CHAPTER 6

THE ROLE OF HUMAN RESOURCE MANAGEMENT

INTRODUCTION

The message from earlier chapters would seem to suggest that most real learning in organizations takes place in informal, on-the-job settings, where individuals learn with and from each other. This is partly true. In addition, however, important contributions are made by formal, off-the-job interventions and formal job-based learning opportunities such as those found in communities of practice and action learning sets. Indeed even where individuals attend formal off-the-job programmes, there is often much work still to be done to make sure that learning actually gets applied back in the workplace. In whatever way learning occurs, it is likely that it will be made easier through support and monitoring on the part of the organization. This is where the role of the Human Resources (HR) department is significant. This department can influence (for better or for worse, it has to be said) the degree to which learning in organizations is created, retained and transferred. As such, its contribution will be discussed in detail here. Before discussing the specific areas in which HR policies can contribute, we shall first look at what has been said concerning the role of HR in organizational effectiveness in general.

HR CHALLENGES

According to Thite (2004), HR has a vital role in helping to harness the knowledge that flows through the organization. The very nature of this knowledge, often tacit, acquired informally and not necessarily related to organizational goals, can make this quite a challenge. Issues such as culture (internal) and the competitive environment (external) can further complicate matters. Furthermore, measuring the contribution of HR in this regard is difficult, given its personalized and context-dependent nature, so that decisions about where to invest resources are not always easy ones.

Amongst all those challenges, Storey and Quintas (2001) identify five that are particularly relevant in the so-called knowledge economy. They are: developing and sustaining a knowledge- and innovation-centric culture; accessing tacit

knowledge; securing trust and commitment; handling non-traditional employees, and organizational vulnerabilities such as heavy dependence on key knowledge workers. Currie and Kerrin (2003) add that unwillingness of employees to share knowledge with others is also a critical factor in influencing the contribution of HR practices to organizational learning. Some of these issues have already been discussed in previous chapters.

In broad terms, Thite suggests some HR strategies that need to be introduced and cultivated. First, there is a need for a 'trusting HR philosophy', an environment in which employees and managers trust each other and treat each other fairly. Second, the notion of 'learning to learn' needs to become part of the fabric of the organization. To this end, competencies that enable people to self-manage and self-develop, to work in teams and to think in different ways need to be developed. Third, HR systems that are knowledge-oriented and that are designed to promote a learning environment need to be in place, in order to help build up the organization's knowledge stocks.

HRM AND ORGANIZATIONAL PERFORMANCE

Much reference has been made throughout this book and others to the particular organizational needs thrown up by the knowledge economy, and the consequent individual needs of knowledge workers. Although it can be argued that all workers are now knowledge workers (Nonaka and Takeuchi 1995), nevertheless organizations must create conditions in which the experience, insights and other contributions to learning of all organization members are brought into the open, where they can become a source of competitive advantage. As discussed earlier, this requires the development and maintenance of a 'learning climate'. One way in which this process might be got underway is by entering into a 'psychological contract' with employees in which they generate and share knowledge in return for the opportunity to develop their professional skills in a meaningful way (Thite 2004). In return for trust in the individual's capabilities, the organization gets commitment. Of course this relationship also needs to work in the opposite direction.

TRUST AND COMMITMENT

At a general level, it would appear that the way in which HR practices encourage organizational learning is by working to create an organizational social climate in which employees are motivated to act in the best interests of the organization, rather than focusing purely on self-interest. In effect, this is about generating *commitment* to the organization and its way of doing business, rather than *compliance* with its rules and regulations. This makes sense: indeed a review of

the literature by Hislop (2002) identifies a number of studies that support the links. For example, commitment has been linked to turnover intentions, with the none-too-surprising conclusion that the higher the level of commitment, the less the desire to leave the organization. In addition, links have also been established with 'affective commitment', (in practice a sense of loyalty to the job) which in turn has consequences for the amount of 'controllable absence' of employees. Affective commitment also seems to make a difference in terms of the amount of effort people put into their jobs, and indeed their motivation to take on other tasks.

