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DISSERTATION

FAR AND CREATIVE LEARNING TRANSFER IN MANAGEMENT
DEVELOPMENT INTERVENTIONS: AN ECOLOGICAL TRIANGULATION
APPROACH TO QUALITATIVE META-SYNTHESIS

Submitted by

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School of Education

In partial fulfillment of the requirements

For the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy

Colorado State University

Fort Collins, Colorado

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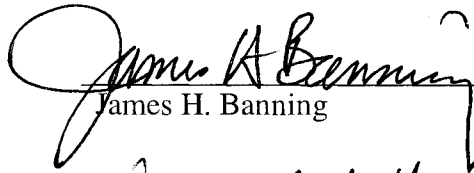
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ABSTRACT OF DISSERTATION

FAR AND CREATIVE LEARNING TRANSFER IN MANAGEMENT DEVELOPMENT INTERVENTIONS: AN ECOLOGICAL TRIANGULATION APPROACH TO QUALITATIVE META-SYNTHESIS

This meta-synthesis utilized a sample of studies on organization-sponsored management development interventions implemented in United States, Canada, United Kingdom and European organizations. The sample of studies consisted of published articles in peer-reviewed journals and doctoral dissertations. This study explored the following question: What management development interventions have demonstrated what results, in terms of adaptive and/or creative transfer, with what learner characteristics, in what settings, and using what theoretical frameworks?

There are three primary interpretations made based on this study. The first is that in order to attain higher (or deeper) levels of learning transfer, managers and their respective organizations must think differently. The second is that it may be beneficial to apply measures focused on the group and organizational units of analysis, and that are extended over the long term using a mixed methodology. Finally, knowledge and skills found at the lower levels of learning transfer (i.e., application) are easily trained utilizing formal methods. Higher levels or deeper levels of learning transfer, however, must be approached holistically and ecologically; that is, the “hard to train” skills are those found at the higher end of the transfer scheme (i.e., interpersonal skills) and involve cognitive, emotional, behavioral, and environmental factors.

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Table of Contents

Topic	Page
Introduction	4
Background/Overview	4
Statement of Research Problem	16
Research Question	17
Definition of terms	18
Limitations and Delimitations	19
Significance of Research	19
Literature Review	21
Organizational Management	21
Role of Manager	23
Organizational Environment	25
Management Development	26
Foundational models of transfer	33
Far Transfer	38
Scheme & Information Processing Theories	38
Analogical Transfer	39
Memory Theories	42
Creative Transfer	45
Creativity Theory	47
Ecological Thinking	50
Relationship Between Ecological Thinking and Creative Transfer	51
Method	55
Research Design	57
Sample Selection	59
Data Collection	60
Search Strategy	60
Data Analysis	61
Inclusion criteria	62
Data display	62
Quality assessment criteria	63
Review protocol	64
Data synthesis	65
Validity	66
DIAD	68
Results	70
Discussion	157
References	170

“In one sense, we are all experts in transfer, yet in another and more important sense, we are all lacking in higher order transfer skills. The more skilled we are in transfer, the more creative and efficient is our thinking and performance.”

The statement above, by Haskell (2000), has far reaching implications with regard to the nature of organizational performance improvement. According to Holton and Baldwin (2003), performance improvement occurs through learning. In other words, the transfer of learning can be viewed as a critical building block for performance improvement (Holton, Baldwin, Naquin, 2000), as well as the change process (Gilley and Maycunich, 2000); both of which are critical success factors in organizations today. The individuals within organizations that are accountable for performance improvement and managing the change process are the managers (at all levels).

Managers are called upon to drive performance improvement, manage change, and get results in an environment that consists of ever-increasing complexity and ambiguity (Gilley and Maycunich, 2000). Given this environment, managers must demonstrate deeper levels of thinking and cognitive processing, and the ability to apply creative problem solving (Haskell, 1998). In other words, the wide-ranging demands on managers within organizations require higher or deeper levels of learning transfer. The construct of learning transfer, therefore, must be understood in a way that supports the required development of managers in organizations today.

Background

The construct of transfer has been explored extensively, and has been a controversial topic throughout the twentieth century (De Corte, 2003). In its infancy, the construct of transfer was described by theorists as depending largely on the degree of

similarity between the learning situation and the situation in which the learning would be applied (i.e., the job tasks). Thorndike referred to this notion as “identical elements” (Thorndike and Woodworth, 1901; Thorndike, 1913). During the early stages of research on the construct, most studies could be found in the cognitive, education and instructional psychology arenas.

By the 1980’s, the construct of transfer began to emerge as a topic of interest in corporate training. Training theorists described “positive transfer of training,” (Baldwin & Ford, 1988), which was defined by generalization and maintenance, or in other words, “the degree to which trainees effectively apply the knowledge, skills, and attitudes gained in a training context to the job.....for transfer to have occurred, learned behavior must be generalized to the job context and maintained over a period of time on the job” (p. 63).

Broad & Newstrom (1992) framed training transfer in the context of organizations investing in training initiatives and gaining a return, or value from that investment. They defined transfer of training as “the effective and continuing application, by trainees to their jobs, of the knowledge and skills gained in training—both on and off the job” (p. 6). These authors also presented a model that demonstrated how training professionals, as well as trainees and managers impacted the ability to transfer before, during and after the training occurred (Broad and Newstrom). This model became a catalyst for future research on the conditions of transfer.

Even though many theorists have supported the existence of the construct, it is not without its opponents. Lave (1988) and Detterman (1993) both argued that the construct of transfer does not exist. Both authors argue that because knowledge and skills are contextual, they cannot be generalized or adapted. One recent author concurs that their

argument may have some merit based on the number of cases outlining experiences of employees being sent away for training, presumably learning new skills, only to return to their office and regress back into previous behavioral patterns (Kilburg, 2000).

These concerns notwithstanding, the notion of transfer potentially has profound implications for organizations that desire to remain competitive in what has come to be termed the knowledge economy (Drucker, 1985). The current reality facing organizations today requires a “reconceptualization of the transfer construct in terms of productive use of knowledge and skills in a variety of situations.....” (De Corte, 2003, p. 22). Our understanding of transfer continues to evolve beyond the traditional view, which has remained grounded in the original theory espoused—identical elements; or in other words, transfer is defined as applying knowledge and skills from one learning situation to a similar work situation (Bransford & Schwartz, 1999).

Mayer and Wittrock (1996) argued for a broader view of transfer. They suggested that “successful transfer occurs when the problem solver is able to recognize the requirements of the new problem; select previously learned specific and general skills that apply to the new problem, and monitor their application in solving the new problem” (p. 50). Similarly, Noe (1999) adapted a model developed by Baldwin and Ford (1988) and argued that if skills are learned and retained, then generalization and maintenance can occur. Further, Noe suggested that elements of transfer such as “training design, trainee characteristics, and the work environment influence learning, retention, maintenance, and generalization” (p. 152).

Holton and Baldwin (2003) designed a framework of the transfer system that places emphasis on intervention (versus description). The framework consists of the

three elements noted above: training design, trainee characteristics, and work environment. The authors contend that these “are essential to any transfer system” (p. 9). The one modification the authors made was in their description of “learner.” They defined learner as an individual or a team. Further Holton and Baldwin’s framework incorporated and expanded upon Broad & Newstrom’s (1992) model illustrating the stages for transfer (before, during, and after); the framework consists of five time-based stages.

Holton and Baldwin’s (2003) framework provides a systemic view of all of the elements and conditions associated with transfer. The authors’ purpose in designing the framework was to illuminate “how organizational systems can be changed to enhance transfer” (p. 5). This was fueled, according to the authors, by a lack of prescriptive, action-oriented academic literature, which has created a gap between researchers and organizational practitioners.

Haskell (1998), whose research is academic in nature, suggests that HRD transfer models have lacked a rigorous research base. He maintains, however, that one important characteristic found in the HRD model of transfer, which does not exist in the academic instructional model of transfer, is a “recognition of the organizational or social support systems for facilitating or sustaining transfer—if and when it should occur” (p. 37). Further, Haskell described the HRD literature as almost exclusively focusing on “organizational support of transfer and not on cognitive and instructional methods from the psychological research” whereas academic research places emphasis on “the individual, internal mental processes, instructional methods that seldom extend beyond the small group learning environment” (p. 37). Haskell suggests this may be due to the

fact that students in academic settings have no context of support (i.e. a job within a work environment) to facilitate transfer.

Like Holton & Baldwin (2003) and Haskell (1998), Bransford and Schwartz (1999) also argued for a more expansive view of transfer. Specifically, these authors provide a perspective that places emphasis on the ability to learn in new contexts, which presumes that learning is a dynamic, active and constructive process. The authors considered this view of transfer as “preparation for future learning.” Bransford and Schwartz’s stance is consistent with the definition posed by Hatano & Greeno (1999), who suggest the ability to learn in new contexts impacts the extent to which transfer occurs. In a similar vein, Ford & Weissbein (1997) leaped beyond the established indicators of transfer, generalization and maintenance, and suggested a third indicator of transfer: *Adaptation* (see table 1).

Adaptation is defined by Ford and Weissbein as the “capability to adjust one’s knowledge and skills in the face of novel situations or requirements. Further, they also called it the “capacity for learning how to learn” (p. 34). Most recently, De Corte (2003) supported the notion of transfer as adaptability by providing a conceptual definition of transfer as “the broad, productive, and supported use of acquired knowledge, skills, and motivations in new contexts and learning tasks” (p. 142).

Ford & Weissbein (1997) argued the need for future research with respect to the “adaptation” level of transfer. These authors referred to an earlier review of transfer literature by Baldwin & Ford (1988), which brought awareness to deficiencies or limitations in the literature regarding “the multidimensional nature of transfer and the limited operationalization of transfer constructs” (p. 23).

Generalized	Evidence of trained behaviors in response to dissimilar situations from those with which participants were trained.
Maintained	Changes in the form or level of knowledge, skills or behaviors demonstrated in the transfer setting as a function of time elapsed from the completion of the training program.
Adaptive	Degree to which the training participant can adapt to novel or changing situational demands.

Table 1: Adaptive Level of Transfer (Ford and Weissbein, 1997)

According to Ford & Weissbein (1997), the Baldwin and Ford review contained prior studies that operationalized transfer primarily as “near transfer” or a focus on short-term measurement, similar contexts between learning and task, and less complex (closed) tasks, which according to Ford and Weissbein, was “inadequate for drawing conclusions about learning transfer as a construct” (p. 24). The studies included in the Ford and Weissbein review were conducted between 1988 and 1997. The authors indicated a clear advancement in the literature in that the articles contained a “greater variety of measures and time intervals used to evaluate transfer” (p. 24). The studies reviewed were primarily focused on the conditions of transfer, or factors affecting transfer; versus transfer outcomes. For example, in an examination of one condition of transfer, training design, Ford and Weissbein indicated the use of “more complex tasks, more diverse samples, and using longer intervals between training and criterion assessment to demonstrate transfer” (p. 31).

Ford & Weissbein’s (1997) review supports the conclusion that the construct of transfer had been expanded in recent years to be more consistent with the reality of working and learning in organizations today. Holton & Baldwin (2003) support Ford &

Weissbein's (1997) contention that "considerable progress has been made in understanding factors affecting transfer" (p. 4). Further, based on their experience with two decades of transfer research, Holton and Baldwin suggest thinking about transfer in terms of transfer distance, or near transfer and far transfer. They defined near transfer as task-specific, whereby the training and application are similar contextually. Holton and Baldwin likened far transfer as more abstract and longer term, such as participating in management training focused on change management principles, and then applying what was learned over time, for example, as the leader in a merger. Similarly, Haskell (2000) suggests that far transfer is learning that is applied to situations that are quite divergent from the original learning.

Another indication of progress in the transfer literature includes a distinction made by Haskell (2000), which differentiates between transfer of training and transfer of learning:

While training is appropriate for some very concrete, specific tasks, it's becoming an increasingly less appropriate mode of instruction for business. Unlike training, learning tends to be more knowledge based, less task specific, more long-run oriented, more process than product oriented, more conceptual and theoretical, and more learner centered than instructional method or technique driven. Thus, learning tends to be more generative or creative than training. And, learning results in a deeper level and a broader scope of transfer than does training; therefore, there is more long-term payoff. (p.34).

Based on his conception of learning transfer, Haskell (1998, 2000) developed a scheme, which is illustrated below (table 2). The scheme is qualitative in nature, which

Haskell (1998) says is necessary because a “metric of similarity by which we can quantitatively distinguish precise degrees of how similar one thing is to another does not exist” (p. 23). The first level outlined in the scheme refers to “nonspecific transfer.” In a sense, the description provides the basis to Lave and Detterman’s argument against the existence of transfer. It suggests that all learning depends on a connection to past learning, therefore the argument could be postulated, and was by Detterman (1993), that transfer doesn’t exist because learning is simply learning. However, Haskell views it differently. He suggests that no two situations are exactly the same; therefore all learning can be viewed as degrees of transfer.

Level II and III proceed into a progression or expansion of the construct. Application transfer (level II) is defined as applying what has been learned in one situation to the same or very similar situation (this level of transfer is consistent with the identical elements theory of transfer), and contextual transfer is defined as applying what has been learned in one situation to a slightly different situation or context (i.e. the learned task is exactly the same, but the context has changed). Haskell (1998) refers to the first two levels as “simple learning,” and the third level as “application of learning” (p. 24).

At the higher end of the scheme (according to a higher or more significant level of learning) is Level IV, termed Near Transfer. Also, Level V, termed “far transfer,” and Level VI, termed displacement or creative transfer. Haskell defines near transfer slightly different than Holton & Baldwin (2003). Haskell’s definition suggests near transfer is recognizing and applying what was originally learned to situations that call for a slight variation in the learned task and applied in a different context. Far transfer equates to

learning that is applied to situations that are considered to be very different in substance or context as compared to the original learning. This is similar to Ford & Weissbein (1997) definition of adaptive transfer (i.e., applying what has been learned in the past in order to adapt to novel situations). According to Haskell (1998, 2000), the use of metaphors, analogical reasoning, and mental models are evident in far, or adaptive, transfer. Further, York (2003) asserts that far transfer is assumed to occur informally “without explicit coaching or methodologies” (p. 151).

York (2003) points out that far transfer is one outcome intended for action learning programs and communities of practice. In terms of communities of practice, York suggests:

....transfer from communities of practice, which are generally organized as tacit in terms of design, seems to require....the ability for adapting ideas and knowledge shared by people in one practice setting to another setting that can be significantly different in context. Equally important to the codified content knowledge is know how for making this adaptation to the new setting. It is generally assumed that participants bring this know how to the community. (p. 152).

Finally, the highest level of transfer in Haskell’s (1998) scheme, Level VI, is referred to as “creative transfer.” At this level, individuals transfer learning over time in a way that leads to new, innovative concepts by integrating two seemingly discreet concepts and a creating a new concept. Further, individuals adept at this level of transfer think in terms of “generic structures” (p. 79), which involves comparing two unrelated things systematically. It is in this light that Haskell suggests “transfer of learning is not

so much an instructional technique as it is a way of thinking, perceiving and processing information” (p. 18). Haskell cites the example of the Gutenberg printing press, which was invented by the combination of two technologies that had been in existence for many years. The first, individual block letters used to make an imprint in wax and put an embossed seal on a document; and the second technology, the wine press, which used a handle to lower and squeeze or press juice from grapes. These two unrelated technologies were integrated and ultimately produced the printing press (Haskell).

Haskell’s Scheme of Levels of Transfer	
Level I	Nonspecific transfer. All learning depends on a connection to past learning, therefore all learning in this sense is transfer.
Level II	Application transfer. Apply what has been learned to a specific situation—learning how to use a word processor and apply the learning to operate the word processor.
Level III	Contextual transfer. Apply what has been learned to a slightly different situation. A change in context, although the learned task is exactly the same. All three levels are considered “simple learning”
Level IV	Near transfer. Recognizing and applying what was learned originally to situations that are similar but that are slightly different from the original learning task and situation.
Level V	Far transfer. Apply learning to situations that are quite dissimilar, either in substance or contextually, to the original learning. What is ordinarily called metaphorical and analogical reasoning is evident in this kind of transfer.
Level VI	Displacement or creative transfer. Discover a heretofore unrealized similarity and interaction between the old and the new, a new concept is created. This level is often involved in problem solving and other innovative endeavors.

Table 2: Haskell’s Scheme of Levels of Transfer

Haskell, Robert E. (1998, 2000). *Reengineering Corporate Training: Intellectual Capital and Transfer of Learning*. Westport: Quorum Books.

Haskell (1998) argues that Level IV, V, and VI are to be considered significant transfer, as opposed to simple learning or application of learning, because transfer at the higher levels “requires the learning of something new in the transfer” (p. 24). In other words, varying or adapting past learning to a different situation or context equates to learning something new in the process. Moreover, Haskell points out that most instructional research that has set out to investigate transfer, and failed to demonstrate it,

have been researched at Levels I, II, or III. Based on the scheme, the author suggests these studies don't reflect a failure of transfer, but rather a failure of learning (Haskell).

This paper will utilize Haskell's scheme as a theoretical framework; specifically, the focus of this paper will be on management development interventions utilizing content (e.g., abstract principles) and methods that are consistent with level five and/or six of the scheme.

Holton, Baldwin, & Naquin (2000) maintain that learning transfer underpins performance improvement, and Gilley & Maycunich (2000) point out the criticality of transfer to the change process. Similarly, Block (1994) stated that "learning and performance will become one and the same thing" (p. 36). All of these authors are describing the higher levels of transfer (e.g., creative transfer), and echo Haskell (1998) when he states, "transfer of learning is leveraged learning" (p. 31). Haskell describes an example of creative transfer:

Erie Bolt corporation was about to go bankrupt when a new CEO was hired who thought in terms of generic structures. Rather than asking how Erie Bolt could make better bolts, he asked a more generic question: What business was Erie Bolt in? His answer was that the company was not simply one that made bolts but one that (1) forged metal, (2) heat-treated metal, (3) did the machining of metal, and (4) performed other metalworking functions. When Erie Bolt was seen as not just a manufacturer of bolts, it could then reengineer and reinvent itself by transferring its new-found knowledge into new products. (p. 79).

Haskell (1998) suggests that learning transfer in organizations has primarily focused on conditions of transfer (Baldwin & Ford, 1988; Holton, Baldwin, and Naquine,

2000), and not enough attention has been paid to the thought processes of the individuals; in particular the entrepreneurs and innovators within organizations. In other words, focus should be given to the individual's mental models for generating creative ideas and innovation. Based on this, it could be inferred that while management systems within organizations play a supportive role in transfer, it is the development and cultivation of individuals' mental models that should be emphasized. To the extent that far and creative transfer impact organizations, investigation at these higher levels may elucidate and inform the current trends regarding management in organizations; specifically the role of manager, the environment within which managers work, as well as the nature of management development.

The role managers' play in organizations has changed over the course of the past few decades from command and control (Mintzberg, 1973; Statt, 2000) to that of coach, mentor, and counselor (Gilley & Maycunich, 2000), whereby emphasis is placed on performance as well as fostering creativity and innovation (Baldwin, T. T. & Patgett, M. Y., 1994; Drucker, P. F., 1985). Management knowledge of and skill in interpersonal communication skills, performance management (including giving and receiving feedback), change management, negotiation, and creative problem solving are needed (De Corte, E., 2003; Gilley & Maycunich, 2000); and require far and creative levels of transfer. Haskell postulates that "those individuals and organizations who develop transfer abilities will be the ones who will be able to best adapt, compete and survive" (p. 30).

The purpose of this study is to analyze and synthesize primary research studies about organization-sponsored management development interventions, which by the

nature of the intervention has the potential to result in far or adaptive transfer (Ford & Weissbein 1997; Holton & Baldwin, 2003; York, 2003) and creative transfer (Haskell, 1997; 2000). More specifically, the intent of this study is to conduct a qualitative meta-synthesis in order to obtain an expanded purview of the interdependent relationships among management development interventions, associated results in terms of adaptive and/or creative learning transfer, characteristics of managers as learners, and the transfer settings or environments. I will utilize an ecological triangulation approach to qualitative meta-synthesis (Banning, 2003) whereby an examination of primary research studies will be conducted using an ecological sentence synthesis (Banning, 2003).

I will analyze and synthesize a sample of studies on organization-sponsored management development interventions implemented in United States, Canada, United Kingdom and European organizations. The sample of studies for this research will focus on those completed within the last decade; between the years 1995 through 2005, and will consist of published articles in peer-reviewed journals, as well as doctoral dissertations.

Statement of Research Problem

Some scholars who have written about learning transfer in organizational settings have stated that the purpose of learning transfer is to create and sustain a competitive edge through performance improvement and adapting to change (Gilley & Maycunich-Gilley, 2003; Holton & Baldwin, 2003). Haskell (1998) states that learning transfer is an organization's ability to "generate new ideas multiplied by its adeptness at generalizing them throughout the company" (p. 50). Based on the tenets proffered above, it seems imperative to Human Resources Development (HRD) practitioners to gain a multi-

dimensional view of what management development interventions have demonstrated what results in terms of adaptive and/or creative learning transfer, with what learner characteristics, in what settings, using which theoretical frameworks.

Two significant studies, which were identified earlier in this paper, reviewed and analyzed the literature regarding elements of and conditions for learning transfer (Baldwin & Ford, 1988; and Ford & Weissbein, 1997). In both reviews, the literature was found to be lacking in transfer studies focused on far or adaptive transfer, and therefore, the recommendation was made for future research to be rectify this gap.

In an attempt to review the progress made in the past decade with regard to research on far transfer, and the theories applied to frame the construct, this study will analyze and synthesize literature on management development programs that are encompassed in the adaptive and/or creative learning transfer construct, within organizations in the United States, Canada, United Kingdom and European organizations.

Research Question

In order to investigate the relationships described above, I will explore the following question: What management development interventions have demonstrated what results, in terms of adaptive and/or creative transfer, with what learner characteristics, in what settings, and using what theoretical frameworks?

