

**The Extent to Which Clubs Are Perceived As Learning  
Organizations©**

**John McCaffrey**

**B.App.Sc. (Canberra), M.P.A. (Canberra)**

**A thesis submitted in fulfilment  
of the requirements for the degree of  
Doctor of Philosophy**

**Faculty of Education**

**The University of Canberra, Australia**

**April 2008**

## Abstract

In 1995 a Federal Government Report, *Enterprising Nation: Renewing Australia's Managers to Meet the Challenges of the Asia-Pacific Century* (Karpin, 1995) was published. One of the key themes of this report was that *"The 'learning organisation' will be standard philosophy for many Australian enterprises and a major way they cope with change and turbulence. Managers will create conditions conducive to learning for both individuals and the enterprise as a whole, within and between groups, across individual business units and between enterprises and their external environments."*

There is a dearth of published literature internationally, not only on clubs and the degree to which they are learning organizations but organizations in general. A systematic search of the literature identified only one published report in which there was an in-depth exploration of an organization to determine if it was a learning organization. Therefore, this study has a dual purpose. Firstly, it provides an in-depth study of a specific industry; and secondly it helps to fill a knowledge gap in the study of organizations.

This study has used as its theoretical framework Marquardt's (2002) learning organization model to determine the extent to which the characteristics of the learning organization are perceived to apply to a group of clubs in a regional area of Australia. The study has used a survey method utilising the Learning Organization Profile (LOP) questionnaire developed by Marquardt (1996) and validated by Griego, Geroy and Wright (2000) and interviews with the CEOs and Human Resource Managers from

four clubs. The LOP was distributed to permanent staff working in these clubs resulting in 36% of the LOPs being returned.

Statistical analysis of the returned LOPs indicated that the clubs had not adopted the characteristics of the learning organization to any great extent. The clubs divided into two groups. The perceptions of staff from two clubs were that the clubs had adopted learning organization characteristics to a minor extent. The perceptions of staff from the other two clubs was that the two clubs had adopted learning organization characteristics to a moderate extent. In all cases the pattern of perceptions of staff represented differences of degree rather than fundamental differences.

When the data obtained from the managers were examined, managers perceptions were that the clubs had adopted the characteristics of a learning organization to a moderate extent. These results compare favourably with the results of the Byers study (1999), which found that the perceptions of senior managers in Australian organizations were that the characteristics of a learning organization applied to a moderate extent. The perceptions of non-managers were that the characteristics applied to a minor extent. Statistical analysis of the data indicated that there were no significant differences between managers and non-managers, with the differences being in the degree rather than there being any fundamental differences.

## **Acknowledgements**

This thesis would not have been possible without the support, guidance, assistance and intellectual contributions of a number of people. The research itself experienced a number of peaks and troughs and without these people the thesis would never have been completed. To them I am indebted.

Firstly, my thanks to my wife Lyn and my family. When I was in the troughs and considered walking away from this work, Lyn always pointed out the rainbow at the end of the journey, especially towards the end. Without this family support this work would never have been finished.

Secondly, words cannot express how much I appreciate the efforts of Associate Professor Francesco Sofo who was my primary supervisor. Francesco must have found me extremely frustrating to work with at times. However, he provided the intellectual battleground where ideas and concepts were explored. In addition to Francesco, there were two other members of the supervisory panel, Associate Professor Peter Clayton and Dr Jules Wills. Both Peter and Jules provided valuable criticism and advice, from both a literary and an academic perspective as to how this work could be improved. Francesco also provided the draft of this thesis to a colleague who read the thesis as if it were being examined. The advice I received from this anonymous colleague of Francesco's was invaluable. In the end it was Francesco's guiding hand that helped in shaping the final product.

Thirdly, my sincere thanks go to Dr David Pederson, the Statistical Consultant at the University of Canberra. David provided assistance and guidance in choosing the appropriate statistical analysis tools for the analysis of the wealth of quantitative

data that were collected in this research. In addition he provided me with help in understanding the meaning of the analyses.

Finally, without the assistance of the CEOs, HR Managers and staff from the four clubs that willingly participated in this research, I would not be at this point. To them, I am truly grateful.

## Table of Contents

CHAPTER 1 - INTRODUCTION.....	1
1.1 Introduction.....	1
1.2 Rationale for this Study .....	2
1.3 Overview of the Club Industry .....	10
1.4 Purpose of the Study .....	13
1.5 Scope of this Study .....	16
1.6 Research Questions and Objectives.....	17
1.7 What the Chapters in this Thesis Cover.....	19
CHAPTER 2 - LITERATURE REVIEW.....	21
2.1 Introduction.....	21
2.2 The Club Industry in Australia .....	24
2.3 An Historical Review of Organizations and Change.....	27
2.4 Leadership.....	38
2.5 Organizational Culture.....	52
2.6 Cultural Change and Learning.....	58
2.7 Learning .....	61
2.8 Learning Organization or Learning Culture?.....	73
2.9 Information Management and Technology.....	89
2.10 Implications and a Conceptual Framework for the Study .....	97
2.11 Summary .....	101
CHAPTER 3 - METHODOLOGICAL FRAMEWORK .....	103
3.1 Introduction.....	103

3.2	The Research Process .....	103
3.3	Research Methodologies used in the Social Sciences.....	105
3.4	The Case Study .....	108
3.5	Surveys.....	112
3.6	Interviews.....	114
3.7	Sample Design .....	115
3.8	Survey Design.....	116
3.9	Interviews.....	125
3.10	Data Analysis .....	126
3.11	Statistical Analysis of the Qualitative Data .....	128
3.12	Ethical Considerations .....	130
3.13	Summary .....	132
CHAPTER 4 – RESULTS - Survey and Interview Data.....		134
4.1	Introduction.....	134
4.2	Mean Scores for the Quantitative Data Collected in the LOP.....	137
4.3	Correlation Between The Learning Sub-system and The Other Four Sub- systems for all Clubs.....	148
4.4	Comparison of Mean Scores from the LOP for Managers and Non- Managers .....	158
4.4.1	Correlation of the Learning Sub-system with the other Sub-systems.....	168
4.5	Data from Interviews with Senior Management.....	173
4.6	Staff Comments .....	175
4.7	Summary .....	176
CHAPTER FIVE - DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS.....		178
5.1	Introduction.....	178

5.2	Overview of the Clubs .....	180
5.3	Perceptions about the Learning Sub-system .....	185
5.4	Perceptions about the Organization Sub-system.....	189
5.6	Perceptions about the People Sub-system.....	195
5.7	Perceptions about the Knowledge Management Sub-system .....	199
5.8	Perceptions about the Technology Sub-system .....	201
5.9	Summary .....	203
5.10	Managers’ Perceptions about their Clubs .....	203
5.11	Managers’ Perceptions about the Learning Sub-system.....	205
5.12	Managers’ Perceptions about the Organization Sub-system .....	206
5.14	Managers’ Perceptions about the People Sub-system .....	208
5.15	Managers’ Perceptions about the Knowledge Management Sub-system....	210
5.16	Managers’ Perceptions about the Technology Sub-system .....	211
5.18	Comparison of Manager and Non-manager Perceptions .....	213
5.19	Non-managers’ Perceptions about the Learning Sub-system .....	213
5.20	Non-managers’ Perceptions about the Organization Sub-system.....	214
5.21	Non-managers’ Perceptions about the People Sub-system.....	217
5.22	Non-managers’ Perceptions about the Knowledge Management Sub- system .....	219
5.23	Non-managers Perceptions about the Technology Sub-system.....	220
5.24	Summary .....	222
5.24	Limitations of this Study.....	222
5.25	Significance of the Study .....	223
5.26	Conclusion .....	225
	Appendix A - Survey Instrument.....	233

Appendix B - Distribution, Mean Scores and Standard Deviations .....	237
Appendix C - Results of the Analysis of the Survey Data in Tabular Form .....	262
Appendix D - Interviews with Senior Managers .....	272
References .....	279

## List of Tables

Table 1.1	The Five Survey Variables and Their Key Components .....	18
Table 2.1	Evolution of Management Thinking Post World War II .....	30
Table 2.2	The four management blueprints .....	37
Table 2.3	Comparison of Management and Leadership Process Differences in the Workplace (From Kotterman (2006:15) .....	40
Table 2.4	Aligning the four types of culture .....	57
Table 2.5	The 11 Characteristics of the Learning Company .....	79
Table 2.6	The components of Marquardt’s Learning Organization Model .....	81
Table 2.7	Integration of the three Learning Organization Models .....	83
Table 3.1	Terms used to describe two research paradigms.....	111
Table 3.2	Marquardt’s Learning Organization Profile.....	120
Table 3.3	Response rates to the survey .....	124
Table 3.4	Interpretation of Mean Scores.....	128
Table 3.5	Strength of the Correlation.....	130
Table 4.1	Data used to answer the research questions.....	135
Table 4.2	Summary of Means for all 50 Items in the Survey .....	137
Table 4.3	Mean Score for each item in Marquardt’s Learning Sub-system of the LOP .....	139
Table 4.4	Mean Score for each item in Marquardt’s Organization Sub-system.....	141
Table 4.5	Mean Score for each item in Marquardt’s LOP People (Int.) Sub-system ..	143
Table 4.6	Mean Score for each item in Marquardt’s LOP People (Ext.) Sub-system ..	144

Table 4.7	Mean Score for each item in Marquardt’s Knowledge Management Sub-system .....	145
Table 4.8	Mean Score for each item in Marquardt’s Technology Sub-system.....	147
Table 4.9	Correlation Coefficient for Learning Sub-system versus Organization Sub-system .....	148
Table 4.10	Correlation Coefficients for Learning Sub-system v Organization Sub-system .....	149
Table 4.11	Correlation of Learning Sub-system versus People (Int.) and People (Ext.) .....	150
Table 4.12	Correlation Coefficients for Learning v Items 21 – 25 (People (Int.)) .....	151
Table 4.13	Correlation Coefficients for Learning v Items 21 – 26 (People (Ext.)).....	152
Table 4.14	Learning versus Knowledge Management.....	153
Table 4.15	Correlation Coefficients for Learning (items 1 – 10) v Knowledge Management (Items 31 – 40) .....	154
Table 4.16	Learning versus Technology.....	155
Table 4.17	Correlation Coefficients between Learning (Items 1 -10) v Technology (Items 41 – 50).....	156
Table 4.18	Correlation of Learning v Organization and Learning v People.....	157
Table 4.19	Aggregated Mean Scores for Items 1 – 50 in Marquardt’s LOP Survey Instrument .....	159
Table 4.20	Mean Score for each item in Marquardt’s Learning Sub-system .....	161
Table 4.21	Mean Score for each item in Marquardt’s Organization Sub-system.....	162
Table 4.22	Means for People (Int.) and People (Ext.) for Managers and Non-Managers .....	163
Table 4.23	Mean Score for each item in Marquardt’s People (Int.) Sub-system.....	164

Table 4.24	Mean Score for each item in Marquardt’s People (Ext.) Sub-system.....	164
Table 4.25	Mean Score for each item in Marquardt’s Knowledge Management sub-system .....	166
Table 4.26	Mean Score for each item in Marquardt’s Technology Sub-system.....	167
4.4.1	Correlation of the Learning Sub-system with the other Sub-systems.....	168
Table 4.27	Correlation Coefficients for the Learning Sub-system v Each of the other sub-systems.....	168
Table 4.28	Correlation of Learning sub-system against Items 11 – 20 (Organization sub-system) .....	169
Table 4.29	Correlation of Learning v Organization for Managers and Non- Managers	170
Table 4.30	Correlation of Learning sub-system against Items 21 – 25 (People Int.) ....	171
Table 4.31	Correlation of Learning sub-system against Items 26 – 30 (People Ext.) ...	172
Table 5.1	Comparison of Managers Perceptions .....	204
Table C-1	Multiple Comparisons of Means for All Data .....	262
Table C-2	Multiple Comparisons of Means for the Learning sub-system.....	262
Table C-3	Multiple Comparisons of means for the Organization sub-system.....	263
Table C-4	Multiple Comparisons of the means for the People sub-system.....	263
Table C-5	Comparison of means Organization v People.....	264
Table C-6	Comparison of means People (Int.) v People (Ext.) .....	264
Table C-7	Multiple Comparisons of the means for the Knowledge Management sub-system .....	264
Table C-8	Multiple Comparison of Means for the Technology sub-system.....	265
Table C-9	Comparison of correlation coefficients of the Learning sub-system v People (Int.) and Learning v People (Ext.) .....	265

Table C-10 Comparison of mean scores for each sub-system for Managers and Non-managers .....	266
Table C-11 Correlation of the Learning sub-system against Items 31 – 40 (Knowledge Management sub-system).....	266
Table C-12 Correlation of the Learning sub-system against Items 41 – 50 (Technology sub-system).....	267
Table C-13 Differences between Managers and Non-Managers across the Sub-systems .....	267
Table C-14 Differences between Managers and non-Managers for the Correlation of the Learning sub-system against the Organization sub-system .....	268
Table C-15 Differences Between Managers and non-Managers for the Correlation of the Learning sub-system against the People sub-system .....	269
Table C-16 Differences between Managers and non-Managers for the Correlation of the Learning sub-system against the Knowledge Management sub-system.....	270
Table C-17 Differences between Managers and non-Managers for the Correlation of the Learning sub-system against the Technology sub-system.....	271

## List of Figures

Figure 1.1: Marquardt's Learning Organization Model .....	10
Figure 2.1 The theoretical framework for the study.....	99
Figure 2.2: The interrelationships among elements in a learning organization.....	100
Figure 3.1 Research process.....	105

## **CHAPTER 1**

### **INTRODUCTION**

#### **1.1 Introduction**

This dissertation presents an interpretative study of selected clubs in a major Australian city and the extent to which individual clubs are perceived as learning organizations. In this study, a licensed club is an organization that has been licensed by the appropriate government authorities to sell alcohol, operate gaming machines and provide other services to the community. The learning organization has been defined by many authors (Garratt, 1987; Marquardt, 2002; Pedler, Burgoyne & Boydell, 1991; Senge, 1990b) and each of these authors has brought a different perspective to the concept. A learning organization can be thought of as an organization in which learning occurs not only at the individual, team and organizational levels but also across all employment levels of the organization.

This is a study of Australian organizations that from a review of the literature do not appear to have undergone any in-depth analysis. The purpose of the study is to assess the perceptions of staff employed in four clubs from a regional area of Australia against the set of five characteristics that Marquardt (2002) identified as being necessary for an organization to be defined as a learning organization. Marquardt (2002) called these characteristics sub-systems and identified them as learning, organization, people, knowledge and technology. He also asserted that all

five sub-systems are necessary to maintain viable, ongoing organizational learning thus ensuring corporate success.

## 1.2 Rationale for this Study

In April 1995 the Industry Task Force on Leadership and Management Skills produced their report for the Australian Government entitled *Enterprising Nation: renewing Australia's managers to meet the challenges of the Asia-Pacific century*. This report came to be known as the *Karpin Report* and in this dissertation any references to Karpin or the *Karpin Report* shall be referring to the report of the Industry Task Force. This report stated that:

*“By 2010 the following will be true of Australian enterprises and their managers: Knowledge, the ability to learn, to change and to innovate in this new marketplace, will be accepted as the more relevant criteria for selecting managers than gender, ethnicity or even prior experience. The ‘learning organisation’ will be standard philosophy for many Australian enterprises and a major way they cope with change and turbulence. Managers will create conditions conducive to learning for both individuals and the enterprise as a whole, within and between groups, across individual business units and between enterprises and their external environments. Employees will be more motivated and skilled.” (Karpin, 1995: xx)*

The *Karpin Report* identified five challenges that would need to be addressed by organizations in Australia if they were to survive into the 21<sup>st</sup> Century. The five challenges that this report identified were to:

1. develop a positive enterprise culture through education and training;
2. upgrade vocational education and training and business support;

3. capitalise on the talents of diversity;
4. achieve best practice management development; and
5. reform management education.

Of the five challenges, culture, learning and development, including management development, and leadership were identified as being the critical elements required for the 21<sup>st</sup> century organization.

In this report, it was also stated that “*The ‘learning organisation’ will be standard philosophy for many Australian enterprises...*” (Karpin, 1995: xx). The term learning organization is one that has been popularised by a number of authors including Senge (1990b), Farago and Skyrme (1985), Garrett (1995), DiBella (1995), and Marquardt (2002). Peter Senge (1990b) can probably claim most credit for popularising the term learning organization through his book *The Fifth Discipline: The Art and Practice of the Learning Organization* (1990). However, Senge (1997) credits Arie de Geus with originating the concept of ‘the learning organization’ when he (Senge) wrote the foreword for Arie De Geus’ book *The Living Company* (1977).

In promulgating the concept of the learning organization, the one factor that appears to be missing in the early literature is the need for cultural change since culture dictates to a large extent how and if things are done in any organization (Schein, 1992; Walker; 1992). In examining the desire of an organization to develop a learning culture and become a learning organization, it then becomes necessary to define culture, examine the concept of leadership and its role in culture development, change management and learning itself. Yet it is impossible to examine any of these factors in isolation as each is linked to the others in a myriad of ways. Therefore, in

discussing one aspect, it is inevitable that one or more of the other factors will enter the discussion.

Garrett (1995) went to great lengths to describe a learning organization. In his view there are three components to a learning organization. Firstly, a learning organization is one in which there is a three-level hierarchy of policy, strategy, and operations. Secondly, learning is of a double loop nature allowing multiple feedback through information flows, direction-giving, and monitoring of changes in both the internal and external environments. Thirdly, there is a means whereby direction-givers are positioned at the centre of the organization's learning in order to process and integrate these information flows.

Pedler et al. (1991) had written in an almost identical vein to Senge but rather than use the term organization they preferred to use the term 'company'. Pedler et al. (1991: 5) felt that the use of the term company captured "*...the conviviality of working together better than the more mechanical and lifeless organization*"

Senge (1990b: 14) defined a learning organization as "*...an organization that is continually expanding its capacity to create its future. For such an organization, it is not enough merely to survive. 'Survival learning' or what is more often termed 'adaptive learning' is important – indeed it is necessary. But for a learning organization, 'adaptive learning' must be joined by 'generative learning', learning that enhances our capacity to create.*"

Despite the considerable number of articles that have been written about learning organizations (a database search identified in excess of 100,000 articles on learning organizations), there have been very few articles describing the steps to developing a learning organization.

Senge (1990a) and later Karpin (1995), identified leadership as being one of the critical elements in the development of a learning organization. One of the first steps that needs to be taken in the development of a learning organization is to create and maintain an environment that is conducive to learning. This requires senior management (organizational leaders) to explicitly provide the necessary time for employees to learn and to ensure that this time is used for learning. For this time to be productive, employees require training in the skills of brainstorming, problem solving and other core learning skills. In addition to developing an environment conducive to learning, there also needs to be a break-down of the intra-organizational boundaries thus facilitating the transfer of ideas and information (Garvin, 1993: 91).

In addition to Garvin (1993), Urban and Keys (1994), Teare and Dealtry (1998), King (2001), Armstrong and Foley (2003), and Stinson, Pearson and Lucas (2006) have all also contributed to the literature on the development of a learning organization. The underlying message presented by these writers about learning organizations is that organizational culture is the critical element in developing a learning organization. Stinson et al. (2006) not only emphasise the need for developing a learning culture but identify twelve organizational characteristics required in order to create a learning culture.

The twelve characteristics of the learning culture identified by Stinson et al. (2006) include valuing and recognising the need for lifelong learning, encouraging active learning amongst staff, developing individual self-awareness, being open to new ideas, teamwork, departments and organizations making time for learning, developing a shared vision at the team, department or organizational level, taking the time for team-building, developing leadership skills, learning from mistakes, thinking about the wider environment, and taking the time to recognise achievements.

Stinson et al. (2006) also place great emphasis on the cultural aspects required for the development of a learning organization. They identified four major factors – learning environment, the identification of learning and development needs, meeting the learning and development needs, and applying the learning in the workplace. Each of these factors contained a number of sub-factors that were found to be necessary for the creation of a learning culture. The work of Armstrong and Foley (2003) and Stinson et al. (2006) suggests that a pre-condition for effective learning to occur in any organization depends on the existence of a culture that not only supports learning but actually facilitates learning and that leadership is critical to the development of a learning culture.

Culture embodies a number of components and Schein (2004: 17) formally defined the culture of a group as “...*a pattern of shared basic assumptions that was learned by a group as it solved its problems of external adaptation and internal integration, that has worked well enough to be considered valid and, therefore, to be taught to new members as the correct way to perceive, think, and feel in relation to those problems.*”

In a more practical sense Walker (1992: 117) described culture as “...*the way we do things around here.*” This summarises the way all the conditions and factors affecting culture fit together, or do not fit, as the case may be (Walker 1992). All this means is that the underlying value and belief system within the organization, and this includes the sum of individual value and belief systems, must support and value learning as opposed to simply training staff. Yet, it must be understood that training and learning are not necessarily synonymous since training often produces a simple stimulus - response to a situation - whereas learning implies understanding of the situation at hand and the ability to find solutions to particular problems.

According to Schein (1994) a key characteristic of 21<sup>st</sup> century organizations will be their ability to learn. This ability to learn is one way in which the intellectual capital of the organization can be increased. It is through the development of a learning culture that the knowledge and abilities within the organization, that is the intellectual capital, can be increased. By increasing the knowledge and abilities of their staff, organizations will maintain their competitive advantage in an increasingly competitive marketplace.

There have been three broad approaches taken in understanding learning in organizations. Firstly, there is the approach taken by Argyris and Schon (1978) where they posit that it is the sharing of mental models that influences actions. In this approach organizational learning focuses on mental models and the breakdown in individual and organizational learning when these models are not made explicit and challenged. The mental models that individuals develop will also be influenced by their own beliefs and value systems. Therefore, to some extent, mental models are a product of culture.

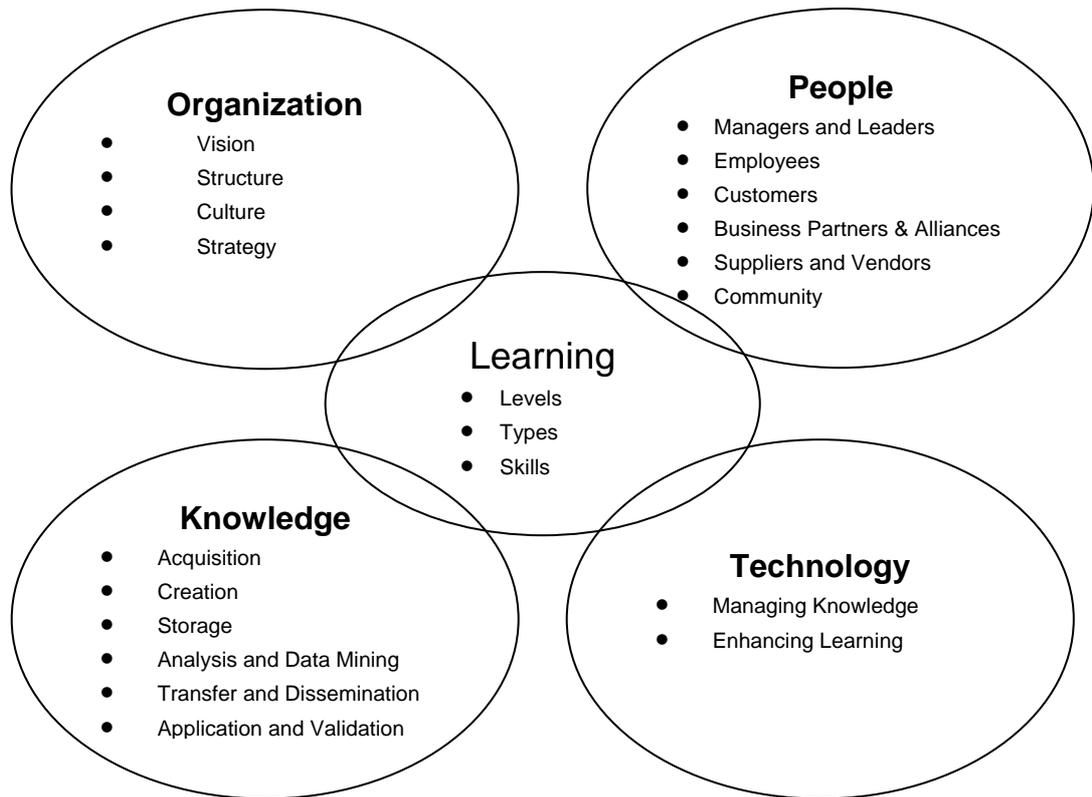
The second approach adopts a systems approach and is associated with the works of Peter Senge and Jay Forrester. This approach focuses on learning breakdowns that occur when mental models are defective. The weaknesses in our mental models arise from incompleteness and internal contradictions, and our mental inability to draw correct conclusions (Forrester, 1994). Forrester's approach implies that there are two reasons for this occurring. Firstly, there is the attribution of a causal relationship to events when no such relationship exists and secondly the failure to recognise the relationship when it does exist. This systems approach (Forrester, 1994, Senge, 1990b) focuses almost exclusively on organizational and performance outcomes to the exclusion of the individual.

The third approach is based on the work of Edgar Schein and focuses on organizational culture and the conditions necessary to sustain and nurture learning. The reason the necessary conditions do not exist in most organizations is that their cultures are unsuitable for long-term learning (Schein, 1990). More recently Senge (2006) has also advocated the creation of cultures within organizations that cultivate an environment that both values the importance of learning and the supporting of learning as an important component of an organization's work.

If culture is a prime factor as to whether an organization is a learning organization or not, then it would appear that one logical approach would be to obtain the perceptions of staff on the nature of the culture in their organizations. Hence, the approach taken in this study is based on staff perceptions and the meanings that are derived from these perceptions. Therefore it is appropriate that the works of Argyris and Schon (1974; 1978) and those of Schein (1992; 1994) are seen as being useful in contributing to the theoretical basis of the study. Since perception forms the basis of the models that these researchers use, there appears to be links between their work. The work of Argyris and Schon is important since mental models are influenced by the way in which individuals perceive and interpret the environment, and these perceptions and interpretations are influenced by individual belief and value systems. The work of Marquardt is also important because, as well as complementing the work of Argyris and Schon, and Schein, it offers a research instrument emanating from a coherent framework of the learning organization. Marquardt (2002) has provided a useful tool to determine the extent to which an organization is in fact a learning organization or has adopted the characteristics that he has found to be required of a learning organization.

Marquardt's (2002) model brings together five broad sub-systems that cover the areas of organizations, learning, information technology, communication and people. In doing this, Marquardt acknowledges that factors such as culture and leadership are important in the development of a 'learning organization'. Marquardt does not ascribe primacy to any one factor or component, but he makes a number of important points about how culture and leadership impact on the creation of the learning organization across the five broad sub-systems.

Marquardt (2002: 76) states that: "*The nature of learning and the manner in which it occurs are determined in large measure by organizational culture.*" According to Marquardt (2002) most organizational cultures are non-learning and often anti-learning and anti-risk taking, which means that new approaches and information sharing are discouraged and rewards are offered for being compliant. Marquardt describes a learning organization as one that values and rewards learning and ensures that there is a shared responsibility for learning. Without these values an organization will be unable to move up the corporate learning ladder. However, in order to achieve this ideal state, leadership plays an important role and Marquardt goes to great lengths to explain the role of the new leader and the skills required of this leader in working towards the creation of a learning culture. He also includes the leadership dimension as part of the people variable within his model (see Figure 1.1).



**Figure 1.1: Marquardt's Learning Organization Model**

(From Marquardt 2002: 24)

In this model, it is through the intersection of the other four sub-systems with the learning sub-system that the learning sub-system is affected. Marquardt (2002) refers to these sub-systems as partners in the building and maintenance of organizational learning and productivity and it is through learning that the other four sub-systems are linked and complement one another. As a consequence, if one sub-system is weak or absent, the other sub-systems will be compromised (Marquardt. 2002: 24).

### 1.3 Overview of the Club Industry

The club industry in Australia comprises one section of the overall hospitality and tourism industry. With the exception of New South Wales (NSW) and the Australian Capital Territory (ACT), data on the number of clubs and number of people employed in the club industry across Australia were not available. In NSW (where 40% of the licensed clubs in Australia are located), and in the ACT, there are

approximately 1450 licensed clubs employing in excess of 55,000 people. Therefore, in NSW and in the ACT, the industry provides significant input into the economic and social well-being of both the cities and regional areas (ClubsNSW, 2008; and ClubsACT, 2008).

Clubs in the ACT, which amount to only 3% of the combined number of clubs in NSW and the ACT, are estimated to have combined assets of a third of a billion dollars and to have contributed in excess of \$400 million to the local economy (ClubsACT, 2008). Therefore, on the basis of these figures it can be seen that clubs are a vital part of Australia's economy with combined assets probably amounting to billions of dollars. In addition, Governments are a major financial beneficiary of the club industry receiving \$millions in gaming revenue and other charges. As well as the monies received by Government through gaming taxes and other charges, legislation in some jurisdictions requires that a percentage of the Nett Gaming Machine Revenue (NGMR) be returned to the community in the form of grants for community projects or to sporting groups. The NGMR in 2005-06 for the four clubs who agreed to participate in this study was over \$50 million, which represented a large portion of the total NGMR of all licensed clubs in the city where this study was conducted. During 2005-06 several millions were distributed by the four clubs participating in this study to the community in the form of grants. Using the data obtained from ClubsACT and ClubsNSW, in addition to the contribution that clubs make to the community, it is estimated that clubs contribute in excess of \$1 billion worth of flow-on benefits to the Australian economy and generate thousands of full and part time jobs directly and indirectly each year.

For any organization to succeed in the current economic climate, it is essential that organizations increase their intellectual capital in order to ensure their ongoing viability. There are two prime ways in which clubs can increase their intellectual capital. Firstly, they undertake a recruitment campaign in order to acquire the skills and knowledge they require in order to fulfil their mandate. Secondly, it is through the implementation of education programmes to ensure that their current staff possess the skills and knowledge required to effectively perform their work. Irrespective of the strategy individual clubs currently use, any change to the prevailing strategy will be determined to some extent by the prevailing organizational culture. An organization's culture is defined by the collective values and beliefs of individuals and thus represents the reality of the situation for each and every individual in the organization.

In the context of this study, if staff have developed negative perceptions about the commitment of the employing club to learning and development, then it is highly likely that staff will believe that the club does not have a learning culture. Some within a particular club might argue that the club is committed to the development of their staff and point out that they expend considerable resources on the training of their staff. Yet, as was pointed out previously, training does not necessarily equate to learning. In some cases, training produces no more than a conditioned response since an organization's approach to problems may be about ensuring that process is followed, that is, using previous experience and standard operating procedures to solving problems. However, for any training or education programme, there must be an effective transfer of learning.

According to Velada and Caetano (2007), there is a positive relationship between factors such as job satisfaction and the transfer of learning into the

workplace. This is important in any workplace, not simply the club industry since perceptions about the work and the level of satisfaction derived from the work impact on the way individuals interpret the organization's attitude not only towards themselves but also towards learning as a whole.

The transfer of learning is also dependent on the meaning that is ascribed to information by the learners. Shariq (1999) maintains that in the transference of knowledge in a learning environment that this knowledge is transformed. This transformation comes about as a result of the meaning that individuals ascribe to information as a result of their own values, beliefs and experiences.

Therefore, for clubs to develop their intellectual capital through learning it is important that they identify those factors that are seen to inhibit and/or enhance the development of a learning culture. Identification of these factors will provide the clubs with the underpinning data for determining their future learning directions. Of course this pre-supposes that clubs do in fact continue to believe that learning is essential to their future.

#### **1.4 Purpose of the Study**

The first aim of this study was to measure the perceived extent to which clubs had adopted the characteristics of a learning organization as identified by Marquardt (2002). This was done through a staff survey across the participating clubs. The second aim was to measure the extent to which manager's perceived their organizations in terms of the learning organization characteristics. The third aim was to determine if managers' perceptions differed to those of non-managers and whether these differences were significant, both statistically and practically. Additionally, using data obtained from interviews with senior managers from these clubs, the aim

was to present or identify those areas where the information obtained as a result of the interviews with senior managers differs to that obtained from the survey data.

The survey instrument used in this study was first developed by Marquardt (1996) and modified by Byers (1999) for his doctoral dissertation on the relationship between corporate productivity and the learning organization in Australia.

Marquardt's Learning Organization Survey Instrument is endorsed by the American Society for Training and Development and has been validated by Griego, Geroy, and Wright (2000).

Marquardt's model (see figure 1.1) provides us with a picture as to how the four sub-systems (organization, people, knowledge and technology) feed into the learning sub-system through the overlapping of the four sub-systems with learning, which is the linchpin in this model. A major proposition of this study is that for learning to occur there needs to be a perception that there is a culture that supports and encourages learning. It is not the intent of this study to propose an alternative model but to use Marquardt's model as a means to determining the extent to which the characteristics of a learning organization apply and to gaining an understanding as to how these organizations operate on a day-to-day basis. Through the analysis of the data an idea of the nature of the culture within the organizations can be identified. Having determined the nature of the culture, this is superimposed on the models of organization and culture presented in Chapter 2.

Critical to the proposition that culture is important is leadership, which has been identified as necessary for the development and implementation of vision and culture, components found in the organization category shown in Figure 1.1. However, if the leaders or managers are perceived by staff to be non-supportive, the development of a

learning culture will be difficult to achieve. Therefore, an important component of this part of this study will be to determine if there are differences in the perceptions between managers and non-managers in these clubs in any of the five Learning Organization sub-systems.

This study is an examination of the literature relating to leadership, learning, organizations, knowledge management and learning organizations. It seems that there is a diversity of views over these terms since different writers ascribe different meanings to these terms and some actually use them inter-changeably without really providing a definition with which to provide the reader a point of reference. There have been few arguments against the use of the term 'learning organization' and those (Kofman & Senge, 1993; Weick & Westley, 1996) that have argued against the term have mainly centred on the linguistic aspects of terminology.

While there has been a considerable literature produced around the theme of the learning organization, Weick and Westley (1996) actually challenge the concept of the learning organization and refer to it as an oxymoron since an organization is an abstraction and as such cannot learn, only people learn. Despite Senge's 1990a and 1990b works in which he advocates the use of the term, Kofman and Senge (1993) describe the learning organization as a 'linguistic creation' because the "... *'learning organization' is a category that we create in language. Like every linguistic creation, this category is a double-edged sword that can be empowering or tranquilizing. The difference is in whether we see language as a set of labels that describe a pre-existing reality, or as a medium in which we can articulate new models for living together*" (Kofman & Senge, 1993: 31).

### **1.5 Scope of this Study**

The club industry is different to many other private sector industries insofar as each individual club is run by a Board of Directors which is elected by the club membership. While the day-to-day running of the club is left in the hands of senior management, ultimate responsibility for the running of the club, indeed the legal entity responsible for the club is the Board of Directors.

In examining the extent to which an organization is perceived to exhibit a learning culture or in fact to be a learning organization, and when combined with change management and leadership, one is confronted with an avalanche of material and to some extent data overload. It then becomes necessary to put some boundaries in place in order to limit the study.

This study is concerned with the perceptions of people within the clubs during and leading up to the time when the survey was conducted. In his Doctoral Dissertation, Byers (1999) used a survey instrument developed by Marquardt (1996) which, with the agreement of Marquardt, he modified for the Australian environment. This study uses the same survey instrument as that used by Byers, but whereas Byers' work collected the perceptions of only senior management from the participating organizations, this study collected the perceptions of staff across all staffing levels from the participating organizations.

Therefore, this study may be seen as being unique for two reasons (a) it is an examination of a specific industry, that is clubs, and (b) potentially the perceptions of all permanent staff from the participating clubs were sought. Since staff were asked to identify their position or level within their particular organization, the data obtained

from managers who participated in the survey used in this study has been compared with the data presented by Byers in his doctoral thesis (Byers, 1999).

### **1.6 Research Questions and Objectives**

The three questions addressed in this study are:

1. To what extent are clubs perceived by their employees to have adopted the characteristics of a learning organization?
2. What are the perceptions of managers with respect to learning in their organizations?
3. Do managers' perceptions differ from those of non-managers with respect to learning in their organizations?

The intent of this study was to collect people's perceptions about learning within their own club. To do this two methods were chosen. The first method was through the use of a survey which was distributed to all permanent staff working in the four clubs that had agreed to participate in the study. The data collected in the study was analysed using a combination of descriptive and inferential statistics. The second method employed was through interviewing the CEOs and HR Managers from the participating clubs. Therefore, an appropriate research method was the case study method.

Following the initial discussions with the CEOs and other senior management of the participating clubs, a number of dimensions emerged. Firstly, there is the obvious dimension of comparing the data obtained from each club with that of the others and with the aggregated data. The second dimension was that of part-time and casual workers in the clubs and whether they should be included in the study. As a

consequence of the discussions, it was decided that the study would be confined to permanent workers in the four clubs and that casual employees would be excluded.

The data collected in this study were analysed primarily to identify differences in staff perceptions of reality among individual clubs. Simple statistical methods were used to identify differences and the significance of any differences that may have existed between the different levels of staff and also among different clubs.

Marquardt's 'Learning Organization' survey contains fifty questions that are divided into five sub-systems. Each of these sub-systems identifies a number of key components that are listed in the table below:

**Table 1.1 The Five Survey Variables and Their Key Components**

<b>Question No.</b>	<b>Sub-system</b>	<b>Key Components</b>
Questions 1-10	Learning Dynamics	Individual learning, group or team learning and organizational learning
Questions 11-20	Organization Transformation	Vision, culture, strategy, and structure
Questions 21-30	People Empowerment	Managers and leaders, employees, customers, business partners and alliances, suppliers and vendors, and the community
Questions 31-40	Knowledge management	Acquisition, creation, storage, analysis and data mining, transfer and dissemination, and application and validation
Questions 41-50	Technology Application	Using technology to manage knowledge and enhance learning

In addition to the data collected from the fifty statements in Marquardt's survey, two additional questions were posed in order that the data could be subsequently subdivided according to employment level and employer or club. The full survey instrument is provided at Appendix A.

The data obtained from this survey were grouped according to employment levels and employing club. Subdividing this data into employment levels and employing clubs and undertaking statistical tests of significant difference, provides information on differing perceptions of the organization across a section of the industry and within individual clubs.

### **1.7 What the Chapters in this Thesis Cover**

The following chapters reflect the staged process this study follows. Chapter 2 provides a review of the literature on leadership, culture and learning as they applied to all organizations. The review is carried out under a number of headings including: organizations and change, leadership, organizational culture, learning, learning organization or learning culture, and knowledge management and technology. This chapter also debates the validity of some of the terminology used in the literature, specifically the terms learning organization and knowledge management.

Chapter 3 justifies and describes the research methods used in this study and provides an overview of how the data were collected and. Also in this chapter is an outline of the statistical methodologies used in the analysis of the survey data. A description of how the interview data were analysed is also provided.

Chapter 4 presents the findings obtained from the surveys and interviews. The data are presented in three basic sections. The first section analyses all the data collected from the survey. In the second section the data have been presented for each of the individual clubs. In the third section the data have been disaggregated into managerial and non-managerial staff.

Chapter 5 provides a discussion of the results, their relevance to the literature and outlines the limitations that arose through the course of the study. The data are

discussed in the manner in which they were analysed in Chapter 4, that is at the aggregated level, for each of the four clubs separately and for managers and non-managers. This chapter finishes with the conclusions and recommendations.

## **CHAPTER 2**

### **LITERATURE REVIEW**

#### **2.1 Introduction**

In this chapter an argument for a theoretical framework for this study, based on the published literature on learning organizations, is developed. As a part of the literature review, a search was undertaken to identify any studies related to licensed clubs as learning organizations in Australia. This search indicated that a study of this kind had not been undertaken in Australia thus making this study unique in the context of Australian licensed clubs. This search further indicated that there was a paucity of literature on clubs as learning organizations generally. Barrows (1994), cited in Barrows and Walsh (2002), was only able to identify 11 articles about clubs published in North American academic journals in the previous 10 years.

Furthermore, Barrows and Walsh (2002) make the point that the number of published research articles on clubs has not increased since Barrows (1994). A search of the literature subsequent to the Barrows and Walsh (2002) study, while it identified a number of articles about clubs, notes that these articles were primarily centred on clubs located in the United States of America. Furthermore, these articles did not address the topic of this study, that is the 'learning organization'. One article was found pertaining to the topic of the 'learning organization' in Australia (Dymock & McCarthy, 2006). The study conducted by Dymock and McCarthy (2006) addressed organizational learning in the automotive component industry. Therefore, this study will help to fill what could be seen as a gap in the literature since the club industry

plays a role in the social and economic well-being of the communities in which they operate.

The question of meaning is essential, especially when it is remembered that this research is relying on the perceptions of staff who participated in the surveys and the interviews with senior managers in the organizations and how they interpreted the words and phrases contained in the survey. From the review of the literature, there would appear to be considerable divergence as to what is meant not only by the term 'learning organization' but also 'organizational learning'. Not only was there found to be a divergence in meaning, but the terms 'organizational learning' and 'learning organization' are often used interchangeably (Denton, 1998).

The literature on learning organizations is extensive and over a 20 year period a number of authors have defined the learning organization, each with a different perspective and focus. Garrett (1987) identifies four conditions that are necessary for an organization to be considered as a learning organization. The overall theme in Garrett's work is that an organization needs to develop a culture that values and supports learning at all levels of the organization. Senge (1990b) identifies five attributes of the learning organization. Pedler et al. (1991) identify eleven characteristics of the learning organization or company. De Geus (1997), while not referring specifically to a learning organization, identifies a number of characteristics that are necessary for organizational survival. Marquardt (2002) also identifies five characteristics of the learning organization. There have been others (Armstrong & Foley, 2003; DiBella, 1995; Garvin, 1993; King, 2001; Ortenblad, 2004; Stinson, Pearson & Lucas, 2006; Teare & Daltry, 1998;) who have explored the concept of the learning organization and what an organization needs to do in order to be considered

to be a learning organization. These different perspectives on the learning organization are explored in the subsequent sections of this chapter.

From these authors several recurring themes have emerged, all of which have been identified as impacting on learning and contributing to the creation of the learning organization. These themes include the changing nature of organizations and their ability to meet the challenges of an increasing global economy, leadership and its impact on learning in an organization and the creation and maintenance of culture, the role of culture and its impact on learning, and the role of knowledge management and technology in learning. It is through exploring these themes and their links with learning that a theoretical framework for this study is established.

In addition to these five concepts, learning is also explored, mainly from the aspect of adult learning as well as at two broad levels within the organization, firstly at the level of the individual and, secondly at the level of the team and organization. Also, the concepts of single-and double-loop learning are explored and interpreted in terms of the learning organization.

Before embarking on the exploration of these concepts, a review of the available literature on clubs is presented (Section 2.2). In the subsequent sections, 2.3 (Organizations and Change), 2.4 (Leadership), 2.5 (Organizational Culture) and 2.6 (Learning), some of the fundamental principles underlying these concepts are explored and presented. These four concepts form the foundation for the subsequent discussion and argument surrounding the term ‘learning organization’ and why it might well be a misnomer as well as the argument in favour of the term ‘learning culture’.

## 2.2 The Club Industry in Australia

There is considerable literature pertaining to the broader hospitality industry, both in Australia and overseas, but little relating to the licensed club industry in Australia. The overseas experiences described in the literature concentrate almost exclusively on private clubs in Canada and the United States of America. Yet, clubs in Australia appear to be different to those in North America where nearly all the research has been done and as such the North American experiences may not be pertinent to licensed clubs in Australia. In North America, clubs are private and essentially of two types, country clubs and city clubs although membership of these clubs is basically the same. Clubs in the North American context have been defined as “...groups of people who have a common interest or bond and generally have a central meeting place. Clubs are usually exclusive in that there is a requirement for admission and a cost to join” (York, 2002).

The licensed clubs in Australia are different in structure and purpose to those in North America. Membership of a licensed club is generally acquired simply by paying a nominal membership and annual fee. Many clubs are often affiliated with a sporting club such as a golf or football club and, apart from providing the common interest or purpose, provide a social outlet for members of the community. These licensed clubs also provide members with subsidised meals and often subsidised holiday accommodation. In addition to catering to the needs and wishes of members, licensed clubs also provide work opportunities for people working in the entertainment industry. Licensed clubs in Australia are essentially non-profit organizations with a unique ownership structure and business goals. Individual clubs are managed by a board of directors who are responsible for policy and ensuring that management carries out these policies and these policies include the recruitment of staff with the requisite skills and experience.

Australia is experiencing a national skills shortage (Chapman & Lovell, 2006), similar to that experienced in the USA (Gustafson, 2002). This shortage of skills is increasing the competitive pressures across industries for talented trainees, and this is resulting in increased staff turnover. This skills shortage is compounded in the club industry since in Australia, there have been doubts raised about the value of current training in the broader hospitality industry and why it does not meet the needs of the hospitality industry of which licensed clubs form an integral part (Chapman & Lovell, 2006; Van der Wagen, 2006).

It is suggested that the current training system in the hospitality industry in Australia is too prescriptive resulting in a vocational training system based on competencies that are described in considerable detail, yet at the same time there are demands for a more flexible workforce (Van der Wagen, 2006). Van der Wagen's criticisms of the current vocationally based training system are that the training is done 'out of context' and that as a consequence the training is unable to take into account the contextual variation that occurs in the hospitality industry. Furthermore, as the competency framework is prescriptive, the behavioural competency units do not lead to the delivery of a unique style of service. The focus on prescriptive, behavioural competency units fails to develop sophisticated, analytical and situationally appropriate responses to customers (Van Der Wagen, 2006). As it currently stands, the competency framework makes the assumption that skills and knowledge appropriate to one sector of the industry are appropriate to another, that is the skills that are required to work in a five star hotel are appropriate for working in a licensed club. As a consequence of the current vocational training sector in Australia, employers have little confidence in the qualifications presented by applicants for jobs in the industry (Chapman & Lovell, 2006).

Chapman and Lovell (2006) question the methods for selection and subsequent development of first line supervisors. The first-line supervisor is the first step on the rung to management positions and it is critical therefore that there is a robust selection methodology. Chapman and Lovell further suggest that organizations working in the hospitality industry need to take a more planned approach to the development of their first-line supervisors and staff generally and to view investment in learning and development not as a capital cost but an investment in the future of the organization.

The broader club industry, through the Club Managers Association Australia (CMAA), has indicated the value that it placed on learning as well as the need that exists within the industry. Club Management Development Australia (CMDA) was formed in 1984 as the training arm of the CMAA. It has been responsible for the design and implementation of the Club Managers' Training System (CMTS) incorporating management career paths and training requirements, national qualifications, management traineeships, and the industry recognition award, Certified Club Manager (CCM). The CMAA has recognized that there is a need to have properly trained personnel running clubs especially as it is a billion dollar a year industry.

The CMDA programme has been designed for aspiring club managers and the design is such that it provides participants with a solid background in management of clubs. The system forms a part of the Australian Qualifications Framework and allows participants to move from basic management functions to the point where they are ready to take on the responsibility of running a club.

Even so, there are limitations to this system. The CMTS commences at the National Certificate IV level and there are no training modules at the level of Certificate II and III. It would appear that prospective staff are expected to have the

necessary qualifications to progress into the Certificate Level IV and if not they would undertake the necessary study to acquire them, presumably at their own expense and in their own time.

In the ensuing literature review, as a result of the lack of literature relating to clubs, it is difficult, if not impossible, to relate the concept of organizations and change, leadership, organizational culture and learning to the club industry. Therefore, it is in Chapter 5 of this dissertation where the concepts discussed in the literature are linked to the club industry and individual clubs.

### **2.3 An Historical Review of Organizations and Change**

Thinking about and studying organizations and management is not a phenomenon confined to the 20<sup>th</sup> and 21<sup>st</sup> centuries. Organizations and their management have been studied and diverse viewpoints proposed applicable to situations of the time. It would appear that while organization and management theory continues to be an evolving field of study, it is becoming more complex as the complexity of the world in which we live increases.

Throughout history there have been diverse viewpoints about both management and organizations. From this diversity of viewpoints three schools of thought emerged in the 20<sup>th</sup> century. Firstly, there was the scientific management school brought to the fore by Frederick Taylor (1856-1915), and Henry Gantt (1861-1921). Taylor's theory on management (1911) as cited in Luthans (1992) was predicated on five principles (1) science, not rule of thumb, (2) harmony, not discord, (3) cooperation, not individualism, (4) maximum output in place or restricted output, and (5) the development of each individual to his or her greatest efficiency and prosperity. Despite the many criticisms of scientific management theory, the theory recognized the need for the development of the individual as contributing to the prosperity of the

organization. In some respects Taylor, at the beginnings of the 20<sup>th</sup> century, was advocating an organizational culture that recognized the need and importance of learning for the organization and individual.

Classical organization theory, epitomized by the work of Weber (1947) as cited in Dunphy and Stace (1992) and Fayol (1916) as cited in Shafritz and Ott (1987), takes a more pragmatic and impersonal approach to management and both specify sets of conditions for the management of organizations and individuals within the organizations. This basic framework of the classical school was added to with a more people oriented approach through the work of Mary Parker Follett (1918, as cited in Robbins, Bergman and Stagg (1997) who emphasized the psychological and sociological aspects of management. For Follett, management was a social process and the organization a social system in which individual potential could only be released through group association and it was the manager's job to harmonise and bring about group cohesiveness. In some ways Follett's ideas can be viewed as a link between classical administrative theory and the behavioural school of management.

This people-oriented approach of Follett was furthered by Barnard (1938) where he defined an organization as a system in which there were consciously coordinated activities of two or more people. At this early stage in the development of 20<sup>th</sup> century organization theory, Barnard saw the wisdom of teams and that productivity is achieved through the coordinated and cooperative efforts of individuals. Furthermore, Barnard broke with the classical thinking of the time and maintained that authority in an organization actually comes from the bottom up. It was also Barnard's view that the role of the executive was to motivate people into firstly joining the organization and secondly by applying personal effort in securing the organization's goals and objectives.

Because of managerial difficulties in achieving production efficiency or workplace harmony and the unpredictability of human behaviour, help was sought from sociology and psychology leading to the behavioural school of management. It was Mayo (1933) and Roethlisberger and Dickson (1939), as cited in Mitchell, Dowling, Kabanoff, and Larson (1988), who in their studies of workers in a manufacturing environment, demonstrated the link between productivity and motivation and social factors.

The work of these individuals has not only contributed to the richness of management thinking and the understanding of organizations but has provided a foundation for others to build upon. The writings and insights of people such as Follett (1918), Barnard (1938), Mayo (1933), and Roethlisberger and Dickson (1939) have also helped provide understanding of the challenges faced by managers in adopting an appropriate method for managing their organizations.

Society today, in terms of the levels of technology, communication, innovation and education, is different to that in the early days of classical theory. Organizations, or more explicitly management, have realized that with the rapid changes that have been occurring in society and the areas of travel and communication that their organizations had to change and one of the ways in which change can occur is through learning. In addition, not only were the concepts of the computer, satellite communications and rapid international travel non-existent, they were unimaginable.

In the workplace people were viewed simply as factors of production without the ability to think. The contributions of the behavioural school and its proponents leading up to and beyond the 1950s have made immeasurable contributions to the understanding of individual motivation (Herzberg, 1968; Herzberg, Mausner, & Snyderman, 1959; Maslow, 1970; Latham & Locke, 1979) and hence behaviour, work

relationships and the importance of work. Since the 1950s there has been a progression in management thinking and this progression has been summarized by Ulrich, Von Gilnow and Jick. (1993) in Table 2.1 and further expanded to take account of management thinking for the 2000s.

**Table 2.1 Evolution of Management Thinking Post World War II**

	<b>Key Characteristics</b>	<b>Major foci</b>
2000s	Globalisation Innovation Learning community Distributed leadership Concern with the environment Virtual organizations	Information management Customers or clients
1990s	Learning Capability Learning Organization Culture Change Strategic Unity Core Competence Organizational Capability Empowerment Collaborative Individuals Networks/Alliances	Change Management Team work and empowerment People and learning
1980s	Japanese Management and Quality Circles Excellence Mission/vision/values Cycle time (competing through time) Customer Service Intrapreneuring	Quality
1970s	Strategic Planning Life cycles Value Chain Zero-based budgeting Matrix management Participative management	Monitoring and cost saving
1960s	Management by objectives Transaction analysis Team building Job enrichment	Efficiency
1950s	T-groups Theory X/Theory Y Managerial Grid Forecasting	Group dynamics

**Source: Adapted from Ulrich et al. 1993:58**

As can be seen from Table 2.1 the focus of management thinking has changed over the decades. A major focus in the 1950s was in group dynamics and the gaining of a better understanding of how groups behaved, both internally and in the wider

organizational environment. The 1960s saw a shift in focus to efficiency led by the ideas of Drucker (1954) with his concept of management by objectives. The shift in focus moved again in the 1970s with the major focus moving into monitoring and cost saving. With increasing competition from imports from Asia, predominantly Japan, in the 1980s the shift turned towards improving quality in the western developed economies. The 1990s, led by Peter Senge, saw a focus on the learning organization and knowledge management in organizations. This involved changing organizational cultures, re-focusing on team-work and individual and team learning, and the developing of alliances and partnerships. The 2000s has seen an increasing focus on the environment and the effects of globalization on the environment resulting in increased innovation in the way organizations conduct their business.

With each move through the decades, new ways of doing things needed to be learnt and this could only be done by individuals. In the days of classical management, organizations were viewed as being mechanistic, not organic, with people being viewed as factors of production; however, in order to change there must be learning to some degree. Learning by its very nature goes hand in hand with change since if something is learnt it is axiomatic that the individual is different, that is they have changed.

Nobel Prize winner Herbert Simon (Stoner, Yetton, Craig & Johnston, 1994: 53) sums up the history of management theory quite succinctly “...*The progress of management theory today is inextricably interwoven with techniques of observation and experimentation, with sociology, psychology, and economics and with the sharp tools of mathematics. In this respect, there is no more confusion than exists in any other area of scientific endeavour that has its observational techniques, its bodies of general theory, and its tools of analysis. Confusion, by another name, is progress to*

*which we have not yet become accustomed*". Organizations have become more complex as a consequence of globalization and the tools of enquiry such as the scientific method, which is a linear form of enquiry, may well become less important in human beings.

Organizations in the 2000s are inherently complex systems since they exist in three dimensions as a result of, in part, globalization. Daft and Lewin (1990) maintain that because of the complexity of modern organizations, it is inappropriate to use normal scientific methods to study organizations. Organizations used to be thought of in two dimensions: the hierarchical or vertical dimension and the horizontal or divisional dimension. The vertical dimension refers to the number of levels in an organization's hierarchy whereas the horizontal dimension refers to the number of job titles or departments across the organization. To this has been added the spatial dimension where organizations exist in a number of locations including trans-nationally (Anderson, 1999). As a consequence, organizations are non-linear systems where a small change in one part of the system can result in drastic changes in the whole system. Complex systems change inputs to outputs in a nonlinear way because their components interact with one another via a web of feedback loops (Anderson, 1999).