There are practical implications for generating and maintaining organizational commitment. The commitment of an individual to their organization is certainly facilitative of knowledge-sharing. A second implication, in relation to turnover, is that the longer the same individual stays with the organization, the more organizationally relevant and useful knowledge they gather and which they can share. So the consequences of commitment are that not only are employees better at sharing knowledge with others, but they are also around longer to do so. Of course the other side of commitment is trust. Unless individuals have trust in their organization and how it deals with them they will not be inclined to share the knowledge (particularly tacit knowledge) they have built up.

THE PSYCHOLOGICAL CONTRACT

The reasons for any individual's commitment to the organization in which they work are no doubt personal and therefore difficult to predict. Nevertheless, one issue which has been linked to commitment is a mutual arrangement described as the 'psychological contract', essentially the perceptions held by the employee and the organization about what each expects from the other. It is different from a typical employment contract, in that these mutual expectations are rarely written down. According to Hislop the contract is usually about fairness, trust and 'delivering on the deal'.

HRM FACTORS AFFECTING ORGANIZATIONAL LEARNING

Within the literature, a number of sets of organizational HRM practices are put forward as facilitative of organizational knowledge-sharing and learning. For example, Cabrera and Cabrera (2005); Lin and Kuo (2007); and Perez, Montes and Vasquez (2006) describe between four and seven areas in which these practices can have a significant impact on learning. As can be seen from Table 6.1, their frameworks contain a number of similar elements. These will now be dealt with.

Table 6.1 HRM factors affecting organizational learning

Lin and Kuo (2007)	Perez et al. (2006)	Cabrera and Cabrera (2005)
Staffing	Selective hiring	Staffing
Appraisal		Performance appraisal
Training and development	Training	Training and development
Work flow		Work design
Rewards and compensation	Compensation and reward	Compensation and reward
	Employee participation	
		Culture
		Technology

Recruitment and Selection Practices

Perhaps a good place to start is with recruitment and selection practices, because if the 'right' people aren't recruited into and promoted within the organization, an opportunity is lost to improve organizational learning. Organizations that are good at fostering organizational learning tend to try and attract new employees who will contribute to learning within the organization (through introducing new ways of thinking, for example). On top of this, decisions around who is recruited and promoted should also be based on the candidates' demonstrated ability to share learning. Furthermore, as seen in Chapter 4, a diversity of personalities and backgrounds will add to creativity and potential productivity. Thus these organizations place significant emphasis on finding the skills, knowledge and attitudes that emphasize the fit between the individual and the organization, rather than merely focusing on specific job requirements. The rationale behind this approach is that while it is regarded as relatively easy to develop job-specific competencies, attitudes and values that are in line with those of the organization are much harder to develop.

In practice, it is fairly widely accepted that a policy of enabling employees to 'work their way up' through the organization, as well as recruiting people externally at different levels of seniority to fill specific requirements, is probably the best option for providing a balance of capability to both exploit existing knowledge and to explore new knowledge. Alongside this policy however, improving organizational learning capability also demands a search for attitudes and skills that facilitate knowledge-sharing. One practice that might help in this regard is that organizations are increasingly using competency frameworks to guide them in terms of the skills,

knowledge and attitudes they seek to recruit. Although very few organizations have specific competencies that relate to knowledge-sharing, evidence of knowledge-sharing behaviour in practice, as well as good communication and interpersonal skills, are reasonable indicators.