Definitions of Terms

Analogical Transfer	A way of solving a problem by thinking of a similar problem we have solved in the past to come up with a solution.
Creativity	The ability to fragment past experience to permit the formation of new spontaneous combinations.
Creative Transfer	Transfer learning over time (implies knowledge base) by integrating two seemingly discreet concepts and a creating a new concept or innovation. Involves generic thinking.
Ecological Thinking	Consists of thinking in terms of relationships, connectedness, and context
Far/Adaptive Transfer	Degree to which an individual can adapt past learning to novel or changing situational demands that are quite divergent from the original learning; and maintained for the long-term (3+ months).
Knowledge	Condition of knowing something with familiarity gained through experience or association; to recognize as being the same as something previously known (Webster, 2001).
Learn	To gain knowledge of or skill in; to memorize; to become aware of, realize (Webster, 2001).
Learning Transfer	Knowledge based, less task specific, more long-run oriented, more process than product oriented, more conceptual and theoretical, and more learner centered than instructional method or technique driven. Thus, learning tends to be more generative or creative than training (i.e. training transfer).
Near Transfer	Degree to which an individual recognizes and applies what was originally learned to situations that call for a slight variation in the learned task and applied in a different context.
Networks	Pattern of formal and informal linkages between individuals, business and other organization such as government and voluntary agencies for the purpose of information sharing, learning, and knowledge creation.
Training Transfer	The degree to which trainees apply the skills gained in a training context to concrete, specific tasks on the job; new skill or behavior is generalized to the job context and maintained over a period of time.
Transfer	To carry, convey, from one place to another (Webster, 2001).

Limitations and delimitations

- Data are limited to only those studies I found and selected for inclusion. Therefore, even though patterns may emerge from the analysis, the possibility exists that there are pieces still missing to the puzzle based on my decisions. Even though meta-synthesis provides a mechanism to go beyond interpretation through the integration of multiple studies, it is nonetheless limited to the findings of only studies encapsulated in this paper.
- Quality of primary studies—studies were reviewed utilizing the Design and Implementation Assessment Device (DIAD) model, version 0.3, While the authors of the model suggest that the assessment of qualitative designs does not appear to be difficult, some structural aspects of the model may be problematic for qualitative designs.
- There was only one researcher involved in this study. The vast amount of literature and capabilities of one researcher are limited compared to more than one researcher typically involved in a meta-synthesis.
- This is the researcher's first attempt at conducting a meta-synthesis. There are potentially unforeseeable gaps in terms of procedural quality and quantity.

Significance of Research

There is great potential in exploring and understanding the far or adaptive and creative levels of learning transfer. I would argue that research on learning transfer that does not focus at these levels for management development interventions is less relevant based on our current economic and organizational environment. It is my intent to provide

an understanding of learning transfer at the far and creative levels in order to develop themes about what works, with what management populations, in what contexts, with what results, and using what theories. While it is a very small step, the intent is to move practitioners closer to understanding how transfer functions as it relates to organizational learning and performance improvement.

Chapter Two

Literature Review

The literature that informs this study consists of a brief historical review of the foundational models of transfer. In addition, the review will entail an exploration of far transfer, which is viewed from the perspective of Haskell's (1998) transfer scheme, and three supporting areas of research: (a) scheme and information processing theories, (b) analogical transfer, and (c) applicable memory research. Further, this review will describe two areas of research, creativity theory and ecological thinking, that support the notion of Haskell's sixth level of transfer; creative transfer. Before I begin to describe these higher levels of transfer, I must first put learning transfer into the context of this study and describe the imperatives driving management development today. The review that follows places emphasis on the changing nature of the managerial role in organizations, the organizational environment, and the subsequent trends for management development.

“The journey of [organizational] transformation is anything but a straight line. The process requires significant turns in the road because of the simple fact that it is full of uncertainty.....the future state is being discovered while the organization is going forward, the transformation process is literally the pursuit of an emerging target.”
(Anderson & Ackerman-Anderson, 2001, p. 41).

Organizational Management

The quote above paints quite a different picture than Fredrick Taylor's view of management in the early 1900's. Taylor's approach was called Scientific Management, which focused on the organization as a static entity whereby efficiency and control were the primary responsibility of the manager (Taylor, 1911). Statt (2000) asserts that the historical view of an organization, as a static entity, is no longer useful given the

complexity experienced within the environment. Instead, managers should think in terms of organizations as the “continuous process of *organizing*” (p. 134). From a broader perspective, this is consistent with a view of organizations as an open system (Sadler, 2001).

As an open system, an organization “...must always respond to constraints imposed on it by the nature of its relationship with the environment” (p. 55). For an organization to achieve continued growth or renewal, Sadler (2001) proposed that the organization’s structure, processes and culture must be inextricably linked and adaptable to meet rapidly changing demands from the environment. Macready & Meyer (1999) maintain that, as a result, a new mindset is needed with “different attitudes toward control, variability, and prediction; new approaches to problem solving suitable for non linear, highly connected systems; and the new tools required to execute these approaches” (p. 182).

Vaill (1989) used the metaphor of white water to capture the nature of organizations. Vaill suggested that the experience of management in organizations is like paddling in white water because the environment cannot completely be controlled. Further, Vaill outlined three fundamental changes that impact managers and create the turbulent “white water” environment. First, the role of manager has changed, which is due to the second change; the rapidly changing demands of a new environment; and third, based on the first two changes, the ways in which managers learn and develop are also changing. Accordingly, the review of organizational management that follows will consider the role of manager, the environment within which managers take action and perform, and the subsequent trends identified for management development.

“...those people at the top of enterprises today who encourage others to leap into the future, who help them overcome natural fears, and who thus expand the leadership capacity in their organizations—these people provide a profoundly important service for the entire human community.” (Kotter, 1996, p. 186).

Role of Manager. A review of a modern textbook on management informs us that setting priorities and long term planning skills are paramount (Lussier, 2003). Paauwe & Williams (2001) describe a reality that would seem counter to the importance placed on prioritization and longer term planning. The authors describe the role of manager as working under time constraints and reacting to minute by minute problems and interruptions, which does not necessarily allow for prioritization or longer term planning. Further, Paauwe and Williams state that managers obtain information necessary to act by “talking with colleagues and from intuition or gut feel” (p. 93). From their perspective, managers plan in the midst of chaos (i.e., white water), and also apply the social skills necessary to build and nurture networks with peers that fuel their ability to intuit and subsequently take action.

Ruegg-Sturm (2005) describe the role of manager within a systematic management process, which consists of four components: (a) orientation, (b) planning, (c) implementation and (d) feedback. Orientation involves the generation of ideas and creates a sense of purpose; planning involves identification of goals, with emphasis placed more so on the short term than on long term; implementation is concerned with transferring goals into action; and feedback involves creating a loop that circles back with the purpose of evaluating the degree of goal attainment and effectiveness of implementation within the organizational and external environments (Ruegg-Sturm).

According to Swanson (1999), a systems perspective is needed in order for managers to effectively influence performance improvement efforts. Gilley, Boughton, and Maycunich (1999) concur and argue that the role of manager in organizations is to manage performance, develop employees, and create the systems necessary to drive organizational effectiveness. The authors expressly maintain that “organizations must learn how to transform managers into performance coaches....which requires managers to shift constantly from training, counseling, confronting, and mentoring” (p. 9).

All of these managerial “hats” are executed through the use of feedback. As stated above, feedback involves creating a loop that circles back with the purpose of evaluating the degree of goal attainment and effectiveness of implementation within the organizational and external environments. Moreover, feedback integrates many of the parallel systems within an organization (HR, Finance, etc.), which in turn, creates a higher level of organizational complexity. According to Ruegg-Sturm (2005), a system becomes complex when “the elements of a system interact in a variety of ways and interrelate with each other in a specific and dynamic relationship” (p. 7). Within the context of a complex system, the management process is necessarily dependent upon the environment (i.e., requires changes in interactions); an environment that seems to be more and more non-linear and in a constant state of flux (Ruegg-Sturm; Paauwe & Williams, 2001).

“The present environment of chaotic change requires a response so different from the traditional managerial approach... permanent white water is the metaphor appropriate to capture the pace, complexity, novelty, danger, and nonstop challenge of the modern environment” (Vaill, 1989, p. xiv).

Organizational Environment. Wheatley (1992) and Wheatley and Kellner-Rogers (1996), provide a framework that consists of complexity and chaos theory to view the current state of organizations. From Wheatley’s perspective, managers have to manage and adapt to constant, sometimes dramatic, internal changes on a day to day basis. These changes reflect the organization’s attempt to manage external chaotic conditions (Wheatley). Some organizations do not survive in the mode of constant change, while others are able to remain effective. Kirchoff (1977) stated organizational effectiveness “emerges as the ultimate outcomes of a combination of managerial effectiveness and factors not under organizational control” (p. 348). Paauwe & Williams (2001) point out two such factors: the knowledge worker and a structural shift to a boundary-less organization. The authors note:

Workers who are employed primarily for their knowledge, rather than any other skills and abilities they may have, have changed the task of management. Management in the sense of controlling what people do is hardly useful when dealing with knowledge workers. They cannot really be managed, rather they need to be led. Further, the trend to working in teams along key processes rather than along purely functional lines is blurring internal power and managing relationships. (p. 94).

Given the aforementioned characteristics of employees (i.e., knowledge workers), and the changes in organizational structure and coordination, as well as the swift pace of organizational change; it is evident that Vail's (1989) foretelling of the changing ways in which managers must learn and develop must be better understood.

Management Development. Baldwin & Patgett (1994) define management development as "the complex process by which individuals learn to perform effectively in managerial roles" (p. 270). The development process necessitates a longer term view and implies a higher level of complexity in terms of content and evaluation; compared to training or education, which tend to be more short-term focused and evaluated straightforwardly (Baldwin and Patgett). Paauwe and Williams (2001) concur and maintain that the process of development entails progressive change over the long term that is driven in a general and sometimes ambiguous direction.

Given the changes in managerial activities and work environment, Paauwe & Williams (2001) contend that the critical success factors involved in management cannot be taught easily. In fact, they suggest that those aspects of management that can be taught easily "probably do not have much influence on actual managerial success" (p. 93). Rather, the authors contend that what is needed for management development are the things that are not effectively learned in formal training. Bereiter & Scardamalia (2003) provide examples of skills not easily trained, such as inter-personal communication and building relationships. The authors advise that these soft skills develop over the long-term and they argue that the only way to insure transfer of soft skills is through a method of immersion. From their perspective, transfer is not so much about training design or methods, but rather the learning environment. Bereiter and

Scardamalia argue that environmental immersion will lead the individual to utilize the “natural adaptive abilities” (p. 56).

Management theorists (Sternberg and Horvath, 1999; Vaill, 1989) have also emphasized the importance of intuition as a managerial asset. However, many times managers’ reactions to problems and, moreover, what they have been taught, has been to apply rational analysis based on a linear view of problem solving (Sternberg and Horvath). Sternberg and Horvath argue that intuition, which has not been emphasized in traditional management development, is critical in the current organizational environment. Further, the authors state that the variables that make up intuition are highly suggestive of a complex tacit learning process.

Paauwe & Williams (2001) contend that intuition can be learned, but not necessarily through a formal process; rather the authors maintain that intuition is learned through experiential and social conditions, and upon reflection. While the authors acknowledge that reflection may not be a suitable approach given the time constraints experienced by managers; nonetheless, they suggest reflection can be supported through socialization with colleagues—“it may be possible to use such social networking time as an aid to building up intuition....” (p. 96). Haskell (1998) takes a slightly different view, and states that intuition is a result of “having a large knowledge base and having acquired expertise in an area” (p. 49).

In terms of learning through social networks, some knowledge management theorists (Brown & Duguid, 2000; Eden & Ackerman, 1998; Suchman, 1987) suggest that in this light, organizations should be viewed as knowledge systems, whereby action is taken based on socially defined values (Eden and Ackerman), and individuals are not

so much information processors as they are contextual thinkers (Brown and Duguid). In other words, managers take action based on the learning generated from the interaction within a social network in the organization. Further support can be found from Bell (1999) who argued that knowledge is different from information in that knowledge is laden with judgments about meaning and significance, which is perceived within the context of the organization. Knowledge can be used to support and maintain the status quo, or it can be used incite change (Argyris & Schon, 1996).

Argyris & Schon (1996) contend that learning in organizations can be characterized as either single-loop or double-loop. Single-loop learning is accomplished by reacting to an event, and taking action that enables maintenance of the status quo. Conversely, double loop learning is accomplished by reacting to an event, by questioning and changing the assumptions and values that underlie management practices (i.e. status quo) (Argyris and Schon). It has been suggested that a fundamental facet of managing in organizations is to define routines and then implement them (Nelson & Winter, 1982). According to Argyris and Schon, implementing routines is a single-loop activity, and therefore becomes a limiting factor to enabling continuous learning and change.

Two decades ago Drucker (1985) envisioned that we were moving toward an entrepreneurial society, and proffered that continuous learning on the manager's part would become essential. Drucker maintained that thinking like an entrepreneur is critical for managers in organizations, and that individuals will need to take responsibility for their own learning and development throughout their careers.

Indeed, there has been a significant shift in accountability for learning, from the educator and/or trainer to the manager (trainee); increasingly, the responsibility lies on

the manager to take control of their own long term development. This shift is seen by some as a positive impact on transfer (Campione & Brown, 1990), and a natural consequence of being an adult learner (Mackeracher, 2004). A high degree of self-regulated learning has been shown to create learners who are more motivated and able to transfer their current knowledge to novel situations (Campione and Brown). However, Paauwe & Williams (2001) caution that the reliance on the manager to direct their own development (versus an educator or trainer) may present a gap in terms of a formalized way of measuring actual learning or transfer. Further, the authors suggest that the content of a manager's development is not necessarily assessed or evaluated for effectiveness. To that point, Haskell (2000) argues that in order to transfer learning, an individual must understand how learning transfer works and focus on transfer *thinking*.

According to Vermunt (1998), the degree of transfer has been proposed to be a function of the level of information processing (Vermunt, 1998). Vermunt contended that in order for transfer to occur, deep-level processing (versus surface-level) had to take place. Surface level processing equates to the learners intention to remember facts (rote memory) and deep-level processing refers to the learners intent to understand the main argument, underlying principles or assumptions, as well as the conclusions drawn Boekaerts and Minnaert (2003). Further, Vermunt postulated that surface-level processing and deep-level processing are negatively correlated; they are at opposite ends of a spectrum. However, research on surface and deep-level processing undertaken by Boekaerts and Minnaert (2003) provided evidence that the modes of processing information are not negatively correlated; rather individuals may have a dual processing system whereby they have a predominant processing strategy they use, but not always. In

other words, an individual may use either surface or deep level processing depending on the context.

The social nature of learning presented by Hatano and Greeno (1999) supports the notion that learning through interaction is critical to transfer. Specifically, there is tremendous value in the use of networks as a means to information sharing, learning and knowledge creation (Rothwell, 1992; Conway and Steward, 1998). The importance of networks, both intra and inter-organizational, cannot be overemphasized in terms of knowledge creation and the innovation process (Drucker, 1985; Rothwell, 1992). More and more, networks are seen as learning opportunities. Chell and Baines (2000) found networking was positively related to business growth, especially for growing businesses, or those in a renewal phase of their organizational life cycle. The authors contend that entrepreneurial networks help, in particular, owner-managers of small start up firms to build their business by providing access to limited resources including knowledge and skills (p. 205). Moreover, they suggest that relationship management is a development priority for managers in order to succeed at building a broad network (Chell and Baines).

Similarly, Barnett and Storey (2000) state that the nature of learning is best accommodated through informal networks. They state “rather than traditional business support systems and didactic learning programs, alternative approaches need to consider the range of opportunities that may exist” (p. 268). According to these authors, one approach is to use real life problem solving projects, or action learning (Argyris and Schon).

The trend toward real life projects is supported by many adult learning theory researchers (Korsgaard, 1997; Mackeracher, 2004; Piskurich, 1993; Taylor, Marienau &

Fiddler, 2000). Vermunt (2003) argues that problem-based learning promotes deep-level thinking “because students have to search for explanations and understandings for mostly meaningful problems” (p. 112). Further, Vermunt asserts that problem-based projects support cooperative and self-directed learning. In addition, Sternberg & Horvath (1999) state that for learning to take place there must be four elements present: 1) the issue involved must be seen to be important by the individual; 2) some analysis must be involved, e.g., the comparison and contrasting of two or more different approaches to the issue; 3) creativity must be called upon; e.g. improving an existent design; and finally 4) practical application of the newly created improvement is necessary. From this perspective, reality-based problem solving would seem to be advantageous as a management development intervention, and seems to be conducive to far and creative transfer. However, this perspective isn’t shared by all researchers.

Bereiter & Scardamalia (2003) argue problem-based learning promotes only limited opportunity for iterative idea improvement. This is due to an emphasis placed on learning about and solving a problem for a single case. In other words, problem-based learning does not allow for adaptation of knowledge to other problems. Some studies on learning theory have demonstrated that complex, or “deep” learning requires the ability to create and use analogies that connect several domains of knowledge (Getner, Loewenstein, J. & Thompson, L., 2003; Gick M. & Holyoak, K. J., 1983; Novick, 1988; Robertson, 2001; Ross, 1987). In other words, if individuals can link seemingly unrelated events or cases to different problems, they may likely be able to produce creative solutions to novel problems (Novick, 1988; Ross, 1987).

A study by Collins (2002) provides contrary evidence to the effectiveness of informal learning networks on the job. Collins examined the effectiveness of management development interventions by conducting a meta-analysis of studies carried out between 1982 – 2001. The author concluded that formal training programs; versus feedback, developmental relationships, and on-the-job experiences, were the most effective in terms of knowledge outcomes, with an effective size ranging from .96 to 1.37. The evidence provided seems to be contrary to what other organizational and management theorists have suggested, i.e., developmental relationships, such as networking, are a more effective strategy for managers in today's environment (Conway & Steward, 1998; Rothwell, 1992; Vermunt, 1998).

The review of literature regarding organizational management presents a complex context, with sometimes contradictory results, within which learning transfer was examined. In order to provide a deeper perspective of organizational management, three components were explored: the role of manager, the work environment, and the ways in which managers learn and develop.

To the first order, the manager's role was described, and as such seemed to belie some of the management theory still espoused (Lussier, 2003). The living experience of managers illustrate a need for "new approaches to problem solving suitable for non linear, highly connected systems...." (Macready & Meyer, 1999, p. 182). Two changes that have impacted the role of manager are the introduction of the knowledge worker and the transition to a more boundary-less organizational structure.

Next, the organizational environment was reviewed. The environment was described as fast paced, complex and ever-changing, which reflects the organization's attempt to manage external chaotic conditions (Wheatley, 1992).

Finally, a process for management development is espoused, which entails progressive change over the long term, and skills that are not easily taught or typically learned in formal training (Paawe & Williams, 2001), such as inter-personal communication (Bereiter & Scardamalia, 2003), and intuition (Sternberg & Horvath, 1999; Vaill, 1989). Further, speculation on the methods of managerial learning seem to suggest that learning through social networks is most effective (Brown & Duguid, 2000; Eden & Ackerman, 1998; Paauwe & Williams, 2001). Further, Argyris and Schon (1996) contented that single-loop learning is most prevalent in organizations today, which enables maintenance of the status quo. Conversely, double loop learning, which is what is needed to drive organizational change, is accomplished by questioning and changing the assumptions that underlie management practices (i.e. status quo). According to Argyris and Schon, implementing routines is a single-loop activity, and therefore becomes a limiting factor to enabling continuous learning and change. In addition, Drucker (1985) proposed that thinking like an entrepreneur is critical for managers in organizations, and that they will need to take responsibility for their own learning and development throughout their careers. Part of taking responsibility for learning is, according to Haskell (2000) understanding how learning transfers.

Foundational models of transfer

Haskell (2000) outlines three primary transfer models that have been foundational to transfer research: (a) Formal Discipline, (b) Identical Elements, and (c) General

principle model. Under formal discipline theory, scholars argued that training in formal disciplines such as math or language, by their very nature, facilitated transfer (Haskell, 2000). In other words, “it was assumed that transfer somehow was present in the structure of the discipline itself” (Haskell, p. 79). Haskell also points out that, to date, there is no concrete evidence to support this.

The identical elements model, created by Edward Thorndike (1901), postulated that the only way for transfer to occur is for a common set of identical elements to be in place between two experiences or learning events. According to Haskell (2000), this theory of transfer leads to, at most, near transfer, and “does not lead to synthesizing and integrating information across domains” (p. 80).

The third transfer model, the General Principle model, was developed by Charles Judd (1908). Judd proffered that transfer occurs based on identical elements, as well as through the application of learned principles that are general or abstract in nature to situations that do not possess obvious identical elements (Judd, 1908). In other words, after learning a general principle (such as how leaders create a shared vision during an organizational change), the learning can readily be transferred to different situations within different contexts. It was Judd’s theory of transfer that spurred theories of transfer beyond Identical Elements, however it isn’t until the 1990’s that we begin to see an emergence of a more multi-dimensional model of transfer in the HRD literature. Also, an emphasis on “far” transfer (as defined by Haskell, 1998) in the psychology-based literature becomes more evident in the early 1980’s.

Yelon & Ford (1999) suggested that “certain variables interact in noticeable patterns to produce transfer” (p. 58). In light of this, the authors propose a

multidimensional model whereby transfer is viewed as a complex set of processes interacting. Two processes investigated by the authors were “the nature of the task performed and the degree of autonomy” (p. 59). From the authors’ perspective, many of the studies on transfer up to that point had focused more so on “closed tasks.” The authors reviewed Ford and Weissbien (1997) review of transfer studies and determined that open tasks performed by autonomous workers were generally nonexistent. Yelon & Ford suggest an example of an open task by an autonomous person is “a manager motivating staff to work harder or a manager conducting a sexual harassment seminar” (p. 67).

Yelon & Ford (1999) outline interventions to produce successful transfer for autonomous workers with open tasks, including: teaching principles and procedures, and how to choose conditions; vary cases and conditions of practice; and use reflection on application. Further, they mention two potential conflicts or obstacles to transfer: “one of the problems in working with autonomous workers performing open skills may be providing enough examples to cover all the major possibilities they will encounter. Another potential conflict might be between encouraging creative application and arguing against assertions that the task should be standard” (p. 72).

Based on a review of training evaluation models and 10 years of training effectiveness research, Alvarez, Salas, and Garofano (2004) developed an integrated model (IMTEE) consisting of four prior training evaluation models as well as synthesized training effectiveness research. The authors first distinguished between the two constructs and defined evaluation as a “measurement technique that examines the extent to which training programs meet the goals intended;” and effectiveness is defined as “the

study of variables that likely influence training outcomes at different stages (e.g., before, during, and after) of the training process” (p. 387). Further, the authors state that effectiveness can be categorized and researched under one or more of three characteristics: individual, training, and organizational.

Alvarez, et al. (2004) argue that evaluation focuses solely on outcomes; therefore, it does not provide a comprehensive view of how the training obtained the results it achieved. Consequently, effectiveness characteristics, i.e., *why* participants did or did not learn, needs to be integrated into one model. In order to develop such a model (the IMTT), the authors reviewed four evaluation models. The first model was developed by Kirkpatrick (1976) and focused on four dimensions of evaluation: 1) reactions, 2) learning, 3) behavioral change, and 4) results. The second model reviewed was an expansion on Kirkpatrick's model, developed by Tannenbaum, Cannon-Bowers, Salas, & Mathieu (1993).