In adapting to change, organizations, or at least the people in the organization learn to do things differently or gain the skills and knowledge that are required to live and work in this changing society. Dunphy (1981) saw the need for organizations to provide the opportunities for personal development within the organizational structure as a means of enabling organizational change. Before this, Argyris and Schon (1978) were also advocating the need for organizations to take a more pro-active role in the development of their staff.

Senge (1990b) suggested that organizations need to become “Learning Organizations”, a term he popularised with the publishing of his book ‘The Fifth Discipline’ in 1990. Yet Senge was not the first to use this term, nor was he the first to promulgate the idea that organizations had to learn in order to survive in an ever-changing environment. Garratt (1987) in his book ‘The Learning Organization’ was promulgating the idea that organizations could only become effective when the people running organizations were capable of continuous learning. When the leaders and managers are engaged in continuous learning, two things can happen. Firstly, leaders and managers are enhancing their own skill and knowledge levels and, secondly, they are acting as role models for their staff.

Since Senge published his book in 1990, there has been a host of other writers who have expressed their views, research findings and/or experiences on the concept of the learning organization. Some, for example Pedler et al. (1991) did not use the term learning organization but preferred the term ‘learning company’ as it provided a more convivial notion. It was the belief of Pedler et al. (1991:5) that by the use of the term company, the old idea of “...*eating bread together and creating meaning through relationships, captures the conviviality of working together better than the more mechanical and lifeless organization*”. Others to have provided input into the debate include Marquardt (1996; 2002), Watkins and Marsik (1996), Field and Ford (1995), Honey and Mumford (1996), Argyris (1990 and 1994), and Kline and Saunders (1993). Yet, in spite of the writings on learning organizations and how to create them, the literature continues to abound with new ideas on how to create a learning organization.

Teare and Dealtry (1998) deal with new approaches to learning in organizations in which they suggest firstly that there is a need for the organization to focus on the

processes that facilitate learning; secondly, organizational learning is based on the organization's readiness to learn; thirdly, there is a need for teamwork and learning where different learning styles and preferences encourage individuals to learn from each other and play to the various strengths in any given group and finally, that learning needs to be networked. Armstrong and Foley (2003) discuss how to build the foundations of a learning organization using the results of a learning environment questionnaire that measures the structural and cultural factors that facilitate learning in an organization. King (2001) identifies six distinct strategies that need to be developed for an organization to be a learning organization. These strategies are: an information systems infrastructure strategy; an intellectual property management strategy; individual learning strategies; a knowledge management strategy and finally an innovation strategy. There continue to be recurring themes emerging from the literature as to what is required to be a learning organizations, themes that include teamwork, knowledge management strategies and organizational culture to name a few. As a consequence the literature is replete with writings on the learning organization concept, though most of it is of a qualitative nature.

As stated previously, the world is changing rapidly and nations cannot consider themselves immune from these changes. This lack of immunity has come about primarily through the rapid advances that have been made in communications technologies and the cheapness of use of these technologies, and the globalization of the economy. Rather than talking of an individual nation's economy, we tend to talk in terms of the global economy and the effects that this has on individual national economies. Toffler (1970) presaged this in his book "Future Shock", wherein he forecasts that there would be a shift of manual labour from the developed world to third world countries where labour and operating expenses were lower. He went on to

say that workers in First World countries would become ‘knowledge workers’. This same theme was reinforced by Jones (1995), where he said that Australia would need to move from a manufacturing based economy to a ‘knowledge management’ based economy as it could not compete with the lower production costs of third world countries.

The effect of this shift to a knowledge based economy has seen the emergence of the knowledge based era, at least for the developed economies of the world. According to Drucker (1993: 42), “*Knowledge is the only meaningful resource today. The traditional factors of production – land, labour and capital – have not disappeared but have become secondary. They can be obtained, and obtained easily, provided there is knowledge*”.

Yet it is not all that long ago that the developed economies of the world were still locked into the concept of skill specialisation. Many of these specialisations are rapidly disappearing or have already disappeared to be replaced by computerised manufacturing, robotics and office technologies. The demise of these specialities has created a skill and knowledge shortage in the developed countries, with many employers now competing for a scarce resource.

In recent times, there have been numerous factors that have dramatically altered the work environment including economic, social and technological and as Marquardt (2002: 1) put it “...*The survival of the fittest is quickly becoming the survival of the fittest to learn*”.

This concept of adaptation had been summed up by Harrison Owen (1991: 1) in his book, “*Riding the Tiger: Doing Business in a Transforming World*”, where he says that “...*There was a time when the prime business of business was to make a profit*

*and a product. There is now a prior, prime business, which is to become an effective learning organization. Not that profit and product are no longer important, but without continual learning, profits and products will no longer be possible”.*

While organizations have generally moved on from the ideas of Taylor of the scientific management school, the specialisation and rigidity of this approach led to the loss of an holistic approach. Problems or actions taken were considered in isolation with little thought to causes and effect. Yet this approach should be considered as the first step in a journey that has taken almost a century.

Accompanying the increased complexity in all walks of life – personal, professional, organizational and societal – has been the search for organizational forms that meet this increasing complexity. Building on Table 2.1, Limerick, Cunnington and Crowther (1998) have divided the past and emerging organizational forms into what they call four blueprints. They have created a matrix combining what they view as the four organizational forms (Classical, Human, Systems and Collaborative) with Organizational forms, Management principles, Management processes/forms, Managerial skills and Managerial values. The results of this combination are presented in Table 2.2 as the four management blueprints.

**Table 2.2 The four management blueprints**

	<i>First Blueprint</i>	<i>Second Blueprint</i>	<i>Third Blueprint</i>	<i>Fourth Blueprint</i>
	<i>Classical</i>	<i>Human</i>	<i>Systems</i>	<i>Collaborative Organization</i>
<b>Organizational forms</b>	Functional Mechanistic Organic	Inter-locking Matrix	Contingency Divisional	Loosely coupled networks and alliances
<b>Management principles</b>	Hierarchy	Supportive relationships	Differentiation	Empowerment and collaborative individualism
<b>Managerial processes/forms</b>	Management functions	Democratic leadership	Open systems analysis	Management of meaning
<b>Managerial skills</b>	Person-to-person control	Goal setting Facilitation	Rational/ diagnostic	Empathetic Proactive
<b>Managerial values</b>	Efficiency Productivity	Self-actualisation Social support	Self-regulation	Social sustainability Ecological balance

**From: Managing the New Organization, Limerick et al.(1998:30)**

Limerick et al. (1998) see the characteristics of the fourth blueprint as being those of the learning organization. Managers use the alliances and networks as the means of building competitive advantage through learning from either within the organization or from partners in their alliances.

The concept of the learning organization is not a revolutionary concept but the result of the learning of the different schools of management thought. The concept integrates, builds on, and enhances decades, if not centuries of experience and management thinking. Yet, in some respects organizational thinking has gone a full circle from the time of Taylor and his principles of scientific management. While Taylor has been criticized for what has been seen as the de-humanizing aspects of scientific management, one of his principles is to “...*Scientifically select and then train, teach and develop the worker*” (Robbins, Bergman & Stagg, 1997:40). Taylor’s ideas on management still hold relevance for today in that he advocated identifying the skill sets required to undertake a task.

The organizations of the 21<sup>st</sup> Century are driving towards achieving greater efficiency and they are using tools such as performance appraisal and strategic planning to achieve these aims. Yet, in doing this, task analysis is one of the cornerstones of performance appraisal as it provides a more objective means of determining how effectively individuals are performing their job. Through the strategic planning process it is possible to identify the skills and knowledge required of the organization in order to meet its strategic objectives.

This section of the literature review has provided an overview of the development of organizations in the 20<sup>th</sup> and early 21<sup>st</sup> centuries, yet in some ways we are back where we started at the beginning of the 20<sup>th</sup> century with a concentration on skills and knowledge of the individual to achieve the organization's goals. In the following section the evolution of thinking on leadership is explored as it is through effective leadership that the organization is able to achieve its goals and fulfil its mission.

#### **2.4 Leadership**

In the exploration of the literature on learning organizations and organizations generally, a recurrent theme has been the role that leadership plays in the maintenance of the organization. Therefore, the discussion of leadership is central in culture creation and maintenance, and also learning, and ultimately the learning organization.

In this section on leadership, the ideas of two authors are explored. These two authors in the late 1970's and early 1980 have developed two distinct concepts of leadership. The first, servant-leadership, is a concept developed by Greenleaf (1977) and the second, transactional and transformational, was developed by Bass (1981). Greenleaf's concept of servant-leadership appears to have been largely ignored until resurrected by Senge (1990a), while the second concept that of Bass has received

considerable coverage in academic journals and books. In this discussion, three types of leadership that is transformational, transactional and servant-leader are explored.

The historical research in leadership has almost exclusively been trait oriented and focused on identifying a range of physical and personal attributes that had been identified in successful leaders. Drucker (1972: 104) rejected this approach as a waste of time and effort as there is a low possibility of finding even a few fundamental traits. Therefore, perhaps we should be examining the role of leaders within organizations or society. Yet, in examining the role of the leader it is also necessary to distinguish between managers and leaders because as Zaleznik (1977) said managers and leaders are different, a view also taken by Kotter (1990).

According to Kotterman (2006) management is a phenomenon that came about as a result of the emergence of large, complex organizations in the last century. This generated the need for systems capable of regulating work and dealing with authority and control issues. While the work of managers and leaders may overlap, managers plan and budget, try to maintain order, stabilize work and organize resources. Leaders on the other hand, seek to develop new goals and align organizations. Yet, leaders produce the potential for dramatic change, chaos, and even failure (Kotter, 1990). Kotterman (2006) has summarized these differences between managers and leaders and this information is provided in Table 2.3.

**Table 2.3 Comparison of Management and Leadership Process Differences in the Workplace (From Kotterman (2006:15))**

<b>Process</b>	<b>Management</b>	<b>Leadership</b>
Vision Establishment	• Plans and budgets	• Sets the direction and develops the vision
	• Develops process steps and sets timelines	• Develops strategic plans to achieve the vision
	• Displays impersonal attitude about the vision and goals	• Displays very passionate attitude about the vision and goals
Human Development and Networking	• Organizes and staffs	• Aligns organization
	• Maintains structure	• Communicates the vision, mission, and direction
	• Delegates responsibility and authority	• Influences creation of coalitions, teams, and partnerships that understand and accept the vision
	• Implements the vision	
	• Establishes policy and procedures to implement vision	
	• Displays low emotion	• Displays drive, high emotion
	• Limits employee choices	• Increases choices
Vision Execution Vision Outcome	• Controls processes	• Motivates and inspires
	• Identifies problems	• Energizes employees to overcome barriers to change
	• Solves problems	• Satisfies basic human needs
	• Monitors results	
	• Takes low-risk approach to problem solving	• Takes high-risk approach to problem solving
	• Manages vision order and predictability	• Promotes useful and dramatic changes, such as new products or approaches to improving labor relations
• Provides expected results consistently to leadership and other stakeholders		

From Table 2.3, it can be seen that in Kotterman's (2006) view, management is concerned primarily with control and the implementation of processes to maintain control. On the other hand Kotterman (2006) views leadership as being visionary, setting direction, communication and motivation of staff. Before exploring the present-day role of the leader, an exploration of the literature provides insights into some of the characteristics such as charisma and vision that are generally attributed to leaders.

Dunphy and Stace (1992) described Weber (1947) as being one of the first social scientists to understand the significance of charismatic leadership and its importance in periods of social transition and crisis. Charisma is a Greek word

meaning 'gift' and in the past charismatic leadership has been thought of as such. As a consequence, attempts have been made to demystify the charismatic leader and establish charisma purely as a behavioural process.

Charismatic leaders have been thought to possess an exceptional or mystical gift that enables them to lead people to extraordinary heights. Weber (1947), as cited in Eisenstadt (1968) defines charismatic leadership to include any authority that does not involve rules but stems from a devotion to the specific and exceptional sanctity, heroism, or exemplary character of an individual person. Furthermore, Conger and Kanungo (1987) state that charismatic leadership should be considered to be an observable behavioural process that can be described and analysed.

In his studies of charismatic leadership, House (1977) considers the role of the follower in the emergence of charismatic leadership. Accordingly, he considered that the starting point for the study of charismatic leadership was the effect that the leader had on the followers. In other words, charismatic leaders are those who have charismatic effects on their followers. Wilner (1984: 14) also states "*...it is not what the leader is but how people see the leader that counts in generating the charismatic relationship.*"

Sashkin (1988) maintains that one of the major characteristics of a leader was the ability to generate a vision and to convey or communicate the vision to other people. However, it is not only important that people accept the vision. For leadership to occur people also need to be prepared to engage the vision and be prepared to work towards the achievement of the vision. In other words, people must be motivated by the vision to do something tangible to achieve the outcomes of the vision. Bryman (1992) also believes that the most important component of

charismatic leadership is the leader's vision, since a charismatic leader without a sense of mission or a vision is almost inconceivable.

Nadler and Tushman (1990) summarise the types of behaviour that characterise charismatic leaders in three ways. Firstly, charismatic leaders are envisioning; that is, they are able to create a vision of the future with which followers can identify. While people must believe that the vision is achievable, it also needs to be challenging.

Secondly, charismatic leaders must be able to generate energy thereby motivating their followers. Thirdly, charismatic leaders must be enablers and be able to psychologically help people perform in the face of challenging goals.

The leadership situation will have a major influence on the emergence and type of charismatic leadership. Boal and Bryson (1988: 11) describe two types of charismatic leadership, one which follows the above definition of a visionary charismatic leader, and one which is crisis produced. In the case of the latter, it is extraordinary circumstances and not extraordinary individuals that create the charismatic effects.

Some early writers (House 1977; Conger & Kanungo 1987; Boal & Bryson 1988) have argued that the existence of a crisis is necessary for charismatic leadership to occur. A crisis exists when a system is expected to handle a situation for which existing resources and structures are inadequate (Boal & Bryson, 1988: 16). A crisis situation acts to empower leaders if they can promise to remove the stress.

Charismatic leaders tend to emerge in times of crisis, and disenchantment with the current situation and psychological distress aids the emergence of charismatic leaders (Conger & Kanungo 1987). According to House (1977), distress on the part of the followers is one of the situational effects which creates a charismatic leader.

Bass (1985) also believes that vision is an important part of charismatic leadership. According to Conger and Kanungo (1987), charismatic leaders portray the current status quo as intolerable and the future vision as the best achievable alternative. According to Takala (2005), charismatic leaders boost their followers' concept of competence and thus their compliance and faith in them as leaders through the use of impression management techniques. Impression management involves the packaging of information in order to lead target audiences to desired conclusions (Gardner & Avolio, 1998). It is through the use of these techniques and being articulate that leaders obtain commitment to a vision.

Irrespective of whether the leader is visionary or crisis produced, the characteristics of the followers of the charismatic are important. Bass (1981) observes that what different followers feel about charismatic leaders is more important than what such leaders do or say. The same words, while appearing charismatic and influential to some people, can mean nothing to others, and it would seem that individual personality traits may have a bearing on individual perceptions of a leader's vision. Bass (1985) identifies follower personality traits which may affect their response to a charismatic leader. For example, people who have dependant personalities and low self esteem, a fact disputed by Conger (1989), are more likely to identify with a charismatic leader, while those who are independent, educated and self-confident are less likely to be influenced by a charismatic leader.

Howell and Shamir (2005) have examined Bass' (1985) concept of the dependent and independent personality types and concluded that there are two types of charismatic relationships – personalised and socialised and these relationships are dependent on followers' self-concepts. As a result of the strong links between followers' self-concepts and the leader, the collectivity (group, organization,

movement) led by the leader, and the collective mission, followers identify with the leader, the group, and the collective mission and regard them as expressing important aspects of their self-concepts.

The personalised charismatic relationship between followers and the leaders is one in which the self is activated and is based on the followers' personal identification with the leader. On the other hand, the socialized charismatic relationship is one in which the followers' collective self is activated and is a relationship based primarily on the followers' social identification with the group or organization (Howell & Shamir, 2005).

There are limitations to the charismatic leader. Nadler and Tushman (1990) believe that many problems arise from the risks attached to leadership that revolves around one individual. They identify two problems that can occur as a consequence of the charismatic leader. Firstly, the leader's vision may create expectations that are unrealistic or unachievable and secondly, charismatic leadership may lead to dependency and counter-dependency. This can result in some individuals becoming over-dependent on the leader with people ceasing to use their own initiative and waiting for the leader to provide direction. Despite these risks, Nadler and Tushman (1990) recognise that charisma is a vital component of leadership. Because of the dependency nature of charismatic leadership, the nature of any learning undertaken is unlikely to be as a result of individual initiative. Learning is more likely to be as a result of the dependency relationship either with the leaders or with the group or organization.

The concept of transformational leadership is closely related to that of charismatic leadership. Charisma is the most important part in the broader concept of transformational leadership. Burns (1978) defines transformational leadership as

leadership that involves concentrating on communicating the meaning or the vision of the organization. *“Such leadership occurs when one or more persons engage with others in such a way that leaders and followers raise one another to higher levels of motivation and morality. Their purposes that might have started out as separate but related, as in the case of transactional leadership, become fused”* (Burns, 1978: 20).

Transformational leadership involves raising the aspirations of followers so that both the leader and followers have the same aspirations. Transformational leadership will occur when leaders broaden and elevate the interests of their followers, when they generate awareness and acceptance of the purposes and mission of the group, and when they stir their followers to look beyond their own-interest for the good of others. The term ‘transformational’ arises from the ability of the leader to develop people as resources, that is undertake learning for the future, and move them to a better state of existence than before. Bass and Avolio (1989) argue that the transformational leader motivates followers to act in the interest of organization rather than to maximise their own self interest. To achieve this, leaders must have a vision and be able to communicate the vision in a manner that connects with people in the organization (Kouzes & Posner, 1995).

According to Bass (1985: 14), transformational leadership can attempt to raise followers’ needs from a lower to a higher level of need according to Maslow’s (1970) hierarchy of needs. Maslow did not believe that one level of the hierarchy had to be completely satisfied before moving on to the next since failure to reach certain levels of satisfaction can impede or slow down the attainment of the next level. In order to achieve this move from a lower to higher level requires change and in order to change means that there is a certain amount of learning. This provides opportunities for

transformational leaders to move followers towards the top of the pyramid where they transcend their own self interest for the good of the group.

Bryman (1997: 281) identifies four main components of transformational leadership. Firstly, there is charisma, which involves developing a vision and being able to communicate this vision. Through the leader's charisma, the leader gains the respect and trust of followers and engenders pride in the vision.

Secondly, the transformational leader is able to motivate followers by creating high expectations within them. Thirdly, through providing individualized consideration, that is providing followers with individual attention, the leader instils a sense of self respect and responsibility in followers. Finally, the transformational leader provides followers with intellectual stimulation by continually challenging followers with new ideas and approaches to problems, i.e. the transformational creates an environment conducive to learning.

Burns (1978) in his definition of transformational leadership made the point that transformational leadership must result in a societal benefit, i.e. transformational leadership must be used to further good rather than what is bad. However, individual perceptions of what is good or bad must be taken into account. According to Bass, (1981) transformational leadership makes the difference between success and failure. By its very definition, transformational leadership is about change and change by its very nature requires some level of learning. Therefore, the focus of transformational leadership is learning for the future.

A better appreciation of transformational leadership comes from contrasting it with transactional leadership. Burns (1978) views the transformational and transactional leadership styles as being the two extreme ends of a continuum and as such could not be displayed in the same individual. Bass (1985) disputes Burns' view

and, citing Franklin D. Roosevelt, as an example maintains that leaders will incorporate a combination of transactional and transformational leadership styles. According to Bass (1985) both transformational and transactional leadership are likely to be demonstrated by the same individual in different amounts and intensities and this is dependent on the situation.

Transactional leadership involves an exchange or a transaction between the leader and the follower in which the leader offers a reward in return for his or her wishes being accepted or actioned. The reward could be in the form of money or recognition. Transactional leaders identify the needs and wants of their followers and attempt to satisfy these needs and wants in return for certain actions or behaviour. Transactional leadership also involves the concept of management by exception by intervening only when things go wrong (Bass, 1985).

According to Bryman (1997), there are two basic components of transactional leadership. Firstly, transactional leadership is based on contingent rewards in which followers are rewarded for conformity with performance targets. The second is management by exception wherein action is mainly taken when task related activity is not going to plan, an approach which promotes an 'if it is not broken then do not fix it' mentality. Burns' (1978) concept of transactional leadership is more akin to what could be termed as management rather than leadership and perhaps this continuum of transactional and transformational leadership is really a continuum with management at one end of the spectrum and leadership at the other.

Al-Mailam (2004) found that transformational leadership resulted in higher levels of staff retention than did transactional leadership, and he suggests that this is as a result of higher staff morale and greater job satisfaction. Because of the strong personal interaction between the leader and followers in transformational leadership,

Al-Mailam concludes that the concept of transformational leadership can be transferred across cultures.

Different people will respond differently to transformational and transactional leadership depending on their preferences for either external or internal reinforcement or rewards. This can be related directly to Herzberg's theory of intrinsic v. extrinsic motivation wherein some people are motivated by physical rewards such as money or position (transactional) and others are motivated by the intrinsic rewards of praise and self-satisfaction (transformational) (Herzberg, Mausner & Snyderman, 1959).

Given the difference between transactional and transformational leadership, it is likely that both the nature and reasons for undertaking learning or training will be different. In transactional leadership, because of the need to please the leader and gain rewards, learning is more likely to be viewed as a means to an end. However, with transformational leadership, because of its emphasis on and relationship with change, learning will occur because of the intrinsic rewards and increase in self-esteem.

The basic role of leaders should be to inspire change either within organizations or within society. In order to achieve change within organizations, people need to learn and inspiring others to learn should be one of the key outcomes of leadership whereas the key outcomes of management are to organize and control.

The essential defining attribute of a leader is that they have followers, i.e. they have the ability to inspire people to follow them. Blank (1995: 11) wrote "*Followers are the underlying element that defines leaders in all situations.... Lincoln, Lenin, King, Perot, Ash, and Wachner.... were leaders when they gained followers....*

*Followers are allies who represent the necessary opposite side of the leadership coin.”*

Blank (1995) developed what he termed *The Nine Natural Laws of Leadership*. In the first of these, Blank discusses the concept that in order to be a leader, one must have followers. It follows therefore that a considerable amount of a leader’s activity is directed towards obtaining the backing of people, that is, getting followers.

Following on from the concept of how to get followers then, leadership is not just about character. Leadership is about developing relationships with other people in order to develop followers. Therefore, leadership should be viewed as a field of interaction that is more interpersonal than personal.

Senge (1990a) spoke of the need for leaders to adopt new roles one of which was that of steward. At that time, Senge was of the belief that Greenleaf (1977) had come closest to what he meant by the term steward. Greenleaf (1977) argued that *“The servant leader is servant first...It begins with the natural feeling that one wants to serve, to serve first. Then conscious choice brings one to aspire to lead. That person is sharply different from one who is leader first, perhaps because of the need to assuage an unusual power drive or to acquire material possessions. For such it will be a later choice to serve after - leadership is established”* (Greenleaf, 1977: 13).

Greenleaf (1977) argues that the servant-first leader takes great care to ensure that other people’s highest priorities and needs are being served. In this regard he maintains that those being served need to grow as individuals, that is become healthier, wiser, freer, more autonomous and more likely themselves to become servants. From this, it appears that servant-leadership is very similar to transformational leadership. According to Bass (2000), servant leadership

concentrates on facilitating the growth, development and well-being of individuals. By concentrating on the development of the individual, the organizational goals will be obtained on a long-term basis. Conversely, transformational leadership concentrates foremost on the alignment of the leader's and others' interests with the group, organization or society and the achievement of the organization's goals.

Stone, Russell, and Patterson (2003) argue that there is a difference between servant-leadership and transformational leadership – albeit a subtle one. They argue that the servant leader is concerned primarily with people in the organization, whereas the transformational leader's prime concern and responsibility is to the organization. The aim of the transformational leadership is to build follower commitment to the organization's objectives by empowering followers to achieve the objectives. Stone et al. (2003) argue that with their prime commitment to followers, servant leaders do not have an affinity to the corporation or organization. It is through the relational context that the servant leader actually leads. While the servant leader does not focus on the organizational goals or objectives, they trust their followers to undertake actions that are in the best interests of the organization. The defining difference between transformational and servant-leadership lies in their different emphases.

Smith, Montagno and Kuzmenko (2004) agree that servant-leadership and transformational leadership are very similar but that it is the context that differentiates the two leadership styles. They argue that the transformational leadership style is more likely to prove effective in rapidly changing environments, whereas the servant-leadership style would be more effective in a less dynamic environment.

Bennis (1989) identifies six prime characteristics of leadership which he believed all leaders share, if not all at least some. Firstly, there is guiding vision, not only in what the leader wants to do for an organization but also for themselves.

Secondly, leaders requires a passion, not only for what he or she does but also for life in general, but this passion needs to be communicated to others. The third characteristic is integrity of which there are three parts. The first of these is self-knowledge that is the leader knows their strengths and weaknesses and knows what they want to do and why. The second of these is candour, which Bennis says is the key to self-knowledge. Candour is based on honesty of thought and action, and a steadfast devotion to principle. The third of these is maturity, which Bennis believes comes through following and learning to be dedicated, observant, capable of working with and learning from others, never servile but always truthful.

Bennis' fourth characteristic is trust which he says comes from demonstrating integrity and is a quality that must be earned. The final two characteristics are curiosity and daring. Leaders want to learn, take risks, experiment and see mistakes as being learning experiences.

For the leader to succeed in the 21<sup>st</sup> century, Schein (2004) identifies five characteristics required of leaders. Firstly, leaders must be able to identify problems and have insight into the organizational culture and its dysfunctional elements. Secondly, as well as having insight into the cultural dynamics they will require the skill and motivation to intervene in the organization's cultural processes. Thirdly, the leader will need to have the emotional strength to cope with the anxiety that change incurs and at the same time be supportive of people during transition. Fourthly, the leader will need to have the ability to change cultural assumptions. When assumptions have to be changed the burden of the leader is to make change happen. Finally, there is the need to be able to co-opt people in the organization to take part in the change process. To summarise Schein's ideas on leadership, one of the main roles

of the 21<sup>st</sup> century leader is the creation or shaping of a learning culture, its evolution, and its maintenance.

## 2.5 Organizational Culture

In this section of the review organizational culture is explored from the perspective of its importance in the organizational context and its role in promoting learning. Culture impacts on the organization in a variety of ways: it can influence the way in which organizations are led, how learning is undertaken and applied, and how organizations operate.

At the time when Senge produced *The Fifth Discipline*, there was also considerable debate about the role that organizational culture played in shaping the way organizations behaved. This debate arose from the work of Schein (1985), Deal and Kennedy (1982), Kotter and Heskett (1992) to some extent Hofstede (1984, 1991) and Martin (1992).

Culture has been extensively studied and it is important to examine some of the definitions and/or descriptions of organizational culture because this highlights some of the difficulties that are encountered when trying to describe an organization's culture. For Harrison (1972), culture is a combination of the ideologies, beliefs and deep-set values which occur in all organizations. It is this combination that defines the way in which people are expected to work in those organizations.

The most widely quoted definition of organizational culture is that of Edgar Schein. Schein (1992: 12) defines organizational culture as *...a pattern of basic assumptions that the group learned as it solved its problems of external adaptation and internal integration - that has worked well enough to be considered valid and, therefore, to be taught to new members as the correct way to perceive, think, and feel in relation to those problems.*

Handy (1993: 181) whilst echoing the words of Harrison, goes even further in the clarification of culture by defining culture as “...*deep-set beliefs about the way work should be organised, the way authority should be exercised, people rewarded, people controlled. What are the degrees of formalisation required? How much planning and how far ahead? What combination of obedience and initiative is looked for in subordinates? Do work hours matter, or dress, or personal eccentricities? What about expense accounts, and secretaries, stock options and incentives? Do committees control, or individuals? Are there rules and procedures or only results? These are all parts of the culture of an organization*”.

There is agreement amongst these writers that culture is all about values, beliefs, symbols and rituals and that these components are important, not only in defining what or who an organization is, but acting as a glue in holding the organization together. More recently, Burchell (2004: 3) has reviewed the concept of organizational culture and brought the various definitions of organizational culture together and defined organizational culture as “...*A learnt and complex phenomenon that is inherently contradictory; ongoing and emerging; a socially constructed system of emotionally held ideas concerning meanings of organisational life; shared in varying degrees among many organisational members; present in a variety of cultural manifestations that can be interpreted for meanings; which ultimately resides as schemas in the minds of culture bearers; and tacitly influences members’ perceptions, feelings, thoughts and behaviours.*” The definition that Burchell has provided synthesizes the ideas of the preceding authors into one coherent package and makes the concept of organizational culture more meaningful. This definition also provides a link to the concept of mental models and attempts to demonstrate how the schemas (mental models) residing in our minds influence our actions.

Several workers (Deal & Kennedy, 1982; Quinn & Rohrbaugh, 1983; Handy 1991 and Trompenaars 1993) have analysed workplace cultures, described a range of work-place cultures and given them individual names. Deal and Kennedy (1982) have used simple descriptors, as have Quinn and Rohrbaugh (1982). Handy (1991) has adopted a metaphorical approach using the Greek pantheon and symbols, and Trompenaars (1993), like Handy, has adopted a metaphorical approach to the naming of workplace cultures.

Deal and Kennedy (1982) described organizational culture as a stable but hidden system of influences or behaviour built around a stable collection of values, symbols, heroes, rituals and stories that operate beneath the surface executing powerful influence in the behaviour in the work place. In their view, there exist four basic work-place cultures. There is the “the tough-guy, macho” culture characterized by individualists who are willing to take risks. Secondly, there is the “work hard/play hard” culture which encourages employees to maintain a high level of relatively low-risk activity but at the same time see work as a fun activity that is dependent on quick feedback. The third type is the “bet your company” culture, a culture that operates in a high risk, slow feedback environment. The fourth type is the “process culture” a culture in which there is little or no feedback, where employees find it hard to measure what they do and concentrate on how it’s done.

The Quinn and Rohrburgh (1983) model, or as they termed it, the Competing Values Framework, also classifies organizational culture along four dimensions. Burchell and Saele (2007) have called the first of the dimensions described by Quinn and Rohrburgh, the ‘Clan Culture’ which is a very friendly place to work and people share a lot of themselves. It is like an extended family. The leaders or the heads of the organization are considered to be mentors and perhaps even parent figures and the

organization is held together by loyalty and tradition. The organization places a great emphasis on teamwork, participation and consensus. The second dimension has been called the 'Adhocracy Culture' and is characterized by risk-taking with the organization being held together through the commitment of its members to experimentation and innovation. The organizational style is one where individual freedom and initiative are encouraged. The third dimension has been called the 'Hierarchy Culture' and is characterized by formality, structure and procedures to guide people in their work. The organization is held together by formal rules and policies since a smooth running organization is seen as critical. The organizational style is one where employees place a great deal of importance on secure employment and predictability. The fourth dimension has been called the 'Market Culture'. In this culture winning is all-important and this is the glue that holds the organization together. The people are competitive and goal-oriented with leaders who are tough and demanding. The organizational style is hard-driving competitiveness.

Similarly, Handy (1991) describes four basic types of organizational culture based on the gods of ancient Greece. Handy's justification for the use of the Greek gods was based on the fact that the Greek gods stood for certain things or characteristics. The first culture he describes is the "Zeus" or club culture and is dependent on an omnipotent head. Handy uses the metaphor of the spider's web to symbolize this type of culture as people in this type of culture can usually communicate directly with the omnipotent head as well as with others in the organization. In this type of organization, decisions are made quickly, and it also relies on quick feedback. This type of culture relies very much on empathy, which itself is dependent on affinity and trust and is characteristic of small entrepreneurial organizations.

The second type is the “Apollo” or role culture. Apollo was the god of order and rules and this type of culture typically describes bureaucracies where the definition of the job not personalities is important. Handy uses the Greek temple as a metaphor for this type of culture where the pillars represent the different functions of the organization that are joined managerially at the top by the pediment. Handy describes the third type as the “Athena” or task culture. In this type of organization management is basically concerned with the allocation or drawing together of resources in order to achieve the successful solution of problems. Handy uses the metaphor of the net as it draws resources from various parts of the organization to focus on the solution of problems. This is the culture of teams in which expertise is the basis of power or influence. The fourth type of culture is represented by Dionysus and is the existential culture. In this type of organization, the organization exists solely to serve the purpose of helping individuals achieve their purpose.

Trompenaars (1993), like Handy (1991), adopts a metaphorical approach in his description of organizational culture (see Table 2.4). Like Deal and Kennedy (1982) and Handy (1991), Trompenaars identifies four distinct workplace cultures and the names he uses to describe each culture centre around the attitude to people and authority figures and the ways of changing. The first culture he describes is the “family” where authority is ascribed to parent figures who are close and powerful. In this culture it is the “father” who changes course (Handy’s ‘Zeus’). The second culture is what Trompenaars calls the “Eiffel Tower”, where status is ascribed to superior roles who are usually distant yet powerful and change is governed by rules and procedures (Handy’s ‘Apollo’). The third he calls the “guided missile” culture in which status is achieved by project group members who contribute to targeted goals. In this culture, change is achieved by shifting aim as the target moves (Handy’s

‘Athena’). The fourth type is the “incubator” culture in which status is achieved by individuals exemplifying creativity and growth. Change is achieved through improvisation and attuning (Handy’s Dionysus’).

Trompenaars (1993) takes this approach one step further by matching these four types against national characteristics and culture. This last point has implications for Australian managers and leaders as according to the Australian Bureau of Statistics (2006), approximately 22% of the Australian population were born overseas. As this migrant population moves into the work-force they will bring their own cultural characteristics with them and without an understanding of cross-cultural management, managers will not be able to work with people in the way they have in the past when the Australian population was more homogenous.

**Table 2.4**      **Aligning the four types of culture**

<b>Deal and Kennedy (1982)</b>	<b>Quinn and Rohrburgh (1983)</b>	<b>Handy (1991)</b>	<b>Trompenaars (1993)</b>
Work-hard, play-hard	Clan	Zeus	Family
Process	Hierarchy	Apollo	Eiffel Tower
Bet-your-company	Market	Athena	Guided Missile
Tough-guy, macho	Adhocracy	Dionysus	Incubator

In Table 2.4, the four types of workplace culture described by Deal and Kennedy (1982), Quinn and Rohrburgh (1983), Handy (1991) and Trompenaars (1993) have been brought together with a view to aligning the myriad types. There appears to be a high level of congruence between the types described by Handy and Trompenaars. Similarly, the Deal and Kennedy model appears to have more congruence with the Quinn and Rohrburgh model than with the Handy and Trompenaars models. Using Table 2.4, the nature of the cultures in the four

participating clubs are examined through the perceptions of the respondents to the survey and are used to build a comprehensive picture of the nature of the participating clubs in terms of the extent (of learning) to which they have adopted the characteristics of a learning organization.

Deal and Kennedy built their model around four types of culture that are to be found in American business, and they admit to it being a very simplistic model (Deal & Kennedy, 1982: 108). Furthermore, they point out that each of the four types can and invariably do exist in the one organization. They also suggest that it is only by understanding the prevailing culture(s) existing in an organization that cultural change and learning can be achieved.

## **2.6 Cultural Change and Learning**

For organizations to change to being learning organizations, there is often a need to undergo cultural change. Yet as Walker (1992) and Kanter (1983) have said, achieving cultural change in an organization can be extremely difficult.

Kotter and Heskett (1992) see culture as having two levels, the visible and invisible. At the visible level, culture represents the behaviours and styles that new employees are encouraged to follow by their fellow employees. At this level culture is very easy to change because change at the visible level involves behavioural change and to a lesser extent changes to norms.

The invisible level of culture presents problems in any attempt to change the culture of an organization. It is at this invisible level that change challenges individuals as well as organizational beliefs and value systems. This is similar to the observations of Dalmau and Dick (1989) that culture exists at several levels within an organization.

According to Kotter and Heskett (1992), cultural change invariably takes place over a long time frame, often extending to several years. This is where workplace learning has a role. The simple act of learning results in individual and organizational change since if something new is learnt it is then axiomatic that change has taken place. Culture is the very essence of an organization because it helps to define how work is done, the control mechanisms and the reward systems (Walker, 1992). It is culture that defines the psychological qualities that reveal agreement, implicit or explicit, on how decisions and problems are approached, and decisions reached (Kilmann, Saxton and Serpa, 1986). Hofstede (1991: 180) defined organizational culture as “...*the collective programming of the mind which distinguishes the members of one organization from another.*”

Because culture is based on values and beliefs, it underpins the way in which people behave and react in an organization. Culture shapes and is shaped by the leadership of the organization and also influences the way in which people behave and react. Therefore in some ways we are presented with a conundrum that illuminates the iterative nature of culture and leadership – does the style of leadership define the culture of the organization or does the culture define the leadership?

To answer this question it is necessary to look at what point in time the leader joins the organization. If the leader is the person who creates the organization, then they will have considerable influence on not only the nature of the organizational culture but also on how the culture will develop, at least in the beginnings of the organization. Yet leadership may just be one side of a coin with culture as the other side (Ohm, 2006). Ohm (2006) further maintains that leadership arises from the culture of the organization and cannot exist separately from the culture thus confirming their interdependent nature.

Organizational culture plays a critical role in determining an organization's capacity, effectiveness and longevity (Woodbury, 2006). Woodbury also notes that when an organization's culture is no longer in alignment with its mission, core values and operational strategy, it can then become a significant liability for the organization.

Organizational culture needs to change in response to the prevailing social conditions and failure to do so can result in a loss of understanding of the reasons behind the establishment of the organization. When this loss of understanding occurs, the culture requires revitalizing which can be achieved through a process of shared, collaborative learning (Woodbury, 2006).

The ideas of writers such as Hofstede (1984; 1991), Harrison (1972), Handy (1991), Deal and Kennedy (1982) and Schein (1992) have provided a foundation for the study of organizational culture as a contributor to learning. In terms of learning, organizational culture plays a significant role. For learning to take place and more importantly to be effective, there must be a supportive culture within the organization. This support can take many different forms and can include a reward system such as bonuses and promotion, financial support in order to undertake learning activities, coaching and mentoring from senior and/or experienced staff, and most importantly there must be a direct relationship between the nature of the learning being undertaken and the duties of the job.

In making the change to a learning organization, one of the challenges facing leaders is the challenge of changing the prevailing culture to be a deeply learning culture. One of the ways in which this may be achieved is through the use of targeted training or learning and development programmes. In addition, the organizational leadership must demonstrate through their own actions and the commitment of the necessary resources for learning to take place. Schein (1994: 1) emphasizes the link

between learning and culture when he says “...*why learning to learn is so difficult has to do with culture, so it is incumbent upon us to understand more about the interaction of culture and learning, and to identify, if possible, what the elements of culture might be that would truly facilitate learning.*” Furthermore, Schein (2004) also says that one of the main roles of the leader is the creation and maintenance of a culture that stimulates continuous learning. The following section examines the importance of learning within organizations at the individual and team levels.

## **2.7 Learning**

In this section a number of inter-locking themes are explored, starting with meaning that is central to the learning process. Meaning helps to create mental models which then impact on individual perceptions of the learning experience (Wolfe, 2006).

Lewis Carroll (1865: 219) provides the following classic line regarding meaning “*When I use a word*” Humpty Dumpty said in a rather scornful tone, “*it means just what I choose it to mean – neither more nor less*”. Humpty Dumpty’s statement illustrates the problems that can be encountered when interpreting what has been written or said. The meaning of individual words and phrases is of fundamental importance in the communication process and the effects that different interpretations can have on responses between the parties. Jaques (1989) makes the observation that most words in the area of organizational development or learning are ill defined and that they have so many meanings that, at best, they only have value as slogans.

Individuals ascribe meaning to words according to their level of understanding and how words fit with their own mental models of the world. Therefore, the question of meaning and subsequent understanding are important in the concept of perception

and hence learning. Alvesson (2002: 4) states that “... *meaning refers to how an object or utterance is interpreted. Meaning has a subjective referent in the sense that it appeals to an expectation, a way of relating to things. Meaning makes an object relevant and meaningful.*”

According to Barnard, Scott, Taylor, May and Knightley (2004), incoming information is evaluated against mental representations of relevant knowledge. This relevant knowledge includes subject and cultural understanding, previous experience as well as an individual’s value system. Similarly, Leontiev (2005) maintains that the three facets that contribute to meaning are previous life experiences, cultural attitudes and norms and the setting in which they currently exist. Furthermore, these three facets interact to give meaning to communication and current situations.

Shariq (1999) points out that meaning is of considerable importance in both the learning process and the transfer of learning. Shariq proposes that there is a subtle transformation of meaning in the communication process and this transformation is dependent on factors such as the context in which the communication occurs, the knowledge and experience of the individuals as well as cultural factors, factors identified by Leontiev (2005) and Barnard et al. (2004).

An important part of the learning process is to be able to match new information with previous experience or knowledge or, as is described by Senge (1990b), mental models (Wolfe, 2006). Wolfe says that the use of metaphors, analogies and similes, concrete experience and projects and problem solving assist in the matching of new information with existing knowledge or experience. The ideas presented by Shariq (1999), Barnard et al, (2004), Leontiev (2005) and Wolfe (2006) suggest that mental

models are important in the creation of meaning and hence learning, a view held by earlier writers such as Argyris (1990), Senge (1990b) and Kim (1993).

Kim (1993: 38) defines learning as “...*increasing one’s capacity to take effective action.*” This definition indicates that there are two aspects to learning. Firstly there is the acquisition of skill or *know-how*, and this implies that there is a physical ability to produce some action, and secondly, there is the acquisition of *know-why*, which implies an ability to articulate a conceptual understanding of an experience.

According to Argyris and Schon (1978), learning only takes place when new knowledge is translated into different behaviour that is replicable. Piaget (1970) has argued that the key to learning lies in the mutual interaction of accommodation (adapting our mental concepts based on our experience in the world) and assimilation (integrating our experience into our mental concepts). Furthermore, Kolb (1984: 38) states that “*Learning is the process whereby knowledge is created through the transformation of experience.*” Hence both parts of the definition are important as the know-how goes hand-in-hand with the know-why.

Marquardt (1996) also views learning as a process, one in which the new knowledge and skills gained by individuals are used to change their behaviour and actions. Marquardt (1996) also makes the observation that learning has traditionally been divided into three domains – the cognitive or intellectual domain, the affective or emotional and the psychomotor or physical. Marquardt quotes Schein (1992) who points out that learning is not a unitary concept, that there are distinctly different kinds of learning that have very different time horizons associated with them, and that they may be applicable at different stages of the learning or change process. However, as

Kotter and Heskett (1992) say, behaviour, and learning is a behaviour, at both the individual and group level, can often be difficult to change as it is grounded in shared values or culture.

Schein (1994: 1) maintains that “...*why learning to learn is so difficult has to do with culture, so it is incumbent upon us to understand more about the interaction of culture and learning, and to identify, if possible, what the elements of culture might be that would truly facilitate learning*”. In reviewing the literature it appears that there is little if any reference to the role that culture plays in the creation of an environment that is conducive to learning.

Learning is about change and it is through learning that the individual and the organization are able to achieve the change that enables them to cope with or adapt in a rapidly changing external environment. It is the people within the organization who do the learning and it is through the people that organizations learn. It is the role of the organization, or more correctly the leadership within the organization, to harness individual learning to achieve the organization’s goals which have been determined by the people in the organization.

The ideas expressed by Shariq (1999), Barnard et al. (2004), Leontiev (2005) and Wolfe (2006) support the ideas that Knowles (1990) had previously proposed when he discusses learning in the context of adults and suggests that adults learn in a different manner to that of children. Knowles introduces the term ‘andragogy’ as a means of distinguishing adult learning (student-directed learning) from learning in children or pedagogy (teacher-directed learning). Yet while the two terms may be specific, Knowles believed that they existed on a continuum and that the two approaches are appropriate with both children and adults (Merriam, 2001: 6). One of

the elements of Knowles' ideas on andragogy is that it involves interaction either between learners or between the learner and teacher.

Learning is generally divided into two or at most three levels – the individual, team and organization which in this context is the sum of all the people. Jarvis (1987) expresses the view that learning always occurs in a social context be it in the individual, team or organization context. He maintains that the learner is a social construct and that as a consequence learning should be regarded as a social phenomenon as well as an individualistic one. His argument in support of this is that learning requires interaction and since interaction is a social process, so too is learning. Kim (1993) reinforces the notion of the importance of integrating the levels of learning of all individuals and the organization. Support for Jarvis' view comes from Kim and Baylor (2006) who maintain that learning and thinking always take place in a social context. Erickson (2007) maintains that individuals construct meaning of their experiences, but their development occurs in a social context, yet, the culture also plays a role in the development of this meaning.

Kim (1993: 37) states that “...*Individual learning has both an obvious and subtle importance for organizational learning – obvious because organizations are composed of individuals and subtle because organizations can learn independently of any one individual but not independently of all individuals.*” This implies that teams or groups of individuals are important in assisting the organization to learn.

Teams are a fundamental component of the modern organization and they can play an important role in learning for both the individual and the organization. Marquardt (2002; 41-42) provides an insightful description of the role(s) that teams can play in the overall context of learning. Learning organizations teach teams the

fundamentals of quality processes, how to solve problems and ensure that they have high level inter-personal skills. In addition, team learning is radically different to team training as it is more than just the acquisition of skills. Fundamental to team learning is the ability of individuals to manage their own learning. It also allows for creativity and the free flow of ideas, the sharing of experiences both positive and negative, not only within the team but across the organization and this promotes corporate intellectual growth. In the organizational context, there are a multitude of other issues such as motivation, reward, power and control which introduce this complexity.

The concept of the team as an integral component of the modern organization can be traced back to the work of Trist and Bamforth (1951; 3-38) in their study of coal-mining in Durham, England. They found that the divisions in labour that were endemic in the mining industry did not exist in the shift teams at one particular mine. At this mine they found that skills and knowledge were shared amongst team members which meant that individuals could perform all the tasks required of the team. As a consequence of the multi-skilling at this mine, there had been significant improvements in productivity, costs, cycle times, absenteeism and morale.

In their work on teams, Katzenbach and Smith (1994: 44) make a number of observations about team learning and productivity and their importance to organizations and say that *...the truly committed team is the most productive performance unit that management has at its disposal – provided there are specific results for which the team is collectively responsible, and provided the performance ethic of the company demands these results*. Furthermore, Katzenbach and Smith (1994: 45) defined a team as opposed to a group of people with a common goal or assignment as “... a small number of people with complementary skills who are

*committed to a common purpose, performance goals, and approach for which they hold themselves mutually accountable.”*

In order to reach this state, teams need to be provided with the authority and responsibility to undertake the work, that is they need to be empowered (Wellins, Byham & Wilson, 1991). Empowering of individuals and teams means that the work belongs to them as both individuals and teams and that the individuals comprising the teams are given a say in how things are done and decision-making processes. According to Wellins et al. (1991), when teams and individuals feel empowered they show more initiative, get more done and obtain greater job satisfaction.

This then presents the individual-organization learning dilemma. This dilemma or paradox was identified by Argyris and Schon (1978: 9) when they said “...*There is something paradoxical here. Organizations are not merely collections of individuals, yet there are no organizations without such collections. Similarly organizational learning is not merely individual learning, yet organizations learn through the experience and actions of individuals. What, then, are we to make of organizational learning? What is an organization that it may learn?*”

It is clearly obvious that an organization can only learn through all of its individual members and, therefore, is affected either directly or indirectly by individual learning. Argyris and Schon (1978) suggest that organizational learning should take place through a group of individuals whose actions are based on a shared set of mental models. They argue that this is a dilemma faced by organizations, since often very little learning is possible in organizations due to shared assumptions or mental models, that is the organization’s culture protects the status quo.

Important in the overall individual learning process are mental models. Senge (1990b: 8) describes mental models as “...*deeply ingrained assumptions, generalizations, or even pictures or images that influence how we understand the world and how we take action. Very often we are not consciously aware of our mental models or the effects they have on our behavior.*” Mental models have such a powerful influence on how we act and think that they can become blockages or conflict with reality. Mental models represent an individual’s view of the world. Within an individual’s mental models there are two levels that relate to the operational and conceptual levels of learning. Firstly there is the operational level which represents learning at the procedural level. This know-how is captured as routines. The second, or conceptual level has to do with thinking about why things are done, often challenging existing procedures or routines and leading to new frameworks in the mental model.

Therefore, the learning process is fundamentally different between the organizational and individual level. A model of organizational learning has to somehow resolve the dilemma of imparting intelligence and learning capabilities to a non-human entity without anthropomorphizing it. At the heart of both individual and organizational learning are mental models because as Kim (1993: 44) states “...*the mental models in individuals’ heads are where a vast majority of an organization’s knowledge (both know-how and know-why) lies*”.

Important in the overall individual learning process are mental models. Senge (1990b: 8) describes mental models as “...*deeply ingrained assumptions, generalizations, or even pictures or images that influence how we understand the world and how we take action. Very often we are not consciously aware of our*

*mental models or the effects they have on our behavior.”* Mental models have such a powerful influence on how we act and think that they can become blockages or conflict with reality. Mental models represent an individual’s view of the world. Within an individual’s mental models there are two levels that relate to the operational and conceptual levels of learning. Firstly there is the operational level which represents learning at the procedural level. This know-how is captured as routines. The second, or conceptual level has to do with thinking about why things are done, often challenging existing procedures or routines and leading to new frameworks in the mental model.

Mental models are not simply repositories of sensory data, but are active in the building of theories about sensory experience. Each mental model is a clustering or an aggregation of data that prescribes a viewpoint or a course of action. Kim (1993) has built on a variety of models and theories to provide a model that integrates individual learning with organizational learning.

At the organizational level, shared mental models are influenced by both the organizational routines and the organization’s view or assumptions (*weltanschauung*) of the world in which it operates. The organization’s *weltanschauung* will determine how people interpret environmental responses, whether they will act on the responses and the specific means they will use if they choose to act.

Kim’s (1993: 44) model is an attempt to explain the transfer of learning that occurs between the individual and the organization – a transfer which is two-way. In this model, Kim (1993) points out that there is a link between an individual’s mental models and the shared mental models within the organization. The strength of this link is a function of the level of influence exerted by a particular individual or group

of individuals. This model integrates mental models, both individual and organizational, with double-loop learning.

Double-loop learning has been described by Field and Ford (1995) as learning through critical questioning. According to Senge (2006), organizational learning is not valid unless the cycle of thinking, doing, evaluating, reflecting and building networks of transformative relationships is mastered by every person in the organization.

Swieringa and Wierdsma (1992) have taken the double-loop concept of learning to another level and introduced a further loop thus creating the triple-loop of learning. In triple-loop learning, the principles and values of the organization are addressed along with the role it wants to fulfil, the type of business it wants to pursue and the image it wants to portray. The focus of triple-loop learning is on organizational development by changing not only relationships but through basic changes in the organization itself.

Sofo (1999) has taken this 'loop' concept of learning a further step to what has been described as quadruple-loop learning. In quadruple-loop learning the focus is on the use of scenarios and different contexts in which plausible multiple interpretations of the present are constructed alongside a range of plausible narratives of the future.

As important as learning is, it is just as important for the transfer of learning to occur either as observable differences in behaviour or work practices in the workplace or to other members of the work group. This transfer of learning has been the subject of a number of studies simply because organizations invest considerable amounts of time and money into ensuring that staff have the necessary skills and knowledge to perform their jobs (Barnett & Ceci, 2002; Pugh & Bergin, 2006; Shariq, 1999; Sofo,

2007a & 2007b; Velada & Caetano, 2007). In the workplace, learning and training is needed for the improvement in performance or productivity.

The transfer of learning or training is the extent to which what is learnt in the training or class-room is applied and maintained in the work place (Sofu, 1999; 2007a; 2007b). Garavaglia (1995) as cited in Sofu (1999: 105; 2007a) describes two types of learning transfer. The first type is the *near* transfer of training and refers to the knowledge, skills and attitudes learned and replicated in the work-place exactly as they were learned. The second type is *far* transfer of training which refers to the application of the training not only in the broader work context but to the whole of life context through activities such as coaching and mentoring.

Barnett and Ceci (2002) maintain that there is little agreement in the scholarly community about the nature of learning transfer, the extent to which it occurs and the nature of its mechanisms. Yet, a number of authors have attempted to identify factors that influence the transfer of learning. Velada and Caetano (2007) analysed the mediating effects of perception of learning between occupational satisfaction, affective reactions, utility reactions and perceived training transfer. Their work suggests that individuals who are highly satisfied with their occupation are more likely to learn and to transfer the training to the work context.

Pugh and Bergin (2006) examined the role of motivation in the transfer of learning and found that motivational factors can influence transfer in three ways. First, motivation can influence initial learning in ways that either support or hinder transfer. Second, motivation can influence the initiation of transfer attempts. Third, motivation can influence persistence on transfer tasks. The task of leadership or

supervisors, therefore, is to be able to identify those factors that act as motivators in individuals in a way that motivates individuals to become learners.

Despite the apparent acceptance of the concept of double-loop learning, there have been doubts raised as to its efficacy. Henderson (1997) discusses four learning conditions that would prevent individual knowledge from influencing the organization and more seriously teach the organization to learn the wrong things. Firstly, there is what Henderson calls “role constrained learning” in which the individual is unable to influence organizational behaviour due to their lowly position in the organization. Secondly, “audience” learning, which occurs when an influential leader such as a domineering CEO is able to affect learning in a spurious way. Thirdly, there is “superstitious learning”, learning that is due to a misunderstanding of the nature of environmental activity and change. This type of learning is unrelated to (although not unaffected by) the inferences and activities learned by the individuals and organization. The fourth condition is “ambiguous” learning which occurs when the individuals are incapable of clearly understanding the causal links between the environment and action. As a consequence of this fourth condition, decision-making is avoided while more and more information is sought and plans are continually updated. In all these instances the culture of the organization encourages single-loop learning and prevents and punishes double-loop learning.

Blackman, Connelly and Henderson (2004: 1) question the concept of double-loop learning and whether in fact it does create reliable knowledge. They suggest that *... double loop learning may frequently create mistakes and fail to detect possible interesting lines of thought*. Blackman et al. (2004) may have misunderstood the concept of double-loop learning when they argue strongly against the reliability of

double loop learning as means of increasing reliable knowledge. The concept of double-loop learning is about identifying and correcting mistakes, i.e. increasing knowledge (Argyris, 1997) so it would appear that Blackman et al. may be interpreting the concept of double-loop learning as one that creates mistakes rather than correcting them.

There are a number of important drivers of learning in the organizational context and learning itself is a key driver for the long-term survival of organizations. Senge (1990a) has pointed out that the leader can be a major influence on learning by taking on the roles of designer, teacher and steward. As a teacher, the leader's role is that of the facilitator who assists everyone to gain a more insightful role of reality. Schein (2004) suggests that organizational culture is a major influence on learning and that organizational leadership, through its culture shaping role, also has a role as a driver of learning.