Performance Appraisal, Compensation and Reward

Generally speaking the purpose of performance appraisal systems is twofold – to improve organizational productivity by providing developmental feedback and to link rewards to performance (Seeong and Lewis 2009). To improve organizational learning, it follows that the dimensions of performance on which people are appraised and rewarded should be those that facilitate the process. Hence those who communicate well, who use experience as a starting point for learning and who share their knowledge and skills with others should benefit. However, from an organizational learning point of view, a number of issues with conventional appraisal systems arise. For a start, some organizations just use them as part of their reward mechanisms, linking pay or other benefits to overall organizational performance, rather than for any developmental purpose. Due to the presence of so many contributing factors to organizational performance as well as the absence of clear links between organizational learning and performance any motivational effect can be lost. Rewards need to be linked to *effort* rather than *results* (one doesn't always lead to the other) if they are to serve as a motivator (Vroom 1964). Thus with no developmental component, little or nothing will be gained from the process. A second issue concerns the (usually) individual focus of the reward system. If the sharing of knowledge amongst team members is an important element of organizational learning, then individuals may be less inclined to collaborate with others (to land a new client, for example) if their reward system is individually structured. A team-based reward may be more appropriate. In summary, therefore, it would appear that the best use of an appraisal system where promoting organizational learning is a priority is to reward the demonstration of organizational learning behaviours on the one hand, but to also use the process to give feedback for development.

Work Design

According to Cabrera and Cabrera (2005), to facilitate knowledge-sharing the design of work should emphasize interdependency, frequency of interaction and work flow (areas in which HR departments can have significant influence). They suggest that one of the ways of achieving this is to think of work in terms of a sequence of assignments on which people collaborate, rather than as discrete individual jobs (as seen in job descriptions). This is an argument for team-based structures: when people collaborate on work-based projects, action learning takes place. Indeed communities of practice (discussed along with action learning in

Chapter 3), which are for the most part naturally occurring entities, also operate on this principle of learning through collaboration and interdependence.

Technology

The role of technology, particularly in the context of the retention and transfer of knowledge, has already been discussed in Chapter 4. However, in the context of the above discussion, McDermott and O'Dell (2001) also suggest that technology should match the existing culture (discussed next) to enhance the value of the human networks that exist. In essence their message is that if knowledge-sharing is not already part of the organization's culture, technology alone will not facilitate its development in any way.

Culture

The importance of an appropriate organization culture to promote knowledge-sharing and thus organizational learning cannot be overestimated. In a way, the sum total of the conditions just discussed represents aspects of organizational culture, from the more visible such as the reward system or the design of jobs, to the less visible such as the levels of commitment and trust demonstrated by the organization's members. Although it can be argued that the HR function doesn't determine culture, it can influence it for better or for worse. Culture is not something that can be intervened in directly, rather it is through the implementation of HR practices such as those just discussed that this is likely to be achieved. Thus hiring people that 'fit' the organization, setting up systems that appraise and reward them on the basis of their efforts at knowledge-sharing and developing work structures that make the most of opportunities to collaborate and learn from each other will in time build the culture needed to sustain best organizational learning practice.

Finally, McDermott and O'Dell offer some advice for overcoming what they call 'cultural barriers' to knowledge-sharing, through visibly demonstrating its importance and building on the organization's invisible core values. They suggest five guidelines for how the two should be aligned, which are summarized here:

1. To create a knowledge-sharing culture, make a visible connection between sharing knowledge and practical business goals, problems or results.
2. It is far more important to match the overall style of the organization than to directly copy the practices developed by other organizations. Make the visible artefacts of knowledge-sharing match the style of the organization, even if the goal is new behaviour and approaches.
3. Link sharing knowledge to widely-held core values. Don't expect people to share their ideas and insights simply because it is the right thing to do. Align the language, systems and approach with those values. The values linked do not need to obviously support sharing knowledge, but people do

need to genuinely believe in them. They cannot simply be the 'espoused values' in the company's mission statement.

4. Human networks are one of the key vehicles for sharing knowledge. To build a sharing culture, the networks that already exist should be enhanced, and enabled with tools, resources and legitimization.
5. Recruit the support of people in the organization who already share ideas and insights. Ask influential people and managers to encourage and even pressure people to share their knowledge. Build sharing knowledge into routine performance appraisal. Don't start out a new campaign and new structures for sharing knowledge. Find the knowledge-sharing networks that already exist and build on the energy they already have.