This model used Kirkpatrick's model as a foundation and added post-training attitudes. Further, the authors differentiated behavior into two outcomes: training performance and transfer performance. Training and transfer performance are defined respectively as “the ability to perform a newly acquired skill at the end of training, prior to transfer, and is measured through observable demonstration; and a behavioral change on the job as a result of training and can be assessed via supervisor evaluations of on the job behavior or post-training retests several months after training” (p. 388). The model views learning as a precursor to training performance, and training performance as a precursor to transfer performance, and finally transfer performance as a precursor to obtaining performance results (Alvarez, et al., 2004).

The third model reviewed was published by Holton in 1996. Holton's model is similar to Tannenbaum, Cannon-Bowers, Salas, & Mathieu (1993) in two respects. First, it placed an emphasis on learning, transfer and results, whereby learning is followed by transfer and transfer is followed by results. Secondly, Holton's model integrated evaluation and effectiveness.

The fourth model was developed by Kraiger (2002), which emphasized "three multidimensional target areas for evaluation: training content and design, changes in learners, and organizational payoffs" (Alvarez et al. 2004, p. 8). This model, as well as the previous three models discussed, place emphasis on three characteristics: individual, training, and organization. These characteristics have also been incorporated into the Learning Transfer System Inventory developed by Holton, Bates & Ruona (2000). It is clear that an integrated, multi-dimensional view of transfer is now emphasized in the HRD literature.

The research on learning transfer in the field of cognitive psychology informs deeper levels of learning, which can be equated with far or adaptive transfer (Hatano & Greeno, 1999). The emphasis found in this line of research is on access and retrieval of knowledge (Getner, 2003; Gick & Holyoak, 1983). Similarly, Haskell (1998) states that significant (far) transfer can only occur when a person can access or recognize transfer situations. Haskell contends that *access* is at the heart of the transfer problem. He explains this by stating that individuals may in fact recognize surface similarities between two situations and therefore transfer may be facilitated. However, he suggests that individuals do not necessarily recognize or access underlying structural (deep) similarities. Moreover, Haskell contends that "the basic transfer of learning question

continues to be: what is it that enables a person with specific knowledge, learning, understanding or skill learned in one area and/or social context to adapt, modify, or extend it in such a way to be able to apply it to other novel or very different areas” (p. 27).

Far Transfer

Far transfer refers to learning that is applied to situations that are quite divergent from the original learning and maintained in the long-term (Haskell, 1998; 2000). Far transfer has also been termed, “adaptive” by Ford and Weissbein (1997). According to these authors, “adaptability is defined as the capability to adjust one’s knowledge and skills in the face of novel situations or requirements. The strongest form of adaptability occurs when effectiveness in the transfer setting requires the use of trained knowledge and methods to generate new approaches and strategies” (p. 34).

Primary theories associated with far transfer in the cognitive psychology field include scheme theory and information processing theory, analogical transfer (thinking) theory, as well as theories on memory. In order to understand the richness of far or adaptive transfer, the theories listed above will briefly be reviewed.

Schema and Information Processing Theories. A cognitive model of learning transfer called schema theory has been explored and described as integral to far transfer (Macaulay & Cree, 1999). Schema theory contends that “knowledge is retained in the mind in terms of representations which are continually reconstructed according to new experience” (p. 184). Further, Information Processing theory has been noted to be integral to far transfer, and described as an individual’s ability for generalization and abstraction through which representations in memory are reconstructed (Statt, 2000).

Macaulay & Cree suggest that we can better understand how learning transfer occurs by studying these two theories in combination. These theories both reinforce the notion of analogical transfer or thinking.

Analogical transfer. Analogical thinking (transfer) has been defined as a way of solving a problem by tapping into our memory and thinking of a situation that has similar characteristics (surface or underlying) that we have solved in the past, and applying that solution to a current situation or problem (Gick & Holyoak, 1983). Analogies provide a different way of looking at things; allowing us to see new relationships and draw inferences about a current problem or situation, which potentially can lead to unanticipated solutions (Dartnall, 2002; Gick & Holyoak, 1983; Hummel & Holyoak, 2002; Robertson, 2001). For example, during a whitewater canoe trip a few summers ago, my partner and I found ourselves paddling over a ledge, and subsequently we were sucked into a rather large “hole.” A hole is a hydraulic condition whereby the water sucks you under and tosses you around as if you were in a front loading washing machine. It is possible to get out of the hole, but only if you are able to get in sync with the waters current, whereby you are rapidly flushed out and sent down stream. When faced with resistance over a change initiative at work recently, I was reminded of this event and used it as an analogy to help my group get “unstuck.” We had to acknowledge the organization’s environment had changed and also that we were arguing based on assumptions that were no longer accurate. Therefore, we were going around in circles, and essentially feeling stuck. We had to think differently in order to act in a way that was conducive to meeting the demands of our current environment (i.e., getting unstuck).

Hummel & Holyoak (2002) suggest there are four components that make up analogical thinking: 1) access a potentially useful prior experience in memory, 2) transfer it onto a target problem, 3) draw an inference about the target situation, and 4) generate similarities between the target and the source, which becomes a scheme or abstraction that is stored in long term memory. Moreover, the authors contend that analogical thinking allows for the generation of new representations (i.e., new ways to describe things) and therefore is integral to creativity.

According to Kolodner & Reisbeck (1986) learning occurs through adding a new experience to our memory. As a result the authors explain that if numerous attempts are made to resolve a problem, and several failures are experienced over a period of time, and finally a solution is found, then that final solution may be utilized directly in a future similar situation without first trying the previous failed attempts (Kolodner & Reisbeck). Further, the authors speculate on the usefulness of failure as a mechanism for learning.

The procedures described by Kolodner & Reisbeck (1986) involve thinking analogically based on previous experience stored in memory. Using past experiences stored in memory for solving problems depends on a learner's ability to: "locate previous similar cases, integrate new cases into memory so that they can be located when necessary, determine the applicability of an old case to a new one, and choose from among a number of potentially applicable previous situations, and transfer knowledge from a previous case to a current one" (p. 107).

Two barriers to analogical transfer that have been noted by Gentner, Loewenstein and Thompson (2003) include accessing past experience to help solve a current problem and adapting the past experience to fit the current problem. Gentner et al. argue that we

are not naturally inclined to seek an answer to a problem in one domain and apply it to another, very different domain. Ross (1987) concurs and suggests people cannot adapt a solution from a prior experience to another very different problem without difficulty. Some reasons postulated are the effects of general knowledge, or lack of knowledge base (Haskell, 2000) and a tendency to impose constraints on a solution (Halford & Wilson, 2002; Ross, 1987). Similarly, it has been argued that creative thought is a result of breaking away from past experience (Wertheimer, 1982). Further, Haskell (2000) maintains that people find it hard to transfer what they have learned in one context to another very different context unless (a) a hint is provided to use the earlier problems; (b) the earlier problem is harder than the current one; (c) there is a clear structure that maps across from one problem to another; (d) solvers can represent the problems in a “useful” way; or (e) the two problems are seen as similar (surface or structurally). In sum, Haskell suggests that unless an individual is aware of and can access abstract knowledge, they will struggle to adapt a solution from prior experience to a current, contextually different, problem or situation.

Past research has suggested that abstract knowledge is beneficial in that it can be applied to a variety of domains, i.e., it is generalizable (Gick & Holyoak, 1983; Holyoak, 1985). In other words, abstract knowledge contained in memory is the basis for the development of thinking that is generalizable (Reeves & Weisberg, 1993). To better understand the notion of abstract knowledge and its impact on generalization, Reeves & Weisberg explored the role of concrete information and examples in problem solving and thinking. The authors concluded that “details of problems and the context in which problems are learned guide the transfer of a solution to a target” (p. 245). They argue

that their research demonstrates that past experience plays an important role in creative or insightful thinking and resolution of contextually different problems. These authors contend that:

Thinking is primarily concrete in nature, i.e. that cognitive processes such as problem solving depend on specific features of the situation in which the thinker is working..... transfer from previously encountered problems to novel problems often provides the scaffolding for the development of greater expertise.....concrete aspects of situations often provide a positive basis for problem solving and transfer itself is a source of more advanced knowledge.
(p. 248).

Analogical thinking (transfer) requires the ability to access and retrieve specific features of a situation in memory in order to map or apply it to a contextually different problem or situation. Therefore, analogical thinking, and thus far transfer, is heavily dependent on memory.

Memory. Memory has an important role to play in learning transfer. In order for memory to be useful to us, what we have learned in the past has to be retrievable in the future, particularly when we are faced with novel situations. Kolodner & Riesbeck (1986) utilized a memory-based model of learning and encoding for far transfer. In other words, the model places emphasis on how our memory enables learning transfer. In order to describe this phenomenon, the authors made a distinction between memory and knowledge. According to the authors, “a memory is something that remembers and a knowledge base is something that holds information” (p. 3). They suggest that while our knowledge tends to be inert, i.e., a storehouse of facts; our memory is constantly

changing based on our new experiences (Kolodner & Riesbeck, 1986). From the perspective of a memory-based model, learning begins with memory change.

According to Kolodner & Reisbeck (1986), “instead of viewing understanding as a process that brings knowledge up from memory and applies it to a situation, we view understanding as a process of storing pieces of the situation in the relevant places in memory” (p. 4). In other words, Kolodner and Reisbeck suggest that we categorize the experience and create knowledge through memory structures in our mind.

Howard (1994) outlines a process of memory, which involves three distinct stages. Simply stated, the sense organs (sight, smell, and hearing) react to environmental stimuli by sending information to the brain, and an ephemeral trace remains in the sensory memory (stage 1). The sensory memory then transmits, or encodes the trace onto the second stage of memory; short term memory, which lasts long enough to work through the task at hand and to encode in the third stage, namely long term memory (Howard). Further, environmental cues (contextual) play a critical role in encoding from short to long term memory (Reeves and Weisberg, 1993).

There is evidence to suggest that memories that are stored in long term memory do not fade with time; rather they change, i.e., become distorted (Howard, 1994; Bahrlick, 2005). In an attempt to make sense out of reality and the way we experienced something, we will add things that didn't occur or subtract things that did occur (Bahrlick, 2005). Therefore, the information held in our memory is not static but in a constant state of reorganization as our understanding is updated (Howard, 1994; Bahrlick, 2005).

Bahrlick (2005) contends that a limitation of memory research is that it has primarily focused on “short-term retention of episodic memory content” (p. 89). The

author views this as problematic because long term effects may uncover more information about the conditions that affect maintenance of knowledge. Also, many of these conditions are not easily manipulated, such as motivation (Baird, 2000; Bjork, 1994). Further, research has emphasized specific memory processes, such as episodic memory, rather than researching the whole memory systems function (Baird). Further, Baird suggests this has been largely because understanding function has been presumed to depend on understanding structure. However, Nairne (2005) argues:

There is evidence that our memory systems are functionally designed. Our capacity to access and use the past evolved to help us solve particular problems, adaptive problems....without a functional perspective it will be extremely difficult to determine how any mnemonic system works. Structure, from this perspective is a by-product of function rather than the other way around: nature designs, or selects, particular structural features because they aid in solving a problem. The ability to store, recover, and use the past serves an adaptive role. (p. 115).

Nairne (2005) argues that acknowledging the context-dependent nature of memory is critical. The author suggests that drawing upon our memory is based on a “conditional response selection” (p. 117). In other words, we will select certain aspects of memory based on the attributes present in a given situation. Moreover, Nairne maintains that “the success of remembering cannot be determined by the characteristics of a cue or the characteristics of a single target response, but only through consideration of the cue to target interaction” (p. 120). Perhaps the interaction Nairn refers to can be attributed to how we *think*.

Creative Transfer

According to Haskell (1998; 2000), learning transfer, at the sixth or “creative” level, is rooted in how individuals think. In fact, while he labels the sixth level of transfer in his schema, creative, he does not refer to this level as creative transfer as he describes it in later chapters. Rather, he explains the sixth level of transfer as *Transfer Thinking*. Perhaps Haskell came to apply the term creative to this level of transfer based upon research on the construct of creativity. For example, two researcher’s state, “a prominent requirement for creativity is that the cognitive system.....must generate new representations from experience. The generation of new representations—new ways to describe things and their relationships—is a cornerstone of creative accomplishment” (Hummel & Holyoak, 2002).

Basalla (1998) states “Any new thing that appears in the made world is based on some object already in existence” (p. 45). Further, Haskell (1998) quotes Jacob Rabinow who stated, “....one invents by putting things together that normally don’t go together,” and Stanford Ovshinsky who said, “For the most part, my inventions come from seemingly unrelated information....I draw upon my store, my environment” (p. 85). Similarly, Sternberg and Lubart (1995) suggest that creativity is a person-system interaction. Taken together, it can be inferred that creativity is meaningful only in the context of a system. In other words, creativity is manifested in the interaction between an individual and a given system.

In terms of the interaction between person (creative idea generator) and system (environment), it has been suggested that often creativity is confronted with people

who see the ideas as “incompatible with conventional ways of thinking and vested interest” (Sternberg & Lubart, p. 84). Creative ideas are rejected because the ideas go against the status quo, and are oppositional within a given system. Kuhn (1970) states that some creative ideas can reject current paradigms, and are therefore more transformational, i.e., double loop learning (Argyris and Schon, 1992), or they can be viewed as adaptive, forward-incremental creativity that works within a current organizational paradigm. The latter is suggestive of single loop learning occurring in the organization (Argyris and Schon).

“What is a creative mind, that it might emerge from a complex system; and what is a complex system, that it might give rise to a creative mind?”

Ben Goertzel,
From Complexity
to Creativity

Haskell places creative transfer in the context of the organization and suggests that it is driven by “intellectual capital, which is the knowledge that people have and that will increase in worth...” (p. 47). Further, he states that “intellectual capital is the basic material from which financial results are made” and he distinguishes between two types of intellectual capital:

Human capital is the source of innovation and renewal, whether it issues from knowledge base, brainstorming, laboratory findings, or leads that a sales representative has acquired. Putting this capital to work, however, requires structural intellectual assets. These include information systems, actual market channels, and other management structures. To engage a little transfer, we might view human capital as the software and the structural capital as the hardware to implement it. (p. 49).

Haskell also argues that in the HRD context, human capital is “productive knowledge; knowledge that leads (at some point) to financial gain....therefore, inert knowledge is not intellectual capital” (p. 50). He contends that “many problem solving situations are ambiguous and ill-structured, which creates problematic conditions for transfer....what is needed to cope with ill-structured problems is an extensive knowledge base” (p. 119). Further, Haskell (1998) suggests that noticing generic structures (e.g., mental models, scripts, and cultural norms) is important to enabling creative transfer. He states, “Being unaware of mental and organizational structures keeps us from inventing, creating, and seeing relationships or connections that could lead to change or innovations” (p. 137). Essentially, remaining unaware of generic structures becomes an obstacle for creative transfer. In order to create or invent an individual must have the ability to look beyond the generic structures that are their current frame of reference (e.g., double loop learning, Argyris and Schon, 1992).

Creativity Theory. Creativity depends on using our mental processes to create novelty (Halford & Wilson, 2002). It has been described as a natural consequence of the learning process (Dartnall, 2002). Creativity is generally described in terms of combinationism, which is the belief that creativity is the combination or recombination of previously existing elements in memory (Dartnall, 2002).

According to Maier (1970), creativity requires “the ability to fragment past experience to permit the formation of new spontaneous combinations and, in contrast, learning requires the ability to combine or connect elements that have been contiguous to each other in our experience” (p. 174). Maier suggests that while both learning and creativity are necessary and play a significant role in problem solving, they are not the

same. He states that “one person may possess an unusual learning ability and be uncreative; another may be unusually creative but not be outstanding in learning ability” (p. 176).

The point Maier makes elucidates an obstacle to transfer at the creative level. For example, a well-educated person can solve a problem by applying what he or she already knows. While this would be a successful approach, it would not be considered a creative solution. Application of their current knowledge doesn't necessarily allow for unique solutions to be developed. This requires the ability to combine parts of different solutions from different experiences that are stored in memory. Creative thinking is a radical rather than a conservative look at a problem and requires encouragement if it is to be nurtured (Halford & Wilson, 2002).

One solution to thinking creatively, or in “radical” versus “conservative” terms can be explained by the general distinction between divergent and convergent insight (Sternberg & Davidson, 1995). These terms reflect the classic distinction between divergent and convergent thinking.

Divergent thinking is defined as “thinking that flows outward from a concept, making contact with other ideas and possibilities that one might not ordinarily consider” (Sternberg & Davidson, 1995, p. 260). It leads to the discovery of remote associations and insights into unusual uses for common things (Maier, 1970). Convergent thinking refers to “thinking that focuses on a single idea of possibility, given a collection of facts” (Sternberg & Davidson, 1995, p. 260). An example of convergent thinking is determining that a particular route to work is the best possible way, considering the

traffic, the speed limits, and the road conditions (Sternberg & Davidson, 1995).

According to Sternberg & Davidson (1995):

A corresponding distinction can be made between convergent and divergent insight. In convergent insight, one discovers a creative structure or solution that makes sense out of apparently disconnected facts. This is exemplified in classic insight problems where conventional approaches will not work. Convergent insight is particularly useful in solving mysteries, where one must collect relevant clues and then discover a coherent explanation for them. Divergent insight in contrast occurs when one begins with a structure and seeks to find novel uses for it or novel implications of it. Divergent insight can be likened to the explorer who follows a path to see what might be discovered rather than to confirm what is already known or suspected. In divergent insight, one tries to find the meaning in the structure rather than to structure that which is meaningful. (p. 261).

These descriptors suggest that it is important to suspend expertise in attempts at creative problem solving. If a person “knows” how something should turn out, that person might constrain the direction of creative thought (Dartnall, 2002; Sternberg & Davidson, 1995). This is not to say that applying expertise in the creative process isn’t warranted; it seems to be a matter of timing.

Creativity theorists suggest that creativity entails both generative and analytical processes (Halford & Wilson, 2002). For example, Osborn (1963), the originator of brainstorming, proposed that creative problem solving progressed through three stages: 1) problem formulation, 2) idea finding, and 3) idea evaluation. During idea finding, the solver generates as many ideas as possible (divergent thinking), whereas during idea

evaluation, the solver analyzes the merits and disadvantages of each idea (convergent thinking). In other words, generative processes are critical because they produce novel solutions to problems. On the other hand, solutions to problems are only valuable if analyzed in the context of the problem and environment with which it will be applied.

It could be argued that individual creativity must be defined with respect to a system that includes not only the individual but also social and cultural factors which influence the creative process and help to constitute creativity (Isaksen, Puccio, & Treffinger, 1993). I would conclude that creativity should be explored through an ecological model, thus incorporating the context and environmental factors.

Ecological Thinking

Ecological Thinking has been defined in terms of asking the question, “What are the mutually interdependent relationships among behavior, persons and environments” (Banning, 2003). It has also been described as an interactionist approach in that “it is concerned with the interaction of several variables within a specific context, very much like the ecologist who explores the interactions among living and nonliving components within an ecosystem” (Isaksen et al., 1993).

According to Capra (1996), ecological thinking can be defined as consisting of relationships, connectedness, and context. Capra suggests that in science this kind of thinking is known as systems thinking. He states that system thinking views a problem or phenomena within the context of a system. The system is viewed as an integral whole whereby no part can be understood if it is viewed separate from the entire system (Wheatley, 1992). In addition, Capra suggests that all “living” systems contain feedback

loops, which have causally connected elements. He says, “an initial cause propagates around the links of the loop, so that each element has an effect on the next, until the last feeds back the effect into the first element in the cycle” (p.77).

Ecological thinking, like systems thinking, allows researchers to study the phenomena of learning transfer by exploring the interdependent relationship among variables that lead to transfer outcomes: interventions, the people involved, and the setting/environment (much like the emergence of the multidimensional models HRD researchers have recently presented).

Haskell (2000) in his attempt to describe the creative level of transfer, also supports the notion of ecological thinking. He points out that there have traditionally been two philosophical camps with regard to the *mind* that have been applied to transfer theories. Haskell states that, on the one hand, there is the philosophical view (predominantly academic) that the processes responsible for transfer reside inside the mind, and in another view (predominantly HRD), it is suggested that processes reside outside of the mind—in the environment. Haskell states that “a mistake has been made in taking only a single view of *mind* and applying it to transfer....transfer is complex and multifaceted” (2000, p. 85). Haskell’s statement implies a need to use an ecological approach to thinking about learning transfer; viewing creative transfer as the interaction between mind and environment. Haskell underscores this by stating the creative level of learning transfer is really about transfer thinking.

Relationship between ecological thinking and creative transfer

The creative level of learning transfer has been described as a person-system interaction by Sternberg & Lubart (1995), and ecological thinking has been described as

“the mutually interdependent relationships among behavior, persons and environments” (Banning, 2003). I interpret these two descriptions as having similar, if not the same properties.

Ecological thinking can be viewed as a process or approach to better understand the construct of creative learning transfer, but more importantly, it would seem that creative transfer cannot occur without ecological thinking. In other words, creative transfer, or as Haskell terms it, transfer thinking, and ecological thinking can be seen as equivalent. This is exemplified by Capra’s (1996) insights into ecological thinking. Capra suggests that feedback, which occurs through interactions between elements within a given system, is what enables a living system to have its own learning capacity.

Organizations are complex adaptive systems (Wheatley, 1992), and their ability to sustain, grow and succeed requires flexibility and a capacity to respond to environmental feedback (Berkes, Colding & Folke, 2000). They require creative learning transfer to take place.

“For fragmentation is now very widespread, not only throughout society, but also in each individual; and this is leading to a kind of general confusion of the mind, which creates an endless series of problems and interferes with our clarity of perception so seriously as to prevent us from being able to solve most of them....”

David Bohm

In general, the tendency of researchers has been to break down and explore the parts of a problem or phenomena independent of the interaction between those parts. Further, we have set up boundaries to reflect the separation (Wheatley, 1992). The same can be said about research on the constructs of memory (Baird, 2005), which was

stated earlier in the paper, as well as learning transfer (Cormier & Hagman, 1987) and creativity (Maier, 1970).

In the case of learning transfer, it has been stated that a reductionist approach has been taken, whereby the focus of research efforts are on isolating specific elements associated with learning transfer; specifically, the characteristics of the learner (trainee), aspects of training design, and the learning environment (Ford & Weissbein, 1997). Consequently, we have gained insight into each of these variables, with some studies resulting in transfer, and others that have not (Detterman & Sternberg, 1993; Haskell, 2000; Hatano & Greeno, 1999).

