses should be encouraged." 'Generalisation' is an inductive process involving quantification, such as, the use of

'all' to conclude arguments from premises. Generalisation, according to Cohen and Nagel (1934, op.cit., p.277), is the essence of inductive reasoning, "the passage from a statement true of particular instances to those true of all possible instances in a certain class". Copi (1961, p.361) states the same idea about 'generalisation' when he says that "the method of arriving at general or universal propositions from the particular facts of experience is called 'inductive generalisation.' "

Beside the Case 2 generalisation referred to already, Case 3 presents another example. "The more people attend the course, the better." Underlying the two cases of generalisation is the impressiveness and impact of courses in terms of valued ends and the means for their being attained.

In all the cases, the experiential processes of recalling, reflecting, comparing and generalising clearly add weight to all the data to be considered in a conclusion as regards whether or not learning transfer problem is rooted in learning situations. That conclusion is that the problem lies elsewhere, for, all the re-entrants agree that their courses had transferable elements. It is, then, logical to proceed to look at the remaining two dimensions of protocols, beginning with organisational climate or situation.

2 THE ORGANISATIONAL SITUATION OR CLIMATE

In connection with this dimension, the related hypothesis has to be recalled, that

'The transfer of learning will occur if a re-entrant positively perceives and assesses those factors which, to him, constitute his organisation's climate.'

The same hypothesis may be conversely stated to the same effect if 'not' is inserted before 'occur', and if 'positively' is replaced with 'negatively'. The hypothesis helps the raising of two questions to be answered from the interpretations of the related protocols -

- 2 (i) What climatic characteristics are attributed by the re-entrant to his organisation?
- 2 (ii) How does he establish causal relations between his perceived climate and his failure to transfer learning?

(i) PERCEIVED CLIMATIC CHARACTERISTICS

The index column of the protocols helps in the construction of Table 8.6 to indicate the organisational factors which re-entrants perceive and experience as dampening learning transfer effort.

TABLE 8.6 : PERCEIVED ORGANISATIONAL INHIBITORS OF
LEARNING TRANSFER

CASE 1	CASE 2	CASE 3	CASE 4	CASE 5	CASE 6
Posting outside Agency from which course was attended					
Taking over from an unmanned table					
Overload				Overload	
Unsupportive leadership and staff	Unsupportive staff	Fake encouragement of innovative behaviour		indifference to report on course	Unsupportive leadership (in difference to report)
Emphasis on threat, obedience and conformity		Defensive behaviour of re-entrant (perhaps due to implicit threat perceived)		Punishment for innovative behaviour defensive ness (therefore threat)	Punishment for innovative behaviour (threat implied)
Fear of discomfort likely from applied new ideas					Fear of discomfort likely from applied new ideas
Ignorance/unawareness of the need to use ideas from trained personnel		Ignorance/unawareness of the need to use ideas from trained personnel	Ignorance/unawareness of the need to use ideas from trained personnel	Nobody seems to expect change after a course	

(a) POSTING OUTSIDE THE AGENCY FROM WHICH COURSE WAS ATTENDED:

Since the re-entrant (Case 1) wanted the posting to an agency other than that from which he set out for his course, and since he made effort to transfer learning to where he was posted, this factor cannot be said to have been a serious stumbling block. It can, nevertheless, be discussed as a matter of possible interest in learning transfer. It is of interest because one could consider that the re-entrant's tale of woe might have been different had he returned to his original organisation.

The post-leave and post-training posting of public servants is not unusual in the civil services of Nigeria. It, however, entails working with unfamiliar people beside the chance meeting of previously known colleagues, as it happened in the re-entrant's case. In the circumstance, acclimatisation time may be necessary before learning transfer could be attempted. Time may also be necessary for the older staff to get familiar with the new member. Ideally, time should not be all that relevant since, ideally people should be mature enough to absorb new members. Bion (1961, p.25) mentions "the capacity to absorb new members" as a quality of healthy groups.

This reference to the capacity to absorb new members is important since the re-entrant, despite his desire to go to the particular agency, would not have been posted there had the agency not asked for staff to be sent to it. Posting is always preceded by a request. Therefore, the subsequent presence of the re-entrant in the agency of his

posting can be described as a matter of mutual need.

There is no doubt that the policy and practice of postings in Nigeria has been known to create certain manpower problems, for example, a person who may feel motivated where he is may be forced out to where his expertise is claimed to be needed. Refusal of posting is punishable with dismissal. Another disadvantage of postings is said to be that people may not mature on what they are doing before they are sent elsewhere. These are some of the grounds of the 'Udoji' Commission (1974) and Adebayo's (1981) criticism of the practice. To these criticisms should be added that, whether the initiative for posting comes from an officer or the exigencies of service, the practice prevents a re-entrant from applying learning in the very organisation from which he was sponsored for a course.

This is not to say that the re-entrant is no longer a re-entrant. In the Nigerian context, the civil service of any state or of the federal level is seen as one large 'system' in the 'sub-systems' of which certain civil servants may be rotated. Therefore the concept of 're-entry' is seen in terms of either the return to a pre-training agency or any other considered appropriate by the authorities.

However, and as has been stated, posting is here discussed as an issue of possible interest in learning transfer. It did not constitute a problem to the Case 1 re-entrant, among other reasons, because his personnel work in the agency was related to his training. Besides, even if he had belonged to the agency prior to his course,

he would still not have found learning transfer easy. This, as we shall see, is because to old and new staff, the particular work environment was essentially the same - antagonism toward innovative behaviour.

(b) TAKING OVER FROM AN UNMANNED TABLE

This factor refers to the re-entrant's (Case 1) not meeting his predecessor in person, who might have put him through the operational style of the organisation. Although the re-entrant, according to him, still 'bubbled' with enthusiasm to transfer learning, and does not perceive a problem in taking over from an unmanned table 'per se', one could still, as in the case of posting, discuss the factor by way of general interest. The interest arises from the fact that it meant that more time would be required to master the specifics of the schedule of duties instead of embarking on immediate suggesting of new ideas from the learning situation. Secondly, taking over from an unmanned table underlines a factor which emerges later - the factor of unsupportive leadership and staff, for, one would expect that in the absence of a predecessor, the Chief Executive and/or other older staff ought to have helped the re-entrant.

(c) OVERLOAD

This factor refers to having so much work that time cannot be reasonably allocated to learning transfer effort. It occurs in cases 1 and 5. If one goes by the Case 1 re-

entrant's articulation that he continued to 'bubble' with new ideas and, in fact, he did proceed to submit his ideas, one could say that this factor is not a serious hindrance to Case 1's transfer effort. In Case 5, however, it is one of the serious inhibitors experienced. "By the time you are planning to get anything done, there is pressure for you to do something and you have to abandon your plan."

It has been demonstrated in researches that overload problem arises because an individual, as an information processor, has a limit to which he can process and use data. Too much information could make its recipient prioritise work, delegating some, postponing or pushing aside other aspects. In the circumstance, the transfer of learning may assume a lesser importance than other behaviours directed at satisfying the pressures from above (Katz and Kahn, 1966). Weiss, Huczynski and Lewis (1980) have also found that overload is among the top 4 variables of 37 to which 48 respondents reacted in a study of learning transfer-restrainers.

(d) UNSUPPORTIVE LEADERSHIP AND STAFF; INDIFFERENCE TO
REPORTS ON COURSES; FAKE ENCOURAGEMENT OF INNOVATIVE
BEHAVIOUR

The idea here is that learning transfer fails to occur if a re-entrant perceives or experiences that formal leaders and co-workers do not support him. In Case 1, unsupportiveness manifests in the Chief Executive's dressing down the re-entrant for submitting ideas which depart from established and more comfortable practices. There is also the mutual

suspicion among staff. In Case 2, unsupportive staff is exemplified by the refusal of a 'significant other' (an expert in the field of the new idea) to work on the learning-imported idea. In Case 3, the re-entrant perceives that the organisational authorities pay mere lip service to innovative behaviour. In Cases 4 and 6, the re-entrants receive no feedback on, but indifference to, the reports they submitted on their courses.

As regards the perception of fake encouragement of innovative behaviour, it is the same as what Gibb, 1964(b), has referred to as 'strategy' in organisational pseudo-democratic practice. It is that an organisational leader may make up his mind about the solution to a problem but invites subordinates to an apparently democratic discussion. He merely cancels out each contributor's ideas, manipulating views toward his. Once subordinates discover the fakeness of participativeness, especially when it is found to be a consistent pattern of leadership behaviour, their own reaction is a sneering or light-hearted treatment of participation in problem-solving. Gibb (ibid) has demonstrated that strategy or pseudo-democracy also encourages defensive communication beside stiffling creative behaviour (of which learning transfer is an aspect).

Leadership indifference is as effective as pseudo-democracy in not being helpful to the transfer of learning. It is synonymous with a lack of meaningful and dynamic commitment to training, a commitment which is not to be displayed by only sending staff on courses but also by actively seeking their application of, and diffusing, the

fruits of learning on re-entry. Knowles (1970) lists commitment among the elements which promote the actualisation of the benefits of learning.

(e) EMPHASIS ON THREAT, OBEDIENCE AND CONFORMITY

(PUNISHMENT FOR INNOVATIVE BEHAVIOUR)

It is particularly in Case 1 that threat and the demand for obedience and conformity are shown to be destructive to learning transfer. When the Chairman warns the re-entrant not to take advantage of coming from the same area as the Chief Executive, the language communicating the 'message' not only has a ring of threat but also betrays social insensitivity (not caring about the feelings of the re-entrant). Threat is also loaded into the pervasive fault-finding behaviours of the Chief Executive and a Commissioner.

Naturally interwoven with threat in that particular organisation is the demand for obedience. The re-entrant is advised by a co-subordinate, "Just do your work as they want and you are o.k.". The same stress on obedience and conformity underlies the Chief Executive's avoiding to draw the Chairman's (his superior's) attention to decision errors. He refers to him as "the owner" of the organisation, whose "word is law". If a public service organisation could thus become a property of a private individual employed to serve like others, there is no doubt about the cultic extent to which conformity and obedience are carried to surround a personality.

In Case 3, the articulation of experience does not provide a direct evidence of emphasis on threat, conformity

and obedience. The available evidence may be regarded as circumstantial or implicit, for, we note the re-entrant's defensive avoidance of exerting some pressure on his boss to help to bring about an active consideration of the report he wrote and submitted on the course he returned from. Defensiveness is always founded on the consciousness of there being a threat factor at least to some extent. In fact, the re-entrant does tell us of not wishing to suffer like persons who elsewhere had suffered for pressing for organisational changes.

In Case 5, defensiveness has a clearer association than in Case 3. Firstly, the obedience-demanding and initiative-crushing cult of personality witnessed in Case 1 shows itself in Case 5 though not with the same devastating impact. The departmental head is described as the be-all-and-end-all, with the 'small fries' (subordinates) only coming into issues when asked to. Secondly, we hear from the re-entrant at the tail-end of his articulation that he often ran into trouble for acting outside the norms of the departmental head.

In Case 6, there is also an evidence that conformity is expected. The re-entrant discloses that his ideas are perceived by his superiors as revolutionary. He is further scolded for enthusiasm over staff welfare beyond normal practice. However, in terms of the inhibitive effects of authoritarian demands, the case 6 re-entrant is placed better than the others: he discloses that he is appreciated by his boss for hard and high-quality performance.

An environment which a person perceives as beyond his ability to control cannot, according to expectancy theory of

motivation (Vroom, 1964; and Porter and Lawler, 1968) be performance-encouraging even where the potential performer experiences an attraction toward performance. Such environments may be described as characterised by the principles underlying McGregor's (1960) Theory X - that man is lazy, unself-disciplined, and requires policing to perform. Where these principles are indiscriminately applied, particularly those workers, who can perform without being compelled or being constantly made to know that they are subordinates, may be alienated. The Case 1 re-entrant, enthusiastic about innovative behaviour and liking extrinsic recognition for performance, is clearly not the type to whom a discerning leadership should apply Theory X view of man. Therefore there is a leadership failure to diagnose individual situation in order to apply principles on contingency or situational basis, as Schein (1970) suggests.

The setting in which conformity, obedience and threat are pervasive, though a business organisation, indicates the repressive features which Etzioni (1961) uses to typify corrective institutions, like, asylums and concentration camps as 'coercive-alienative'. These features are really Theory X and mechanistic features in McGregor's (1960, op.cit.) and Burns and Stalker's (1961) studies. Their being perceived and experienced by organisational members as prevalent would be certain to alienate them rather than integrate them with the work organisation as Argyris (1964) demonstrates.

To describe one of the characteristics of alienation, one may borrow from March and Simon (1958) their term, 'satisficing' - in this case doing just enough to get by.

Thus, the re-entrant in Case 1 is admonished by a co-worker, "Just do as you are told and you are o.k.". Initiative is thereby being killed since satisficing would preclude the transfer of learning: it is safer not to take risks which may be involved in trying new ideas. Satisficing may also partly account for the mere submissions of course reports without further re-entrant effort to have action taken on recommendations of new ideas - as in Cases 3, 5 and 6.

Another characteristic of coercive-alienative environments is that, depending on the personalities involved, subordinates' behaviours may follow any or a combination of overtly manifested frustration, for example, fixation, pairing, dependency, fight/flight or aggressiveness/withdrawal (Bion, 1961, op.cit.; J.A.C. Brown, 1954). In Case 3, the re-entrant does not try learning transfer beyond submitting a report on his course partly because he knows of persons who suffered for their innovative behaviour. In Case 5, the re-entrant says he did not consider it his place to pressurise his boss. Later, he informs us that he ran into trouble for performing outside established mode. The Case 6 re-entrant also does virtually nothing beside a display of enthusiasm over staff welfare for which he is scolded. These 'do nothing' behaviours may be indications of flight.

In Case 1, behaviour, rather than be directed further at learning transfer, manifests as aggressiveness (referring in this case, to hostility): loss of respect for the leadership, for example, banging the boss' door as he leaves for where he is 'banished'; loss of respect for colleagues; keeping records of questionable decisions with which to

embarrass the leadership if any occasion arose for using such records.

These hostile behaviours, which are really coping mechanisms in frustration, in turn achieve further punishments for the re-entrant, in the forms of loss of promotion and loss of sound health (hyper-tension). Thus a vicious cycle of cause - effect develops between him and the authorities.

The health (hyper-tension) problem, attributed to raw deals for innovative effort, indicates an intense anxiety generated in the re-entrant. To explain the possible effects of such emotional intensity, Sperling (1982, pp.219-220) differentiates shades of anxiety. Normal fear "is a response to threatening stimuli in the immediate present" while "neurotic fear is called anxiety.... Anxiety can be mild or intense, and occasional or continuous." It is intensity combined with continuousness which may make anxiety manifest as a health problem. High blood pressure indicates that the re-entrant has been through intense anxiety which, according to Vernon (1969), arises from frustration which aggressiveness, hostility or fight may reflect.

A final note on the climate of threat -- the point that particularly in Case 1 does one find colleagues without mutual support in an 'impossible' atmosphere. The re-entrant, though new in the agency, is left unaided in getting to grips with operational specifics: he is, according to him, misled by an acquaintance into a shallow memorandum submission. There is no evidence of a direct relationship between staff unsupportiveness and negative climate until we are told by the re-entrant that he himself later learnt that his colleagues feared that, if they had given him unpalatable information

about the work situation, he might 'back-bite'. Thus, minimal communication and distrust are shown here to characterise alienative-coercive type of climate (G. Lippit, 1969). They also help the stifling of innovative or creative behaviour (Gibb, 1964(a); Argyris, 1973). This statement has to be emphasised when it is remembered that mutual support and warmth, expressed through helpful communication or interaction, have been shown to help innovativeness (Litwin and Stringer, 1968).