BOX 6.1 MEASURING ENGAGEMENT IN COMMITMENT-BASED HR PRACTICES

Collins and Smith (2006) conducted a field study involving 136 technology companies to develop and test a theory of how human resource practices affect the organizational 'social climate' conditions that facilitate knowledge exchange and combination and resultant firm performance. They found commitment-based HR practices to be positively related to the organizational social climates of trust, co-operation and shared codes and language. In turn, these measures were related to the organization's capability to exchange and combine knowledge, which predicted revenue from new products and services as well as sales growth. As part of that study they used two diagnostic instruments. The first examined whether an organization uses a commitment-based approach to its HR practices (16 items) and the second (eight items) measured the extent to which it supports knowledge exchange and combination. Respondents scored the instrument from 1 = Strongly disagree to 5 = Strongly agree. The questions are reproduced below, with permission.

Commitment-based HR Practices

Selection Policies

1. Internal candidates are given consideration over external candidates for job openings
2. Employees are selected on the basis of overall fit to the company
3. The selection system focuses on the potential of the candidate to learn and grow with the organization
4. All employees are made aware of internal promotion opportunities

Incentive Policies

1. Employee bonuses or incentive plans are based primarily on the performance of the organization
2. Salaries for employees are higher than those of competitors
3. Shares of stock are available to all core employees through stock purchase plans
4. Goals for incentive plans are based on business-unit or company performance

Training and Development Policies

1. Employees are provided with multiple career path opportunities to move across multiple functional areas of the company
2. Training is provided focused on team-building and teamwork skills training
3. The company sponsors social events for employees to get to know one another
4. The company offers an orientation programme that trains employees on the history and processes of the organization
5. Job rotation is used to expand the skills of employees
6. There is a mentoring system to help develop employees
7. Performance appraisals are used primarily to set goals for personal development
8. Performance appraisals are used to plan skill development and training for future advancement within the company

Knowledge Exchange and Combination

1. Employees see benefits from exchanging and combining ideas with one another
2. Employees believe that by exchanging and combining ideas they can move new projects or initiatives forward more quickly than by working alone
3. At the end of each day, our employees feel that they have learned from each other by exchanging and combining ideas
4. Employees at this company are proficient at combining and exchanging ideas to solve problems or create opportunities
5. Employees in this company do not do a good job of sharing their individual ideas to come up with new ideas, products, or services *(reverse coded)*
6. Employees here are capable of sharing their expertise to bring new projects or initiatives to fruition
7. The employees in this company are willing to exchange and combine ideas with their co-workers
8. It is rare for employees to exchange and combine ideas to find solutions to problems *(reverse coded)*

From Collins, C.J. and Smith, K.G. 2006. Knowledge exchange and combination: The role of human resource practices in the performance of high-technology firms. *Academy of Management Journal*, 49(3), 544–60. Reproduced with permission.

THE CONTRIBUTION OF TRAINING AND DEVELOPMENT

In terms of HR practices that improve organizational learning, training and development activities have a particularly relevant role to play, as both classroom-based and work-based learning operate on the same underlying principles. In terms of promoting organizational learning, Perez, Montes and Vasquez (2006) argue that training programmes should be thought of in wider terms that just those of skill construction. Similarly, Kamoche and Mueller (1998) believe that they should be oriented towards developing a culture of commitment to learning. In the same way, others such as Ulrich, Jick and Von Glinow (1993) contend that training programmes can be used as a tool to improve organizational communication, through sharing of

best practices and the consequent generation of new knowledge. Bandura (1997), whose important contribution has already been considered in Chapter 3, suggests that the inclusion of techniques such as modelling and vicarious learning, role playing, mastery experiences and coaching will improve an individual's self-efficacy, resulting in a greater degree of shared learning from a greater confidence in their abilities. Team-based training is also offered as a means of improving organizational learning, as well as cross-training (Cabrera and Cabrera 2005). The idea behind this emphasis is to facilitate knowledge-sharing within and between teams and groups. Allied to this, training in communication skills has a role to play. Finally, at a group level, the value of formalized socialization and orientation programmes shouldn't be underestimated, as they are seen as an early opportunity to present organizational values and norms, which of course can include those related to organizational learning.