In the same vein, research on creativity has studied the parts, or variables, that are said to make up creativity; specifically, the person, process, products, and environment (Isaksen, Puccio, & Treffinger, 1993). Here again, we have garnered much from the conclusions drawn from these studies of creativity. However, not much attention has been given to the constructs of learning transfer and creativity in terms of the interaction between variables that make up either construct, as a whole system or phenomena.

As David Bohm's quote above suggests, in order to understand the outcomes of research on the construct of learning transfer, a researcher needs, not only to explore specific variables, but also the interaction between them. To this end, ecological thinking becomes a critical process to explore and understand the construct of transfer. Halford & Wilson (2002) support this notion and contend that creative thought is not possible if the relationship or interactions between variables within a given phenomena cannot be recognized.

This review of literature has attempted to inform learning transfer at the fifth and sixth levels of Haskell's learning transfer scheme (Haskell, 1998, 2000). I have reviewed the realm of management development, as well as foundational theories that have provided a platform from which to explore learning transfer. Further, I have incorporated a brief overview of theories that enable us to understand far transfer, such as theories on memory and analogical transfer and memory (level 5 of Haskell's scheme) and theories of creativity (level six in Haskell's scheme).

Chapter 3

Method

The research literature on the topic of learning transfer is expansive, diverse, and inconsistent. Several studies have been conducted within the fields of experimental and cognitive psychology, educational psychology, as well as the more practitioner-based human resources development (HRD) arena. In their endeavor to examine the same phenomena, the different studies have used both quantitative and qualitative approaches.

According to Field and Marck (1994) including studies with epistemologically different methodologies is not advised due to the difficulty of developing sound theory. Jensen and Allen (1996) agree and suggest that mixing qualitative approaches reduces the ability to interpret similar findings as confirmatory. Other researchers have been cited as holding the opposite view. In this view, including different methods will contribute to more depth and breadth of the description of the phenomena under study (Paterson, Thorne, Canam and Jillings, 2001). Further, Paterson, et al. propose that the epistemological approach must be consistent, however, they state that:

Many of those arguing against inclusion of different kinds of research do so because their synthesis strategies rely entirely on aggregating findings of similar kinds of studies and because they have no analytic mechanism by which to capitalize on the implications of variations within the larger body of research-based knowledge. (p. 40).

Creswell (1994) is in agreement with the latter view. He states that the use of mixed methods was “originally intended to ‘triangulate’ findings in order to demonstrate

convergence in results” (p. 189). Further, he states that the purpose is to find new perspectives and to add scope and breadth to our understanding of a phenomenon.

My study’s intent is to garner the type of scope and breadth Creswell discusses; therefore, it is critical that both qualitative and quantitative studies be included.

Following Paterson et al and Creswell’s advice, I will apply a meta-synthesis approach in order to develop a more informed understanding of the learning transfer phenomena within the context of management development interventions.

Meta-synthesis involves the systematic analysis and synthesis of primary studies, and is not merely aggregative; but rather it is an inductive and interpretive research approach (Noblit and Hare, 1988). A systematic review offers a comprehensive summary of what is, and is not, known about different management development interventions as they pertain to far and/or creative learning transfer.

In contrast to meta-analysis, which utilizes a quantitative methodology to examine quantitative research studies with an emphasis on the reduction of data (Zhao, 1991), and meta-ethnography, which is a qualitative methodology applied to only qualitative research studies (Huberman & Miles, 1994), meta-synthesis is a qualitative methodology that uses both qualitative and quantitative studies as sources of data, and is classified under an interpretive or phenomenological research paradigm (Paterson, Thorne, Canam and Jillings, 2001). The qualitative paradigm is most applicable to meta-synthesis given the methodology seeks to “describe and understand phenomena as wholes, or at least in ways that reflect their complexity” (Guba, 1978, p. 14).

Research Design

A qualitative meta-synthesis has been described as synthesizing the results of primary studies through the analysis of data (outcomes), methods used, and theory applied (Paterson, Thorne, Canam and Jillings, 2001). Further, Paterson, et al, contend, “meta-synthesis represents the creation of a new interpretation of a phenomenon that accounts for the data, method, and theory...” (p. 10). To support the analysis of data, methods, and theory, I will use an ecological triangulation approach in my research design (Banner, 2003). More specifically, the notion of triangulation will be exemplified, and an ecological sentence synthesis framework will be applied for data analysis. This is an emergent design whereby I will be able to make ongoing decisions regarding data selection, observation of patterns and themes, and the creation of new interpretations (Noblit & Hare, 1988).

The concept of triangulation is viewed as foundational in qualitative inquiry (Creswell, 1994). Denzin (1970) defines it as the use of a combination of methodologies when studying a certain phenomena. Denzin suggests that “multiple methods should be employed since no method is ever free of rival causal factors and thus seldom leads to completely sound causal propositions....” (p. 26). Webb, Campbell, Schwartz, and Sechrest (1966) support this and state “once a proposition has been confirmed by two or more independent measurement processes, the uncertainty of its interpretation is greatly reduced. The most persuasive evidence comes through a triangulation of measurement processes” (p. 3).

Denzin (1970) suggested that the use of triangulation equates to what he called the “multiple-paths-to-theory approach” (p. 74). One implication of this approach is that

conceptual definitions (more vague than operational definitions) may more readily permit comparative analysis of the construct, whereas an operationally defined (more narrow) construct may overlook important characteristics. This is supported by Cooper (1998) who suggests that research with the purpose of synthesis (versus primary) can “begin a literature search with only a conceptual definition and a few known operations that measure it” (p. 14). It is an organic and inductive process that allows operations to emerge as the literature is analyzed and synthesized.

In terms of meta-synthesis, triangulation can consist of the strategies of multi-data sources, multi-data collection methods, multi-researchers, and multi-theoretical approaches (Banning, 2003). Expanding the concept of triangulation to include an ecological approach, Banning concluded that “the ecological triangulation approach focuses on theory, method, interventions, persons, settings/environments and outcomes and the transactional relationship among these variables” (p. 1).

According to Banning (2003), the heart of the ecological triangulation approach is “the development of procedures that focus on the mutual interdependence among theory, method, and findings—findings that provide insight into what interventions work to produce what outcomes with what persons in what settings or environments” (p. 1).

In this light, the ecological sentence synthesis framework will be used as a guide. This framework is based upon inductive analysis and “the principle of enumeration to reach a general conclusion about a group of studies” (Banning, 2003, p.1). Banning (2003) suggests that an ecological framework should be applied when the research study is examining the question, “What are the mutually interdependent relationships among

behavior, persons and environments?” (p. 1). The question posed is a broad and general guide that will facilitate the observation of patterns and creation of new interpretations.

Sample Selection

The primary studies used in this meta-synthesis were selected based on five general inclusion criteria. First, the research study is focused on organization-sponsored management development interventions. Studies included under this criteria are encompassed under two categories; research studies that are conducting and measuring the effects of an actual intervention, and research studies that are investigating the effectiveness of overall management development systems. Second, the studies were based on research in the United States, Canada, the United Kingdom, Australia, and other western European countries. Initially, this was not the case.

The original intent was to include only those studies found within the United States. However, after reviewing a small sample, I discovered that there was a richness that would have been lost due to exclusion of studies outside of the United States. Third, the results can be considered consistent with the adaptive (far), and/or creative levels of learning transfer as defined by Haskell (1998; 2000) and Ford & Weissbien (1998). Fourth, the sample will consist of articles published in peer reviewed journals and doctoral dissertations. Estebrooks and colleagues (1994) have noted that dissertations are appropriate in a meta-study because they adhere to the standards of academic rigor required by universities, whereas published journal articles are reduced to a more tightly constructed message based on editorial parameters, and therefore eliminate potentially important data elements. Finally, the fifth criteria applied to sample selection included only those studies published between 1995 and 2005.

I did not predetermine the number of studies to be used in my research, as the research was emergent and therefore studies were added as the research progressed (Noblit and Hare, 1988). Further, Noblit and Hare suggest rather than emphasizing the need to conduct an exhaustive search, selection of studies should focus on what can be learned from integrating the primary studies selected.

Data collection

This study utilized a systematic review of primary research as a method to comprehensively explore existing studies of management development interventions as they pertain to far or creative transfer. A protocol was used (table 3) that outlines the stages of a systematic review. The protocol was modified from the work of Baldwin, Wallace, Croucher, Quilgars and Mather (2002).

Search Strategy. A variety of electronic databases were used to identify relevant studies including: Ebsco Business Primer, Educational Resources Informational Center (ERIC), Digital Dissertations and Dissertation Abstracts International, and Psych Info. Searches included a scan of title, abstract and descriptors that were consistent with five inclusion criteria (listed under sample selection). Search terms initially used are listed in the table below.

○ Training transfer	○ Management training	○ Organizational innovation
○ Learning transfer	○ Far transfer	○ Analogical transfer
○ Management development	○ Organizational creativity	

After studies were collected and placed into the matrix, a second search was conducted in order to draw upon studies focused on far and creative learning transfer in an organizational context using the terms listed in the table below.

○ Double loop learning	○ Organizational problem solving
○ Deep learning	○ Organizational thinking
○ Deep processing	○ Organizational Reasoning

In addition to the database search, I scanned bibliographies in order to source relevant studies. Further, I elicited data sources for methodological resources from my dissertation methodologist, Dr. James Banning and topical sources from my advisor, Dr. Jerry Gilley.

Data Analysis

According to Miles and Huberman (1994), qualitative data analysis consists of data reduction, data displays and conclusion drawing/verification. Data reduction refers to “the process of selecting, focusing, simplifying, abstracting, and transforming the data...” (p. 10). For the purposes of this study, a literature review protocol was used (see table 3), and a matrix was designed whereby data was displayed (see data display below) in order to provide “an organized, compressed assembly of information that permits conclusion drawing and action” (p. 11). The matrix was the foundation for reviewing and synthesizing primary studies (see Appendix A). Finally, conclusion drawing and verification refers to making decisions about meaning. Miles and Huberman caution the researcher that these conclusions are generally made starting at the point of data collection and continue through the cycle of analysis. Therefore, it is critical that “the

researcher hold these conclusions lightly, maintaining openness and skepticism” (p. 11). Further, the authors contend that conclusion drawing is not enough; conclusions must be verified. For the purpose of this study verification will take the form of re-reviewing details in the primary studies, or point to replication of findings between studies (Miles and Huberman). The authors also maintain that verification will reinforce interpretations made and thus support validity.

Inclusion Criteria. During the data collection process, I identified and reviewed an abstract, and subsequently made determinations regarding whether or not they fit within the five inclusion criteria outlined under sample selection. Further, I did *not* include studies if it was a masters thesis (versus a doctoral dissertation); the study focused on near transfer versus far transfer, as well as those that focused on far transfer, but included subjects other than managers (e.g., students in an MBA program); or I was simply not able to obtain a full text version of the study.

Data display. Once inclusion was determined, the studies were placed in a matrix (MS Excel spreadsheet), which was created to capture and record categorical data elements. This enabled me to systematically review data elements and easily transform the data into the ecological sentence framework. Category headings for each column included the following:

- Article ID (number assigned to track studies)
- Article Title
- Author
- Date
- Publisher
- Source/Citation
- Participants
- Variables / Questions examined
- Method (design, methodology, analysis, instruments used)
- Results

- Effect Size (for quantitative studies)
- Setting
- Treatment characteristics
- Theoretical Framework

Quality Assessment Criteria. A review of primary studies must include a critical assessment regarding the quality of the primary studies (Baldwin, Wallace, Croucher, Quilgars & Mather, 2002). Miles & Huberman (1994) suggest that “quality control” is a matter of consistency and answering the question, “have things been done with reasonable care?” (p. 278). In an attempt to insure quality control, this study utilized the Design and Implementation Assessment Device (DIAD) (Banning & Cobb, 2003). The DIAD enabled me to conduct a review of primary studies in a way that attempted to limit bias through quality control (Mays & Pope, 2000). Bias may be present by “reporting findings from poorly conducted studies, from the reviewers own position in relation to the issue at hand and from failing to assess the complete range of published and unpublished work on the subject” (Baldwin, et al., p. 2). Further, according to Baldwin, et al., a systematic review attempts to reduce these sources of bias by explicating decisions made regarding sources (i.e., inclusion criteria), how quality was assessed (i.e., the DIAD), and how the outcomes from the studies were combined (i.e., ecological sentence framework). Table 3 outlines the review protocol utilized in this study.

Based on the inclusion criteria and other reasons described for excluding studies, I have identified 31 studies for inclusion in my meta-synthesis. The majority of studies excluded were those that included a sample population other than manager and lesser degrees of transfer (level 1-4 on Haskell’s scheme). There were also studies excluded due to lack of quality as defined by the DIAD (e.g., did not meet standards regarding validity as listed on the DIAD).

Review Protocol

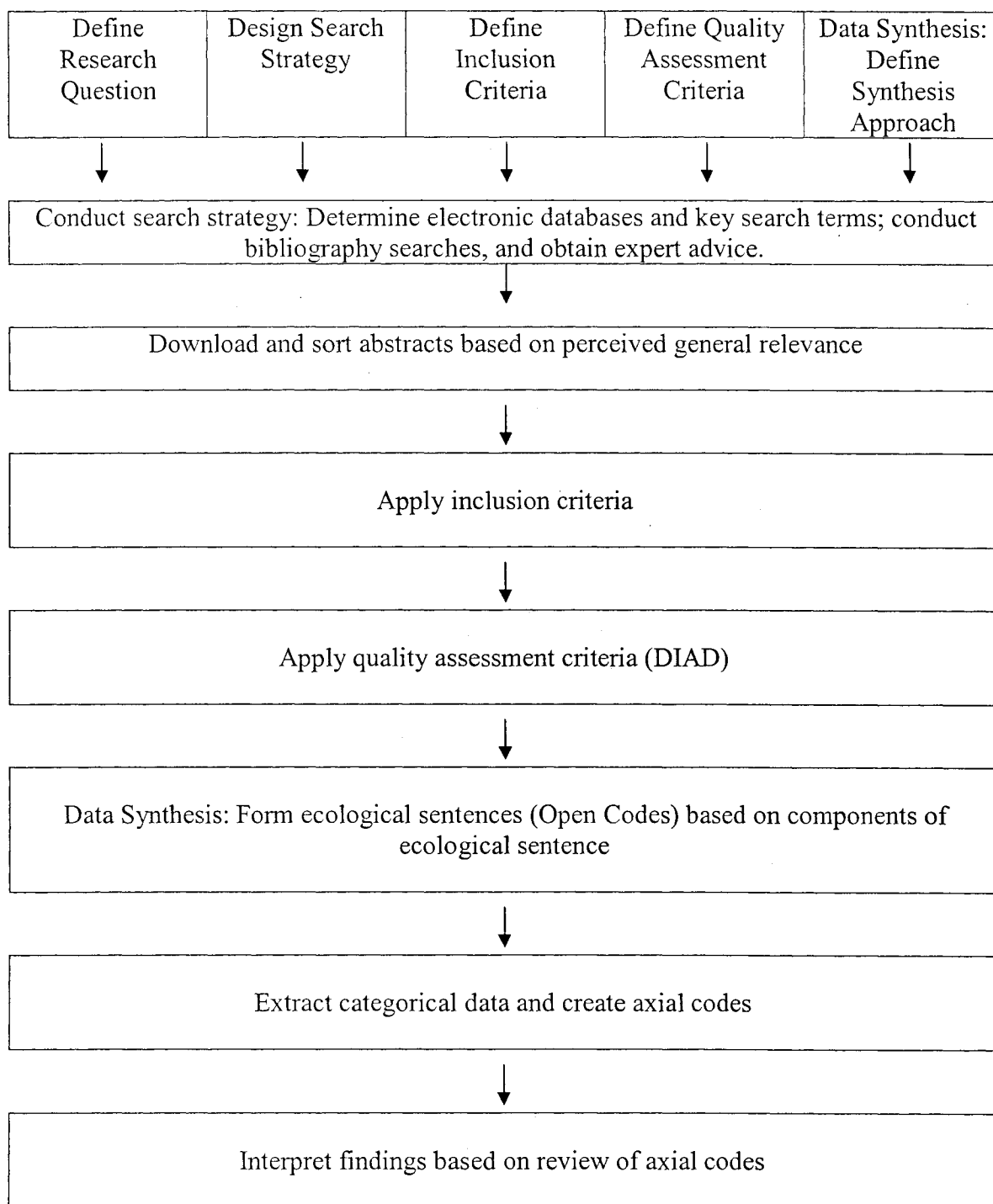


Table 3, modified from protocol used by Baldwin, Wallace, Croucher, Quilgars & Mather, (2002).

Data synthesis. The choice of data analytic approaches should be consistent with the research question (Paterson, et al., 2001). Therefore, an inductive approach was used whereby an ecological sentence synthesis framework, which is built on inductive analysis, was utilized (Banning, 2003). According to Banning, ecological sentences can be utilized for both qualitative and quantitative studies. Also, as an inductive process, it will include constant comparative analysis, i.e., the progression from open codes to axial codes (Banning).

Following the procedures outlined by Banning (2003), data will be analyzed using a two-step process. First, an ecological sentence will be written for each study based on the category headings outlined previously. The sentence structure will replicate the research question: *What* management development interventions have demonstrated *what* results in terms of far and/or creative learning transfer, with *what* learner characteristics, in *what* settings, and using what theoretical framework? The sentences will function as open codes. The second step will be to use the open code sentences to create axial codes under the following categories: intervention, sample or learner characteristics, research method, and theory. The third and final step will be to synthesize the data by using the axial codes to interpret and summarize overall findings.

Synthesizing both qualitative and quantitative research studies is viewed as essential as well as problematic (Dixon-Woods, Fitzpatrick & Roberts, 2001). To make the synthesis of quantitative studies more feasible, effect sizes will be calculated (Creswell, 1994). Lipsey & Wilson (2001) support the use of effect size, and state that results found in a quantitative study “must be recorded in the form of an effect size value with an accompanying profile of associated information describing the particulars of that

effect size” (p. 81). Also, Lipsey & Wilson suggest that in cases where results from primary quantitative studies “are not easily represented by a common effect size statistic, other data may be reported that can be used...such as a correlation matrix upon which a multiple regression is based” (p. 15).

According to Dixon-Woods, Fitzpatrick & Roberts (2001), qualitative research has been marginalized in systematic reviews due to methodological prejudice, which refers to the perceived lack of validity with regard to qualitative evidence. A second reason the authors propose is the perception of methodological difficulties, which stem from the view that there are still too few explicit epistemological and methodological rules and techniques. Further, the authors contend that the identification of suitable studies is perceived as problematic. Systematic review literature is limited in terms of how qualitative evidence should be searched for and compiled (Dixon-Woods, et al.).

With respect to the synthesis of quantitative and qualitative research studies, Dixon-Woods, Fitzpatrick & Roberts (2001) maintain that synthesis should be broadly understood as summarizing available studies, whether that involves pooling data (quantitative) or involving narrative (qualitative). Further, the authors contend that it is necessary to exclude studies (regardless of quantitative or qualitative approach) that are of insufficient quality; and therefore cannot “fully contribute to a synthesis of evidence” (p. 130).

Validity

Qualitative research insures validity through trustworthiness (Creswell, 1994) and quality (Miles & Hubberman, 1994). For this meta-synthesis, trustworthiness has been established through inclusion criteria that were predetermined at the outset for this study.

Further, the Design and Implementation Assessment Device (DIAD) Version 0.3 (Banning and Cobb, 2001) was used to analyze studies in terms of quality, and therefore further restrict inclusion of studies that were not trustworthy. The DIAD is a tool guided by four assumptions:

Qualitative designs vary across studies in ways that affect confidence (trustworthiness) that can be placed in their results and qualitative designs have more than one dimension. The third assumption, that studies with different purposes require different assessments, explicitly states that qualitative “descriptions” are going to evoke issues of design and implementation which are different than other purposes. Finally, the last assumption that supports Campbell’s approach of assessing the validity of inferences can also be applied to qualitative designs within the general notion that assessment of “threats” is also a viable concept when evaluating qualitative designs. (p. 1).

There are eight composite questions that were used to assess both the quantitative and qualitative studies used in this meta-synthesis (see table 4). Each question is focused on validity: construct, internal, external, and statistical. The preponderance of studies excluded in my review were due to lack of construct validity and statistical validity, more specifically, the findings were not adequately described or the completeness of reporting was not acceptable.

In the case of external validity, the majority of studies (14) did not meet this standard in terms of testing within sub groups. Given the number of studies impacted, I made the decision to be lenient with regard to this question, and disregard those that did not completely meet this particular standard.

DIAD

Qualitative Translation

Construct Validity:	
1 Intervention	<input type="radio"/> Was the phenomenon/intervention adequately described?
2 Outcome Measures	<input type="radio"/> Were findings adequately described in terms of related literature?

Internal Validity:	
3 Sample Selection	<input type="radio"/> What sampling strategy was used?
4 Uncontaminated by other Events	<input type="radio"/> What measures were used to establish credibility of the study?

External Validity:	
5 Sampling	<input type="radio"/> What measures were taken to impact transferability?
	<input type="radio"/> Was the sample data compared to demographic data?
	<input type="radio"/> Was time sampling employed?
	<input type="radio"/> Were prolonged and varied field experiences included in the study?
	<input type="radio"/> Was the concept of conceptual generalization employed?
6 Testing within Subgroups	<input type="radio"/> Were findings, thematic frameworks associated with any sub groupings within the participant pool?

Statistical Validity:	
7 Effect Size estimation	<input type="radio"/> Level of transparency and craftsmanship in analysis procedures?
8 Completeness of Reporting	<input type="radio"/> Were audit trails of the study provided?

Table 4: DIAD

Source: Banning, J. and Cobb, B. (2001). Design and Implementation Assessment Device (DIAD) Version 0.3, Colorado State University unpublished paper.

Examination of the construct of learning transfer has included both quantitative, qualitative, or a mixed approach. I applied a meta-synthesis approach in order to develop a more informed understanding of the learning transfer phenomena within the context of management development interventions. This meta-synthesis involved the systematic analysis and synthesis of primary studies in an inductive and interpretive manner (Noblit and Hare, 1988). A systematic review offered a comprehensive summary of what is, and is not, known about different management development interventions as they pertain to far and/or creative learning transfer. In order to ensure quality, the Design and Implementation Assessment Device (DIAD) Version 0.3 (Banning and Cobb, 2001) was used to analyze studies and therefore restrict inclusion of studies that were not trustworthy (lacked validity).