(f) FEAR OF DISCOMFORT LIKELY TO ARISE FROM APPLIED NEW IDEAS

This factor emerges from two cases, 1 and 6. A co-worker of the Case 1 re-entrant does not support the new idea of performance appraisal (open) because, to him, it would encourage homicide by persons who would openly know how negatively their performances have been evaluated. In Case 6, the re-entrant reports being described as a revolutionary as evolutionary changes are preferred. In both cases, therefore, ideas are turned down because they are perceived as punishing some how. Harvey (1975) and Ends and Page (1977) have in their studies explained that people do not resist change but whatever they may assess as not in accord with their self-interests. This, therefore, throws light on the re-jective behaviours experienced by the two re-entrants.

(g) IGNORANCE OR UNAWARENESS (AMONG ORGANISATIONAL LEADERS AND MEMBERS) OF THE NEED TO USE IDEAS FROM TRAINED PERSONNEL

This factor is articulated in four of the six protocols

on the organisational dimension. In effect, what the re-entrant in Case 1 says is that his suffering for being innovative would not have happened had other people, especially the leaders, appreciated the importance of training as a source of ideas and practices for performance improvement. This point may be said to underlie the failure of the other re-entrants - Cases 3, 4, and 5. For learning transfer failure to be thus explained by re-entrants is fascinating in some respects:

- * the irony that the training policy and heavy financial provisions of Nigerian governments for training seem to mean nothing to perhaps many leaders in the management of the public service;
- * as stated in Chapter 1, people who deliver key-note addresses to course participants always take the initiative to talk of the importance of the application of learning, or are asked to talk about it. Could it be that even top public servants are not equally aware of what these luminaries care to talk about?;
- * if ignorance or unawareness is how the affected training-recipients explain their failure to transfer learning, then studies like the present one must take the factor into priority consideration when suggesting possible solutions. Indeed, it is important and rather peculiar because in none of the literature or earlier empirical studies surveyed has the factor of

ignorance or awareness been come across;

* it could be that the problem is not a matter of ignorance but of indifference as voiced by Cases 5 and 6 re-entrants, but since in at least one case (Case 1), the attribution to ignorance is based on the re-entrant's conscious check of the backgrounds of his tormentors, the factor cannot be ignored.

Thus far, the discussion has centred on the actual variables which re-entrants experienced as learning transfer - stifling. Since it is through the consciousness or experience of the subjects that we get at these factors, it is necessary to examine how they establish in their consciousness the causal relationships between the variables and their failure to transfer learning.

(ii) THE CONSCIOUSNESS PROCESSES OF RE-ENTRANT'S ESTABLISHMENT
OF CAUSAL RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN CLIMATIC FACTORS AND
LEARNING TRANSFER FAILURE.

Going through the protocols on the organizational dimension and the indexed interpretations accompanying the units of the protocols, one finds the following (Table 8.7) as expressive of causal connections between organisational variables perceived and transfer failure:

TABLE 8.7 : ELEMENTS OF HOW LINKS ARE ESTABLISHED BETWEEN
PERCEIVED FACTORS AND TRANSFER FAILURE

CASE 1	CASE 2	CASE 3	CASE 4	CASE 5	CASE 6
analogy :		analogy			
illust- rated statements; dramatic irony ; innuendo; onomatopoea; generalis- ation	illust- rated state- ments		illust- rated state- ments	illust- rated state- ments	illust- rated state- ments
		generalis- ation			

ANALOGY

In Case 1, analogy is more metaphoric than similit, that is, such words as 'like' and 'as' which indicate comparison are eliminated so that, for example, instead of saying that a fighter was 'like' a lion, one could say that the fighter 'was a lion'. It has to be noted that though analogies compare only resemblances as Cohen and Nagel (1934, op.cit.) have explained, when an analogy suppresses those adverbs ('like', 'as') which make it similit, the metaphoric impact of a communication is greater. Therefore, for the re-entrant to refer to himself as Israelites suffering in Egypt (analogy as metaphor) generates a resounding

impression of his punishing experience on re-entry. Analogy is therefore a clear means of establishing perceived organisational factors as cause of the non-transfer of learning.

In Case 3, the analogising (this time, similitude) process is the comparison of lip service to innovative behaviour on the one hand and political behaviour (of fake campaign promises) on the other. In effect, the re-entrant says that the non-transfer of learning is due to the organisational factor of management deceit or pretence. A second analogy used in Case 3 to achieve the same effect is the transference of the failure of innovation (Udoji) elsewhere to the probable failure of learning transfer effort if made. This latter analogy will later be shown to exemplify generalisation process also.

INNUEENDO

This satirical figure of speech is peculiar to only Case 1 and is exemplified by the trage-comic reference to 'Motivation Organisation' when it is not motivating to the re-entrant. The effect of innuendo is that by creating a contrast between the hilarious designation of the organisation and what actually goes on within the organisation we are made to attribute non-transfer of learning to uncondusive organisational variables.

DRAMATIC IRONY (noted in Shakespearean plays):

This figure of speech is again unique to Case 1. The

postings officer who sends the confident re-entrant expects problems for the enthusiastic re-entrant who only sees where he is going as a challenge to prove his competence and as an opportunity to earn extrinsic recognition for his new ideas. His zealous expectation is dashed and the events draw us back to recall the cognition or pre-cognition of the postings officer, and thus agree with the re-entrant that organisational variables explain the non-transfer of learning.

ONOMATOPOEA OR ECHOISM

By this figure of speech, a sound is used to convey meanings and images of 'reality'. The Case 1 re-entrant's echoing expression, "boom", reminds one of a bomb or a thunder. By describing the descent of punishment on the re-entrant, this onomatopoea or echoism establishes that the non-transfer of learning is attributable to organisational variables (leadership behaviour in this instance).

ILLUSTRATED STATEMENTS

A means by which a person shows that his information is reliable is following a statement with illustrative examples, that is, providing specifics to avoid haziness or doubt. If we regard the research question as a sort of statement in a respondent's mind, then all protocols are illustrative specifics. Even if this is not so regarded, there is still evidence of illustrative statements in the protocols 'per se'.

In Case 2, statements on the blockage of learning transfer are clarified with an account of the subversion

by a significant other'. In Case 4, the confession that learning transfer does not occur is illustrated with the statement that the idea of using trained manpower did not occur to anyone. Therefore, illustration helps our seeing the factor of pervasive ignorance as an organisational factor inhibiting learning transfer.

GENERALISATION

In the context of this present discussion, 'generalisation' is of interest from the psychological rather than from the logical perspective. The latter perspective appeared in the earlier analysis and discussion of the dimension of the learning situation. Hilgard (1962, op.cit. p.620) defines psychological 'generalisation' as "the principle that once a conditioned response has been established to a given stimulus, other similar stimuli will also evoke that response". Bobbit et al. (1978, pp.105 and 502) define it as "the overall expansion of the definition of the conditioned stimulus on the part of the learner....The concept of generalisation is best thought of as a substitution of a new conditioned stimulus, resulting in a similar response on the part of the learner." Both definitions of 'generalisation' simply mean the transfer of a behaviour contingent on an experienced situation to another situation perceived as reminiscent of the earlier one.

In Case 1, the re-entrant articulates that after he was posted to another government agency in which he perceived a more performance - conducive climate, he did not

attempt learning transfer. Although he does not definitely explain this behaviour, it is reasonable to say that his not engaging in learning transfer is conditioned by his earlier painful experiences. The point of similarity between the earlier and later organisations is that both are work environments. In other words, the Case 1 re-entrant confirms Church's (1963) finding that an effect of a punishing experience is for the affected individual to take avoidance action, even though the noxious stimulus is absent.

In Case 3, generalisation assumes a somewhat different type of basis, but to the same effect as in Case 1. Here it is not the re-entrant who has experienced performance failure earlier, but the 'Udoji' commissioners, as well as others "who suffered a lot for being very enthusiastic over the need for changes." In other words, we do not have to experience pain personally to feel pain, and to carry the effect to other situations. The behaviour of the re-entrant thus confirms a finding of Milgram (1970). In that study of obedience to authority, he (Milgram) asked research associates to pretend to be under intense pain from electric shocks while strapped to a chair. Subjects, not directly receiving the shocks, exhibited fear, distress and trembling. Therefore, by substitution or generalisation process, it becomes possible for the Case 3 re-entrant, who has learnt of painful rewards elsewhere for innovative behaviour, to fail to press hard for the transfer of learning.

THE PROCESS OF RECALL.

Although the process of recall has to do with the giving

of information to a researcher rather than itself as a datum for analysis, the grounds for discussing it were stated in the learning situation dimension, that is, essentially that it pins the respondent down to specifics of experienced reality. In connection with the organisational dimension of this study, there is such a vividness of recall of events that one should not gloss over it as an important manner of securing research data. Why should recall be so vivid? An answer is the behavioural effects of unfinished or uncompleted tasks, in these cases, unfinished or interrupted learning transfer due to perceived organisational climatic variables.

In his study (1952), Eriksen explains that (vivid) recall is associated with the level of intensity of emotions involved in given situations, and that it is particularly possible when a person can assign causality of task in-completion to external variables. This conclusion is similar to Alper's (1952, 1946) - that there is a tendency to recall events better when incompleteness of, or failure to carry out, a task is perceived as due, not to the performer's self, but to outside factors. Murray (1962) points out that when a task is completed, the tensions associated with its objectives are released, whereas tensions are piled up to stimulate recall of incompleteness. For re-entrants to recall their experienced failures to transfer learning is thus understandable.

(iii) AN ADDITIONAL NOTE ON RE-ENTRANTS' EXPERIENCES OF
ORGANISATIONAL INHIBITORS

It will be found that the general type of the public

service organisation to which a re-entrant belongs is indicated at the beginning of each set of protocols - that is, para-statal (profit or non-profit) and service agency (ministry or extra-ministerial department). One may have expected that particularly profit-oriented organisations would be more enthusiastic to consider ideas from learning situations because of the need to seek profit-enhancing processes. Since the failure to transfer learning cuts across all the organisations, the disposition of organisational authorities and members to try new ideas cannot be said to depend on organisational type.

SUMMARY OF FINDINGS ON ORGANISATIONAL CLIMATIC
FACTORS EXPERIENCED AS HINDERING LEARNING TRANSFER

The analysis of protocols on organisational dimension of this study has revealed that re-entrants used the consciousness processes of recall, illustrated statements, psychological generalisation, and figures of speech, such as, analogy (metaphor and simile), dramatic irony and innuendo, to establish causal connections between organisational variables and the failure to transfer learning. It has also been indicated that the failure to transfer learning or the disposition to adopt or adapt new ideas is not a function of organisational type. Essentially, the following factors operated in the consciousness of re-entrants to inhibit learning transfer:

- (a) overload
- (b) indifference of organisational leaders;
unsupportive leadership and staff.
- (c) emphasis on threat, obedience and conformity;

- (d) fear of discomfort likely to arise from applied ideas;
- (e) general ignorance or unawareness among leaders and others of the need to utilise ideas from trained personnel.

The factor of taking over from an unmanned table without any help from colleagues, experienced in Case 1, can be subsumed in (b) above. The factor of posting out of the agency from which course was attended, also in Case 1, may be regarded as peripheral (so also the unmanned table) since the affected re-entrant seems not to have viewed it as a deterrence to learning transfer.

Finally, factors (b) to (d) are the ones likely to arise in Theory X and mechanistic philosophy of man. There is therefore sense in grouping them as 'prevalence of Theory X practices and behaviours in organisations.'

There now remains to be examined the third dimension of this study - the personality factors - before this Chapter is wrapped up in the light of the hypotheses.

3. THE PERSONAL CHARACTERISTICS DIMENSION

It will be recalled that it was stated toward the end of Chapter 6 that the three dimensions of this study could not be neatly demarcated from one another. Thus, it is possible to infer personality characteristics from some parts of the accounts of learning situations and organisational experiences, for example, in the second paragraph of Case 1 recording on organisational climate, the re-entrant discloses

that he likes recognition by others; in Case 3, we meet a personality that is defensive over pressing a boss to help to push learning-imported ideas. However, the advantage of having a question on personality is not only to ensure depth in data-generation but also to put learning transfer problems in a more varied and more comprehensive, yet clear, backgrounds than known and cited previous studies. In any case, personality data from those dimensions other than the dimension of personal characteristics are included in the discussion that will soon follow.

In analysing and discussing the data on the personality dimension reference has to be made to the related hypothesis, that is, that

the transfer of learning will occur if the re-entrant perceives his personality as characterised by such traits as self-confidence, belief in the idea of progress, positive human relations, and power (and having authority) in the work situation.

The converse form of the hypothesis would be to the same effect (if we preferred to insert 'not' before 'occur', and 'does not perceive' instead of 'perceives'.

The hypothesis helps to generate two questions on a likely connection between re-entrant's personal characteristics and learning transfer failure:

- 3 (i) What personal characteristics are inferable from the protocols?
- 3 (ii) Does the re-entrant himself perceive a possible connection between his personal characteristics and his failure to transfer learning?

(i) PERSONAL CHARACTERISTICS AS ARTICULATED
BY RE-ENTRANTS

The re-entrants disclose the following about themselves in the context of their work situations (Table 8.8):

TABLE 8.8: PERSONAL CHARACTERISTICS OF RE-ENTRANTS (WITH EXPLANATORY EXAMPLES)

CASE	CHARACTERISTICS	EXAMPLES FROM PROTOCOLS
1	Loves work	not malingering; puts in extra time to clear work even at the expense of being with family; is motivated by work, opts for posting to an organisation people wish to avoid.
	self-confident (love for challenge)	
	Used to like extrinsic recognition; now learning to be detached	influence of spiritual studies brings about effort to be detached from praise or blame; does his best and leaves the authorities to accept or reject his ideas; does not care about human relations (whether he is liked or not)
	Dislike for pain	does not wish to be a saviour in an environment too rigid for change; messiahs suffer.

TABLE 8.8 (contd.)

CASE	CHARACTERISTICS	EXAMPLES FROM PROTOCOLS
2	Liked by people (generally)	(stated as a statement of 'fact' but qualified with the information that he is seen as a threat by some people)
	Loves work/con- scientious	(stated as 'fact')
	Strong-willed (self- confident)	determined on action once convinced action is proper.
	Diplomatic	uses subtle strategies to achieve influence if direct approach is unlikely to succeed
	Pragmatic	behaviour is tuned to situation, that is, situation is analysed to determine practical style of be- haviour.
3	(Generally) liked by people	feels at home in work situation; is trusted by some and trusts some.
	Pragmatic	behaviour depends on situation; and workmates are aware of these analytic and pragmatic characteristics.

TABLE 8.8 (contd.)

CASE	CHARACTERISTICS	EXAMPLES FROM PROTOCOLS
4	Dislike for pain	having known of punished innovative behaviour elsewhere, does not wish to press home the transfer of learning
	Loves work	(stated as 'fact')
	Intelligent (self-confident)	bosses and lecturers have expressed their awareness of this characteristic; he also describes himself as intelligent.
	Generally liked; (pleasant)	characteristic noticed by others; is liked by boss; says that he enjoys company and his company is enjoyed by others.
5	Generates confidence	boss expresses confidence in him and tells him of his bright future in the work place.
	Takes initiative (self-confident)	(stated as 'fact')

TABLE 8.8 : (contd.)