Finally, in the overall scheme of things, the results of an investigation undertaken by Lin and Kuo (2007) suggest that the above practices don't affect organizational performance directly, but do so through their effect on organizational learning. If you wish to enhance organizational performance, using the above practices to foster organizational learning would appear to be the starting point.

IS THERE STILL A ROLE FOR TRADITIONAL CLASSROOM TRAINING?

None of the discussion in the previous chapters is intended to suggest that formal, classroom-based activity should not be part of an organization's learning and development efforts. Although the growing importance of experiential learning, reflection thereon and the use of real-life work-based issues as a vehicle for learning cannot be overestimated, it is suggested that formal classroom sessions can be effectively integrated into the process, rather than being the default position, as is often the case with more traditional organizations.

In particular, Clark and Mayer (2008), while they concur with others on the value of constructivist learning models, nevertheless hold strong views concerning what they consider as a danger in overly focusing on behavioural activity at the expensive of cognitive activity in learning environments. They make an argument for 'evidenced-based instruction' (content that is backed up by theory and practice). Indeed in one study, Stull and Mayer (2007) found no support for the idea that 'learning by doing' always leads to deeper learning than 'learning by viewing'. The evidence to support this finding comes from research that has demonstrated that because learning depends on appropriate psychological activity rather than just behavioural activity, too much behavioural activity can get in the way of learning, given that working memory has a limited capacity.

ISSUES WITH TRADITIONAL CLASSROOM TRAINING

It would appear from the above, therefore, that traditional classroom instruction still has an important part to play in the generation, retention and transfer of knowledge around the organization. Nevertheless, some important issues arise that need to be addressed if its contribution is to be optimized. These primarily relate to the transfer of learning problem, alluded to in Chapter 3. Because the main activity related to learning (for example, a training or development programme) is taking place off the job, the problem of the skills and knowledge acquired making the transition back to the workplace and surviving there over time is a significant one. The factors influencing learning transfer will shortly be described, but first a model of how they interact (Kirwan 2009) is presented in Figure 6.1. The model consists of factors relating to the individual (the trainee), the training/learning intervention itself, and also to the work environment.

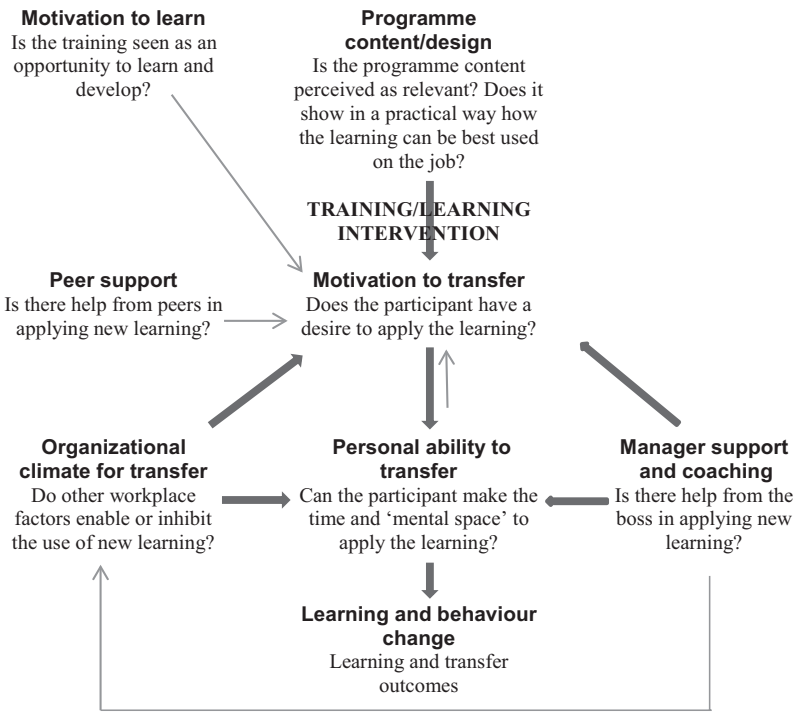

Figure 6.1 Model of learning transfer from a training/learning programme

INFLUENCES ON LEARNING TRANSFER

The seven factors outlined above that influence learning outcomes will now be discussed.