## **2.8 Learning Organization or Learning Culture?**

Before describing the learning organization it would be instructive to provide a conceptual overview of the organization. Over time organizations have undergone a high level of anthropomorphisation, that is, increasingly human attributes or personalities have been ascribed to them. As a consequence many different definitions of what an organization is have evolved. Organizations imply structure and the integration of activities, that is bringing people together to work cooperatively through interdependent relationships (Kast & Rosenzweig, 1985). The concept of interdependent relationships implies that organizations are social systems. According to Kast and Rosenzweig (1985), organizations consist of:

1. *goal oriented arrangements* in which people work with a purpose;

2. *psychosocial systems* in which people interact in groups;
3. *technological systems* in which people use knowledge and techniques; and
4. *an integration of structural activities* where people work together in patterned relationships.

If organizations are social systems then they are simply abstract concepts, that is, they exist only in the minds of the people who work within the systems. We only see the physical manifestations of the concept of the organization: the buildings, people and systems. Without these physical manifestations the organization does not exist. Therefore, the concept of the learning organization may well only be an abstraction.

Since Senge published his book *The Fifth Discipline: The Art and Practice of the Learning Organization*, the term ‘learning organization’ has become a part of corporate language. An on-line search of journal databases using the term “learning organization” in the title, identified one article on learning organizations (Wilson, 1988) prior to the publication of *The Fifth Discipline* whereas the same search resulted in the identification of 260 articles on learning organizations and organizational learning since 1990.

Senge (1990b; 14) described the learning organization as “...*an organization that is continually expanding its capacity to create its future. For such an organization, it is not enough merely to survive. ‘Survival learning’ or what is more often termed ‘adaptive learning’ is important – indeed it is necessary. But for a learning organization, ‘adaptive learning’ must be joined by ‘generative learning’, learning that enhances our capacity to create.*”

Yet Senge was not the first to espouse the concept of the learning organization. Garratt (1995) points out that the concept of the learning organization had been around for forty years in the UK and Europe. The recession in Europe plus the competition from East Asia were key triggers in reviving the concept.

For Garratt (1995), the essence of a learning organization can be summed up with three important points. Firstly, people play a key role as the only source of organizational learning. Secondly, because learning can only be accomplished by individuals it has an intrinsic value (personal development), yet it also has an extrinsic value since it creates organizational assets. Thirdly, to create continuous learning there is a need for multiple feedback loops.

Yet, the use of the term ‘learning organization’ in itself may be a misnomer and as such is open to question. In exploring the literature, the term ‘organizational learning’ is often used to describe the process/es that an organization undertakes to become a learning organization whereas the term learning organization is used to describe a particular type of organization, that is, one which in the words of Senge (1990b: 14) “...[is] *an organization that is continually expanding its capacity to create its future.*” But when the two terms are used interchangeably as described by Denton (1998) confusion is created as to what is meant by the writer. Once again we are confronted with the question of meaning. Organizational learning is a process undertaken by an organization in order to become a learning organization.

Prior to Denton’s (1998) criticisms about the way in which the terms “learning organization” and “organizational learning” were often used interchangeably, DiBella (1995: 287) provided a definition which differentiated between the two terms “...*It is important to differentiate between the related and similar constructs of ‘organizational learning’ and ‘the learning organization’...we can talk about*

*'organizational learning' as something that takes place in organizations, whereas 'the learning organization' is a particular type and form of organization in and of itself."*

Organizational learning has been described in a variety of ways. Argyris (1977: 116) described organizational learning as "...*a process of detecting and correcting error*". Fiol and Lyles (1985: 803) described organizational learning as "...*the process of improving actions through better knowledge and understanding*". It is through shared insights, knowledge, and mental models built on past knowledge and experiences – that is on memory, that organizational learning occurs (Stata, 1989). If, through the processing of information the range of its potential behaviours is changed, then an organization can be said to have learnt (Huber, 1991). In all of these descriptions of organizational learning, the inference is that it is the organization that has undertaken the learning, insofar as the people are the organization.

If the learning organization does exist, what are or would be the characteristics of such an entity? Despite the considerable literature that has been written about learning organizations, Senge (1990b) continues to be the one author whose work around what he calls the five disciplines continues to be quoted in the literature. To a lesser extent, and more often in the UK, the work of Pedler et al. (1991) is also used as an example of what is needed to be a learning organization. Senge (1990b: 3) describes a learning organization as one "...*where people continually expand their capacity to create the results they truly desire, where new and expansive patterns of thinking are nurtured, where collective aspiration is set free, and where people are continually learning how to learn together*". Pedler et al. (1991: 1) describe their Learning Company as "...*an organization that facilitates the learning of all its members and continually transforms itself*".

In both of these instances all the people as an entity of the organization are the ones that are seen as doing the learning. There needs to be some form of underlying imperative that drives and assists people to learn.

Marquardt (1996: 19) describes a learning organization as one which “... *learns powerfully and collectively and is continuously transforming itself to better collect, manage, and use knowledge for corporate success. It empowers people within and without the organization to learn as they work*”. Field and Ford (1995: 24) describe a learning organization as “... *an organization with a well-developed capacity for double-loop learning; where there is ongoing attention to learning how to learn; and where key aspects of organizational functioning – in particular, employee relations, work organization, skill formation, and technology/information systems – support learning*”.

Marquardt (1996) and Field and Ford (1995) speak of the organization as a living organism, one that is capable of rational decision making. There has been much written on the characteristics that define a learning organization and for this study three models are provided. Senge’s five disciplines model is chosen since it has the integrity and is popular in the literature as is the model described by Pedler et al. (1991). The third model is that of Marquardt (1996) and this model is included for two reasons. Firstly, at the time when this study was started the only study undertaken in Australia used Marquardt’s model and secondly, by using Marquardt’s model a comparison of results could be undertaken with results obtained in this study.

Senge (1990) provides five characteristics or as he called them disciplines that define a learning organization.

1. *Shared vision* – when there is a commitment by all members to one another, to the same vision and to seeing that vision coming to fruition. From this comes a common sense of purpose, overarching but at the same time incorporating each individual's personal vision. "*Shared vision is vital for the learning organization because it provides the focus and energy for learning*" (Senge, 1990b: 206).
2. *Mental models* – these are how we view the world and determine our courses of action. They are framed by our value and belief system as well as previous experience. They help us to make sense of the world in which we live and work. "*The discipline of managing mental models – surfacing, testing, and improving our internal pictures of how the world works – promises to be a major breakthrough for building learning organizations*" (Senge, 1990b: 174).
3. *Personal mastery* – This is about becoming proficient in what we do and doing so by continuous learning that is to continuously improve oneself, with and through others "*...the discipline of continually clarifying and deepening our personal vision, of focusing our energies, of developing patience, and of seeing reality objectively*" (Senge, 1990b: 7). It is "*...an essential cornerstone of the learning organization – the learning organization's spiritual foundation. An organization's commitment and capacity for learning can be no greater than that of its members*" (Senge, 1990b: 7).
4. *Team Learning* – Team learning focuses on the process of aligning and developing the capacity of a team to create the outcomes its members truly desire. This is achieved by building on the concepts of shared vision and personal mastery and Senge went on to say that "*Team learning is vital*

*because teams, not individuals, are the fundamental learning unit in modern organizations.” (Senge, 1990b: 10)*

5. *Systems thinking* – is the discipline that integrates the previous four disciplines (Senge, 1990: 12). Senge (1990b: 68) goes on to say that “*Systems thinking is a means whereby the repercussions of actions and events can be made obvious. It is a discipline for seeing wholes. It is a framework for seeing interrelationships rather than things, for seeing patterns of change rather than snapshots.*”

Senge summed up the five disciplines and saw them as each being a part of the whole “...as the five component learning disciplines converge they will not create the learning organization but rather a new wave of experimentation and advancement. It is vital that the five disciplines develop as an ensemble” (Senge, 1990: 11-12).

In the Learning Company, Pedler et al. (1991), Table 2.6, describe eleven characteristics as being necessary for an organization/company to be considered as a learning organization/company. The characteristics identified by Pedler et al., encompass some of the elements of Senge’s 5 disciplines for example: shared vision (Participative policy making), personal mastery (informating and self-development opportunities for all) and systems thinking (internal exchange and boundary workers as environmental scanners).

**Table 2.5 The 11 Characteristics of the Learning Company**

1. The learning approach to strategy	Policy and strategy formation are consciously structured for learning, for example, deliberate pilots and small-scale experiments are used to create feedback loops for learning about direction and the formulation of ‘emergent strategy’.
2. Participative policy making	All members of the organization, together with key stakeholders have a chance to contribute and participate in policy making.
3. Informating	Information technology is used not just to automate, but to make information widely available to front-line staff in order to empower them to act on their own initiative.

4. Formative accounting and control	A particular aspect of informing, where systems of budgeting, reporting and accounting are structured to assist learning for all members about how the money works in the business.
5. Internal exchange	All internal units and departments see themselves as customers and suppliers in a supply chain to the end user or client; contracting with and learning from other departments is normal.
6. Reward flexibility	With greater participation comes a need for more flexible and creative rewards. High reward flexibility means that there are alternatives in both monetary and non-monetary rewards to cater for individual needs and performance.
7. Enabling structures	Roles, departments, organization charts and even procedures and processes are seen as temporary structures that can easily be changed to meet job, user or innovation requirements.
8. Boundary workers as environmental scanners	All people who have contacts with external users, customers, suppliers, clients, business partners, neighbours, and so on. Processes are in place for bringing back and welcoming the information into the company.
9. Inter-company learning	The organization learns from other companies through joint ventures and other learning alliances.
10. A learning climate	All managers see their primary task as facilitating company members' experimentation and learning from experience, through questioning, feedback and support. The company seeks to export this Learning Climate to its context and business partners.
11. Self-development opportunities for all	Resources and facilities for self-development are made available to all members, especially those in the front-line with users or clients. People are encouraged to take responsibility for their own learning and development.

**Source: Pedler et al, 1991: 15-17**

However, these characteristics show a greater synergy with Marquardt's 5 sub-system model than they do with Senge's 5 disciplines and they can be equated directly with Marquardt's model. Marquardt (1996: 17) identifies five distinct sub-systems necessary for an organization to become a learning organization. It is only when these five sub-systems are incorporated into an organization that it becomes a learning organization. At the core of Marquardt's model is learning yet the five sub-systems – learning, people, organization, technology and knowledge – all interface, interact and support one another. Within each of these sub-systems are a number of elements or factors that Marquardt found to be essential for becoming a learning organization (see Table 2.7)

**Table 2.6 The components of Marquardt's Learning Organization Model**

Learning	<p>Levels of learning</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Individual</li> <li>Team</li> <li>Organization</li> </ul> <p>Types of learning</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Adaptive</li> <li>Anticipatory</li> <li>Duetero</li> <li>Action</li> </ul> <p>Critical learning skills</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Systems thinking</li> <li>Mental models</li> <li>Personal mastery</li> <li>Team learning</li> <li>Shared vision</li> <li>Dialogue</li> </ul>
Organization	<p>The four components of this sub-system are vision, culture, strategy and structure. These four elements or factors are aligned to supporting a learning organization and encourage values such as teamwork, empowerment, continual learning and knowledge management. The organization is itself streamlined, organic, flat and boundaryless and able to maximize collaboration within and outside of itself.</p>
People	<p>This sub-system is made up of managers or leaders, employees, customers, business partners and alliances, suppliers and vendors and the community. Each of these groups is valuable to the learning organization and they need to be empowered and enabled to learn. They can all contribute to and benefit from an organization's learning.</p>
Knowledge	<p>The four elements comprising this sub-system are: knowledge acquisition, creation, storage and transferring, and utilization. It is about the management of acquired and generated knowledge within the organization. These elements are continuous and interactive, not sequential and independent.</p>

Technology	Comprises three elements – information technology, technology based learning and electronic performance support systems. It is the integrated technological networks and information tools that allow access to and exchange information and learning.
------------	--

**From: Marquardt 1996: 24-31**

According to Marquardt (2002: 32) organizations that incorporate and integrate all five sub-systems of this model will have the capability to:

- Anticipate and adapt more readily to environmental influences;
- Accelerate the development of new products, processes and services;
- Become more proficient at learning from competitors and collaborators;
- Expedite the transfer of knowledge from one part of the organization to another;
- Learn more effectively from their mistakes;
- Make greater use of employees from all levels of the organization;
- Shorten the time to implement strategic changes;
- Stimulate continuous improvement in all areas of the organization;
- Attract the best workers; and
- Increase worker commitment and creativity.

Marquardt's model is the most complex and comprehensive of the three models presented here as it subsumes the frameworks developed by Senge and Pedler et al. In Marquardt's learning organization model, the organization, people, knowledge, and technology sub-systems feed into, enhance and augment learning which in turn permeates the other four sub-systems. There is an inter-relationship between each of

the sub-systems that relies on the strength of the others. If one sub-system is weak or absent, the others can be significantly compromised. Table 2.7, provides a possible way in which the models proposed by Senge and Pedler et al. could be merged with Marquardt's model.

**Table 2.7 Integration of the three Learning Organization Models**

	<b>Marquardt</b>				
	Learning	Organization	People	Knowledge	Technology
<b>Senge</b>					
Shared Vision					
Mental models					
Personal mastery					
Team learning					
Systems thinking					
<b>Pedler et al.</b>					
The learning approach to strategy					
Participative policy making					
Informating					
Formative accounting and control					
Internal exchange					
Reward flexibility					
Enabling structures					
Boundary workers as environmental scanners					
Inter-company learning					
A learning climate					
Self-development opportunities for all					

Perhaps the concept of the learning organization is no more than a concept and it may well be an unrealistic dream or fad Dunoon (2002). Kofman and Senge (1993: 16) probably reinforced this latter idea when they said “...*organizational learning has*

*become the latest buzzword. Just as there is no such thing as a 'smart kid', however, there is no such thing as a 'learning organization'. 'Learning organization' is a category that we create in language. Like every linguistic creation, this category is a double-edged sword that can be empowering or tranquilizing. The difference lies whether we see language as a set of labels that describe a pre-existing reality, or as a medium in which we can articulate new models for living together."*

When we speak of a 'learning organization,' we are not describing an external phenomenon or labelling an independent reality. We are articulating a view that involves us – the observers – as much as the observed in a common system. We are taking a stand for a vision, for creating a type of organization we would truly like to work within and which can thrive in a world of increasing interdependency and change.

Given that there is tendency to not be rigorous in our use of language, then it is incumbent on us all to define exactly what is meant when terms such as learning organization are being used. In this context, Weick and Westley (1996: 440) challenged the concept of the learning organization, they believe that the 'learning organization' is an oxymoron since "...*learning involves disorganization and an increase in variety while organising involves forgetting and a reduction in variety.*"

Therefore, can there truly be such an entity as a 'learning organization'? Are we in fact talking about and discussing a Learning Culture?

### **Learning Culture**

According to Schein (2004) culture is all about the values, beliefs and assumptions that people bring to an organization. It is through our values, beliefs and assumptions that our mental models are created and collectively, it is these beliefs and assumptions that define the ways in which tasks are performed, decisions are made

and problems are solved. In addition, it is these values and assumptions that will influence the vision, strategies and processes of the organization and how they are implemented. Therefore, perhaps we should be referring to a learning culture rather than a learning organization.

Farago & Skyrme (1995), Kyriakidou and Gore (2005) and Stinson et al. (2006) have identified a range of characteristics which typify organizations that demonstrate a learning culture. Farago and Skyrme (1995) state that there are five basic characteristics typical of organizations with a learning culture. Firstly, people in these organizations have a future and external orientation whereby they try and develop an understanding of the environment in which they operate. Leaders in these organizations take time out to think about the future and use external sources and advisors, for example engaging customers to participate on planning teams. Secondly, there is a free exchange and flow of information to ensure that expertise is available when and where it is needed. Individuals create information networks across organizational boundaries to develop their own expertise and knowledge.

Thirdly, senior management or leaders are strongly committed to learning and personal development. This means encouraging learning amongst all levels in the organization where the learning is rewarded. Most importantly, people are given the time to think and learn. Fourthly, people are valued. Their ideas and creativity need to be stimulated, developed and utilized and the diversity that they bring to the organization recognized as a strength. People need to feel free to challenge ideas and actions in a climate of openness and trust. Finally, there is a climate where failure is tolerated, provided that people learn from their mistakes and failures. Learning from failures and mistakes can often be a more powerful teacher than success.

Kyriakidou and Gore (2005) share similar ideas about culture and learning. From their observations, most best-practice operations share cultures that support values such as building the future together, cooperative setting of missions and strategies, development of teamwork and organizational learning. Moreover, such values and practices as helping others, sharing of information and resources, and working as a team seem to enhance performance in organizations.

Stinson et al. (2006) present a number of ideas or tips for creating a learning culture. Firstly, learning has to be valued by the organization and people need to make a personal commitment to lifelong learning. Secondly, the organization's leaders have to support people in terms of reflective learning and development by demonstrating that they themselves value learning and developing a culture that facilitates learning. Thirdly, people need to develop self-awareness, be open to feedback and to others' ideas and develop the ability to continuously clarify what is important from a creative rather than reactive viewpoint. This self-awareness involves working with our mental models and learning to unearth our internal pictures of the world and bringing them to the surface for scrutiny. Within teams each member must be open and prepared to innovate but also to acknowledge mistakes made and lessons learned. Fourthly, learning can only take place if time and space are allocated for the individual and teams to learn. This means that leaders and managers need to understand the value of learning for the organization and provide the time and facilities for individual and team learning.

The fifth point that Stinson et al. (2006) make is that, while individuals have a personal vision, there is a need to develop a shared vision within teams, across departments and ultimately the organization. A shared vision is vital because it provides the focus and energy for learning. Whilst adaptive learning is possible

without vision, generative learning occurs only when people are striving to accomplish something that matters deeply to them. The sixth point is that team learning is essential since teams are the fundamental learning unit in organizations. This means that organizations have to take time out for team building exercises. The seventh point is the development of leadership skills, that is, the setting of vision, values and culture of the team and/or organization. Leaders in organizations with a learning culture manage risk and actively seek solutions to issues that have the potential to become problems. The final point made by Stinson et al. (2006) is that both individuals and teams need time for reflection and time to celebrate their individual and collective successes.

Schein (1994) says that we need a psychologically safe haven where learning can occur and these havens should be created in organizations. These havens would be secure environments as well as parallel systems existing alongside or within the organization where people would have opportunities for training, practice, support and encouragement to overcome the fear and shame associated with making errors as well as coaching and rewards for efforts in the right direction and norms that reward innovative thinking and experimentation.

Maccoby (2003) posits that the underlying criterion for a learning culture is teamwork with people taking responsibility and supporting each other. Yet for teamwork to be developed and be effective, people need to be able to admit to mistakes without being punished as well as being clear about their roles and the organization's purpose. It is necessary that people share experiences and learn from their mistakes as well as their successes. Therefore, Maccoby maintains that a learning culture can only be developed from the top of the organization through managers creating trust amongst their staff.

According to Boyett and Boyett (1998) the necessary conditions for learning conditions don't exist in most organizations because their culture is unsuitable, at least for long-term learning. Graham and Nafukho (2007) suggest that employees' perception of the effect of culture on learning alters as their length of service in the organization increases. The perception of new employees in the organization is more positive than longer serving employees with respect to the culture in promoting organizational learning. As employees become more familiar with the organization, more experienced employees have observed that there are elements missing in the organization's learning practices and strategies, and that the missing elements preclude learning from happening (Graham & Nafukho, 2007).

It would appear that for learning to become a part of an organization's culture there needs to be considerable change in the basic assumptions and values people bring to the organization, and hence attitudes towards learning as well perhaps in the way in which organizations choose their leaders. For groups to work effectively it is important that they have shared values and assumptions since it is through these shared values and assumptions that effective group decision-making and planning occurs. Kotter and Heskett (1992) call this the invisible level of culture and as such is harder to change and takes place over a much longer period of time.

The "idealistic" learning culture suggested by Schein appears to be so far removed from the cultural reality of most work places that creating or developing it would be highly improbable. However, people such as Ulrich et al. (1993) and Limerick et al. (1998) are of the belief that organizations have progressed to where they could be considered to have undergone cultural change and as a result have become learning organizations. Becoming a learning organization requires considerable change and this change needs to be of a transformational nature.

As has been highlighted and discussed in this section, culture plays an important role in how organizations behave. In his recent publication, Senge (2006) discusses the role of culture and its influence on organizations and that for organizations to be considered learning organizations they need to develop learning cultures. He does not provide a blueprint or guide as to how this might be achieved.

In this section, the concepts of the learning organization and learning culture have been discussed. Yet, given the preceding discussion regarding both learning organizations and learning cultures, it appears that the proponents of both the learning organization concept and the learning culture concept are in fact describing the same entity but using different names.

As is pointed out and discussed at length in the section on organizational culture, culture dictates how an organization functions or operates. Culture also defines the organization. It is argued in this section, that it is inconsistent to talk of learning organizations when the main function of an organization is to organise and maintain a semblance of control over the functions of the organization especially when learning requires a degree of freedom and to an extent a loss of control. Therefore, it is far more appropriate to discuss organizations in terms of whether or not there is a culture which supports and values learning rather than saying an organization is or is not a learning organization. An integral component of a learning culture is knowledge, since knowledge is one end product of learning and this knowledge needs to be managed for the benefit of the organization and the only way this can be done is through the effective management of the holders of knowledge and that is people.

## **2.9 Information Management and Technology**

In this section of the literature the term knowledge management, along with the use of technology in the learning environment is explored. An argument is presented

that challenges the term ‘knowledge management’ and posits that what is actually occurring is information and data management. An exploration of the literature on learning organizations has repeatedly made reference to the concept of knowledge management, a term which appears to have come into vogue with the increase in the use of information technology (IT) as a means of storing and managing information and data. As a consequence, the literature provides descriptions of how organizations develop and maintain systems to store and manage information.

In this review the following question is now posed “Can organizations manage knowledge?” Information becomes knowledge when individuals receive information or data from a variety of sources, mentally process the information or data which is then contextualised in terms of previous experience, the individual’s belief and value systems and the immediate situation, that is their mental models play an important role in the creation of knowledge.

According to Drucker (1969) knowledge resides within individuals. Allee (1997:44) describes knowledge as “...*a constantly shifting configuration of memory, context, patterns, associations, and relationships.*” This then suggests that knowledge is different for each and every individual and therefore it would be almost impossible to convey the richness of our personal domain of knowledge to another person. Allee then describes the impossibility of cataloguing her own knowledge “...*There is no way I could possibly catalog even my own personal knowledge. What makes us think we can somehow catalog or map all the knowledge that resides in a complex enterprise of hundreds or thousands of people?*” (Allee, 1997: 44).

Knowledge is difficult to manage because at times, it may be an ambiguous, unspecific and a dynamic phenomenon intrinsically related to meaning, understanding and process (Alvesson and Karreman, 2001). In Alvesson and Karreman’s view

knowledge management is more about the practice of managing people or information than as a practice aimed at knowledge creation. It is Sveiby's (2001a) contention that knowledge management consists of two paths. There is the IT path which is information management and then there is the people path which is about the management of people. It is Sveiby's belief that knowledge cannot be managed and that knowledge management is a poor term. "Knowledge Focus" or "Knowledge Creation" are 'better terms' since they describe a mindset which views knowledge as an activity not an object (Sveiby, 2001b).

Wilson (2002) argues that it is necessary to distinguish between information and knowledge because if the distinction is not made the result is that one term can and is often used as a synonym for the other. Failure to distinguish between the terms can only result in confusion. Wilson, like Allee (1997) and Drucker (1969), further argues that knowledge involves a series of mental processes including comprehension, understanding and learning that occur in the mind. As a consequence of these mental processes, we develop a repository of knowledge that we often are not aware exists. Polanyi (1962) referred to this knowledge as tacit knowledge. Tacit means 'hidden' and this is the key point about Polanyi's concept. Tacit knowledge is hidden knowledge, hidden even from the consciousness of the person possessing this knowledge. Nonaka and Takeuchi (1995: 59-60) view tacit knowledge as being "... *personal, context-specific, and therefore hard to formalize and communicate. Explicit or 'codified' knowledge, on the other hand, refers to knowledge that is transmittable in formal, systematic language*". This suggests that we know more than we can tell.

According to Brohm (2005: 80), tacit knowledge is by definition not explicitly known, it is *implied* due to its contribution to a focal point. Tacit knowledge comprises a range of conceptual and sensory information and images that can be

brought to bear in an attempt to make sense of something. Many bits of tacit knowledge can be brought together to help form a new model or theory (Smith, 2003). Therefore, to capture or manage knowledge that an individual may not even be aware of, that is inaccessible to the consciousness of the individual, would appear to be impossible. According to Polanyi (1962) tacit knowledge is an inexpressible process that enables an individual to assess phenomena in the course of becoming knowledgeable about the world. Yet Brohm (2005) believes that because meaning relies on tacit experiences, memories, and interpretative skills which constitute the social and historical context to meaning, to separate tacit knowledge from explicit knowledge would imply that meaning could exist separately from a cultural or historical setting. Explicit knowledge refers to knowledge which is expressible and thus becomes information. Explicit knowledge is knowledge that is taken for granted in our actions and may be shared with others through common experience or culture.

The idea that tacit knowledge could be captured or managed appears to have arisen in the work of Nonaka (1991) and Nonaka and Takeuchi (1995). Yet, the only way in which tacit knowledge can or could be captured or managed is when it is used to provide meaning. If this is so, then there are two ways in which knowledge can be managed and the second is dependent on the first. Firstly, the knowledge possessed by an individual can only be managed by that individual and only in the way that the individual decides. The second way is through the effective management of the individual and in the case of an organization, this involves obtaining the agreement of the individual to use their knowledge for the benefit of the organization. This is where leadership is important and more specifically transformational leadership since it is the transformational leader who is able to motivate people for the benefit of the organization (Bass & Avolio, 1989).

The question then becomes can we ever manage what people know and this is answered in the negative by Nonaka and Takeuchi (1995:58) “...*information is a flow of messages, while knowledge is created by that very flow of information, anchored in the beliefs and commitment of its holder. This understanding emphasises that knowledge is essentially related to human action.*”

Miller (2002) maintains that knowledge is a uniquely human capability and is created by making meaning from information. Therefore, information per se has no intrinsic meaning. Using the idea that information has no intrinsic meaning Miller (2002) also applies the concepts of tacit and explicit knowledge to explain the differences between training and learning. Miller contends that training is about information delivery, which is explicit knowledge, whereas learning is about the making of personal meaning, which is tacit knowledge.

This inability or wish not to distinguish between knowledge and information is identified by Fahey and Prusak (1998) as being the first error of a number of errors that organizations make when dealing with knowledge management. Therefore, if organizations or the people make this initial mistake then the ensuing errors are compounded. People in organizations appear to view knowledge as if it can exist in isolation to the human being (Fahey and Prusak, 1998). As a consequence the same approaches that are used in data and information management – capture, store, retrieve and transmit – are spoken of in the management of knowledge (Marquardt, 2002). But you cannot capture, store, retrieve and transmit knowledge which only exists inside the mind of the individual. However information and data can be captured, stored, retrieved and transmitted.

If the preceding arguments are accepted, then leadership can play a critical role in the management of followers’ knowledge through the relationships that leaders

develop with their followers. One of the components of transformational leadership is providing followers with intellectual stimulation by challenging them with new ideas and approaches to problems (Bryman, 1997). New ideas and approaches to problems challenge their current knowledge and perceptions. One of the greatest challenges facing all organizations now and into the future will be how to manage the information and data generated by the organization and the knowledge acquired by the members of the organization.

Yet there is a persistence in the literature to talk of knowledge management systems, systems for the capture, codifying and storage of knowledge and as has been argued, to manage the knowledge that others possess can be difficult because people need to accept being managed in a manner that empowers them to utilize their knowledge. Systems can be designed, and they have been for the management of information and data but not for knowledge because knowledge is individual and the result of contextualizing information in terms of individual experience and values. The management of information and data has progressed from the use of paper to the point where now, nearly all the information and data produced in an organization can be stored electronically. The management of information is now dominated by technology and the following section provides a brief review of the impact of technology on learning.

### ***Technology***

Accompanying this increased use of electronic technology for the storage of information has been an increased effort to harness these technologies in the development of people. According to Marquardt and Kearsley (1999), innovations in the design and use of technology have had a significant impact on organizations, management and learning. One of the most significant technological innovations in

the latter part of the 20<sup>th</sup> century has been the introduction of the Internet and its offspring the Intranet. These two technologies have completely changed the way information is handled around the world and within organizations. As a consequence, technology enables organizational shifts in the way they operate.

Technology serves a multi-faceted role in the 21<sup>st</sup> century organization. Firstly, it serves as the modern-day library and record management unit of the organization and the management of information and data, but **not** its knowledge since knowledge is unique to an individual and, as stated before can only be managed through the effective management of individuals. Secondly, technology is used for the analysis and storage of this information and data. This information and data can subsequently be transferred and disseminated among organizational units and their members.

Technology is one of the sub-systems in Marquardt's Systems Learning Model (Marquardt, 2002). Technology determines how training is designed and delivered and more importantly how the people in organizations learn. Technology allows learning to occur asynchronously, as in the use of on-line learning programmes and CDs, or synchronously where the instructor is able to interact with the learner(s) at the time of programme delivery. Therefore, a greater level of sophistication in the design of the learning materials and familiarity with the nature of the delivery technology is required of designers. These technological advances are seen by those organizations with dispersed student groups as a means of more effectively delivering distance learning and virtual working.

However, technology-based learning systems do not appear to have delivered the expected benefits (Oliver, 2005). Part of the problem would appear to lie in the fact that different students have different learning styles and that particular learning styles are not suited to technology-based learning (Ross & Schultz, 1999; Butler &

Pinto-Zipp, 2005-06; Manochehri & Young, 2006; Mestre, 2006; Sun, Joy & Griffiths, 2007).

As a learning tool, on-line learning and working has its advantages, but it also has a number of disadvantages as have been highlighted above. However, until such time as technology can accommodate the complete range of learning and working styles, it should be used in combination with traditional ways of learning and working. Yet, there are some organizations, for example the Ford Motor Company, which have successfully integrated information technology with satellite television to provide a synchronous distance based learning and working environment (Marquardt & Kearsley, 1999). In doing this they have also accommodated individual learning styles into their training delivery system. Unfortunately, there is a high capital cost in implementing this system and maintaining it in the face of the rapid advances being made in technology.

While technology may not have advanced to the point where it can completely replace the traditional class-room, it can have a major role in the support of learning through the use of performance support systems. Levin (1995) describes an electronic performance support system (EPSS) as one which contains a number of components. These components include competency profiles of current employees and the competencies required for each position; expert data bases about the external environment in which the organization operates; online help linked to training and reference materials accessible through simple, intuitive interfaces; integrated training and job aids; electronic integrated reference systems capable of performing online searches; the ability to integrate new materials into existing data bases through online documentation; systems for monitoring and assessing activity and providing feedback including fitting individual competencies to specific tasks; and linking software

applications so that data or information from one application can be integrated into another application.

An efficient and robust EPSS combined with the intelligent and appropriate use of the system can increase learning within organizations in a number of ways (Marquardt, 2002). Through the provision of just in time help, job performance can be improved by giving access to the information, methods, tools and decision making aids required by users. This help can also include access to coaches and mentors. Most importantly, EPSS provides an infrastructure for the effective functioning of the organization and through this infrastructure learning can be accelerated as well as improving learning retention. Yet, for most organizations technology continues to be used primarily as a means of organizational communication through the use of electronic bulletin boards, intranets and email, and record keeping.

In summary, this section has dealt with knowledge management and technology. In doing this it has been argued that the term knowledge management is a misnomer and that in fact the term information or data management should be used. Drucker (1992) sums up concept of knowledge management when he says "...[knowledge] *is to be found between the ears*". In other words, knowledge cannot be managed using information or data management systems. In the second part, technology has been explored, primarily as an aid to learning and working and has been found to be deficient and unable to achieve the expected aims, primarily due to the fact that it is, at this stage unable to accommodate the different learning styles of employees.

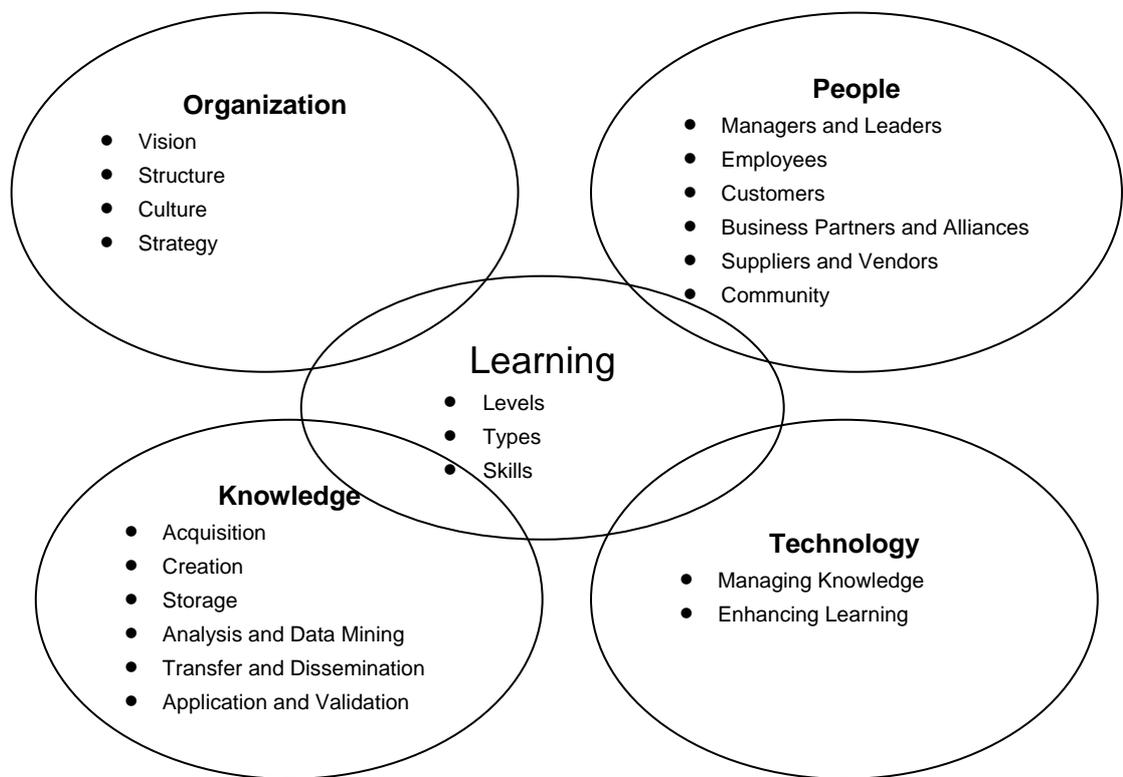
## **2.10 Implications and a Conceptual Framework for the Study**

Clubs are organizations and as such the discussion of the preceding elements, while not directed specifically at clubs, is still relevant. The relationships between the elements discussed in this chapter are complex and it is through the perceptions of

staff working in the club industry that these complex inter-relationships are demonstrated. These perceptions are based on a variety of factors including family experiences, cultural biases and previous work experiences and as such influence the manner in which staff interpret the organization and hence leadership, organizational culture and learning in the organization.

This literature review has highlighted the lack of research into licensed clubs in Australia, not only in the area of the learning organization but in all aspects of club management. This lack of research means that there is a knowledge gap in the understanding of how clubs specifically and organizations generally operate in Australia and as such provides the opportunity for further unique research to inform our understanding of how organizations operate.

In this review, five organizational elements have been explored: organizations and change, leadership, culture, learning and knowledge management and technology. In some respects there has been a crossing over of ideas between these five elements which demonstrates the interconnectivity of the elements. Senge (1990a; 1990b) discusses organizational change in the context of leadership and learning. Schein (1994; 2004) discusses organizational change in a similar way to Senge but adds the dimension of culture as a necessary precursor of learning as well as the inhibitory effects that culture can have on change. Drucker (1969: 1972: 1993) has made significant contributions in all areas in terms of leadership, knowledge and knowledge management. Finally, Marquardt, (1996: 2002) provides a means of linking these elements in a way that provides us with a road map to determining if organizations exhibit the characteristics of a learning organization. Therefore, on the basis of this literature review, the model that Marquardt (Figure 2.1) has provided is used as the framework for this study.

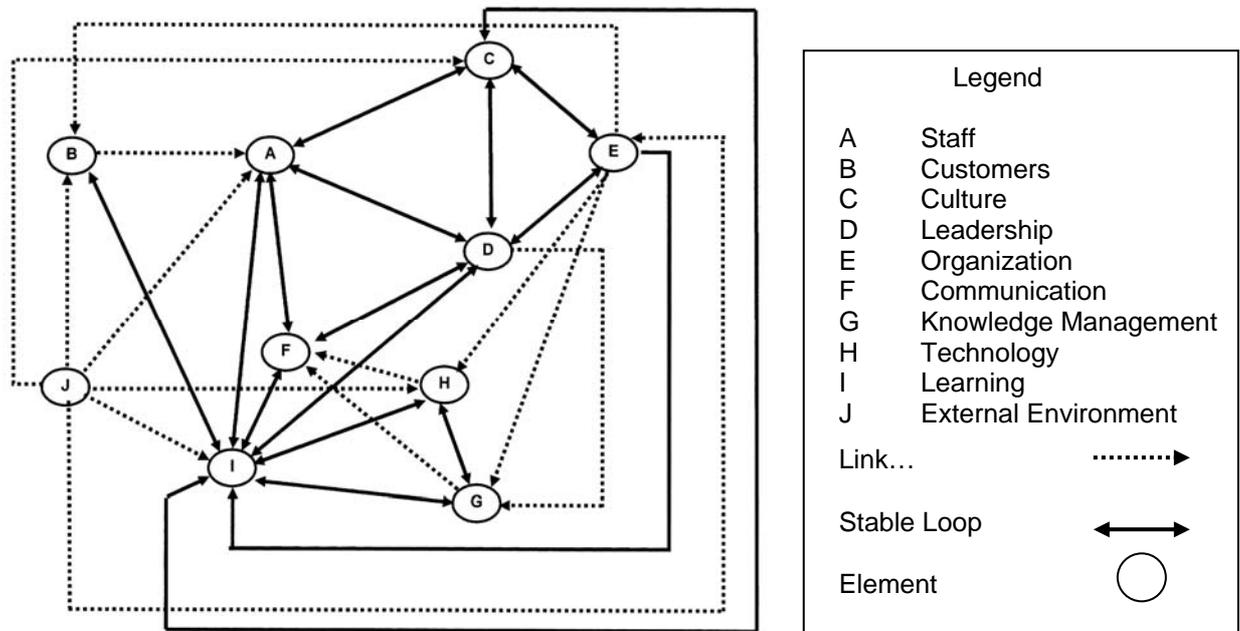


**Figure 2.1 The theoretical framework for the study**

(Marquardt, 2002: 24)

Marquardt's five element model presents the components which he has identified as being necessary for a learning organization. In this model the influence that each of the factors has on another is represented as occurring through their relationship with learning and that they are indispensable partners in the building and sustaining of organizational learning and productivity. This relationship between the five factors exists on several levels and the Marquardt model implies the direct impact that one factor or sub-system can have on another while passing through the learning sub-system. If one of the sub-systems is weak, then there is a direct impact on the other four and they do not function as efficiently as they could.

These complex interactions are presented in Figure 2.2 and demonstrate the interactions between a number of the components discussed earlier in this literature review. This is a dynamic model insofar as if there is a change in one element, that change will invariably impact on one or more other elements.



**Figure 2.2: The interrelationships among elements in a learning organization**

In Figure 2.2 a link exists where one element impacts on another and could be viewed as drivers of activity. A stable loop exists where there is reciprocity between two elements, i.e. mutual influence. The element or collector points are points where the variable receives at least two or more arrows from other variables. The complexity of the relationships among the various elements in operation in the licensed club environment in Australia is demonstrated in Figure 2.2. In this figure learning is at the centre of the organizational activity as it is essential for the immediate and ongoing viability of the organization. The other nine elements influence learning, with eight of these elements having a reciprocal influence. The

external environment is a driver of learning in the licensed club industry, especially government with changes to legislation and reporting regimes, but learning within the clubs has little or any influence on the external environment. Of the other elements, leadership exhibits reciprocal relationships with five other elements (learning, culture, staff, organization, and communication) and a link with knowledge management. Leadership, after learning, could therefore be seen as the most important of the elements in influencing learning. The four critical areas or elements in this model are club staff, leadership, culture and learning.

As can be seen from this model, the external environment impacts directly and indirectly on all aspects of a club's operations. Learning in particular is influenced by all areas with the exception of staff who are only seen as the recipients or beneficiaries of learning.

## **2.11 Summary**

In this chapter, a number of closely related concepts have been explored through a review of the literature. This exploratory process has identified some of the practical and theoretical issues associated with the literature surrounding learning organizations. This chapter has also explored the meaning of a number of terms especially the terms learning organization and knowledge management and to some extent learning.

Firstly, the concept of the learning organization has been challenged and it has been suggested that the term learning organization is an oxymoron and what is actually being discussed is an organizational learning culture that values and supports learning. Secondly, the notion that knowledge can be managed was challenged. In challenging this notion it has been pointed out that knowledge is something that is

held by the individual, that there are two types of knowledge – tacit and explicit, and therefore knowledge can be only managed insofar as an individual can be managed.

Leadership has been explored from several perspectives and how these different perspectives can impact on learning and organizational culture. Similarly, culture has been explored from an organizational perspective through several different models. If anything, this review has served to highlight how words can have different meanings to different people and this is a reflection of individual value systems, norms and upbringing. Therefore, at various stages throughout this review different terms have been explored in terms of their meaning and as a consequence the importance of the concept of mental models has been demonstrated. In the following chapter, the methodological framework and phenomenographic approach adopted in this study are described and explained.

## CHAPTER 3

### METHODOLOGICAL FRAMEWORK

#### 3.1 Introduction

The aim of social research is to try and explain two fundamental questions about society. These questions revolve around the “what” (descriptive research) and the “why” (explanatory research). This means that social research should attempt to both describe and understand society (de Vaus, 1990). Interposed upon this is an ideological divide centred around qualitative and quantitative research, a divide based on different epistemological assumptions. This divide is based on the assumption that quantitative methods are more “scientific” in that they attempt to make causal connections between variables in the same way as is done in natural science (Travers, 2001).

The purpose of this chapter is to:

1. Describe the research methodologies used in this study;
2. Outline the range of methods used in collecting the data; and
3. Justify the use of the selected methodologies and the theoretical bases that underpin them.

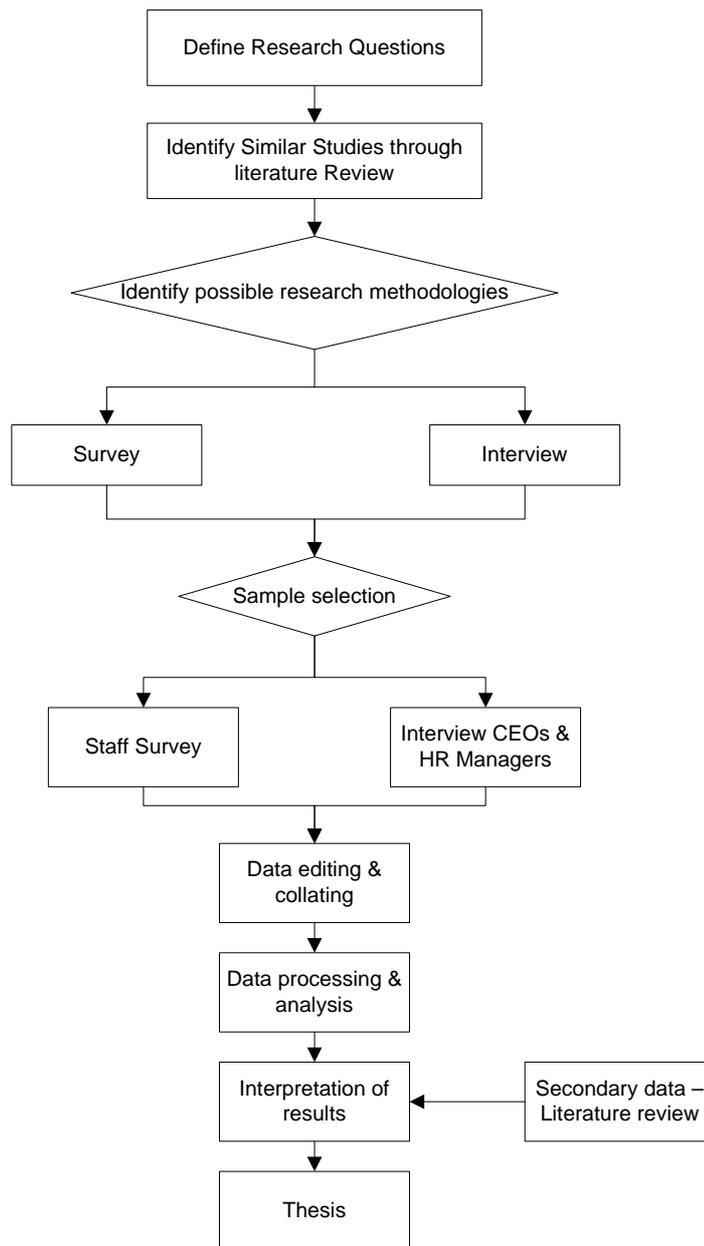
#### 3.2 The Research Process

In order to maintain an ongoing focus it was necessary to develop a process that would guide the data collection and analysis phases of the research work. The first step in this process was to define the question(s) that were to be answered, followed

by the selection of appropriate research methodologies, then the basic research method and finally the sample to be tested.

A simple research model has four main points (Punch, 2005). Firstly, the research needs to be framed in terms of the research questions. Secondly, it is necessary to decide or determine what data are necessary to answer the questions. Thirdly, the research has to be designed to collect and analyse the data. Fourthly, the collected data has to be used to address the research questions.

In Figure 3.1 the approach taken in this research is described. The first step was to define and refine the research questions and through a literature review identify any similar research that had been undertaken in the area. The second step was to identify a particular research methodology that would be applicable to the study. Having decided on appropriate research methodologies the next step was to identify the sample to be used in the study. The remaining steps consisted of collecting the data, undertaking the data analyses, interpreting the results of the analyses and writing the report. This approach is similar to that described by Zikmund (2003: 61) and Punch (2005).



**Figure 3.1 Research process**

Based on this model, it can be seen that the research planning process is guided by two overall questions – the ‘what’ and the ‘how’. The ‘what’ refers to the research questions to be answered and what these questions are trying to establish.

The ‘how’ refers to how the research will answer the questions.

### 3.3 Research Methodologies used in the Social Sciences

Research methodologies in the social sciences have been the subject of considerable debate with the argument centred on the relative values of quantitative

and qualitative research. The quantitative school of research has argued that quantitative research is the only way to do research as such studies are more 'scientific' and that there needs to be causal connections between variables as there are in the natural sciences. This school has argued that scientific enquiry needs to be objective and that the only way that this could be achieved was through the use of quantitative research methodologies. This implies that the quantitative school of research has an objectivist view of the world (Flick, 2002, 2006; Punch 2005; Travers, 2001; Yates, 2004).

The second school of thought or the qualitative school argues that there are fundamental differences between human beings and inanimate objects in the natural world since human beings think, can experience emotion and have free will. The argument put forward by this school of thought is that the researcher needs to get into the minds of those being studied and that achieving understanding of behaviour should be the principal goal of social science research (Flick, 2002; 2006; Punch 2005; Travers, 2001; Yates, 2004).

Irrespective of whichever approach is adopted when, doing research in the social sciences there is always going to be a degree of interpretation of the results. Therefore, a particular research paradigm is chosen that best suits the nature of the questions to be answered and the particular methodologies that would assist in answering these questions. In addition, the decision regarding the research paradigm to be adopted is influenced, to some degree, by the review of the existing literature described in the preceding chapter.

The primary method of data collection used in this work was the survey since, according to Zikmund (2003: 63), a survey can combine both questionnaire and interviews and these are the major components of the data collection process. The

questionnaire used focuses on what is happening in the workplace at the time and because of the nature of an anonymously completed questionnaire there is no control over behavioural events. The interviews are semi structured in that the questions are “open” and this allows the participants a degree of freedom in their responses. This also allows for some further exploration and clarification of responses. Therefore, it is necessary to identify a methodology that would be consistent with these two factors.

Yin (2003: 5) provides a matrix which describes a set of criteria that can be used to define the broad approach that can be used in settling on a particular research strategy. This strategy is based on the nature of the research questions, whether the investigation requires control of behavioural events, and whether the investigation focuses on contemporary events.

Using the criteria described in Yin’s matrix, the broad approach used in this research is the case study since there is no control over behavioural events and the research is focused on contemporary events. Zikmund (2003) makes the point that the case study method lends itself to the study of an organization or entity, in this situation an industry. Scholz and Tietje (2002), state that a case study can incorporate a number of strategies such as surveys and open-ended questions for collecting data. In order to provide the data, these two survey techniques were employed as the primary means of data collection for the same reasons, thus the case study approach is appropriate as it can include interviews and an analysis of survey results. The survey results require the interpretation of events, both behavioural and contemporary on the part of the participants. Similarly, the interviews require the interpretation of events and both require a level of interpretation on the part of the researcher.

### 3.4 The Case Study

The case study is a methodological approach to the gathering of data incorporating a number of data collection methodologies. The case study approach involves the systematic gathering of information from a person, social setting, event or group to effectively understand how the subject operates or functions (Berg, 2004).

The overall approach taken in this study is that of the case study and involves the collection and analysis of both qualitative and quantitative data. Yet, the case study approach to research has been described by many social scientists as being only suitable “...for the exploratory phase of an investigation, that surveys and histories are appropriate for the descriptive phase and that experiments are the only way of doing explanatory or causal inquiries” (Yin, 2003: 3).

A case study has been defined in many ways (Becker, 1968; Macdonald & Walker, 1977; Shaw, 1978; Wilson, 1979; Guba & Lincoln 1981; Zikmund, 2003; Babbie, 2004). However, there may be little consensus as to what constitutes a case and the term has a broad use as exemplified by Gravetter and Forzano (2006: 343) who describe a case study as “...the in-depth study of and detailed description of a single individual (or a very small group)”.

Babbie (2004: 293) describes the case study as “...the in-depth examination of a single instance of some social phenomenon”. Zikmund (2003: 115) describes the purpose of the case study methodology as “...an exploratory technique that intensively investigates one or a few situations that are similar to the researcher’s problem situation”. Furthermore, Zikmund (2003) concludes that case studies are usually exploratory in nature and that to generalize from a few cases can be dangerous.

Scholz and Tietje (2002) describe two types of case study depending on the design parameters. There is the holistic case study which is thoroughly qualitative in its approach and relies on narrative, phenomenological descriptions. The second type is the embedded case study which involves more than one unit or object of analysis and usually involves other analyses in addition to qualitative analysis. The embedded case study has the advantage in that it allows for a multiplicity of methodologies as well as smaller studies within the main study (Scholz & Tietje, 2002).

Merriam (1988) describes qualitative case studies as having four basic characteristics, they are particularistic, descriptive, heuristic and inductive as defined below. When a study focuses on particular situations, events, programs or phenomena, it can be described as particularistic. In addition to being particularistic, case studies are usually descriptive and the end product is a rich “thick” description of the phenomenon under study. The term thick description derives from anthropology and it means that there are cultural undertones are being investigated as summed up by Guba and Lincoln (1981: 119) who describe a case study as a means of *“...interpreting the meaning of... demographic and descriptive data in terms of cultural norms and mores, community values, deep-seated attitudes and notions and the like.”*

Case studies are also heuristic in that they are a tool or mechanism designed to illustrate, bring about new meaning and extend the reader’s understanding of the phenomena being studied. Case studies can uncover previously unrecognised relationships and variables and provide additional insights into why things are the way they are (Stake, 1981). Subsequently, Stake (1995: 8) describes the case study in the following manner *“The real business of case study is particularization, not*

*generalization. We take a particular case and come to know it well, not primarily as to how it is different from others but what it is, what it does”.*

Finally, case studies rely on inductive reasoning. It is through the reasoning process, that generalizations, concepts, or hypotheses can emerge through the examination of the data. Working hypotheses are often subject to re-evaluation or re-formulation through the discovery of new relationships, concepts, and understanding rather than through the verification of predetermined hypotheses which is a characteristic of qualitative case studies (Meriam, 1988: 13).

Gall, Borg and Gall (1996: 754) describe case study research as “...*in-depth study of instances of a phenomenon in its natural context and from the perspective of the participants involved in the phenomenon*”. The case study approach usually revolves around qualitative research and consequently the epistemological orientation of the researcher is interpretive. In addition, according to Gall et al., (1996: 554) it is not uncommon either, for case studies to exhibit the properties of a positivist approach i.e. a quantitative research approach.

The basic assumption of postpositivist research is that individuals interpret the social environment and that these interpretations can be transitory and situational (Gall et al., 1996: 28). In postpositivist research, the primary mode of developing knowledge is through analytical induction whereby researchers collect primarily verbal data through the intensive study of cases and subject this data to analysis. Denzin and Lincoln (1994: 2) describe qualitative research in the following manner: “*Qualitative research is multi-method in its focus, involving an interpretive, naturalistic approach to its subject matter. This means that qualitative researchers study things in their natural settings, attempting to make sense of, or interpret, phenomena in terms of the meanings people bring to them.*”

The use of a case study approach to this research is further strengthened through the nature of the terms that have been used to describe the positivist and phenomenological approaches to research. Positivist and post positivist (phenomenological) research methods have and continue to be described by a range of terms which have been summarized in Table 3.1. This study is not experimental, nor could it be described as purely objective or purely quantitative as it is grounded in individual interpretations of behaviour and phenomena in the workplace and as such tends more to the phenomenological end of the spectrum.

**Table 3.1 Terms used to describe two research paradigms**

<b>Positivist (Statistical Analysis)</b>	<b>Phenomenological (Case Study)</b>
Quantitative	Qualitative
Objectivist	Subjectivist
Scientific	Humanistic
Experimentalist	Interpretivist
Traditionalist	Naturalistic
Empiricist	Post positivist
Functionalist	

**Adapted from Gall et al., 1996; Glesne and Peshkin, 1992; Zikmund, 2003.**

Table 3.1 was developed using a range of definitions derived from the work of Gall et al. (1996), Glesne and Peshkin (1992) and Zikmund (1988) and as such presents two paradigms. The first paradigm is the positivist which is grounded in statistical analysis and is therefore quantitative and objective in nature. The positivist paradigm is then by definition scientific, experimental, traditional and empirical. The second is the phenomenological which is grounded in the case study methodology and is qualitative and subjective in nature. By definition, the phenomenological paradigm is humanistic, interpretive, and natural. However, as said earlier, the two paradigms can be combined with a positivist approach being embedded in a case study (Gall et al., 1996; Scholz and Tietje, 2002).