CASE	CHARACTERISTICS	EXAMPLES FROM PROTOCOLS
6	Self-confident	(stated as 'fact')
	Generates confidence (liked by people)	invites the researcher to observe the behaviour of people in his office; boss likes his work and gives him feedback on his high-quality work.
	Liked by people (smooth human relations)	invites researcher to observe the behaviour of people toward him in his office; his boss likes him.

LOVES WORK/CONSCIENCIOUS

Love for work appears in Cases 1 and 4 as well as in Case 2 where 'conscienciousness' (hard working) can be equated with it. According to Fear (1973), these characteristics refer to

- doing more than actually required or expected in order to satisfy one's own standard;
- not letting things slide;
- putting in extra time to meet, or to exceed, set targets.

The characteristics also suggest intrinsic motivation by work itself, in which case performance is simply a function

of the need for achievement rather than of such needs as power and affiliation discussed in the work of Litwin and Stringer (1968). Since love for work and conscientiousness indicate some merging of the individual with his work, they also suggest that the re-entrants in Cases 1, 2 and 4 are experiencing the self-actualisation of Maslow (1954) and McGregor's (1960) Theory Y view of man.

The question is whether self-actualising tendencies would necessarily be related to the transfer of learning in Cases 1, 2 and 4. They do not, as Katz and Kahn (1966 op.cit.) have argued. Thoroughness, love for work and conscientiousness may, in fact, bring about excessively concentrated enjoyment of a little quantity of work without a concern for diffusing learning.

In any case, we cannot say that the characteristics articulated discouraged learning transfer since the re-entrants themselves have given adequate evidence that their personalities have nothing to do with learning transfer failure.

SELF-CONFIDENCE/GENERATES CONFIDENCE/STRONG-WILLED/INTELLIGENT/
INITIATIVE

These terms are taken together because in some re-entrants, self-confidence appears to be qualified with those other characteristics listed after it.

'Self-confidence' refers to one's trust in one's own ability to achieve objectives. In Chapter 4, it goes with self-esteem, according to Rosenberg (1965). Johnson (1974, also cited in Chapter 4) associates self-confidence with

dynamism, aggressiveness, high-task orientation and a person's perception of positive relationship with at least some features of his organisation. At first sight, self-confidence would seem likely to help a person who wishes to diffuse, and press for the implementation of, ideas from a learning situation. But does it?

In Case 1, self-confidence is indicated by the re-entrant's zeal to accept the challenge of working in a dreaded organisation. In Case 2, for the re-entrant to be determined on action, once convinced that an action is proper, is a mark of 'strong will' or 'tough-mindedness', which is a quality of self-confidence. Self-confidence, strong will and tough-mindedness are, among other things, describable as aggressiveness, assertiveness, achievement-orientedness, manipulativeness, risk-taking and dynamism (Eysenck and Wilson, 1975, cited in Chapter 4).

In Case 4, self-confidence is suggested by the facts that the re-entrant himself describes himself as 'intelligent' and buttresses this description with the information that his bosses and lecturers articulated the same characteristic of him. The case 6 re-entrant refers to himself as self-confident by assertion. In Case 5, self-confidence is suggested by 'initiative', used by the re-entrant to describe himself.

In none of these cases has the quality of self-confidence and its associated characteristics helped in the achievement of learning transfer. In each case, if we bring the organisational dimension of this study to bear on this discussion, the characteristics, which seem, at first sight, to relate positively to learning transfer, are swamped by perceived organisational factors.

As regards a re-entrant's generation of others' confidence in him (Cases 4 and 6), the fate of this characteristic in the transfer of learning is the same as that of self-confidence.

DETACHMENT/DISLIKE FOR PAIN

'Detachment' refers to the quality of being uninfluenced by surroundings or others' opinions. In Case 1, the re-entrant says that he has developed, and is developing, indifference to whether his work, done to the best of his ability, is accepted or rejected by others or his superiors. This is also his attitude to human relations. It is revealing to note that this particular re-entrant had looked forward to challenge and recognition before he suffered for his innovation effort. Therefore, though he attributes detachment to spiritual training, it is reasonable to link it with the earlier pain suffered, so that it is a result of helplessness in a world which he describes as "too rigid for change" - hence his dislike for pain. There is here a psychological inconsistency: the claim that he is detached or indifferent being side by side with the feeling of pain. To feel pain is no longer a sign of mystic detachment.

A detached person may no longer likely be interested in improvemental change or whether his world is deteriorating or not. On the other hand, it is the interested and dynamic person who can intervene to change his environment (Sorel, 1969; Berlin, 1954) as noted in the literature survey. However, before detachment and dislike for pain are associated with non-transfer of learning, it is necessary to bear in mind that these were not the original traits of the re-entrant.

It is imposed by organisational experience. Therefore, even in this case, organisational variables, rather than personal characteristics, are accountable for the non-transfer of learning.

The same is true of Case 3 in which the re-entrant indicates his dislike for pain. It is due to punishment and failure imposed elsewhere by organisational authorities.

LIKED BY PEOPLE

For a person to perceive that he is liked by people (generally) and to have definite evidence of being liked by workmates and/or boss implies his having a quality that attracts others. Attraction is an element of charisma which Katz and Kahn (1966, op.cit.), Blau (1964) and French and Raven (1959) have analysed as a source of influence on people. Being liked by people is thus a resource which a re-entrant who has it may use to achieve learning transfer. The subjunctive, 'may', is because not everyone who perceives being liked may use it as an influence weapon.

In Cases 1, 2, 4 and 6, however, and in those cases where it goes with a re-entrant's generation of others' confidence in him, it does not help learning transfer. Re-entrants again perceive organisational environment to be stronger than personal characteristics.

DIPLOMATIC/PRAGMATIC

The characteristic, 'diplomatic', refers to the art of, and skill in, dealing with people so that business is

smoothly accomplished. In Case 2, this characteristic is articulated, that is, the re-entrant's information that he uses subtle strategies to achieve influence if direct approach is unlikely to succeed. This personal 'gift' notwithstanding, the re-entrant fails to carry along the colleague and expert in the field of the new ideas.

As regards 'pragmatism', this is understood as the practical direction of behaviour to suit situations. To be able to exercise pragmatism, one has to be analytic of the situation. It is, therefore, difficult to distinguish between it and 'diplomacy' or 'diplomateness'. Pragmatic characteristic is articulated by Cases 2 and 3 re-entrants, neither of whom achieves the 'business' of learning transfer. Thus, diplomateness and being pragmatic do not succeed against the 'power' of organisational factors to inhibit learning transfer.

However, the final issue to be cleared on the personality dimension is whether the re-entrants themselves perceive that, though personality factors are shown not to account for the non-transfer of learning, a causal link is possible between them (that is, between personality and learning transfer failure) just as they (the re-entrants) have been demonstrated as being aware of a causal relationship between organisational variables and non-transfer of learning, and between the valued ends of courses and the means for achieving them.

(ii) DOES THE RE-ENTRANT PERCEIVE A POSSIBLE CAUSAL LINK
BETWEEN PERSONAL CHARACTERISTICS AND FAILURE TO TRANSFER
LEARNING?

The importance of identifying personal characteristics

is always in connection with something, in this case, with whether the failure to transfer learning can be attributed correctly to a re-entrant himself. The attribution may be by a scientist, a researcher, or the re-entrant himself, or all of them. Since one of the reasons for the use of protocol analysis method is that the layman can be as scientific as a scientist, and that all information is within his stream of consciousness, it would be meaningful to this study to concentrate on whether or not the re-entrant himself perceives a causal connection between his personal characteristics and learning transfer failure.

Table 8.9 indicates the re-entrant's perception of a possible link:

TABLE 8.9 : RE-ENTRANTS' PERCEPTIONS OF POSSIBLE LINK BETWEEN PERSONALITY AND LEARNING TRANSFER FAILURE

CASE	EVIDENCE OF PERCEPTION OF LINK
1	"I think with this card, I see clearly what you are really after in this interview. You indirectly wish to find out if my personality has to do with my not using what I learnt."
2	"I have a feeling you wish to connect all this with the course I returned from."
3	"If you think that I am weak and could not have my learning accepted, you are wrong."
4	(no direct and explicit articulation of perception: evidence is implicit). Implicit denial of link between his personality and transfer failure.

TABLE 8.9 (contd.)

CASE	EVIDENCE OF PERCEPTION OF LINK
5	(when the personality question is asked, he simply gives an account of his experience of organisational factors of leadership behaviour as inimical to learning transfer) - implicit denial that his personality accounted for non-transfer of learning.
6	"In case somebody feels my personality is why my report was not acted on....em...you see...that is not so....I said they say gradual-by-gradual but, my brother, I don't see any gradual there.. it is the same old way."

The fact that the re-entrants in Cases 1-3 and 6 explicitly state that their failure to transfer learning is due to organisational variables rather than to themselves indicates clearly that they do perceive that it is possible for personal characteristics to cause learning transfer failure. The very fact, then, that they deny personal responsibility for the failure means that they comprehend where the failure lies - the climate of their organisations.

As regards the re-entrants in Cases 4 and 5, it should be noted that though the research question stimulates the articulation of protocols concerning personality, they simply respond by attributing learning transfer failure to organisational factors. In other words, they indirectly tell us that the failure to transfer learning has nothing to do with their own personal characteristics. They are, therefore, implicitly aware of a possible connection of personality and learning transfer failure.

Concerning all the articulations on the personality dimension, there may be a discussion point or controversy as to whether it would be easy for an individual to accept responsibility for a failure, if he were responsible for it. In other words, it may be easier for a person to attribute a failure to factors outside himself. To resolve the reliability problem, we have to consider a re-entrant's total articulations on the three dimensions. On this basis, it can be argued that the experiential accounts (containing considerable evidence that each re-entrant neither made unsupported assertions nor failed to carry within his stream of consciousness causal relations) leave us with hardly an option beside accepting the articulations on personality. It may be contended that this problem of reliability arises from the phenomenological method used. But, then, it has to be noted that the method has been consistently employed, and that hardly any other method may be fool-proof. If reliability is here doubted, at least it remains difficult to state conclusively that the articulations on personal characteristics are unreliable.

SUMMARY OF CHAPTER 8 and CONCLUSION

With the tripartite research model of the learning situation, the organisational situation or climate, and personality characteristics, six re-entrants' articulations of their learning transfer experiences have been analysed and discussed.

Related to the learning situation was the hypothesis that the transfer of learning would occur if training-

recipients perceived that the principles of relevance and motivation to learn were satisfied. The analysis of the associated protocols showed that the various courses contained transfer-worthy elements - relevance, knowledge, skills and insights - beside both extrinsic and intrinsic satisfactions. Although there was some dissatisfaction in some cases, this negative intrusion was nowhere as significant as to be detractive. Training recipients also showed awareness of the means - andragogic training methods - used to achieve the transfer worthy and valued ends. Therefore, left to the learning situation alone, one would predict that learning transfer would occur in the 'back home' environment. The prediction does not, however, materialise.

The hypothesis on the personality dimension was that the transfer of learning would occur if a re-entrant perceived himself as self-confident, motivated, having the power or authority to influence, not rigidly conformity-oriented, and generating positive human relations. The analysis of the related protocols demonstrated that re-entrants generally had these qualities that could help learning transfer effort, for example, self confidence, love for work, generation of others' confidence in themselves, intelligence and initiative. Yet, they fail to transfer learning, so that the hypothesis was disproved.

Rather, the hypothesis which indicated that learning transfer would not occur if re-entrants negatively perceived the climates of their organisations was supported. Their experiences included the prevalence of Theory X or coercive-

alienative conditions, overload and general ignorance of leaders and co-workers of the need to utilise possibly practical, new ideas from trained personnel. Re-entrants also illustrated these perceptions with specific events, and employed such figures of speech as innuendo, onomatopoea and analogy to associate their failure to transfer learning with their perceived negative organisational variables.

We may, therefore, conclude with Schein (1964, p.499):

"The lament that we no longer have strong individualists who are willing to try something new is a fallacy based on incorrect diagnosis. Strong individuals have always gained a certain amount of their strength from the support of others, hence the organisational problem is how to create conditions which make possible the nurturing of new ideas, attitudes, and approaches. If organisations lack innovators, it may be that the climate of organisations and its methods of management do not foster innovation, not that its human resources are inadequate."

It follows that any model that may be suggested for resolving learning transfer problems must be geared to helping re-entrants to cope with likely-to-be-perceived or experienced negative climate. The emergence of such a model is the focus of the next and final chapter of this study.

CHAPTER 9

RESOLVING LEARNING TRANSFER PROBLEMS

INTRODUCTION TO CHAPTER 9

The preceding chapter analysed the protocols related to each of the three dimensions of this study, namely, the learning situation, the organisational situation or climate, and personal characteristics dimension. The analysis with discussion established that the non-transfer of learning has its roots, neither in learning situations nor in re-entrants' personal characteristics, but in the variables of organisational climate as experienced by the affected re-entrants.

In, however, searching for a model likely to help to resolve the perceived problem factors, one may be confronted with a question, namely, "Since consciousness or experience is subjective in view of the phenomenological perspective of the study, would it not be contrary to phenomenology for a 'subjective other' to provide a model expected to influence problem-solving behaviours?" What, in effect, such questions are stating is that to project an objectively existant model is inconsistent with the studying of reality from the subjective standpoint.

The question betrays a misunderstanding of phenomenological approach. Firstly, phenomenology does not deny the existence of the objective world. What it says is that though objective phenomena exist, we cannot understand it outside our consciousness or experience. Since, however,

experience is unique, people do not identically perceive the same object. In spite of this ideosyncrasy, human beings as human have a common possession - consciousness - through which the unique perceptions of phenomena can be shared. Two (or more) streams of unique consciousness can be running simultaneously (Kohak, 1978; Schutz, 1972) to interflow through the common gift of experience - hence, the reality of intersubjectivity and social relations. Chapter 6 is recalled as explaining all this.

Therefore, if re-entrants could, as they have done in Chapter 7, share their learning transfer problems with other persons like a researcher, it follows that the latter could meaningfully suggest to, and share with, the former a model likely to be experienced as helping resolving the experienced problems in the future, if not now. It would also be left to individual interpretations and acceptance outside the immediately affected re-entrants to consider the model.

To consider a model at all, however, we must remind ourselves of the main findings of the protocol analysis, and then see whether models may be realistically borrowed from, say, sociological and political disciplines. We must also evaluate at least some existing models in the specific area of learning transfer itself. It has, further, to be borne in mind that the transfer of learning, especially on the macro-level in which the problems are essentially embedded, is an organisational change process. Therefore, the existing models to be evaluated are change models directed at performance improvement for the eventual benefit.

of an organisation.

To remind the reader, the following are the organisational factors which showed in re-entrants' consciousness as learning transfer-inhibitive:

- Overload
- Indifference of organisational leaders;
unsupportive leadership and staff;
- Emphasis on threat, obedience and conformity
- Fear of discomfort (of new ideas implementation)
- General unawareness of people of the
need to utilise ideas from trained
personnel.

The middle three factors may be said to suggest pervasive Theory X. The factor of posting a re-entrant out of the agency from which he set out for a course as well as his taking over from an unmanned table may be regarded as peripheral, though these factors will be given consideration. But, firstly, what of existing models which, perhaps, like all models may be broadly categorised as evolutionary and revolutionary?