Motivation to Learn

This factor describes the degree to which individuals are prepared to join and take part in a training or development programme. It is a personal characteristic, and is concerned primarily with perceptions they have before the programme, such as how it might relate to their needs, or what choice they have in attending it. The creation of motivation to learn is important for learning transfer as it has direct effects on subsequent motivation to transfer. While motivation to learn is primarily a personal characteristic, it can also be influenced indirectly by factors relating to the learning intervention itself or by work environment factors.

Programme Content and Design

This factor deals with the degree to which the programme has been designed and delivered to make it easier for participants to transfer learning back to the job. It also looks at the extent to which participants regard the programme content as appropriate to their needs. Issues such as the relevance of the content, how it builds on what the participant already knows, the credibility of the trainers or facilitators and the balance of theory and practice are all important indicators of the likelihood of learning transfer taking place. The importance for learning transfer of appropriate content and delivery lies in matching the content to the learning needs expressed and the delivery to the various relevant characteristics of the learner and the environment in which the learning will be applied.

Motivation to Transfer

This factor is about the commitment of the participant to applying back at work the skills and knowledge learned. It is affected by such questions as whether they want to apply new learning, whether they believe they can do so and whether they feel their effort will be noticed. A central factor in the model, motivation to transfer, is perhaps influenced by more personal, programme design and work environment factors than any other. In its turn it has a strong relationship with actual learning transfer. Unless motivation to transfer is activated, then the chances of significant learning transfer taking place are greatly diminished.

Personal Ability to Transfer

This factor is also central to the model, and relates to how much time, energy and mental space participants can find in their work lives to help transfer learning to the

job. Although principally a personal characteristic, it can be affected by a number of other factors, particularly in the work environment. For instance, the amount of time learners get to reflect on what they learned, the amount of opportunity they get to apply that learning back at work and the amount of autonomy they have to say 'no' to distractions that prevent them from doing so will all influence the degree to which they can translate their desire (motivation to transfer) into reality (personal ability to transfer).

Manager Support and Coaching

Within the work environment, the role of the participant's manager is one that can have a significant impact on the degree to which learning transfer will be facilitated, largely through its influence on the above factors. Through feedback, support, challenge and coaching, managers of learners help to create the time and mental space so necessary for effective transfer to take place. Manager support and coaching plays a particularly important part immediately before and after a learning event. Before the event, discussion of specific learning needs and potential applications of the learning should be on the agenda. Following the event, support for implementation of the participant's action plan and coaching to ensure the learning is consolidated are critical elements in the learning transfer process.

Peer Support

Peers at work can also have an influence on how easy or otherwise it will be for the learner to transfer learning. Peer support concerns issues such as whether peers are open to new ideas, whether they provide practical support (such as filling in for their colleague while they are away on a training programme, for example), or whether they offer different perspectives that encourage experimentation and new learning. The effect of peer support is exerted mostly through its effect on motivation to transfer, and depends to a large extent on the degree of interdependency amongst the peers themselves. The greater the degree of interdependency, the greater will be the influence of peer support.

Organizational Climate for Transfer

This factor deals with conditions in the work environment that make it more or less conducive to the use of learning on the job. Components of this factor include whether the organization in general supports learning, whether particular human or financial resource constraints exist within the organization, and in general how easy or otherwise it is to get new things implemented in the workplace. Not surprisingly, the level of support from peers and the manager will also contribute to such a climate. In turn, a positive organizational climate for transfer has effects on both motivation to transfer and personal ability to transfer. When such conditions exist, motivation is increased through a general level of confidence on the part of

the learner that barriers to application will be surmountable, and that both the time and mental space necessary to do so will be more easily found.