This study relies on the perceptions that employees have formed about their workplace and as such fits the criteria that Yin (2003) proposes for a case study, since there is no control over behavioural events and it also focuses on contemporary events. Furthermore, the study is primarily qualitative in nature since it requires respondents to interpret workplace phenomena. Yet, in interpreting their workplace, respondents are asked to rate the statements in the survey on a scale of 0-5 which provides the opportunity to undertake a statistical analysis of the returned survey instruments. This study could then be termed an embedded case study rather than an holistic study. An holistic study is shaped by a qualitative approach relying on narrative, phenomenological descriptions, whereas embedded case studies involve more than one unit or object of analysis and are not limited only to qualitative analysis (Scholtz and Tietje, 2002).

In this study, the first question is “To what extent are clubs perceived by their employees to have adopted the characteristics of learning organizations?”. At the planning stage it was decided that the best and fastest way to collect the necessary information to answer this question and the two subsequent questions would be through the use of survey techniques.

### **3.5 Surveys**

Surveys are a means of obtaining information on individual feelings, knowledge and opinions about a particular subject. The basis of the instrument is a series of questions or statements and participants are asked to either answer ‘Yes/No’ to each statement or to rank each statement using a numerical scale in order that a quantitative analysis of responses can be made. The survey instrument can also remove any perceived bias on the part of the researcher.

Questionnaires, like surveys can now take a number of forms. In the past they were done face-to-face, but now they are conducted by telephone and on-line. Irrespective of how surveys and questionnaires are conducted there is little or no quality control over the truthfulness of responses. What in fact we acquire are the respondents' views of reality and a subjective truth which may not reflect the broader views. When surveys and questionnaires involve face-to-face contact with respondent this can often have an inhibitory effect on the level of openness and thus provide unreliable data. Also, the design can be more difficult to answer insofar as there is often a need to develop 'open' questions i.e. questions that require more than a simple yes or no. Open-ended surveys provide the researcher with the opportunity to explore responses in greater depth thus providing more insights into the problem(s) being investigated.

In this study, the survey instrument was chosen as the primary data collection method. This approach was chosen since the primary aim was to identify differences both in attitude and the value that different levels of employees placed on learning and development. The results emanating from the survey instrument revealed the extent to which the respondents considered that their organizations exhibited the characteristics of a learning organization.

The second data collection method used was interviews and these were conducted with managers and senior staff within the organizations. The purpose of the interviews was to gain a greater understanding of the context in which these organizations were operating. These interviews also provided the opportunity to obtain the perceptions of senior managers with respect to learning in relation to their own careers and the importance that they placed on learning for their employees.

There are two major types of survey, longitudinal and cross-sectional, and in this study the cross-sectional survey method was used. The cross-sectional study involves the collection of data at one point in time across the population under study.

A variation of the cross-sectional study is the *parallel samples study* in which two or more populations are sampled simultaneously in conducting a study related to the same research problem. While the parallel sample study usually appears as a cross-sectional study, it can also be longitudinal. In this latter situation there would be at least two data collection points separated by a time interval (Wiersma, 1995: 175). While the basic survey design is the cross-sectional study, this study has adopted the parallel samples study. Participation in this study was voluntary and the respondents comprised all levels of permanent employees including senior managers, bar staff, gaming staff, food services, administrative and receptionists in the four clubs. In addition it also examines the perceptions of two sub-sets of the workforce, that is managers and non-managers through the survey and senior managers through face-to-face interviews.

### **3.6 Interviews**

The interview has been described as one of the main tools of qualitative research as it is a very good way of collecting people's perceptions, meanings, definitions of situations and their constructions of reality (Punch, 2005). If interviews are to be utilised as a part of the research strategy, the type of interview to be used will be determined by the degree of structure desired. At one end is the highly structured questionnaire-driven interview while at the other end is the open-ended, conversational format. The structured interview often contains predetermined questions and the order in which they are asked is determined beforehand. Structured interviews also have preset response categories and as such are no more than an oral

form of the written survey. This structured approach limits flexibility and variation, whilst standardization is maximized (Punch, 2005).

At the other end of the continuum is the unstructured interview or open-ended question interview. The less structured interview is designed to access the perspectives of the people being interviewed. One of the features of unstructured interviews is the use of words such as “*What and Why and When and How and Where and Who*” at the beginning of the question, six words that have been described as “Kipling’s little Helpers” (Sharp, 2002). Unstructured interviews are particularly useful and effective when the interviewer has little or no knowledge of a phenomenon being investigated and is therefore unable to formulate relevant questions (Babbie, 2004; Punch, 2005).

In this study, while the interviewees were asked the same questions, the interviews, were to some extent unstructured as the questions were framed in a manner that allowed further exploration. By adopting this approach it was possible to gain insights into the ways in which the individual clubs operated, the future problems and challenges faced by the clubs and their strategies for dealing with the problems and challenges as well as their approaches to learning. This type of information could be best obtained through unstructured interviews. This type of information was information that could be best supplied by senior management in the organizations.

### **3.7 Sample Design**

This research has adopted an approach that tends towards the qualitative end of the continuum and has been designed to gain the largest amount of data in the shortest possible time. To achieve this, two techniques, the survey and interview have been adopted. The survey was provided to each of the four participating organizations with a request for it to be completed by those permanent staff who were

willing to participate. Preliminary discussions with the CEOs of the clubs, where the purposes of the study were outlined and permission of the CEOs was being sought, indicated that the non-permanent staff generally fell into two categories. The first category comprised students undertaking tertiary or other forms of post-secondary education and as such see this form of employment as a means to financing their studies. The second category comprised people for whom club work is a second form of employment designed to supplement their main income.

Therefore, on the advice of the club CEOs, casual and other non-permanent staff were deliberately excluded from the study for two reasons. Firstly, the CEOs of the clubs believed that the commitment of casual staff to the organization was not sufficient to warrant their inclusion in the study. Secondly, casual staff did not take part in any of the clubs' training programmes and as such would not be in a position to make an informed decision when completing the survey.

### **3.8 Survey Design**

The survey instrument selected for this study, the Learning Organization Profile (LOP) (see Table 3.2 and Appendix A) had been developed, tested and validated by Professor Michael Marquardt from the George Washington University. Griego, Geroy, and Wright, (2000) subsequently used this instrument and undertook reliability testing of the instrument. They found that Marquardt's Learning Organization Profile (LOP) had a very high reliability measure of 0.97. The instrument had also been used by Byers (1999) when he undertook his Doctoral dissertation on corporate performance in Australia. In undertaking his Doctorate, Byers piloted Marquardt's LOP in the Australian context and found that with some additional wording in some questions, which was retained in this study, the instrument was valid for the Australian context. Therefore, the use of this instrument for this

study can be justified since it was validated (Griego, Geroy, & Wright, 2000) and it also provides the opportunity to directly compare the results obtained in this study with the results obtained by Byers (1999).

With Marquardt's permission, Byers had made some modifications to the original instrument which included five additional questions related to learning as well as five demographic questions; changing the rating scale and piloting the questionnaire in an Australian context. The purpose of these additional questions was to "...build on, and improve, the instrument's reliability" (Byers, 1999: 76).

Eight of the additional questions that Byers included were not used in this study as they were not considered relevant. Of the two questions that were retained, respondents were asked to identify the nature of their work, that is if they were a manager, supervisor, food worker, bartender or other, and the organization which employed them. The purpose of this information was to subsequently identify any differences that might occur in people's perceptions of the organization as a result of where they worked and their position in the hierarchy of the organization.

In his original instrument, Marquardt used the following four point scale:

Applies to little or no extent	Applies to a moderate extent	Applies to a great extent	Applies totally
1	2	3	4

This scale was expanded by Byers from a four point scale to a six point scale and the wording modified thus allowing respondents to be more discriminating in their responses. In Byers' study, an additional descriptor, Unsure, was added and was assigned a numerical value of '0'. The use of the descriptor 'Unsure' was included to ensure that all statements in the instrument were rated. This meant that all statements

were rated rather than having statements not rated because respondents were unsure of their applicability to their particular work situation and therefore being coerced into possibly providing an invalid response. Byers' revised rating scaled is shown below.

Unsure	Does not Apply	Applies to a minor extent	Applies to a moderate extent	Applies to a great extent	Applies to a very great extent
0	1	2	3	4	5

### 3.8.1 Meaning of Marquardt's Variables or Sub-systems

In this section, an overview of the meaning for each of the five sub-systems or variables in Marquardt's model is provided. The five sub-systems are Learning Dynamics, the Organization, People, Knowledge Management and Technology (see Table 3.2).

The learning sub-system refers to the way in which learning occurs in an organization and includes the three levels at which learning occurs. In this sub-system learning is seen as occurring at the individual, the group or team and the organization levels. This learning sub-system also addresses the approaches the organization takes to learning within the organization whether they adopt an adaptive, anticipatory, or action approach. Finally, the sub-system addresses the skills necessary for initiating and maximising learning skills such as learning to learn, systems thinking, decision making and working and learning in groups (Marquardt, 2002: 24-26).

Learning takes place in the context of the organization and Marquardt identified four key organizational components. Firstly, there is Vision which encompasses the organization's hopes, goals and direction for the future. In a learning organization the vision evolves which allows learning to take place. Secondly, there is Culture which is about the organization's values, beliefs, practices,

rituals and customs which help shape behaviour and fashion perceptions. A rich, adaptable culture creates relationships and enhances learning through the encouragement of teamwork, self-management, empowerment and sharing. Thirdly, there is Strategy which relates to the plans and ways in which an organization strives to achieve its goals and vision. Strategy optimises the way in which learning is acquired, transferred and utilised in the organization. Finally, there is Structure which includes the departments, levels and configurations. A learning organization is characterised by being streamlined, unbounded, flat, maximising contact, information flow, local responsibility and collaboration both within and outside the organization (Marquardt, 2002: 26-27).

In the People sub-system, Marquardt identified a number of different groups that influence learning within an organization including managers and leaders, employees, customers, business partners and alliances, suppliers, vendors and the surrounding community. Of these groups, managers and leaders have a prime responsibility within an organization through coaching, mentoring and modelling thus generating and enhancing learning opportunities for the people around them (Marquardt, 2002: 28). Whether the customers, business partners, suppliers, vendors and surrounding community have any major influence on learning was also examined.

The Knowledge sub-system manages the acquisition and generation of knowledge in the organization and includes the acquisition, creation, storage, analysis and data mining, transfer and dissemination, and application and validation of knowledge. These six elements are ongoing and interactive in nature rather than sequential and independent (Marquardt, 2002; p29-30).

The Technology sub-system has two components, one for the management of information and the other for the enhancement of learning. Technology management

refers to the computer-based technology that gathers, codes, stores and transfers information across the organization and wider. Enhancement of learning refers to the use of video, audio, and computer-based multimedia training for the purpose of delivering and developing knowledge and skills (Marquardt, 2002; 30-31).

### 3.8.2 The Survey Instrument

The Marquardt Learning Organization Profile is the survey instrument or tool used in this study Using Marquardt's 'LOP' (Marquardt, 1996: 222) staff from the four clubs were asked to rate, on a scale of 0-5, each of the fifty items in the survey. Two questions were added to the fifty items in order to obtain demographic data. The items in the survey were grouped into five groups of ten as described in Table 3.2.

**Table 3.2 Marquardt's Learning Organization Profile**

<b>Sub-system</b>	<b>Components of the Sub-system</b>	<b>Items in survey instrument</b>
Learning Dynamics	1. Levels at which learning occurs – individual, team or organization	1, 2
	2. The approaches taken by the organization to learning.	5, 6, 7, 8
	3. The skills for initiating and maximising learning	3, 4, 9, 10
Organization	1. Vision	11, 12
	2. Culture	13, 14
	3. Strategy	15, 16, 17
	4. Structure	18, 19, 20
People	1. People internal to the organization – manager/leaders, employees	21 - 25
	2. People external to the organization – customers, suppliers, business partners, general community	26 - 30
Knowledge Management	1. acquisition	31, 32,
	2. creation	34, 35
	3. storage	36, 37

<b>Sub-system</b>	<b>Components of the Sub-system</b>	<b>Items in survey instrument</b>
	4. analysis and data mining	33,
	5. transfer and dissemination, and	38, 39
	6. application	40
Technology	1. the management of information	42, 44, 45, 49, 50
	2. the enhancement of learning	41, 43, 46, 47, 48

Marquardt's LOP has five sub-systems as identified in Table 3.2 and each sub-system comprises a number of components about which there are a number of statements. A part of developing this table was to align the items in each sub-system with each of the components of the sub-system. There is a difficulty in doing this due to the interaction of some of the items with each other and as a consequence there is some overlap between one item and another. For example, in the Organization sub-system strategy and structure overlap and culture can be a component of each of these. Similarly, in the Learning sub-system, there is interaction between each of the items and deciding if an item could be considered as falling into one particular component of the sub-system proved difficult. For example, Item 4 (Individuals are coached and trained in how to learn) could be viewed as referring to the acquisition of a skill or it could refer to the level at which learning occurs, that is individual, team or organization. Therefore, the decision as to which component of a sub-system a particular item belonged is to some extent subjective.

As can be seen in Table 3.2, the People variable appears to divide into two discrete groups of people, one group that works within the club and the second that is external to the club. In the analysis of the quantitative data obtained from the survey, the People sub-system were analysed in three ways. The data were analysed as a whole, then split into two groups. Staff from the four clubs who participated in the study provided their perceptions about (a) people employed by the clubs which

included other employees and managers/leaders and subsequently referred to in the data analysis as People (Int.) and (b) People (Ext.) were those who were not employed by the clubs and this included customers, suppliers, business partners, general community. This was done to determine if there were any differences in the way in which respondents responded to the items in the People sub-system of the survey.

The Knowledge sub-system manages the acquisition and generation of knowledge in the organization and includes the acquisition, creation, storage, analysis and data mining, transfer and dissemination, and application and validation of knowledge. These six elements are ongoing and interactive in nature rather than sequential and independent (Marquardt, 2002; p29-30).

The Technology sub-system has two components, one for the management of information and the other for the enhancement of learning. Technology management refers to the computer-based technology that gathers, codes, stores and transfers information across the organization and wider. Enhancement of learning refers to the use of video, audio, and computer-based multimedia training for the purpose of delivering and developing knowledge and skills (Marquardt, 2002; p30-31).

The two additional questions in the survey were designed to elicit additional information that could be used to provide further analysis of the data obtained in the survey. The first question asked “Which club do you work for?” and the second asked “In what capacity are you employed for example manager, supervisor bar service, food service, administration, receptionist or other (please indicate)?”. While all respondents identified their employing club, of the 149 responses received, there were only 100 responses in which the employment level was identified, analyses were undertaken to identify any differences between managerial and non-managerial staff. The data related to employing club were sought in order to identify differences among

individual clubs and the data related to employment level were sought to determine if the perceptions between managers/supervisors were different to those of non-managers/ supervisors. Following the two additional questions, space was provided for participants to provide any comments that might wish to make.

Given that this study is a point in time study it is appropriate to adopt a “Cross-sectional Study” approach in the analysis of the data obtained from the survey instrument. These data were supplemented through interviews with the CEOs and HR Managers from the participating organizations.

During the course of the preliminary discussions, the CEOs and HR Managers were given an undertaking that the names of the individual clubs would not be used in this study. In keeping with this undertaking, each club was assigned a number from 1-4 and in subsequent discussions the clubs were referred to as Club1, Club 2, Club 3 and Club 4.

Also, on the basis of the preliminary discussions with the CEOs from the four clubs, a total of 410 survey instruments were provided to the HR Managers for distribution among the four clubs. Given the high level of enthusiasm shown by both the CEOs and HR Managers to participate in the study, it was felt that the risk of contamination of the survey results was minimal. A total of 149 instruments were returned which represented a response rate of 36%. Of the 149 surveys that were returned, only 124 had responses for all of the 50 statements, the 25 that returned a partially completed survey only completed the first 25 statements. This failure to complete all 50 statements also accounts for the differences in the analysis for the manager and non-manager data as 25 of the respondents who did not complete the survey did not provide any details on their employment status. Why or how this happened is a mystery. The only possible explanation is that the survey consisted of

two pages and the second page containing the second 25 questions became detached and was not submitted. Of the 25 that did not complete the survey, 24 came from Club 2 and the other from Club 3. Of the 149 surveys that were returned, 9 provided additional comments most of which were related to training opportunities within the club. All 9 of the comments came from employees from Club 2. Table 3.3 provides a summary of the distribution and the number and percentage of instruments returned.

**Table 3.3 Response rates to the survey**

<b>Club</b>	<b>No Of Survey forms distributed</b>	<b>No Returned</b>	<b>% Returned</b>
1	100	35	35
2	150	54	36
3	20	12	60
4	140	48	34
Total	410	149	36

Of the 149 surveys that were returned, only 100 respondents provided information as to their employment level within their respective clubs. Of the 100 respondents, 20 identified themselves as occupying a managerial role in the organization and the remaining 80 indicated that they did not occupy a managerial role.

The survey instrument was provided to the individual clubs, with each instrument in its own envelope which could be sealed when completed. The completed surveys were returned to the HR Managers and subsequently collected from them. Providing each respondents with an envelope in which the completed surveys could be returned ensured what was considered to be a reasonable level of confidentiality. While this may lead to some criticisms of the data collection methodology due to the possible contamination of the data, examination of the returned data would not support this possibility. In addition, as previously stated,

respondents to the survey were offered the opportunity to provide comments and there were no restrictions placed on respondents regarding these comments. A number of respondents took the opportunity to make comments, most of which were highly critical of the club they worked for. If there was to be any interference from the HR Managers in the handling of the surveys prior to collection, it is highly probable that the completed surveys containing comments critical of the club would not have been forwarded for inclusion in the study.

### **3.9 Interviews**

Senior management in the clubs were enthusiastic about the study and its implications for their individual organizations. As a consequence, interviews were sought with the CEOs and HR Managers from each of the clubs. The decision to interview CEOs and HR Managers is justified since it is at this level that data concerning problems, challenges and strategies could be obtained. This resulted in only seven interviews as the HR Manager in one club had recently been appointed as CEO and was undertaking the HR function until such time as a new HR Manager was appointed. Each of the CEOs and HR Managers were asked the following questions:

- 1      What is your educational background?
- 2      What does learning mean to you (a) for yourself and (b) for your organization?
3.     What sort of problems do you encounter in the workplace? How would training assist in solving these problems?
4.     What has been the nature of the staff training in your club – has it been in the form of formal courses or was it more in the nature of on-the-job training?
5.     What do you see as the greatest challenges for YOUR club in the next 1-2 years? Depending on the responses to this question, the following

supplementary question was posed “How will staff training assist in meeting these challenges?”

6. How will the club meet these challenges?
7. Do you have a training budget Yes/No? How is it determined and administered?

Questions 1-3 were designed to gain insights into individual attitudes to training and staff development in general. Questions 4-7 were designed to capture how training and staff development fitted into the club culture. The responses were recorded either on audio tape or as written notes and subsequently analysed to identify common or important themes.

### **3.10 Data Analysis**

The use of a range of different methodologies provides the researcher with a means of cross-validating the results obtained using the individual methodologies. The quantitative data collected in the course of this work were analysed using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS). Prior to undertaking an extensive analysis of the data that included determining mean scores, correlation coefficients and tests of significance, the quantitative data were analysed to ensure its validity and reliability.

Reliability refers to the extent to which a variable or set of variables consistently measures what it is intended to measure. If multiple measurements are taken, the reliability measures will all be very consistent in their values (Babbie, 2004; Fielding and Gilbert, 2005). Reliability differs from validity in that it does not relate to what should be measured, but instead how it is measured. As noted earlier, Griego et al. (2000) verified the validity and reliability of Marquardt’s survey instrument, and obtained a reliability value of 0.97.

Validity refers to the extent to which a measure or set of measures correctly represents the concept of study – the degree to which it is free from any systematic or non-random error. There are two types of validity that need to be considered in the research design. The first is internal validity which is concerned with the effects of extraneous factors. If the results are influenced by extraneous factors then there are problems in drawing valid conclusions about any relationships between dependent and independent variables. The second is external validity and this refers to the ability to generalize beyond the research data to other groups in the population being studied. Overall, validity is concerned with how well the concept is defined by the measure(s), while reliability relates to the consistency of the measure(s) (Babbie, 2004; Fielding & Gilbert, 2005; Zikmund, 2003).

In undertaking a study of this nature there are always concerns about the validity of the results and there is a reliance on the respondents providing objective, unbiased responses to ensure a high level of internal validity. The extent of the internal validity can be measured to some extent through the use of several data collection methods and checking to see if the results complement each other. In this study, data were collected through the survey, interviews and staff comments and when correlated, the staff comments tended to reflect the overall results from the survey. Given that the organization sample was small, the level of external validity is limited and it would not be prudent to generalize the results obtained in this study to the broader club industry.

The information obtained through the interviews was collated against each of the questions. This information was then examined to identify any consistent threads or themes and the outcomes from this examination presented in tabular form in the results chapter of this study.

### 3.11 Statistical Analysis of the Qualitative Data

The statistical analysis of the quantitative data obtained from the surveys was undertaken using SPSS v. 12.0.1 for Windows and SPSS Graduate Pack 15.0 for Windows. In using SPSS and deciding on the nature of the analyses to be undertaken, and the interpretation of the results, advice and assistance was provided by the statistical consultant at the University of Canberra. The first step in undertaking the statistical analysis was to enter the data into a format that could be analyzed using SPSS. In examining the significance of any statistical results, Hair, Anderson, Statham, and Black (1995: 22) point out as do Gravette and Walla (2005), that while there may or may not be a statistically significant difference between sets of results the question that needs to be asked “...is there any practical significance in the differences between the results?”.

The data obtained from the 50 questions were analysed in three ways. Firstly, frequencies and means were derived for each of the items and these results are presented showing the frequencies and distribution for all the data for each item at both the aggregated and individual club level (See Appendix B). The demographic data were collected through the questions at the end of the survey were to separate the data by club and by employment and the survey data were then subjected to the same analyses that were performed on the aggregated data. In order to provide a qualitative interpretation of the mean scores derived through the analysis, the following scale was used:

**Table 3.4 Interpretation of Mean Scores**

Mean Score	Interpretation
0 – 0.5	Unsure
0.6 – 1.5	Does not apply
1.6 – 2.5	Applies to a minor extent
2.6 – 3.5	Applies to a moderate extent
3.6 – 4.5	Applies to a strong extent
>4.6	Applies to a very strong extent

In the analysis of the data collected from the survey, the mean scores were determined to one decimal place. Therefore, since the means scores were not whole numbers it was necessary to use a scale such as the one presented in Table 3.4 in order to interpret the calculated means.

Secondly, factor analysis of the results indicated that there was homogeneity of the results for four of the five sub-systems, the exception being People sub-system which divided into 2 distinct groups. This justified the subsequent splitting of the People sub-system into two groups.

People (int.) sought respondents' perceptions about people within the organization (managers and supervisors) via Items 21-25 in the survey. People (ext.) sought respondents' perceptions of the role of people external to the organization (suppliers, customers, community groups, professional associations and academic institutions) via Items 26-30 in the survey. These two groups were then analysed separately and tested to identify any significant differences between the groups.

Thirdly, in determining the correlation coefficients, Marquardt's Learning sub-system was used as the dependent variable and the other sub-systems, Organization, People, Knowledge Management and Technology were the independent variables. When performing these calculations, Bonferroni's test for homogeneity was employed. In order to answer the research questions, the derived correlation coefficients were also analyzed to determine if there were any significant differences.

Since the People variable was demonstrated to be composed of two distinct groups, correlation analysis between Learning and these distinct groups was then performed. The correlation coefficients that were obtained were then tested at both

the aggregate and individual club level to determine if there were any statistically significant differences between the two People groups

From the raw data it appeared that there might be significant differences between the effect that the Organization had on learning and the effect that People had on learning. To test these differences, the data were tested to determine if the differences were significant. This was performed on the aggregated data for the study and for each of the four clubs.

In analysing the data obtained from the correlations, it was decided that when discussing the correlation results it would be useful to try and use descriptive terms such as strong or moderate or weak. Several authors (Cohen, 1988; Jaisingh, 2006; Salkind, 2008) have provided guidelines for the descriptive interpretation of correlation coefficients and a summary of these descriptors is to be found in Table 3.5. The descriptors presented in Table 3.5 are used in the following chapter in which the results of the survey are presented as well as in Chapter 5 where the discussion of the results takes place.

**Table 3.5 Strength of the Correlation**

<b>Negative Correlation</b>	<b>Descriptor</b>	<b>Positive Correlation</b>
-1.0 - -0.8	Very strong	0.8 – 1.0
-0.8 - -0.6	Strong	0.6 – 0.8
-0.4 - -0.6	Moderate	0.4 – 0.6
-0.2 - -0.4	Weak	0.2 – 0.4
-0 - -0.2	Little or none	0 – 0.2

### **3.12 Ethical Considerations**

The research covered in this study is of a social nature and as a consequence raises ethical issues. Because this research involves people and their perceptions of their

workplace, a number of specific issues can be immediately identified. Yet, a balance needs to be reached in protecting the rights of the participants in the research against the value of the research (Yates, 2004).

The methodology used for the collection of the data was submitted to the University of Canberra's Committee for Ethics in Human Research (CEHR) for its approval (Approval No 03/02). Under the University guidelines surveys not containing questions which may cause offence, where the participant is anonymous and a non-dependant adult, and there is no pressure applied to participate in the questioning, no proposal need be made to the CEHR for the survey. However, the University requires that the survey be conducted according to accepted social and professional ethics. No ethical guidelines were breached in undertaking this study.

The cover page to the survey instrument contained a number of statements about the survey and the research. Firstly, the purpose of the research and perceived benefits were explained. Secondly, potential participants were advised that their participation was entirely voluntary and that they could withdraw at any time. Finally, participants were advised that their name was not required anywhere on the survey instrument as a means of maintaining their anonymity.

Voluntary participation and confidentiality were addressed in the following statement which was included in order to allay participant fears of repercussions from adverse comments they may wish to make after completing the survey instrument:

*“Your participation in this survey is entirely voluntary; however, your contribution will be highly valued. You are free to withdraw your participation at any time without prejudice. Any information obtained which*

*may identify you personally will be kept strictly confidential. Published data will not refer to you by name.”*

The data collected through the survey process were coded via a simple three digit numbering system with the first digit representing the club. For example 1/22 represented club 1 and respondent number 22. Where an individual may have included their name or other identifying information despite the information on the cover sheet, this information was erased or blacked out.

In conducting the interviews with senior managers, an undertaking was given that any information provided during the course of the interview, would be treated in such a way that they or their club could not be identified. Interviewees would only be referred to as the CEO or HR Manager of club 1, 2, 3 or 4 in the course of the discussion of the results.

The data collected in this study have been stored in a locked environment. The analyses of the data are stored on a password-protected computer.

### **3.13 Summary**

In this chapter there have been several objectives. Initially, a brief explanation of the overall research process was provided which outlined the different phases of the study. Following this outline, the debate about the efficacy of qualitative research versus quantitative research was explored. This is a debate which in all probability can never be resolved since any particular research paradigm will ultimately be the choice of the individual researcher. Within this debate, Yin (2003) has provided a matrix which has formed the basis for deciding on the paradigm used in this study. Yin's matrix provided an introduction to the case study approach to research and justification has been provided for the use of the case study approach in this study. This has been done primarily through the definitions of a case study provided by a

number of authors. An exploration of the literature on research using the case study methodology has demonstrated that over a period of 30 years there is little or no evidence that there has been any change in the definition of a case study.

Having decided on the approach to be used in this study, the choice of a particular survey instrument Marquardt's Learning Organization Profile (LOP) has been justified on the grounds that it is a proven survey instrument and that through its previous use in the Australian context, provides material against which the data obtained in this study can be compared. Having described the data collection processes, the chapter went on to describe the data analysis methodologies used in the study. The chapter finishes with a brief description of how this study was structured to meet the ethical requirements laid down by the university.

In Chapter 4 which follows, the data and results of the analyses of the survey and interview data are presented.

## CHAPTER 4

### RESULTS - SURVEY AND INTERVIEW DATA

#### 4.1 Introduction

The aim of this investigation was to explore the nature of learning that occurs within four licensed clubs. Three questions were the focal point of the data collected:

1. To what extent are clubs perceived by their employees to have adopted the characteristics of a learning organizations?
2. What are the perceptions of managers with respect to learning in their organizations?
3. Do managers' perceptions differ from those of non-managers with respect to learning in their organizations?

The Karpin Report (1995), a report which outlined where Australia needed to be in terms of management and organizational learning by the year 2010, and a number of authors e.g. Senge (1990a; 2007), Schein (2004) and Marquardt (2002) have emphasised the importance of specific factors such as leadership and organizational culture in the creation and maintenance of learning cultures. This chapter presents the data obtained during the course of the study and in such a way as to be able to answer the three research questions. The data presented in this chapter have also been analysed to ascertain the extent to which staff perceived these factors play a role, not only in the creation of a learning organization but in the maintenance of a learning culture.

In order to answer the questions, the statements in the questionnaire and the interview data were examined and their relevance matched to the individual questions. Table 4.1 provides a guide as to how the data that were collected in this work and used in this chapter and Chapter 5 to answer the research questions.

**Table 4.1 Data used to answer the research questions**

Question Number	Data derived from the following sources:
1. To what extent are clubs perceived by their employees to have adopted the characteristics of a learning organizations?	Items: All items in Marquardt's Learning Organization Profile (LOP)
	Interview Questions: 2, 6, 7
2. What are the perceptions of managers with respect to learning in their organizations?	Items: 2, 4, 5, 6, 8, 10, 32, 33, 34, 36, 37, 38, 39, 40, 41, 42, 43, 44, 45, 46, 47, 48
	Interview Questions: 2, 3, 4, 5, 7
3. Do managers' perceptions differ from those of non-managers with respect to learning in their organizations?	All items in Marquardt's LOP

To assist the reader in following the analysis of the data, this chapter has been divided into a number of sections, each of which leads on from the previous. The following is a précis of what can be expected in each of the sections.

In section 4.2 of this analysis, the mean scores for each of the statements in Marquardt's LOP are presented. The data have been divided into the five sub-systems described by Marquardt and are presented as an aggregate for the four clubs as well as for each of the individual clubs.

The second section (4.3) presents the results for the determination of correlation coefficients. The third section (4.4) presents the results of the analysis of the responses for managers and non-managers. The fourth section (4.5) presents the data collected from the interviews with senior management. The fifth section (4.6) presents some of the comments that were provided through the survey process. Note that in all cases, the interpretation of the scores used the scale in Table 3.4

(Interpretation of Mean Scores) where: unsure=0.0–0.5; Does not apply=0.6–1.5; applies to a minor extent=1.6-2.5; applies to moderate extent=2.6-3.5; applies to a great extent=3.6-4.5; and applies to very great extent>4.5.

As was noted in Chapter 3, 25 respondents only scored the first 25 items in the survey. Also of the 149 respondents only 100 respondents provided data on their employment level. All the quantitative collected via the LOP are presented in this Chapter and it is noted where there are variations in the numbers. From the surveys that were returned, it would appear that some inexplicable reason, the second page of the survey was either not provided or had become detached. Of the two reasons, it seems more probable that the second page had become detached as the survey instruments were checked to ensure that all instruments contained the 50 items prior to distribution.

## 4.2 Mean Scores for the Quantitative Data Collected in the LOP

This section deals with the means scores for the data collected in the survey.

The scores have been calculated for the aggregate data and for each of the individual clubs and are presented in Table 4.1 as overall scores for the survey as well as for the individual sub-systems described by Marquardt (2002). The data in this Table represent the mean scores for all the data collected in the survey.

**Table 4.2 Summary of Means for all 50 Items in the Survey**

	Sub-system and Item Nos.					
	Learning 1 - 10	Organization 11 - 20	People 21 - 30	KM 31 - 40	Technology 41 - 50	All Statements
	Mean	Mean	Mean	Mean	Mean	Mean
Club 1 (n=35)	2.4**	2.3**	2.2**	2.2**	1.9**	2.2**
Club 2 (n=54)	2.4**	2.1**	1.9**	1.9**	1.4*	2.0**
Club 3 (n=12)	3.3***	3.0***	2.6***	2.6***	2.3**	2.7***
Club 4 (n=48)	3.0***	3.0***	2.4**	2.5**	2.2**	2.6***
<b>O/all Means</b>	<b>2.6***</b>	<b>2.5**</b>	<b>2.3**</b>	<b>2.3**</b>	<b>1.9**</b>	<b>2.3**</b>

\* Does not apply

\*\* Applies to a minor extent

\*\*\* Applies to a moderate extent

It should be noted that during the course of the initial interview, the HR Manager from Club 3 advised that there was a predominance of casual staff working in the club and that they would require twenty survey instruments at the most. Of the twenty survey instruments provided, twelve were returned, one of which only completed the first 25 questions.

From Table 4.2 it can be seen that for participants from Clubs 1 and 2 the characteristics of a learning organization were perceived to apply to these clubs to a minor extent (all mean scores=1.4-2.4) whereas the perceptions of participants from

Clubs 3 and 4 were that the characteristics of a learning organization applied to a moderate extent (mean scores=2.2-3.2). A comparison of means (Appendix C, Table C-1) for all the data collected by the survey instrument demonstrates that there is no statistically significant difference in the means obtained for Clubs 1 and 2 ( $p=1.000$ ). Similarly, there is no statistically significant difference in the means between Clubs 3 and 4 ( $p=1.000$ ). A comparison of the means for the four clubs indicated that there was a statistically significant difference between Clubs 1 and 2 and Club 4 ( $p=0.019$  and  $<0.001$  respectively) and that Club 1 was statistically significantly different to Club 3 ( $p=0.019$ ).

Some patterns have emerged from the analysis of these data. The first pattern to emerge is that Club 3 had the highest mean scores across all 5 sub-systems and was the only one to have a mean score above the overall mean for the Learning sub-system. However, it must be remembered that the number of surveys provided to Club 3 was small.

Secondly, the Learning sub-system (mean 2.6) and the Organization sub-system (mean 2.5) were scored highest, followed by People (mean 2.3) and Knowledge Management (mean 2.3) and Technology (mean 1.9) scoring lowest.

Thirdly, the means for all items demonstrate that the clubs would appear to divide into two groups with the means for Clubs 1 and 2 (means 2.2 and 2.0) falling below the overall mean (2.3) while the means for clubs 3 and 4 (means 2.7 and 2.6) falling above the overall mean for all responses.

The aggregated data presented in Table 4.2 were subsequently divided into the five sub-systems – Learning, Organization, People, Knowledge Management and Technology. The mean data for each of these sub-systems are presented along with a comparison of the means for each of the five sub-systems to determine if there were

any statistically significant differences among the clubs. The results for these comparisons are presented in subsequent sections which deal individually with the 5 sub-systems.

### The Learning Sub-system

In this section of the study, the mean scores obtained for each of the items in the Learning sub-system are presented for each of the clubs and the data as a whole. In addition, an analysis was undertaken to ascertain if there were any statistically significant differences (Appendix C, Table C-2) among the overall mean scores derived for each club for the sub-system.

**Table 4.3 Mean Score for each item in Marquardt's Learning Sub-system of the LOP**

Items in the Learning Sub-system		Club (n=35)	Club2 (n=54)	Club3 (n=12)	Club4 (n=48)	All Data (n=149)
1	We see continuous learning by all employees as a high business priority	2.8**	2.5*	3.8***	3.4**	3.0**
2	We are encouraged and expected to manage our learning and development	2.8**	2.8**	3.7***	3.4**	3.2**
3	People avoid distortion of information and blocking of communication channels through skills such as active listening and effective feedback	2.3*	2.5*	3.3**	2.6**	2.6**
4	Individuals are coached and trained in how to learn	2.4*	2.1*	3.0**	2.7**	2.4*
5	We use various accelerated learning methodologies (e.g. mind-mapping, mnemonics, peripherals, imagery, music etc.)	2.9**	2.4*	3.8***	3.6***	3.0**
6	People expand knowledge through adaptive, anticipatory, and creative learning approaches	2.3*	2.4*	3.1**	2.9**	2.6**
7	Teams and individuals use the action-learning process (i.e. learning from careful reflection on the problem or situation, and applying it to future actions)	2.2*	2.7**	3.3**	2.8**	2.7**
8	Teams are encouraged to learn from one another and to share learning in a variety of ways (e.g. via electronic bulletin boards, printed newsletters, intergroup meetings etc.)	2.1*	2.3*	2.1*	3.2**	2.6**
9	People are able to think and act with a comprehensive systems approach (i.e. we look at impacts of our decisions on areas outside their immediate area or function)	2.3*	2.1*	2.7**	2.5*	2.3*
10	Teams receive training in how to work and learn in groups	1.8*	1.7*	2.3*	2.5*	2.0*
	<b>Mean Scores</b>	2.4*	2.4*	3.2**	3.0**	2.6**

\* Applies to a minor extent

\*\* Applies to a moderate extent

\*\*\* Applies to a great extent

Analysis of the data for the Learning sub-system (Table 4.3) shows that for all data, five of the items applied to a moderate extent and the other five applied to a minor extent. For Club 1, only three items applied to a moderate extent and the other seven items and the mean applied to a minor extent. For Club 2, the distribution was the same as for Club 1. In Club 3, the Learning sub-system applied to a moderate extent in five of the items plus the overall mean score for this sub-system, three items applied to a great extent and two items applied to minor extent. In Club 4, the Learning sub-system applied to a great extent in one item, to a moderate extent in seven items and the mean score and to a minor extent in two items.

When the mean scores for the learning sub-system are compared (see Appendix C, Table C2), the difference between the means for Clubs 1 and 2 ( $p=1.000$ ) is not statistically significant. Similarly, differences between the means for Clubs 3 and 4 ( $p=1.000$ ) is not statistically significant. Therefore it could be concluded, based on the 'p' value, that the perceptions of staff from Club1 are similar to those of staff from Club 2, and the perceptions of staff from Club 3 are similar to those of staff from Club 4. The difference between Club 1 versus Clubs 3 and 4 is statistically significant ( $p=0.002$  and  $p=0.001$  respectively) and the difference between Club 2 versus Clubs 3 and 4 is also significant ( $p=0.001$  and  $p<0.001$  respectively).

### **The Organization Sub-system**

As with the Learning sub-system, the mean scores obtained for each of the items in the organization sub-system are presented for each of the clubs in Table 4.4 along with the aggregated results for each of the items. In addition, an analysis was undertaken to ascertain if there were any statistically significance differences among the overall mean scores derived for the clubs for the Organization sub-system (See Appendix C, Table C3).

**Table 4.4 Mean Score for each item in Marquardt's Organization Sub-system**

Items in the Organization Sub-system		Club (n=35)	Club2 (n=54)	Club3 (n=12)	Club4 (n=48)	All Data (n=149)
11	The importance of being a learning organization is understood throughout the organization	1.9*	1.8*	2.7**	2.9**	2.3*
12	Top-level management supports the vision of a learning organization	2.3*	2.2*	3.4**	3.3**	2.7**
13	There is a climate that supports and recognises the importance of learning	2.5*	2.3*	3.5**	3.4**	2.8**
14	We are committed to continuous learning for improvement	2.5*	2.4*	3.7***	3.3**	2.8**
15	We learn from our failures as well as our successes (i.e. failures are tolerated as part of the learning process)	2.3*	2.9**	3.3**	3.0**	2.9**
16	We reward people and teams for learning and helping others to learn	2.4*	1.7*	3.0**	2.7**	2.3**
17	Learning opportunities are incorporated into operations and programs	2.3*	2.1*	2.8**	3.0**	2.5*
18	We design ways to share knowledge and enhance learning throughout Organization (e.g. systematic job rotation across teams, structured on-the-job learning systems)	2.3*	2.0*	2.5*	3.0**	2.5*
19	Organization is streamlined, with few levels of management, to maximise communication and learning across levels	2.2*	1.9*	2.8**	2.4*	2.2*
20	We coordinate on the basis of goals and learning rather than maintaining separation in terms of fixed departmental boundaries	2.0*	1.8*	2.8**	2.8**	2.1*
	Mean Scores	2.3*	2.1*	3.0**	3.0**	2.5*

\* Applies to a minor extent

\*\* Applies to a moderate extent

\*\*\* Applies to a great extent

The Organization sub-system was perceived to apply to a minor extent in Clubs 1 and 2, to a moderate extent in Clubs 3 and 4 and to a minor extent for all data. In Clubs 3 and 4, only one item was perceived as applying to a minor extent, with 9 items in Club 4 and eight items in Club 3 applying to a moderate extent. The remaining item for Club 3 was perceived as applying to a great extent.

When the means obtained for each club were compared (see Appendix C, Table C-3), the results indicated that statistically there is no significant difference in the means of the results obtained for clubs 1 and 2 which indicates that the perceptions of staff from these two clubs were similar with respect to the Organization sub-system. Statistically, there was no significant difference in the perceptions of staff from Clubs

3 and 4. Statistically, the mean score for Club 1 is significantly different to the mean score for Club 3 ( $p=0.026$ ) and for Club 4 ( $p=0.001$ ). Both Clubs 1 and 2 did demonstrate that statistically they were significantly different from Clubs 3 and 4 in their perceptions of how the items in the Organization sub-system applied to their respective clubs.

### **The People Sub-system**

This sub-system divides into two groups of people. Items 21–25 refer to people who work for the organization and are referred to as People (Int.) and Items 26–30 are people who provide services to the clubs or are patrons of the club and are referred to as People (Ext.). In Marquardt's LOP, and in this study referred to as People (Ext.), the people referred to in Items 26-30 comprise people who are not employees of the organization, but may be contracted to the organization, yet continue to influence the organization and contribute to the organization becoming a learning organization. These people could be considered to be a component of the external environment. Therefore in this section the data have been divided into two groups of five items. As was noted in Chapter 3, while all 149 respondents completed items 21-25, only 124 completed Items 26-30. Therefore, the mean scores for the data in the People sub-system are presented in two tables.

Table 4.5 presents the data for People (Int.) and Table 4.6 presents the data for People (Ext.). Comparison of these two tables indicates that People (Int.) was perceived to apply to greater extent than People (Ext.). Comparison of the means for the two People components (Appendix C, Table C-5) indicates that for Clubs 1 and 3 ( $p=0.98$  and  $p=0.49$  respectively) there is no statistically significant difference between People (Int.) and People (Ext.). The difference in the means between People

(Int.) and People (Ext.) is statistically different for all the data and Clubs 2 and 4 ( $p < 0.001$  for all the data and Club 4 and  $p = 0.003$  for Club 2).

**Table 4.5 Mean Score for each item in Marquardt's LOP People (Int.) Sub-system**

Items in the People (Int.)Sub-system		Club (n=35)	Club2 (n=54)	Club3 (n=12)	Club4 (n=48)	All Data (n=149)
21	We strive to develop an empowered work force that is able and committed to qualitative learning and performance	2.0*	2.0*	2.6**	3.0**	2.4*
22	Authority is decentralised and delegated so as to equal one's responsibility and learning capability	2.2*	1.9*	2.9**	2.4*	2.2*
23	Managers and non-managers work together in partnership, to learn and solve problems together	2.3*	2.6**	2.9**	2.6**	2.6**
24	Managers take on the roles of coaching, mentoring, and facilitating learning	2.1*	2.6**	3.0**	3.0**	2.6**
25	Managers generate and enhance learning opportunities as well as encourage experimentation and reflection on what was learned so that new knowledge can be used	2.3*	2.3*	2.7**	2.8**	2.5*
Mean Scores		2.2*	2.3*	2.8**	2.7**	2.4*

\* Applies to minor extent

\*\* Applies to a moderate extent

In the People (Int.) sub-system (Table 4.5), the five items were perceived to apply to a moderate extent in Club 3, four of the items were perceived to apply to moderate extent in Club4, two to a moderate extent in Club 2 and all the data. For all other items in the People (Int.) sub-system the perception was that they applied to a minor extent.

Table 4.6, which refers to the People (Ext.) component of the People sub-system, presents the data for the five items in this component. The perceptions of respondents from Club 1 were that five items applied to a minor extent. In Club 2, the perceptions were that the items did not apply in four of the five items, but applied to a moderate extent in one item (Item 26). The perceptions of respondents in Club 3 were that two items applied to a moderate extent and the other three to a minor extent with People (Ext.) as a whole applying to a minor extent. In Club 4, only one item was

perceived as applying to a moderate extent and the other four items were perceived as applying to a minor extent.

In the People (Ext.) component, Item 26 appears to an anomaly when compared with the other items in Table 4.6. In three out of the four clubs this item was perceived as applying to a moderate extent and as a consequence the mean for all data also applied to a moderate extent. This is not surprising, since in the licensed club industry customers would probably be perceived as patrons of the clubs' facilities and it is normal practice in this industry to seek regular feedback from patrons. This feedback from customers is used in a variety of ways, from improving facilities for patrons, investigating complaints about various aspects of the clubs' operations to improving overall customer service.

**Table 4.6 Mean Score for each item in Marquardt's LOP People (Ext.) Sub-system**

Items in the People (Ext.) Sub-system		Club (n=35)	Club2 (n=30)	Club3 (n=11)	Club4 (n=48)	All Data (n=124)
26	We actively share information with our customers, to obtain their ideas and inputs in order to learn and improve services/products	2.5**	2.6***	3.3***	2.7***	2.6***
27	We give customers and suppliers opportunities to participate in learning and training activities	2.0**	1.5*	2.0**	1.5*	1.7**
28	Learning from partners/subcontractors, and suppliers is maximised through up-front planning of resources and strategies devoted to knowledge and skill acquisition	2.1**	1.4*	2.6***	1.8**	1.8**
29	We participate in joint learning events with suppliers, community groups, professional associations, and academic institutions	2.4**	1.4*	2.5**	2.4**	2.1*
30	We actively seek learning partners amongst customers, vendors and suppliers	1.9**	1.4*	2.3**	1.9**	1.8**
	Mean Scores	2.2**	1.7**	2.5**	2.0**	2.0**

\* Does not apply

\*\* Applies to a minor extent

\*\*\* Applies to a moderate extent

### The Knowledge Management Sub-system

**Table 4.7 Mean Score for each item in Marquardt's Knowledge Management Sub-system**

Items in the Knowledge Management Sub-system		Club1 (n=35)	Club2 (n=30)	Club3 (n=11)	Club4 (n=48)	All Data (n=124)
31	People actively seek information that improves the work of the organization	2.2**	2.2**	3.2***	2.5**	2.4**
32	We have accessible systems for collecting internal and external information	2.2**	2.1**	2.8***	2.6***	2.4**
33	People monitor trends outside organization by looking at what others do, this includes. benchmarking best practices, attending conferences, and examining published research	2.6***	2.0**	3.2***	2.9***	2.6***
34	People are trained in the skills of creative thinking and experimentation	2.1**	1.6**	2.3**	2.2**	2.0**
35	We often create demonstration projects where new ways of developing a product and/or delivering a service are tested	1.8**	1.6**	1.7**	2.0**	1.8**
36	Systems and structures exist to ensure that important knowledge is coded, stored, and made available to those who need and can use it	2.4**	2.3**	3.1***	2.4**	2.5**
37	People are aware of the need to retain important organizational learnings and share such knowledge with others	2.3**	2.4**	2.8***	3.0***	2.6***
38	Cross-functional teams are used to transfer important learning across groups, departments and divisions	2.0**	1.5*	1.9**	2.2**	1.9**
39	We continue to develop new strategies and mechanisms for sharing learning throughout the organization	2.1**	1.7**	2.2**	2.6***	2.2**
40	We support specific areas, units, and projects that generate knowledge by providing people with learning opportunities	2.1**	1.7**	2.8***	2.7***	2.3**
<b>Mean scores</b>		2.2**	1.9**	2.6***	2.5**	2.3**

\* Does not apply

\*\* Applies to a minor extent

\*\*\* Applies to moderate extent

From Table 4.7, it can be seen from staff perceptions, that overall the management of knowledge in these four clubs was perceived as applying to a minor extent (mean=2.3). For all the data, the overall perceptions were that the Knowledge Management sub-system applied to a moderate extent in two items, and a minor extent in the remaining eight items and the mean of all items. In Club 1, one item was perceived as applying to a moderate extent and the other nine items and the overall mean as applying to a minor extent. In Club 2, one item was perceived as not applying and the other nine items and the sub-system as a whole as only applying to a

minor extent. The Knowledge Management sub-system was perceived as applying to a moderate extent in Club 3. In this club, six items were perceived as applying to a moderate extent and the remaining four items to a minor extent. The Knowledge Management sub-system applied to a minor extent in Club 4 with the individual items dividing equally between applying to a minor and applying moderate extent.

When the means for this sub-system were compared it was found that there were no statistically significant differences in the means for Clubs 1, 3 and 4. However, the difference between Club 2 and Club 4 was statistically different ( $p=0.004$ ).

### **The Technology Sub-system**

From Table 4.8, the overall perception of all respondents was that the Technology sub-system applied only to a minor extent in three of the four clubs (Clubs 1, 3 & 4) and to the overall results for the Technology sub-system and did not apply in Club 2. In Club 1, the perceptions were that the sub-system applied to minor extent across all items. In Club 2, the perceptions were that the sub-system applied to a minor extent for two items and did not apply to the other eight items. The sub-system was perceived to apply to a moderate extent for one item in Club 3 and to a minor extent for the remaining nine items. A similar pattern applied to Club 4 as applied to Club 3.

No statistically significant differences were found in the means between Club 1 and Club 2, Club 1 and Club 3 and Club 1 and Club 4. The mean for Club 2 was found to be statistically significantly different to the means for club 3 ( $p=0.012$ ) and Club 4 ( $p<0.001$ ).

**Table 4.8 Mean Score for each item in Marquardt's Technology Sub-system**

Items in the Technology Sub-system		Club1	Club2	Club3	Club4	All Data
41	Learning is facilitated by effective and efficient computer-based information systems	2.2**	1.5*	2.4**	2.3**	2.1**
42	People have ready access to the information highway (e.g. local area networks, internet, on-line etc.)	1.9**	1.6**	2.9***	2.5**	2.1**
43	Learning facilities (e.g. training and conference rooms) incorporate electronic multimedia support and a learning environment based on the integration of art, colour, music and visuals	1.9**	1.5*	2.6***	2.3**	2.0**
44	People have available to them, computer-assisted learning programs and electronic job aids (e.g. just-in-time and flowcharting software)	2.0**	1.3*	2.2**	1.7**	1.7**
45	We use groupware technology to manage group processes (e.g. project management, team process, meeting management)	1.8**	1.3*	2.2**	1.9**	1.7**
46	We support just-in-time learning, a system that integrates high-technology learning systems, coaching, and actual work on the job into a single, seamless process	1.6**	1.1*	1.7**	1.8**	1.6**
47	Our electronic performance support systems enable us to learn and to do our work better (an electronic performance support system is a system that uses databases and knowledge bases to capture, store, and distribute information throughout the organization)	2.0**	1.2*	2.3**	2.4**	2.0**
48	We design and tailor our electronic performance support systems to meet our learning needs	1.8**	1.2*	1.8**	2.0**	1.7**
49	People have full access to the data they need to do their jobs effectively	2.0**	2.0**	2.7***	2.8***	2.4**
50	We can adapt software systems to collect, code, store, create, and transfer information in ways best suited to meet our needs	1.7**	1.5*	2.4**	2.4**	2.0**
<b>Mean scores</b>		1.9**	1.4*	2.3**	2.2**	1.9**

\* Does not apply

\*\* Applies to a minor extent

\*\*\* Applies to a moderate extent

### 4.3 Correlation Between The Learning Sub-system and The Other Four Sub-systems for all Clubs.

Correlation coefficients were calculated using the Learning sub-system as the dependent variable and Organization, People, Knowledge Management and Technology as the independent variables. The results of these calculations are presented in Tables 4.9–4.18. It should be noted that the reliability of the results for Club 3 needs to be interpreted with caution due to the low numbers of respondents (n=12). Unless stated otherwise all relationships are considered to be positive.

Levene's test for equality of error variances was undertaken and this analysis successfully tested the null hypothesis that the error of variance of the dependent variable was equal across all groups. In Chapter 3, a table was presented, in which the ideas of several authors were brought together to provide a more descriptive interpretation of correlation coefficients (See Table 3.4). Throughout this section these descriptors have been used in interpreting the results.

#### Learning versus Organization

**Table 4.9 Correlation Coefficient for Learning Sub-system versus Organization Sub-system**

	<b>All Data n = 149</b>	<b>Club 1 n = 35</b>	<b>Club 2 n = 54</b>	<b>Club 3 n = 12</b>	<b>Club 4 n = 48</b>
<b>Correlation Coefficient ( r )</b>	0.80	.69	.83	.36	.81

The results presented in Table 4.9 suggest that there is a very strong relationship ( $r=0.80$ ) between the Learning and Organization sub-systems across all data and for Club 2 ( $r=0.83$ ) and Club 4 ( $r=0.81$ ). There was strong relationship between Learning and the Organization for Club 1 ( $r=0.69$ ), while for Club 3 the relationship was weak ( $r=0.36$ ).

**Table 4.10 Correlation Coefficients for Learning Sub-system v Organization Sub-system**

Items in the Organization Sub-system		Club 1	Club 2	Club 3	Club 4	All Data
11	The importance of being a learning organization is understood throughout the organization	.39**	.65****	.74****	.62****	.64****
12	Top-level management supports the vision of a learning organization	.53***	.57***	.27**	.56***	.61****
13	There is a climate that supports and recognises the importance of learning	.58***	.63****	.17*	.61****	.66****
14	We are committed to continuous learning for improvement	.57***	.69****	.33**	.54***	.65****
15	We learn from our failures as well as our successes (i.e. failures are tolerated as part of the learning process)	.51***	.57***	.29**	.47***	.51***
16	We reward people and teams for learning and helping others to learn	.48***	.59***	.35**	.61****	.58***
17	Learning opportunities are incorporated into operations and programs	.53***	.47***	.09*	.59***	.56***
18	We design ways to share knowledge and enhance learning throughout the organization (e.g. systematic job rotation across teams, structured on-the-job learning systems)	.39**	.65****	.07*	.41***	.54****
19	The organization is streamlined, with few levels of management, to maximize communication and learning across levels	..30**	.57***	.30**	.42***	.46***
20	We coordinate on the basis of goals and learning rather than maintaining separation in terms of fixed departmental boundaries	.44***	.53***	.19*	.61****	.54****

- \* Little or no correlation
- \*\* Weak correlation
- \*\*\* Moderate correlation
- \*\*\*\* Strong correlation

The results presented in Table 4.10 suggest for all data that there is a strong relationship between Learning and items 11 ( $r=0.64$ ), 12 ( $r=0.61$ ), 13 ( $r=0.66$ ) and 14 ( $r=0.65$ ). The relationship between Learning and the Organization can only be described as moderate for the other six items. Club 1 demonstrates a moderate relationship across seven of the items and weak relationship across the remaining three items. There is a strong relationship across four of the items for Club 2, with the remaining six items demonstrating a moderate relationship. Club 3 demonstrates little or no relationship between Learning and the Organization for Items 13 ( $r=0.17$ ), 17 ( $r=0.09$ ), 18 ( $r=0.07$ ) and 20 ( $r=0.19$ ). Six of the remaining ten items demonstrate a weak relationship, while Item 11 ( $r=0.74$ ) was the only item demonstrating a strong

relationship. Club 4 demonstrated a strong relationship between Learning and the organization for four items and a moderate relationship with the other six items.