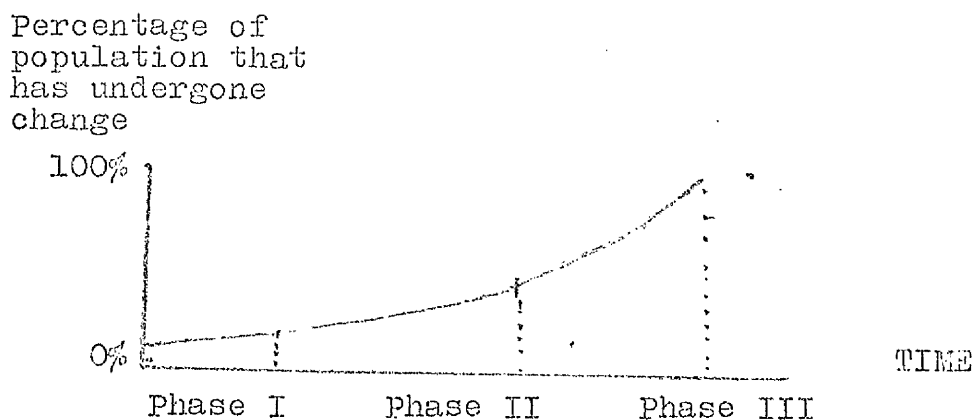
(A) EVOLUTIONARY AND REVOLUTIONARY MODELS

Though it may not always be easy to draw a neat line between types of change, two broad types are usually identified, quantitative (evolutionary) and qualitative (revolutionary). The reference here to the difficulty of neatly demarcating between quantitative and qualitative change is because an evolutionary change may finally build up into a revolution, and a revolution may tail off into an evolution (Garner, 1977)

It is, however, agreed that change is evolutionary when it is voluntary, peaceful or gradual; revolutionary when suddenly effected with force and involving an alteration in the locus of power (Vago, 1980). The question is whether a re-entrant, perceiving the above-highlighted organisational inhibitors, should opt for revolutionary or evolutionary change strategies. To answer this question, it is necessary to restate the contents of revolutionary and evolutionary changes and use them as a framework for looking at specific models.

Evolutionary change consists of many small shifts in behaviours and attitudes of a diversity of groups or people as a result of intervention, conflict and negotiation. It entails the alteration of the awareness of people that there is something requiring change in past and existing state. With time, the number of such people increases. Conceptually, it assumes a triple phase (fig.9.1) before a revolution, as Garner (1977 op.cit., p.403) states:

FIG.9.1 : THE INCREASING POPULATION OF PEOPLE IN THE
AWARENESS OF THE NEED FOR CHANGE (Garner,
1977, p.403)



In Phase I, the number of people whose consciousness has altered to recognise the need for change is small. In phase II, the number of people holding the new view increases because of the intervention of certain circumstances, such as economic problems and government weaknesses as in the case of China's movement toward Marxism. The increased population of Marxists team up with the earlier set of Marxists to cry out and begin a restructuring of society. By phase III, virtually every person has become Marxist (Garner, 1977, *ibid.*) A revolution follows. The same evolutionary processes from few persons' dissatisfaction in an organisation may end in mass strike. It may be possible for the response of sensitive authorities to be such that change is made as environmental needs are experienced to require, in which case a revolution may be avoided, and evolution be the change process.

Willer and Zollschan's (1964) processes of change are similar to Garner's (1977, *op.cit.*). They refer to the first phase as the stage of latency when involvement and commitment to change is in few heads and few cautious activists. There follows the manifest stage when more people become aware of the need for change, and that change is looming in the environment. Finally is the organised stage when so many people have become so committed to change that proponents or leaders actually organise people and themselves into open action.

The processes, as presented, are conceptual. In reality,

each phase flows into the other, so that fixing neat boundaries among action periods is conveniently arbitrary. The flow of events may not be uniform since change leaders may at times doubt the ripeness of time. However, the conceptualisation acceptably represents reality, therefore suggesting to a potential transferer of learning a rational planning and phasing of action, and whether he could sustain an evolution while stopping short of revolution, or whether he could build up a general awareness of the need for change (adoption of learning - inspired ideas) and follow up with a revolutionary bang.

This inference of possible approaches to learning transfer should not be seen as outside the usual way managers adopt to usher in change. The revolutionary process, evolving from evolutionary process, does take place in the managerial world, for example, from the grumbling of one or two employees, more people may be influenced to become aware of organisational conditions perceived as unsatisfactory and requiring change. The support of individuals and groups whose consciousness has been thus influenced sets the stage of solidarity, and the climate is ripe for precipitate action, such as trade unions effect (Garner, 1977, op.cit.).

In connection with the process of precipitate action, one may also think of certain other revolutions which occur on higher socio-political levels. In fact, in chapter 2, it was argued that politics should not be associated with only those higher levels but also with behaviour in organisations. Therefore, the potential transferer of learning who perceives inhibitive organisational factors may borrow

strategies from behaviours on the higher levels, for example, coup or pronunciamiento.

A coup is a sudden action effected to obtain power or a desired end (Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary). Luttwak (1968) distinguishes between a coup and a pronunciamiento whereby change plotters build up internal support, agree on action, pre-share the probable rewards of action among themselves, move in to unseat the existing order, and proclaim a new direction. The distinction is insignificant since the two processes have the same effect. The argument is whether it is possible for a re-entrant to influence colleagues, build up support, and so discredit formal organisational leaders that higher authorities could either force them to accept new ideas or to leave and be replaced by those who have the new ideas or who support them.⁶ Revolution may here sound destructive, but as Harvey (1975) has pointed out, it is, for example, a myth for Organisation Development practitioners to insist always on team building where team destruction could provide a cure.

However, this revolutionary strategy, which may occur to some people as a way out of the inhibitive organisational variables, cannot succeed as a generally applicable model. This is because while it may be applicable to eliminate the variable of antagonistic Theory X leadership behaviour, it cannot be defensibly applied to the variables of un-supportive staff and failure of people to see the need to utilise the ideas of trained manpower. A coup or a pronunciamiento is directed at power holders, not the masses.

Besides, these revolutionary processes are also unlikely to succeed where there are frequent staff postings as in ministries and extra-ministerial departments. Such changes imply that the re-entrant has to start afresh to rebuild support base. Support base does not mean every group or organisational member: it means, as Pettigrew (1976) has pointed out, support of significant members. The support base is necessary because, for particularly a revolutionary change to occur, there must be, 'inter alia', an exigency, a feeling of unease (with current condition) in the proponent and a collectivity; a manifest interest group, that is, a collectivity of incumbents whose interests are common or who share the same or similar ideas; and an organised group, that is, an interest group organised to take an action (Willer and Zollschan, 1964, op.cit.).

As already hinted, the processes involved may have problems because of the practice of staff postings in ministries. They may be better applied in some parastatals where people tend to make careers within their professional groups within specific locations. However, whether in a ministry or a parastatal, such as those from which the data were obtained for this study, a revolutionary strategy may, in fact, not work because of the rather long time it takes to lead change from its phase of latency through manifest, organised and action stages. The time involved may also not suit any re-entrant who considers that speed is necessary for contribution toward socio-economic development in an under-developed country or for organisational

survival.

One more rather revolutionary strategy which may occur to people as workable is what, from Kelman (1961) may be labelled as 'compliance' model, by which a change proponent, such as a re-entrant, alters the beliefs and behaviours or performances of others, using his authority status. Learning-imported ideas may therefore be accepted and tried because the compliants fear some punishment or expect some reward (though their private opinions may be opposed to the new ideas). However, the data presented in chapter 7 and analysed in chapter 8 suggest that a compliance-based model may not work because none of the re-entrants sees himself or is seen to be in compliance-generating positions in his organisation. The following paragraph illustrates this statement.

The re-entrant in Case 1 is clearly a subordinate without influence. In Case 2, the re-entrant is not in a position to compel his colleague to comply with the chief executive's directive that ideas from learning be implemented. In Case 3, the re-entrant discloses that he is a very senior officer, yet he later states how he would have imposed his learning on his total organisation had he been at the top. In Case 4, we meet a re-entrant with only a year and a half of management experience, petted by others, and obviously not in a position to use a compliance-based model. Case 5 re-entrant discloses how he with his workmates are seen as 'small fries' by people and their boss who is the 'be all and end all' of the department. In Case 6, the re-entrant is a subordinate whose submission is ignored by departmental heads.

Even if the re-entrants were in compliance-inducing positions, success of learning transfer may still not be assured. Kelman (1961, *ibid.*) has pointed out that compliance-based change lasts only as long as the compliance-generator maintains his authoritarian presence; and that even if that authority-holder had identification-attracting charisma, change may last for only as long as his charismatic qualities are perceived.

Since the re-entrants with their perceived organisational inhibitors do not seem likely to succeed with revolutionary models of learning transfer, we should turn to evolutionary models of change to examine their possible practicality to the re-entrants.

B. EVOLUTIONARY MODELS

The models referred to as evolutionary are those which may usher in learning transfer in such a manner that change may not be felt as jolting. Such models may assume the form of an appeal for managers to be open to new ideas. They may be directed at organisational 'dominant coalition' who, once convinced of the need for change, could influence lesser status members to go along with change proposals. They may simply be based on the belief that if the head of a work unit is favourably disposed toward change proposals, acceptance and execution by other unit members follow.

It should be stated that space is not going to be devoted to general evolutionary and organisation-oriented models, such as those of Milo (1971); Shepard (1967); Hage and Aiken (1970); Wilson (1966); and Zaltman, Duncan

and Holbeck (1973); R. Lippit, et. al. (1958); Argyris (1970); Beckhard (1959) and Kahneman and Schild (1966)⁷. This is so because it will be time and space-consuming to go into what is to be merely shown as inappropriate. As will be noted from the model to be later suggested, there is, however, something which a re-entrant and other managers may learn from these models. For example, they are designed to involve all, or the 'dominant coalition', who are affected by change so as to reduce resistance and to gain commitment.

However, they are based on the understanding that the internal organisational authorities are aware of the need for change and seek the intervention of external consultants, which a re-entrant is not. This being the case, and since some of the re-entrants articulated that there was a general organisational ignorance or unawareness of the need to utilise the ideas of re-entrants, the models may be left out.

As regards models which are addressed to internal consultants, and such models in fact include those for external consultants, the one suggested by Pettigrew (1976) readily occurs to the mind. He refers to it as 'a political approach'. In it, he suggests that the internal change agent should initiate and maintain contact with various but significant people in the organisation to win their support. He should also influence the members of any other unit engaged in functions which may overlap into those of the internal change agent's unit. This is to avoid duplication

of effort as well as clear off the likelihood of sabotage by such a unit because of deleterious inter-group competition such as analysed by Sherif and Sherif (1953), or the manifestation of negative organisational politics discussed in Chapter 2. Pettigrew further suggests that since an internal change agent controls a lot of information about the internal and external organisational dynamics, he could use the power of expertise to influence favourable attitudes to his proposals.

The various elements of influence in Pettigrew's offer are likely to be valuable to re-entrants, but not to the re-entrants whose articulations are analysed and discussed in chapter 8. In intensely mechanistic and coercive-alienative organisations perceived in Case 1, in an organisation in which a significant colleague (Case 2) stifles learning transfer because of his perceived Theory X treatment of himself, and in Case 5 where the boss is the department and the department is the boss, while others are 'small fries', the atmosphere does not exist for Pettigrew's suggested relationships to be practicalised. Besides, none of the re-entrants enjoy the position of the internal consultants to whom Pettigrew's recommendations may apply. To drive this point home, it has to be noted that that writer states, "Most internal consultants have work contacts across departmental boundaries within their own organisation and between that organisation and relevant others...As such they are potentially able to influence the resource allocation process in their organisation through a process of collecting, filtering and reformulating information." The re-entrants of all analysed cases are not incumbents of

such strategic positions.

The models so far considered so that their possible value to the re-entrant may be noted are outside the specific subject of learning transfer. What then, of those models directly dealing with the issue in the light of perceived inhibitive organisational variables? We have to recall those authorities cited in Chapter 2, to answer this question. They may be classified as follows:

- (a) 'Pulpit' model - Baumgartel and Jeanpierre (1972); Katz and Kahn (1966).
- (b) Leadership model - Weiss, Huczynski and Lewis (1980); and Stiefel (1974).

(a) 'Pulpit' model:

Baumgartel and Jeanpierre's (1972) model of learning transfer is here dubbed 'pulpit' because, on finding that the problem lies essentially in the organisational dimension they state what amounts to sermonising - that managements or organisations should be receptive to learning-imported ideas. The assumption, therefore, seems to be that sermons will succeed. However, it is agreed that, generally, appealing statements rarely succeed to change attitudes and behaviour (Goldstein and Sorcher, 1974). Therefore, the Theory X variables perceived as learning transfer-inhibitive in the analysed cases, beside Case 4 the emphasis of which is organisational leadership and members' ignorance, are not likely to be resolved by the use of any pulpit model. As regards Katz and Kahn (1966, op.cit.) they simply draw attention to the problem of learning transfer and suggest

no possible solution - as if only doing so would suffice. It is thus difficult to classify Katz and Kahn, differently from Baumgartel and Jeanpierre.

(b) Leadership-based model:

It will be recalled that Stiefel (1974, op.cit.), in Chapter 2, suggests that learning transfer could be helped if supervisors discussed a re-entrant's outcomes of training. A valuable lesson from this model is the need to have people or a group that monitors the effects of training, a point also stressed by Knowles (1970). The same practice is the main line of thinking of Weiss, Huczynski and Lewis (1980, op.cit.). This idea has also been noted to be a suggested way out in a number of management development and training courses of this writer's experience. The model of leadership action also seems supported by the various theories of leadership referred to in Chapter 2, that is, the leadership that considers the need of the learning-inspired re-entrant, group needs and organisational objectives. Such models are by implication, or explicitly, cognisant of the influence of the leader or the 'dominant coalition' in the attainment of organisational purpose.

In the sense that a re-entrant does not push ideas forcibly down the throats of organisational members, but depends on the commitment of some people (leaders) in the work place, a leadership-based model is evolutionary or quantitative and, thus, may reduce resistance. In the

sense that there are less influential people outside the 'dominant coalition' or who are not formal leaders, the pushing through of new ideas through leadership influences may amount to coercion, a revolutionary Theory X behaviour.

The risk of alienation as a result of perceived authoritarianism is one of the recognised bases of the Human Relations Movement. D.S. Brown (1980) has pointed out that subordinates can find excuses for non-performance, can influence others against a new idea, and can purposely fail in performance to discredit an introduced practice. As far back as the thirties, states Brown, managerial power has been observed to be declining; and the violation of authority has become accepted as a matter of fact. An evidence of this observation is in Case 2 of the analysed protocols. There, although the Chief Executive, open to ideas, gives the directive for learning-imported ideas to be implemented, the unsupportiveness of a subordinate stifles an aspect of the implementation. In fact, one of the subordinates reasons for failure to act is that he, as an expert in the subject matter, was not allowed an opportunity of playing a part in the determination of the staff to work with him on the idea.

If a re-entrant and his boss, relying on the latter's influence only, do not first gain the commitment of others, they may also commit the error of assuming that the 'jargon' of the imported ideas is understandable to all. Havelock (1970) states that the not-unfamiliar communication differential between encoder and decoder may be here involved. Moreover,

since not many individuals may have perceived the new ideas as necessary in the first instance, but did not see themselves in the dominant position to impose or express their objections, they may develop subtle and thwartive mechanisms, such as not volunteering the feedback necessary for evaluating the phase-by-phase processes of implementation. Yet, feedback is a 'sine qua non' of the success and determination of idea relevance since, through it, may experienced problems during implementation be grappled with (Stufflebaum, 1967; Gross, et.al., 1971).