Chapter 4

Results

This chapter presents findings from the meta-synthesis that inform far and/or creative learning transfer within the domain of management development in organizations. There were thirty-one studies that were included in this meta-synthesis; fifteen of which were doctoral dissertations and sixteen published peer reviewed journal articles. Of these studies, 19 were quantitative, of which 11 were quasi-experimental and six were true experimental (random assignment to treatments). Two studies were quantitative, correlational, seven studies used a qualitative design with a case study approach, four studies used a mixed methods approach (quantitative and qualitative) and one utilized an Action/Practitioner research design.

The chapter is divided into three sections. First, I summarize the characteristics of the research studies using an ecological sentence structure (Banning, 2003). In other words, what management development *intervention* obtained what *results* with regard to far and/or creative transfer using what research *methods*, with what *persons*, in what *setting*, and using what *theoretical framework*? Second, I identify patterns interpreted from the axial coding procedure with regard to the interventions, methods, sample and theoretical frameworks. I conclude the chapter providing a summary of the overall themes that emerged from the primary research studies reviewed in this meta-synthesis.

Ecological Sentences

As stated in chapter three the ecological triangulation approach is “the development of procedures that focus on the mutual interdependence among theory, method, and findings—findings that provide insight into what interventions work to

produce what outcomes with what persons in what settings or environments” (Banning, 2003, p. 1). In this light, the ecological sentence synthesis framework was used as a guide in this meta-synthesis in order to examine patterns between the primary studies and create new interpretations (Banning, 2003).

The questions to be examined is, What management development *intervention* obtained what *results* with regard to far and/or creative transfer using what research *methods*, with what *persons*, in what *setting*, and using what *theoretical framework*. Table five provides the ecological sentences for the primary studies in this meta-synthesis.

Ecological Sentences

Source	Intervention	Results	Methods	Persons (Sample)	Setting	Theoretical Framework
Dissertation: Smilonich, D. (1999)	Large Scale Intervention	Behavior changes were attributed to org. learning; however, learning that occurred was heavily context-laden and counter-cultural and therefore not readily transferable to different contexts. The system remained essentially unchanged. As a result, the behavioral changes during the LSI process were not sustainable and the system quickly returned to its former state of equilibrium.	Action/Practitioner Research	Mixed – senior and middle managers, and whole organization	State Government Department of Transportation	Organizational Learning; Double loop learning
Dissertation: Hall, Melinda (2001)	Leadership Development Retreat	Findings propose that deep learning occurs as a result of a unpredictable and dynamic interplay amongst six components that interact with one another (inducted through thematic coding): catalyst, context, conditions, content, capability, and culture. It is the authors view that "the occurrence of an awareness and consequent reflection on that awareness are as important as behavioral manifestations as indicators of deep learning.	Qualitative / Case Study	Mixed – managers and non-managers	Pecos River Learning Center	Deep learning/Double loop learning
Dissertation: Vicker, D. (1998)	General Management Development	No evidence to suggest that any improvement was made between the pre and post test of participants in interpersonal communication competence in this study; highly likely that experiential methods had <i>no</i> direct impact on how well the participants learned the content.	Quantitative / Experimental	Mixed – mid-level managers and supervisors	State & County training Center (FL government)	Experiential / Adult Learning

Source	Intervention	Results	Methods	Persons (Sample)	Setting	Theoretical Framework
Dissertation: Benischek, S. (1996)	General Management Development	The mgmt dev program as a method of changing locus of control orientation was shown to be ineffective as a change agent; Three relationships previously established in the literature have been reconfirmed in the current study: training programs appear to attract employees who are more internal, managers are more internal and satisfied than non managers, and job satisfaction and age are positively related.	Quantitative / Experimental	Mixed – managers and non-managers	Southwestern University in U.S.	Social Learning Theory – Rotter’s Locus of Control
Antonacopoulou, E. International Journal of Training and Development (1999)	General Management Development	Managers perceived learning to result from four main sources: training, experience, modeling others in the workplace, and coaching. Further, and perhaps more importantly, managers across the 3 banks perceived training and learning as closely interconnected. Results point to historical and cultural reasons for the organizations, and perhaps industry, reinforcing the view that training interventions are intended to facilitate learning in order to enhance performance; managers feel insecure about learning if it is not through training. Responses regarding the extent to which they feel they have learned from training interventions and were able to utilize knowledge acquired from training suggest that significant proportion of managers claim that in most cases they are not in a position to utilize the learning, and experience difficulty applying the knowledge acquired.	Qualitative / Case Study / Longitudinal	Mid-level managers	Across three Retail Banks in UK	Organizational Learning & Self Directed Learning

Source	Intervention	Results	Methods	Persons (Sample)	Setting	Theoretical Framework
<p>Tracey, J., Tannenbaum, S., Kavanagh, M.</p> <p>Journal of Applied Psychology</p> <p>(1995)</p>	<p>General Supervisory Skills</p>	<p>Results support that work environment is important for the application of newly acquired behavior and skills. Various training related cues in the work environment can facilitate or hinder the application of newly trained behaviors for both new and experienced supervisors. In addition, salient characteristics were found to exist that were not directly related to training, but more generally related to learning, that had a direct effect on the transfer of training. Behaviors that send a message that learning is important and valued, and cues that suggest the org is innovative and competitive, appear to encourage the application of newly trained behaviors. Also, a continuous learning culture can influence specific behaviors associated with a particular training program. Values associated with continuous learning are embodied in many of the prevalent approaches to org change, such as TQM. Moreover, the level of aggregation analysis showed that at least in this sample, training climate and learning culture tend to exist at the work group level. That is, people who commonly interact with each other at work are most likely to share perceptions of the work environment. Findings suggest that interventions that target supervisors, coworkers, and others who interact with trainees may yield the greatest dividends toward establishing a supportive training and learning environment.</p>	<p>Quantitative / Quasi Experimental</p>	<p>Mixed – Store managers, Assistant managers, and supervisors</p>	<p>Private organization that owns and operates 77 supermarkets in four northeastern states – offsite company owned training center</p>	<p>Transfer Environment – Conceptual model consisting of organizational climate and continuous learning culture.</p>

Source	Intervention	Results	Methods	Persons (Sample)	Setting	Theoretical Framework
Dissertation: Wyszynski, T. (1998)	General Supervisory Skills	Managers self-reported significant improvement in their own performance from the pre and posttest scores. Improvement was noted in their ability to communicate, problem solve, and manage schedules and deadlines. Self reports were hypothesized to be positively associated with the subordinates rating of improvement in management skills. However, it was not supported. Improvement in management relations based on the subordinates evaluation of manager performance, was hypothesized to increase the probability of reducing the frequency of grievance filing rates. This was strongly supported.	Quantitative / Quasi Experimental	Mixed – front line managers and supervisors	Global company characterized by an inherently diverse work force that consists of union and non union workers. Interested in maintain good industrial relations with the United Auto Workers Union (UAW) and internal communications.	No theory – literature: Holton (1996) suggests need to design an approach to evaluation that would consider measuring the different levels of the evaluation simultaneously. Relationship between mgmt development and org performance, as well as need for expanded theory on evaluation and measurement criteria in organizations is discussed.
Donohoe, T., Johnson, J. & Stevens, J. Employee Assistance Quarterly (1997)	General Supervisory Skills / Employee Assistance Training	Post test scores were significantly greater than at pretest and delayed post test; delayed post test scores were still significantly greater than at pretest. Evidence suggests that some information is lost, however the overall training method appears to be effective in providing the information to the supervisor. It is believe that the small group helped with learning acquisition. Also problem solving power of small groups, value of interaction on learning, and the immediate feedback relative to their responses as measured by the training protocol.	Quantitative / Quasi Experimental	Supervisors	Federal government facility in rural area.	Literature – predictors of utilization and referral (to EAP) behavior in supervisors; performance management

Source	Intervention	Results	Methods	Persons (Sample)	Setting	Theoretical Framework
<p>Cromwell, S. & Kolb, J.</p> <p>Human Resources Development Quarterly</p> <p>(2004)</p>	<p>General Supervisory Skills / Peer Support Network</p>	<p>Showed that trainees who reported receiving high levels of organization, supervisor, and peer support reported higher levels of transfer of knowledge and skills. T-test results indicated that trainees and their supervisors did not differ in their perceptions of level of transfer of skills or amount of organizational or direct supervisor support received by the trainees. All four work environment factors have a statistically significant positive correlation with transfer. When data were segregated and examined according to length of time since trainees had completed training, findings were still significant for organization, supervisor, and peer support but only at the one-year point, not at one month or six months. Participation in a peer support network was not significant at any of the three points of time; trainees indicated that lack of time and lack of management support and buy-in were significant barriers to transfer.</p>	<p>Mixed Methods Design (Quant/Qual)</p>	<p>Supervisors – front line</p>	<p>One Department within Large northeastern University</p>	<p>Transfer Environment; Team member exchange theory; social networks theory</p>
<p>Dissertation: Kiehl, J. (2004)</p>	<p>Informal / Discontinuous Learning Events</p>	<p>Produced a model of learning wherein (a) willingness to adapt is antecedent to learning at the organizational level, (b) mental maps are influenced by both intrapersonal and interpersonal processes, and (c) emotion is as central as cognition relative to the construction of both willingness and mental maps.</p>	<p>Qualitative / Case Study / Grounded Theory</p>	<p>Mixed – executives, managers, and non-managers</p>	<p>Single plant; global manufacturing firm</p>	<p>Organizational Learning</p>

Source	Intervention	Results	Methods	Persons (Sample)	Setting	Theoretical Framework
<p>Dissertation: Darnell, S. (2003)</p>	<p>Informal / Discontinuous Learning Events</p>	<p>Findings suggest that learning processes did change as the company grew in age and size. Participants described learning processes in terms of observable changes in the org including channels of communication, decision making processes, and socialization. Change events included: TQM program, Downsizing, Being acquired by Outdoor Adventurers, and integration of an additional catalog company, Endurance Sports. There was an increased tendency to learn through formal organizational processes, increased reliance on explicit knowledge, while the tendency to share tacit knowledge through informal processes decreased. Further, findings suggest that single-loop learning occurred with each of the four growth events, and double-loop learning occurred with the second and fourth growth events, one of which was experienced as continuous change and the other as discontinuous change.</p>	<p>Qualitative / Ex-Post Facto Case Study</p>	<p>Mid-level managers</p>	<p>Natural Environment, Direct Marketing Company</p>	<p>Organizational Learning & Organizational Change</p>

Source	Intervention	Results	Methods	Persons (Sample)	Setting	Theoretical Framework
<p>Cope, J.</p> <p>Journal: Management Learning</p> <p>(2003)</p>	<p>Informal / Discontinuous Learning events</p>	<p>Illustrates that discontinuous events experienced by all entrepreneurs in the study stimulated distinctive forms of 'higher-level' learning--learning that is fundamental to the entrepreneur in both personal and business terms. When individuals faced such non routine situations their learned responses and habitual ways of behaving proved ineffectual. Forced individuals to question their taken-for-granted assumptions and reframe their understanding of the situation at hand. Or, in other words, opportunities or crises. Different levels of learning – from more practical, routine to adaptive, and finally learning that generates new understandings and new cognitive theories for action thereby forcing individuals to question their established ways of doing things. This notion has been encapsulated within such terms as lower level and higher level learning; adaptive and generative learning; as well as single and double loop learning. Of significance is the recognition that higher order forms of learning have the capacity to challenge or redefine what has been described variously as an individual's mental models or theories of action. Differentiating between different levels of learning is very difficult, as they remain inextricably linked. Identifying where adaptive learning stops and generative learning starts is difficult and often relies to a certain extent upon the subjective assessment of the analyst.</p>	<p>Qualitative / Case Study</p>	<p>Executives / Entrepreneurs</p>	<p>Small business ownership / growth</p>	<p>Mezirow's transformational learning; Double loop learning</p>

Source	Intervention	Results	Methods	Persons (Sample)	Setting	Theoretical Framework
<p>Enos, M., Kehrhahn, M., Bell, A.</p> <p>Human Resources Development Quarterly (2003)</p>	<p>Informal / Comparison with Formal</p>	<p>Results suggested that informal learning is predominantly a social process and that managers with high levels of proficiency who experience low levels of coworker, supervisor, and organizational support learn managerial skills mostly from informal learning and transfer learning more frequently. There was a lack of a significant positive relationship ($r=-.01$) in this study between extent of informal learning and the transfer of learning. Also, transfer climate factors did not play a significant role in how managers learned and transferred skills. Authors believe meta-cognitive knowledge and self regulation work together in a dynamic fashion to produce effective learning (vs. climate). Finally, regarding proficiency as a product of informal learning and the transfer of learning--results suggest that proficiency is a result of informal learning and that proficiency and transfer of learning have a strong reciprocal relationship.</p>	<p>Mixed methods Design (Quant Non-Experimental /Qual)</p>	<p>Mixed -- managers across departments</p>	<p>Large subsidiary of 100 year old fortune 100 company in New England</p>	<p>Informal Learning Theory; Social practice theory; Learning transfer theory</p>
<p>Dissertation: Rodenbaugh, M. (2002)</p>	<p>Informal / Experiential Learning</p>	<p>77% of participants showed changes in mental models of authority immediately after the workshop; 11 failed to maintain the changes after 6 weeks. (27%) made a change and held the change. Findings suggest dependent and interdependent individuals are more likely to change their mental models. Counter-dependent participants may change but are likely to return to their original position. Individuals entered the workshop primarily with a counter dependent mental model; the workshop raised the awareness of 53% of participants who changed to an interdependent stance.</p>	<p>Mixed -- Q-methodology (Q-Sorts)</p>	<p>Executives</p>	<p>Hilton Hotel, NJ</p>	<p>Organizational learning & Social Constructivist Learning Theory</p>

Source	Intervention	Results	Methods	Persons (Sample)	Setting	Theoretical Framework
Warr, P. & Bunce, D. Personnel Psychology (1995)	Informal / Self-Directed Learning	learning score was significantly Significant associations were found between learning score and changes in rated job performance; mean job performance increased primarily between time 1 and 2. Trainees reported somewhat more use of an analytic rather than behavioral learning strategy. Performance change after training--multivariate analysis of variance on the three occasions indicated overall trend across the 7 months was strongly significant. Only one difference was significant between time 2 and 3--an increase in ratings of wider job knowledge. Mean job performance scores between time 1 and 3 was significant. Only analytical strategy was found to be significantly correlated with learning (versus behavioral). Previously measured general attitude and specific motivation were both positive; and learning task anxiety was greater than interpersonal anxiety.	Quantitative / Quasi-Experimental	Junior Managers	UK Organization – Four geographically separated depts. Worked with local Universities	Social Cognitive Theory and other constructs from literature pertaining to individual trainee characteristics as it pertains to transfer
Dissertation: Pfeifer, L. (2004)	Informal / Self-Directed Learning	This study demonstrated that, in measuring skill and knowledge acquisition, a new remote delivery method, Self-Directed Motivation System (SDMS), was as effective as instructor-led workshop delivery. In terms of transfer and increasing managers' intrinsic motivation towards training content, SDMS was more effective than the instructor-led workshop.	Quantitative / Experimental	Mixed – VP, Director, Sr. Manager and Supervisors	SDMS – remote; instructor-led – didn't say.	Social Cognitive Theory, Intrinsic Motivation theory

Source	Intervention	Results	Methods	Persons (Sample)	Setting	Theoretical Framework
<p>Dissertations: Stromei, L. (1998)</p>	<p>Informal / Mentoring</p>	<p>The mentees showed a significant improvement on their leadership effectiveness and flexibility from the pre-test to the posttest. Other variables tested were number of meetings between the pairs, quality of projects participated in, availability of the mentor to the mentee, number of phone calls and outside meetings, personality, gender, age and psychosocial benefits received as well as overall satisfaction with the program. Protégés noted importance of having a mentor that was available to them, one that shared the same values and they could feel good about modeling their leadership behavior; a mentor who would work with them on projects that would help them gain the skills and expertise they need. Many of the protégés, who achieved a high level of success in their mentoring relationship, as defined by an increase in overall leadership skills, psychosocial benefits, and satisfaction, mentioned that they started their mentoring relationship in a problem solving mode. The common themes that ran through interviews was that the initial stages of development of their relationship, they were able to establish rapport and trust quickly because they were focused on solving a problem.</p>	<p>Mixed – Quant/Qual</p>	<p>Mid-level managers</p>	<p>Organization with 60% technical / scientific positions with large retirement eligible population in the management ranks.</p>	<p>Social Learning Theory</p>

Source	Intervention	Results	Methods	Persons (Sample)	Setting	Theoretical Framework
Dissertation: Bostain, N. (2000)	Interpersonal Skills / Behavior Modeling	Mean scores between self-evaluation, Subordinate evaluation and supervisor evaluation were positively correlated. ANOVA using the transfer of training as the dependent measure showed a highly significant main effect for treatment condition. There is a statistically significant difference between the control group and the experimental group concerning demonstration of the key actions in the workplace, as perceived by the trainees, their supervisors, and their subordinates. The results of the present study support the use of behavioral modeling in industry to improve supervisory interpersonal skills.	Quantitative / Quasi-Experimental	Supervisors	Global Aerospace company	Social Learning Theory

Source	Intervention	Results	Methods	Persons (Sample)	Setting	Theoretical Framework
<p>Hunt, J. & Baruch, Y.</p> <p>Journal of Management Development</p> <p>(2003)</p>	<p>Interpersonal Competency</p>	<p>Training has modest but positive outcomes. Results indicate significant impact on some, but not all, of the competencies and skills under study. No cohort failed to improve its mean on at least some questions; however, it was clear that Refinement, rather than radical change is possible. The skills most responsive to training were easily described, had clear objectives and outcome criteria and, in practice, could be segmented into a step-by-step routine based on a memorable model or theory. In contrast, the so called "soft and feely" skills proved to be the most difficult to improve statistically and provide some evidence for the view that emotional intelligence should be considered as a personality variable. For example, sensitivity to the pressures on others is not easily learnt by the insensitive. This makes them more difficult to teach and hence the weaker response from direct reports compared with those skills for which a specific theory-based well tested, step by step routine is available. Where a specific step by step routine based on a simple theory was offered, the rate of learning was enhanced greatly. Two skills appeared to be less responsive to training than any others. Decision making (influenced by cognitive skills) and giving one to one feedback skills. Training may have little impact on ways of thinking. Similarly, skills used in intimate interpersonal relationships, such as giving feedback to others, may also be more difficult to certain people such as introverts. Their personality makes them less responsive to certain forms of training, simply because these skills are difficult for them to learn.</p>	<p>Quantitative / Quasi-Experimental</p>	<p>Executives</p>	<p>London</p>	<p>Argyris' Interpersonal Style Theory</p>

Source	Intervention	Results	Methods	Persons (Sample)	Setting	Theoretical Framework
Dissertation: Waggoner, E. (2001)	Interpersonal Skills	Treatment and comparison training group's post scores indicated significant increases resulting from the training (control group had no training; no change in scores). The training group that received the adjunct training (follow up to original training) perceived the training eased their transition into a management position and improved their ability to transfer the management skills to their new job to a significantly greater degree than the group that received only the initial phase of training.	Quantitative / Experimental	Supervisors / Jr. Managers	NASA Research Center	Adult Learning Theory
Dissertation : Louis-Slaby, M. (2004)	Multi-Source / Multi-Rater (MSMR)	Predicted that individuals with performance gaps would likely try to mend these disparities by seeking development and improvement, this was not the case. Instead, the results acknowledge that previous development and performance successes had the potential to predict future successes (i.e. past behavior will predict future behavior). Thus, strong performers would engage in development activity to become even stronger. Despite somewhat weak effect sizes, predictive power associated with peer and employee performance ratings is interesting. Peer and employee ratings showed a significant, positive relationship with feedback acceptance and organized approach to development, .05 and .01 respectively. Results indicated that peer and employee ratings were the strongest predictors of pursuit of activity in a development program. The results are of particular interest because peers and employees, with respect to performance evaluations, generally have no input. Typically, managers maintain evaluative control relative to performance appraisals.	Quantitative / Experimental	Mixed – managers at all levels	Southeastern University	Performance and Personality – Conceptual Model

Source	Intervention	Results	Methods	Persons (Sample)	Setting	Theoretical Framework
Seifert, C., Yukl, G., McDonald, R. Journal of Applied Psychology (2003)	MSMR	Managers in the feedback workshop increased their use of some core influence tactics with subordinates, whereas there was no change in behavior for the control group or for the comparison group. The feedback was perceived to be more useful by managers who received it in a workshop with a facilitator than by managers who received only a printed feedback report. The core tactics that demonstrated a significant change were consultation and collaboration. There was no significant effect of the feedback workshop on the other core tactics. Also evaluated the effects of a feedback facilitator who was not the manager's boss. Results show that having a competent, supportive facilitator increases the perceived utility of the feedback and results in more behavior change for the managers.	Quantitative / Experimental	Mid-level managers	Financial Institution – offsite training facility	Control Theory
Tyson, S. & Ward, P. Management Learning (2004)	MSMR	Senior mgrs showed significant improvement in their score in every competency between 1997 and 1999. Personal impact and making things happen received a higher score than all other competencies. Strategic mgmt and inspiration showed the largest difference between 1997 and 1999. Competencies concerned with helping other to change were not so much improved. Results for Impact II (middle managers) showed no statistically significant improvements on any of the competencies. All scores increased to some extent, but not statistically significantly. Differences in I and I were: coaching providing to impact I involved more time than impact II. Middle managers were focused on operations, and the pressures of their work were of an obstacle.	Quantitative / Quasi-Experimental	Mixed – Senior managers and mid-level, front line managers	Local Government, UK	Organizational Learning; Social constructivist theory

Source	Intervention	Results	Methods	Persons (Sample)	Setting	Theoretical Framework
Bailey, C. & Fletcher, C. Journal of Organizational Behavior (2002)	MSMR	Overall there was mixed evidence. On average, competence was perceived to increase by all raters (self, bosses, first and second level subordinates); this increase was found to be significant for three out of the four rater constituencies (target managers and both levels of subordinate staff). The most dramatic change was seen in first and second level subordinates perceptions. Congruence may be due to subordinates changing their ratings rather than targets modifying their self assessments to be more in line with feedback received from others ratings, which is the intention underlying most feedback processes. Managers appeared to rely solely on their own self perceptions at time 1. Analyses revealed that the relationship between individual self assess and the formal performance appraisal ratings did become stronger over time, thereby supporting that participant in feedback will make the individual more aware of behaviors rewarded by the org. Whilst at face value the findings appear to largely support the use of MSMR feedback as prescribed in the literature, there is issue with the predictors of targets' revised self assesses.	Quantitative / Quasi-Experimental	Mixed – Managers at all levels in organization	Private sector service organization - UK	Theory of Self Image formation
Dissertation: Norman, S. (2003)	Trust	This study demonstrated that there are actions managers can take to improve employee trust and emotional well-being. Trust toward managers was associated with positive affect, pleasure at work, and job satisfaction, and feelings of less tiredness and anger. Literature has shown a strong relationship between trust and org commitment, but in this study a significant relationship was not found.	Quantitative / Experimental	Mid-level managers	Technology company – San Francisco Bay area	Organizational Trust – conceptual model