A participant's motivation to learn, their motivation to transfer that learning and their personal ability to do so are individual characteristics, but can be influenced to a greater or lesser extent by factors in the work environment. For instance, the amount of manager support and coaching (and to a lesser extent peer support) received before, during and after the programme independently and positively affects motivation to transfer. In addition, the manager support and coaching received facilitates learners in making the time and mental space to transfer learning (personal ability to transfer). On top of that, the organizational climate for transfer will affect their desire to transfer, as well as their ability to do so. Finally, the model includes mention of learning transfer and behaviour change outcomes. As seen throughout the earlier chapters of the book, different types of learning outcome may be appropriate.

The Importance of Motivation and Ability

The motivation factors in the model are critical to effective outcomes from any organizational learning intervention. To begin with, motivation to learn describes the degree to which individuals are prepared to take part in the intervention. It refers to perceptions they have concerning participation in the intervention, such as how it might relate to their needs, or what choice they have regarding involvement. Motivation to transfer is about the commitment of the participant to applying the skills and knowledge learned when they are back at work. It is affected by questions such as whether they want to apply new learning, whether they believe they can do so, and whether they feel their effort will be noticed. Motivation to transfer is perhaps influenced by more personal, intervention design and work environment factors than any other. In its turn it has a strong relationship with actual learning transfer. Unless motivation to transfer is activated, the chances of significant learning transfer taking place are greatly diminished. Finally, personal ability to transfer relates to how much time, energy and mental space participants can find in their work lives to help transfer learning to the job. Although principally a personal characteristic, it can be affected by a number of other factors, particularly in the work environment.

LEARNING AND DEVELOPMENT AND LEARNING TRANSFER

The role of a learning and development (L&D) department in facilitating learning transfer is therefore a critical one, ensuring that a number of conditions are in place. First, the content of programmes delivered should be based on a valid and reliable learning needs analysis, to ensure that the skills and knowledge delivered are what are needed. Second, the design of the programme should incorporate

best principles for learning transfer, including such issues as a proper balance of theory and content, the adoption of adult learning principles and opportunities for reflection. Together, these conditions will have a positive effect on participants' motivation to transfer. Although many of the other influences on learning transfer relate to the individual or to the work environment, L&D can nevertheless play a role here as well. One of the key positive work environment influences, for example, is the support provided by the local manager. Clearly, therefore, the development of managers as internal coaches will be instrumental in facilitating transfer. Other influences, such as the climate for learning, which has been cited as an important contributor to organizational learning, can also be of significance. Although a fuller discussion of these influences can be found elsewhere (Kirwan 2009), Table 6.2 presents a summary of a range of factors that affect learning transfer along with actions that can be taken to improve learning transfer and thus organizational learning.

Table 6.2 Improving learning transfer

Factors to be considered	Actions to be taken
Participant motivation to learn: • Expectancies regarding the usefulness of the training • Job involvement and organizational commitment • Locus of control • Goal orientation • Self-efficacy	Managers can: • Work on expectancies • Work on locus of control • Work on goals • Work on commitment • Work on confidence
Content and design of the intervention: • Training needs analysis • Objectives and outcomes • The balance of theory and practice • Identical elements • Overlearning • Variety of methods • Distributed vs massed learning • Using analogies • Facilitating learning • Action learning • Developing adaptive expertise	Assess the training need: • Set clear objectives for the training • Balance the content in terms of theoretical and practical knowledge • Provide relevant reference material • Set pre-programme work • Deliver the programme in modular form • Make the training as relevant to the work situation as possible • Vary the training methods and media • Provide 'ideas and applications' notebooks • Provide opportunities to practice • Have participants create an action plan • Consider including an action learning component • Include some inter-module application work