A failure to involve more than the superior may also mean a loss of an opportunity for more perceptions to be brought to bear on learning-imported ideas. It is not unusual to find work unit members deriving pleasure from the failure of proposals at a stage of implementation. Coe and Barnhill (1967) point out that at the propaganda phase of an innovation, few elements of the change may be as dazzling to its proponents as to distort their perceptions. The unforeseen later crops up to ruin innovation effort. It is often the case that those who either were not consulted or had not really welcomed it then have an open or covert day of laughter.

The criticism of a leadership-based model does not mean that the model is entirely unworkable. If the recipients of leadership influence identify with leaders, and if they conform because of the reward power and authority of leaders, the model may work. Whether the change so brought about is relatively ephemeral or long-

lasting is another question. The point being made here, though, is that, although leadership is a necessary condition for learning transfer, it may not be a sufficient condition. Note should be made that a leadership-based model also assumes (i) that the leader is aware of the need to utilise the ideas of re-entrants; and (ii) that other staff may be unsupportive of ideas unless influenced by the leader. But only in Case 2 of the protocols is the assumption (i) satisfied. In the other cases, there is a general unawareness of the need to utilise trained personnel's ideas if need be, and there are also the factors of unsupportive staff and unsupportive leadership as well as the prevalence of perceived and resented mechanistic conditions. Even in Case 2 where the leader is aware of the need to consider and to apply usable ideas from learning, effort is torpedoed by a significant subordinate who perceives a Theory X element in the work situation. Therefore a leadership model cannot work in any of the cases, and, in fact, failed to work in Case 2.

It is, so far, demonstrated that neither those models labelled here as revolutionary (qualitative) nor those referred to as evolutionary (quantitative) can really meet the learning transfer inhibitors articulated by the re-entrants of this study. There is therefore the need for another model to be suggested, though the model is also classifiable as evolutionary.

(c) A Mutual Expectations

Learning Transfer Model - Melt

For one to appreciate the relevance of this model,

- (i) one has to recall the inhibitive organisational factors, which may again be stated as mainly overload, prevalence of Theory X and coercive - alienative conditions, and general unawareness of people of the need to use learning-imported ideas;
- (ii) the operation of the model has to be described, including how it may help to eliminate the problems; and
- (iii) the concepts and theory or theories underlying the model have to be explained.

The search is for a model that may clear all of the problems rather than our having to design a model for each of them. A 'good' model is one that can be adopted or adapted to clear a number of problems: otherwise, we would tend to have 'billions' of models in the face of countless behavioural problems in organisations.

Certain articulations of the re-entrants themselves suggest a possible, workable model. Cases 1, 3, 4 and 5, that is, four cases out of six, refer to the general awareness of people of the need to utilise re-entrants' ideas. An implication is that if awareness is roused, learning transfer may become easier. How may awareness be roused? An answer is suggested by one of the characteristics (stated in Chapter 2) of bureaucracy - the tendency to refer to rules and regulations. If awareness is written into organisational conditions of service such as in the handbook called 'Civil Service Rules', it would become mandatory. One more rule will not hurt bureaucracy.⁸

A DESCRIPTION OF MELT AND ITS OPERATION

(See fig. 9.2)

FIG. 9.2 : A MUTUAL EXPECTATIONS LEARNING TRANSFER

MODEL (MELT) THE MAIN PHASES

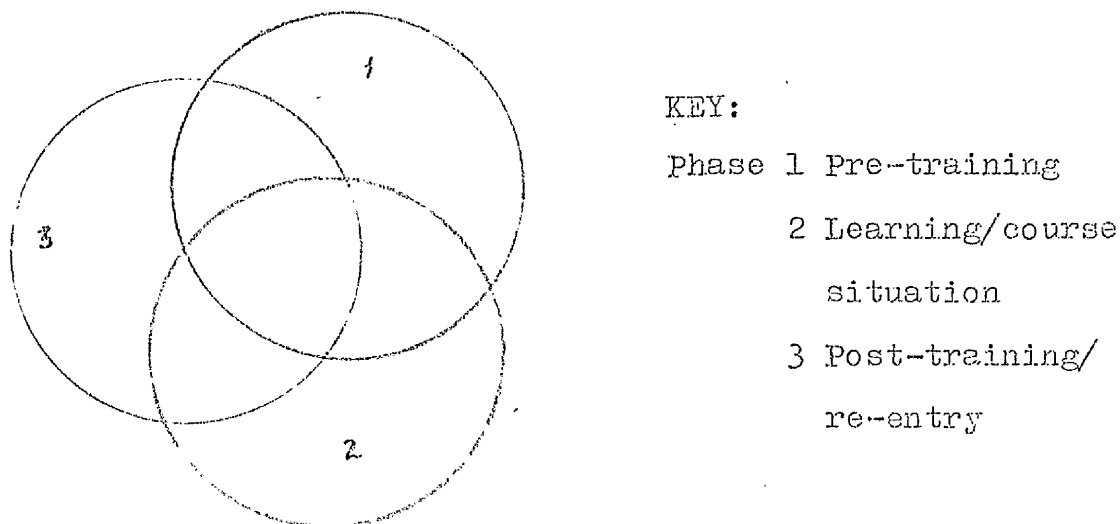
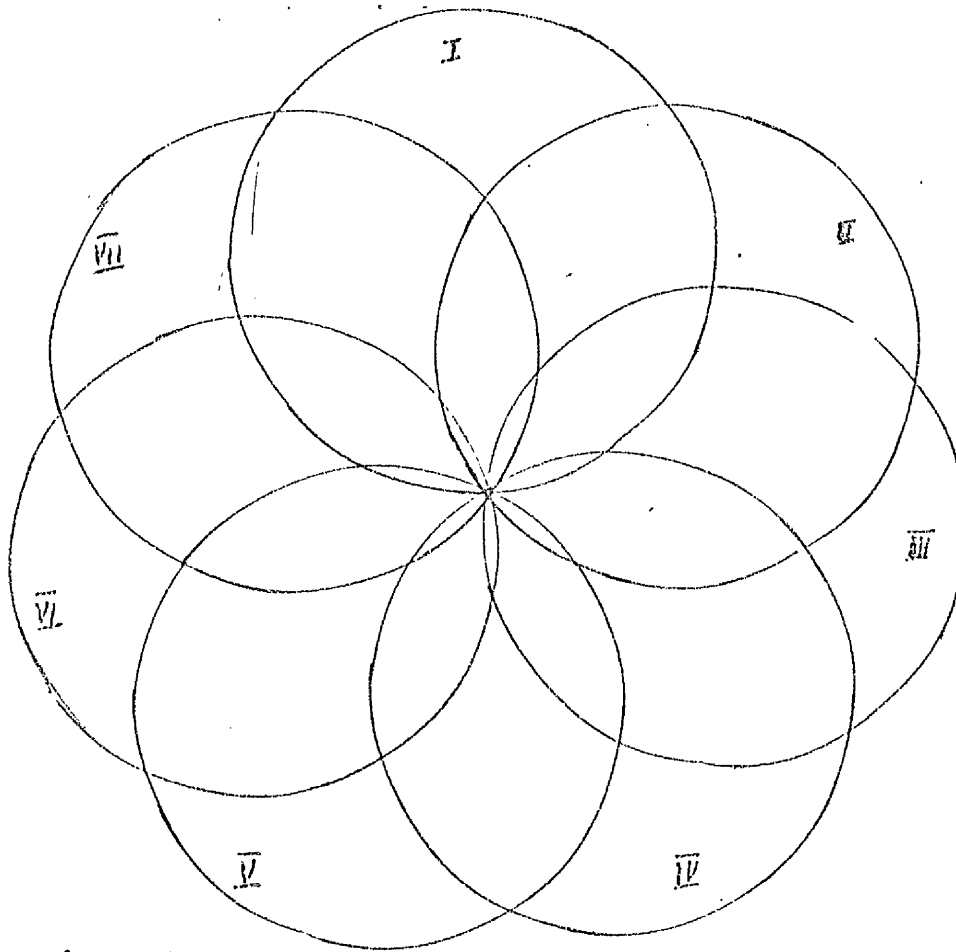


Fig.9.2 depicts the model in its three phases:

1. The pre-training phase within the prospective trainee's organisation;
2. The training/course phase (the learning situation); and
3. The post-training/course phase (re-entry) within the organisation.

The three phases have a seven-stage sub-phases of activities depicted in fig.9.3.

FIG. 9.3 : THE SEVEN SUB-PHASES OF MELT



KEY

Stage/Sub-phase

- I prospective trainee-boss interactions
- II prospective trainee-boss-work-mates-related work units interactions
- III trainee-facilitators-fellow-trainees interactions
- IV trainee interaction with himself
- V re-entrant-boss interactions
- VI re-entrant-boss-work-mates-related work units interactions
- VII review of effects of tried ideas.

Why the interlocking circles are used will become obvious when the concepts of 'mutuality' and its associated concepts are later discussed. It will, however, help clarification if the model is linearly presented, provided that it is borne in mind that since the seventh sub-phase provides for a review or an appraisal of the results of learning transfer, the model is also cyclic. Table 9.1 is accordingly explanatory.

TABLE 9.1 : DETAIL OF MELT

PHASE	SUB-PHASES/STAGES	ACTIVITIES
1 Pre-training (in organisation)	I Prospective trainee-boss interactions	Discussion of hope and expectations (and fears) from the coming course
	II Prospective trainee-boss workmates interactions (including representatives, if not all members, of work-related units)	-do-
2 TRAINING/ LEARNING SITUATION (to which trainee brings the hopes, expectations, etc. discussed in phase 1)	III Trainee/participants, trainers/facilitators and fellow-trainees interactions.	<p>(a) Trainee, like and with others during climate setting, expresses and discusses hopes, expectations (and fears) about the course</p> <p>(b) Course/Learning activities take place</p> <p>(c) Action plan discussed with trainers and fellow-participants</p>

TABLE 9.1 (contd.)

PHASE	SUB-PHASE/STAGES	ACTIVITIES
3 Post-training (re-entry) in organisation	IV Trainee 'interacts' with himself	Writes report on course, embodying new ideas relevant to organisation.
	V Re-entrant-boss-interactions	Presents report (copies already made).
	VI Re-entrant, boss, workmates, representatives or all related work unit members meet	Discusses with boss; fixing date of general meeting with workmates and others. Distribution of report to all. Report as working paper. Ideas considered. Action plan on ideas.
	VII Review/appraisal of effects of ideas	Appraisal of ideas and action taken. Results so far noted.

The activities connected with each phase and sub-phase are so self-explanatory that few remarks are necessary. Firstly, the inclusion of members of work-related units (if such units exist) in stages II, VI and VII may involve:

- (a) small units within the same department;
- (b) more than one department.

The question is whether the resultant meeting may not be of too large a group for effective interactions. While it may be admitted that discussions may be more wieldy in smaller groups, the largeness of a group should not be seen as a serious problem. Sub-committees may be used to discuss

hopes and expectations from a course with a spokesperson of each sub-committee, reflecting the views of others, and a common list of points drawn up for the edification of all concerned, including the prospective trainee.

At stage VI, the centre stage is taken essentially by the re-entrant while others listen, recalling the highlights of the report (with recommendations) earlier distributed (see activities at stage V). Clarification points are sought if necessary, and sub-committees could discuss how far the new ideas proposed are workable. In the total group discussion and drawing up of a common list, action is agreed with a review (stage VII) date fixed.

It may be contended that this model cannot work in the cases of re-entrants posted out, after a course, to another department or agency, as often happens. Ideally a re-entrant should be a re-entrant in the specific organisation from which he set out for a course. A slight modification of the model could work in the circumstance. If it is agreed, as earlier suggested, that a rule on learning transfer should be added to the existing public service rules on conditions of service, a sub-provision could be made that some time after the re-entrant has settled down in his department of posting, usually on the same job as in his pre-posting department, he should submit his new ideas to his new boss for a similar processing seen in the model.

This would be practicable particularly where there is a functional identity or similarity between the re-entrant's former place of work and the agency of his posting, for

example, personnel work in the civil services has essentially the same underlying policy and practices. If there is a difference, and even if no difference existed, arrangement could also be made for the re-entrant to have time-off to visit his former organisation to sell his ideas, following the patterns set by the suggested model. If, however, a leaf is borrowed from the United States Public Law 85-507, approved by the 85th Congress on 7th July, 1958, it becomes mandatory for a re-entrant to work for some time in his original organisation before movement elsewhere.

CONCEPTS AND THEORETICAL FOUNDATIONS OF MELT

THE CONCEPT OF 'MUTUAL (MUTUALITY)

The term 'mutuality' here refers to interdependence of perceptions, attitudes, and behaviours of two or more people in the work situation. It is the reciprocity of these processes which, as an associate of integration (below) makes the model an integrative and a mutual model of learning transfer.

THE CONCEPT OF INTEGRATION

The concept of 'mutuality' implies 'integrativeness'. MELT is an integrative model in more than one sense. Firstly, by bringing together the prospective trainee, his boss, work-group and related work-group members, it integrates them, for the concept of 'integration' means a binding together for performances toward a common purpose. Integrative effect is also achieved by the fact that various perceptions, hopes and anticipations are brought together to bear on a

future event, the coming course. This is not to say that the problems in the transfer of learning are attributed to the learning situation, but to demonstrate that by its futuristic element, courses become bound or related to all those expected directly and indirectly to benefit from them. Bearing in mind the activities in the pre-course phase, the learner is likely to concentrate more on the course. He expects favourable attitudes from all and sundry in the back-home dimension. The integration which precedes a course continues as a re-entry process, and the activities are congruent with Argyris's (1964) idea of integrating the individual and his organisation as much as possible.

THE CONCEPT OF 'EXPECTATIONS'

'Expectations' here refers to a set of behaviours or performance standard looked forward to as achievable or to be achieved by an individual or a number of individuals, the standards being related to competence, available time and resources. Because standards are usually set as a basis of performance evaluation, it can be a perceived element of organisational climate. Moreover, since expectations are, in the sense of MELT, expressed in the relationship between a prospective trainee and others, the concept of 'expectations' logically connects with the concepts of 'integration' and 'mutuality'.

MELT therefore helps an obviation of unsupportive and indifferent leadership and workmates, as well as of unawareness of the need to utilise re-entrants' ideas. It demonstrates

that the very expectations of learning transfer in which the boss, others and the re-entrant are involved in expressing can be seen as having the same effect as their being ready for change and asking for change if change is assessed by all as improvemental and workable within available resources.

In his explanation of 'resistance to change', Huse (1980) points out that a boss and others do not resist change if they have specifically asked for it, and that a change proposer is working for a boss and others if they requested proposals. Huse (ibid. pp.118-119), drawing attention to the need for collective involvement, states,

"A proposed change usually affects more than one person; it affects the entire work unit and existing work groups within the unit. Group opposition is usually more than the sum total of the individual oppositions, since the behaviour of work groups is not identical to that of the individuals. There is strength in numbers. In addition, the impact of proposed changes in the group is usually greater than the impact of the change on any one individual."