Source	Intervention	Results	Methods	Persons (Sample)	Setting	Theoretical Framework
<p>Dissertation: Waddill, D. (2004)</p>	<p>Work-based learning / Action learning</p>	<p>Findings were that the action learning approach provides appropriate data to evaluate the course using Kirkpatrick's first three levels. In an open-group program where the problems presented may be self-development issues, the results for the organization (Level Four) are more problematic to evaluate.</p> <p><u>Reaction:</u> Positive overall.</p> <p><u>Learning:</u> The proof of learning is that all successfully employed the reflective inquiry approach which none of them had ever used before. In order to do so, they had to learn the question, reflection, and re-framing approach.</p> <p><u>Behavior:</u> Each of the actions taken during or after the course indicates a change in behavior. 80% of the learners took action on the issue they brought to the class. The two that didn't initially take action, did so several months later (5 week accelerate course).</p> <p><u>Results:</u> Most difficult to evaluate because not easily quantifiable. However there were indications of personal results. One person involved her subordinates in critical decision making processes. An employee commented, wow, that felt good to hear and be a part of the decision making. This reaction indicted positive results from new management behaviors.</p>	<p>Qualitative / Case study</p>	<p>Senior Managers</p>	<p>E-learning / online learning environment</p>	<p>Adult learning theory</p>

Source	Intervention	Results	Methods	Persons (Sample)	Setting	Theoretical Framework
<p>Kinman, G. & Kinman, R. Journal of Workplace Learning (2001)</p>	<p>Work-based learning</p>	<p>All participants completed the program successfully. However, they tended to experience difficulties with some aspects of the academic work. Analysis of assessment results and observations of lecturing staff suggest that participants did not wholly achieve learner independence, nor develop and maintain confidence in their academic abilities. More so specifically, whilst participants excelled in assessment tasks that involved well-practiced skills (such as the writing of concise business reports), more complex or less well defined assignments proved to be problematic. Difficulties were particularly evident with the development of academic abilities commonly required in assessments of work based learning, such as synthesis of ideas and critical reflection upon individual and org working practices and strategies. Motivational factors for participants via content analysis: "to "catch up" with younger, degree qualified managers, promotion prospects, an "insurance policy" managerial pressure (the program was voluntary, but perceived strong pressure from mgmt), peer competition, worries concerning diminished authority and credibility resulting from poor results or failure to complete, fear of diminished self image and of letting oneself down. intrinsic motivators were not a driving force to engage in learning, although some participants did have intrinsic interest emerge through the course of the program which seemed to result from increased interest and engagement with the subject matter, personal challenge, and confidence and feelings of mastery gained from initial academic success.</p>	<p>Qualitative / Case Study</p>	<p>Mixed – senior and middle managers across functional departments</p>	<p>UK subsidiary of major motor manufacturer</p>	<p>Motivation Theory (particularly Intrinsic motivation)</p>

Source	Intervention	Results	Methods	Persons (Sample)	Setting	Theoretical Framework
<p>Loewenstein, J., Thompson, L. & Gentner, D. Academy of Management Learning (2003)</p>	<p>Analogical Learning / Negotiation Skills</p>	<p>Analogy training led to better performance than separate cases or no training. Teams that compared cases (analogy training) were more likely to form a contingent contract in the actual, face to face negotiation than were those who analyzed the cases separately. Drawing comparisons between case studies facilitated learning the contingent contract schema from examples and applying it to a novel face to face negotiation situation. In other words, drawing comparisons facilitated understanding the general principle underlying the examples. Post hoc tests of mean differences confirmed that the analogy group contracts were of reliably higher value than those of both the separate cases and baseline groups, which did not differ reliably from each other. Also, found no reliable difference in generating contingent contracts between negotiations among intact teams and negotiations among solo individuals.</p>	<p>Quantitative / Quasi-Experimental</p>	<p>Mixed – Sales managers and MBA students</p>	<p>Management training courses</p>	<p>Analogical learning</p>

Source	Intervention	Results	Methods	Persons (Sample)	Setting	Theoretical Framework
Basadur, M., Runco, M., Vega, L. Journal of Creative Behavior (2000)	Creativity training	Findings suggest how training in a complete creativity process increases a manager's ideation and evaluation skills. The training increases the acceptance of avoiding premature evaluation (convergence) of new solution ideas. This probably increases the acceptance of active divergence--the free wheeling generation of options without judging their quality or analyzing their relevance. Precisely why the preference for active divergence increases is unclear, but increasing the preference for avoiding premature convergence seems to encourage skill in ideational fluency (quantity of solution ideas generated). Increases in evaluation skills apparently emerge both directly from the attitude of preferring to avoid premature convergence and indirectly from greater ideational skill in generating more solution ideas. Greater ideational skill in generating high quality, more original solution ideas appears to be directly associated with greater evaluation skill in recognizing original, high quality ideas. Thus the key appears to be ideational skill in generating a quantity of ideas. This skill is directly and strongly related to ideational skill in quality of ideas generated and to evaluation skill in recognizing lower quality ideas.	Quantitative / Quasi- Experimental	Mixed – managers from manufacturing, finance, operations, employee relations, and distribution	International Consumer Goods Manufacturer	Osborn's Brainstorming Theory

Source	Intervention	Results	Methods	Persons (Sample)	Setting	Theoretical Framework
Summers, B., Williamson, T. & Read, D. Journal of Occupational & Organizational Psychology (2004)	Decision Making	At least in this one domain, it appears to be more efficient to learn from formal education than from experience. Lecturers had the highest mean number of correct corporate failure predictions, closely followed by students, with seasoned (but not formally educated) credit managers and laypeople doing somewhat less well. Analysis revealed that both lecturers and students were able to predict corporate failure more accurately than laypeople. Moreover, there was a non-significant trend suggesting that lecturers outperformed managers. Lecturers and students generally outperformed credit managers on the prediction tasks, and the credit managers performed only slightly better than laypeople.	Quantitative / Quasi- Experimental	Mid-level managers	Financial / Credit Institution	No theory - Cognitive and Behavioral models discussed with regard to Expertise and Decision Making
Maddi, S., Kahn, S., Maddi, K. Consulting Psychology Journal (1998)	Resiliency Training (Hardiness)	Hardiness training condition was more effective than the other 2 conditions (relaxation/meditation and passive listening) in increasing self-reported hardiness, job satisfaction and social support while decreasing self-reported strain and illness severity. Although participants were assigned to treatment conditions at random, pretreatment scores on the dependent variables of this study showed some variation across conditions. Because of initial variation, the means of pretreatment and post-treatment difference scores within subjects were used throughout in analyses of treatment effects.	Quantitative / Experimental	Mixed – managers at all levels in the company	Utilities company	No theory – literature on mechanisms for hardiness, enhanced performance, stress management, and coping practices

Table 5, Ecological Sentences

Patterns

Patterns that emerged from the thirty-one studies were interpreted by utilizing axial coding and analyzing data from the perspective of the interventions, methods, samples, and theoretical frameworks.

Interventions

Interventions were collapsed and sorted into categories (see table six below), which are purposefully broad concepts, and make up one or more interventions. For example, one of the categories, double loop learning, consists of interventions that are descriptive of double loop learning, and include Large Scale Intervention and a Leadership Development Retreat.

Interventions

Categories	Interventions	Source
Informal Learning	Discontinuous Change	Dissertation: Darnell (2003) Dissertation: Kiehl (2004) Journal: Cope (2003)
	Changing Mental Models	Dissertation: Rodenbaugh (2002)
	Self Directed Motivation System (SDMS)	Dissertation: Pfiefer (2004)
	Mentoring	Dissertation: Stromei (1998)
	Comparison of Informal and Formal learning	Journal: Enos, Kehrhahn, & Bell (2003)
	Open Learning Systems Model	Journal: Warr & Bunce (1995)

Categories	Interventions	Source
Multi-Source / Multi-Rater (MSMR) Feedback	360 feedback using a set of organizational competencies (pre-established); coaching by external consultants, skill development workshops, an e-learning website and a series of large group events that emphasized development.	Journal: Tyson and Ward (2007)
	Changes in management competence (pre-established) over time, whereby MSMR ratings were assessed at two time points within a two year period.	Journal: Bailey and Fletcher (2002)
	Influence Behavior Questionnaire was used, which outlined 11 influence tactics. Evaluation of the feedback intervention was based on the composite score of the core tactics; Feedback facilitator was also utilized.	Journal: Seifert, Yukl, and McDonald (2003)
	Explored why some individuals pursue development and others do not. The roles of performance and personality were examined as they relate to actions taken for development.	Dissertation: Louis-Slaby (2004)
General Supervisory Skills Training	Employee Relations	Dissertation: Wyszynski (1998)
	Shift scheduling, action planning, Interpersonal skills and purchasing procedures	Journal: Tracey, Tannenbaum and Kavanagh, (1995)
	General supervisory program examined the relationship between four work environment factors; organization support, supervisor support, peer support, and participation in a peer support network, which was set up as a transfer mechanism	Journal: Cromwell & Kolb, (2004)
	Employee assistance; confronting poor performance	Journal: Donohoe, Johnson, and Stevens (1997)

Categories	Interventions	Source
General Management Development	Management Development System: Perception of the role, significance and impact of management training within an organization.	Journal: Antonacopoul (1999)
	Creativity: Using creative thinking to solve real management problems	Journal: Basadur, Runco and Vega (2000)
	Decision making/expertise	Journal: Summers, Williamson, and Read (2004)
	Certified public management system (local government)	Dissertation: Vicker (1998)
	Managerial Program at a University: Dealing with self; dealing with others; and dealing with the union or non union labor force	Dissertation: Benischek (1996)
	Building Trust	Dissertation: Norman (2003)
Interpersonal	Interpersonal training that emphasized the use of behavior modeling	Dissertation: Bostain (2000)
	Interpersonal; included follow up of adjunct training (transfer mechanism)	Dissertation: Waggoner (2001)
	Giving one to one feedback skills, Decision making, and other routine or procedural topics.	Journal: Hunt & Baruch (2003)
Double Loop Learning	Large Scale Intervention (LSI): focused on effective rapid transformational change through whole system learning	Dissertation: Smilonich (1999)
	Leadership Retreat: examined current practices and organizational supports that encourage deep learning in organizational leaders	Dissertation: Hall (2001)

Categories	Interventions	Source
Work-based learning	Action learning—via an e-learning program	Dissertation: Waddill, D. (2004)
	An undergraduate business degree for managers based at one of the company's UK plants. The program was implemented in order to create a culture of life long learning.	Journal: Kinman & Kinman (2001)
Resiliency	Hardiness training, which focused on coping mechanisms, a technique called situational reconstruction, emotionally based insights and compensatory self improvement aids on accepting unchangeable situations.	Journal: Maddi, Kahn and Maddi (1998)
Analogical Learning	Negotiation skills training whereby participants were asked to draw comparisons between cases	Journal: Loewenstein, Thompson and Gentner (2003)

Table Six: Interventions

Informal learning. Informal learning was comprised of six different interventions described in eight studies; five dissertations, and three journal articles. Two dissertations focused on informal learning in the context of discontinuous change within the organization (Darnell, 2003; Kiehl, 2004). The first study provided a retrospective case study whereby the author collected data from managers in a successful direct marketing company who had been with the company for at least seven years, and therefore could discuss growth events that occurred within the company (Darnell, 2003). These events were then examined in terms of how they contributed to organizational learning. Through an interview process, participants explained how learning processes before and

after the events occurred (Darnell). The results suggested that learning processes changed as the company grew in size and age (Darnell).

Major change events included Total Quality Management (TQM), downsizing, being acquired, and integration of an additional catalog company. In terms of learning, using formal organizational processes had increased as did a reliance on explicit knowledge (Darnell, 2003). Conversely, sharing tacit knowledge through informal processes decreased. Further, two levels of learning were found to occur: single and double loop learning (Darnell). Single loop occurred during all events, while double loop occurred with the implementation of TQM and with the company's acquisition (each of which represents both continuous and discontinuous types of learning) (Darnell).

The second dissertation focused on a major change in production processes as well as the introduction of new technology in a manufacturing company (Kiehl, 2004). The qualitative case study (grounded theory), placed an emphasis on how individual learning was diffused and constructed to become organizational in nature. Further, the author stated that the intent was to better understand how organizational can more easily implement successive change programs that are strategically driven (Kiehl). It was felt that understanding this would lead to effective change and process innovation. From the data, the author generated a grounded theory called Locker Room Learning (LRL) that emphasized the social nature of learning (Kiehl). Organizational Learning theory was used as a framework for the study.

There was also one journal article that emphasized discontinuous learning, as a context for informal learning (Cope, 2003). In this study, the researcher explored learning and development from the perspective of entrepreneurs, and in the context of

small business ownership and growth. The results of the study suggested that critical inward reflection impacted learning outcomes and that in all cases; the entrepreneurs experienced higher level (double loop) learning due to the need to overcome significant problems during the entrepreneurial process (Cope). It was also concluded that emotion and learning are integrally connected with regard to entrepreneurs (Cope).

In the third dissertation, the study utilized informal learning intervention whereby the researcher focused on executive training on changing mental models as they relate to authority relations for the purpose of mobilizing change within an organization (Rodenbaugh, 2002). This intervention utilized experiential training methodology (Tavistock approach), used a mixed method research approach, and the authors concluded that dependent and interdependent individuals are more likely to change their mental models (Rodenbaugh). According to Rodenbaugh, counter-dependent individuals may change, but are likely to return to their original position. The training raised awareness of mental models as they pertained to views on authority of 53% of participants, and two individuals held this stance for six weeks (Rodenbaugh).

The fourth dissertation studied an informal learning intervention whereby a self directed motivation system (SDMS) was compared to instructor-led method of training with regard to performance management in an organization (Pfeifer, 2004). Results indicated that the SDMS enabled transfer of training to occur and an increase in intrinsic motivation towards training content was also achieved (Pfeifer). However, effect sizes were low to moderate.

The fifth and final dissertation to focus on informal learning, was a study that examined the effectiveness of mentoring as a training method for managers; and

conducted an assessment of transfer and improvement of managerial leadership skills were assessed (Stromei, 1998). The study utilized a mixed methods approach, and results indicated that the mentees showed a significant improvement on their leadership effectiveness and flexibility from the pre-test to the posttest (Stromei). Results of the study were used to design a model for a formal mentoring program.

There were two additional journal articles that examined informal learning interventions. The first provided a comparison between formal and informal managerial learning approaches (Enos, Kehrhahn, & Bell, 2003). A mixed methods approach was used and results indicated that informal learning is predominantly a social process and that managers with high levels of proficiency who experience low levels of coworker, supervisor, and organizational support learn skills mostly from informal learning and transfer learning more frequently (Enos, et al.). Interactions with others was the most prevalent learning activity cited by the participants (Enos, et al.).

The second journal article examined the use of an open learning systems model whereby junior level managers worked on their own to learn materials that was presented either in written form, via computer, in audio or videotapes, or interactive video (Warr & Bunce, 1995). The study used a quasi-experimental approach, and the results indicated that learning task anxiety was greater than interpersonal anxiety and trainees reported more use of an analytic rather than behavioral learning strategy (Warr & Bunce). Reactions of enjoyment and usefulness were both higher, and job performance increased primarily between times one and two (Warr & Bunce).

MSMR. Multi-source / Multi-Rater feedback category consisted of *MSMR* interventions depicted in three journal articles and one dissertation (Tyson and Ward,

2004; Bailey and Fletcher, 2002; Seifert, Yukl, and McDonald, 2003; and Louis-Slaby, 2004). Tyson and Ward (2004) examined an MSMR feedback intervention (using a set of pre-established competencies) coupled with coaching by external consultants, skill development workshops, an e-learning website and a series of large group events that emphasized personal development. Performance was measured utilizing the MSMR feedback survey. Results were obtained from two group (completed at two different time intervals), senior managers and mid-level, front line managers. While senior managers showed improvement in scores on all competencies, the mid-level line managers did not show significant improvement on any of the competencies. Reasons postulated were that coaching was not used as much with the second group (as compared to the first group). Also, the timing with which the assessments were completed, the mid-level managers were experiencing increased pressure on the job.

Bailey and Fletcher (2002) studied changes in management competence over time, through a longitudinal study whereby MSMR ratings were assessed at two time points within a two year period for a group of middle and senior managers. Overall, competence was perceived as increasing by all raters (self, boss, first and second level subordinates). However, the increase was found to be significant for three out of the four raters—not the bosses. Two primary conclusions were drawn: MSMR feedback will enable managers to become more aware of behaviors rewarded by the organization, and will therefore motivate a focus on the behaviors. Second, the boss' ratings were only slightly higher than the self ratings. Implying that they had served to reinforce the target managers existing self image (ties to the theory that frames the study). It is also postulated that the ratings from subordinates could be due to a priming effect, whereby

providing feedback ratings at time one had clarified the behaviors managerial staff were expected to engage in. The authors underscore that this is merely conjecture.

In terms of measures, Seifert, Yukl & McDonald (2003) adapted the Influence Behavior Questionnaire which outlined 11 influence tactics. Evaluation of the feedback intervention was based on the composite score of the core tactics. Groups consisted of a treatment group, which received feedback report during a workshop, a control group that received no feedback, and a comparison group that received a feedback report, but no workshop. Managers in the feedback workshop increased their use of some core influence tactics with subordinates, whereas there was no change in behavior for the control group or for the comparison group. Also, having a facilitator increased the perceived utility of the feedback and results in more behavior change for the managers.

The dissertation that focused on MSMR was conducted with the intent to delineate reasons for differences in participant behaviors in development programs (Louis-Slaby, 2004). In other words, the author investigated why some individuals pursue development and others do not. The roles of performance and personality were examined as they relate to actions taken for development (Louis-Slaby). In this study, an effort was made to assess whether participants were active in terms of pursuit of development. Specifically, the author attempted to identify individual differences that may serve as predictors of development pursuit after receiving feedback through MSMR (Louis-Slaby).

While none of the original hypotheses were fully supported, the results were interesting. For example, results that surfaced during post hoc analyses indicated that past development and performance successes had the potential to predict future successes

(i.e. past behavior will predict future behavior). Thus, strong performers would engage in development in order to become even stronger (Louis-Slaby, 2004). Further, the results indicated that peer and employee ratings were the strongest predictors of pursuit of development activities (Louis-Slaby). This has implications for performance reviews given that peer and employee sources of input are generally not used (only managers).

General supervisory skills training. General supervisory skills training consisted of four studies; one dissertation and three journal articles. The dissertation (Wyszynski, 1998) focused on employee relations skills. The results indicated that there was an improvement in the manager's leadership ability; however, post hoc analysis indicated that when managers get into contract issues, the probability of an employee filing a grievance increases, whether or not the manager's communication skills had improved. Further, the study results point to the need for multiple methods of data collection in order to determine the effectiveness of a training program, and consideration that the relationships being studied are nonlinear and therefore need to be studied in a similar fashion.

The three journal articles consisted of studies by Tracey, Tannenbaum & Kavanagh, (1995); Cromwell & Kolb, (2004); and Donohoe, Johnson, & Stevens (1997). Tracey et al. focused on interpersonal skills, shift scheduling, action planning and purchasing. Multiple training methods were utilized (lecture, role plays, discussion, and audiovisual). Cromwell and Kolb examined the relationship between four work environment factors; organization support, supervisor support, peer support, and participation in a peer support network, which was set up as a transfer mechanism. Assessments were conducted pre and post, as well as one year out. Results suggested

that trainees who reported receiving higher levels of support in the work environ indicated they were applying, to a higher extent, the knowledge and skills they learned in the training. Use of the peer network was the only factor not significant at the one year time period.

Donohoe, Johnson & Stevens (1997) conducted a study that assessed training on employee assistance in the organization. Methods used were round table discussions, as well as assessments based on video scenarios. Individuals also practiced how to confront poor performance through role plays. Pre, post, and delayed post measures were used based on training content. Results indicated that some information is lost over a period of time, but overall the training was effective. The authors suggest the use of small groups helped with learning acquisition, and that immediate feedback during assessment of video scenarios was also helpful in skill building.

General management development. This category included six studies consisting of three Journal articles and three dissertations. The journal articles examined interventions that included a management development system, creativity and decision making/expertise. The dissertations examined interventions that consisted of a certified public management system, a managerial program at a university, as well as training on building trust.

The first journal article, by Antonacopoul (1999), examined of a management development system across three banks, specifically the perception of the role, significance and impact of management training within an organization. Managers perceived learning to result from four main sources: training, experience, modeling others in the workplace, and coaching. Also, it was discerned that the learning approach was

consistent across the banks; through incorporating information into relevant job related situations. Further, there was a perception that valid learning was structured training course.

The second journal article (Basadur, Runco & Vega, 2000), studied creativity applied to management development. Participants experienced 20 hours of training in the Simplex creative process. The focus of the training was on using creative thinking to solve real management problems. Methods used were hands on and experiential, emphasizing concepts such as value of ideation and evaluation. One goal of training was to encourage participants to value concrete experience as well as abstract thinking and to practice skills in synchronizing divergent and convergent thinking. Further, emphasis was placed on attitudinal processes in terms of enhancing cognitive processes in creative thinking and problem solving. Training in a complete creativity process increases a manager's ideation and evaluation skills. The training increases the acceptance of avoiding premature evaluation (convergence) of new solution ideas. The authors suggest that this probably increases the acceptance of active divergence--the free wheeling generation of ideas without judging their quality.

The third and final journal article by Summers, Williamson, & Read (2004) studied decision making as it related to the notion of expertise. Specifically the authors compared decisions made by four groups, one made up of seasoned credit managers, another with university lecturers (finance and accounting) and their students. Also, there was a control group of lay people. Managers, who did not have formal education, but many years of experience, did not outperform students, who had no experience. Further, lecturers who had no experience in credit management, who did know the theories and

concepts, performed better than professional managers. The authors suggest this may indicate that formal education leads to expertise more readily than experience.