### Learning versus People

**Table 4.11 Correlation of Learning Sub-system versus People (Int.) and People (Ext.)**

	People (Int.) (r) (n=149)	People (Ext.) (r) (n=124)
Aggregated data	0.62***	0.49**
Club 1	0.59**	0.49**
Club 2 <sup>1</sup>	0.59**	0.59**
Club3 <sup>2</sup>	0.09*	0.64***
Club4	0.60***	0.48**

\* Little or no correlation

\*\* Moderate correlation

\*\*\* Strong correlation

<sup>1</sup> For Club 2, n=30 for People (Ext.)

<sup>2</sup> For Club 3, n=11 for People (Ext.)

In presenting the correlations between the Learning and People sub-systems, the data are presented in the same manner as in Section 4.2 and for the same reasons. The results from Table 4.11 indicate that there is a strong relationship between the Learning and People (Int.) variables at the aggregated level and also for Club 4. There is only a moderate relationship between the Learning and People (Int.) variables for Clubs 1 and 2 and little or no relationship between the Learning and People (Int.) variables for Club 3.

The relationship between the Learning variable and the People (Ext.) variable is moderate for the aggregated data and Clubs 1, 2 and 4. In contrast to the People (Int.) relationship, the relationship between Learning and People (Ext.) for Club 3 is strong.

**Table 4.12 Correlation Coefficients for Learning v Items 21 – 25 (People (Int.))**

Items in the People (Int.) Sub-system		Club 1 (n=35)	Club 2 (n=54)	Club 3 (n=12)	Club 4 (n=48)	All Data (n=149)
21	We strive to develop an empowered work force that is able and committed to qualitative learning and performance	.57***	.58***	.41***	.61****	.62****
22	Authority is decentralised and delegated so as to equal one's responsibility and learning capability	.41***	.40***	.17*	.32**	.39**
23	Managers and non-managers work together in partnership, to learn and solve problems together	.47***	.49***	.03*	.41***	.43***
24	Managers take on the roles of coaching, mentoring, and facilitating learning	.47***	.41***	.10*	.42***	.46***
25	Managers generate and enhance learning opportunities as well as encourage experimentation and reflection on what was learned so that new knowledge can be used	.44***	.61****	.16*	.51***	.53***

\* Little or no correlation

\*\* Weak correlation

\*\*\* Moderate correlation

\*\*\*\* Strong correlation

From Table 4.12, with exception of Item 25 which demonstrated a strong relationship, there is a moderate relationship between Learning and People (Int.) for the aggregated data. The result for Item 21 suggests that generally, respondents saw a link between learning and an empowered workforce. From the data presented in Table 4.12, clubs 1, 2 and 4 demonstrated a moderate to strong relationship between Learning and Items 21–25. Club 3, while it demonstrated a moderate relationship between Item 21 and the Learning sub-system, demonstrated a weak relationship for the other four items. Clubs 2 and 4 demonstrate a moderate relationship between Learning and People (Int.) in four of the items and a strong relationship in the fifth item. Club 3 demonstrated little or no relationship in four of the items and a moderate relationship in the fifth item. However, in considering the results obtained for Club 3, it needs to be remembered that there is only a small sample and as such the reliability of these results is questionable.

**Table 4.13 Correlation Coefficients for Learning v Items 21 – 26 (People (Ext.))**

Items in the People (Int.) Sub-system		Club 1 (n=35)	Club 2 (n=30)	Club 3 (n=11)	Club 4 (n=48)	All Data (n=124)
<b>26</b>	We actively share information with our customers, to obtain their ideas and inputs in order to learn and improve services/products	.58***	.23**	.65*****	.46***	.40***
<b>27</b>	We give customers and suppliers opportunities to participate in learning and training activities	.27**	.32**	.50***	.41***	.26**
<b>28</b>	Learning from partners/subcontractors, and suppliers is maximised through up-front planning of resources and strategies devoted to knowledge and skill acquisition	.46***	.54***	.84*****	.33**	.42***
<b>29</b>	We participate in joint learning events with suppliers, community groups, professional associations, and academic institutions	.44***	.64*****	.16**	.29**	.42***
<b>30</b>	We actively seek learning partners amongst customers, vendors and suppliers	.24**	.56***	.01*	.36**	.38**

- \* Little or no correlation
- \*\* Weak correlation
- \*\*\* Moderate correlation
- \*\*\*\* Strong correlation
- \*\*\*\*\* Very strong correlation

In Table 4.13, for the aggregated data for the People (Ext.) three items (26, 28, and 29) demonstrated a moderate relationship with the Learning sub-system and two (27 and 30) a weak relationship. For Club 1 there was a moderate relationship between three items and the Learning sub-system and a weak relationship between Learning and the other two. Club 2 demonstrated a strong relationship between the Learning sub-system and Item 29, a moderate relationship for Items 28 and 30 and a weak relationship for the remaining two Items. In Club 4 the situation was reversed with three items demonstrating a weak relationship and two a moderate relationship with the Learning sub-system. In Club 3 the relationship between the Learning sub-system and Item 28 was very strong, strong for item 26, moderate for Item 27 and weak for Items 29 and 30.

In this section the correlation coefficients for People (Int.) and People (Ext.) are further analysed through the application of the Fisher Transformation to determine if there were statistically significant differences between the correlation coefficients (Appendix C, Table C-8). This test demonstrated that at the level of the aggregated data there was a significant difference ( $p \leq 0.05$ ) while there was no statistically significant difference between People (Int.) and People (Ext.) for the individual clubs (see Appendix C, Table C-9).

### **Knowledge Management**

**Table 4.14 Learning versus Knowledge Management**

	<b>All Data n = 125</b>	<b>Club 1 n = 35</b>	<b>Club 2 n = 34</b>	<b>Club 3 n = 11</b>	<b>Club 4 n = 45</b>
<b>Correlation Coefficient ( r )</b>	0.67	0.59	0.78	0.50	0.59

The results from Table 4.14 indicate that there is a strong relationship between Learning and Knowledge Management for the aggregated data ( $r=0.67$ ) and also for Club 2 ( $r=0.78$ ) and a moderate relationship between Learning and Knowledge Management for Clubs 1( $r=0.59$ ), Club 3 ( $r=0.50$ ) and Club 4 ( $r=0.59$ ). However, as previously noted, the low number of respondents from Club 3 may pose questions over the reliability of the results for this club.

**Table 4.15 Correlation Coefficients for Learning (items 1 – 10) v Knowledge Management (Items 31 – 40)**

Items in the Knowledge Management Sub-system		Club 1 (n=35)	Club 2 (n=30)	Club 3 (n=11)	Club 4 (n=48)	All Data (n=124)
31	People actively seek information that improves the work of the organization	.40***	.55***	.33**	.36**	.46***
32	We have accessible systems for collecting internal and external information	.44***	.52***	.52***	.46***	.50***
33	People monitor trends outside the organization by looking at what others do (e.g. benchmarking, best practices, attending conferences, and examining published research)	.45***	.57***	.27**	.34**	.47***
34	People are trained in the skills of creative thinking and experimentation	.05*	.49***	.04*	.54***	.37**
35	We often create demonstration projects where new ways of developing a product and/or delivering a service are tested	.22**	.56***	.16*	.45***	.39**
36	Systems and structures exist to ensure that important knowledge is coded, stored, and made available to those who need and can use it	.25**	.22**	.60****	.45***	.35**
37	People are aware of the need to retain important organizational learnings and share such knowledge with others	.50***	.32**	.23**	.51***	.50***
38	Cross-functional teams are used to transfer important learning across groups, departments and divisions	.41***	.65****	.21**	.33**	.43***
39	We continue to develop new strategies and mechanisms for sharing learning throughout the organization	.41***	.59***	.74****	.49***	.53***
40	We support specific areas, units, and projects that generate knowledge by providing people with learning opportunities	.31**	.70****	.32**	.41***	.52***

\* Little or no correlation

\*\* Weak correlation

\*\*\* Moderate correlation

\*\*\*\* Strong correlation

The data presented in Table 4.15 suggest that for the aggregated data that there is a moderate relationship between Learning and Knowledge Management for seven items and a weak relationship for three items. In Club 1 there is a moderate relationship between Learning and Knowledge management for six of the items, a weak relationship for three items and little or no relationship for one item. In Club 2 there is a strong relationship between Learning and Knowledge Management for two items, a moderate relationship for six items and a weak relationship for 2 items. In Club 3 there is a strong relationship between Learning and Knowledge Management for two items, a moderate relationship for two items, a weak relationship for five

items, and little or no relationship for two items. In Club 4 there is a moderate relationship between Learning and Knowledge Management for seven items and a weak relationship for the other 3 items.

**Table 4.16 Learning versus Technology**

	<b>All Data n = 125</b>	<b>Club 1 n = 35</b>	<b>Club 2 n = 34</b>	<b>Club 3 n = 11</b>	<b>Club 4 n = 45</b>
<b>Correlation Coefficient ( r )</b>	.56	.47	.55	.06	.57

The data presented in Table 4.16, indicate that there is a moderate relationship between the Learning and Technology sub-systems for both the aggregated data ( $r=0.56$ ) and Clubs 1( $r=0.47$ ), Club2 ( $r=0.55$ ) and Club 4 ( $r=0.57$ ). For Club 3 ( $r=0.06$ ) there is little or no relationship between the Learning sub-system and Technology.

In Table 4.17, the relationship between Learning and the individual items in the Technology sub-system are presented. At the level of the aggregated data, six items demonstrated a moderate relationship between the Learning and Technology sub-systems and 4 demonstrated a weak relationship. For Club 1, the relationship was moderate in two items, a moderate relationship for seven items and little or no relationship for one item. In Club 2 there was a moderate relationship for seven items and a weak relationship for three items. In Club 3 two items demonstrated a moderate relationship, four items a weak relationship and five items little or no relationship. In Club 4 the relationship was divided equally between weak and moderate across the ten items.

**Table 4.17 Correlation Coefficients between Learning (Items 1 -10) v Technology (Items 41 – 50)**

Items in the Technology sub-system		Club 1	Club 2	Club 3	Club 4	All Data
41	Learning is facilitated by effective and efficient computer-based information systems	.41***	.50***	.48***	.44***	.47***
42	People have ready access to information highway (e.g. local area networks, internet, on-line etc.)	.27**	.42***	.48***	.38**	.41***
43	Learning facilities (e.g. training and conference rooms) incorporate electronic multimedia support and a learning environment based on the integration of art, colour, music and visuals	.39**	.51***	.29**	.46***	.49***
44	People have available to them, computer-assisted learning programs and electronic job aids (e.g. just-in-time and flowcharting software)	.21**	.40***	.37**	.36**	.28**
45	We use groupware technology to manage group processes (e.g. project management, team process, meeting management)	.26**	.46***	.22**	.41***	.37**
46	We support just-in-time learning, a system that integrates high-technology learning systems, coaching, and actual work on the job into a single, seamless process	.08*	.33**	.19*	.33**	.30**
47	Our electronic performance support systems enable us to learn and to do our work better (an electronic performance support system is a system that uses databases and knowledge bases to capture, store, and distribute information throughout the organization)	.28**	.21**	.17*	.31**	.33**
48	We design and tailor our electronic performance support systems to meet our learning needs	.32**	.47***	.05*	.41***	.40***
49	People have full access to the data they need to do their jobs effectively	.52***	.36**	.24**	.30**	.45***
50	We can adapt software systems to collect, code, store, create, and transfer information in ways best suited to meet our needs	.29**	.57***	.11*	.45***	.49***

\* Little or no correlation

\*\* Weak correlation

\*\*\* Moderate correlation

From the data obtained for the means and correlations, it appeared that there was a stronger correlation between the Learning and Organization sub-systems than between the Learning and People sub-systems. Therefore, the correlation between Organization and People was calculated and tested to determine if there were any significant differences between the results obtained for the correlations between Learning and Organization and Learning and People. The results for these calculations and significance tests are presented in Table 4.18.

**Table 4.18 Correlation of Learning v Organization and Learning v People**

	All data	Club 1	Club2	Club 3	Club 4
Learn v Org	.80	.69	.83	.36	.81
Learn v People	.63	.68	.59	.57	.62
Org v People	.68	.66	.74	.66	.61
Significance	0.000*	0.464	0.000*	0.809	0.011*

\* The difference is significant for  $p \leq 0.05$

The results presented in Table 4.18 indicate that there is a significant difference between the perceptions of the effect of the organization and people on learning at the aggregated level. At the aggregated level, the Organization sub-system exerts a significantly higher effect on learning than does the People sub-system. At the individual club level there is no significant difference between the effect of the Organization and People sub-systems on learning for clubs 1 and 3; but the Organization sub-system plays a significantly greater role in learning than does the People sub-system for clubs 2 and 4.

#### **4.4 Comparison of Mean Scores from the LOP for Managers and Non-Managers**

The following section analyses the data collected in the survey from a demographic perspective. In the instructions to participants in the survey, the participants were asked firstly to identify which club they worked for, whether it was part of a larger organization and secondly their employment level e.g. Manager, supervisor, bar staff, food service staff or other. The purpose of collecting this demographic data was to determine if there are significant differences in the perceptions of staff at different levels in the organizations in the way they scored the fifty items in the survey. With this additional information it might be possible to identify areas for improvement within the individual clubs.

In this section, the data obtained from staff who identified themselves as having a managerial role were compared with the data from staff who identified themselves as not being in a managerial role. From the 149 responses received from the four participating clubs, 20 participants identified themselves as being in managerial positions, 80 as being in non-managerial positions with 49 not providing any information on their role in the organization. Of the 100 staff who are included in this section of the analysis, 14 of the non-managerial staff did not complete Items 26-50 and two of the managerial staff did not complete Items 26-50, therefore only 84 completed all 50 items in the survey. The managerial staff included staff from the level of Duty Manager upwards to the CEO and non-managerial staff included Bar Staff, Food Services, Clerical and Reception.

In the ensuing analyses, the same procedure that was adopted in the analysis of all the data is adopted. Therefore, the mean scores for the data in the People sub-system are presented in two tables People (Int.) and People (Ext.).

Table 4.19 presents the mean scores across all identified managerial and non-managerial staff from the 4 clubs for the five sub-systems and the split People sub-system i.e. People (int.) and People (ext.). It should be noted that the sample used in this part of the analysis is a subset of the sample used in the first part where the data from all 149 respondents was used as opposed to only 100 respondents in this part. Therefore there is the possibility that the loss of approximately one-third of the respondents may have an effect on the results of the analyses, resulting in differences in mean scores and relationship strengths to those presented in the previous sections.

**Table 4.19 Aggregated Mean Scores for Items 1 – 50 in Marquardt’s LOP Survey Instrument**

Sub-system and Item Nos.						
	<b>Learning 1 - 10</b>	<b>Organiz- ation 11 - 20</b>	<b>People (int.) 21 - 25</b>	<b>People (ext.) 21 - 25</b>	<b>Knowledge Management 31 – 40</b>	<b>Technology 41 – 50</b>
Aggregated Data (managerial & non- managerial staff)	Mean (n = 100)	Mean (n = 100)	Mean (n = 100)	Mean (n = 84)	Mean (n = 84)	Mean (n = 84)
	<b>2.8**</b>	<b>2.7**</b>	<b>2.6**</b>	<b>2.0*</b>	<b>2.3*</b>	<b>1.9</b>
Managerial staff	Mean (n = 20)	Mean (n = 20)	Mean (n = 20)	Mean (n = 18)	Mean (n = 18)	Mean (n = 18)
	<b>3.0**</b>	<b>3.2**</b>	<b>2.9**</b>	<b>2.3*</b>	<b>2.7**</b>	<b>2.4*</b>
Non- managerial	Mean (n = 80)	Mean (n = 80)	Mean (n = 80)	Mean (n = 66)	Mean (n = 66)	Mean (n = 66)
	<b>2.7**</b>	<b>2.6**</b>	<b>2.5*</b>	<b>1.8*</b>	<b>2.3*</b>	<b>1.8*</b>

\* Applies to a minor extent

\*\* Applies to a moderate extent

The data presented in Table 4.19 suggest that there are differences in the way staff perceive the impacts of Learning, Organization, People, Knowledge Management and Technology sub-systems in their work environment. Staff working at the managerial level have indicated that the sub-systems Learning, Organization and People (Int.) and Knowledge Management apply to a moderate extent in their

clubs and the People (Ext.) and Technology sub-systems to a minor extent. The perceptions of managerial staff were that People (Int.) applied to a moderate extent and that People (Ext.) applied to a minor extent.

The perceptions of non-managerial staff were that the Learning and Organization sub-systems applied to a moderate extent and that People (Int. and Ext.), Knowledge Management and Technology applied to a minor extent. Overall the scores follow the trends presented in Table 4.3. From the data obtained in the survey, the mean score across all items for Managers was found to be 2.8 and for Non-Managers, 2.3.

The following tables present the mean scores for Managers and Non-managers for each item in the survey.

### **The Learning Sub-system**

From Table 4.20, the perceptions of managers were that two items in the Learning sub-system applied to a great extent, six items applied to a moderate extent and two items applied to a minor extent. The perceptions of non-managers were that eight items applied to a moderate extent and that the same two items that managers perceived as applying to a minor extent were similarly perceived by non-managers. The two items where there were differing perceptions were Item 1 (We see continuous learning by all employees as a high business priority) and Item 5 (We use various accelerated learning methodologies (e.g. mind-mapping, mnemonics, peripherals, imagery, music etc.)). Overall, the perceptions of both managers and non-managers were that the Learning sub-system applied to a moderate extent.

**Table 4.20 Mean Score for each item in Marquardt's Learning Sub-system**

Items in the Learning Sub-system		Managers (n = 20)	Non- Managers (n = 80)	Aggregate (Manager & Non- managers)
1	We see continuous learning by all employees as a high business priority	3.8***	3.0**	3.2**
2	We are encouraged and expected to manage our learning and development	3.4**	3.2**	3.3**
3	People avoid distortion of information and blocking of communication channels through skills such as active listening and effective feedback	3.1**	2.7**	2.8**
4	Individuals are coached and trained in how to learn	2.8	2.5	2.6**
5	We use various accelerated learning methodologies (e.g. mind-mapping, mnemonics, peripherals, imagery, music etc.)	3.7***	3.1**	3.2**
6	People expand knowledge through adaptive, anticipatory, and creative learning approaches	2.9**	2.8**	2.8**
7	Teams and individuals use the action-learning process (i.e. learning from careful reflection on the problem or situation, and applying it to future actions)	3.1**	2.7**	2.8**
8	Teams are encouraged to learn from one another and to share learning in a variety of ways (e.g. via electronic bulletin boards, printed newsletters, intergroup meetings etc.)	3.0**	2.7**	2.8**
9	People are able to think and act with a comprehensive systems approach (i.e. we look at impacts of our decisions on areas outside their immediate area or function)	2.5*	2.4*	2.4*
10	Teams receive training in how to work and learn in groups	2.2*	2.1*	2.1*
	<b>Mean Scores</b>	<b>3.0**</b>	<b>2.7**</b>	<b>2.8**</b>

\* Applies to a minor extent

\*\* Applies to a moderate extent

\*\*\* Applies to a great extent

### The Organization Sub-system

In the following Table the perceptions of managers and non-managers of how the Organization sub-system applied to their clubs are presented.

**Table 4.21 Mean Score for each item in Marquardt's Organization Sub-system**

<b>Items in the Organization Sub-system</b>		<b>Managers (n = 20)</b>	<b>Non- Managers (n = 80)</b>	<b>Aggregate (Manager &amp; Non- managers)</b>
11	The importance of being a learning organization is understood throughout the organization	2.9**	2.4*	2.5*
12	Top-level management supports the vision of a learning organization	3.3**	2.7**	2.9**
13	There is a climate that supports and recognises the importance of learning	3.6***	2.8**	3.0**
14	We are committed to continuous learning for improvement	3.8***	2.9**	3.1**
15	We learn from our failures as well as our successes (i.e. failures are tolerated as part of the learning process)	3.5**	3.1**	3.1**
16	We reward people and teams for learning and helping others to learn	3.1**	2.3*	2.4*
17	Learning opportunities are incorporated into operations and programs	3.1**	2.6**	2.7**
18	We design ways to share knowledge and enhance learning throughout Organization (e.g. systematic job rotation across teams, structured on-the-job learning systems)	3.0**	2.6**	2.6**
19	Organization is streamlined, with few levels of management, to maximise communication and learning across levels	2.8**	2.3*	2.4*
20	We coordinate on the basis of goals and learning rather than maintaining separation in terms of fixed departmental boundaries	2.9**	2.0*	2.2*
	<b>Mean Scores</b>	<b>3.2**</b>	<b>2.6**</b>	<b>2.7**</b>

\* Applies to a minor extent

\*\* Applies to a moderate extent

\*\*\* Applies to a great extent

The data presented in Table 4.22 indicate that managers perceived the Organization sub-system as applying to a great extent for two items, and to a moderate extent for the remaining eight items. The perceptions of non-managers were that the Organization sub-system applied to a moderate extent for six items and to a minor extent than for the remaining four items. There are six items (11, 13, 14, 16, 19 and 20) in this sub-system where there were some differences in perceptions but this difference was found to be in the degree of difference and was not statistically significant.

### People Sub-system

As when presenting the data in Sections 4.2 and 4.3, the People data has been split into People (Int.) and People Ext.) for both ease of presentation and analysis as consequence of 14 of the non-managers and two of the managers only providing responses to the first 25 items in the survey. Table 4.22 presents the mean scores for all the data and managers and non-managers for People (Int.) and People (Ext.).

**Table 4.22 Means for People (Int.) and People (Ext.) for Managers and Non-Managers**

	<b>People (Int.)</b>	<b>People (Ext.)</b>	<b>p</b>
<b>Managers</b>	2.9** (n=20)	2.3* (n=18)	≤0.05
<b>Non-managers</b>	2.5** (n=80)	1.8* (n=66)	≤0.05
<b>All Data</b>	2.6** (n=100)	2.0* (n=84)	≤0.05

\* Applies to a minor extent

\*\* Applies to a moderate extent

For the data in Table 4.22, for People (Int.) the perceptions of both managers and non-managers were that the sub-system applied to a moderate extent and that for People (Ext.) it applied to a minor extent. The differences between the means for People (Int.) and (Ext.) were statistically significant for all data, and for both managers and non-managers ( $p \leq 0.05$ ). In Table 4.23 the results for the individual items in the People (Int.) sub-system are presented for managers, non-managers and all data for the two groups.

**Table 4.23 Mean Score for each item in Marquardt's People (Int.) Sub-system**

Items in the People Sub-system		Managers (n = 20)	Non- Managers (n = 80)	Aggregate (Manager & Non- managers)
21	We strive to develop an empowered work force that is able and committed to qualitative learning and performance	2.7**	2.6**	2.6**
22	Authority is decentralised and delegated so as to equal one's responsibility and learning capability	2.8**	2.1*	2.2*
23	Managers and non-managers work together in partnership, to learn and solve problems together	2.9**	2.6**	2.7**
24	Managers take on the roles of coaching, mentoring, and facilitating learning	3.2**	2.8**	2.8**
25	Managers generate and enhance learning opportunities as well as encourage experimentation and reflection on what was learned so that new knowledge can be used	2.9**	3.1**	2.6**

\* Applies to a minor extent

\*\* Applies to a moderate extent

With the exception of Item 22 regarding the decentralising of authority which was perceived by non-managers as applying to a minor extent, the perceptions of both managers and non-managers were that the sub-system applied to a moderate extent.

**Table 4.24 Mean Score for each item in Marquardt's People (Ext.) Sub-system**

Items in the People Sub-system		Managers (n = 20)	Non- Managers (n = 80)	Aggregate (Manager & Non- managers)
26	We actively share information with our customers, to obtain their ideas and inputs in order to learn and improve services/products	2.8**	2.7**	2.6**
27	We give customers and suppliers opportunities to participate in learning and training activities	1.7*	1.5*	1.5*
28	Learning from partners/subcontractors, and suppliers is maximised through up-front planning of resources and strategies devoted to knowledge and skill acquisition	2.2*	1.6*	1.7*
29	We participate in joint learning events with suppliers, community groups, professional associations, and academic institutions	2.7**	2.0*	2.1*
30	We actively seek learning partners amongst customers, vendors and suppliers	2.1*	1.6*	1.7*

\* Applies to a minor extent

\*\* Applies to a moderate extent

From Table 4.24, the overall perceptions of managers and non-managers were that People (Ext.) applied to a minor extent across their organizations. Both managers

and non-managers agreed that the sharing of information with customers to gain their ideas and inputs in order to learn applied to a moderate extent. For the remaining four items, managers' perceptions were that one item applied to a moderate extent and the remaining items applied to a minor extent. Non-managers' perceptions were that the remaining four items applied to a minor extent.

From Table 4.24 it would appear that perception of both managers and non-managers was that people who worked for the organizations were perceived to exert a greater influence on learning than those who either supplied services to the organizations or were customers of the organizations. This is possibly due to the fact that the clubs, on a regular basis seek feedback from customers on a range of issues including ways in which services can be improved including customer service.

### **Knowledge Management**

The data presented in Table 4.25 indicate that managers perceived that Knowledge Management applies to a moderate extent while non-managers perceived it as only applying to a minor extent. The exception to this general observation is Item 37 where the perceptions of both managers and non-managers were that there was a need to retain important organizational learnings and share this knowledge. The perceptions of managers were that Knowledge Management applied to a moderate extent in six of the items and to a minor extent in four. Non-managers' perceptions were that Knowledge management applied to a moderate extent in three items and to a minor extent for the remaining seven. The differences in perception between non-managers and managers were not found to be statistically significant.

**Table 4.25 Mean Score for each item in Marquardt's Knowledge Management sub-system**

<b>Items in the Knowledge Management Sub-system</b>		<b>Managers (n = 18)</b>	<b>Non- Managers (n = 66)</b>	<b>Aggregate (Manager &amp; Non- managers)</b>
31	People actively seek information that improves the work of the organization	3.0**	2.3*	2.4*
32	We have accessible systems for collecting internal and external information	2.8**	2.6**	2.6**
33	People monitor trends outside organization by looking at what others do (e.g. benchmarking, best practices, attending conferences, and examining published research)	3.3**	2.6**	2.7**
34	People are trained in the skills of creative thinking and experimentation	2.4*	1.9	2.0*
35	We often create demonstration projects where new ways of developing a product and/or delivering a service are tested	2.1*	1.8	1.8*
36	Systems and structures exist to ensure that important knowledge is coded, stored, and made available to those who need and can use it	2.9**	2.5*	2.5*
37	People are aware of the need to retain important organizational learnings and share such knowledge with others	3.0**	2.8**	2.7**
38	Cross-functional teams are used to transfer important learning across groups, departments and divisions	2.2*	2.0*	2.0*
39	We continue to develop new strategies and mechanisms for sharing learning throughout the organization	2.4*	2.3*	2.3*
40	We support specific areas, units, and projects that generate knowledge by providing people with learning opportunities	2.7**	2.5*	2.5*
	<b>Mean scores</b>	<b>2.7**</b>	<b>2.3*</b>	<b>2.3*</b>

\* Applies to a minor extent

\*\* Applies to a moderate extent

### **Technology**

From the data presented in Table 4.26, the overall perception of managers was that the Technology variable applied to a moderate extent and for non-managers was that Technology only applied to a minor extent in their organizations. Managers' perceptions were that the Technology sub-system applied to a moderate extent in six items and to a minor extent in four items. Non-managers' perceptions were that the sub-system applied to a moderate extent in two items and to a minor extent in eight items. The differences in perception between non-managers and managers were not found to be statistically significant.

**Table 4.26 Mean Score for each item in Marquardt's Technology Sub-system**

<b>Items in the Technology Sub-system</b>		<b>Managers (n = 18)</b>	<b>Non- Managers (n = 66)</b>	<b>Aggregate (Manager &amp; Non- managers)</b>
41	Learning is facilitated by effective and efficient computer-based information systems	2.4**	2.0**	2.0**
42	People have ready access to information highway (e.g. local area networks, internet, on-line etc.)	3.3***	2.0**	2.2**
43	Learning facilities (e.g. training and conference rooms) incorporate electronic multimedia support and a learning environment based on the integration of art, colour, music and visuals	2.6***	1.9**	2.0**
44	People have available to them, computer-assisted learning programs and electronic job aids (e.g. just-in-time and flowcharting software)	2.1**	1.6**	1.6**
45	We use groupware technology to manage group processes (e.g. project management, team process, meeting management)	2.4**	1.6**	1.7**
46	We support just-in-time learning, a system that integrates high-technology learning systems, coaching, and actual work on the job into a single, seamless process	1.3*	1.5*	1.4*
47	Our electronic performance support systems enable us to learn and to do our work better (an electronic performance support system is a system that uses databases and knowledge bases to capture, store, and distribute information throughout the organization)	2.2**	2.0**	2.0**
48	We design and tailor our electronic performance support systems to meet our learning needs	1.8**	1.7**	1.7**
49	People have full access to the data they need to do their jobs effectively	3.1***	2.5**	2.6***
50	We can adapt software systems to collect, code, store, create, and transfer information in ways best suited to meet our needs	2.9***	1.9**	2.1**
<b>Mean scores</b>		<b>2.4**</b>	<b>1.9**</b>	<b>1.9**</b>

\* Does not apply

\*\* Applies to a minor extent

\*\*\* Applies to a moderate extent

#### 4.4.1 Correlation of the Learning Sub-system with the other Sub-systems

Using the Learning sub-system as the dependent variable, correlation coefficients were calculated to determine the strength of the relationship between Learning and the other sub-systems, Organization, People (Int.) and People (Ext.), Knowledge Management and Technology. The results for these correlations are presented in subsequent tables.

**Table 4.27 Correlation Coefficients for the Learning Sub-system v Each of the other sub-systems**

	Organization (n=100)	People (int.) (n=100)	People (ext.) (n=84)	Knowledge Management (n=84)	Technology (n=84)
All identified staff	.78**	.56*	.61**	.67**	.59*
Managerial Staff	.69** (n=20)	.72** (n=20)	.56* (n=18)	.67** (n=18)	.69** (n=18)
Non- managerial Staff	.79** (n=80)	.53* (n=80)	.61** (n=66)	.66** (n=66)	.56* (n=66)

\* Moderate correlation

\*\* Strong correlation

Testing the differences between the correlations for managers and non-managers did not identify any statistically significant differences. From the correlation results presented in Table 4.26 there is a strong relationship between the Learning and Organization sub-systems for both managers and non-managers. There is a strong relationship between Learning and People (Int.) for the managerial staff and a moderate relationship for the non-managerial staff. For People (Ext.) the relationships are the reverse of those obtained for People (Int.). There was a strong relationship between Learning and Knowledge Management for both managers and non-managers. In the Technology sub-system the relationship with learning was strong for managers and moderate for non-managers.

The following sections of this Chapter presents the relationship between the Learning sub-system and the individual items in each of the other four sub-systems.

### Learning Sub-system versus Organization Sub-system

**Table 4.28 Correlation of Learning sub-system against Items 11 – 20 (Organization sub-system)**

Items in the Organization Sub-system		Managers (n=20)	Non- Managers (n=80)	Aggregate (Manager & Non- managers) (n=100)
11	The importance of being a learning organization is understood throughout the organization	.66***	.65***	.66***
12	Top-level management supports the vision of a learning organization	.51**	.68***	.65***
13	There is a climate that supports and recognises the importance of learning	.47**	.61***	.61***
14	We are committed to continuous learning for improvement	.66***	.60***	.63***
15	We learn from our failures as well as our successes (i.e. failures are tolerated as part of the learning process)	.62***	.37*	.42**
16	We reward people and teams for learning and helping others to learn	.49**	.61***	.61***
17	Learning opportunities are incorporated into operations and programs	.45**	.49**	.50**
18	We design ways to share knowledge and enhance learning throughout Organization (e.g. systematic job rotation across teams, structured on-the-job learning systems)	.31*	.51**	.50**
19	Organization is streamlined, with few levels of management, to maximise communication and learning across levels	.22*	.41**	.40**
20	We coordinate on the basis of goals and learning rather than maintaining separation in terms of fixed departmental boundaries	.60***	.54**	.57**

- \* Weak correlation
- \*\* Moderate correlation
- \*\*\* Strong correlation

From the data presented in Table 4.28, for managers there is a strong relationship between Learning and four items in the Organization sub-system and a moderate relationship for the remaining six items. For non-manages the relationship between Learning and the Organization is equally divided between strong and moderate. The correlations for each item were subsequently tested to identify any

significant differences between managers and non-managers. This analysis determined that there were statistically significant differences between the correlations for managers and non-managers (Appendix C, Table C-12).

**Table 4.29 Correlation of Learning v Organization for Managers and Non-Managers**

	<b>Managers (n=20)</b>	<b>Non- Managers (n=80)</b>	<b>All Data (n=100)</b>
<b>Correlation ( r )</b>	0.57	0.79	0.77

From the data presented in Table 4.29, the perceptions of non-managers are that there is a stronger relationship between the Learning and the Organization sub-systems than do managers. Further analysis indicated that there were no statistically significant differences between the two correlations. This probably reflects the perception that often when staff talk about or refer to the organization they are in fact talking about or referring to the management within the organization.

### **Learning versus People**

The data presented in this section of the results have been divided into People (Int.) and People (Ext.) in accordance with the protocol that has been used throughout this chapter. From Table 4.30, managers have indicated that the relationship between Learning and People (Int.) is strong for two items and moderately strong for the other three. For non-managers, there is a strong relationship between Learning and People (Int.) for one item, a moderate relationship with three items and a weak relationship for one item. Subsequent analysis of the results for managers and non-managers across the five items for People (Int.) indicated that there were no significant differences between the correlations for managers and non-managers (Appendix C, Table C-15).

**Table 4.30 Correlation of Learning sub-system against Items 21 – 25 (People Int.)**

Items in the People Sub-system		Managers (n=20)	Non- Managers (n=80)	Aggregate (Manager & Non- managers) (n=100)
21	We strive to develop an empowered work force that is able and committed to qualitative learning and performance	.53**	.60***	.57**
22	Authority is decentralised and delegated so as to equal one's responsibility and learning capability	.40**	.34*	.37*
23	Managers and non-managers work together in partnership, to learn and solve problems together	.53**	.29*	.32*
24	Managers take on the roles of coaching, mentoring, and facilitating learning	.62***	.31*	.37*
25	Managers generate and enhance learning opportunities as well as encourage experimentation and reflection on what was learned so that new knowledge can be used	.46**	.54**	.54**

- \* Weak correlation
- \*\* Moderate correlation
- \*\*\* Strong correlation

From Table 4.31 the relationship between Learning and People (Ext.) for the managers is strong for one item, moderately strong for three items and weak in one. For non-managers, the relationship between Learning and People (Ext.) is moderately strong across all five items. There were no statistically significant differences found between managers and non-manager in the relationship between Learning and the five items in People (Ext.)relationships (Appendix C, Table C-13).

**Table 4.31 Correlation of Learning sub-system against Items 26 – 30 (People Ext.)**

Items in the People Sub-system		Managers (n=18)	Non- Managers (n=66)	Aggregate (Manager & Non- managers) (n=84)
26	We actively share information with our customers, to obtain their ideas and inputs in order to learn and improve services/products	.56**	.42**	.45**
27	We give customers and suppliers opportunities to participate in learning and training activities	.32*	.53**	.49**
28	Learning from partners/subcontractors, and suppliers is maximised through up-front planning of resources and strategies devoted to knowledge and skill acquisition	.61***	.50**	.53**
29	We participate in joint learning events with suppliers, community groups, professional associations, and academic institutions	.42**	.40**	.42**
30	We actively seek learning partners amongst customers, vendors and suppliers	.42**	.48**	.48**

- \* Weak correlation
- \*\* Moderate correlation
- \*\*\* Strong correlation

When the correlation between Learning and Knowledge Management was undertaken, with the exception of items 35, 38 and 40, it was found that managers perceive that there is a stronger relationship between Learning and Knowledge Management than non-managers (see Appendix C, Table C-11). Analysis of the correlation results for managers and non-managers in the Knowledge Management sub-system indicated that there were no statistically significant differences between the correlations for managers and non-managers (Appendix C, Table C-14).

For the correlations of Learning against Technology (Appendix C, Table C-9), non-managers perceived that there was a stronger relationship between Learning and Items 41, 42, 44, 45, 49 and 50 than did managers, whereas managers perceived that there was a stronger relationship between Learning and the other 4 items. Further analysis of these correlations indicated that there were statistically significant differences in the correlations for managers and non-managers (Appendix C, Table C-17).

As outlined in Chapter 3, in addition to the survey of staff within the four clubs, interviews were conducted with the four CEOs and three HR Managers. The results of these interviews are presented in summary in the following section.

#### 4.5 Data from Interviews with Senior Management

A number of common themes emerged from the interviews with CEOs and HR

Managers and are listed below. Unless otherwise stated the points listed apply to all Clubs.

Interview Question: <b><i>What is your educational background</i></b>	
Common themes	All interviewees had post-secondary qualifications or equivalent and these comprised a mixture of university degrees and TAFE qualifications
Interview Question: <b><i>What does learning mean to you (a) for yourself and (b) for your organization</i></b>	
Common themes	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Learning comprises on-the-job and formal courses</li> <li>• Learning is a lifelong activity and encompasses day-to-day interactions in workplace and outside</li> <li>• A great deal of learning occurs at the sub-conscious level</li> <li>• Some of the learning or training is mandatory</li> <li>• Training is linked to performance assessment (Clubs 1 &amp; 4)</li> </ul>
Interview Question: <b><i>What sort of problems do you encounter in the workplace?</i></b>	
Common themes	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Poor communication between management and staff</li> <li>• Poor interpersonal skills with work colleagues and also patrons</li> <li>• Problems retaining good, qualified staff</li> <li>• General lack of career paths</li> </ul>
Interview Question: <b><i>What has been the nature of the training – has it been formal or informal?</i></b>	
Common themes	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Mandatory training with regard to gambling and service of alcohol</li> <li>• Formal training to prepare staff for management positions</li> <li>• Formal when linked to performance assessment</li> </ul>

Interview Question: <b><i>What do you see as the greatest challenges for YOUR club in the next 1-2 years?</i></b>	
Common themes	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Identifying ways to improve staff retention</li> <li>• Coping with increased Government regulation</li> <li>• Providing increased levels of interpersonal skills training</li> <li>• Solving career blockages created by Traineeships (Club 4)</li> <li>• Improving the overall skill levels of staff</li> </ul>
Interview Question: <b><i>How will the club meet these challenges?</i></b>	
Common themes	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Developing career paths</li> <li>• Increasing the level of structured training (Club 4)</li> <li>• Learning how other jurisdictions coped with increased government regulation</li> <li>• Developing ways of unblocking career paths</li> <li>• Continuing to develop coaching and mentoring schemes</li> <li>• Continue with Traineeships (Club 4)</li> </ul>
Interview Question: <b><i>Do you have a training budget Yes/No? How is it determined and administered?</i></b>	
Common themes	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• All clubs have a training budget</li> <li>• Budget based on precedent (Clubs 1&amp; 2)</li> <li>• Training Budget based on wages bill &amp; needs (Club4)</li> <li>• HR manager manages training budget</li> <li>• Coaching and mentoring</li> </ul>

In summary, the interviews with the CEOs and HR Managers provide insights into their attitudes to learning and its impact on the hospitality industry and more specifically the club industry.

Following the two additional questions on the survey, respondents were offered the opportunity to make any comments about training within their respective clubs. In the following section, comments made by club staff are presented.

#### 4.6 Staff Comments

Of the four clubs that participated in this study, some staff comments were included on the completed survey instruments. All the comments that were received came from employees in Club 2. In this summary of comments, only those that contained references to training are included.

“Have requested training and courses in certain areas on numerous occasions over past two years and am still waiting. Seems like senior management and staff get all the training and we occasionally get second hand information that they think we might need to know.” – Waitress

“More on the job training, longer periods of training to enforce the complete structure of the position. Information/instructions more easily available so the person doing a particular job isn’t left in the dark.” – Reception/bar staff.

“Training is not the focus of this club, except for staff in higher positions. Hierarchy too large.” – Food services

“Majority of learning process has to be approved by parent club which usually means you learn on the job the best way you can.” – Restaurant supervisor

“Senior management should listen to staff feedback.” – Supervisor

“The majority of staff receive little or no training. Most staff end up in a position because a shift can’t be filled and learn the hour before how to do that job and are then expected to do it. We all do responsible service of gaming and alcohol because it is required by law, there are no other courses that staff participate in.” No indication as to this person’s duties.

“Training is virtually non-existent, we are thrown in at the deep end. Only training required by law is conducted. Learning opportunities are non-existent. No technology is available for training. No internet access apart from e-mail is allowed

for lower level staff. Possibly management are trying to keep the staff dumb, we can't cause too many headaches that way. It would be nearly impossible to create learning opportunities here at this club as management are invisible, except through e-mails, and Human Resources are so far out of touch they wouldn't have a clue what is going on." No indication as to this person's duties.

"No, comments, no-one listens anyway." – Bar staff

"Not enough training is given, the management is too worried about what we wear and how much they are going to save." – Bar staff

#### **4.7 Summary**

In this Chapter the results obtained through the LOP survey instrument and the interviews with senior management from the four clubs have been presented. In addition, the comments provided by a number of employees from Club 2 are also included.

In the survey, Club 3 whose mean was the highest, was found to be statistically different to Clubs 1 and 2, but not statistically different to Club 4. Across the five sub-systems, the order of the clubs from highest mean score to lowest mean score was Club 3, Club 4, Club 1 and Club 2. This same pattern was also noted in the data for each of the five sub-systems. Generally, there was a strong to very strong relationship between the Learning and Organization sub-systems in three of the clubs. In Club3, the relationship between Learning and the other four sub-systems was found to be consistently weak. Due to the low number of responses received from Club 3 these results should be treated with caution. At the aggregated data level, it was found that when the People sub-system was split into two groups there was a significant difference ( $p=0.002$ ) in their responses yet there was no significant difference at the individual club level.

When the data were split into manager and non-manager a number of significant differences were identified between managers and non-managers.

In Chapter 5, the results presented in this chapter are discussed and related to the literature review. In addition, some of the limitations of this research are presented and discussed.

## CHAPTER FIVE

### DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

#### 5.1 Introduction

In this chapter the analyses of the results presented in Chapter 4 are discussed and given meaning along with any implications that the results may hold for individual clubs and the broader club industry. The data presented in Chapter 4 were collected to determine the extent to which the clubs that participated in this study were perceived by their staff to exhibit the characteristics of learning organizations as described by Marquardt (2002).

Since there have been very few identifiable in-depth studies of organizations as learning organizations, there are no norms against which the overall results presented in Chapter 4 can be compared. Of the identifiable studies, there is the study that Byers (1999) undertook in which he examined senior managers in a range of Australian organizations. The results for managers obtained in this current study are compared with the results obtained by Byers in his study. Another study (Dymock and McCarthy, 2006) explored an automotive parts organization to ascertain if employees perceived their organization as a learning organization. Since this latter study employed a different survey instrument to that used in this study, it is not possible to directly compare the results that Dymock and McCarthy obtained in their study with the results obtained from the clubs.

The analysis of the data obtained and presented in Chapter 4 are used to provide answers to the following three questions:

1. To what extent are clubs perceived by their employees to have adopted the characteristics of a learning organization?
2. What are the perceptions of managers with respect to learning in their organizations?
3. Do managers' perceptions differ from those of non-managers with respect to learning in their organizations?

The data obtained in this study assists in identifying any specific factors that might be enhancing or inhibiting the development of a learning culture in the individual clubs. The interpretation of these data provides the club industry as a whole with recommendations as to how it may meet future challenges.

In interpreting the data and giving them meaning, this chapter is divided into two broad parts, each with a number of sections. The first section in Part 1, which is used to answer Question 1, discusses all the data collected in the survey. The data for each of the sub-systems in Marquardt's model are then discussed in the same manner as was done for all the data. But, in discussing the individual sub-systems it is impossible to think of them as being unique or standing alone. The sub-systems operate synergistically and in discussing the data from the individual sub-systems, it is often necessary to refer to data in other sub-systems as they reinforce particular points. Where appropriate, data obtained from the interviews and comments supplied by respondents to the survey are incorporated into the discussion. In Part 2, the data are separated into managerial and non-managerial and discussed in the same manner as the data in Part 1. Part 2 is used to answer Questions 2 and 3.

In discussing the data, consideration is given to the practical significance of any differences among the data obtained for the four clubs as opposed to the statistically

significant differences. The concept of practical difference versus statistical difference is highlighted by Hair et al. (1995) and in this context is relevant to the overall meaning ascribed to the results. Hence, the findings and practical applications outlined in this chapter are considered to have implications for the future direction of learning within clubs in developing their learning cultures. By exploring each of the issues raised in this chapter, the components of the study are drawn together creating an overall picture which can be used to clearly answer the research questions and final conclusions made, and to make key recommendations for future research.

## 5.2 Overview of the Clubs

The prime purpose of Part 1 is to answer the following question:

**To what extent are clubs perceived by their employees to have adopted the characteristics of learning organizations?**

In this first section, the discussion is focussed on all the results obtained in the survey and where appropriate, comments from the interviews and those supplied by respondents to the survey. Overall, the four clubs have embraced the concept of the 'Learning Organization' or exhibit the characteristics of the 'Learning Organization' to a minor extent (see Table 4.2). Furthermore, the quantitative and interview data indicate that there are significant differences in perceptions among the four clubs that participated in this study. The data in Table 4.2 suggest that the four clubs could be divided into two groups and this division was confirmed by comparing the means (see Appendix C, Table C-1), with Clubs 1 and 2 comprising one group and Clubs 3 and 4 comprising the second group. The 50 items in the survey were perceived as applying to a greater extent in 98% of the items in Clubs 3 and 4 compared to Clubs 1 and 2. Furthermore, the greatest differences between the pairs were found to occur in clusters of items such as the manner in which learning occurs, whereas the area where

there was the least difference was in the use of teams and teamwork. These clusters are discussed at greater length when the individual sub-systems are discussed in subsequent sections.

From Table 4.2, while both the Organization and People sub-systems were found to apply to a minor extent, the Organization sub-system was found to apply marginally more than the People sub-system. This suggests that either the organization structures, processes, vision and culture are perceived to be more important than people or alternatively, when people refer to the organization they in fact mean the senior management in the organization.

The correlation of Learning with the Organization sub-system was tested against the correlation of Learning with People sub-system and the result was found to be statistically significant ( $p \leq 0.05$ ). The means for the Organization and People sub-system were also tested and these means were also found to be statistically significantly different ( $p \leq 0.05$ ). Thus it seems that Marquardt's Organization sub-system is perceived as having a greater impact on Learning than does the People sub-system.

When the People sub-system was split into the two components people (Int.) and People (Ext.) there was a shift in perceptions with People (Int.) being perceived as applying to a higher extent than People (Ext.). These mean scores for People (Int.) and People (Ext.) were compared and the differences were found to be statistically significant ( $p \leq 0.05$ ) at the level of the aggregate data. This indicates that employees of the clubs were perceived to have a greater impact on learning than do people who are not employed by the clubs.

When interpreting significance, consideration should also be given to ‘practical significance’ as opposed to ‘statistical significance’ (Hair et al., 1995; Gravetter & Wallnau, 2005). In the aggregated data, the mean for the Organization sub-system is only 9% higher than that for the People sub-system and given that both sub-systems were perceived as applying to a minor extent, then in all probability the difference between the two sub-systems is not of practical significance.

What is probably of some practical significance is why the Organization sub-system is perceived as applying to a marginally less minor extent than the People sub-system. A possible explanation is that proposed earlier in this discussion, where the senior management are referred to as the organization. This is a consequence of the organizations operating in the Classical Organization mode where there is a need to maintain structure and process resulting in very hierarchical organizations that tend not to be people friendly. These organizations are characterized by formality with communication flowing from the top down and very little upwards communication. Changing from a classical organization which is focused on efficiency and productivity to a collaborative organization as described by Limerick et al. (1998) is a challenge requiring a re-evaluation of organizational culture, vision, strategy and structure. The concept of the classical organization is discussed further in this section where the overall culture is explored.

Marquardt’s Organization sub-system comprises the four elements of vision, strategy, structure and culture. The creation and maintenance of these elements are some of the key roles of leaders in organization (De Geus, 1997; Marquardt, 2002; Senge, 2007; Schein, 2004). In creating and maintaining these elements, it is also the role of leaders in organizations to communicate the meaning of the elements throughout the organization. The ability to communicate the vision is critical, yet the

vision needs to be communicated in a manner that connects with the people in the organization, because it is through connecting with people that visions can be achieved and from the vision a cascading effect occurs which affects strategy, structure and culture (Kouzes & Posner, 1995). Implicit in achieving the organization's vision is empowerment, because it is through empowerment that both individuals and teams are given the responsibility and authority to perform their jobs and achieve the organization's vision (Wellins, Byham, & Wilson, 1991).

The concept of teamwork is one that varies according to the context and even in specific contexts there is variation among the four clubs. Teamwork has been identified as one of the keys to a successful organization since teams are viewed as being the most productive organizational units in organizations, as well as being a key force in the learning experience (Katzenbach and Smith, 1994; Marquardt, 2002; Senge, 2007; Trist and Bamforth, 1951). One of the keys to team learning is the ability of individuals to manage their own learning (Marquardt, 2002) and in this study the management of individual learning and development was perceived to apply to a moderate extent (Table 4.3, Item 2).

Also important in the Organization sub-system is culture, since it is culture that defines the manner in which organizations operate or carry out their business (Kanter, 1983; Walker, 1992). In the clubs that participated in this study, while the perceptions were that the culture supported learning to a moderate extent (Table 4.4, Items 13, 14) the organizational structures were perceived as only being streamlined to a minor extent. This suggests that the broader club culture is what Handy (1991) describes as an "Apollo" or role culture and Trompenaars (1993) describes as the "Eiffel Tower" culture. In this type of culture, power resides at the top of the organization and the organization is governed by rules and procedures. The view that

the culture is Apollonian or Eiffel Tower is further reinforced by the perception that the decentralisation and delegation of authority occurs only to a minor extent (Table 4.5, Item 23). In this type of organization communication flows up and down through the organization from one level to the next, a process that can result in distortion or even blockage of important organizational messages. The perception was that avoidance of blocking and/or distortion of communication occurred to a moderate extent (Table 4.3, Item 3). This suggests that these organizations are continuing to operate in what Limerick et al. (1998) describe as the Classical Organization mode rather than as Collaborative Organizations. It is the collaborative organization which is characterised by loosely coupled networks and alliances, empowerment and collaborative individualism, the management of meaning, where managers are empathetic and proactive, and where social sustainability and ecological balance are valued, which are seen as the characteristics of the learning organization.

The Knowledge Management and Technology sub-systems were perceived as weaknesses by all respondents in this study. Of the ten items in the Knowledge Management sub-system Items 33 and 37 were the only items that were perceived to apply to a moderate extent with the remainder of the items applying to a minor extent. A similar situation occurred with the Technology sub-system except that all ten items were perceived as applying to a minor extent. For both of these sub-systems, all that can be said is that they constitute the major weaknesses across all clubs in the study. If the application of these sub-systems within the four clubs could be improved then as Marquardt (2002) says the system as a whole would improve since the five systems have a synergistic effect on each other.

### 5.3 Perceptions about the Learning Sub-system

The interviews with senior managers identified ongoing learning as essential to the viability of their individual organizations. For example, the CEO from Club 2 stated that “*Learning or training for our staff is important to the long-term viability of our club*”. The HR Managers from Clubs 1 and 4 both indicated that an important tool in the management of learning in their organizations was the performance management process in which staff were expected to identify their immediate and future learning needs.

The data collected from the four clubs were aggregated for each of the ten items identified for the Learning sub-system as well as for the sub-system as a whole. The mean scores for the Learning sub-system, encompassing the first ten items of the survey, can be found in Table 4.3. At the aggregated level, it was found that in the four clubs the Learning sub-system applied to a moderate extent (Table 4.2).

The aggregate results for the Learning sub-system split into the three factors that Marquardt identified as forming the Learning sub-system. The three factors in the Learning sub-system are the level at which learning occurs, the approaches taken by the organization to learning and the skills required for initiating and maximising learning. Marquardt (2002) further breaks down the levels at which learning occurs into the individual, team and organizational levels. While learning may occur at different levels in an organization, Marquardt (2002) says that these three levels are inter-related as are the three factors. Furthermore, even at the individual level, because learning nearly always involves interaction with another party, learning inevitably becomes a two-way experience or as Jarvis (1987) described it, a social interaction. Both the level (Items 1 & 2) and the type of learning (Items 5, 6, 7 & 8) were perceived as applying to a moderate extent and the skills required for initiating

and maintaining learning (Items 3, 4, 9 & 10) were perceived as applying to a minor extent.

While the level at which learning occurs was perceived to apply to a moderate extent across the four clubs, in the second group (Clubs 3 and 4) the perceptions were that the two items applied to a great extent. In some ways this is understandable, since Club 4 had instituted a formal training process for its staff. In addition to the traineeships, there is also training in Occupational Health and Safety as well as in the meaning of and what constitutes sexual harassment. In Club 4, ongoing learning, while it was perceived by the CEO and HR Manager as a personal activity, both saw that the organization had a role to play in career development and that personal development plans played a major role in this process. From this, it can be seen that Club 4 through the processes that it had instituted was moving away from being an entirely economic organization (de Geus, 1997). Club 1 had also recognised the need to examine the strategies for learning in the organization. The HR Manager recognised the need for ongoing learning as did the CEO and both pointed to the requirement that staff complete personal development plans as a means of identifying learning needs, not only for individual staff but the organization as a whole. The HR Manager from this club indicated that the club was considering the introduction of traineeships as a means of increasing the skill and knowledge levels as well as a means of retaining staff in the organization.

In implementing the traineeship system into Club 4, the CEO identified what he perceived as a major failure in the available vocational training system. In his view the system was too generic and as such did not meet the specific needs of the club industry. This move by Club 4 reflects the findings of Van der Wagen (2006) who maintains that the current training in the hospitality industry is done “out of context”

and that as a consequence the training is unable to take into account the contextual variation that occurs in the hospitality industry. Furthermore, as the competency framework is prescriptive, the behavioural competency units do not lead to the delivery of a unique style of service.