It will further be recalled that, beside the factor of ignorance and unawareness, the perceived factors stifling learning transfer behaviour are coercive-alienative, that it, undemocratic or Theory X practices. Bennis (1977) has pointed out that one of the problems which create despair in many is how to erect a democratic edifice on bureaucratic

310
foundations. The concepts of integration, mutuality and expectations, built into MELT, could resolve this problem. This ought to be clear from the various processes of the model.

There are empirical and laboratory-type evidences to indicate that the suggested model can help in resolving the learning transfer inhibitors that have emerged from the analysed protocols. Firstly, the Hawthorn studies reported by Madge (1962, pp. 162-209). The mutual expectations set by the observed members of a group of employees for themselves were met by members even in conditions purposely created by external observers to lower or to increase productivity.

The achievement effect of expectations is also inferable from the 'demand characteristics' that surfaced in Orne's (1962) experiment to establish one of the ways in which biases may creep into social psychological researches. Subtle cues were given to subjects on how the experimenter wished them to respond. They did as if they wished to please or satisfy the experimenter. An implication of this study is that if a prospective trainee is given a cue explicitly or, at least, implicitly, that he is expected to suggest useful new ideas on re-entry, and that the ideas would receive consideration, he is likely to find work climate encouraging to the transfer of learning. A possible effect is that he will also be motivated to be attentive in the learning situation in order to garner as much of applicable ideas as possible. Thus, the cue of expectations can have

the benefit not only of making all in the work situation expect learning transfer but also of integrating learning activities with work situation.

Rosenthal (1966) has confirmed a result akin to Orne's though not in the context of demonstrating research sources of bias. His result has become tagged as "Rosenthal effects". On carrying out their study in an educational setting, the same Rosenthal and Jacobson (1968) found that high performance characterised those students whose teachers were given cues of expected high standard, but not those students whose teachers served as control groups. Thus has it got established that expectations tend to be self-fulfilling prophecies. The re-entrant, because of existing expectations, would fulfil the expectations of learning transfer while others in the work place would fulfil the expectation of co-operation.

Livingston (1969) has also analysed the effects of expectations on an insurance company workers, bank and other business institutions. It was consistently demonstrated that employees to whom high expectation is communicated so recognise themselves as highly regarded, appreciated, and set apart from low or non-performers, that they strive to meet the expectations. Livingston concluded that what a manager expects of his subordinates and the way they see that he treats them largely determine their achievement and consequent career progress. A unique characteristic of superior managers is their ability to create high, though attainable, performance expectations which subordinates see as worth fulfilling. On the other hand, less effective managers fail to develop similar expectations and, consequently,

the productivity of their subordinates suffers. Generally subordinates, more often than not, appear to do what they believe is expected of them.

Ends and Page (1977), however, point out that the way expectations are communicated matters in their being fulfilled. They suggest that for a high probability of attainment, expectations have to be mutually negotiated by all concerned; expressed in clearly understood terms and in writing too; and assessed by those concerned as not beyond achievement capability (within available means or resources). Although one need not insist on written expectations, it is generally recognised that expectations produce highest in an atmosphere of mutual confidence.

The message is clear for this study, namely, that a pre-course existence of expectations can help the transferer of learning, especially if learning transfer is a rule in conditions of service. Once the model is applied and the condition of mandatory transfer exists, even the factor of overload will be managed in such a manner that there is time for the application of the model.

It will be recalled that a condition stated as likely to help the practicalisation of the model is the need for the transfer of learning to become one of the provisions of public service conditions of service as stipulated in 'Civil Service Rules.' The importance and the amount of public money reposed on training and development (see Chapter 1) are too great, and the disappointed hope that learning will be transferred too great also, for the initiative in innovative behaviour to be entirely left to the whims of organisational leadership and membership.

It has also been argued in this chapter that one more bureaucratic set of rules on training will not hurt bureaucracy. The provision of mandatory transfer of learning in blue-printed conditions of service would imply that if a re-entrant has no ideas to offer, he has to demonstrate during the re-entry interactions why he has nothing to offer.

This provision amounts to a Theory X policing of training 'a la' McGregor (1960). It is also a borrowing from Burns and Stalker's (1961) concept of mechanistic organisations, equatable with Theory X. Therefore one of the theoretical foundations of MELT is Theory X. Initiative, now taken away from individual re-entrants and from the whims of organisational members and leaders, really belongs to the higher, secondary order in Maslow's (1954) hierarchy of needs and McGregor's (1960) Theory Y concept of achievement motivation. Therefore the transfer of learning, which could be a matter of initiative on the part of individual re-entrants and/or leaders and members, becomes partly a function of Theort X 'side of enterprise'.

Yet, MELT cannot be said to be solely derived from a Theory X type of motivation theory. The very interactions involved in the model indicate the salt of McGregor's Theory Y and Burns and Stalker's (1961, op.cit.) organismic orientation of management practices (which are democratic). They provide a setting in which the re-entrant, unencumbered by those perceived inhibitive climatic factors, may prove that he is an innovator with something to offer for performance

improvement. Taking the centre stage on re-entry, he bathes in a kind of limelight that should be motivating. Effectively put into practice, MELT satisfies Maslow's (1965) Eupsychian Management by which leadership and followership are healthily distributive.

The model is thus based on a blending of both Theory X and Theory Y lines of thinking. It may, because of the Theory X aspect, be contended that anxiety could be generated in the trainee/re-entrant on whether or not his ideas may be ridiculed. This possibility simply means that the application of the model requires a climate devoid of sarcasm in the cases of ideas not considered realistic. It also implies that the re-entrant himself has to be thoroughly analytical in suggesting ideas. Therefore the model is associated with creative anxiety or tension which, according to Fisher's (1974) study of group dynamics, is necessary for effectiveness. Total absence of anxiety or tension may detract from a group's goal and task-maintenance capability. Thus, MELT is also associatable with group dynamics.

There is also, finally, the obvious theory of expectations which requires no elaboration as it is the very heart of the model as already demonstrated.

There are other attributes of MELT which should be stated in passing since those attributes do not point to the exact factors analysed from the protocols. These are that

- (a) since the model requires pre-course interactions of all concerned, there is a compulsion for all to have a close look at the contents of courses and a more

systematic identification of those who should go for training;

(b) it is likely to have a universal appeal where 'democracy' is a societal value;

(c) if the discrepancy in learning transfer were shown to lie in individual re-entrant's personal characteristics, the Theory X side of the model would force (modify) the re-entrant to attempt learning transfer. The model can therefore be applied to more than one dimension of learning transfer difficulties.

(iii) SUMMARY OF CHAPTER 9

This chapter examines possible learning transfer models from which a re-entrant may select to clear the organisational factors which have emerged from the protocol analysis and discussion in Chapter 8. Those models which the writer has classified as revolutionary or qualitative (such as coup, pronunciamiento and compliance) are shown to be inapplicable, being essentially outside the re-entrant's competence. As regards those models classified as evolutionary or quantitative, some, such as various Organisation Development models and Pettigrew's (1976) political model, are also shown to be inapplicable though they contain some elements, like, group involvement, of value to the model later suggested. 'Pulpit' models are demonstrated to be too 'laissez faire' to be of practical usefulness. The closest to what is considered useful to learning transfer is the Weiss, Huczynski and Lewis (1980) and Stiefel (1974) leadership-based model.

However, by not giving equal weight to subordinates' involvement, it leaves a possible gap through which unsupportive or unconsulted organisation members may sabotage transfer effort. MELT, by involving all related work members, is suggested finally as filling the gap, provided the transfer of learning is made mandatory in conditions of service.

SUGGESTED INTERESTS FOR FURTHER STUDIES

Although the use of three dimensions in this study is intended to be as comprehensive as possible while it is borne in mind that too much need not be done in a study, the study cannot claim to have given the final word on learning transfer. It is at least necessary for Nigerians to see whether the findings here can be confirmed elsewhere in the country, may be by concentrating on the private sector organisations which are expected to grab fast any learning likely to enhance profit. If there is a difference, then we shall have had more information to try understanding the nature of public bureaucracies vis-a-vis private.

The model, MELT, suggested here could also be a research theme, that is, an inquiry into its efficacy in those organisations where it is applied. The value of such an exercise would be to confirm the model as an effectiveness and profit-enhancing instrument.

It may have been observed that this is a study of learning transfer problem at re-entry stage, but with the re-entrant asked to regress to the learning situation. It would be interesting to depart from this angle to study the problem at the learning situation stage, that is, analyse what factors are in the minds of prospective re-entrants prior to re-entry on whether or not learning should be transferred. The findings could be useful by themselves or could be revealingly compared to those from the organisational (re-entry) situation angle, such as the present study.

Such a study may also use the phenomenological perspective. It may be contended that the perspective, dealing

with lived experiences, cannot apply to a yet-to-be-lived situation. A reply is that, by imagination, we do live the future. Thus, as illustrated in Shakespeare's 'Julius Caesar', cowards die many times before their death.

Case 4 of the protocols hints at a possible research interest. The re-entrant there had the least management experience of the six cases studied. He revealed that he had only one and a half years of practical management experience. He was also the least appreciative of training techniques or a late starter in appreciating their purpose within their adult context. It is likely to be revealing if the attitudes of more experienced trainees to techniques are compared to those of the less experienced. Such a study could be valuable in the determination of who are to go on training.

Another line of research may be to look for where learning transfer succeeded and to identify why. The phenomenological perspective can be employed in such a study. Findings could be compared to those of this study, with the obvious or implied message for organisational managers to adapt or adopt the transfer - conducive practices of the more positively perceived organisations.

Finally, there are issues of interest, not all that directly related to learning transfer, but hinted as of possible research value. This is in connection with Zaleznik's (1970) analysis of politics in organisational life. That authority shows how coalitions and constituencies could 'organise out' individuals. He triggers off in the writer's mind whether antagonism toward innovation could be related

to coalition hangovers from external environments of organisations, especially those set in multi-ethnic surroundings like Nigeria. A possible revealing research subject could be "Ethno-political Behaviour in Organisations."

NOTES

1. The references in the dramatic poem are to (i) Culbert, S.A. (1974), The Organisation Trap and How to get out of it, New York: Basic Books; (ii) Bion, W.R. (1961), Experiences in Groups, New York: Basic Books; and (iii) Argyris, C. (1973), Intervention Theory and Method, New York : Addison-Wesley.
2. From Federal Government Estimates of 1979, 1980, 1981; 1982 figure is from ASCON's records (file of memos in the office of the Chief Accountant, ASCON, Topo, Badagry).
3. Other authorities who have considered the levels of evaluation of training include Kirkpatrick (1967), Warr, Bird and Rackham (1970) and Hamblin (1974). Kirkpatrick highlights four levels - reactions, learning, job behaviour and results. Warr, Bird and Rackham's equivalent of these are reactions, immediate, intermediate and ultimate. Hamblin, however, recognises five levels - reactions, learning, job behaviour, organisation and ultimate. His distinction is that organisational evaluation has to do with the effects training has on performance beyond an individual trainee, for example, whether leadership training has led to reduced subordinates' absenteeism. On the other hand, ultimate level evaluation pertains to the effect of training on the set objectives of an organisation. Some authorities consider Hamblin's organisation and ultimate levels simply as ultimate or organisation, thus having four instead of five levels. Fig. 2.1, taken from Whitelaw (1972), is clearly a

synthesis of the evaluation levels recognised by the authorities referred to in the first statement of this note.

4. (a) Perception (examples of other definitions):

MacKay, D.K. is shown to state that an organisation's adaptive updating of itself to match environmental pressures is perception. Here is a systems view of organisations as having biological qualities. Using Action Theory or Symbolic Interactionism to criticise this view is beyond our concern. It is enough to say that this definition is confusing for we can perceive without necessarily taking action. Taking action means that the object of action or behaviour has been evaluated, not merely perceived. MacKay's definition is confusing or misleading in that he embodies three different, though often related, components of behaviour -- perception attitude and behaviour or action itself. See this definition p.36 of Locket, M. and Spear R. (eds. 1980), Organisations as Systems, Milton Keynes: The Open Univ. Press. Another unclear definition is G.M. Mead's in Reck, A., ed. (1964), George Herbert Mead : Selected Writings, Indianapolis: Bobbs-Merrill, pp.125-129.

He sees perception as an active response to a problem situation. That Mead's definition is not clear is brought out by his definition of attitude as the beginnings of acts. Since perception itself can be seen as also the beginning of acts, the distinction

from attitude is nebulous. Although in this study, a distinction between both is recognised, both are interchangeably used to avoid a continuous repetition of either or both together in the text.

- (b) As regards 'attitude', that definition adopted in this study is built up from (a) Thurston (1928) who defines 'attitude' as "the intensity of positive or negative affect for or against a psychological object", (b) Krech, D. and Crutchfield, R.S. (1948) who define it as "an enduring organisation of motivational, emotional, perceptual and cognitive process with respect to some aspect of the individual's world", and (c) Rokeach, M. who defines it as "a relatively enduring organisation of beliefs around an object or situation predisposing one to respond in some preferential manner" (all in Sills, D.L., 1966, International Encyclopedia of the Social Sciences, pp.450-457.)
5. Some writers, who concentrate on the learning situation, do not specifically tell us that they are interested in the transfer of learning. Rather they seem to be interested only in making training effective. The question is 'training effectiveness for what purpose?' It is reasonable to say that particularly in the context of adult and practising trainees, the underlying purpose is the transfer of learning.

6. It may sound an unusual organisational change process to state the likelihood that leaders who are irresponsible to ideas can be removed by higher authorities and their places taken by the more responsive or the proponents of the new ideas. It is unusual but it does occur. In Nigeria, very highly placed public servants, particularly under the military, were posted to other jobs, or given weightless assignments. Several were forced to retire earlier than they intended. In the literature, the practice of such staff movement is referred to as the 'Replacement Approach' to organisational change - see Huse, E.F. (1980), Organisation Development and Change, St. Paul, Minnesota: West Publishing Co., pp.27-28.

7. The following quickly presents the change processes described by the cited authorities, though the argument of this writer is that they are not for re-entrants.

Process of Innovation

Milo (1971)	Shepard (1967, p.470)	Hage and Aiken (1970, p.113)
1. Conceptualisation	1. Idea generation	1. Evaluation
2. Tentative Adoption	2. Adoption	2. Initiation
3. Resource Getting	3. Implementation	3. Implementation
4. Implementation		4. Routinisation
5. Institutionalisation		

Wilson 1966

1. Conception of the Change
2. Proposing of change
3. Adoption and Implementation

Zaltman, Duncan and Holbek

- I. Initiation stage
 1. Knowledge-awareness substage
 2. Formation of attitudes toward the innovation substage
 3. Decision substage
- II. Implementation stage
 1. Initial implementation substage
 2. Continued-sustained implementation substage

Summary of organisation-oriented models of the innovation process : from p.62 Zaltman, et al.(1973)

<u>Lippitt et al</u> (1958, pp.91-125)	<u>Argyris</u> (1970, pp.12-31)	<u>Beckhard</u> (1959 pp. 15-19)	<u>Kahnemann and S Schild</u> (1966, p.73)
1. Diagnosis of problem	1. Generation of valid data within client system	1.Initial contact by client system	1. Determine whose behaviour is to be changed
2. Assessment of client systems motivation and capacity to change	2. Generation of free and informed choice on part of organisational	2.Defining the problem and establishing the relationship	2. Determining what groups and individuals are likely to play roles in resistance or change processes
3. Assessment of change agent's motivation and resources			

Lippitt et al (1958) pp. 91-125	Argyris (1970)pp. 16-31	Beckhard (1959) pp. 15-19	Kahnemann and S. Schild (1966, p.73)
4. Selecting appropriate objectives	members in affairs of organis-	3. Planning first action step	3. Determine for each key person what are the determinants of
5. Choosing appropriate helping role	ation 3. Helping client	4. Assessment of effects	his response to change
6. Establishing and maintain- ing of re- lationship with the client system	system members develop internal commitment to change process	5. Replanning and re-estab- lishing the relation- ship	4. Determine structure of personal in- fluence in change target system
7. Recognising, guiding the phases of change			5. Determine for each individual in system what can reduce resisting forces for change
8. Choosing appropriate specific techniques and modes of behaviour			6. Evaluation of whether change can be obtained within reasonable time and cost

Change agent - interventionist tasks as specified by change theorists : from p.68 Zaltman, et al (ibid).