Dissertations included studies on a certified public management training course Vicker (1998), a managerial development program at a university (Benischek, 1996), and a study on the notion of organizational trust (Norman, 2003). Vicker investigated the relationship between interpersonal communication competence with an experiential learning approach. The study did not find evidence to suggest that improvement was made between the pre and post tests, and that the experiential methodology had no impact on learning either. Benischek studied techniques used to increase management effectiveness utilizing a 15 week management development program, which was part of a semester long professional diploma program at a local university. Content was focused on 1) Dealing with Self: Time mgmt, delegation, understanding oneself, stress management, supervisory fundamentals, effective presentation and platform skills; 2) dealing with others, group decision making and dynamics, principles of motivation, leadership and management styles, communication, performance appraisal, conflict management, decision making: supervisory planning and control; 3) dealing with the union or non union labor force. Three relationships were confirmed: training programs attract employees that are prone to more of an internal locus of control; second, managers are more internal than non managers; and third job satisfaction and age were positively related.

Finally, the Dissertation by Norman (2003) examined what actions managers can take to improve employee trust and emotional well-being. Trust toward managers was

associated with positive affect, pleasure at work, and job satisfaction, and feelings of less tiredness and anger (Norman).

Interpersonal training. Three studies utilized interpersonal training as an intervention; two were dissertations and there was also one journal article. The first dissertation, by Bostain (2000), examined interpersonal skills training that emphasized the use of behavior modeling for supervisors in a global aerospace company. Mean scores between self evaluation, subordinate evaluation and supervisor evaluation were positively correlated. There was a statistically significant difference between the control group and the experimental group concerning demonstration of the key actions in the workplace. The results indicate the use of behavioral modeling method to improve supervisory interpersonal skills

The second dissertation, by Waggoner (2001), explored interpersonal skills training for supervisors and entry level technical managers at the NASA Research center. The training group received training as well as follow up of adjunct training. While the adjunct training was perceived as easing their transition into a management positions, there was no significant change indicated between pre and post tests.

Finally, the journal article focused on interpersonal training was utilized for executives in a university-based managerial program in London (Hunt & Baruch, 2003). The training had modest but positive outcomes, however the interesting result in this study was that the skills learned through the formalized training were seen to be easily described, had clear objectives and outcome criteria and could be segmented into a step by step routine based on memorable model. On the other hand, the soft skills proved to be more difficult to learn. Two skills in particular appeared to be less responsive—

decision making (influenced by cognitive skills) and giving one to one feedback skills. In other words, training may have little impact on ways of thinking.

Double loop learning. Double loop learning was depicted in two interventions, which was captured within two dissertations. First, Smilonich (1999) utilized a Large Scale Intervention (LSI) with the underlying purpose of building an understanding of how to effective rapid transformational change through whole system learning. The researcher utilized action research as the methodology. The study focused on senior, middle, and eventually all members of the state government department of transportation. The research examined learning and its relationship to the behavior within the organization as a system. Double loop learning was a fundamental objective. The author contended that the behavior changes could be attributed to organization. learning that occurred during the events executed as part of the intervention. However, because the learning was heavily context-laden and counter-cultural it was not readily transferable to different contexts and therefore not sustainable.

The second dissertation explored the notion of deep learning; specifically, the author conducted an exploration of current practices and organizational supports that encourage deep learning in leaders (Hall, 2001). The case study resulted in the contention that deep learning occurs as a result of an unpredictable and dynamic interplay among persons and environment. The retreat offered an opportunity to practice critical reflection, which was seen as important to learning deeply. Insights did not necessarily occur as a result of the 2.5 day retreat; rather, the author argues that insight may get sparked and over time take hold. The author contends that this case should not

intentionally be related with a specific outcomes. It's the process that is more important for long term adaptability.

Work-based learning. This category consisted of two studies. The first study was a dissertation that used an action learning approach via an e-learning program (Waddill, 2004), and the second study was a journal article (Kinman & Kinman, 2001) that brought a undergraduate University program to the organization.

Wadill's (2004) dissertation focused on an e-learning program that was conducted with senior managers in a 5 week accelerate course. Findings were that the action learning approach provides appropriate data to evaluate the course using Kirkpatrick's first three levels (reaction, learning, behavior). Behavior change was evident given that 80% of the learners took action on the issue they brought to the class (Wadill). The two that did not initially take action, did so several months later.

In an open-group program whereby some of the problems presented were self-development issues, the results for the organization (Level Four) are more problematic to evaluate. The author suggests learning took place in that participants successfully employed the reflective inquiry approach, which none of them had ever used before (Wadill). In order to do so, they had to learn the question, reflection, and re-framing approach.

The journal article by Kinman & Kinman (2001) studied sixteen male managers, most of whom had no formal education, and almost all have risen through the ranks within the organization, often from engineering and technical backgrounds. Results from learning styles inventory indicate the individuals were primarily driven by extrinsic rewards, and by the need to enhance self esteem through competition (Kinman &

Kinman). A local university partnered with the organization and designed an undergraduate business degree for employees; which was based at one of the company's UK plants. The program was implemented in order to create a culture of life long learning. While participants completed the program successfully, they experienced challenges with some parts of the academic work (Kinman & Kinman). Results suggest that they did not achieve learner independence, and while they excelled in tasks that involved well-practiced skills (such as the writing of concise business reports), more complex tasks, such as those requiring synthesis of ideas and critical reflection were difficult and not achieved (kinman & Kinman).

Resiliency. Resiliency was defined as "hardiness" in a journal article by Maddi, Kahn & Maddi (1998). The results indicated that hardiness training condition was more effective than the other 2 conditions (relaxation/meditation and passive listening) in increasing self-reported hardiness, job satisfaction and social support while decreasing self-reported strain and illness severity (Maddi, et al). Coping mechanisms were utilized and were referred to as transformational coping (Maddi, et al.). Techniques included situational reconstruction, which assists in creating a broader perspective on the stressor and produces emotionally based insights, and compensatory self improvement aids were applied which encouraged the acceptance of unchangeable situations without falling into self pity (Maddi, et al.).

Analogical learning. This concept was investigated by Loewenstein, Thompson & Gentner (2003) in a journal article. A negotiation skills training course was used as the intervention. The participants consisted of a mixed group of sales managers and MBA students. Groups that compared cases which applied negotiation techniques that utilized

a contingent contract scheme (analogy training) were more likely to form a contingent contract in the actual, face to face negotiation, than were those who analyzed the cases separately (Loewenstein et al.). The participants that were asked to draw comparisons between case studies were able to learn the contingent contract schema from examples and apply it to a novel face to face negotiation situation (Loewenstein et al.). In other words, drawing comparisons between the cases facilitated understanding the general principle underlying the examples. Also, the authors examined, but found no reliable difference, in generating contingent contracts between negotiations among intact teams and negotiations among solo individuals (Loewenstein et al.).

In this section of the meta-synthesis, interventions were sorted into categories that were broad in nature and made up one or more interventions. Categories included Informal Learning, Multi-Source / Multi-Rater (MSMR), General Supervisory Skills Training, General Management Development, Interpersonal, Double Loop Learning, Work-based learning, Resiliency, and Analogical Learning (see table six). Informal learning was represented by the majority of studies (eight) and these were used across samples (supervisor, mid-level manager, senior/executive and mixed groups).

Methods

Meta-method is concerned with the “epistemological soundness of the existing research, as well as the ways the methodological applications may have influenced the findings that are generated” (Paterson, Thorne, Canam, & Jillings, 2001, p. 71). This section will provide a review of primary methods utilized in the individual studies that are part of this meta-synthesis. Specifically, the review consisted of two primary objectives: 1) to outline which research methods were used for which type of

interventions, and 2) I employed the Design and Implementation Assessment Device (DIAD) version 0.3 (Banner & Cobb, 2001) in order to elucidate any limitations in how the method utilized possibly shaped results of the study (Paterson, et al.). Within the primary research studies included for this meta-synthesis, there were six types of research methods represented, a) Quantitative experimental research (true experimental), b) Quantitative quasi-experimental research, c) Quantitative non-experimental designs (correlational), d) Qualitative research (Case Study), e) Mixed-methods design, and f) Action/Practitioner Research. The majority of studies in this review, eleven, utilized a Quantitative, Quasi-Experimental research design (see Table Seven).

Methods

	Research Method	Interventions	Source
Quantitative experimental	self assessment (immediately after training and one week after); multiple choice exam; coworker feedback	Interpersonal communication competence, using an experiential learning approach	Dissertation: Vicker (1998)
	Participants were randomly assigned to one of two training groups. Each group received identical interpersonal skills training in the first phase of the study. Following this phase, one of the groups participated in an adjunct training curriculum developed to complement the first phase of the training. This program focused on transfer of these skills to the job. As compared to a control group that did not receive any training.	Interpersonal skills with adjunct training (transfer mechanism)	Dissertation: Waggoner (2001)
	A two-group, pretest-posttest randomized block design was used; intrinsic motivation was used as the blocking variable.	Training on Management soft skills examined effects of instructor-led and a self-directed management system (SDMS).	Dissertation: Pfeifer (2004)
	causal-comparative. Two groups were randomly designated to a treatment group, or a control group; Levenson's 24 item locus of control scale was administered; pre and post tests were administered (post = 1 month after).	University-based Management development diploma program was examined for effectiveness on perceived locus of control and job satisfaction in managers and non-managers	Dissertation: Benischek (1996)
	Randomly assigned to groups. A composite questionnaire was used at pretest and posttest. Further, The Personal Views survey was used to measure hardiness.	Hardiness training; Effectiveness was compared with a relaxation / meditation condition and a placebo / social support control (passive listening).	Journal: Maddi, Kahn, and Maddi (1998)
	Treatment condition received a feedback report in a workshop with a facilitator. Comparison group received	MSMR feedback and the use of a feedback facilitator on the influence behavior (proactive	Journal: Seifert,

	Research Method	Interventions	Source
	the same type of feedback report, but no workshop. Control group received no feedback or workshop. Pre and post measures were used (post = 3 months after)	influence tactics with subordinates, peers, and bosses) of managers.	Yukl, and McDonald (2003)
Quantitative quasi-experimental	Impact on individual = A one-group pretest-posttest design where subjects served as their own control. Individuals were surveyed before the training and again 3 months after the training. The pretest posttest design provided a comparison between skills and abilities by the same group of participants before and after the training. The impact on the organization was determined by a one-group posttest design. Subordinates rating of manager performance as a result of the training program served as a measure of organization performance. In addition, secondary data provided measures for organizational performance, which included filed grievances.	Employee relations training and it's impact on manager and organizational performance.	Dissertation: Wyszynski (1998)
	The study utilized a posttest only design in order to focus on the evaluation of actions based on behavioral modeling transfer to actual on the job performance. This design was used in order to control for participant sensitization. A matched control group was used for comparison of treatment and control responses to the survey. A survey assessed behavioral demonstration of actions taken on the job. It was completed by the participant, one subordinate and the participant's immediate supervisor seven months after the training was completed. The control group was the same, except they did not receive the training.	Effects of Behavior modeling training with regard to training transfer.	Dissertation: Bostain (2000)

Research Method		Interventions	Source
	<p>Conducted over seven months; examined 11 trainee characteristics in relation to learning scores, reaction to the program, and changes to behavior on the job. Analytical and behavioral learning strategies were examined in terms of the use of critical reflection and other cognitive processes. Questionnaires were administered for time one and two to participants. The time one questionnaire was designed to elicit self report responses regarding pre-training motivation, anxiety, and learning self-efficacy. Scores on learning measures were provided by tutors, whereby they assessed achievement on each training module on a performance scale of 1 to 5 (requiring improvement to excellent). Learning was assessed on two of the three training components; cognitive and skill-based (but not affective). Participants direct supervisor submitted performance ratings at time one, two and again at time three (three months later).</p>	Open Learning Intervention	Journal: Warr & Bunce (1995)
	<p>Assessment of interpersonal competencies was completed on a longitudinal, pre and posttest basis. Assessments were obtained from the participants direct reports. The first assessment was completed six weeks prior to the training, and the second assessment was completed six months after the training. A minimum of five direct reports used a questionnaire to record their satisfaction level with their managers' interpersonal skills.</p>	Interpersonal skills training	Journal: Hunt and Baruch (2003)

	Research Method	Interventions	Source
	<p>Creative thinking skills, attitudes and behaviors were assessed in a field experiment. Interrelationships among variables, and learning during training were measured and a best-fit causal model was designed. Participants were measured on the variables before and after. A procedural check was done to ensure that before and after training effects were similar to previous training research results in several controlled field experiments, which negated the necessity for a control group.</p>	<p>Creative thinking training</p>	<p>Journal: Basadur, Runco, & Vega (2000)</p>
	<p>Evaluation levels were adapted from two primary sources, including Kirkpatrick's four levels of evaluation. Learning and performance were collapsed into one level, which was called, content. Level one was named, process, and level four (now three) was named, outcomes. The management development program used to examine the evaluation tool took one year to complete and a total of three and a half years was covered in terms of the evaluation period.</p>	<p>MSMR feedback as an evaluation tool for management development</p>	<p>Journal: Tyson & Ward (2004)</p>
	<p>Examined expert judgment in credit managers with regard to the method of acquiring it, specifically through formal education or through experience. Credit management decisions were assessed for four groups of participants who varied in their degree of experience in credit management and in their education in finance and accounting. Seasoned credit managers who did not have a formal education, finance and accounting lecturers from a local university, and their students. The control group was</p>	<p>Decision making and Expertise.</p>	<p>Journal: Summers, Williamson, & Read (2004)</p>

Research Method	Interventions	Source
<p>made up of laypeople with no financial background at all. Decisions made fell into the first two functional responsibilities of credit managers: assessing credit risk and granting credit.</p>		
<p>Analogical method consisted of the treatment group comparing two case studies with regard to the negotiation techniques used. The comparison treatment group was asked to read the individual cases (not to make comparisons). The control group had no training (i.e., case studies). The researchers also compared the performance of individuals who negotiated on their own, and the negotiating teams.</p>	<p>Analogical learning methods in teaching negotiating techniques</p>	<p>Journal: Loewenstein, Thompson & Gentner (2003)</p>
<p>The study utilized a repeated measures design that included a pre, post and delayed post assessment six months after the training.</p>	<p>Employee assistance supervisory training program</p>	<p>Journal: Donohoe, Johnson & Stevens (1997)</p>
<p>Examined the importance of work environment on the application of trained skills on the job. Three weeks prior to training a measure of supervisory behaviors was obtained from the participant and their supervisor. At the end of training, learning was assessed and participants completed a transfer of training climate and continuous-learning culture questionnaire. Participants were also asked to distribute the questionnaire to their supervisor and four or five coworkers. 6-8 weeks after training, participants and their supervisors completed a post training behavior questionnaire, which focused on the same behaviors as the pre training questionnaire.</p>	<p>Supervisory training and work environment (transfer climate and continuous learning culture)</p>	<p>Journal: Tracey, Tannenbaum, & Kavanagh (1995)</p>

Research Method		Interventions	Source
	<p>MSMR feedback was examined in relation to manager's performance. This longitudinal study investigated measures by self, boss, as well first and second level subordinates with regard to management competencies. The assessment was administered in the context of a development program that had already been established in the organization. Ratings were compared over two administrations, with a period of two years between the first and second administration.</p>	MSMR feedback and manager's performance	Journal: Bailey and Fletcher (2002)
Quantitative non-experimental designs	<p>Examined MSMR as part of development program through personality and performance indicators. In addition to data collected from participants, secondary data was also used (personality assessments and MSMR feedback) which were obtained prior to the study. Factor analysis was conducted using maximum likelihood method. Approximately 63% of variance was explained as "activity in a development program." Further, two secondary factors emerged—feedback acceptance and organized approach to development. Eleven instructors at the University provided feedback on participants that they taught in the program via a rating form.</p>	MSMR used as part of a yearlong executive development program at a University	Dissertation: Louis-Slaby, (2004)

Research Method		Interventions	Source
	Participants were randomly assigned to a treatment or control condition. Repeated measures ANOVAs were used to assess change in manager behavior and employee attitudes and emotions between a baseline measure and a follow up. The determinants were work related attitudes and emotional well-being. A series of regression analyses were run to further examine the relationship between manager behavior and employee trust. Two factors emerged; ongoing behavior (listening and giving feedback, applying company values, applying consistent values, etc.), and scheduled behavior (quarterly and annual recognition, creating a development plan with employees, setting objectives, and delegating meaningful assignments).	Trust Building; training for managers to gain employee trust	Dissertation: Norman (2003)
Qualitative research	Exploratory case study. After the course, each participant was interviewed. All interviews occurred within one week of the course and were conducted by phone. All were transcribed and resubmitted to interviewees for confirmation, correction and additional comments. The transcripts were then coded.	A work-based learning intervention; virtual asynchronous online management course on the topic of action learning	Dissertation: Waddill (2004)
	Retrospective Case Study. Individual semi-structured interviews were conducted and themes and patterns were induced into a composite illustration of organizational growth events and learning processes over a fifteen year period	A retrospective design in order to investigate discontinuous events (informal learning), more specifically organizational growth events that had significantly contributed to organizational learning within the company as it grew in age and size.	Dissertation: Darnell (2003)

	Research Method	Interventions	Source
	<p>Case study to ethnographically describe practices and organizational supports that fostered deep (double loop) learning in its leaders. The research design consisted of opinion-polling of subject matter experts, semi-structured interviews and participant observation in ethnographically describing the practices and organizational supports used to foster deep learning. A vivid description is provided of a company operating under a silo-centric, command and control hierarchical leadership, and a focus on customer service. Further, the researcher describes the setting in which a leadership retreat (the focal point of the intervention) takes place.</p>	<p>Double Loop Learning; exploration of organizational practices and supports that foster deep learning.</p>	<p>Dissertation: Hall (2001)</p>
	<p>A grounded theory approach was used to explore a case through the use of a preplanned, structured interview guide. The researcher used a combination of life story, critical incident, and focus group interview techniques, which all together provided for an emergent process. In addition to interviews, observations were made, and secondary data was collected. The theory generated from this study was called, locker room learning (LRL), which included both individual and organizational level learning and was essentially double loop learning in the specific case of organizational process change.</p>		<p>Dissertation: Kiehl (2004)</p>

Research Method		Interventions	Source
	Semi-structured interviews were conducted with participants and lecturing staff. Literature was reviewed on motivation and learning styles of mature students, and was used as a basis for examination and coding of data from open-ended questionnaires and semi-structured interviews.	Explored the role of motivation to learn.	Journal: Kinman and Kinman, (2001)
	A longitudinal study, spanning three years. Semi-structured interviews, observation, questionnaires, and critical incident technique were utilized. Interviews covered perceptions of the current management development training system, main influences on management training in the organization, perceived role of training to individual development, and perceived association between learning and training and the level of utilization of learning from training (transfer).	Management Development System	Journal: Antonacopoulou (1999)
	Development was explored through the lens of discontinuous learning events. Further, the concept of critical reflection was explored, as were the distinctive forms of higher level (double loop) learning from facing, overcoming and reflecting on significant problems or opportunities during the career of the entrepreneur. In-depth, unstructured phenomenological interviews were conducted with the six participants, which delved into the history of their business. Critical incidents were an integral part of the interview.	Explored the development experience of six entrepreneurs within the context of small business ownership and growth.	Journal: Cope, (2003)

	Research Method	Interventions	Source
Mixed-methods design	In a prior study conducted one year prior to this study, the twenty competencies were identified. All data were collected using a single self report questionnaire.	Examined the extent to which managers engaged in informal learning, perceptions of support in the environment, and the level of managerial proficiency related to transfer of learning in twenty core managerial skills	Journal: Enos, Kehrhahn & Bell (2003)
	Trainees completed a self-report five part questionnaire and short answer questions. Questions were focused on transfer of skills from supervisory training and the degree of organizational, supervisor, and peer support. Also, the trainees direct managers completed a three part questionnaire and short answer questions, with regard to the trainee; specifically, the trainees ability to transfer training and their own perception of organizational and supervisor support.	Examination of work-environment support factors affecting transfer of supervisory skills training.	Journal: Cromwell and Kolb (2004)
	The study utilized a Q-methodology, a questionnaire, which were augmented with personal interviews. Factor analysis of the Q-sorting was done; factors emerged relative to three mental models of authority—dependency, counter-dependency, and interdependency. Before the workshop, immediately after, and 6 weeks after, factors were compared to answers to a threefold question: what are the participants points of view about authority relations, do they change after a workshop, and is the role of locus of control involved? A self report measure of satisfaction was used 6 weeks after the training to assess outcomes.	An experiential education program (informal learning) in Tavistock style with executives explored mental models in terms of power and authority.	Dissertation: Rodenbaugh (2002)

Research Method		Interventions	Source
	<p>Evaluated the effectiveness of a mentoring program (also categorized as informal learning), whereby written instruments were used on both the mentors and mentees. Instruments included the Leader Behavior Analysis II (LBAII) (pre and post test measures) the Myers-Briggs Type indicator was administered (pretest), and a mentoring functions scale consisting of 30 questions was given to the mentees to assess their overall satisfaction (posttest). In addition, open ended interviews were conducted with a random sample of pairs.</p>	Mentoring program	Dissertation: Stromei (1998)
Action/Practitioner Research	<p>Action research was applied to the intervention. It was a longitudinal study to show whether the LSI had a substantive and lasting impact (it did not). The underlying purpose of the study was to positively impact the commitment level of employees around a transformational change through whole system learning. The author also wanted to better understand organizational learning in the context of researcher's organizational system.</p>	Large Scale Intervention (LSI) at a state government's transportation department.	Dissertation: Smilonich (1999)

Table seven, Methods

Quantitative, experimental design. True experimental and quasi-experimental research designs employ a treatment and control group in an attempt to determine whether the treatment program (i.e., didactic classroom based training on performance management) had an effect on the outcome variable (Agresti and Finlay, 1997). In other words, they investigate cause and effect relationships (McMillan and Wergin, 2002). The primary difference between the two designs is that true experimental designs will use random assignment of participants to different treatments; whereas, quasi-experimental designs do not randomly assign participants (McMillan and Wergin). Typically, a quasi experiment will have a pretest and a posttest (outcomes of the post-test are the dependent variable) (McMillan and Wergin).

There were four dissertations that utilized a quantitative, experimental design and two journal articles. The first dissertation examined interpersonal communication competence and learning in management development training, using an experiential learning approach (Vicker, 1998). The management development program was part of a Florida's state and local government training center. Participants were randomly assigned to a treatment or control group. The researcher used a self report assessment with regard to participant's interpersonal communication competence. Each group participated in the same experiential activities. After the course, participants completed the self assessment and a multiple choice exam, which was focused on the learning objectives of the training. Participants were also given a revised copy of the self report and were asked to complete the report in one week and return it to the researcher. Further, volunteers were asked to participate after the training, whereby they would solicit feedback from coworkers with regard to their interpersonal communication competence.

The first hypothesis resulted in the null being accepted. Those that scored high on the competence instrument were not more satisfied with the learning experience.

Hypothesis number two resulted in the null being accepted. Pearson test of correlation showed no significant linear relationship between competence with the scores on the post test exam. Hypothesis three did not show a statistically significant difference. There was no evidence to suggest improvement had been made between pre and post tests.