The skills required for learning across the four clubs and for Clubs 1 and 2 were perceived as applying to a minor extent, but to a moderate extent for Clubs 3 and 4. If staff do not have the necessary skills required for learning then in spite of any processes or strategies that individual clubs might have in place for increasing the skill and knowledge levels of their staff it is unlikely that any meaningful learning will occur. A similar pattern to that described for the skills required for learning to occur emerged when looking at the types of learning that take place in the four clubs. There was a recognition by respondents from Clubs 3 and 4 that there is range of ways in which learning could occur such accelerated learning, action-learning processes and learning from one-another and that these types of learning applied to their organizations. On the other hand, the perception of respondents from Clubs 1 and 2 was that these types of learning did not apply as strongly as they did in Clubs 3 and 4, although this perception was not uniform across the aggregated data.

From this analysis, firstly, it appears that overall there is a moderate understanding that learning is essential for the clubs to prosper and for people to manage their own learning. In managing their own learning, people are expected to understand their particular jobs and be able to identify their learning needs and hence, develop learning plans to fit in with their career aspirations. Secondly, the perceptions are that the different types of learning that Marquardt has included in this survey instrument also apply to a moderate extent. Thirdly, this analysis has highlighted the perception that skills development is lacking, especially in the three

areas of how to learn, both individually and as groups and thinking and acting with a systems approach.

The clubs also need to examine the roles that teams play in their organizations and the need to develop teams not only as work units but also as learning units. According to Marquardt (2002) teams are the fundamental component of modern organizations and play an important role in both individual and organizational learning. Katzenbach and Smith (1994, p. 239) state that “...*teams will be the primary building block of performance in the high-performance organization of the future*”. Also, team learning is one of Senge’s five core disciplines for building a learning organization. The respondents perceived that they received little or no training in how to work or learn either as individuals or as teams. Since there is evidence that teams are fundamental to productivity gains in the modern organization (Katzenbach and Smith, 1994), then there is a need for management in the four clubs involved in this study to invest in team development.

One item (Item 9) which was perceived as applying to a minor extent indicated that there was a lack of integration of decision-making across the organization. This perception was reinforced by the response to Item 19 in the Organization sub-system where the perceptions were that that organization was not streamlined to any great extent. This lack of organizational cohesiveness in decision-making, where decisions made by one team are not considered in the context of their impact on the organization as a whole and the lack of streamlining indicates that for the most part the clubs are continuing to operate in the classical organization mode. This is a mode in which there is formal authority vested in managers, resulting in (a) impersonality and often alienation between management and the workforce (b) rigidity in decision-making and adherence to formal rules and guidelines and (c) problems with employee

motivation and innovation (Stoner, Yetton, Craig & Johnston, 1994). Furthermore, the need to integrate activities within the organization is a part of what Senge (1990) calls 'systems thinking' and this is one of the five keys to becoming a learning organization. In addition to ascribing to these clubs the term classical organization, there also appears to be a sharp delineation of functions with little cross-functional communication.

#### **5.4 Perceptions about the Organization Sub-system**

The Organization Sub-system consists of the second ten items in the survey and these items cover vision, culture, strategy and structure. The overall perception of respondents was that the Sub-system applied to a minor extent, albeit at the upper end of the minor scale (see Table 4.4). In addition there was a very strong correlation between the Learning Sub-system and the Organization Sub-system which indicates that the two Sub-systems exert a strong effect on each other within the organizations. This suggests that factors such as vision, culture, strategy and structure play an important part in influencing perceptions about learning and vice versa. These four factors are very inter-dependent and to some extent this is reflected in the ten items in this sub-system. Not only do these factors influence perceptions but they are also the driving forces behind learning in organizations. As in the overall results of the survey and as demonstrated in the Learning sub-system the four clubs divided into two pairs. In Clubs 1 and 2, the ten items were perceived as applying to a minor extent and in Clubs 3 and 4 the items were perceived as applying to a moderate extent.

For learning to occur there needs to be a statement articulating the importance of learning in the overall operations of the organization as a part of the overall organizational vision. The role of communicating this vision is the responsibility of

the leaders of the organization and leaders should exist at all levels. It would appear from the results of the survey that while the importance of being a learning organization is not being adequately communicated as this item (Item 11) applies to a minor extent in the overall results for the Organization sub-system, for Clubs 3 and 4 it is perceived as applying to a moderate extent. In addition, the perceptions of staff from Clubs 1 and 2 is that Item 12 (Top-level management supports the vision of a learning organization) applies to a minor extent whereas the perceptions from Clubs 3 and 4 are that the item applies to a moderate extent. There are probably a number of reasons as to why this is occurring. Firstly, leaders and managers themselves may not understand the importance of learning itself and hence the need to become a learning organization. Secondly, they may not be communicating the importance of learning and the need to become a learning organization throughout the organization. Thirdly, and this may be connected to the first reason, they may not be communicating the message in a manner that is understood by their staff.

Effective communication also relies on organizations being streamlined and the elimination of fixed departmental boundaries (Greenleaf, 1977; Marquardt, 2002; Robbins et al., 1997; Stoner et al., 1994). The perceptions of the respondents were that this was not the case and this was contributing to ineffective communication and sharing of learning both up and down and across the organizations (See Table 4.5). Limerick et al. (1998) maintain that for organizations to be effective in the 21<sup>st</sup> century they need to move to what they described as fourth blueprint organizations in which management is achieved through loosely coupled alliances and networks, empowering employees and the management of meaning. This is in contrast to what is referred to as the classical mode of management as previously described.

As well as the vision, the culture in the organization needs to be one that both supports and values learning. The perceptions were that a culture that supports and recognises the importance of learning, that management supported learning and that there was a commitment to continuous learning applied to a moderate extent (Items 13 & 14). Without a culture that supports, values and is committed to learning, it is difficult in any organization for learning to occur. The only learning that occurs is adaptive rather than anticipatory or generative learning in a culture that does not overtly support ongoing and continuous learning. In Clubs 1 and 2, the perceptions were that the culture was supportive of learning applied to a minor extent, whereas it applied to a moderate and great extent in Clubs 3 and 4.

Yet, culture is an important part of the fabric of an organization as it, to some extent, dictates the way in which an organization goes about its daily business (Kilmann et al., 1986; Schein, 2004; Walker, 1992). Developing or creating a culture that not only values, but also supports learning is one of the roles of the senior management or leadership of the organization and should form a part of the vision of the organization. It is also the role of leadership to communicate that vision throughout the organization (Sashkin, 1988; Schein, 2004).

In his early work, Senge (1990b) under-emphasised the role that culture plays, not only in the way in which organizations work but also the influence that culture can have on learning. His subsequent work (2006) devotes an entire part to culture and the role that it plays in learning and he goes on to say that for effective learning to occur organizations need to develop a learning culture i.e. a culture that both values and supports learning.

In addition to the vision and culture, there also needs to be both a strategy for learning and the necessary structures to support learning. The overall belief was that

the vision for a learning organization was minimal and that the organizational culture was not overly supportive of learning. Therefore, the need for implementing a learning strategy and the structures required to support would not be viewed as being important. This was indeed the overall perception and the items related to strategy and structure were perceived as applying to a minor extent. While the perceptions of respondents from Clubs 1 and 2 reflected this, the perceptions from Clubs 3 and 4 were that the items applied to a moderate extent. This is probably explained by the fact that apart from introducing traineeships, Club 4 was also ensuring that they had the structures in place to support them. These structures included the use of personal learning and development plans and the provision of defined career path.

While respondents from Club 1 viewed the Organization sub-system as applying to a minor extent, both the CEO and HR Manager recognised the need for a more structured approach to the learning and development of staff. This they were doing through the use of personal learning and development plans and at the same time were exploring the possibility of introducing traineeships as both a means of retaining staff and offering them a career path, not only within the club but also in the broader club industry.

Paradoxically, through the interviews and the survey, top-level management in the clubs were perceived to support the vision of a learning organization to a moderate extent. The results from the survey indicate the perception was that the importance of being a learning organization was not being adequately communicated or being understood throughout the organizations.

The overall perception was that the organizations supported and recognised the value of learning to a moderate but not high extent, and this was in accordance with the responses from senior managers. All CEOs recognised the need for self-

improvement as well as the need for staff to have skills and knowledge to perform their jobs as the CEO of Club 1 pointed “...*once again the acquisition of normal life skills is an important part of the learning experience. Also, the club will try and assist staff who wish to develop themselves*”.

This was also reflected in the fact that three of the four clubs indicated that as a part of their performance assessment process staff were expected to identify those areas which they needed to develop. Management viewed staff development as a means to assisting employees to either better perform their current jobs or as a stepping stone to advancement either within the club or in the broader hospitality industry. The responses also identified learning from failures and mistakes as a necessary part of the overall learning experience. From the interviews with senior managers, it could be concluded that they are trying to foster a climate that encourages and values learning. To assist in this process the clubs were developing structures and processes to support a learning culture as is indicated in the response from the HR Manager from Club 1 where in response to the question “What does learning mean to you (a) for yourself and (b) for your organization” he responded by saying “*To assist in determining the nature of other training required, all staff participate in the performance management process, a part of which requires them to identify areas of training need*”.

What appears to have emerged from the items in this sub-system is a problem with communication. Communication is of importance not only in the context of the “Learning Organization” but in organizations generally (Marquardt, 2002; Robbins et al., 1997; Stoner et al., 1994). If the importance of being a learning organization is not being understood throughout an organization (Table 4.4: Item 11), it suggests that there is either ineffective communication of the concept or the concept is not being

communicated at all. The concept of being a learning organization forms part of the organization's vision and as has been stated elsewhere in this dissertation, the communication of the organization's vision forms a part of the leader's responsibilities.

There was generally a strong correlation ( $r=0.80$ ) between the Learning Sub-system and the Organization Sub-system (Table 4.9). Across the individual items in the Organization Sub-system, four of the ten items demonstrated a strong positive correlation between Learning and the Organization (Table 4.10) with other six items exhibiting a moderate correlation. This means that for an organization to be a learning organization, organizations require firstly, a vision that incorporates the concept of what the learning organization is and that the concept is communicated effectively throughout the organization. Secondly, organizations need to create a culture that both supports and values learning. Thirdly, apart from learning being an explicit part of the vision and strategy, the organization must implement the necessary structures to support learning.

As a result of the perceptions about Items 19 and 22, the culture in these four clubs appears to be bureaucratic and focussed on results. The four clubs could best be described as economic organizations (de Geus, 1997) with little delegation of authority and little streamlining with few levels of management to streamline and maximise communications. Therefore the cultures could be described as Apollonian (Handy 1991). This type of culture is also characteristic of the classical organization (Robbins et al., 1997; Stoner et al., 1994). There are positive signs, especially in Club 4 where traineeships have been introduced as a means of improving the skills and knowledge base and retention of their staff, even though an unexpected consequence

has been the leakage of staff trained through this system leaving for other organizations.

### **5.6 Perceptions about the People Sub-system**

The People sub-system covers the ten items outlined in Table 4.5. Overall this sub-system was perceived as applying to a minor extent. This indicates that as a group the respondents perceived that overall the People sub-system does not have any major impact on learning within the organizations and certainly not to the same extent that the Organization sub-system has. Testing of the Learning sub-system against the People sub-system indicated that there was a strong relationship ( $r=0.63$ ) which was not as strong as the relationship between the Learning and Organization sub-systems ( $r=0.80$ ). This suggests that in these organizations, while they may have the vision, culture, strategy and structures in place to support learning, the people in the organizations are not providing the necessary support for learning nor do they appear to value learning sufficiently. Perhaps it is a case where leaders and managers do not understand the relationship between learning and performance. When the People and Organization sub-systems were tested to identify any significant difference between them, at the aggregated data level the difference was found to be significant ( $p \leq 0.05$ ).

Multiple comparison of the means obtained for the People sub-system for each of the four clubs indicated that there was no significant difference in the means. Therefore, unlike the situation with the overall results and the Learning and Organization sub-systems the data for the People sub-system did not split into the two groups of Clubs 1 and 2, and Clubs 3 and 4.

As was stated in Chapter 4, the People sub-system appeared to divide into two groups, a result confirmed by factor analysis. When the mean scores for the people who were staff of the clubs (People (Int.)) were compared with those for people who

were not staff (People (Ext.)), a statistically significant difference was found between these two groups (Appendix C, Table C-6). This suggests that the perception is that club staff have a greater influence on learning in these clubs than people who are not staff. These perceptions were not held across all clubs with the perception in Clubs 1 and 3 being that it did not make any difference whether people were staff or not, everyone associated with the club and in whatever capacity had some influence on learning. Conversely, in Clubs 2 and 4 the perception was that staff within the clubs were more important to learning than those who were not staff.

The overall perceptions were that staff were not empowered and hence not committed to qualitative learning and performance nor was authority decentralised or delegated with both of these items (Items 21 and 22) being perceived as applying to a minor extent. In Club 4 the perceptions were that they were empowered to a moderate extent and in Club 3 the perception was that authority was decentralised and delegated and applied to a moderate extent. Empowerment and hence decentralisation and delegation of authority are essential components in establishing work teams which Katzenbach and Smith (1994) have said are the most productive and effective work units in high performing organizations. This means allowing teams to take responsibility for their activities and decision-making (Wellins et al., 1991).

Senge (1990a) wrote that in the 21<sup>st</sup> century organization leaders would need to take on the roles of mentors and coaches in order to (a) ensure the ongoing viability of organizations and (b) to develop the learning organization. In the Learning sub-system reference is made to teams and team work, yet for teams to be effective they need to be empowered (Wellins et al. 1991) and in the People sub-system the perception was that the work-force or teams were only empowered to a minor extent in their ability to commit to qualitative learning and performance. One conclusion

that could be drawn from this is that the organizations tend to be directive rather than consultative in the manner in which learning and performance are handled. It is obvious from the interviews with the CEOs and HR Managers that compliance with legislation is of high importance in this industry. All interviewees stressed the importance of having their staff undertake the mandatory training as specified in legislation as it applied to the service of alcohol and the monitoring of gaming in their organizations. Staff in some of the organizations are expected to prepare learning and development plans yet given the size of the training and development budgets, there is often only sufficient funds to satisfy the learning and development needs and wishes of a few people in the organization.

In this study cooperation between managers and non-managers to learn and solve problems together was found to be moderate (Table 4.5, Item 23). Similarly, managers played a moderate role as mentors, coaches or facilitators of learning (Table 4.5, Item 24). The roles of mentors, coaches and facilitators of learning was perceived as being minimal in both Clubs 1 and 2, but as applying to a moderate extent in Clubs 3 and 4. The HR Manager in Club 4 said that while they did not use leaders specifically, the club “...use[d] skilled, experienced staff as coaches and mentors”. In all organizations, experienced and knowledgeable staff can play a significant role in informal learning by acting as coaches and mentors of less experienced staff. It is through the use of these experienced and knowledgeable staff that the organization capabilities are increased and significant corporate knowledge is retained within the organization.

Item 26, which was the second highest scoring item, in the People Sub-system relates to the sharing of information with customers to obtain their ideas and input into service improvement. Generally, customers are members, or guests of members,

of the club and as such could be considered to be shareholders of the club. As shareholders they would expect certain levels of service and consequently are in the best position to identify any deficiencies in customer service. Therefore, it is through the input from members that the club can learn as to how best meet the needs of the members. Of the remaining items in the People Sub-system (Items 26-30), the contribution to learning was perceived as being minor.

There was a strong correlation between the Learning and the People sub-system ( $r=0.63$ ) which indicates that the people sub-system was perceived as having a strong influence on learning within an organization. This strong relationship was also evident in Clubs 1 and 4, but in Clubs 2 and 3 the relationship was only moderate. There was a moderate to strong relationship across all clubs between learning and empowerment. This suggests that there is a recognition, perhaps subconscious, that empowering people assists them or perhaps motivates them to learn (Table 4.12, Item 21). There is a dichotomy evident here. Empowering people implies that they have a level of delegated authority, yet the relationship between decentralised authority and delegation was perceived as having weak to moderate relationship with learning (Table 4.12, Item 22).

When the People sub-system was divided into the two sub-groups, the relationship between the Learning sub-system and People (Int.) was found to be strong whereas the relationship between the Learning sub-system and People (Ext.) was moderate. This relationship between People (Int.) and People (Ext.) was consistent in three of the clubs, the exception being Club 3. In Club 3 there was little or no correlation between the Learning sub-system and People (Int.) but a strong relationship between the sub-system and People (Ext.) (Table 4.13). This implies that staff in Club 3 do not have a role in or influence learning in any way while people that

are not members of staff have considerable influence on any learning that staff undertake.

Overall it could be concluded that the perception of respondents is that people are valued by these clubs either as individuals or by way of the contribution that they make in ensuring the success of the club. In the second group in the People sub-system i.e. People (Ext.) the perception was that the five items overall only applied to a minor extent. Respondents from all four clubs saw that customers or patrons made a moderate contribution to learning while other people external to the organizations made only a minor contribution to learning.

### **5.7 Perceptions about the Knowledge Management Sub-system**

In this sub-system there is an oscillation between the use of the terms knowledge, information and learning. In the literature review, the dichotomy between knowledge and information was discussed at length. In the discussion in Chapter 2, Wilson (2002) argues that knowledge involves a series of mental processes including comprehension, understanding and learning that occur in the mind. Furthermore, Drucker (1969) argues that knowledge cannot be managed because knowledge resides between two ears.

Be that as it may, the Knowledge Management sub-system comprises the fourth group of ten survey items and is concerned with the acquisition, storage and dissemination of information within the respective organizations. For the aggregated data, the sub-system only applied to a minor extent (Table 4.7) despite the strong correlation between learning and knowledge management sub-system (Table 4.15).

Respondents acknowledged the importance of the external environment on their organizations and overall it was found to apply to a moderate extent. The responses of other organizations to external threats or opportunities were viewed, especially by

senior management, as being important in the formulating of future directions and strategies for ensuring the ongoing viability of their own organizations. They all gave the example of how anti-smoking legislation in other jurisdictions had impacted on the income of clubs and saw this as an opportunity to learn from others' experiences. Given the importance of this legislation where it was noted by one CEO that club revenues had dropped by 20% as a result of this legislation, this item was perceived as applying to moderate extent (Table 4.7, Item 33) with a moderate correlation (Table 4.15,  $r=0.47$ ).

The retention and codification of important organizational learnings (Table 4.7, Item 37) was also identified as applying to a moderate extent and was rated similarly to the monitoring of external trends. There was also a moderate correlation ( $r=0.50$ ) between the Learning sub-system and this item but the only way that organizational learnings can be retained in any organization is through the retention of staff. What individuals have learned does not necessarily equate to organizational learning since it is individuals that do the learning, individual learning can only be stored as information. While monitoring the external environment and the retention of important organizational learnings was viewed relatively positively, the use of cross-functional teams as mechanisms for the transfer of learning across the organization was perceived as not being applicable or only applying to a minor extent in these organizations. This further reinforces the idea that these organizations are still exhibiting a classical approach to management as described by Limerick et al. (1998, p. 30) and Stoner et al. (1994) rather than moving to a networked approach to management Limerick et al. (1998). This may be as a result of the nature of the club industry where the use of cross-functional teams except at the higher levels of management may not be appropriate.

Also, the use of demonstration projects (Item 35) was perceived as only applying to a minor extent where in fact they could be used as learning opportunities for the organization through either proving or disproving the value of initiatives for the particular organization. An example of this could be the use of traineeships which were found by one club to be a way of reducing staff turnover and which another of the clubs was investigating as a means of retaining staff.

Three of the four clubs viewed knowledge management as applying to a minor extent, with Club 4 viewing the sub-system as applying to a moderate extent. As has been noted elsewhere in this discussion, two-thirds of the respondents from Club 3 had identified themselves as managers and the overall perception for knowledge management in Club 3 may well reflect a managerial perspective. All four of the items that were perceived as applying to a minor extent in Club 3 could be perceived as applying to non-managerial staff, whereas the other six which applied to a moderate extent could be perceived as being a managerial prerogative.

Overall and in Club 2, there was a strong relationship between the Learning sub-system and Knowledge Management and a moderate relationship for the other three clubs (Table 4.14). When the Learning sub-system was correlated against the individual items in the Knowledge Management sub-system, across all items there was generally a moderate relationship. In saying this, one item stands out for Clubs 1 and 3, where it was found that little or no relationship existed between learning and knowledge management. In both of these clubs, training in the skills of creative thinking and experimentation was not seen as contributing to learning.

## **5.8 Perceptions about the Technology Sub-system**

The final ten items in the survey are related to technology and its use within the organizations (Table 4.8). In discussing the Technology Sub-system, Tables 4.8, 4.16

and 4.17 have been used as the reference points for the aggregated data and data for the individual clubs. Even though there was a moderate correlation with the Learning sub-system ( $r=0.56$ ), technology was perceived by the respondents as only applying to a minor extent and this was almost uniform across all items, although there was some variation in and between the individual clubs.

There is further evidence of the hierarchical and sharp divisions of labour within the clubs where people have full access to the data required to do their jobs (Item 49). The implication here is that people do not necessarily have access to all information and hence do not always see the complete picture and how their own job might impact on other parts of the organization. This particular item, while it received the highest mean score for the Sub-system, was still only perceived as applying to a minor extent.

Two items (items 44 and 46) which overall were perceived as only applying to a minor extent were found to exhibit a weak relationship between the Learning and Technology sub-systems. Both of these items refer to the use of technology in the learning process and they demonstrated a weak relation between the Learning and Technology sub-systems. There have been some criticisms of the use of technology in the learning environment primarily around the design of learning materials and the need to meet a range of learning styles (Butler & Pinto-Zipp, 2005-06; Manochehri & Young, 2006; Mestre, 2006; Ross & Schultz, 1999; Sun et al., 2007).

There was a moderate relationship between the Learning sub-system and Technology for all the data in the survey and this moderate relationship was reflected in Clubs 1, 2 and 4. Club 4 differed from the other three in that the relationship with the Learning sub-system could be considered to be negligible (Table 4.16). While the results suggest that the technology sub-system applied to a minor extent in Club 3, the correlation results imply that technology does not influence learning, or the delivery

of learning to any great extent in this organization. The overall impression is that employees, unless they work in an administrative role, have limited access to information technology in their day-to-day work.

## **5.9 Summary**

In the preceding sections, all the data collected in the survey and where appropriate, interview and staff comments were discussed. The overall impression is that the clubs as a group do not exhibit the characteristics of a learning organization as defined by Marquardt's LOP to any great extent. What these sections have highlighted are the differences in the extent to which individual clubs exhibit the characteristics as well as the almost total lack of use of technology as a tool in the learning process. Perhaps this failure to utilise technology effectively is a reflection of some of the criticisms that have been levelled at technology as an effective learning aid. In the ensuing sections, the data already discussed have been separated into managerial and non-managerial perceptions to (a) determine the extent to which managers perceive their organizations to exhibit the characteristics of a learning organization and (b) to compare their perceptions with those of non-managers.

## **5.10 Managers' Perceptions about their Clubs**

In this section, the data obtained from the participants who advised that they held managerial positions in their respective clubs are discussed. The discussion broadly follows the format used when discussing all the quantitative data obtained in this work except that it is not broken down into individual clubs but discussed as the managerial group. In addition, where appropriate, the qualitative data obtained from the interviews are incorporated.

The perception of those staff who identified themselves as managers was that the characteristics of a learning organization applied to a moderate extent. The

pattern of results for the managers (Table 4.29) was similar to that for the aggregated data of all responses except that the Knowledge Management sub-system was perceived to apply to a greater extent than the People Sub-system. When the People Sub-system was further investigated, People (Int.) was found to apply to a moderate extent whereas People (Ext.) only applied to a minor extent. The perception was that People (Int.) who worked within the organization applied to a greater extent than Knowledge Management.

The results obtained for the managers from the four clubs are similar to those obtained by Byers (1999) who found that the perceptions of managers in his study was that learning organization characteristics applied to a moderate extent (Table 5.1). In this study, the perceptions of managers was that the learning organization characteristics also applied to a moderate extent.

**Table 5.1 Comparison of Managers’s Perceptions**

<b>Sub-system</b>	<b>Byers (1999)</b>	<b>McCaffrey (2008)</b>
Learning	3.0	3.0
Organization	3.2	3.2
People	3.0	2.6
Knowledge Management	3.0	2.7
Technology	2.9	2.4
<b>Mean</b>	<b>3.0</b>	<b>2.8</b>

Given the time span between the two studies and also the comments in the Karpin Report, it is as if “time has stood still”. There has been considerable press coverage and debate in Government about the shortage of skills, a shortage which has affected all employment sectors including the hospitality and tourism industry (Department of Education, Employment and Workplace Relations, 2007). This problem has been highlighted by a number of senior managers in this study as being

of concern as it has affected the ability of individual clubs to retain staff since they have been able to find better positions in other organizations in the industry.

### **5.11 Managers' Perceptions about the Learning Sub-system**

The data collected from the managers who participated in the survey were aggregated for each of the items in the Learning Sub-system which encompassed the first ten items of the survey. The following discussion refers to the managerial data presented in Table 4.20. The overall perception of managers was that the Learning Sub-system applied to a moderate extent. A majority (8) of the items were perceived as applying at least to a moderate extent with two items applying to a great extent. The other two items (Items 9 and 10) were perceived as applying to a minor extent. The mean score for the managers (3.0) in this study was the same as Byers found in his study for the Learning sub-system.

Continuous learning by all employees as a high business priority was perceived by managers as applying to a great extent. All the senior managers that were interviewed saw the need for ongoing or continuous learning as a necessary activity. This need was seen as necessary not only in the interests of the individual employees, but also for the ongoing viability of their respective organizations. As one of the CEOs said during the course of the interviews "*Learning or training for our staff is important to the long-term viability of our club*". The use of accelerated learning techniques was also perceived by managers as applying to a great extent. The suggestion here is that the sooner they can get their employees trained the sooner they become productive members of the organization.

Of the other eight items in the Learning Sub-system, two are worthy of special attention. Item 10 which, refers to teams receiving training in how to work and learn, applied to a minor extent. Katzenbach and Smith (1994) and Wellins et al. (1991) all

emphasised the importance of teams as being the most productive work units in an organization. Furthermore, one of the five disciplines outlined by Senge (1992) was teamwork and the importance of teamwork in developing a learning organization and he described teams as the fundamental learning units in modern organizations.

The managerial perception that people thought and acted in a comprehensive systems approach (Item 9) also applied to a minor extent. Systems thinking and the taking of a systems approach in decision making and other activities were what Senge called the Fifth Discipline. In the systems approach one sees wholes rather than parts or relationships in the interconnections that occur in organizations. From the result obtained for this item, it would appear that these clubs are operating in a sharply defined divisional manner with little communication between the divisions or functions in the organizations. Without a systems approach to problem solving or decision making, decisions can often be made that have unforeseen consequences and often creating problems in other areas of the organization.

### **5.12 Managers' Perceptions about the Organization Sub-system**

In discussing the Organization sub-system, reference is made to the data contained in Tables 4.19, 4.21 and 4.27. Overall the Organization Sub-system was perceived by managers as applying to a moderate extent with a strong correlation between this sub-system and the Learning sub-system ( $r=0.69$ ). The managers in Byers study perceived the Organization Sub-system as applying to a moderate extent (mean score 3.2). This sub-system was perceived by the Managers in this study to be the same as that found by Byers (1999).

Two of the items in the Organization Sub-system were perceived as applying to a great extent. Item 14 refers to the commitment to continuous learning for improvement and was perceived by managers as applying to a great extent. There

was also a strong relationship ( $r=0.66$ ) between the Learning sub-system and this item. The implication of this is that managers see that their commitment to learning will in some way assist in increasing the overall organizational commitment within their respective organizations.

Managers felt that a climate or culture supportive of and recognising the importance of learning also applied to a great extent in their organizations, yet there was only a moderate correlation ( $r=0.47$ ) with the learning Sub-system. This suggests that the managers are not completely aware of the culture within their organizations and the significant role that culture or climate can play in learning. Managers are the creators and maintainers of culture (Schein, 2004) and it is the responsibility of managers, if they want to create a competitive advantage in their organizations to develop cultures that both value and support learning. Marquardt (2002, p. 217) says that “*Managers should view themselves as coaches, facilitators, and advocates who promote, encourage, and reinforce learning*”. In essence what Marquardt is saying is that managers have a major role in creating a learning culture.

That the organization is streamlined, with few levels of management, to maximise communication and learning across levels (Item 19) was perceived as applying to a moderate level. This item was found to have a weak ( $r=0.22$ ) correlation with the Learning Sub-system which suggests that, at least in the minds of managers, the structure of the organization and number of levels of management have little bearing on learning. Two of the CEOs, both of whom were responsible for multi-site operations indicated that communication in their organizations was a problem. This was often caused by on-site managers not escalating problems when they were unable to resolve them and this left staff feeling marginalised.

Communication was also identified as a problem by the CEO who operated only one

site who said “*Major problems in this club concern communication and interpersonal skills. The latter cover not only inter-staff relationships but the way in which staff deal with club patrons*”. The CEO from the fourth club which was also a multi-site operation did not perceive any problems with communications. In his opinion this was due to the fact that he personally toured each site at least once a week and gave all staff the opportunity to raise issues that concerned them. From this it could be concluded that these clubs need to examine their organization structure and especially in the multi-site operations, for senior management to start visiting them and to listen to what people have to say.

#### **5.14 Managers’ Perceptions about the People Sub-system**

The managers viewed the People Sub-system as applying to a moderate extent yet which accords with the results that Byers found in his study (Table 5.1). Also, there was a strong correlation ( $r=0.72$ ) between the People and the Learning sub-systems. This implies that as far as the managers were concerned, people exert a moderate influence on the learning experience in the organization.

The extent to which managers perceived themselves as coaches, mentors and facilitators of learning (Item 24) was moderate and was the highest scoring item in the People sub-system. There was also a strong correlation between this item and the learning sub-system. Senge (1990a) maintains that one of the roles of leadership, if the organization is to become a learning organization is to act as mentors, coaches and facilitators of learning. Therefore this is one area that managers could and should improve their performance and hence the overall performance of their respective organizations. Yet, the HR Manager from Club 4 indicated that they were using skilled and experienced staff in the roles of coaches and mentors. Therefore, it is not necessarily the role of leaders per se to act as mentors and coaches, what is more

important is to have people with the necessary skills and knowledge to act in these roles irrespective of whether they are leaders/managers.

When the People sub-system was split into the two components, People (Int.) and People (Ext.) a slightly different picture emerged. When the means for the two subgroups were compared the differences were found to be statistically significant. The perception of managers was that People (Int.) applied to a moderate extent with a strong correlation ( $r=0.72$ ) with the Learning Sub-system, whereas People (Ext.) applied to a minor extent but with only a moderate correlation ( $r=0.56$ ). These results indicate that managers believe that People (Int.) have a greater influence on learning than People (Ext.) but while this may be true, the influence or contribution that People (Ext.) make to learning cannot be dismissed.

The development of an empowered workforce committed to qualitative learning and performance (Table 4.29: Item 21) was perceived as moderate and had a moderate correlation with the Learning Sub-system ( $r=0.53$ ). This suggests that while managers understand the relationship between empowerment and learning, there is a reluctance on their part to provide that empowerment. This would indicate that the organizations are continuing to operate in a classical organization (Limerick, 1998) mode of working. Yet empowering people and teams can have a strong positive effect on performance and act as a motivator to people wanting to learn and achieve something better (Wellins et al., 1991). Also by empowering staff, it means that problems can be solved and decisions made faster since these activities are taking place at the workplace rather being escalated up the chain of command and then down again.

This classical organization model is further reinforced when it is seen that managers perceived that the decentralisation and delegation of authority equal to

one's responsibility and level of learning applied to a moderate extent and that there was only a moderate ( $r=0.40$ ) correlation with learning. What this suggests is that managers do not see the delegation of authority as having any great influence on learning. Delegation goes hand-in-hand with empowerment (Stoner et al., 1994) and should be seen as a means of extending people, to see how they cope with extra responsibility and as a means of identifying future managers for the organization.

The other item of interest in the People Sub-system relates to the sharing of information with customers (Item 26). Not only was this item perceived as applying to a moderate extent, there was also a moderate correlation between the item and the Learning sub-system ( $r=0.56$ ) which is in broad agreement with the aggregated results presented previously. It would appear therefore, that club customers or patrons are a valuable source of ideas and information as to how the clubs might improve and that these ideas and information are valuable learning tools.

### **5.15 Managers' Perceptions about the Knowledge Management Sub-system**

The perception of managers was that the Knowledge Management sub-system applied to a moderate extent, albeit a weak moderate, yet there was a strong correlation ( $r=0.67$ ) between the Learning and Knowledge Management sub-systems. This suggests that while the management of knowledge or information may not be given a high priority, there was a recognition amongst managers that it played an important role in learning. For the Knowledge Management sub-system, the perception of Byers' managers was that the sub-system applied to a moderate extent (mean score 3.0) whereas in this study the perception was that the sub-system applied to not quite a moderate extent (mean score 2.7).

The seeking of information that improves the work of the organization (Item 31) and the monitoring of trends outside the organization (Item 33) were perceived as

applying to a moderate extent along with the need to retain important organizational learnings (Item 37). The relationship between these items and the Learning sub-system was found to be moderate.

Once again, as in the Learning sub-system, managers do not see teams and teamwork as being very important in the club industry and certainly not as a vehicle for learning. The use of cross-functional teams was only perceived as applying to a minor extent and this item demonstrated a weak correlation ( $r=0.32$ ) with the Learning Sub-system. This suggests that managers view their organizations in a very compartmentalised way and that what one group of staff might learn is probably not of relevance to other groups.

Item 37 refers to the need to be aware of the need to retain important organizational learnings and was perceived by managers to apply to a moderate extent; and there was a strong relationship between the Learning sub-system and this item ( $r=0.69$ ). The HR Managers saw the need to retain well trained staff as one of the challenges that the clubs faced since as a well trained staff member leaves so the organization's knowledge and skill base was diminished.

#### **5.16 Managers' Perceptions about the Technology Sub-system**

Of the five sub-systems in Marquardt's LOP, the Technology sub-system was perceived by managers as applying the least in the club industry. Yet while this sub-system was perceived as only applying to a minor extent, there was a strong correlation ( $r=0.69$ ) between the sub-system and the Learning sub-system. This suggests, at least for managers, that despite the sub-system only applying to a minor extent, technology could or would play an important role in learning. Whereas the Technology Sub-system was perceived by managers as applying to only a minor

extent (mean score 2.4), in Byers study the sub-system applied to a moderate extent (mean score 2.9).

The perception of managers was that there was a moderate access to the information highway (Item 42), yet this item only demonstrated a weak relationship (0.363) with the Learning sub-system. Full access to the data necessary to perform one's job effectively (Item 49) was perceived to apply to a moderate extent but once again there was only a weak correlation ( $r=0.31$ ) between the Learning sub-system and this item. The implication of this result is that access to information does not exert any influence learning in the industry. Yet when we are receiving information, that information is stored in memory, either short or long-term, and is contextualised resulting in change and this what learning surely is.

Item 46 which refers to support for just-in-time learning was perceived as not applying in the industry, even though there was a moderate relationship ( $r=0.42$ ) between the Learning sub-system and this item. This suggests that while just-in-time learning may not occur that there is a place for its introduction into the workplace.

The use of groupware technology was perceived as applying to a minor extent, and the relationship between the Learning sub-system and this item was found to very weak ( $r=0.15$ ). The implication of these results is that groupware technology is not seen as having any impact on learning.

The preceding sections have discussed the perceptions of those staff who identified themselves as holding a managerial role in their organization. In the following sections the analysis of the data for the managers are compared with that obtained from non-managers with a view to identifying any major differences.

### **5.18 Comparison of Manager and Non-manager Perceptions**

In the following sections, the data obtained from the participants who advised that they held managerial positions is compared with that obtained from participants who identified themselves as non-managers in their respective clubs are explored. The discussion will broadly follow the format used when discussing all the quantitative data obtained in this work except that it will not be broken down into individual clubs but discussed as the managerial group and the non-managerial group. In addition, where appropriate, the qualitative data obtained from the interviews will be incorporated.

The perception of the non-managers was that overall the characteristics from Marquardt's Learning Organization only applied to a minor extent (mean 2.3) and the pattern across the five sub-systems followed that for the data presented in the first part of this chapter (Table 4.2). The following part of this chapter will highlight where the differences between the two groups occur.

### **5.19 Non-managers' Perceptions about the Learning Sub-system**

The discussion in this section uses as a reference the data found in Table 4.20 and Appendix C (Table C-10). The overall perception of the non-managers was that the Learning Sub-system applied to a moderate extent, with a mean score slightly lower than that obtained for the managers. Further analysis of this data indicated that there was no significant difference between the overall scores between managers and non-managers for this sub-system. Of the ten items in the Sub-system, there was general agreement between managers and non-managers with respect to six items as to the extent to which these characteristics applied.

Of the other four items the one which demonstrated the highest level of difference concerned continuous learning being a high business priority (Item 1).

Whereas managers saw this item as applying to a great extent, the perception of non-managers was that it only applied to a moderate extent. If managers do truly view continuous learning as a high business priority then they need to be more effective in communicating this message to their staff.

The second area in which there was a difference in perception concerned the use of accelerated learning techniques (Item 5). Here again the perception of the managers was that it applied to a great extent, yet the perception of the non-managers was that it only applied to a moderate extent.

The third area of difference in perception concerns the distortion of information and blocking of communication channels (Item 3). While the difference between the two groups was not as high in the two previous examples, as a percentage the difference between the two groups was greater than 10%. The implication here is that while senior managers may be providing the necessary information to their immediate sub-ordinates by the time it reaches the general staff, these staff believe that for whatever reason information is being distorted or being blocked. The fact that there could be blocking of communication channels and possibly distortion of information was acknowledged by two CEOs during the interviews.

The fourth area concerned the use of accelerated learning techniques (Item 7). The results obtained for this item were identical to that obtained for Item 3. This difference in perception is possibly due to the fact that at the managerial level there is greater opportunity to reflect on problems and situations.

## **5.20 Non-managers' Perceptions about the Organization Sub-system**

The perception of managers was that this Sub-system applied to a moderate extent. While the perception of non-managers was approximately 20% lower, there was a strong correlation between the Learning and the Organization sub-systems for

both managers and non-managers. The results indicate that in the view of the managers, when the Learning sub-system is correlated against the organization sub-system, that the Organization sub-system has a greater influence on learning than do non-managers. Subsequent analysis demonstrated that there was a significant difference in the means for the two groups (Appendix C, Table C-10) but no significant difference in the correlations for the two groups (Appendix C, Table C-13).

From Table 4.21, the item demonstrating the greatest difference relates to the reward system (Item 16) where managers perceptions were that the item applied to a moderate extent while non-managers perceptions were that it applied to a minor extent. An ANOVA analysis indicated that the difference between the mean scores for this item was statistically significant. From the correlation of the Learning sub-system with this item (Table 4.27), the non-managers felt that reward system had a strong influence on learning i.e. people needed to be rewarded for undertaking learning activities and using this learning in the workplace, whereas the managers felt that there was only a moderate relationship between learning and the reward system. Analysis of the correlation coefficients for this item suggests that despite the disparity in the way this item was perceived, there was no statistically significant difference in the perceptions of managers and non-managers (Appendix C, Table C-14). This suggests that at the lower levels of the organizations staff see some form of reward system as a motivator for learning. The reward system may be in the form of recognition or the achievement of a promotion.

Managers' perceptions of the organizational climate or culture (Items 13 and 14) were that the organizations valued and supported learning to a great extent. The non-managers perceptions were that the two items applied to a moderate extent. The mean

scores for these two items were subjected to an ANOVA analysis and it was found that there was a significant difference between the perceptions of managers and non-managers for both items. For managers, there was a moderate relationship between the Learning sub-system and Item 13, and a strong relationship between Item 14 and the Learning sub-system. For non-managers the relationships were reversed. Subsequent analysis of the correlation between the Learning sub-system and these two items indicated that there were no statistically significant differences between managers and non-managers for these two items. While managers see that learning can improve the performance of their individual organizations there is a need to develop a culture with a stronger focus on learning. This, in all probability, means that the organizations need to commit more resources, such as time and money, to the learning and development function. At the same time the importance of learning needs to be effectively communicated to staff with a more rigorous approach taken to the development of staff learning and development plans, plans which identify skill and knowledge shortages that impact on their performance.

Managers and non-managers differed with respect to communication within their organizations (items 11 and 19). While the managers' perceptions were that they applied to a moderate extent, the non-managers' perceptions were that they only applied to a minor extent. In both instances, the differences were found to be statistically significant ( $p \leq 0.05$ ). This indicates that despite the managers' perceptions, non-managers felt that managers were not effective communicators and this may in part be due to the manner in which the organizations are structured. The importance of being a learning organization (item 11) was seen as having a strong relationship with learning by both managers and non-managers whereas streamlined organizations (item 19) only exhibited a weak relationship with learning for managers

and a moderate relationship for non-managers. While there were differences in the strength of the relationships for these two items, there were no statistically differences between the managers and non-managers (Appendix C, Table C-14)

Finally, the perception of non-managers was that the organizations were structured along fixed department lines as opposed to the view of managers. There was a strong correlation between this item and the Learning sub-system which suggests that if coordination occurred on the basis of goals and learning, learning could be enhanced.

### **5.21 Non-managers' Perceptions about the People Sub-system**

The People Sub-system was perceived by non-managers as only applying to a minor extent while the managers' perceptions were that the sub-system applied to a moderate extent. The difference between the perceptions of managers and non-managers was not found to statistically significant. Non-managers believed that managers generated and enhanced learning opportunities and this was the only item that non-managers rated higher than managers. In the remainder of the items for the People sub-system, the applicability of the items to their organization was rated higher by managers than non-managers. Both groups saw that there was a strong relationship between Learning and People (Table 4.21).

When the People Sub-system was split along the lines of People (Int.) and People (Ext.), the perception of both non-managers was that the People (Int.) applied to a moderate extent. Similarly, both groups perceived People (Ext.) as only applying to a minor extent which suggests that for both groups the influence of People (Ext.) on learning is not great.

The correlation between Learning and the People sub-system for non-managers was moderate ( $r=0.53$ ) whereas there was a strong correlation ( $r=0.72$ ) for the

managers. Conversely, there was a stronger relationship ( $r=0.61$ ) between Learning and People (Ext.) for non-managers than for managers ( $r=0.56$ ). Testing for significant differences between managers and non-managers for the two People groups indicated that there was no-significant differences between the strength of the two relationships. These results suggest that non-managers do not see people within the organization as being a part of the learning process, whether they be more senior staff or work colleagues. Furthermore, the results suggest that non-managers see learning as only taking place outside the work environment in an educational institution. Managers, on the other hand, see that they can have a role to play in the broader learning process and that a certain amount of learning can take place in the work environment.

Of the ten items in the Sub-system, the item where the greatest difference occurred concerned the level of decentralisation and delegation (Item 22). Here the perception of non-managers was that it applied to a minor extent whereas the managers' perception was that it applied to a moderate extent. There was also a lower correlation for non-managers ( $r=0.34$ ) than for managers ( $r=0.40$ ) which suggests that for both groups the level of decentralisation or delegation does not influence learning. Analysis of the data indicates that there is no significant difference between the perceptions of managers and non-managers for this item. The results for Item 22 reinforce previous assertions that these organizations can be described as operating in the classical organization mode (Limerick et al., 1988; Robbins et al., Stoner et al.,). Classical organizations are characterised by centralised authority and lack of delegation, characteristics that inhibit both effective communication and workplace learning. To become a learning organization, there is a need to break away from the

classical mode and move towards becoming a collaborative organization (Limerick et al., 1988).

### **5.22 Non-managers' Perceptions about the Knowledge Management Sub-system**

This Sub-system was perceived by non-managers as only applying to a minor extent yet there was a strong correlation ( $r=0.66$ ) between the Learning and Knowledge Management sub-systems. There are several items in this Sub-system where non-managers differ in their perceptions from managers that are worthy of comment.

There was a difference of opinion as to the extent that the active seeking of information that improves the work of the organization applied (Item 31). Managers' perceptions were that this item applied to a moderate extent, whereas non-managers' perceptions were that it only applied to a minor extent. Similarly, the managerial perception was that people monitored external trends (Item 32) to a moderate extent, but the perception of non-managers was that it only applied midway between a minor and moderate extent. In both instances, the rating for the non-managers was approximately 20% lower than that of the managers but there was no statistically significant difference between the ratings. There is however a practical significance to these results which can be best explained through the very nature of the work that two groups perform. It is a part of a manager's role to monitor trends external to the organization and seek information as it informs many managerial processes and decisions such as strategic and general organizational planning. The correlation of the Learning sub-system with these two items was found to be moderate for both managers and non-managers and this implies that they do not influence Learning to any great extent. Additionally, the differences between the strength of the relationship between managers and non-managers for these two items were not found

to be statistically significant. Since it appears that these organizations operate in a classical mode, there would be very little involvement by non-managers in activities such as strategic and operational planning and this could explain the differing perceptions.

In summary, for non-managers the various aspects of Knowledge Management identified in the sub-system, as a whole, only applied to a minor extent, yet there was still a strong relationship between the Learning sub-system and Knowledge Management. For managers, the aspects of knowledge management in the LOP applied to a moderate extent, but like the non-managers, the non-managers there was a strong correlation between learning and knowledge management. While the sub-system was not perceived to apply to any great extent by either managers or non-managers, nevertheless there was a strong relationship between learning and knowledge management for both groups. This implies that there is a general recognition of the role that knowledge and information can play in the overall learning process. For both groups there is a need for them to explore ways in which the management of their organizational information and knowledge can be leveraged to further enhance learning amongst staff in their respective organizations.

### **5.23 Non-managers' Perceptions about the Technology Sub-system**

Non-managers, as a group, perceived the Technology sub-system as only applying to a minor extent as did managers. While there was a moderate relationship ( $r=0.56$ ) between the Learning and Technology sub-systems for non-managers, there was a strong relationship ( $r=0.69$ ) between the Learning and Technology sub-systems for managers (Table 4.26).

The managers' perceptions were that access to the information highway (Item 42) applied to a moderate extent whereas non-managers perception was that access

applied only to a minor extent and the difference was found to statistically significant. The comment from one staff member probably sums up the general feeling, from a non-managerial perspective about technology in these organizations “...*No internet access apart from e-mail is allowed for lower level staff. Possibly management are trying to keep the staff dumb, we can't cause too many headaches that way*”. For managers there was a weak relationship( $r=0.36$ ) between the Learning sub-system and this item whereas for non-managers the relationship was moderate ( $r=0.43$ ). The difference in the relationship between the Learning subsystem and this item for the managers and non-managers was not statistically significantly different (Appendix C, Table C-17). The implication of the staff comments is that staff access to information technology is limited and that access is restricted to management messages and information that is deemed by managers to be of benefit to the staff.

The managers' perceptions were that access to the data necessary to perform their jobs effectively (Item 49) applied to a moderate extent, yet the perception of non-managers was that this item applied to a minor extent. Statistically, these differences in perception were found to significantly different. There was strong correlation between the Learning sub-system and this item for both managers and non-managers, despite the perceptions being found to significantly different. This means that while the perceptions were different as to how this item applied to the organization, having access to the necessary data to perform one's effectively is an important part of the learning process.

The data in Table 4.37 implies that from the perspective of both the managers and non-managers, Technology does not feature to any great extent in the overall running of these organizations especially as a tool that could enhance learning. This could be construed as a weakness in the overall learning organization system and as

Marquardt (2002) says a weakness in one sub-system has a ripple effect throughout the whole system.

#### **5.24 Summary**

In the preceding sections the results for the managers and non-managers who participated in this study have been discussed and where there have been statistically significant differences these differences have been identified. At the level of the sub-system, the sub-systems were found to be significantly different for the Organization and Technology sub-systems. The difference in perception between managers and non-managers about the Organization sub-system is possibly explained by the fact that managers have a greater concern with factors such as strategy, vision and structure because they are making decisions about direction and the best way to achieve the organizational goals. On the other hand, non-managers concerns are probably are more concerned with more operational level activities.

When the relationships between the Learning sub-system and the other sub-systems were tested, there were no statistically significant differences yet there were statistically significant differences when individual items were examined.

#### **5.24 Limitations of this Study**

During the course of this study a number of limitations were identified which impact on the interpretation of the results presented in Chapter 4. Firstly, this is a point-in-time study and as a consequence one can only determine if the clubs were perceived to exhibit the characteristics of a learning organization at that time. Therefore it is not possible to determine if a particular club is progressing along the path to becoming a learning organization. All that can be identified are those characteristics from Marquardt's learning organization survey which appear to have

been adopted. To determine what is actually happening within a particular club would require conducting a longitudinal study.

Secondly, this study represents the perceptions of participants, both respondents to the survey and the interviewees. As such we are presented with a perception of their reality and not what may be actually happening within in a particular club.

Thirdly, this study represents a small sample of clubs from the club industry and hence a small sample of employees in the club industry. Therefore, the results and interpretations of these results must be viewed with caution and to generalise these results across the entire industry would not be prudent (Zikmund, 2003).

Finally, in interpreting the results from Club 3 a degree of caution is advised. There was only a small number of respondents from this club and therefore the results may not be statistically reliable.

### **5.25 Significance of the Study**

This study is significant since a comprehensive search of peer-reviewed journals failed to identify any studies of the Australian club industry as learning organizations. Indeed, this same search was unable to identify any studies of a similar nature within the broader hospitality industry either in Australia or overseas. The search did identify one study of learning organizations in Australia (Dymock and McCarthy, 2006). In this study, Dymock and McCarthy used an instrument developed by Watkins and Marsick (1996) which had been designed as a “...*diagnostic tool to measures changes in organizational learning and culture*” (Dymock & McCarthy, 2006: 528). They found that this company was using learning to increase its competitive edge in the industry and the employees understood and accepted the need to develop their skills to sustain and develop the company (Dymock & McCarthy, 2006: 525). Since this study used a different instrument it was believed that would be

inappropriate to compare the results of the current study with the results obtained by Dymock and McCarthy in their study.

This current study provides a benchmark against which future researchers will be able to measure other licensed clubs. Hence this study is in itself unique since it is would appear to be first study of licensed clubs as learning organizations. As such, the study fills a knowledge gap which currently exists in the literature not only about licensed clubs in Australia but Australian organizations generally.

As well as being unique, the study is providing the individual clubs with information as to how they can improve their individual organizations. This information will be two-fold. Firstly, the study highlighted those characteristics that are perceived by staff to require management intervention, that is areas where improvements should be made in order to improve organizational learning and secondly those areas which, while not being perceived as being neglected, nevertheless require ongoing monitoring.

With changing governments and even within an existing government, and hence policies and priorities, staff are continually facing changes in the way they deliver and provide services to the clubs' customers and at the same time comply with legislation. If the perceptions of staff are that the clubs do not provide the necessary support in order for them to meet the challenges of these ongoing changes, then despite any number of statements from senior managers or leaders of the organizations about their strong commitment to continuous learning, the perception of this commitment to learning can become distorted. This is particularly important in organizations such as clubs because they are businesses whose main aim is to provide a range of services to their members within a dynamic and changing regulatory framework.

Therefore, it would be difficult to place boundaries around the significance of this study. Firstly, it provides a benchmark against which other licensed clubs may measure themselves in terms of how their employees perceive their organizations, especially in terms of being a learning organization. Secondly it provides recommendations which the clubs that participated in this study can use to improve their performance in terms of learning. Thirdly, the study fills a gap in the literature concerning learning within Australian licensed clubs. Fourthly, if a broader study of the licensed club industry were undertaken this would then provide a benchmark against which other industries could be measured. In order to perform any benchmarking studies it would be necessary to use the same survey instrument as was used in this study.

## **5.26 Conclusion**

This study involved empirical research on the learning organization concept and was designed to assess the extent to which the clubs were perceived to have adopted the characteristics of Marquardt's (1996) learning organization model. This was a limited study of the licensed club industry, not a broad study, and as a consequence the conclusions and recommendations should not be extrapolated to the broader licensed club industry. In this section, the aim is answer the three questions presented in Chapter 1 using the discussion that preceded this section of the Chapter.

### **Research Question 1: To what extent are clubs perceived by their employees to have adopted the characteristics of a learning organization?**

Byers (1999) suggested that for an organization to be considered a learning organization it would need to achieve a mean score of approximately 4 when using Marquardt's Learning Organization Survey. The data obtained in the survey indicate that employees do not perceive their organizations as having adopted learning

organization characteristics to the extent that they could be deemed to be learning organizations.

Collectively, the four clubs only demonstrated these characteristics to a minor extent. Of the four clubs, Club 3 was perceived as having demonstrated these characteristics to the greatest extent, followed closely by Club 4, which on the scoring scale used in the survey indicates that they demonstrate the learning organization characteristics to a moderate extent (mean score of 3). Clubs 1 and 2 were perceived as having adopted the characteristics of a learning organization to a minor extent (Mean score of 2).

What this study has revealed is that there are weaknesses, not only structural but also in the management of the sub-systems identified by Marquardt (2002), especially the Knowledge Management and Technology sub-systems. Structurally, these organizations are still operating in the classical organization mode and until such time as they make a move towards a more collaborative management approach their chances of exhibiting the characteristics of a learning organization remain low. These clubs need to develop a “culture of learning” in which the total working environment is geared towards the creation of intellectual capital within the clubs.

In some ways, clubs are making the same mistakes as companies who are not doing well. Companies that are not doing well, rather than developing their own talent, that is developing the staff they already have, tend to look for easy solutions to their problems such as going to the market-place and recruiting the skills that they need. This can have negative effects on organizational culture as current staff start to feel that they are not valued or that they do not have the capacity to attain the skills required by senior management. The solution lies in identifying the future skills required by the club and developing them in-house. This concept of in-house

development of staff has been recognised by one club and is being investigated by another as a means of attracting and retaining committed and motivated staff. This option of developing in-house talent is also being looked as an alternative to going to the marketplace for managers by another of the clubs.

Communication was identified as a major issue both through the survey and comments included by respondents. Many of the communication problems that exist in organizations are a result of senior staff being perceived as remote and also not knowing their staff and understanding the environment in which these staff work. As a consequence many staff feel marginalised since they believe that management is not listening to them or if they are there concerns are being dismissed. One of the Human Resource Managers identified industrial issues as one of the major problems that he encountered in the work place and that many work place issues he encountered were a as result of poor communication between people be they managers or non-managers.

A further issue identified through the survey was that team-work was not perceived as being very strong in the club industry or at least in the four clubs that participated in the study. Teamwork has been promoted as a means of increasing productivity for over 50 years and Katzenbach and Smith (1994: p. 45) defined a team as opposed to a group of people with a common goal or assignment as “... *a small number of people with complementary skills who are committed to a common purpose, performance goals, and approach for which they hold themselves mutually accountable.*” This also brings in the concept of empowerment which is a concept whereby organizations are streamlined with few levels of management, authority is delegated to the level where immediate decisions need to made and people and teams are responsible for their decision-making.