8. The efficacy of rules in a public bureaucracy is noteable in the introduction and use of PPBS in Nigeria. This technique (of zero-based accounting or budgeting was recommended by the Udoji Commission (Fulton equivalent) in 1974: it was accepted by the Nigerian governments. The Administrative Staff College of Nigeria immediately moved into the action of showing public servants how to do it. PPBS, however, remained unadopted until the President's directive, which became a budgetary regulation, compelled compliance from 1981, that is, seven years after the practice was formally accepted under the military. Whether PPBS is being implemented with expertise or not is outside the question. That it is being effected is the reality. It would thus appear that, whether a public service organisation has an authoritarian or democratic culture, an effect of regulations or rules is a cross-cultural harmonisation. This is not to say that compliance behaviour would necessarily be seen as having a causal link with rules; rather it is to say that behaviour can be rule-following (Ryan, 1970) because just as a society or cultural group may evolve behavioural rules over time and people obey them, so a public service with its servants may do.

B I B L I O G R A P H Y

- Adebayo, F. (1981), "Efficiency in the Public Service", a paper presented at the Lagos State Government Second Top Management Seminar on 'Effective Leadership in Action' (25th-29th November, Lagos).
- Ajileye, J.A. (1981), "Training Administration in the Federal Public Service, "A paper delivered at ASCON Manpower Development and Training Course (January) obtainable in Functional Management Studies Dept. as a monograph
- Allner, D. and Teire, J. (1978) "Developing Experiential Learning", Journal of European Industrial Training, Vol.2, No.1, pp.4-10.
- Allport, G.W. (1961), Patterns and Growth in Personality, London: Holt, Rinehart and Winston.
- Alper, T.G. (1952), "The interrupted task method in studies of selective recall", Psychological Review, 59 p.71-88.
- Alper, T.G. (1946), "Memory for completed and incompletd tasks as a function of personality", Journal of Abnormal & Social Psychology, Vol.41, pp.403-421.
- Andreski, S. (1972), Social Science as Sorcery, New York : St. Martins
- Andrew, K.R. (1957) "Is Management Training Effective", Harvard Business Review, XXXY, 2, pp.63-72

- Argyris, C. (1973), Intervention Theory and Method, New York: Addison-Wesley
- Argyris, C. (1964), Integrating the Individual and the Organization, New York : John Wiley and Sons
- Ayer, A.J. (1964), Language, Truth and Logic, Hammondsworth, Middlesex: Penguin Books
- Bannister, D. and Fransella, F. (1980), Inquiring Man: the psychology of personal constructs, Hammondsworth, Middlesex: Penguin Books
- Baumgartel, H. and Jeanpierre, F. (1972), "Applying new knowledge in the back-home setting; a study of Indian managers' adoptive effort", Journal of Applied Behavioural Science, Vol.8, No.6, pp. 674-694
- Baumgartel, H. Sullivan, G. and Dunn, E. (1978a), "What are the characteristics of effective management development programmes?" Kansas Business Review 2, 2, pp.1-5.
- Baumgartel, H., Sullivan, G. and Dunn, L. (1978b), "Management education, Company climate and innovation", Journal of General Management, 4, 2, pp.17-26
- Belbin, E. and Belbin, R.H. (1972), Problems in Adult Learning, London : Heinemann
- Bendix, R. (1960), Marx Weber : an intellectual portrait, London : Heinemann
- Bennis, W.G. and Slater, P.E. (1968), The Temporary Society, New York : Harper and Row

- Bennis, W.G. (1977), "Bureaucracy and Social Change:
an anatomy of a training failure" in Marvis,
P.H. and Berg, D.N. (eds.), Failures in
Organisational Development and Change, New York:
John Wiley and Sons
- Berelson, B. and Steiner, G.A. (1964), Human Behaviour:
an inventory of scientific findings, New York :
Harcourt, Brace and World
- Berger, P.L. and Luckmann, T. (1971), The Social Construction
of Reality, Hammondsworth, Middlesex : Penguin
- Berlin, I. (1954), Historical Inevitability, London: Oxford
University Press
- Binsted, D. and Stuart, R. (1979), "Designing Reality into
management learning events, I" Personnel Review
Vol.8, No.3 (Summer), pp.1-19.
Part II in same journal, No.4 (Autumn)pp.5-8;
Part III in same journal, Vol.9, No.1 (Winter)
pp.12-18.
- Bion, W.R. (1961), Experiences in Groups, New York: Basic Books
- Blake, R. and Mouton, J.S. (1964), The Managerial Grid,
Houston, Texas : Gulf Publishing Co.
- Blau, P.M. (1964), Exchange and Power in Social Life,
New York : John Wiley and Sons
- Bloom, B.S. (1965), Taxonomy of Educational Objectives:
the classification of educational goals, London:
Longmans

- Blumer, H. (1969), Symbolic Interactionism : perspectives and methods, Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall
- Bobbitt, H.R., Breinholt, R.H., Docktor, R.H., and McNaul, J.P. (1978) Organisational Behaviour: understanding and prediction, Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall.
- Boddy, D. (1981), Putting Action Learning into Action, Bradford: MCB Publications
- Boettinger, H.M. (1971), The Impact of Change, London: British Institute of Management.
- de Bono, E. (1969), Mechanism of Mind, Hammondsworth : Penguin
- Bowers, D.G. and Seashore, S.E. (1967) "Peer Leadership within workgroups", Personnel Administration, 30 (5), pp.45-50
- Boydell, T. (1971), A Guide to the Identification of Training Needs, London : BACIE
- Bradford, L.P. (1958), "The Teacher-Learning Transaction, Adult Education, Vol.8, No.III (Spring), pp.18-24.
- Brown, D.S. (1980), "Power problems at the managerial level", Journal of European Industrial Training, Vol. 4, pp.26-30.
- Brown, J.A.C. (1954) The Social Psychology of Industry, Hammondsworth, Middlesex: Penguin Books
- Burgoyne, J.G. (1975), "Toward an evaluation of a business school graduate programme", OMEGA: The International Journal of Management Science Vol.3, No.4, pp.475-486.

- Burgoyne, J.G. (1974) "The judgement process in Management students' evaluation of their learning experiences"
Human Relations, Vol.28, No.6, pp.543-549
- Burgoyne, J.G. and Hodgson, V. (1982), "An experiential approach to understanding managerial action,"
a paper presented at the Seventh Biennial
Conference in Leadership and Managerial
Behaviour, Oxford.
- Burns, T. and Stalker, G.M. (1961), The Management of Innovation;
London: Tavistock
- Campbell, J.P., Dunnette, M.D., Lawler III, E.E., and Weick
K.E. (1970), Managerial Behaviour, Performance
and Effectiveness, New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Cantril, H. (1972), "Perception and Interpersonal Relations",
in Nord, W.R. (ed.), Concepts and Controversy
in Organisational Behaviour, Pacific Palisades,
California: Goodyear Publishing Co., pp.26-35.
- Carr, E.H. (1981), What is History? Hammondsworth, Middlesex:
Penguin Books.
- Cartwright, D.P. (1950), "Emotional dimensions of group life",
in Reymert, M.L. (ed.), Feelings and Emotions ,
New York: McGraw-Hill, pp.439-447.
- Cattell, R.B. (1965), The Scientific Analysis of Personality,
Hammondsworth, Middlesex: Penguin Books.

- Chamberlain, J.C. (1974) "Phenomenological methodology and Understanding education" in Denton, D.E. (ed.) Existentialism and Phenomenology in Education New York: Teachers College Press, pp.119-138.
- Church, R.M. (1963), "The varied effects of punishment on behaviour", Psychological Review, Vol.70, No.5, pp.369-380.
- Cicourel, A.V. (1973), Cognitive Sociology, Hammondsworth, Middlesex: Penguin Books.
- Coe, R.M. and Barnhill, E.A. (1967) "Social Dimensions of Failure in Innovation", Human Organisations, 26, No.3 (Fall), pp.149-156.
- Cohen, M.R. and Nagel, E. (1934), Introduction to Logic and Scientific Method, London: Ronteledge and Kegan Paul.
- Collingwood, R.G. (1962), The Idea of History, Oxford: Clarendon Press.
- Conference Board (1969), Behavioural Science: Concepts and Management Application, New York: The Conference Board.
- Copi, I.M. (1961), Introduction to Logic, New York: MacMillan
- Cotgrove, S. (1975), The Science of Society, London: George Allen and Unwin.
- Culbert, S.A. (1974), The Organisation Trap and How to get out of it, New York: Basic Books

- Cyert, R.M. and March, J.G. (1963), A Behavioural Theory of the Firm, Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall.
- Dalton, M. (1950), "Conflict between staff and Line Managerial Officers", American Sociological Review, 15, pp.342-351.
- Davies, J. (1972) "A Study of Hospital Management in its Context", Manchester: Manchester Business School Centre for Business Research - a mimeo
- Doob, L.W. (1947), "The Behaviour of Attitudes", Psychological Review, 54, pp.135-156.
- Drever, J. (1972), A Dictionary of Psychology, Hammondsworth, Middlesex : Penguin Books.
- Easterby-Smith, M. (1980), How to use Repertory Grid in HRD, Bradford, MCB Publications.
- Eckstein, H. and Gurr, T.R. (1975), Patterns of Authority: a structural basis for political enquiry, New York: John Wiley and Sons
- Emery, F.E. and Trist, E.L. (1965), "The causal texture of organisational environments", Human Relations Vol.18, No.1, pp.21-32
- Ends, E.J. and Page C.W. (1977), Organisational Team Building, Cambridge, Massachusetts: Winthrop Publishers.

- Eriksen, C.W. (1952), "Defence against ego-threat in memory and perception", Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology, 47, pp.230-235.
- Etzioni, A. (1961), A Comparative Analysis of Complex Organisations, New York: The Free Press
- Eysenck, H.J. and Wilson, G. (1975), Know your Own Personality, Hammondsworth, Middlesex: Penguin Books.
- Farber, M. (1966), The Aims of Phenomenology, New York: Harper and Row.
- Fear, R.A. (1973), The Evaluation Interview, New York: McGraw-Hill
- Festinger, L. (1957), A Theory of Cognitive Dissonance, Stanford University Press.
- Fisher, B.A. (1974), Small Group Decision Making: Communication and the group process, Process, New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Fleishman, E.A., Harris, E.P. and Burt, H.E. (1955) Leadership and Supervision: an evaluation of a supervisory training program, Columbus: Ohio State University Bureau of Educational Research
- Forehand, G.A. and Gilmer, B.V.H. (1964), "Environmental variation in studies of Organizational Behaviour", Psychology Bulletin, 62, pp.361-382.
- French, W.L. and Bell, C.A. (1973), Organisation Development: behavioural science interventions for organisational improvement, Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall.

- French, J.P.R. and Raven, B. (1959), "The basis of social power", in Cartwright, D. (ed.), Studies in Social Power, Ann Arbor: Michigan University pp.150-165.
- Garner, R.A. (1977), Social Change, Chicago: Rand MacNally College Publishing Co.
- Gavin, J.F. (1975), "Organisation Climate as a function of personal and organisational variables", Journal of Applied Psychology, No.1, Vol.60, pp.135-139
- Gibb, J.R. (1964)a, "Climate for trust formation" in Bradford, L.F. Gibb, J.R. and Kenneth D. (eds.), T-Group Theory and Laboratory method, New York: John Wiley and Sons, pp.270-309.
- Gibb, J.R. (1964b) "Defensive Communication" in Levitt, H.J. and Pondy, L. (eds.) Readings in Managerial Psychology, Chicago University Press, pp.242-249
- Golstein, A.P. and Sorcher, M. (1974), Changing Supervisor Behaviour, New York: Pergamon
- Gross, M. Giacquinto, J.B. and Bernstein, M. (1971) Implementing Organisational Innovation: a sociological analysis of planned change, New York: Basic Books.
- Hage, J. and Aiken, M. (1970), Social Change in Complex Organisations, New York: Random House.
- Hagen, E.E. (1962), On the Theory of Social Change, Homewood, Illinois: Dorsey Press
- Hague, H. (1973), Management Training for Real, London: Institute of Personnel Management.

- Hamblin, A.C. (1970), "Evaluation of Training", Industrial Training International, V, II, pp.33-36.
- Hamblin, A.C. (1974), Evaluation and Control of Learning, London, McGraw-Hill.
- Harper, W.M. (1980), Statistics, Plymouth: McDonald and Evans.
- Harvey, J.B. (1974), "The Abilene Paradox", Organisational Dynamics, Vol.3, No.1 (Summer), pp.63-80.
- Harvey, J.B. (1975), "Eight myths O.D. consultants believe in...and die by", O.D. Practitioner Vol.7, No.1 pp.1-5.
- Havelock, R.G. (1970), Planning for Innovation, Ann Arbor: University of Chicago Centre for Research on Utilisation of Scientific Knowledge.
- Herzberg, F., Mausner, B., and Synderman, B. (1959) The Motivation to Work, New York: John Wiley and Sons.
- Hilgard, E.R. (1962), Introduction to Psychology, New York: Harcourt, Brace and World.
- Holding, D.H., (1965), Principles of Learning, Oxford: Pergamon Press
- Hoveland, C.J., Janis, I.L., and Kelly H.H. (1953), Communication and Persuasion, New Haven, Connecticut: Yale University Press.
- Huczynski, A.A. (1977), "Organisational Climate and the Transfer of Learning", BACIE Journal, Vol.3, No.6

- Huczynski, A.A. (1983a), "Grasping a grand mixture of methods," The Times (of London) of 25th March, 1983, p.27.
- Huczynski, A.A. (1983b) Encyclopaedia of Management Development Methods, Aldershot: Gower Publishing Co.
- Huczynski, A.A. (1983c) "Framework for the analysis of management learning methods: description of the elements ", Personnel Review, Vol.12, No.1. Also see Part II of the article in the same journal No.2.
- Huczynski, A.A. and Buchanan, D.A. (1982), "Management Development and Social Science: complementary or conflicting endeavours," Management Education and Development, 3, Vol.13, .
- Huczynski, A.A. and Lewis J. (19) "The influence of organisational variables on management training transfer" Journal of Enterprise Management Vol.2, pp.27-35.
- Huse, E.F. (1980), Organisation Development and Change, New York: West Publishing Co.
- Isaac, S. and Michael, W.B. (1971) Handbook in Research and Evaluation, San Diego, California: Robert M Knapp.
- James, L.R. and Jones, A.P. (1974) "Organisation Climate: a review of theory and practice", Psychology Bulletin, Vol.81 No.12 pp.1086-1112

- Jennifer, R.C. (1977), Adult Learning, Milton Keynes:
The Open University Press.
- Johnson, Jr., H.R. (1974) "Some personality correlates between
individuals and organisations", Journal of
Applied Psychology, Vol.59, No.5, pp.623-632.
- Jones, D. and Huczynski, A.A. (1974) The identification of
diffuse effects of management education",
Industrial Training International, Vol.9,
No.9, pp.280-282.
- Kattsoff, L.O. and Simone, A.J. (1965) Finite Mathematics ,
New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Katz, D. and Kahn, R.L. (1966), The Social Psychology of
Organisations, New York : John Wiley and Sons.
- Katz, D. and Stotland, E. (1959), "A Preliminary statement
to a theory of attitude structure and change"
in Koch, S. (ed.) Psychology: a study of
science III, New York: McGraw-Hill, pp.423-475.
- Kelly, G.A. (1955), The Psychology of Personal Constructs,
New York: Norton
- Kelman, H.C. (1961). "The Processes of Opinion Change",
Public Opinion Quarterly, 25, pp.57-58.
- Kemfer, H. (1955) Adult Education, New York: McGraw-Hill
- Keyhoe, P.T. and Reddin, W.G. (1970) Organisational Health
Survey, Fredericton, Canada: Organisational
Tests Ltd.