Table 6.2 *Continued*

Factors to be considered	Actions to be taken
Post-programme activities: • Goal-setting • Self-management • Relapse prevention • Action planning • Coaching	Promote goal-setting (and give sufficient time to it on the programme) Have participants construct an action plan Conduct a self-management session at the end of the programme Encourage participants to meet with their manager Hold refresher/problem-solving sessions Encourage participants to maintain contact with each other Encourage participants to monitor their own behaviour following the programme Review content and learned skills Suggest participants develop a mentoring relationship Consider getting an executive coach Be clear about the purpose of the coaching Decide whether coaching will be stand alone or with a development programme Build coaching into the process from the start Use many sources of information
Peer, manager and organizational support: • General enthusiasm for change • Listening, questioning and discussing • Positive and critical feedback • Willingness to 'plug the gaps' • Support from co-participants • Empowerment • Delegation • Using listening and empathy • Creating and maintaining a supportive climate • Communicating effectively • Exerting a wider influence with others • Feedback and coaching • Resources and workloads • Urgency and deadlines • Autonomy and creativity	Use 'buddy' systems Get a critical mass on the same programme Involve managers in the learning process before training Involve managers in the learning process after training Develop managers as coaches Establish pre- and post-training discussions as part of participants' joining instructions Consider refunds of fees/expenses and/or awards Set up post-training presentations to peers and knowledge-sharing sessions Hold 'alumni' sessions Establish communities of practice

Table 6.2 ***Concluded***

Factors to be considered	Actions to be taken
Motivation to transfer: • Readiness to learn • Clearly identified needs • Development of greater assertiveness and confidence • Use of a network of co-attendees supportive work environment • Learning seen as developmental • Personal capacity for transfer • Motivation to transfer • Ability and opportunity to reflect • Using peers and others • Goal-setting • Having autonomy • Being assertive	Encourage and allow time for reflection Use peers for support Include coaching as part of the learning process Develop assertiveness Use a learning log Construct a personal development plan
Resistance to change: • Stakeholders • Organizational culture • Power and politics • Local resistance	Encourage buy-in at appropriate levels Make a business case for the intervention Use adult learning principles Treat the organization's learning disabilities
Learning outcomes: • Single and double-loop learning	Be aware of different learning outcomes

WHERE TO NOW FOR THE L&D FUNCTION?

All the evidence that has been presented within the chapters of this book regarding how individual and organizational learning is created, retained and transferred at the very least suggests that the role of L&D departments is likely to come under increasing scrutiny into the future. Currently within most organizations they still tend to be associated with classroom training and programmes of events for the semester and, despite their name changes over the years, are finding that stereotype hard to shake off. Traditional 'training' is about the imparting of knowledge and skills to enable an individual to perform a new job or a current job better. While it still has a role to play in supporting organizational learning, it is just one component of a broader response.

Although a major discussion of the future of L&D is beyond the scope of this book, a number of interesting observations are offered, particularly in the practitioner literature (Eyre 2011; O'Connell 2008; Sheppard and Knight 2011) on the way in which the role of L&D and its practitioners is changing. They are briefly outlined on three dimensions. First, the shift in the way in which knowledge and skills are acquired now means that a much greater proportion of future learning and

development activity is likely to occur in workplace settings. Practitioners are seeing the value of basing learning on experience and using reflection to consolidate it. Second, this will have implications for the role of L&D professionals. As the knowledge repository for specific expertise on learning theory and practice they will need to make sure that their professional advice is heard and implemented at the highest organizational levels, as they seek to influence the business agenda and incorporate best learning practice into the organization's routines, processes and culture. To do this effectively they will need to make the move from 'trainers' to 'internal consultants', developing both a wider range of subject-matter expertise and influencing skills. Finally, as they strive to become more strategic business partners, their performance will be evaluated not just by what they do in the classroom and the workshop but by the contribution they are seen to make to improving business performance.

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