Given that it is almost 15 years since the publication of the Karpin Report it is disappointing that the recommendations of this report have not been acted upon within these clubs. One of the key statements in this report was “*The ‘learning organisation’ will be standard philosophy for many Australian enterprises and a major way they cope with change and turbulence. Managers will create conditions conducive to learning for both individuals and the enterprise as a whole, within and between groups, across individual business units and between enterprises and their external environments*” (Karpin, 1995: xx). While the move to becoming a learning organization will be a challenge, it appears that a key shortcoming of these clubs is their inability or neglect to factor in the challenging complexity of creating and maintaining a learning organization.

### **Recommendation 1 Learning and development**

Clubs need to view learning and the development of their staff as a capital cost and an investment in the future of their organizations. This investment is no less important than the investment that they make in the facilities that the club provides to their patrons.

The clubs in the region should consider developing a local training body to provide training for club staff modelled on the training programme developed by the Club Managers Association of Australia (CMAA). This body would need to be registered with the appropriate body as a Registered Training Organization (RTO) and could be financed through a levy of clubs affiliated with the peak body for the region. Through this body clubs could provide staff with traineeships that provide nationally recognised qualifications. Traineeships are means of staff training that attract Federal Government subsidies which can assist clubs in offsetting the costs of staff training.

Implementation of a scheme such as this would formalise and demonstrate a commitment to the development of staff. The creation of local training body to oversee the training of staff for the industry could strengthen the Learning and Organization sub-systems and to a lesser extent the Knowledge and Technology sub-systems at the individual club level as well as provide consistency in the training of staff.

### **Recommendation 2 Career paths and staff retention**

Staff retention was an issue that was common to all senior managers in the clubs surveyed. For people wanting to make a career in the industry there needs to be a structured process whereby they can see how they can progress through the industry from an entry level to the highest management levels, a process that is transparent. If people, when they join an organization, see that they can develop a career not only within the club but within the industry as a whole, they are more likely to continue working within the industry. When there are low levels of unemployment, the industry needs to examine ways in which the industry can promote itself as an area which is attractive to potential employees.

The hospitality industry through the vocational education system provides structured training for people wishing to develop careers in the industry. However, as was pointed out through the interview process, while being a part of the hospitality industry, working in a club environment is different to working in the mainstream hospitality industry. The inference was that there needed to be specific training programme for people entering the industry and run by the industry.

### **Recommendation 3 Communication**

Communication was identified at several points in the survey as an area in which the clubs did not perform well. The importance of being a learning organization (Organization sub-system) was identified as an area where the respondents responded in a negative way by assigning the item a low rating. Respondents also felt that communication was not maximised due to a lack of streamlining and too many levels of management (Organization sub-system). There is a need for senior staff, including people such as the CEO and especially the HR managers in these organizations to institute mechanisms whereby communication could be enhanced. This could include the scheduling of regular face-to-face meetings with their staff whereby staff have the opportunity to bring their concerns directly to those people who can actually take action. This is especially important in those clubs that operate over several sites. Additionally, a reduction in the levels of management would assist in ensuring that communication in the organizations was more effective.

### **Recommendation 4 Team-work**

Teams and team work was an area in the Learning and Organization sub-systems that was perceived as only applying to a minor extent. The literature about teams and team-work suggest that teams are fundamental to productivity in a modern organization. The individual clubs should look at organizing the work of the clubs to encompass a more team-based approach to work. This might involve the multi-skilling of a large part of the work-force to enable them to work across several areas. At the same time, for the teams to be effective, a certain amount of responsibility and decision-making needs to be delegated. This could speed up decision-making rather

than having to escalate issues through the hierarchy. Additionally, it could engender a greater sense of belonging in the organization.

**Research Question 2: What are the perceptions of managers with respect to learning in their organizations?**

Staff from the four clubs who identified themselves as managers were of the view that the learning organization characteristics in the survey applied to a moderate extent. This compares favourably with the findings of Byers (1999) in his study where the mean score for managers across the 50 learning organization characteristics was 3.0. As with the current study, in Byers' study, there was a range of results across the five sub-systems of learning, organization, people knowledge management and technology and the results for the individual sub-systems were remarkably similar.

**Research Question 3: Do managers' perceptions differ from those of non-managers with respect to learning in their organizations?**

The results presented in Chapter 4 and subsequently discussed in Chapter 5 indicate that there are no significant differences in the perceptions of managers and non-managers in these clubs with respect to learning in their clubs. The differences in the perceptions between managers and non-managers represent differences of degree rather than fundamental differences.

**Recommendation**

From the evidence presented in this study it would appear that there are two perceptions of reality in the clubs: the view of the managers and the view of the non-managers or front-line employees. While there were no significant differences in these perceptions, nevertheless they do exist. These differing perceptions could be

brought into alignment through the inclusion of representatives from the non-managers in decision-making and planning processes. This would be beneficial to both parties since it would provide an opportunity for each group to come to an understanding of the processes that occur in the running of a club. This would provide learning opportunities for both managers and non-managers as well improve communication between these two groups.

Overall the four clubs that participated in this study have only adopted the characteristics of a learning organization, as defined by Marquardt (2002), to a minor extent, although there are differences in the degree between the four clubs but in some cases these differences are statistically significant. The one area that this study did not explore in any depth was organizational culture and as a consequence the conclusions drawn about culture of the club industry and the individual clubs may be simplistic. It is through understanding the prevailing culture in the individual clubs that more specific strategies could have been developed to accelerate the adoption of learning organization characteristics.

This entire study has been like panning for gold in a rich alluvial gold-field as one never knew when a nugget would appear that would brighten the day. It is hoped that any of the nuggets revealed in the study will assist clubs to move along the path to becoming learning organizations. It is also a hope that this study might inspire other researchers to examine the broader club industry as it is a rich area for research and as such will contribute to the broader understanding

Appendix A Survey Instrument

## Learning Organization Survey

### Confidential Questionnaire

**Thank you for agreeing to participate in this major research project. As this study relies on your opinion regarding certain aspects of your organization, it would be helpful if you could complete the questionnaire personally. Should circumstances prevent this, necessitating someone else from your area becoming involved, it is important that this person be able to comment on the entire organization, not just your area.**

The survey looks at the extent to which learning organization characteristics exist within your organization. A PhD candidate from the University of Canberra is undertaking the survey and resultant analysis, in accordance with stringent ethical and research guidelines. Questionnaires are not numbered to maintain confidentiality of individual identities.

**By completing this survey you will be assisting to advance the knowledge and understanding of learning organizations for the benefit of all Australians.**

Your participation in this survey is entirely voluntary, however, your contribution will be highly valued. You are free to withdraw your participation at any time without prejudice. Any information obtained which may identify you personally will be kept strictly confidential. Published data will not refer to you by name.

Your completed survey should be given to your HR Manager who shall pass it to me.

This survey is being carried out by

John McCaffrey  
PhD (Education) candidate

under the supervision of Dr Francesco Sofio  
Faculty of Education  
University of Canberra  
Canberra ACT

*Below is a list of various statements about organizations. Please read each statement carefully and decide the extent to which it actually applies to your organization, then place an X in the appropriate box*

<b>In this organization</b>		<b>Unsure</b>	<b>Doesn't apply</b>	<b>Applies to a minor extent</b>	<b>Applies to a moderate extent</b>	<b>Applies to a great extent</b>	<b>Applies to a very great extent</b>
1	We see continuous learning by all employees as a high business priority						
2	We are encouraged and expected to manage our learning and development						
3	People avoid distortion of information and blocking of communication channels through skills such as active listening and effective feedback						
4	Individuals are coached and trained in how to learn						
5	We use a range of methodologies e.g. on the job, formal courses etc as means of improving our job skills						
6	People expand knowledge through adaptive, anticipatory, and creative learning approaches						
7	Teams and individuals use the action-learning process (i.e. learning from careful reflection on the problem or situation, and applying it to future actions)						
8	Teams are encouraged to learn from one another and to share learning in a variety of ways (e.g. via electronic bulletin boards, printed newsletters, intergroup meetings etc.)						
9	People are able to think and act with a comprehensive systems approach (i.e. we look at impacts of our decisions on areas outside their immediate area or function)						
10	Teams receive training in how to work and learn in groups						
11	The importance of being a learning organization is understood throughout the organization						
12	Top-level management supports the vision of a learning organization						
13	There is a climate that supports and recognises the importance of learning						
14	We are committed to continuous learning for improvement						
15	We learn from our failures as well as our successes (i.e. failures are tolerated as part of the learning process)						
16	We reward people and teams for learning and helping others to learn						
17	Learning opportunities are incorporated into operations and programs						
18	We design ways to share knowledge and enhance learning throughout the organization (e.g. systematic job rotation across teams, structured on-the-job learning systems)						
19	The organization is streamlined, with few levels of management, to maximise communication and learning across levels						
20	We coordinate on the basis of goals and learning rather than maintaining separation in terms of fixed departmental boundaries						
21	We strive to develop an empowered work force that is able and committed to qualitative learning and performance						
22	Authority is decentralised and delegated so as to equal one's responsibility and learning capability						
23	Managers and non-managers work together in partnership, to learn and solve problems together						
24	Managers take on the roles of coaching, mentoring, and facilitating learning						
25	Managers generate and enhance learning opportunities as well as encourage experimentation and reflection on what was learned so that new knowledge can be used						

<b>In this organization</b>		<b>Unsure</b>	<b>Doesn't apply</b>	<b>Applies to a minor extent</b>	<b>Applies to a moderate extent</b>	<b>Applies to a great extent</b>	<b>Applies to a very great extent</b>
26	We actively share information with our customers, to obtain their ideas and inputs in order to learn and improve services/products						
27	We give customers and suppliers opportunities to participate in learning and training activities						
28	Learning from partners/subcontractors, teammates, and suppliers is maximised through up-front planning of resources and strategies devoted to knowledge and skill acquisition						
29	We participate in joint learning events with suppliers, community groups, professional associations, and academic institutions						
30	We actively seek learning partners amongst customers, vendors and suppliers						
31	People actively seek information that improves the work of the organization						
32	We have accessible systems for collecting internal and external information						
33	People monitor trends outside the organization by looking at what others do (e.g. benchmarking, best practices, attending conferences, and examining published research)						
34	People are trained in the skills of creative thinking and experimentation						
35	We often create demonstration projects where new ways of developing a product and/or delivering a service are tested						
36	Systems and structures exist to ensure that important knowledge is coded, stored, and made available to those who need and can use it						
37	People are aware of the need to retain important organizational learnings and share such knowledge with others						
38	Cross-functional teams are used to transfer important learning across groups, departments and divisions						
39	We continue to develop new strategies and mechanisms for sharing learning throughout the organization						
40	We support specific areas, units, and projects that generate knowledge by providing people with learning opportunities						
41	Learning is facilitated by effective and efficient computer-based information systems						
42	People have ready access to information highway (e.g. local area networks, internet, on-line etc.)						
43	Learning facilities (e.g. training and conference rooms) incorporate electronic multimedia support and a learning environment based on the integration of art, colour, music and visuals						
44	People have available to them, computer-assisted learning programs and electronic job aids (e.g. just-in-time and flowcharting software)						
45	We use groupware technology to manage group processes (e.g. project management, team process, meeting management)						
46	We support just-in-time learning, a system that integrates high-technology learning systems, coaching, and actual work on the job into a single, seamless process						
47	Our electronic performance support systems enable us to learn and to do our work better (an electronic performance support system is a system that uses databases and knowledge bases to capture, store, and distribute information throughout the organization)						
48	We design and tailor our electronic performance support systems to meet our learning needs						
49	People have full access to the data they need to do their jobs effectively						
50	We can adapt software systems to collect, code, store, create, and transfer information in ways best suited to meet our needs						

*Finally, a few questions follow which enable examination of explicit learning organization strategies, and for classification purposes:*

51. Which club do you work for?
52. What is your current job?

## Appendix B Distribution, Mean Scores and Standard Deviations

**Table B-1 Responses to Statement 1 - We see continuous learning by all employees as a high business priority**

	Club 1	Club 2	Club 3	Club 4	Summary all data
	Statement 1	Statement 1	Statement 1	Statement 1	
Unsure (0)	0	1	0	1	2
Doesn't apply (1)	3	7	0	0	10
Applies to a minor extent (2)	10	20	0	9	39
Applies to a moderate extent (3)	12	17	5	14	48
Applies to a great extent (4)	10	7	5	19	41
Applies to a very great extent (5)	0	2	2	5	9
Mean	2.83	2.52	3.75	3.35	2.96
Standard Deviation	0.95	1.06	0.75	1.04	1.08
Unanswered	0	0	0	0	0
Total Responses (n)	35	54	12	48	149

**Table B-2 Responses to Statement 2 - We are encouraged and expected to manage our learning and development**

	Club 1	Club 2	Club 3	Club 4C	Summary all data
	Statement 2	Statement 2	Statement 2	Statement 2	
Unsure (0)	0	0	0	1	1
Doesn't apply (1)	4	5	0	0	9
Applies to a minor extent (2)	10	19	0	7	36
Applies to a moderate extent (3)	11	15	5	16	47
Applies to a great extent (4)	10	12	6	19	47
Applies to a very great extent (5)	0	3	1	5	9
Mean	2.77	2.80	3.67	3.4	3.05
Standard Deviation	1.00	1.07	.65	1.01	1.05
Unanswered	0	0	0	0	0
Total Responses (n)	35	54	12	48	149

**Table B-3 Responses to Statement 3 - People avoid distortion of information and blocking of communication channels through skills such as active listening and effective feedback**

	Club 1	Club 2	Club 3	Club 4	Summary all data
	Statement 3	Statement 3	Statement 3	Statement 3	
Unsure (0)	1	3	0	6	10
Doesn't apply (1)	6	9	0	0	15
Applies to a minor extent (2)	11	16	2	13	42
Applies to a moderate extent (3)	14	10	4	21	49
Applies to a great extent (4)	3	14	6	4	27
Applies to a very great extent	0	2	0	4	6
Mean	2.34	2.54	3.33	2.6	2.58
Standard Deviation	0.97	1.30	0.78	1.3	1.21
Unanswered	0	0	0	0	0
Total Responses (n)	35	54	12	48	149

**Table B-4 Responses to Statement 4 - Individuals are coached and trained in how to learn**

	Club 1	Club 2	Club 3	Club 4	All Data
	Statement 4				
Unsure (0)	2	2	0	0	4
Doesn't apply (1)	4	17	0	6	27
Applies to a minor extent (2)	15	15	3	14	47
Applies to a moderate extent (3)	6	14	6	19	45
Applies to a great extent (4)	8	4	3	7	22
Applies to a very great extent (5)	0	2	0	2	4
Mean	2.4	2.13	3.00	2.69	2.44
Standard deviation	1.14	1.16	.74	1.01	1.11
Unanswered	0	0	0	0	0
Total Responses (n)	35	54	12	48	149

**Table B-5 Responses to Statement 5 - We use a range of methodologies e.g. on the job, formal courses etc as means of improving our job skills**

	Club 1	Club 2	Club 3	Club 4	Summary all data
	Statement 5	Statement 5	Statement 5	Statement 5	
Unsure (0)	2	2	0	1	5
Doesn't apply (1)	4	9	0	0	13
Applies to a minor extent (2)	5	17	0	2	24
Applies to a moderate extent (3)	13	16	3	18	50
Applies to a great extent (4)	8	10	8	20	46
Applies to a very great extent (5)	3	0	1	7	11
Mean	2.86	2.43	3.83	3.60	3.02
Standard Deviation	1.31	1.09	0.58	0.94	1.19
Unanswered	0	0	0	0	0
Total Responses (n)	35	54	12	48	149

**Table B-6 Responses to Statement 6 - People expand knowledge through adaptive, anticipatory, and creative learning approaches**

	Club 1	Club 2	Club 3	Club 4	Summary All Data
	Statement 6	Statement 6	Statement 6	Statement 6	
Unsure (0)	5	2	0	3	10
Doesn't apply (1)	1	11	0	1	13
Applies to a minor extent (2)	14	16	2	17	49
Applies to a moderate extent (3)	10	13	7	10	40
Applies to a great extent (4)	5	10	3	12	30
Applies to a very great extent (5)	0	2	0	5	7
Mean	2.26	2.44	3.08	2.87	2.59
Standard Deviation	1.20	1.22	0.67	1.3	1.23
Unanswered	0	0	0	0	0
Total Responses (n)	35	54	12	48	149

**Table B-7 Responses to Statement 7 - Teams and individuals use the action-learning process (i.e. learning from careful reflection on the problem or situation, and applying it to future actions)**

	Club 1	Club 2	Club 3	Club 4	Summary All data
	Statement 7	Statement 7	Statement 7	Statement 7	
Unsure (0)	3	1	1	2	7
Doesn't apply (1)	7	4	0	5	16
Applies to a minor extent (2)	9	22	2	13	46
Applies to a moderate extent (3)	13	16	2	13	44
Applies to a great extent (4)	1	7	6	11	25
Applies to a very great extent (5)	2	4	1	4	11
Mean	2.23	2.67	3.25	2.79	2.65
Standard Deviation	1.24	1.10	1.36	1.27	1.23
Unanswered	0	0	0	0	0
Total responses (n)	35	54	12	48	149

**Table B-8 Responses to Statement 8 - Teams are encouraged to learn from one another and to share learning in a variety of ways (e.g. via electronic bulletin boards, printed newsletters, intergroup meetings etc.)**

	Club 1	Club 2	Club 3	Club 4	All Data Statement 8
	Statement 8	Statement 8	Statement 8	Statement 8	
Unsure (0)	3	0	0	0	3
Doesn't apply (1)	7	14		1	22
Applies to a minor extent (2)	12	18	4	11	45
Applies to a moderate extent (3)	9	14	3	16	42
Applies to a great extent (4)	4	7	5	19	35
Applies to a very great extent (5)	0	1	0	1	2
Mean	2.11	2.31	3.08	3.17	2.60
Standard Deviation	1.13	1.06	0.90	0.88	1.10
Unanswered	0	0	0	0	0
Total Responses (n)	35	54	12	48	149

**Table B-9 Responses to Statement 9 - People are able to think and act with a comprehensive systems approach (i.e. we look at impacts of our decisions on areas outside their immediate area or function)**

	Club 1	Club 2	Club 3	Club 4	All data
	Statement 9				
Unsure	3	2	1	3	9
Doesn't apply	7	17	0	4	28
Applies to a minor extent	5	15	3	18	41
Applies to a moderate extent	18	13	6	13	50
Applies to a great extent	2	6	2	7	17
Applies to a very great extent	0	1	0	3	4
Mean	2.26	2.13	2.67	2.54	2.34
Standard Deviation	1.12	1.15	1.07	1.22	1.17
Unanswered	0	0	0	0	0
Total Responses (n)	35	54	12	48	149

**Table B-10 Responses to Statement 10 - Teams receive training in how to work and learn in groups**

	Club 1	Club 2	Club 3	Club 4	All data
	Statement 10				
Unsure (0)	3	4	0	1	8
Doesn't apply (1)	10	23	1	10	44
Applies to a minor extent (2)	14	17	7	17	55
Applies to a moderate extent (3)	8	6	4	9	27
Applies to a great extent (4)	0	3	0	8	11
Applies to a very great extent (5)	0	1	0	3	4
Mean	1.77	1.70	2.25	2.46	2.01
Standard Deviation	0.91	1.08	0.62	1.24	1.11
Unanswered	0	0	0	0	0
Total responses (n)	35	54	12	48	149

**Table B-11 Responses to Statement 11 - The importance of being a learning organization is understood throughout the organization**

	Club 1 Statement 11	Club 2 Statement 11	Club 3 Statement 11	Club 4 Statement 11	All data Statement 11
Unsure (0)	3	6	1	0	10
Doesn't apply (1)	10	15	0	1	26
Applies to a minor extent (2)	12	19	4	20	55
Applies to a moderate extent (3)	6	10	4	15	35
Applies to a great extent (4)	4	4	3	8	19
Applies to a very great extent (5)	0	0	0	4	4
Mean	1.94	1.83	2.67	2.88	2.26
Standard Deviation	1.14	1.10	1.16	1.00	1.17
Unanswered	0	0	0	0	0
Total responses (n)	35	54	12	48	149

**Table B-12 Responses to Statement 12 - Top-level management supports the vision of a learning organization**

	Club 1 Statement 12	Club 2 Statement 12	Club 3 Statement 12	Club 4 Statement 12	All data Statement 12
Unsure (0)	6	3	1	1	11
Doesn't apply (1)	4	15	0	1	20
Applies to a minor extent (2)	6	15	0	9	30
Applies to a moderate extent (3)	13	12	5	13	43
Applies to a great extent (4)	4	7	4	19	34
Applies to a very great extent (5)	2	2	2	5	11
Mean	2.31	2.20	3.42	3.31	2.68
Standard Deviation	1.45	1.25	1.31	1.10	1.36
Unanswered	0	0	0	0	0
Total Responses (n)	35	54	12	48	149

**Table B-13 Responses to Statement 13 - There is a climate that supports and recognises the importance of learning**

	Club 1 Statement 13	Club 2 Statement 13	Club 3 Statement 13	Club 4 Statement 13	All data Statement 13
Unsure (0)	4	1	0	0	5
Doesn't apply (1)	5	11	0	1	17
Applies to a minor extent (2)	6	22	1	8	37
Applies to a moderate extent (3)	12	13	5	16	46
Applies to a great extent (4)	6	7	5	19	37
Applies to a very great extent (5)	2	0	1	4	7
Mean	2.49	2.26	3.50	3.35	2.77
Deviation	1.40	0.99	0.80	0.93	1.18
Unanswered	0	0	0	0	0
Total Responses (n)	35	54	12	48	149

**Table B-14 Responses to Statement 14 - We are committed to continuous learning for improvement**

	Club 1 Statement 14	Club 2 Statement 14	Club 3 Statement 14	Club 4 Statement 14	All data Statement 14
Unsure (0)	5	0	0	1	6
Doesn't apply (1)	3	10	0	2	15
Applies to a minor extent (2)	9	22	1	8	40
Applies to a moderate extent (3)	9	15	4	14	42
Applies to a great extent (4)	7	4	5	17	33
Applies to a very great extent (5)	2	3	2	6	13
Mean	2.46	2.41	3.67	3.29	2.81
Standard Deviation	1.44	1.06	0.89	1.15	1.26
Unanswered	0	0	0	0	0
Total Responses (n)	35	54	12	48	149

**Table B-16 Responses to Statement 15 - We learn from our failures as well as our successes (i.e. failures are tolerated as part of the learning process)**

	Club 1	Club 2	Club 3	Club 4	All data
	Statement 15				
Unsure (0)	3	0	0	1	4
Doesn't apply (1)	9	6	0	3	18
Applies to a minor extent (2)	7	13	3	12	35
Applies to a moderate extent (3)	7	19	2	12	40
Applies to a great extent (4)	7	10	7	17	41
Applies to a very great extent (5)	2	6	0	3	11
Mean	2.34	2.94	3.33	3.04	2.87
Standard Deviation	1.43	1.16	0.89	1.15	1.23
Unanswered	0	0	0	0	0
Total Responses (n)	35	54	12	48	149

**Table B-16 Responses to Statement 16 - We reward people and teams for learning and helping others to learn**

	Club 1	Club 2	Club 3	Club 4	All data
	Statement 16				
Unsure (0)	1	4	1	2	8
Doesn't apply (1)	9	26	0	8	43
Applies to a minor extent (2)	8	11	1	9	29
Applies to a moderate extent (3)	11	8	6	15	40
Applies to a great extent (4)	5	4	4	10	23
Applies to a very great extent (5)	1	1	0	4	6
Mean	2.37	1.72	3.00	2.73	2.30
Standard Deviation	1.19	1.16	1.13	1.32	1.29
Unanswered	0	0	0	0	0
Total Responses (n)	35	54	12	48	149

**Table B-17 Responses to Statement 17 - Learning opportunities are incorporated into operations and programs**

	Club 1 Statement 17	Club 2 Statement 17	Club 3 Statement 17	Club 4 Statement 17	All data Statement 17
Unsure (0)	2	5	1	0	8
Doesn't apply (1)	9	9	0	1	19
Applies to a minor extent (2)	6	25	2	10	43
Applies to a moderate extent (3)	15	8	7	26	56
Applies to a great extent (4)	1	7	2	9	19
Applies to a very great extent (5)	2	0	0	2	4
Mean	2.29	2.06	2.75	3.02	2.48
Standard Deviation	1.23	1.11	1.06	0.81	1.12
Unanswered	0	0	0	0	0
Total Responses (n)	35	54	12	48	149

**Table B-18 Responses to Statement 18 - We design ways to share knowledge and enhance learning throughout the organization (e.g. systematic job rotation across teams, structured on-the-job learning systems)**

	Club 1 Statement 18	Club 2 Statement 18	Club 3 Statement 18	Club 4 Statement 18	All data Statement 18
Unsure (0)	1	3	1	0	5
Doesn't apply (1)	4	16	1	2	23
Applies to a minor extent (2)	15	20	4	10	49
Applies to a moderate extent (3)	12	7	3	23	45
Applies to a great extent (4)	3	8	3	10	24
Applies to a very great extent (5)	0	0	0	3	3
Mean	2.34	2.02	2.50	3.04	2.46
Standard Deviation	0.91	1.12	1.21	0.92	1.10
Unanswered	0	0	0	0	0
Total Responses (n)	35	54	12	48	149

**Table B-19 Responses to Statement 19 - The organization is streamlined, with few levels of management, to maximise communication and learning across levels**

	Club 1 Statement 19	Club 2 Statement 19	Club 3 Statement 19	Club 4 Statement 19	All data Statement 19
Unsure (0)	4	4	2	1	11
Doesn't apply (1)	7	18	0	10	35
Applies to a minor extent (2)	9	17	2	13	41
Applies to a moderate extent (3)	9	13	4	15	41
Applies to a great extent (4)	5	1	3	9	18
Applies to a very great extent (5)	1	1	1	0	3
Mean	2.20	1.85	2.75	2.44	2.19
Standard Deviation	1.32	1.05	1.55	1.09	1.20
Unanswered	0	0	0	0	0
Total Responses (n)	35	54	12	48	149

**Table B-20 Responses to Statement 20 - We coordinate on the basis of goals and learning rather than maintaining separation in terms of fixed departmental boundaries**

	Club 1 Statement 20	Club 2 Statement 20	Club 3 Statement 20	Club 4 Statement 20	All data Statement 20
Unsure (0)	5	6	1	7	19
Doesn't apply (1)	6	14	1	5	26
Applies to a minor extent (2)	10	21	2	13	46
Applies to a moderate extent (3)	11	10	4	12	37
Applies to a great extent (4)	3	3	3	9	18
Applies to a very great extent (5)	0	0	1	2	3
Mean	2.03	1.81	2.83	2.35	2.12
Standard Deviation	1.20	1.05	1.40	1.41	1.26
Unanswered	0	0	0	0	0
Total Responses (n)	35	54	12	48	149

**Table B-21 Responses to Statement 21 - We strive to develop an empowered work force that is able and committed to qualitative learning and performance**

	Club 1	Club 2	Club 3	Club 4	All data
	Statement 21				
Unsure (0)	6	2	2	1	11
Doesn't apply (1)	6	18	0	2	26
Applies to a minor extent (2)	9	19	2	13	43
Applies to a moderate extent (3)	10	9	5	17	41
Applies to a great extent (4)	4	6	3	12	25
Applies to a very great extent (5)	0	0	0	3	3
Mean	2.00	1.98	2.58	2.96	2.35
Standard Deviation	1.28	1.06	1.38	1.07	1.22
Unanswered	0	0	0	0	0
Total responses (n)	35	54	12	48	149

**Table B-22 Responses to Statement 22 - Authority is decentralised and delegated so as to equal one's responsibility and learning capability**

	Club 1	Club 2	Club 3	Club 4	All data
	Statement 22				
Unsure (0)	4	7	1	3	15
Doesn't apply (1)	5	12	0	6	23
Applies to a minor extent (2)	10	22	3	19	54
Applies to a moderate extent (3)	12	8	4	13	37
Applies to a great extent (4)	4	4	3	5	16
Applies to a very great extent (5)	0	1	1	2	4
Mean	2.20	1.87	2.92	2.35	2.19
Standard Deviation	1.18	1.17	1.31	1.16	1.21
Unanswered	0	0	0	0	0
Total Responses (n)	35	54	12	48	149

**Table B-23 Responses to Statement 23 - Managers and non-managers work together in partnership, to learn and solve problems together**

	Club 1	Club 2	Club 3	Club 4	All data
	Statement 23				
Unsure (0)	3	1	0	1	5
Doesn't apply (1)	1	16	0	6	23
Applies to a minor extent (2)	16	10	4	17	47
Applies to a moderate extent (3)	12	9	5	13	39
Applies to a great extent (4)	2	13	3	9	27
Applies to a very great extent (5)	1	5	0	2	8
Mean	2.34	2.59	2.92	2.60	2.56
Standard Deviation	1.06	1.42	0.79	1.13	1.20
Unanswered	0	0	0	0	0
Total Responses (n)	35	54	12	48	149

**Table B-24 Responses to Statement 24 - Managers take on the roles of coaching, mentoring, and facilitating learning**

	Club 1	Club 2	Club 3	Club 4	All data
	Statement 24				
Unsure (0)	5	0	0	0	5
Doesn't apply (1)	8	16		3	27
Applies to a minor extent (2)	6	11	3	10	30
Applies to a moderate extent (3)	11	12	6	21	50
Applies to a great extent (4)	4	10	3	12	29
Applies to a very great extent (5)	1	5	0	2	8
Mean	2.11	2.57	3.00	3.00	2.64
Standard Deviation	1.37	1.34	0.74	0.95	1.23
Unanswered	0	0	0	0	0
Total Responses (n)	35	54	12	48	149

**Table B-25 Responses to Statement 25 - Managers generate and enhance learning opportunities as well as encourage experimentation and reflection on what was learned so that new knowledge can be used**

	Club 1	Club 2	Club 3	Club 4	All data
	Statement 25				
Unsure (0)	4	0	0	1	5
Doesn't apply (1)	3	13	1	2	19
Applies to a minor extent (2)	11	23	5	13	52
Applies to a moderate extent (3)	14	8	3	25	50
Applies to a great extent (4)	3	8	3	5	19
Applies to a very great extent (5)	0	2	0	2	4
Mean	2.26	2.31	2.67	2.77	2.48
Standard Deviation	1.12	1.11	0.99	0.93	1.06
Unanswered	0	0	0	0	0
Total Responses (n)	35	54	12	48	149

**Table B-26 Responses to Statement 26 - We actively share information with our customers, to obtain their ideas and inputs in order to learn and improve services/products**

	Club 1	Club 2	Club 3	Club 4	All data
	Statement 26				
Unsure (0)	2	2	0		4
Doesn't apply (1)	2	6	0	4	12
Applies to a minor extent (2)	12	8	3	20	43
Applies to a moderate extent (3)	15	7	3	16	41
Applies to a great extent (4)	4	9	4	2	19
Applies to a very great extent (5)	0	2	1	3	6
Mean	2.49	2.62	3.27	2.56	2.62
Standard Deviation	0.98	1.37	1.01	0.97	1.11
Unanswered	0	20	1	3	24
Total responses (n)	35	34	11	45	125

**Table B-27 Responses to Statement 27 - We give customers and suppliers opportunities to participate in learning and training activities**

	Club 1 Statement 27	Club 2 Statement 27	Club 3 Statement 27	Club 4 Statement 27	All data Statement 27
Unsure (0)	2	6	1	4	13
Doesn't apply (1)	9	12	4	24	49
Applies to a minor extent (2)	13	10	1	10	34
Applies to a moderate extent (3)	9	4	4	6	23
Applies to a great extent (4)	2	2	1	1	6
Applies to a very great extent (5)	0	0	0	0	0
Mean	2.00	1.53	2.00	1.47	1.68
Standard Deviation	1.00	1.11	1.27	0.92	1.04
Unanswered	0	20	1	3	24
Total Responses (n)	35	34	11	45	125

**Table B-28 Responses to Statement 28 - Learning from partners/subcontractors, teammates, and suppliers is maximised through up-front planning of resources and strategies devoted to knowledge and skill acquisition**

	Club 1 Statement 28	Club 2 Statement 28	Club 3 Statement 28	Club 4 Statement 28	All data Statement 28
Unsure (0)	3	9	1	7	20
Doesn't apply (1)	9	10	1	13	33
Applies to a minor extent (2)	8	10	2	11	31
Applies to a moderate extent (3)	11	3	5	10	29
Applies to a great extent (4)	4	2	2	4	12
Applies to a very great extent (5)	0	0	0	0	0
Mean	2.11	1.38	2.55	1.8	1.84
Standard Deviation	1.18	1.16	1.21	1.22	1.23
Unanswered	0	20	1	3	24
Total Responses (n)	35	34	11	45	125

**Table B-29 Responses to Statement 29 - We participate in joint learning events with suppliers, community groups, professional associations, and academic institutions**

	Club 1	Club 2	Club 3	Club 4	All data
	Statement 29				
Unsure (0)	1	9		2	12
Doesn't apply (1)	6	13	2	11	32
Applies to a minor extent (2)	12	5	4	14	35
Applies to a moderate extent (3)	9	4	3	9	25
Applies to a great extent (4)	7	3	2	4	16
Applies to a very great extent (5)	0	0	0	5	5
Mean	2.43	1.38	2.45	2.38	2.13
Standard Deviation	1.09	1.26	1.04	1.37	1.31
Unanswered	0	20	1	3	24
Total Responses (n)	35	34	11	45	125

**Table B-30 Responses to Statement 30 - We actively seek learning partners amongst customers, vendors and suppliers**

	Club 1	Club 2	Club 3	Club 4	All data
	Statement 30				
Unsure (0)	4	9	0	4	17
Doesn't apply (1)	9	14	2	17	42
Applies to a minor extent (2)	12	4	5	12	33
Applies to a moderate extent (3)	6	3	3	7	19
Applies to a great extent (4)	4	4	1	3	12
Applies to a very great extent (5)	0	0	0	2	2
Mean	1.91	1.38	2.27	1.87	1.78
Standard Deviation	1.17	1.30	0.91	1.26	1.24
Unanswered	0	20	1	3	24
Total Responses (n)	35	34	11	45	125

**Table B-31 Responses to Statement 31 - People actively seek information that improves the work of the organization**

	Club 1 Statement 31	Club 2 Statement 31	Club 3 Statement 31	Club 4 Statement 31	All data Statement 31
Unsure (0)	4	2	0	3	9
Doesn't apply (1)	5	5	0	5	15
Applies to a minor extent (2)	11	16	3	13	43
Applies to a moderate extent (3)	10	9	4	17	40
Applies to a great extent (4)	5	1	3	5	14
Applies to a very great extent (5)	0	1	1	2	4
Mean	2.20	2.15	3.18	2.49	2.38
Standard Deviation	1.21	1.02	0.98	1.18	1.16
Unanswered	0	20	1	3	24
Total Responses (n)	35	34	11	45	125

**Table B-32 Responses to Statement 32 - We have accessible systems for collecting internal and external information**

	Club 1 Statement 32	Club 2 Statement 32	Club 3 Statement 32	Club 4 Statement 32	All data Statement 32
Unsure (0)	4	7	1	4	16
Doesn't apply (1)	3	3	0	5	11
Applies to a minor extent (2)	13	10	3	12	38
Applies to a moderate extent (3)	13	9	4	11	37
Applies to a great extent (4)	0	5	2	9	16
Applies to a very great extent (5)	2	0	1	4	7
Mean	2.23	2.06	2.82	2.62	2.38
Standard Deviation	1.19	1.35	1.33	1.40	1.34
Unanswered	0	20	1	3	24
Total Responses (n)	35	34	11	45	125

**Table B-33 Responses to Statement 33 - People monitor trends outside the organization by looking at what others do (e.g. benchmarking, best practices, attending conferences, and examining published research)**

	Club 1	Club 2	Club 3	Club 4	All data
	Statement 33				
Unsure (0)	2	6	0	5	13
Doesn't apply (1)	7	7	0	2	16
Applies to a minor extent (2)	6	8	3	8	25
Applies to a moderate extent (3)	8	8	3	14	33
Applies to a great extent (4)	12	4	5	10	31
Applies to a very great extent (5)	0	1	0	6	7
Mean	2.60	2.00	3.18	2.89	2.59
Standard Deviation	1.31	1.39	0.87	1.47	1.40
Unanswered	0	20	1	3	24
Total Responses (n)	35	34	11	45	125

**Table B-34 Responses to Statement 34 - People are trained in the skills of creative thinking and experimentation**

	Club 1	Club 2	Club 3	Club 4	All data
	Statement 34				
Unsure (0)	4	2	1	2	9
Doesn't apply (1)	5	17	1	12	35
Applies to a minor extent (2)	11	8	4	14	37
Applies to a moderate extent (3)	12	7	4	12	35
Applies to a great extent (4)	3	0	1	2	6
Applies to a very great extent (5)	0	0	0	3	3
Mean	2.14	1.59	2.27	2.20	2.02
Standard Deviation	1.14	0.89	1.10	1.22	1.13
Unanswered	0	20	1	3	24
Total Responses (n)	35	34	11	45	125

**Table B-35 Responses to Statement 35 - We often create demonstration projects where new ways of developing a product and/or delivering a service are tested**

	Club 1 Statement 35	Club 2 Statement 35	Club 3 Statement 35	Club 4 Statement 35	All data Statement 35
Unsure (0)	3	5	1	2	11
Doesn't apply (1)	13	14	4	12	43
Applies to a minor extent (2)	10	8	3	19	40
Applies to a moderate extent (3)	7	3	3	10	23
Applies to a great extent (4)	2	4	0	0	6
Applies to a very great extent (5)	0	0	0	2	2
Mean	1.77	1.62	1.73	2.00	1.81
Standard Deviation	1.06	1.21	1.01	1.04	1.09
Unanswered	0	20	1	3	24
Total Responses (n)	35	34	11	45	125

**Table B-36 Responses to Statement 36 - Systems and structures exist to ensure that important knowledge is coded, stored, and made available to those who need and can use it**

	Club 1 Statement 36	Club 2 Statement 36	Club 3 Statement 36	Club 4 Statement 36	All data Statement 36
Unsure (0)	1	4	0	3	8
Doesn't apply (1)	4	3	0	4	11
Applies to a minor extent (2)	14	10	3	15	42
Applies to a moderate extent (3)	13	12	5	17	47
Applies to a great extent (4)	3	5	2	5	15
Applies to a very great extent (5)	0	0	1	1	2
Mean	2.37	2.32	3.09	2.44	2.45
Standard Deviation	0.91	1.20	0.94	1.10	1.07
Unanswered	0	20	1	3	24
Total Responses (n)	35	34	11	45	125

**Table B-37 Responses to Statement 37 - People are aware of the need to retain important organizational learnings and share such knowledge with others**

	Club 1 Statement 37	Club 2 Statement 37	Club 3 Statement 37	Club 4 Statement 37	All data Statement 37
Unsure (0)	1	1	0	1	3
Doesn't apply (1)	9	4	1		14
Applies to a minor extent (2)	7	16	2	15	40
Applies to a moderate extent (3)	14	8	6	14	42
Applies to a great extent (4)	4	5	2	13	24
Applies to a very great extent (5)	0	0	0	2	2
Mean	2.31	2.35	2.82	2.98	2.61
Standard Deviation	1.08	0.98	0.87	1.01	1.05
Unanswered	0	20	1	3	24
Total Responses (n)	35	34	11	44	125

**Table B-38 Responses to Statement 38 - Cross-functional teams are used to transfer important learning across groups, departments and divisions**

	Club 1 Statement 38	Club 2 Statement 38	Club 3 Statement 38	Club 4 Statement 38	All data Statement 38
Unsure (0)	4	8	2	6	20
Doesn't apply (1)	6	12	3	8	29
Applies to a minor extent (2)	14	6	2	12	34
Applies to a moderate extent (3)	9	6	2	11	28
Applies to a great extent (4)	2	2	2	7	13
Applies to a very great extent (5)	0	0	0	1	1
Mean	1.97	1.47	1.91	2.18	1.90
Standard Deviation	1.07	1.21	1.45	1.34	1.26
Unanswered	0	20	1	3	24
Total Responses (n)	35	34	11	45	125

**Table B-39 Responses to Statement 39 - We continue to develop new strategies and mechanisms for sharing learning throughout the organization**

	Club 1 Statement 39	Club 2 Statement 39	Club 3 Statement 39	Club 4 Statement 39	All data Statement 39
Unsure (0)	4	4	1	2	11
Doesn't apply (1)	7	11	1	3	22
Applies to a minor extent (2)	11	12	4	15	42
Applies to a moderate extent (3)	9	5	5	18	37
Applies to a great extent (4)	4	2	0	4	10
Applies to a very great extent (5)	0	0	0	3	3
Mean	2.06	1.71	2.18	2.62	2.18
Standard Deviation	1.19	1.06	0.98	1.11	1.16
Unanswered	0	20	1	3	24
Total Responses (n)	35	34	11	45	125

**Table B-40 Responses to Statement 40 - We support specific areas, units, and projects that generate knowledge by providing people with learning opportunities**

	Club 1 Statement 40	Club 2 Statement 40	Club 3 Statement 40	Club 4 Statement 40	All data Statement 40
Unsure (0)	4	5	0	2	11
Doesn't apply (1)	7	12	0	4	23
Applies to a minor extent (2)	8	9	6	12	35
Applies to a moderate extent (3)	12	3	1	15	31
Applies to a great extent (4)	4	5	4	10	23
Applies to a very great extent (5)	0	0	0	2	2
Mean	2.14	1.74	2.82	2.73	2.30
Standard Deviation	1.22	1.26	0.98	1.18	1.26
Unanswered	0	20	1	3	24
Total Responses (n)	35	34	11	45	125

**Table B-41 Responses to Statement 41 - Learning is facilitated by effective and efficient computer-based information systems**

	Club 1 Statement 41	Club 2 Statement 41	Club 3 Statement 41	Club 4 Statement 41	All data Statement 41
Unsure (0)	2	7	0	1	10
Doesn't apply (1)	6	10	2	7	25
Applies to a minor extent (2)	12	11	5	20	48
Applies to a moderate extent (3)	14	6	2	13	35
Applies to a great extent (4)	1	0	2	1	4
Applies to a very great extent (5)	0	0	0	3	3
Mean	2.17	1.47	2.36	2.33	2.06
Standard Deviation	0.95	1.02	1.03	1.07	1.07
Unanswered	0	20	1	3	24
Total Responses (n)	35	34	11	45	125

**Table B-42 Responses to Statement 42 - People have ready access to information highway (e.g. local area networks, internet, on-line etc.)**

	Club 1 Statement 42	Club 2 Statement 42	Club 3 Statement 42	Club 4 Statement 42	All data Statement 42
Unsure (0)	2	6	1	2	11
Doesn't apply (1)	10	12	0	6	28
Applies to a minor extent (2)	15	9	3	16	43
Applies to a moderate extent (3)	5	3	2	12	22
Applies to a great extent (4)	3	4	5	5	17
Applies to a very great extent (5)	0	0	0	4	4
Mean	1.91	1.62	2.91	2.53	2.14
Standard Deviation	1.01	1.23	1.30	1.25	1.26
Unanswered	0	20	1	3	24
Total Responses (n)	35	34	11	45	125

**Table B-43 Responses to Statement 43 - Learning facilities (e.g. training and conference rooms) incorporate electronic multimedia support and a learning environment based on the integration of art, colour, music and visuals**

	Club 1 Statement 43	Club 2 Statement 43	Club 3 Statement 43	Club 4 Statement 43	All data Statement 43
Unsure (0)	3	7	2	1	13
Doesn't apply (1)	12	11	0	11	34
Applies to a minor extent (2)	9	10	2	16	37
Applies to a moderate extent (3)	8	3	4	8	23
Applies to a great extent (4)	3	3	3	8	17
Applies to a very great extent (5)	0	0	0	1	1
Mean	1.89	1.53	2.55	2.31	2.00
Standard Deviation	1.13	1.19	1.44	1.16	1.23
Unanswered	0	20	1	3	24
Total Responses (n)	35	34	11	45	125

**Table B-44 Responses to Statement 44 - People have available to them, computer-assisted learning programs and electronic job aids (e.g. just-in-time and flowcharting software)**

	Club 1 Statement 44	Club 2 Statement 44	Club 3 Statement 44	Club 4 Statement 44	All data Statement 44
Unsure (0)	3	7	1	5	16
Doesn't apply (1)	9	16	1	19	45
Applies to a minor extent (2)	11	5	6	9	31
Applies to a moderate extent (3)	9	5	1	8	23
Applies to a great extent (4)	3	1	2	3	9
Applies to a very great extent (5)	0	0	0	1	1
Mean	2.00	1.32	2.18	1.73	1.74
Standard Deviation	1.11	1.07	1.17	1.21	1.17
Unanswered	0	20	1	3	24
Total Responses (n)	35	34	11	45	125

**Table B-45 Responses to Statement 45 - We use groupware technology to manage group processes (e.g. project management, team process, meeting management)**

	Club 1 Statement 45	Club 2 Statement 45	Club 3 Statement 45	Club 4 Statement 45	All data Statement 45
Unsure (0)	4	9	0	5	18
Doesn't apply (1)	11	13	4	14	42
Applies to a minor extent (2)	9	8	4	12	33
Applies to a moderate extent (3)	11	2	1	10	24
Applies to a great extent (4)	0	2	1	4	7
Applies to a very great extent (5)	0	0	1	0	1
Mean	1.77	1.26	2.18	1.87	1.70
Standard Deviation	1.03	1.11	1.33	1.16	1.15
Unanswered	0	20	1	3	24
Total Responses (n)	35	34	11	45	125

**Table B-46 Responses to Statement 46 - We support just-in-time learning, a system that integrates high-technology learning systems, coaching, and actual work on the job into a single, seamless process**

	Club 1 Statement 46	Club 2 Statement 46	Club 3 Statement 46	Club 4 Statement 46	All data Statement 46
Unsure (0)	5	12	2	10	29
Doesn't apply (1)	12	13	3	10	38
Applies to a minor extent (2)	11	5	3	11	30
Applies to a moderate extent (3)	6	2	2	7	17
Applies to a great extent (4)	1	2	1	5	9
Applies to a very great extent (5)	0	0	0	2	2
Mean	1.60	1.09	1.73	1.84	1.56
Standard Deviation	1.04	1.14	1.27	1.46	1.27
Unanswered	0	20	1	3	24
Total Responses (n)	35	34	11	45	125

**Table B-47 Responses to Statement 47 - Our electronic performance support systems enable us to learn and to do our work better (an electronic performance support system is a system that uses databases and knowledge bases to capture, store, and distribute information throughout the organization)**

	Club 1 Statement 47	Club 2 Statement 47	Club 3 Statement 47	Club 4 Statement 47	All data Statement 47
Unsure (0)	4	12	0	4	20
Doesn't apply (1)	9	10	3	8	30
Applies to a minor extent (2)	9	6	4	11	30
Applies to a moderate extent (3)	9	4	2	10	25
Applies to a great extent (4)	4	2	2	10	18
Applies to a very great extent (5)	0	0	0	2	2
Mean	2.00	1.24	2.27	2.44	1.98
Standard Deviation	1.21	1.23	1.10	1.37	1.35
Unanswered	0	20	1	3	24
Total Responses (n)	35	34	11	45	125

**Table B-48 Responses to Statement 48 - We design and tailor our electronic performance support systems to meet our learning needs**

	Club 1 Statement 48	Club 2 Statement 48	Club 3 Statement 48	Club 4 Statement 48	All data Statement 48
Unsure (0)	2	11	1	6	20
Doesn't apply (1)	10	11	4	13	38
Applies to a minor extent (2)	17	8	3	8	36
Applies to a moderate extent (3)	5	4	2	11	22
Applies to a great extent (4)	1	0	1	5	7
Applies to a very great extent (5)	0	0	0	2	2
Mean	1.80	1.15	1.82	2.04	1.71
Standard Deviation	0.87	1.02	1.17	1.40	1.19
Unanswered	0	20	1	3	24
Total Responses (n)	35	34	11	45	125

**Table B-49 Responses to Statement 49 - People have full access to the data they need to do their jobs effectively**

	Club 1 Statement 49	Club 2 Statement 49	Club 3 Statement 49	Club 4 Statement 49	All data Statement 49
Unsure (0)	5	5	1	1	12
Doesn't apply (1)	8	5	0	5	18
Applies to a minor extent (2)	10	12	5	11	38
Applies to a moderate extent (3)	7	10	2	14	33
Applies to a great extent (4)	4	2	1	11	18
Applies to a very great extent (5)	1	0	2	3	6
Mean	2.00	1.97	2.73	2.84	2.36
Standard Deviation	1.33	1.14	1.49	1.19	1.30
Unanswered	0	20	1	3	24
Total Responses (n)	35	34	11	45	125

**Table B-50 Responses to Statement 50 - We can adapt software systems to collect, code, store, create, and transfer information in ways best suited to meet our needs**

	Club 1 Statement 50	Club 2 Statement 50	Club 3 Statement 50	Club 4 Statement 50	All data Statement 50
Unsure (0)	4	11	1	5	21
Doesn't apply (1)	13	7	1	7	28
Applies to a minor extent (2)	9	8	5	12	34
Applies to a moderate extent (3)	6	4	2	8	20
Applies to a great extent (4)	3	4	1	10	18
Applies to a very great extent (5)	0	0	1	3	4
Mean	1.74	1.50	2.36	2.44	1.98
Standard Deviation	1.15	1.38	1.36	1.46	1.39
Unanswered	0	20	1	3	24
Total Responses (n)	35	34	11	45	125

### Appendix C Results of the Analysis of the Survey Data in Tabular Form

**Table C-1 Multiple Comparisons of Means for All Data**

(I) Club	(J) Club	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Club 1	Club 2	.214	.162	1.000	-.222	.649
	Club 3	-.622	.233	.052	-1.247	.004
	Club 4	-.457(*)	.152	.019	-.865	-.049
Club 2	Club 1	-.214	.162	1.000	-.649	.222
	Club 3	-.835(*)	.234	.003	-1.463	-.207
	Club 4	-.671(*)	.153	.000	-1.082	-.260
Club 3	Club 1	.622	.233	.052	-.004	1.247
	Club 2	.835(*)	.234	.003	.207	1.463
	Club 4	.164	.227	1.000	-.444	.773
Club 4	Club 1	.457(*)	.152	.019	.049	.865
	Club 2	.671(*)	.153	.000	.260	1.082
	Club 3	-.164	.227	1.000	-.773	.444

\* The mean difference is significant for  $p \leq 0.05$

**Table C-2 Multiple Comparisons of Means for the Learning sub-system**

Dependent Sub-system	(I) Club	(J) Club	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Learning	Club 1	Club 2	.01619	.13975	1.000	-.3576	.3900
		Club 3	-.80881	.21544	.002(*)	-1.3851	-.2325
		Club 4	-.56506	.14315	.001(*)	-.9480	-.1822
	Club 2	Club 1	-.01619	.13975	1.000	-.3900	.3576
		Club 3	-.82500	.20553	.001(*)	-1.3748	-.2752
		Club 4	-.58125	.12775	.000(*)	-.9230	-.2395
	Club 3	Club 1	.80881	.21544	.002(*)	.2325	1.3851
		Club 2	.82500	.20553	.001(*)	.2752	1.3748
		Club 4	.24375	.20785	1.000	-.3122	.7997
	Club 4	Club 1	.56506	.14315	.001(*)	.1822	.9480
		Club 2	.58125	.12775	.000(*)	.2395	.9230
		Club 3	-.24375	.20785	1.000	-.7997	.3122

\* The mean difference is significant for  $p \leq 0.05$

**Table C-3 Multiple Comparisons of means for the Organization sub-system**

Dependent Sub-system	(I) Club	(J) Club	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Organization	Club 1	Club 2	.16603	.17097	1.000	-.2913	.6234
		Club 3	-.76452	.26355	.026(*)	-1.4695	-.0595
		Club 4	-.66869	.17512	.001(*)	-1.1371	-.2003
	Club 2	Club 1	-.16603	.17097	1.000	-.6234	.2913
		Club 3	-.93056	.25144	.002(*)	-1.6031	-.2580
		Club 4	-.83472	.15629	.000(*)	-1.2528	-.4167
	Club 3	Club 1	.76452	.26355	.026(*)	.0595	1.4695
		Club 2	.93056	.25144	.002(*)	.2580	1.6031
		Club 4	.09583	.25428	1.000	-.5843	.7760
	Club 4	Club 1	.66869	.17512	.001(*)	.2003	1.1371
		Club 2	.83472	.15629	.000(*)	.4167	1.2528
		Club 3	-.09583	.25428	1.000	-.7760	.5843

\* The mean difference is significant for  $p \leq 0.05$

**Table C-4 Multiple Comparisons of the means for the People sub-system**

Dependent Sub-system	(I) Club	(J) Club	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound
People	Club 1	Club 2	.07275	.17773	1.000	-.4027	.5482
		Club 3	-.53095	.27399	.327	-1.2639	.2019
		Club 4	-.21637	.18205	1.000	-.7033	.2706
	Club 2	Club 1	-.07275	.17773	1.000	-.5482	.4027
		Club 3	-.60370	.26139	.134	-1.3029	.0955
		Club 4	-.28912	.16248	.464	-.7237	.1455
	Club 3	Club 1	.53095	.27399	.327	-.2019	1.2639
		Club 2	.60370	.26139	.134	-.0955	1.3029
		Club 4	.31458	.26434	1.000	-.3925	1.0217
	Club 4	Club 1	.21637	.18205	1.000	-.2706	.7033
		Club 2	.28912	.16248	.464	-.1455	.7237
		Club 3	-.31458	.26434	1.000	-1.0217	.3925

The mean difference is significant for  $p \leq 0.05$

**Table C-5 Comparison of means Organization v People**

	Sig
All data	0.00
Club 1	0.44
Club 2	0.98
Club 3	0.05
Club 4	0.000

The differences are significant for  $p \leq 0.05$

**Table C-6 Comparison of means People (Int.) v People (Ext.)**

	n	Significance
All data	124	0.000*
Club 1	35	0.976
Club2	30	0.003*
Club 3	11	0.485
Club4	48	0.000*

\* The mean difference is significant for  $p \leq 0.05$

**Table C-7 Multiple Comparisons of the means for the Knowledge Management sub-system**

Dependent Sub-system	(I) Club	(J) Club	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Knowledge Management	Club 1	Club 2	.28000	.18698	.821	-.2215	.7815
		Club 3	-.42000	.26840	.721	-1.1399	.2999
		Club 4	-.33556	.17500	.345	-.8050	.1339
	Club 2	Club 1	-.28000	.18698	.821	-.7815	.2215
		Club 3	-.70000	.26934	.063	-1.4225	.0225
		Club 4	-.61556	.17644	.004(*)	-1.0888	-.1423
	Club 3	Club 1	.42000	.26840	.721	-.2999	1.1399
		Club 2	.70000	.26934	.063	-.0225	1.4225
		Club 4	.08444	.26117	1.000	-.6161	.7850
	Club 4	Club 1	.33556	.17500	.345	-.1339	.8050
		Club 2	.61556	.17644	.004(*)	.1423	1.0888
		Club 3	-.08444	.26117	1.000	-.7850	.6161