- Kiesler, C.A., Collins, B.E. and Miller, N. (1969),
Attitude Change, New York : John Wiley & Sons
- Kirkpatrick , D.L. (1976) "Evaluation of Training" in
Craig, R.L. (ed.) Training and Development Handbook
pp.18.1-18.27.
- Klein, J.F. (1963) Working with Groups, London: Hutchinson & Co
- Kneale, W. (1949) Probability and Induction, London :
Clarendon Press
- Knowles, M.S. (1978), The Adult Learner: a neglected species,
London : Gulf Publishing Co.
- Knowles, M.S. (1970) The Modern Practice of Adult Education,
New York: Association Press.
- Knox, A.B. and Sjogren, D. (1965) "Research on Adult
Learning", Adult Education (Spring), pp.133-137
- Koffka, K. (1935) Principles of Gestalt Psychology, New York:
Harcourt, Brace and World.
- Kohak, E. (1978) Idea and Experience, Chicago: University of
Chicago Press.
- Laird, D. (1978) Approaches to Training and Development,
Reading, Massachusetts: Addison-Wesley.
- Lamont, L.M. and Lundstrom, W.J. (1977) "Identifying successful
industrial salesmen by personality and personal
characteristics", Journal of Marketing Research,
Vol. xiv (Nov.) pp.517-529.
- Lasswell, D. and Kaplan, A. (1950), Power and Society,
New Haven, Connecticut: Yale University Press.

- Lauer, R.H. and Handel, W.H. (1977) Social Psychology: the theory and application of symbolic interactionism, Boston: Houghton-Mifflin Co.
- Lawman, E.O., Siegel, P.M. and Hodge R.W. (1970), The Logic of Social Hierarchies, Chicago: Markham
- Lawrence, P.R. and Lorsch, J.W. (1967) Organisation and Environment, Boston: Harvard University.
- Lewin, K. (1948) Resolving Social Conflicts, New York Harper and Row.
- Lewis, H.D. (1965) Philosophy of Religion, London: The English University Press
- Likert R. (1967) The Human Organisation: its management and value, New York : McGraw-Hill.
- Likert, R. (1961), New Patterns of Management, New York: McGraw-Hill
- Lippitt, G.L. (1969) Organisational Renewal, Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall.
- Lippitt, G.L. (1960) "Organisational Climate and Individual Growth", Personnel Administration, Vol.23, No.5, pp.16-20.
- Litwin, G.H. and Stringer, Jr. R.A. (1968) Motivation and Organisational Climate, Boston: Harvard University Press.
- Livingston, J.S. (1969) "Pygmalion in Management", Harvard Business Review, July-Aug., pp.102-110.
- Luttwak, E. (1968) Coup d'etat, Hammondsworth, Middlesex; Penguin Books.

- MacIver, R.M. (1947) The Web of Government, New York:
MacMillan.
- MacLeod, R.B. (1968) "Phenomenology", in Sills, D.L. (ed.)
International Encyclopedia of the Social
Sciences, Vol.12, New York: MacMillan and
The Free Press, pp.68-73.
- Macquarrie, J. (1973) Existentialism, Hammondsworth, Middlesex:
Penguin Books
- Madge, J. (1962) The Origins of Scientific Sociology,
New York : Free Press.
- Mahler, W.R. (1953) "Evaluation of Management Development
Programmes", Personnel XXX, 2, pp.116-122;
- March, J.G. and Simon, H.A. (1958) Organisations, New York:
John Wiley and Sons
- Maslow, A. (1965) Eupsychian Management, Homewood,
Illinois: Richard D. Irvin.
- Maslow, A. (1954) Motivation and Personality, New York:
Harper.
- McGregor, D. (1960) The Human Side of Enterprise, New York:
McGraw-Hill.
- Megginson, D. and Pedler, M. (1976) "Developing Structures
and Technology for the Learning Community",
Journal of European Industrial Training, 5,
pp.262-274.
- Merton, R.K. (1968, Social Theory and Social Structure, New
York: The Free Press.

- Merton, R.K. (1962) "Bureaucratic Structure and Personality" in Etzioni, A. (ed.), Complex Organisations: a sociological reader, New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, pp.48-61.
- Meyer, H.H. (1968) "Achievement Motivation and Industrial Climate" in Taguiri, R. and Litwin, G.H. (eds.) Organisational Climate: exploration of a concept. Boston : Harvard University Press.
- Miles, M.B. (1959), Learning to work in Groups; a program guide for educational leaders, New York: Columbia University Teachers College Bureau of Publications.
- Milgram, S. (1974) Obedience to Authority: an experimental view, London : Tavistock
- Miller, G.A. (1979) Psychology: the science of mental life, Hammondsworth, Middlesex: Penguin Books.
- Miller, H.L. (1964) Teaching and Learning in Adult Education, New York : MacMillan.
- Monte, C. (1977) Beneath the Mask, New York : Praeger Publishers.
- Morse, C.J. and Lorsch, J.W. (1964) "Beyond Theory Y" in Leavitt, H.J. and Pondy, E.R. (eds.) Readings in Managerial Psychology, Chicago University of Chicago Press, pp.339-412.
Also in May-June (1964) Harvard Business Review.
- Murray, H.A. (1962) Explorations in Personality, London; John Wiley and Sons.
- Nadler, L. (1970), Developing Human Resources, Houston, Texas: Gulf Publishing Co.

Nord, W. (1972), "Beyond the teaching machine" in Nord, W.

(ed.) Concepts and Controversy in Organisational Behaviour, Pacific Palisades, California: Goodyear Publishing Co., pp.151-174

Nylen, D.J. (1967) Handbook of Staff Development and Human Resource Training, Washington D.C. : National Training Laboratories

O'Connor, D.J. and Powel, B. (1980) Elementary Logic, New York: McKay and Co.

Odiorne, G.S. (1964) "The need for economic approach to training", Journal of the American Society for Training Directors, XVIII, 3, pp.3-12.

Orne, M.T. (1962) "On the social psychology of the psychological experiment with particular reference to demand characteristics", The American Psychologist, 17, pp.776-783.

Payne, R. and Mansfield, R. (1978), "Correlates of Individual perception of organisation climates", Journal of Occupational Psychology, 51, pp.209-218

Pedler, M. (1978), "Negotiating skills training, Part A" Journal of European Industrial Training, Vol.2, No.1, pp.20-25.

Perrow, C. (1970) Organisational Analysis : a sociological view, London : Tavistock.

Perrow, C. (1972) Complex Organisations: a critical essay, Glenview : Scott Foresman.

- Pettigrew, A.M. (1976) "Toward a political theory of organisational innovation" Human Relations, Vol.28, No.3, pp.191-208 .
- Pigours, P. (1976) "Case Method" in Craig, R.L. (ed.) Training and Development Handbook, New York: McGraw-Hill, Chapter 35.
- Porter, L.W. and Lawler, E.E. (1968) Managerial Attitudes and Performance, Irwin-Drosey
- Pritchard, R.D. and Karasick, B.W. (1973), "The effects of organisational climate on managerial job satisfaction", Organisational Behaviour and Performance, 9, pp.126-146.
- The Public Service Review Commission (1974), Report of, Lagos : Government Printer.
- Pugh, D.S. (1965), "T-Group Training", in Whitaker, G.F. (ed.), T-Group Dynamics in Management Education, Oxford: Blackwell.
- Pym, D. (1968) "Organisational Evaluation and Management Training", Journal of Management Studies, Vol.5, No.2, p.167.
- Pym, D. (1966) "Effective managerial performance in organisational change", Journal Managerial Studies 3, 1 (Feb.1, pp.73-78).
- Reber, R.W. and Jerry, G.E. (1975) Behavioural Insight for Supervision, Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall.
- Read, W. (1962) "Upward Communication in Industrial Hierarchies" Human Relations, 15, pp.3-15.

- Reilly, W.C. (1979), Training Administrators for Development
London : Heinemann
- Rice, A.K. (1958), Productivity and Social Organisation,
London : Tavistock.
- Robertson, I. (1979) "Applying psychological research to
training practice," Journal of European
Industrial Training, Vol.2, No.7, pp.17-20
- Rosenberg, M. (1965), Society and Adolescent Self-image,
Princeton, New Jersey : Princeton University Press.
- Rosenthal, R. (1966) Experimenter Effects in Behavioural
Research, New York : Appleton - Century - Crofts.
- Rosenthal, R. and Jacobson, L. (1968) Pygmalion in the Classroom,
London : Holt, Rinehart and Winston.
- Ryan, A. (1970) The Philosophy of the Social Sciences,
London : MacMillan.
- Scheibelhut, J.H. and Albaum, G. (1973), "Self-other orientations
among salesmen and non-salesmen", Journal of
Marketing Research, Vol.X (Feb.) pp.97-99.
- Schneider, B. (1973) "The perception of organisational
climate: The customers view", Journal of Applied
Psychology, 57, pp.248-256.
- Schneider, B and Bartlett, C.J. (1970), Individual differences
and organisational climate : measurement of
organisational climate by multi-trait, multi-
rater matrix", Personal Psychology, 23, pp.493-512.
- Schermernhorn, R. (1965) Society and Power, New York;
Random House
- Schutz, A. (1972) The Phenomenology of the Social World,
London : Heinemann - translated by G. Walsh and
F. Lehnert.

- Sherif, M. and Hovland, C.I. (1961) Social Judgement: assimilation and contrast effects, New Haven, Connecticut : Yale University Press.
- Sherif, M. and Sherif, C.W. (1953) Groups in Harmony and Tension, New York : Harper and Brothers.
- Sherif, C.W., Sherif, M. and Nebergall, R.E. (1965) Attitude and Attitude Change: the social judgement - involvement approach, Philadelphia : W.B. Saunders Co.
- Shibutani, T. (1973) "On the personification of the adversary" in Shibutani, T. (ed.) Human Nature and Collective Behaviour : papers in honour of Herbert Blumer, New Brunswick New Jersey : Transaction Press, pp.223-233.
- Silverman, D. (1970), The Theory of Organisations, London: Heinemann
- Sims, Jr. H.P. and Lafolette, W. (1975) "An assessment of the Litwin and Stringer Organisation Climate Questionnaire", Personnel Psychology, 28, pp.19-28.
- Skinner, B.F. (1953) Science and Human Behaviour, New York: The Free Press
- Soneye, M. Ade. (1979) Report and Recommendations on the Role of ASCON in the Public Service, Topo, Badagry: ASCON, Office of the Director-General.
- Sorel, G. (1969) The Illusion of Progress, Berkley, California : University of California Press - translated from the French by Stanley, J. and Stanley C.

- Sperling, A. (1982) Psychology, London : Heinemann .
- Stern, G.G. (1970), People In Context, New York : John Wiley and Sons; or Syracuse : Syracuse University Psychological Research Center.
- Stiefel, R.J. (1974) "Learning Transfer Strategies in Management Training" Journal of European Industrial Training, 3, 1 pp.13-25.
- Stogdill, R.M. (1974) Handbook of Leadership: a survey of theory and research, New York : The Free Press
- Stufflebaum, D. (1967) "The use and abuse of evaluation", Theory and Practice 6, pp.126-133
- Suchman, E. (1967) Evaluative Research, New York: Russel Sage.
- Tannenbaum, A.S., Kavic, B., Rosner, M., and Vianello, M. (1974), Hierarchy in Organisations, San Francisco: Jossey-Bass Publications
- Taylor, C.W. (1972) "Can organisations be creative too?" in Taylor, C.W. (ed.) Climate for Creativity: report of the Seventh National Conference on Creativity, New York : Pergamon Press, pp.1-22.
- Thompson, V.A. (1961) Modern Organisations, New York: Knopf.
- Toffler, A. (1980), The Third Wave, London; Pan Books.
- Toffler, A. (1971), Future Shock, London: Pan Books.
- Trist, E.L. and Bamforth, K.W. (1951), "Some social and psychological consequences of the long-wall method of coal-getting", Human Relations, Vol.4, No.1, pp.3-38
- Vernon, M.D. (1969), Human Motivation, Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

- Vroom, V.H. (1964) "The nature of the relationship between motivation and performance", in Vroom, V.H. and Deci, E.L. (eds.) Management and Motivation, Hammondsworth, Middlesex : Penguin Books, pp.229-236.
- Warr, P., Bird, M. and Rackham, N. (1970) Evaluation of Management Training, Westmead, England: Gower Press.
- Warren, R.L. (1977) Social Change and Human Purpose: toward understanding and action, Chicago: Rand McNally College Publishing Co.
- Weber, M. (1962) "The three types of legitimate rule", in Etzioni, A. (ed.), Complex Organisations: a sociological reader, New York : Holt, Rinehart and Winston, pp.4-14.
- Weiss, E., Huczynski, A.A. and Lewis, J.W. (1980) "The Supervisor's role in learning transfer" Journal of European Industrial Training 4, 4, pp.17-20.
- White, S. and Mitchell, T. (1976) "Organisation Development: a review of research content and research design", Academy of Management, Review 1, 2, (April) pp.57-73.
- Whitelaw, M. (1972) The Evaluation of Management Training : a Review, London: IPM
- Wilensky, H.L. (1967) "The failure of intelligence: knowledge and policy in government and industry", in Porter, L.W. and Roberts, K.H. (eds.), Communication in Organisations, Hammondsworth, Middlesex: Penguin Books, pp.118-131.

- Willer, D. and Zollschan, G.K. (1964) "Prolegomenon to a theory of revolutions", in Zollschan, G.K. and Hirsch, W. (eds.) Explorations in Social Change, London: Routledge & Kegan Paul, pp.130-135.
- Wolle, C.P. (1968) A Survey of training needs in the Public Service in Nigeria, Lagos : Ministry of Information, Government Printer.
- Wu, C.Y. (1979) "Public Administration for national development: problems, challenges and strategies for the 80s", a paper presented at the International Colloquium in Public Administration, Quebec, Canada (May)
- Zaleznik, A. (1970) "Power and Politics in Organisational Life", Harvard Business Review, May-June, pp.1-14
- Zaltman, G., Duncan, R. and Holbeck, J. (1973) Innovation and Organisations, New York: John Wiley and Sons
- Zimbardo, P. and Ebbesen, E. (1970) Influencing Attitudes and Changing Behaviour, Reading, Massachusetts: Addison-Wesley.