The mean difference is significant for  $p \leq 0.05$

**Table C-8 Multiple Comparison of Means for the Technology sub-system**

Dependent Sub-system	(I) Club	(J) Club	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Technology	Club 1	Club 2	.47387	.19711	.106	-.0548	1.0026
		Club 3	-.42052	.28294	.839	-1.1795	.3384
		Club 4	-.35143	.18448	.355	-.8463	.1434
	Club 2	Club 1	-.47387	.19711	.106	-1.0026	.0548
		Club 3	-.89439	.28394	.012(*)	-1.6560	-.1328
		Club 4	-.82529	.18600	.000(*)	-1.3242	-.3264
	Club 3	Club 1	.42052	.28294	.839	-.3384	1.1795
		Club 2	.89439	.28394	.012(*)	.1328	1.6560
		Club 4	.06909	.27532	1.000	-.6694	.8076
	Club 4	Club 1	.35143	.18448	.355	-.1434	.8463
		Club 2	.82529	.18600	.000(*)	.3264	1.3242
		Club 3	-.06909	.27532	1.000	-.8076	.6694

\* The mean difference is significant for  $p \leq 0.05$

**Table C-9 Comparison of correlation coefficients of the Learning sub-system v People (Int.) and Learning v People (Ext.)**

	All data	Club 1	Club2	Club 3	Club 4
People (int.)	.804	.686	.827	.358	.805
People (ext.)	.629	.677	.593	.566	.621
People (int.) v People (ext.)	0.415	0.291	.584	-0.060	.450
n	149	35	54	12	48
t	2.934	.636	0.031	-1.335	0.95
Significance	0.002	0.265	0.488	0.891	0.174

Differences are significant when  $p \leq 0.05$

**Table C-10 Comparison of mean scores for each sub-system for Managers and Non-managers**

	Manager (mean)	Non-Manager (mean)	Sig.
Learning	3.0 (n=20)	2.7 (n=80)	0.138
Organization	3.2 (n=20)	2.6 (n=80)	0.029
People (Int.)	2.9 (n=20)	2.5 (n=80)	0.360
People (Ext.)	2.3 (n=18)	1.8 (n=66)	0.072
Knowledge	2.7 (n=18)	2.3 (n=66)	0.251
Technology	2.4 (n=18)	1.8 (=66)	0.046

Differences are significant when  $p \leq 0.05$

**Table C-11 Correlation of the Learning sub-system against Items 31 – 40 (Knowledge Management sub-system)**

Items in the Knowledge Management Sub-system		Managers	Non-Managers	Aggregate (Manager & Non-managers)
31	People actively seek information that improves the work of the organization	.51	.42	.45
32	We have accessible systems for collecting internal and external information	.58	.46	.49
33	People monitor trends outside organization by looking at what others do (e.g. benchmarking, best practices, attending conferences, and examining published research)	.45	.38	.41
34	People are trained in the skills of creative thinking and experimentation	.42	.40	.42
35	We often create demonstration projects where new ways of developing a product and/or delivering a service are tested	.42	.45	.46
36	Systems and structures exist to ensure that important knowledge is coded, stored, and made available to those who need and can use it	.51	.34	.39
37	People are aware of the need to retain important organizational learnings and share such knowledge with others	.69	.40	.45
38	Cross-functional teams are used to transfer important learning across groups, departments and divisions	.32	.43	.41
39	We continue to develop new strategies and mechanisms for sharing learning throughout the organization	.58	.56	.56
40	We support specific areas, units, and projects that generate knowledge by providing people with learning opportunities	.47	.55	.55

**Table C-12 Correlation of the Learning sub-system against Items 41 – 50 (Technology sub-system)**

Items in the Technology Sub-system		Managers	Non-Managers	Aggregate (Manager & Non-managers)
41	Learning is facilitated by effective and efficient computer-based information systems	.473	.520	.530
42	People have ready access to information highway (e.g. local area networks, internet, on-line etc.)	.363	.425	.443
43	Learning facilities (e.g. training and conference rooms) incorporate electronic multimedia support and a learning environment based on the integration of art, colour, music and visuals	.564	.424	.467
44	People have available to them, computer-assisted learning programs and electronic job aids (e.g. just-in-time and flowcharting software)	.293	.332	.350
45	We use groupware technology to manage group processes (e.g. project management, team process, meeting management)	.146	.386	.383
46	We support just-in-time learning, a system that integrates high-technology learning systems, coaching, and actual work on the job into a single, seamless process	.420	.366	.356
47	Our electronic performance support systems enable us to learn and to do our work better (an electronic performance support system is a system that uses databases and knowledge bases to capture, store, and distribute information throughout the organization)	.550	.246	.300
48	We design and tailor our electronic performance support systems to meet our learning needs	.558	.427	.445
49	People have full access to the data they need to do their jobs effectively	.306	.374	.387
50	We can adapt software systems to collect, code, store, create, and transfer information in ways best suited to meet our needs	.407	.501	.512

**Table C-13 Differences between Managers and Non-Managers across the Sub-systems**

	Managers		Non-Managers		Z	p
	r	Z <sub>1</sub>	r	Z <sub>2</sub>		
Organization	0.685	0.838	0.788	1.066	-0.851	0.802
People (int.)	0.718	0.904	0.525	0.583	1.198	0.115
People (ext.)	0.560	0.633	0.608	0.706	-0.254	0.599
Knowledge Management	0.666	0.804	0.662	0.795	-0.026	0.618
Technology	0.693	0.854	0.555	0.623	0.794	0.215

The difference is significant for  $p \leq 0.05$

**Table C-14 Differences between Managers and non-Managers for the Correlation of the Learning sub-system against the Organization sub-system**

Items in the Organization Sub-system		Managers		Non-Managers		Z	p
		r	Z <sub>1</sub>	r	Z <sub>2</sub>		
11	The importance of being a learning organization is understood throughout the organization	.658	0.789	.646	0.768	0.078	0.532
12	Top-level management supports the vision of a learning organization	.505	0.556	.676	0.822	-0.99	0.839
13	There is a climate that supports and recognises the importance of learning	.474	0.515	.611	0.711	-0.73	0.767
14	We are committed to continuous learning for improvement	.660	0.793	.604	0.699	0.351	0.363
15	We learn from our failures as well as our successes (i.e. failures are tolerated as part of the learning process)	.616	0.719	.374	0.393	1.217	0.111
16	We reward people and teams for learning and helping others to learn	.491	0.537	.613	0.714	-0.661	0.745
17	Learning opportunities are incorporated into operations and programs	.449	0.483	.493	0.540	-0.213	0.583
18	We design ways to share knowledge and enhance learning throughout Organization (e.g. systematic job rotation across teams, structured on-the-job learning systems)	.309	0.315	.511	0.564	-0.929	0.824
19	Organization is streamlined, with few levels of management, to maximise communication and learning across levels	.222	0.226	.410	0.436	-0.784	0.782
20	We coordinate on the basis of goals and learning rather than maintaining separation in terms of fixed departmental boundaries	.598	0.690	.536	0.598	0.343	0.367

The difference is significant for  $p \leq 0.05$

**Table C-15 Differences Between Managers and non-Managers for the Correlation of the Learning sub-system against the People sub-system**

Items in the People Sub-system		Managers		Non-Managers		Z	p
		r	Z <sub>1</sub>	r	Z <sub>2</sub>		
21	We strive to develop an empowered work force that is able and committed to qualitative learning and performance	.527	0.586	.597	0.688	-0.381	0.648
22	Authority is decentralised and delegated so as to equal one's responsibility and learning capability	.403	0.427	.338	0.352	0.280	0.390
23	Managers and non-managers work together in partnership, to learn and solve problems together	.526	0.585	.293	0.302	1.056	0.145
24	Managers take on the roles of coaching, mentoring, and facilitating learning	.624	0.732	.312	0.323	1.526	0.063
25	Managers generate and enhance learning opportunities as well as encourage experimentation and reflection on what was learned so that new knowledge can be used	.459	0.496	.540	0.604	-0.403	0.655
26	We actively share information with our customers, to obtain their ideas and inputs in order to learn and improve services/products	.562	0.636	.421	0.449	0.698	0.242
27	We give customers and suppliers opportunities to participate in learning and training activities	.315	0.326	.525	0.583	-0.959	0.832
28	Learning from partners/subcontractors, and suppliers is maximised through up-front planning of resources and strategies devoted to knowledge and skill acquisition	.613	0.714	.495	0.543	0.638	0.261
29	We participate in joint learning events with suppliers, community groups, professional associations, and academic institutions	.419	0.446	.400	0.424	0.082	0.532
30	We actively seek learning partners amongst customers, vendors and suppliers	.419	0.446	.480	.523	-0.228	0.591

The difference is significant for  $p \leq 0.05$

**Table C-16 Differences between Managers and non-Managers for the Correlation of the Learning sub-system against the Knowledge Management sub-system**

Items in the Knowledge Management Sub-system		Managers		Non-Managers		Z	p
		r	Z <sub>1</sub>	r	Z <sub>2</sub>		
31	People actively seek information that improves the work of the organization	.507	0.559	.419	0.446	0.393	0.348
32	We have accessible systems for collecting internal and external information	.576	0.656	.460	0.497	0.553	0.292
33	People monitor trends outside organization by looking at what others do (e.g. benchmarking best practices, attending conferences, and examining published research)	.449	0.483	.376	0.395	0.306	0.378
34	People are trained in the skills of creative thinking and experimentation	.423	0.451	.401	0.425	0.090	0.536
35	We often create demonstration projects where new ways of developing a product and/or delivering a service are tested	.424	0.453	.447	0.481	-0.098	0.540
36	Systems and structures exist to ensure that important knowledge is coded, stored, and made available to those who need and can use it	.511	0.564	.339	0.353	0.734	0.243
37	People are aware of the need to retain important organizational learnings and share such knowledge with others	.687	0.842	.403	0.427	-1.444	0.925
38	Cross-functional teams are used to transfer important learning across groups, departments and divisions	.319	0.331	.425	0.454	-0.428	0.736
39	We continue to develop new strategies and mechanisms for sharing learning throughout the organization	.582	0.665	.560	0.633	0.111	0.456
40	We support specific areas, units, and projects that generate knowledge by providing people with learning opportunities	.471	0.511	.551	0.62	-0.379	0.648

The difference is significant for  $p \leq 0.05$

**Table C-17 Differences between Managers and non-Managers for the Correlation of the Learning sub-system against the Technology sub-system**

Items in the Technology Sub-system		Managers		Non-Managers		Z	p
		r	Z <sub>1</sub>	r	Z <sub>2</sub>		
41	Learning is facilitated by effective and efficient computer-based information systems	.473	0.514	.520	0.576	-0.215	0.587
42	People have ready access to information highway (e.g. local area networks, internet, on-line etc.)	.363	0.380	.425	0.454	-0.258	0.603
43	Learning facilities (e.g. training and conference rooms) incorporate electronic multimedia support and a learning environment based on the integration of art, colour, music and visuals	.564	0.639	.424	0.453	0.647	0.258
44	People have available to them, computer-assisted learning programs and electronic job aids (e.g. just-in-time and flowcharting software)	.293	0.302	.332	0.345	-0.150	0.560
45	We use groupware technology to manage group processes (e.g. project management, team process, meeting management)	.146	0.147	.386	0.407	-0.908	0.819
46	We support just-in-time learning, a system that integrates high-technology learning systems, coaching, and actual work on the job into a single, seamless process	.420	0.448	.366	0.384	0.223	0.413
47	Our electronic performance support systems enable us to learn and to do our work better (an electronic performance support system is a system that uses databases and knowledge bases to capture, store, and distribute information throughout the organization)	.550	0.618	.246	0.251	1.277	0.100
48	We design and tailor our electronic performance support systems to meet our learning needs	.558	0.630	.427	0.456	0.606	0.271
49	People have full access to the data they need to do their jobs effectively	.306	0.316	.374	0.393	-0.115	0.548
50	We can adapt software systems to collect, code, store, create, and transfer information in ways best suited to meet our needs	.407	0.423	.501	0.551	-0.446	0.674

The difference is significant for  $p \leq 0.05$

## Appendix D Interviews with Senior Managers

<b>1 What is your educational Background?</b>		
Club 1	CEO	Bachelor degree
	HR Manager	Year 10, Currently undertaking an Advanced Diploma in Human Resource Management
Club 2	CEO	Bachelor degree Associate Diploma in Health Administration
	HR Manager	Bachelor degree
Club 3	CEO	Bachelor degree Currently undertaking MBA
Club 4	CEO	Engineering through the services. Mathematics and computing. No formal post secondary qualifications
	HR Manager	Tertiary qualifications in HR, Diploma in Finance
<b>2 What does learning mean to you (a)for yourself and (b) for your organization</b>		
Club 1	CEO	<p>Learning is an on-going activity, not necessarily in a formal way, but often it is an unconscious activity happening through our normal day-to-day interactions in both work and personal lives.</p> <p>For my organization, apart from the legislated requirements related to alcohol and gambling it is very much a combination of formal and informal. Once again the acquisition of normal life skills is an important part of the learning experience. Also, the club will try and assist staff who wish to develop themselves and this is done on an individual basis. For example, one of our staff wanted to undertake a course. At the time this staff member was a valued employee, and as a result I decided to support the application, even though there was no obvious relevance to her current work... As it turned out, we subsequently needed to do some marketing and advertising and we were able to utilise the skills and knowledge that this staff member had gained.</p>
	HR Manager	(a) Learning is an ongoing activity that is a combination of formal and informal. The informal is just as important as the

		<p>formal as it often means that I am developing my interpersonal skills just through the daily interactions with other people in both the workplace and outside.</p> <p>(b) In the workplace, our staff are required to undergo formal training with respect to service of alcohol and monitoring of gambling. To assist in determining the nature of other training required all staff participate in the performance management process a part of which requires them to identify areas of training need. As opportunities arise staff are provided with the training identified through this process. We are examining the possibility of introducing traineeships as a means of retaining good staff.</p>
Club 2	CEO	<p>I think there is always room for improvement in my own skills and I try and address these needs through workshops, seminars or if necessary formal training programmes.</p> <p>Learning or training for our staff is important to the long-term viability of our club. There is legislated training for all staff in the areas of alcohol and gambling. Yet the most important aspect is in the area of customer service as it is the frontline staff who make or break the club and it is therefore important they that acquire good customer service skills.</p>
	HR Manager	<p>Learning is the acquisition of skills and knowledge and being able to utilise these skills and knowledge in a meaningful way either in the workplace or in general living. A lot of this learning is done sub-consciously and we are often unaware that we may have picked up a new skill or bit of knowledge.</p> <p>Skill and knowledge are extremely important, possibly even critical as the work environment is constantly changing due to government regulation. We need to ensure that our staff understand the legislative framework in which they work. We also need to ensure that staff have excellent customer service skills especially when it comes to the provision of alcohol. Staff need the skills to deal with patrons who have had too much to drink and know</p>

		how to deal sensitively people when it is necessary to deny them further service.
Club 3	CEO	<p>For me learning is extremely important as we work in a dynamic environment, one which is being constantly challenged by government legislation. I am personally meeting that challenge by undertaking post-graduate study and at the same time ensuring that my inter-personal skills are being constantly improved.</p> <p>In the context of this club, apart from mandated training related to alcohol and gambling, it is important that our staff acquire and/or develop good customer service and inter-personal skills.</p>
Club 4	CEO	<p>Learning needs to be targeted, but it also needs to be ongoing. Through my daily work as CEO I continue to learn and I see the problems at work as a challenge.</p> <p>Workplace learning is very structured through our traineeships. Trained up to supervisor level – through all operations of the club. However the traineeships are creating other problems such as career blockages and loss of trained staff to other organizations.</p>
	HR Manager	<p>(a) Need ongoing learning, either formal or informal to maintain interest in job.</p> <p>(b) Ongoing learning essential to develop careers in the organization – provide 2 year training program to ensure staff have necessary skills, knowledge and experience to move into managerial positions. Use skilled people as mentors and coaches for staff coming through the ranks.</p>
<b>3. What sort of problems do you encounter in the workplace?</b>		
Club 1	CEO	<p>The major problem that I and my senior managers encounter relate to communication and blockage of important messages to staff or the failure of information from staff reaching my senior managers and myself.</p> <p>Being a multi-site operation exacerbates this communication problem as the on-site managers, if they can't resolve the problem often don't or won't push the problem up the line resulting in staff feeling marginalised.</p>

	HR Manager	The major problem is retention of good staff and lack of career structure.
Club 2	CEO	Probably the major problem that we encounter in the workplace centres around interpersonal skills and this is in relation not only with how people relate to customers but also between themselves.
	HR Manager	Most of the problems I encounter revolve around Industrial relations/employee relations/workplace relations and these are generally resolved through and accordance with relevant legislation.
Club 3	CEO	The major problems in this club concern communication and interpersonal skills. The latter cover not only inter-staff relationships but the way in which staff deal with club patrons.
Club 4	CEO	Loss of trained staff all the time to other organizations in the hospitality industry. TAFE courses do not really address the issues and problems associated with clubs, means we basically train our own people through formal coursework before they go on the floor. Communications between the various sites in the group doesn't present any problems. Every staff member has access to CEO via email. Staff council attended by CEO, HR Manager and a Director. CEO visits each club in group and can be approached by any staff member with a problem or a gripe.
	HR Manager	Keeping people motivated, no real problems with harassment (zero tolerance policy) or OH&S. Motivation is biggest problem. Problems usually resolved through one-on-one counselling, help to facilitate moves into other forms of employment. The traineeships are starting to create blockages in the career ladder.

<b>4. What has been the nature of the training – has it been formal or informal?</b>		
Club 1	CEO	Training provided by this club has been a mixture of formal and informal. There is the mandatory training that all staff are required to undertake prior to working on the floor as well as other formal training to assist them to progress their careers with the club.
	HR Manager	Most of the training in the club tends to be of a formal nature. As previously stated there is mandatory training for all staff dealing with the public. Other training requirements are generally identified through the performance management system and this can be either formal or more on-the-job or informal training.
Club 2	CEO	Training in this club is a mixture of informal and formal. As I explained earlier there are a number of programmes that all staff are required to undergo in order to work in the industry and these are formal accredited programmes. The remainder of the training tends to be of a more informal nature with skilled and experienced staff teaching new people on the job
	HR Manager	Learning is a mixture of formal and informal. When people join the organization they go through an induction program and depending on where they will be working dictates the nature of the training which they undergo.
Club 3	CEO	This is an industry which has mandated formal training for all staff having direct dealings with public.
Club 4	CEO	Training is primarily formal followed with informal on-the-job. OH&S and sexual harassment training ongoing. Responsible service of alcohol is a mandatory formal program.
	HR Manager	Created traineeships in Certificate III to allow staff to progress to management positions. Encourage ongoing study up to degree level. Use skilled, experienced staff as coaches and mentors. Ongoing training linked to performance assessment.

<b>5. What do you see as the greatest challenges for YOUR club in the next 1-2 years?</b>		
Club 1	CEO	Coping with the downturn in income as a result of new smoking legislation.
	HR Manager	Retention of good staff.
Club 2	CEO	Maintaining club viability in the face of new smoking legislation.
	HR Manager	Being able to cope with smoking legislation and ensuring our staff understand the legislation and have the skills to deal with affected patrons.
Club 3	CEO	Increased government taxes and smoking legislation. Retention of good staff.
Club 4	CEO	The government and legislation. Increases in taxes. Retention of good staff and finding good staff. Drug usage amongst staff. Smoking legislation will require changes to physical structure of the clubs but will lose 10% of overall revenue probably putting club in the 'red'.
	HR Manager	Legislation regarding smoking. Problem gambling. Retaining well motivated staff, finding quality staff, making industry attractive to prospective staff. Having training relevant to the work. Traineeships and subsequent blockages in career structure.
<b>6. How will the club meet these challenges?</b>		
Club 1	CEO	We are hoping to learn from the experience of other jurisdictions and minimise the downturn in revenue. As far as the smoking laws are concerned we in the process of creating 'enclosed' smoking areas that are separated from the main areas of the club, areas that will provide basically the same facilities i.e. bar and machines.
	HR Manager	I would like to see the club offer traineeships to staff, thus providing them formal qualifications as a means of retaining staff.
Club 2	CEO	We are hoping to draw on the experience of other jurisdictions with smoking legislation and learn from this experience.

	HR Manager	Ensuring our staff have the necessary inter-personal skills to cope with problems that will undoubtedly arise as a result of new legislation.
Club 3	CEO	Learn from the experience of other jurisdictions with regards to the smoking legislation – will produce a short-term downturn in revenue. Look at career paths in order to retain staff.
Club 4	CEO	Built up a contingency fund to cover expected losses from smoking legislation. Creating specific areas, isolated from main club area and ventilation system.
	HR Manager	Ensuring staff are knowledgeable about legislation. Continuing with traineeships to (a) ensure that our staff are trained to meet the challenges of management and (b) to provide staff with a structured career path. Provide staff who have come through the trainee system with opportunities to broaden their experience in the club.
<b>7. Do you have a training budget Yes/No? How is it determined and administered?</b>		
Club 1	CEO & HR Manager	Yes, we have a budget which is determined on an annual basis, based on what has been spent previously. The budget is determined by the financial controller for the CEO who seeks Board approval. Control of the budget lies with the HR Manager and the Financial Controller
Club 2	CEO & HR Manager	Yes, we have a budget which is based on the annual HR Report. It is primarily developed by the CEO with the HR Manager having management responsibility.
Club 3	CEO	Yes, which is developed by the HR Manager and Operations Manager. Management of the budget resides with the HR Manager.
Club 4	CEO & HR Manager	Yes. Board allows Senior management to invest what is required to train staff and retain them. Receive government subsidy on trainees. Budget set by CEO and administered by HR Manager.

## References

- Allee, V. (1997). *The Knowledge Evolution: Expanding Organizational Intelligence*, Butterworth-Heinemann, Boston
- Anderson, P. (1999). "Complexity Theory and Organization Science", *Organization Science*, 10(3): 216-232
- Al-Mailam, F. (2004). "Transactional Versus Transformational Style of Leadership—Employee Perception of Leadership Efficacy in Public and Private Hospitals in Kuwait", *Quality Management In Health Care*, 13(4): 278-284
- Alvesson, M. (2002). *Understanding Organizational Culture*, Sage Publications, London UK
- Alvesson, M. & Karreman, D. (2001). "Odd couple: making sense of the curious concept of knowledge management", *Journal of Management Studies*, 38(7), 995-1018
- Argyris, C. (1977). 'Double Loop Learning in Organizations', *Harvard Business Review*, 55(5): 115-125
- Argyris, C. (1980). *Inner contradictions of rigorous research*, Wiley-Interscience, New York
- Argyris, C. (1990). *Overcoming Organizational Defenses: Facilitating Organizational Learning*, Allyn and Bacon, Needham Heights
- Argyris, C. (1994). "Good Communication that Blocks Learning", *Harvard Business Review*, 72(4): 77-85
- Argyris, C. & Schon, D. (1974). *Theory in Practice: Increasing Professional Effectiveness*, Jossey-Bass, San Francisco
- Argyris, C. & Schon, D. (1978). *Organizational Learning; A Theory of Action Perspective*. Addison-Wesley, Massachusetts.
- Armstrong, A. & Foley, P. (2003). "Foundations for a learning organization: organization learning mechanisms". *The Learning Organization*, 10(2): 74-82
- Australian Bureau of Statistics, 2006 Census QuickStats : Australia
- Babbie, E. (2004). *The Practice of Social Research*, 10<sup>th</sup> Ed. Wadsworth/Thomson Learning, Belmont CA
- Barnard, C. I. (1938). *The Functions of the Executive*, Harvard, Cambridge Mass.
- Barnard, P.J. Scott, S. Taylor, J. May, J. & Knightley, W. (2004). "Paying Attention to Meaning", *Psychological Science*, 15(3): 179-186
- Barnett, M.S. & Ceci, S.J. (2002). "When and where do we apply what we learn? A taxonomy for far transfer". *Psychological Bulletin*, 128(4): 612-637.
- Barrows, C.W. & Walsh, J. (2002). "'Bridging the gap' between hospitality management programmes and the private club industry", *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 14(3): 120-127
- Bass, B.M. (1981). "From Transactional to Transformational Leadership: Learning to Share the Vision", in Vecchio, R. (1997). *Leadership: understanding the*

- dynamics of power and influence in organizations*, University of Notre Dame, Notre Dame
- Bass, B.M. (1985). *Leadership and Performance Beyond Expectations*, Free Press, New York
- Bass, B.M. (2000). "The future of leadership in learning organizations", *Journal of Leadership Studies*, 7(3): 18-40.
- Bass, B.M. & Avolio, B.J. (1989). "Potential biases in leadership measures: how prototypes, leniency, and general satisfaction relate to ratings and transformational and transactional leadership constructs", *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, 49(3): 509-527
- Becker, H.S. (1968). "Social Observation and Social Case Studies" in *International Encyclopedia of the Social Sciences*, Vol. 11, New York, Crowell
- Bell, J. (1992). *Doing Your Research Project: A guide for first-time researchers in education and social sciences*, Open University Press, Buckingham, UK
- Bennis, W.G. (1989) *On Becoming a Leader*, Century Business, UK.
- Berg, B.L. (2004). *Qualitative Research Methods for the Social Sciences*, 5<sup>th</sup> Ed. Pearson Education Inc.
- Blackman, D. Connelly, J. & Henderson, S. (2004). "Does Double loop learning create reliable knowledge", *The Learning Organization*, 11(1):11-27
- Blank, W.(1995). *The Nine Natural Laws of Leadership*, AMACON, New York
- Block, P. (1993). *Stewardship: Choosing service over Self-Interes*, Berrett-Noehler Publishers, San Francisco.
- Boal, K. & Bryson, J. (1988). "Charismatic Leadership: A Phenomenological and Structural Approach", in Hunt, J.G. (ed) *Emerging Leadership Vistas*, D.C Heath and Company
- Boyett, J. & Boyett, J. (1998). *The Guru Guide*, John Wiley and Sons, Inc. New York
- Brohm, R.(2005) *Polycentric Order in Organizations*, published dissertation by ERIM, Erasmus University Rotterdam: Rotterdam, <http://hdl.handle.net/1765/6911> (site visited 16 November 2007)
- Bryman A. (1992). *Charisma and Leadership of Organizations*, Sage, London
- Bryman, A. (1997). "Leadership in Organizations", In SR Clegg, C. Hardy, & WR Nord (Eds.). *Handbook of Organization Studies* (277-292). Sage Publications, London
- Burchell, R.N. (2004). *Patterns of stability and change orientations in organisational culture: a case study*. The University of Auckland, Auckland, New Zealand
- Burchell, R.N. & Saele, C. (2007). "Organisational cultural diagnosis: Merits of employing the Competing Values Framework (CVF) in conjunction with shared values profiling". Paper presented at ANZAM Conference, Sydney 2007
- Burns, J.M. (1978). *Leadership*, Harper and Row, New York
- Butler, T.J. & Pinto-Zipp, G. (2005-2006). "Students' learning styles and their preferences for online instructional methods", *Journal of Educational Technology Systems*, 34(2): 199-221

- Byers, R. (1999). *Learning Organizations and Corporate Performance in Australia*. Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation
- Carroll, L. (1865) *Alice in Wonderland*, This edition printed by Paragon Publishing 2006, Bath UK
- Chapman, J.A. & Lovell, G. (2006). "The competency model of hospitality service: why it doesn't deliver", *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 18(1): 78-88
- ClubsACT <http://www.clubsact.com.au/industry/community.php> (Site visited 7 February 2008)
- ClubsNSW <http://www.clubsnsw.com.au/default.jsp?xcid=201> (Site visited 7 February 2008)
- Cohen, J. (1988). *Statistical power analysis for the behavioral sciences* (2nd ed.). Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Earlbaum Associates
- Conger, J.A. (1989) *The charismatic leader: behind the mystique of exceptional leadership*, 1<sup>st</sup> Ed. Jossey-Bass Publishers, San Francisco
- Conger, J.A. & Kanungo, R.A. (1987). "Toward a Behavioural Theory of Charismatic Leadership in Organizational Settings", *Academy of Management Review*, 12(4): 637-647
- Daft, R.L. & Lewin, A.Y. (1990). "Can organization studies begin to break out of the normal science straitjacket": An editorial essay. *Organization Science*, 1(1): 1-9
- Dalmau, T. & Dick. R. (1989). *To Tame a Unicorn*. Interchange, Chapel Hill, Queensland.
- De Geus, A. (1997). *The Living Company*, Longview Publishing Limited
- De Vaus, D.A. (1990). *Surveys in Social Research*, 2<sup>nd</sup> Ed. Allen and Unwin, Sydney
- Deal, T. & Kennedy, A. (1982). *Corporate Cultures*, Penguin Books Australia Ltd.
- Denton, J. (1998). *Organizational Learning and Effectiveness*, Routledge, London.
- Denzin, N.K. (1970). "The Research Act: A Theoretical Introduction to Sociological Methods", in Merriam, S. B. (1988, p. 73). *Case Study Research in Education: A qualitative approach*, Jossey-Bass Inc. Publishers, California, USA.
- Denzin, N.K. & Lincoln, Y.S. (1994). *Handbook of Qualitative Research*, Sage Publications, Thousand Oaks.
- Department of Education, Employment and Workplace Relations, (2007). [http://www.getatrade.gov.au/skills\\_needs.htm](http://www.getatrade.gov.au/skills_needs.htm)
- DiBella, A.J. (1995). "Developing Learning Organizations: A Matter of Perspective." *Academy of Management Journal*, (Best papers Proceedings 1995): 287-290.
- Drucker, P.F. (1954). *The Practice of Management*, Harper and Row, New York.
- Drucker, P.F. (1969). *The age of discontinuity: guidelines to our changing society*, Harper and Row, New York NY.
- Drucker, P.F. (1972). *Concepts of the Corporation*, Rev. ed. John Day Company, New York.

- Drucker, P.F. (1992). "The new society of organizations", *Harvard Business Review*, 70(5): 95-105
- Drucker, P.F. (1993) *Post Capitalist Society*, Harper Collins Publishers, New York.
- Dunoon, D. (2002). "Rethinking Leadership for the Public Sector", *Australian Journal of Public Administration*, 61(3): 3-18
- Dunphy, D.C. (1981). *Organizational Change by Choice*, McGraw-Hill Book Company Australia
- Dunphy, D.C. & Stace, D. (1992). *Under New Management: Australian Organizations in Transition*, McGraw-Hill Book Company, Australia Pty Limited
- Dymock, D. & McCarthy, C. (2006). "Towards a learning organization? Employee perceptions", *The Learning Organization*, 13(5): 525-536
- Eisenstadt, S. (1968). *Max Weber: On charisma and institution building*, University Press, Chicago
- Erickson, D.M. (2007). "A Developmental Re-Forming Of The Phases Of Meaning In Transformational Learning", *Adult Education Quarterly*, 58(1): 61-80
- Fahey, L. & Prusak, L. (1998). "The eleven deadliest sins of knowledge management", *California Management Review*, 71(6): 97-108
- Farago, J. & Skyrme, D.J. (1995). "The Learning Organization", *Management Insight* No. 3, <http://www.skyrme.com/insights/3lrnorg.htm> (Site visited 20 May 2004)
- Fayol, H. (1916). *General and Industrial Management*, trans. Constance Storrs (London: Pitman Publishing, Ltd. 1949) in Shafritz, J. M. & Ott, J. S. (1987). *Classics of Organization Theory*, The Dorsey Press
- Field, L. & Ford, B. (1995). *Managing Organizational Learning: From Rhetoric to Reality*, Longman Australia, Melbourne
- Fielding, J. & Gilbert, N. (2005). *Understanding Social Statistics*, 2<sup>nd</sup> Ed. Sage Publications, London
- Fiol, C.M. & Lyles, M.A. (1985). "Organizational Learning", *Academy of Management Review*, 10(4): 803-813
- Flick, U. (2002). *An Introduction to Qualitative Research*, 2<sup>nd</sup> Ed. Sage Publications, London
- Flick, U. (2006). *An Introduction to Qualitative Research*, 3<sup>rd</sup> Ed. Sage Publications, London
- Follett, M.P. (1918). *The New State: Group Organization the Solution of Popular Government*, in Robbins, S. P. Bergman, R. & Stagg, I. (1997) *Management*, Prentice Hall Australia
- Forrest, S.P. & Peterson, T.O. (2006). "It's Called Andragogy", *Academy of Management Learning & Education*, 5(1): 113-122.
- Forrester, J. (1994). "Learning through Systems Dynamics as Preparation for the Twenty-First Century" Keynote address at the Systems Thinking and Dynamic Modelling Conference for K-12 Education, Concord Academy, Concord, Mass. June 27-29, 1994

- Gall, M.D. Borg, W.R. & Gall, J.P. (1996). *Educational Research; An introduction*, 6<sup>th</sup> ed. Longman Publishers, USA.
- Garavaglia, P. (1995). Transfer of Training: Making Training Work. INFO-LINE *Practical guidelines for Training and Development professionals*. December. Virginia: American Society for Training and Development
- Gardner, W.L. & Avolio, B.J. (1998). "The Charismatic Relationship: A Dramaturgical Perspective". *Academy of Management Review* 23(1), 32-58.
- Garratt, B. (1987). *The Learning Organization*, Harper Collins Publishers, London
- Garratt, B. (1995). "An old idea that has come of age". *People Management*; 1(19), p25,
- Garvin, D. (January 1993). "Building a Learning Organization" *Harvard Business Review*, 71(4): 78-01
- Glesne, C. & Peshkin, A. (1992). *Becoming Qualitative Researchers: An introduction*, Longman Publishing Group
- Graham, C.M. & Nafukho, F.M. (2007.) "Employees' perception toward the dimension of culture in enhancing organizational learning", *The Learning Organization*, 14(3): 281-292
- Gravetter, F.J. & Wallnau, L.B. (2005). *Essentials of Statistics for the Behavioural Sciences*, 5<sup>th</sup> Edition, Wadsworth/Thomson Learning, Belmont CA
- Gravetter, F.J. & Forzano, A.B. (2006). *Research Methods for the Behavioral Sciences*, Wadsworth/Thomson Learning, Belmont CA
- Greenleaf, R. (1977). *Servant Leadership: A Journey into the Nature of Legitimate Power and Greatness*, Paulist Press, New York
- Griego, O. Geroy, G. & Wright, P. (2000). Predictors of learning organizations: a human resource development practitioner's perspective, *The Learning Organization*, 7(1): 5-12
- Guba, E.G. & Lincoln, Y.S. (1981) *Effective Evaluation*, Jossey-Bass, San Francisco
- Gustafson, C.M. (2002). "Employee turnover: a study of private clubs in the USA", *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 14(3): 106-113
- Hair, J. E. Anderson, R.E. Tatham, R.L. & Black, W.C. (1995). *Multivariate Data Analysis with Readings*. 4<sup>th</sup> Ed. Prentice-Hall, Inc. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey
- Handy, C. (1991). *Gods of Management*, 3<sup>rd</sup> Ed. Random House, London
- Handy, C. (1993). *Understanding Organizations*, 4<sup>th</sup> Ed. Penguin Books Australia, Melbourne
- Harrison, R. (1972) "How to Describe Your Organization" *Harvard Business Review*, 50(3): 119-128
- Harrison, R. & Stokes, H. (1992) *Diagnosing organizational culture*, Pfeiffer & Co San Diego, CA
- Henderson, S. (1997) "Black swans don't fly double loops: the limits of the learning organization?" , *The Learning Organization*, 4(3): 99-105

- Herzberg, F. (1968). "One more time: How do you motivate employees?", *Harvard Business Review*, 46(1), 53-62
- Herzberg, F. Mausner, B. & Snyderman, B. (1959). *The Motivation to Work*, 2<sup>nd</sup> Ed. Wiley, New York.
- Hofstede, G. (1984). *Culture's Consequences: International Differences in Work-related Values*, abridged edition, Beverley Hills CA, Sage Publications
- Hofstede, G. (1991). *Cultures and Organizations: Software of the Mind*, McGraw-Hill Book Company.
- Honey, P. & Mumford, A. (1996). *How to Manage Your Learning Environment*, England, Honey
- House, R.J. (1977). "A 1976 theory of charismatic leadership", in Hunt, J.G. (Ed) *Leadership: the Cutting Edge*, University Press, Southern Illinois
- Howell, J.M. & Shamir, B. (2005) "The Role of Followers in the Charismatic Leadership Process: Relationships and Their Consequences", *Academy of Management Review*, 30(1): 96-112.
- Huber, G.P. (1991). "Organizational Learning: The Contributing Processes and the Literatures" *Organization Science*, 2(1): 88-115
- Jaisingh, L. (2006). *Statistics for the Utterly Confused*, McGraw-Hill Education, Europe
- Jaques, E. (1989). *Requisite Organization*, Casson-Hall Associates, Arlington, Virginia.
- Jarvis, P. (1987). *Adult Learning in the Social Context*, Croom Helm, Australia
- Jones, B. (1995). *Sleepers Awake: Technology and the Future of Work*. Oxford University Press, Australia
- Kanter, R.B. (1983). *The Changemasters*, Simon and Schuster, New York
- Karpin, D. (1995). *Enterprising nation: renewing Australia's managers to meet the challenges of the Asia-Pacific century*. Report of the Industry task Force on Leadership and Management Skills. AGPS, Canberra
- Kast, F.E. & Rosenzweig, J.E. (1985). *Organization and Management: A Systems and Contingency Approach*, McGraw-Hill Book Co. Singapore
- Katzenbach, J.R. & Smith, D.K. (1994). *The Wisdom of Teams*, McGraw-Hill Book Co. Singapore
- Kilmann, R.H. Saxton, M.J. & Serpa, R. (1986). "Issues in Understanding and Changing Culture", *California Management Review*, 28(2): 87-94
- Kim, D.H. (1993). "The Link between Individual and Organizational Learning", *Sloan Management Review*, 35(1): 37-50.
- Kim, Y. & Baylor, A. (2006). "A Social-Cognitive Framework for Pedagogical Agents as Learning Companions", *Educational Technology Research and Development*, 54(6): 569-596
- King, W. (2001). "Strategies for creating a learning organization", *Information Systems Management*, 18(1): 12-20

- Kline, P., & Saunders, B. (1993). *Ten Steps to a Learning Organization*, Great Ocean, Virginia
- Knowles, M. (1990) *The Adult Learner: A Neglected Species*, 4<sup>th</sup> Ed. Gulf Publishing Company, Texas
- Kofman, F. & Senge, P. (1993). “Communities of Commitment”, *Organizational Dynamics*, 22(2): 5-23
- Kolb, D.A. (1984). *Experiential learning: Experience as the Source of Learning and Development*, Prentice-Hall, Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey
- Kotter, J.P. (1990). *A Force for Change: How Leadership Differs From Management*, The Free Press, New York
- Kotter, J.P. & Heskett, J.L. (1992). *Corporate Culture and Performance*, Free Press, New York.
- Kotterman, J. (2006) “Leadership Versus Management: What’s the Difference”, *Journal for Quality and Participation*, 29(2): 13-17
- Kouzes, J.M. & Posner, B.Z. (1995). *The Leadership Challenge*, Jossey-Bass, San Francisco
- Krueger, R.A. (1988). “Focus Groups: A practical guide for applied research”, in Limerick, D. Cunnington, B. & Crowther, F. (1998). *Managing the New Organisation*, Business and Professional Publishing, Australia
- Kyriakidou, O. & Gore, J. (2005). “Learning by example: Benchmarking organizational culture in hospitality, tourism and leisure SMEs”, *Benchmarking: An International Journal*, 12(3): 192-206
- Latham, G.P. & Locke, E.A. (1979). “Goal Setting – A Motivational Technique That Works”, *Organizational Dynamics*, 8(2): 120-133
- Leontiev, D.A. (2005). “Three Facets of Meaning”, *Journal of Russian and East European Psychology*, 43(6): 45-72
- Levin, S. (1995). *Basics of electronic performance support systems*. ASTD. Alexandria, VA.
- Limerick, D. Cunnington, B. & Crowther, F. (1998). *Managing the New Organisation*, 2<sup>nd</sup> Ed. Business and Professional Publishing, Warriewood 2102 Australia
- Luthans, F. (1992). *Organizational Behaviour*, 6<sup>th</sup> Ed. McGraw-Hill Book Co. Singapore
- Maccoby, M. (2003). “The Seventh Rule: Create a Learning Culture”, *Research Technology Management*, 46(3): 59-60
- MacDonald, B. & Walker, R. (1977) “Case Study and Social Philosophy of Educational Research” in D. Hamilton & others (eds.). *Beyond the Numbers Game*, Macmillan Education, London,
- McGregor, D. (1960). *The Human Side of Enterprise*, McGraw-Hill Book Company, New York

- Manochehri, N. & Young, J. (2006). "The impact of student learning styles with web-based learning or instructor-based learning on student knowledge and satisfaction", *The Quarterly Review of Distance Education*, 7(3): 313–316
- Marquardt, M. (1996). *Building the Learning Organization*, McGraw-Hill, New York
- Marquardt, M. (2002). *Building the Learning Organization: Mastering the 5 Elements for Corporate Learning*, Davies-Black Publishing, Palo Alto, California
- Marquardt, M. & Kearsley, G. (1999). *Technology-Based Learning: Maximizing Human Performance and Corporate Success*, CRC Press LLC, Boca Ratan, Florida
- Martin, J. (1992). *Culture in Organizations*, Oxford University Press, New York
- Maslow, A.B. (1970). *Motivation and Personality*, 2<sup>nd</sup> ed. Harper & Row, New York
- Mayo, E. (1933). *The Human Problems of an Industrial Civilization*, in Mitchell, T.R. Dowling, P.J. Kabanoff, B.V. & Larson, J.R. (1988). *People in Organizations: An Introduction to Organizational Behaviour in Australia*, McGraw-Hill Book Company, Sydney
- Merriam, S.B. (1988). *Case Study Research in Education: A Qualitative Approach*, Jossey-Bass, San Francisco
- Merriam, S.B. (2001). "Andragogy and Self-Directed Learning: Pillars of Adult Learning", *New Directions for Adult and Continuing Education*, 96 (Spring 2001): 3-14
- Mestre, L. (2006). "Accommodating diverse learning styles in an online environment", *Reference and User Services Quarterly*, 46(2): 27-32
- Miller, F.J. (2002). "I = 0 (Information has no intrinsic meaning)", *Information Research*, 8(1), paper no. 140 [Available at <http://InformationR.net/ir/8-1/paper140.html>]
- Mitchell, T.R., Dowling, P.J., Kabanoff, B.V. & Larson, J.R. (1988). *People in Organizations: An introduction to organizational behaviour in Australia*, McGraw-Hill Book Company Australia
- Nadler, D. & Tushman, M.L. (1990). "Beyond the Charismatic Leader: Leadership and Organizational Change", *California Management Review*, 32(2): 77-97
- Nonaka, I. (1991). "The knowledge creating company", *Harvard Business Review*, 69(6): 96-104
- Nonaka, I. & Takeuchi, H. (1995). *The knowledge creating company: how Japanese companies create the dynasties of innovation*, Oxford University Press, Oxford
- Ohm, K. (2006). "Leadership and Culture: The close connection", *Leadership*, 36(1): 15-27
- Oliver, R. (2005). "Quality assurance and e-learning: blue skies and pragmatism", *Research in Learning Technology*, 13(3): 173–187
- Ortenblad, A. (2004). "The learning organization: towards an integrated model", *The Learning Organization*, 11(2): 129-144
- Owen, H. (1991). *Riding the Tiger*, Abbott Publishing, Potomac, Md. :

- Pedler, M. Burgoyne, J. & Boydell, T. (1991). *The Learning Company: A Strategy for Sustainable Development* 2<sup>nd</sup> Ed. McGraw-Hill Publishing Company, London
- Piaget, J. (1970). *Science of Education and the Education of the Child*, Viking, New York
- Polanyi, M. (1962). *Personal Knowledge: Towards A Post-Critical Philosophy*. Routledge & Kegan Paul, 1962, London
- Pugh, K.J. & Bergin, D.A. (2006). "Motivational Influences on Transfer", *Educational Psychologist*, 41(3): 147–160
- Punch, K.F. (2005). *Introduction to Social Research: Quantitative and Qualitative Approaches*, 2<sup>nd</sup> Ed. Sage Publications London, UK
- Quinn, R.E. & Rohrbaugh, J. (1983). "A spatial model of effectiveness criteria: Towards a competing values approach to organizational analysis", *Management Science*, 29(3); 363-377.
- Robbins, S.P. Bergman, R. & Stagg, I. (1997). *Management*, Prentice Hall, Australia Pty Ltd
- Roethlisberger, F.J. & Dickson, W.V. (1939). *Management and the Worker*, in Mitchell, T.R. Dowling, P.J. Kabanoff, B.V. & Larson, J.R. (1988). *People in Organizations: A Introduction to Organizational Behaviour in Australia*, McGraw-Hill Book Company, Sydney
- Ross, J. & Schultz, R. (1999). "Can computer-aided instruction accommodate all learners equally?", *British Journal of Educational Technology*, 30(1): 5–24
- Salkind, N.J. (2008). *Statistics for People Who (think they) Hate Statistics*, 3<sup>rd</sup> Ed. Sage Publications
- Sashkin, M. (1988). *The Visionary Leader*, in Conger, J.A. & Kanungo R.N. (eds). *Charismatic Leadership: The Elusive Factor in Organizational Effectiveness*, Jossey-Bass, San Francisco
- Sax, G. (1979). *Foundations of Educational Research*, Prentice-Hall, Inc. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey.
- Schein, E.H. (1985), *Organizational Culture and Leadership*, Jossey-Bass, San Francisco.
- Schein, E. H. (1990). "Organizational Culture", *American Psychologist*, 45(2): 109-119.
- Schein, E. H. (1992). *Organizational Culture and Leadership*, Jossey-Bass, San Francisco.
- Schein, E. H. (1994). Organizational and Managerial Culture as a Facilitator or Inhibitor of Organizational Learning, MIT Organizational Learning Network Working Paper 10.004 (May 19, 1994). <http://learning.mit.edu/res/wp/10004.html> (Site visited 4 June 1999)
- Schein, E. H. (2004). *Organizational Culture and Leadership*, Jossey-Bass, San Francisco.
- Scholz, R.W. & Tietje, O. (2002). *Embedded Case Study Methods: Integrating quantitative and qualitative knowledge*, Sage Publications, Inc. Thousand Oaks, CA

- Senge, P. (1990a). "The Leader's New Work: Building Learning Organizations", *Sloan Management Review*, 32(1): 7-24
- Senge, P. (1990b). *The Fifth Discipline: The art and practice of the learning organization*, Random House, Australia
- Senge, P. (1997). Foreword in De Geus, A. (1997). *The Living Company*, Longview Publishing Limited
- Senge, P. (2006). *The Fifth Discipline: The art and practice of the learning organization*, 2<sup>nd</sup> edition, Random House, Australia
- Shafritz, J.M. and Ott, J.S. (1987). *Classics of Organization Theory*, 2<sup>nd</sup> Edition, Revised and Expanded Brooks/Cole Publishing Company, Pacific Grove, California
- Shariq, S.Z. (1999). "How does knowledge transform as it is transferred? Speculations on the possibility of a cognitive theory of knowledgescapes." *Journal of Knowledge Management*, 3(4): 243-251
- Sharp, D. (2002). "Kipling's Guide to Writing a Scientific Paper", *Croatian Medical Journal*, 43(3):262-267
- Shaw, K.E. (1978). "Understanding the Curriculum: The Approach Through Case Studies", *Journal of Curriculum Studies*, 10(1): 1-17
- Smith, B.N. Montagno, R.V. & Kuzmenko, T.N. (2004). "Transformational and servant leadership: content and contextual comparisons", *Journal of Leadership and Organizational Studies*, 10(4): 80-91.
- Smith, M.K. (2003). 'Michael Polanyi and tacit knowledge', *the encyclopedia of informal education*, [www.infed.org/thinkers/polanyi.htm](http://www.infed.org/thinkers/polanyi.htm). (Site visited 18 November 2007)
- Sofo, F. (1999). *Human Resource Development; perspectives, roles and practice choices*. Allen and Unwin, Sydney
- Sofo, F. (2007a). "Transfer of training: a case-study of outsourced training for staff from Bhutan", *International Journal of Training and Development*, 11(2), 103-119
- Sofo, F. (2007b) "Gaining the most from learning: near and far learning transfer among managers, academic and technical staff", Paper presented at ANZAM Conference, Sydney 2007
- Stake, R.E. (1981). "Case Study Methodology: An Epistemological Advocacy", in Merriam, S. B. (1988, p. 104). *Case Study Research in Education: A qualitative approach*, Jossey-Bass Inc. Publishers, California, USA
- Stake, R.E. (1995). *The Art of Case Study Research*, Sage Publications, Thousand Oaks, California
- Stata, R. (1989). "Organizational Learning – The Key to Management Innovation", *Sloan Management Review*, 30(3): 63-74
- Stinson, L. Pearson, D. & Lucas, B. (2006). "Developing a learning culture: twelve tips for individuals, teams and organizations", *Medical Teacher*, 28(4), 309–312

- Stone, A.G. Russell, R.F. & Patterson, K. (2003). "Transformational versus servant leadership: a difference in leader focus", *The Leadership & Organization Development Journal*, 25(4): 349-36
- Stoner, J.A.F. Yetton, P.W. Craig, J.F. & Johnston, K.D. (1994). *Management*, 2<sup>nd</sup> Edition, Prentice Hall Australia
- Sun, S. Joy, M.S. & Griffiths, N.E. (2007). "The Use of Learning Objects and Learning Styles in a Multi-Agent Education System", *Journal of Interactive Learning Research*, 18(3): 381-398
- Sveiby, K.E. (2001a). What is Knowledge Management? Brisbane: Sveiby Knowledge Associates. Available at: <http://www.sveiby.com/TheLibrary/FAQs/tabid/85/Default.aspx#Whatis> [Site visited 30 October 2007]
- Sveiby, K.E. (2001b). What is Knowledge Management? Brisbane: Sveiby Knowledge Associates. Available at: <http://www.sveiby.com/TheLibrary/FAQs/tabid/85/Default.aspx#Whyshould> [Site visited 30 October 2007]
- Swieringa, J. & Wierdsma, A. (1992). *Becoming a Learning Organization. Beyond the Learning Curve*. Addison-Wesley Publishing Company, Workingham
- Takala, T. (2005) "Charismatic Leadership and Power", *Problems and Perspectives in Management*, 3/2005: 45-57
- Taylor, F.W. (1911). "The Principles of Scientific Management". In F. Luthans, (1992). *Organizational Behavior*, McGraw-Hill Book Co. Singapore
- Teare, R. & Dealtry, R. (1998). "Building and sustaining a learning organization", *The Learning Organization*, 5(1): 47-60
- Teare, R. & O'Hern, J. (2000). "Challenges for service leaders: setting the agenda for the virtual learning organization". *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 12(2): 97-106
- Toffler, A. (1970) *Future Shock*. Bantam Books, New York
- Travers, M. (2001). *Qualitative Research Through Case Studies*, Sage, London
- Trist, E.L. & Bamforth, K.W. (1951). "Some Social and Psychological Consequences of the Longwall Method of Coal-Getting." *Human Relations* 4 1954: 3-38.
- Trompenaars, F. (1993). *Riding the Waves of Culture: Understanding Cultural Diversity in Business*, Nicholas Brealey Publishing, London
- Ulrich, D. Von Gilnow, M.A. & Jick, T. (1993). "High-impact learning: Building and diffusing learning capability", *Organizational Dynamics*, 22(20): 52-56
- Urban, T. & Keys, J.B. (1994). "The Live Case Method of Creating the Learning Organization", *Journal of Management Development*, 13(8): 44-49.
- Usher, R. & Bryant, I. (1989). *Adult Education as Theory, Practice and Research*, Routledge, London
- Van der Wagen, L. (2006). "Vocational curriculum for Australian service industries: Standardised learning for diverse service environments", *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Management*, 13(1): 85-96

- Vardon, S. Chief Executive Officer, Centrelink, address to the ACT Public Sector Quality Network 21 October 1998
- Velada, R. & Caetano, A. (2007). "Training transfer: the mediating role of perception of learning", *Journal of European Industrial Training*, 31(4): 283-296
- Walker, J.W. (1992). *Human Resource Strategy*, McGraw-Hill International Editions, Singapore
- Watkins, K.E. & Marsik, V.J. (1996). *Creating the Learning Organization*, Virginia, ASTD
- Weber, M. *The Theory of Social and Economic Organization*, edited and translated by T. Parsons, Free Press, New York, 1947, in Dunphy, D. & Stace, D. (1992). *Under New Management: Australian Organizations in Transition*, McGraw-Hill Book Company, Sydney.
- Weick, K.E. & Westley, H.J. (1996). "Organizational Learning: Affirming an Oxymoron." In SR Clegg, C. Hardy, & W.R Nord (Eds.). *Handbook of Organization Studies* (pp. 440-458). London, Sage.
- Wellins, R.S. Byham, W.C. & Wilson, J.M. (1991). *Empowered Teams*, Jossey-Bass Inc. Publishers, San Francisco.
- Wiersma, W. (1995). *Research Methods in Education*, Allyn and Bacon, Massachusetts, USA
- Wilner, A. (1984). *The Spellbinders: Charismatic political leadership*, Yale University Press, New Haven
- Wilson, B. (1988). "Organization and Business Development through Action Learning" *International Journal of Bank Marketing*, 6(5): 57-66
- Wilson, S. (1979). "Explorations of the Usefulness of Case Study Evaluations", *Evaluation Quarterly*, 3: 446-459
- Wilson, T.D. (2002). "The nonsense of 'knowledge management'" *Information Research*, 8(1), paper no. 144 [Available at <http://InformationR.net/ir/8-1/paper144.html>]
- Wolfe, P. (2006). "The Role of Meaning and Emotion in Learning", *New Directions For Adult And Continuing Education*, 110(Summer 2006): 35-41
- Woodbury, T.J. (2006) "Building Organizational Culture – Word by Word", *Leader to Leader*, 2006(39): 48-54
- Yates, S.J. (2004). *Introduction to Social Research*, Sage Publications, London
- Yin, R.K. (2003). *Case Study Research: Design and Methods*, 3<sup>rd</sup> Edition, Sage Publications, California
- York, B. (2002). "Private club trends in the USA – A statistical review" *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 14(3): 147-151
- Zaleznik, A. (1977) "Managers and Leaders: Are they different", *Harvard Business Review*, 55(3): 67-78
- Zikmund, W.G. (2003). *Business Research Methods*, 7<sup>th</sup> Ed. The Dryden Press, USA