The second dissertation examined the effectiveness of traditional and adjunct management training focused on interpersonal skills for junior technical managers at a national aerospace research laboratory (Waggoner, 2001). Participants were randomly assigned to one of two training conditions. There was also a control group. Each training group received identical training in the first phase of the study. Following this phase, one of the groups participated in an adjunct training developed as a follow up to the first phase of the training. This program focused on increasing the awareness of the role of interpersonal skills in management, the development of these skills and transfer of these skills to the job; the control group that did not receive any training.

Each of the two training group's scores indicated significant increases resulting from the training. The training group that received the adjunct training resulted in the training easing their transition into a management position and improved their ability to transfer the management skills to their new job to a significantly greater degree than the group that received only the initial phase of training.

The third dissertation examined the effectiveness of two training methodologies in the development of management soft skills (Pfeifer, 2004). One methodology was instructor-led, and the second was a self-directed management system (SDMS). The

research utilized a two-group, pretest-posttest randomized block design to compare the effectiveness of two training delivery methods: traditional instructor led workshop training and self directed motivation system (SDMS); with intrinsic motivation as the blocking variable. Participants were randomly assigned to one of two training methods, whereby they were taught skills to increase employee effectiveness through performance management techniques. Pre and post tests were administered on knowledge and skill acquisition, and levels of intrinsic motivation towards training content. Additionally, two months following the treatment, skill transfer interviews with individual managers were conducted and resulted in three transfer ratings. A fourth instrument was used to assess the degree of skill transfer for each of the three skills taught in the training.

No statistically significant mean differences were found between groups in the knowledge or skill posttest, and in the transfer of skills 1 or 2. For skill 3, a statistically significant difference was found in favor of the SDMS group. Further, the study found a statistically significant increase in the level of post motivation scores in the SDMS group. The effect size was low (.39). Overall, SDMS, was as effective as instructor-led workshop delivery. In the areas of transfer of training and increasing managers' intrinsic motivation towards training content, SDMS was more effective than the instructor-led workshop.

The fourth dissertation examined the effectiveness of a management program on perceived locus of control and job satisfaction in managers and non-managers (Benischek, 1996). The intervention was a 15 week management development program, which was part of a semester long professional diploma program at a University. The program was designed for the new manager or supervisor and focused on three

components, Self, Group dynamics, and dealing with Unions. The research utilized a causal-comparative approach whereby two groups were randomly designated to a treatment group (43 participants), which received the basic training program, or a control group (47 participants). Levenson's 24 item locus of control scale was administered. Using this Liker scale, three dimensions of locus of control (internal, powerful others, and chance) are emphasized.

Then, the treatment group participated in the training, and was measured again with a posttest one month after the end of the program. Control group received only the pre and post tests at comparable time intervals. In addition, portions of the standard version of the Job Diagnostic Survey were used to measure job satisfaction of the participants. This was also administered pre and post to both groups. Pre and post scores were analyzed using Pearson product-moment correlations, homogeneity of regression coefficients, and a mixed design.

No relationship between any of the three independent variables (group, status, and time) and the four instrument scores (three Levenson and one JDS) was established ($p = .01$ level) using four ANOVAs. For the first hypothesis, all four correlations were significant at the $p < .01$ level (null rejected). Hypothesis two, the null was also rejected—there was strong relationship between four of the six posttest scores for locus of control and job satisfaction. Hypothesis three resulted in the null being rejected. Regression analysis indicated there was interaction between the pretest score and two independent variables (participation and position status) were significant at $p = .03$ level. Hypothesis four resulted in the null being accepted. Post hoc analysis indicated job satisfaction increases with age. Further conclusions were that the training program

appeared to attract a certain type of employee--one that was more internal in terms of locus of control, and managers are more internal and satisfied than non managers.

There were two journal articles that utilized a quantitative, experimental design. The first journal article examined the effectiveness of hardiness training for managers (Maddi, Kahn, & Maddi, 1998). Hardiness training was compared with a relaxation/meditation condition and a placebo/social support control (passive listening). A composite questionnaire was used at pretest and posttest. It included measures of personality hardiness, job satisfaction, subjectively experienced strain, perceived social support and illness. Further, The Personal Views survey was used to measure hardiness. This test consisted of 45 rating scale items worded to refer to beliefs about one self that concerned sense of commitment, control, or challenge. On each scale, some items are positive and others are negative indicators. These 45 items were factor analyses, which yielded three inter-correlated factors identifiable as commitment, control and challenge.

For subjectively experienced strain, the Hopkins Symptom Checklist was used. Consisting of 58 items, this test has adequate reliability and is in common use to indicate levels of anxiety, depression, somatization, and interpersonal sensitivity. Perceived social support was measured as the total of four scales. Two scales concerned the work site, and the other two concerned the home. Adequate reliability and validity have been demonstrated for these scales. Pre-training and post-training reporting period used was the length of the course--2.5 months.

The hardiness training proved to be more effective than the other two conditions in increasing self-reported hardiness, job satisfaction and social support while decreasing self-reported strain and illness. Although participants were assigned to treatment

conditions at random, pretreatment scores on the dependent variables of this study showed some variation across conditions. Because of initial variation, the means of pretreatment and post-treatment difference scores within subjects were used throughout in analyses of treatment effects. Effect sizes were moderate to large across measures.

The second journal article examined the effects of multi-Source / Multi-Rater (MSMR) feedback and the use of a feedback facilitator on the influence behavior of managers toward subordinates (Seifert, Yukl, & McDonald, 2003). This field experiment included a treatment and control group. There was also a quasi-experimental comparison group in another organization. Managers in the treatment condition received a feedback report in a workshop with a facilitator. Managers in the comparison group received the same type of feedback report, but no workshop. Managers in the control group received no feedback or workshop. A pre-measure survey was conducted in all three conditions to assess each focal manager's behavior toward subordinates, peers, and bosses.

The same respondents were surveyed again in a post-measure survey conducted 3 months later. The feedback involved a manager's use of proactive influence tactics with subordinates, peers, and bosses. There were four core tactics: Rational persuasion (presenting facts, evidence, and logical argument); inspirational appeals (appealing to the person's values, ideals, and emotions); consultation (involving the person in planning how to accomplish a task or objective), and collaboration (offering to make it easier to carry out a request).

A two-way repeated measures analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used to assess the effects of the feedback workshop. Managers in the feedback workshop increased their use of some core influence tactics with subordinates, whereas there was no change

in behavior for the control group or for the comparison group. Managers in the treatment condition significantly increased their use of the four tactics with subordinates. There was no significant change for managers in the control group. Two of the core tactics demonstrated a significant change were consultation $f(1, 27) = 9.13, p < .01$, collaboration, $f(1,37) = 5.08, p < .05$. Further, feedback was perceived to be more useful by managers who received it in a workshop with a facilitator than by managers who received only a printed feedback report. Effect sizes ranged from moderate to large for all analyses.

With regard to study limitations as elucidated through the DIAD, the two journal articles were both limited in terms of external validity—sampling, in that they both compared minimal sample data; gender and managerial level and gender respectively (DIAD # 5). Also, in neither case did the studies adhere to external validity with regard to testing within subgroups (DIAD #6). External validity with regard to testing within subgroups was also missing from four of the six dissertations. Finally, in two instances, the use of secondary data or other potential extraneous variables could have limited internal validity in terms of contamination (DIAD #4). Finally, with regard to the use of experimental designs, it has been suggested that training programs found within the management development domain are typically multi-modal; therefore, even when a positive effect is realized, the researcher cannot identify any true causation (Agresti and Finlay (1997).

There were 11 quasi-experimental studies in this meta-synthesis. Two were dissertations and nine were journal articles. The first dissertation examined management development and its relationship to organizational performance (Wyszynski, 1998). The

research involved an evaluation of a training and development program focused on employee relations. The impact that the training had on the individual was measured through the use of a one-group pretest-posttest design where subjects served as their own control. Individuals were surveyed before the training and again 3 months after the training. The pretest posttest design provided a comparison between skills and abilities by the same group of participants before and after the training.

The impact that the training had on the organization was determined by a one-group posttest design. The subordinates rating of manager performance as a result of the training program was obtained with this measure and it served as a measure of organization performance. In addition, secondary data provided measures for organizational performance, which included filed grievances dating back to 1995.

Logistic Regression analysis; Pearson Correlations were used in analysis.

The first hypothesis was supported with self reports from managers that indicated improvement in their own performance from the pre and posttest scores. Specifically, improvement was indicated regarding their ability to communicate, problem solve, and manage schedules and deadlines. The second hypothesis predicted that an improvement in management skills based on self reports would be positively related with subordinates rating of improvement in management skills. This was not supported. The third hypothesis improvement in management relations based on the subordinate's evaluation of manager performance would increase the probability of reducing the frequency of grievance filing rates. This was strongly supported.

The second dissertation was an evaluation of management development behavior modeling training with regard to training transfer (Bostain, 2000). The study was

conducted in a field setting and utilized a posttest only design in order to focus on the evaluation of actions based on behavioral modeling transfer to actual on the job performance. This design was used in order to control for participant sensitization. A matched control group was used for comparison of treatment and control responses to the survey. The survey assessed behavioral demonstration of actions taken on the job. It was completed by the participant, one subordinate and the participant's immediate supervisor seven months after the training was completed. The control group was the same, except they did not receive the training. Analysis consisted of Pearson project-moment correlation between participants, followed by a 2X3 analysis of variance (ANOVA) for main effects, followed by t-Tests.

ANOVA using the transfer of training as the dependent measure showed a highly significant main effect for treatment condition. A statistically significant difference was found between the control group and the experimental group with regard to demonstration of the actions on the job, as reported by the trainees, their supervisors, and their subordinates. No interaction effect for position was found. The control group did not demonstrate any change in behavior.

The first journal article using a quasi-experimental design examined trainee characteristics and the outcomes of an open learning intervention (Warr & Bunce, 1995). The study was conducted over a period of seven months and examined 11 trainee characteristics in relation to learning scores, reaction to the program, and changes to behavior on the job. Specifically, analytical and behavioral learning strategies were examined in terms of the use of critical reflection and other cognitive processes. Questionnaires were administered for time one and two to participants. The time one

questionnaire was designed to elicit self report responses regarding pre-training motivation, anxiety, and learning self-efficacy. Two scales were used to determine distal and proximal forms of pre-training motivation. Anxiety was measured by two scales which were derived as separate factors from principle components analysis with varimax rotation. Half were negatively-worded and reverse-scored. There were 36 items in the Time two questionnaire designed to discern learning activities, and they were framed as either analytic ($\alpha = .84$) which utilized ten items, or behavioral strategies ($\alpha = .84$) which utilized twelve items.

Scores on learning measures were provided by tutors, whereby they assessed achievement on each training module on a performance scale of 1 to 5 (requiring improvement to excellent). Learning was assessed on two of the three training components; cognitive and skill-based (but not affective). Participants direct supervisor submitted performance ratings at time one, two and again at time three (three months later). Performance elements were defined by the company as key behaviors. Internal reliabilities ranged from .93 to .95. Reactions to training were also measured and had reliability measures of .84 to .93.

Hierarchical multiple regression analyses was used to test hypotheses and t-Tests were used to measure all variables at Time one. Significant associations were found between learning score and changes in rated job performance. Mean job performance increased between time one and two. Multivariate analysis of variance on the three separate measures (Time one, two and three) indicated an overall trend was strongly significant $.79, p = .008$. Only one difference that was significant was found between Time two and three. This was an increase in wider job knowledge. Further, only

analytical strategy was found to be significantly correlated with learning (versus behavioral).

The second journal article examined the impact of interpersonal skills training with executives (Hunt and Baruch, 2003). Assessment of interpersonal competencies was completed on a longitudinal, pre and posttest basis. Assessments were obtained from the participants direct reports. The first assessment was completed six weeks prior to the training, and the second assessment was completed six months after the training. A minimum of five direct reports used a questionnaire to record their satisfaction level with their managers' interpersonal skills.

Results indicate statistically significant difference for some of the competencies. Overall training had positive but modest outcomes. In no case did participants fail to improve the mean of at least some competencies. Skills that were associated with a change were those that were easily described, had clear outcome criteria and were segmented into a step-by-step routine during practice. In contrast, the "soft" skills such as being sensitive to pressures of others proved to be difficult in terms of seeing evidence statistically. The two skills that seemed to be the least responsive to the training based on results were decision making and giving one on one feedback.

The third journal article examined how creative thinking skills, attitudes and behaviors work together in a field experiment (Basadur, Runco, & Vega, 2000). Interrelationships among variables, six attitudinal and behavioral skills learning during training, was measured and a best-fit causal model was designed. Before and after training participants were measured on the variables. With regard to analysis, two procedural checks were made: first, to ensure that responses to the two task sets (AC and

BD) were not significantly different. Second, a procedural check was done to ensure that before and after training effects were similar to previous training research results in several controlled field experiments, which negated the necessity for a control group.

The training achieved positive results on all but evaluation of non original ideas. Two of the hypotheses relationships were not supported and the direction of two others were reversed. Quantity of ideas produced increased significantly from a mean of 9.1 to a mean of 13.4 ideas ($p < .001$). Also, a significant increase in the quality of ideas produced from a mean of 3.1 to a mean of 5.4 original ideas ($p < .001$). After training, participants recognized significantly more accurately which of their ideas were original. Further, the production of original ideas improved. Greater ideational skill in generating high quality, more original solution ideas appears to be directly associated with greater evaluation skill in recognizing original, high quality ideas. Thus the key appears to be ideational skill in generating a quantity of ideas. This skill is directly and strongly related to ideational skill in quality of ideas generated (.80) and to evaluation skill in recognizing lower quality ideas (.56).

The fourth journal article examined the use of multi-source / multi-rater (MSMR) feedback as an evaluation tool for management development (Tyson & Ward, 2004). The evaluation tool was designed to distinguish between the effects of different management development interventions. The study was conducted over a period of three years. Evaluation levels were adapted from two primary sources, including Kirkpatrick's four levels of evaluation. However, learning and performance were collapsed into one level, which was called, content. Level one was called, process, and level four (now three) was called, outcomes.

The program used to examine the evaluation tool took one year to complete and a total of three and a half years was covered in terms of the evaluation period (1997-2001). There were two phases to the training. The first attended by senior managers and the second by middle, front line managers. Results were positive for phase one of the program, but phase two did not show statistically significant differences in terms of improvement to competencies. Staff rated the managers higher at time two, but it was not significant. Reasons for the differences were said to include less coaching provided during phase two and pressure regarding performance increased for front line managers during that time period due to job demands.

The fifth journal article examined expert judgment in managers with regard to the method of acquiring it, specifically through formal education or through experience (Summers, Williamson, & Read (2004). Credit management decisions made by four groups of participants who varied in their degree of experience in credit management and in their education in finance and accounting. Seasoned credit managers who did not have a formal education, finance and accounting lecturers from a local university, and their students. The control group was made up of laypeople with no financial background at all. Decisions made fell into the first two functional responsibilities of credit managers: assessing credit risk and granting credit. Credit risk assessment tasks were deemed suitable for this study in that they have a high degree of context independence. Participants were asked to determine whether or not the company would fail. Also, they were asked to assess the likelihood of late payment; and asked whether they would grant credit to each company.

Lecturers had the highest mean number of correct corporate failure predictions, closely followed by students, with managers and laypeople doing somewhat less well. Analysis revealed that both lecturers and students were able to predict corporate failure more accurately than laypeople ($t(78)=2.6, p < .01$; $t(78)=2.1, p < .05$). Moreover, there was a non-significant trend suggesting that lecturers outperformed managers ($t(78)=1.7, p < .1$). There was no difference between managers and laypeople. Lecturers and students generally outperformed credit managers on the prediction tasks, and the credit managers performed only slightly better than laypeople. In other words, Lecturers who had no experience in credit management, but did know the theories and concepts well, performed better than professional managers. In short, for at least one domain, it appears to be more efficient to learn from formal education than from experience.

The sixth journal article investigates the use of analogical learning methods in teaching negotiating techniques (Loewenstein, Thompson & Gentner, 2003). The use of analogical method consisted of the treatment group comparing two case studies with regard to the negotiation techniques used. The comparison treatment group simply was asked to read the individual cases (not to make comparisons). The control group had no training. Analogy training led to better performance than separate cases or no training. Teams that compared cases ($n=24/60 = 40\%$) were more likely to form a contingent contract in the actual, face to face negotiation than were those who analyzed the cases separately ($n=8/27 = 22\%$) a marginal association, $X^2 (n=97,1) = 3.50, p = .06$. Members of the comparison group negotiating individually were more likely to form contingent contracts than were those in the baseline group, $X^2 (n=83, 1) = 4.195, p < .05$, but participants in the separate cases group were not, $X^2 (n=60, 1) < 1, ns$.

The researchers also compared the performance of individuals who negotiated on their own, and the negotiating teams. They found no reliable difference in generating contingent contracts between negotiations among intact teams ($n=12/38 = 32\%$) and negotiations among dissolved teams, that is, solo individuals ($n=20/59 = 34\%$), $X^2 < 1$, ns. Based on content coding of team reports (blind raters), those who drew comparisons (21/38 or .55) were more likely to induce the schema than were those who analyzed cases separately (12/38 or 32%), a reliable difference, $X^2 (n=76, 1) = 4.34, p < .05$. Based on this, the researchers inferred that drawing comparisons facilitated understanding the general principle underlying the examples.

The seventh journal article conducted an analysis of an employee assistance supervisory training program (Donohoe, Johnson & Stevens, 1997). The study utilized a repeated measures design that included a pre, post and delayed post assessment six months after the training. Posttest scores were significantly greater than at pretest and delayed posttest; delayed post test scores were still significantly greater than at pretest. Results from a between-group one way analysis of variance (ANOVA) yielded significant differences $f(2,138) = 196.84, p < .001$ (see table 2 p. 30). Using Tukey's post hoc comparison, it was found that the post test scores were significantly greater than pre and delayed post test--M 16.80, std dev 1.4203 (post); M 14.8429, std dev 2.0046 (delayed post); M 12.2714, std dev (pre). Evidence suggests that some information is lost, however the overall training method appears to be effective.

The eighth journal article examined the importance of work environment on the application of trained skills on the job (Tracey, Tannenbaum, & Kavanagh, 1995). Three weeks prior to training a measure of supervisory behaviors was obtained from the

participant and their supervisor. This measure, developed from the specific objectives outlined in the training materials and interviews with the trainers, was used as a baseline to account for behaviors that had been demonstrated by trainees before training.

At the end of training, learning was assessed and participants completed a transfer of training climate and continuous-learning culture questionnaire. Participants were also asked to distribute the questionnaire to their supervisor and four or five coworkers. 6-8 weeks after training, participants and their supervisors completed a post training behavior questionnaire, which focused on the same behaviors as the pre training questionnaire.

Learning outcomes consisted of the following: mean pre training scores for all was 9.71 (std 4.12) and mean post train scores for all was 16.63 (STD 2.82). A t-Test indicated a significant difference between pre and post training knowledge ($t(103) = 28.86, p < .01$, (i.e., trainees knew more about the behaviors at the end of training). Internal consistency established was .80 for learning retention and .71 for learning immediately after training. To avoid self rating bias, only supervisor ratings were used for post training assessment. Further, participants displayed more of the trained behaviors 6 to 8 weeks after training than 3 week prior. However, since a control group was not used, the results cannot be conclusively attributable to the training.

Climate and culture: Constructs were factor analyzed. Factors included six transfer of training climate scales (social and goal cues, task cues, no feedback consequences, negative reinforcement consequences, extrinsic reinforcement consequences, and intrinsic reinforcement consequences) and three continuous learning culture scales (social support, continuous improvement and continuous competitiveness).

Results support the notion that both climate and continuous learning culture are important for the application of newly acquired behavior and skills.

The ninth, and final journal article examined the impact of multi-source / multi-rater (MSMR) feedback on management development (Bailey & Fletcher, 2002). This longitudinal study investigated measures by self, boss, as well first and second level subordinates with regard to management competencies. The assessment was administered in the context of a development program that had already been established in the organization. Ratings were compared over two administrations, with a period of two years between the first and second administration.

The results were mixed in terms of the benefits hypothesized by the researchers. The competence was perceived to have increased by all raters between time one and two. However, this increase was significant for three out of the four rater constituencies (target managers and both levels of subordinate staff). The most significant change was seen in first and second level subordinates perceptions. A ceiling effect was observed in bosses' assessments. At Time one the most favorable ratings were provided by targets bosses, and least favorable ratings were provided by targets second level subordinates. Bosses perceived an increase in competence, but this was not statistically significant. Initial self assess at time one were not found to be significant related to appraisal ratings. However, a significant positive relationship was observed for self assess at time 2 and post repeat feedback participant ratings, supporting the notion that MSMR feedback will enable managers to become more aware of behaviors rewarded by the organization. Further, the targets were largely unresponsive to ratings provided by their coworkers at time one and that more change occurred in coworkers ratings than in self assessments.

Analysis of quality (trustworthiness) for these studies indicated that external validity with regard to testing within subgroups was limited for both dissertations and all nine journal articles (DIAD #6). In three instances, journal articles did not meet the standard of external validity with regard to sampling, and one was minimal (listed experience, education and training) (DIAD #5). Further, in one instance a journal article did not meet the standard for completeness of reporting, and two others were limited to only reporting methods, but not analysis (DIAD #8). In one instance, a journal article did not elude to the sample selection (DIAD #3).

Quantitative, non-experimental. There were two dissertations that utilized a quantitative, non experimental approach; both correlational. Correlational studies typically include the use of surveys, instruments and other data to measure and describe characteristics of individuals with averages, percentages and other descriptive data (Agresti & Finlay, 1997). While correlational research is useful in determining relationships among variables, it does not allow for generalizations to be made regarding the causal nature of the relationship (McMillan & Wergin, 2002).

The first dissertation was a study focused on participant activity in a multi-source, multi-rater (MSMR) development program through examining personality and performance (Louis-Slaby, 2004). Most data pertained to the participants, who were involved in a yearlong executive development program at a University; however, some data collected was secondary and used as part of the analysis phase of the research. The secondary data consisted of personality assessments and MSMR feedback that were both obtained prior to the study. Factor analysis was conducted using maximum likelihood method. Quartimax rotation was also used, which enabled a general factor to emerge.

Approximately 63% of variance was explained as “activity in a development program.” Further, two secondary factors emerged—feedback acceptance and organized approach to development.

Eleven instructors at the University participated in the study. They provided feedback on participants that they taught in the program via a rating form. Reliability was $\alpha = .97$. The first hypothesis, a negative relationship between performance ratings and general activity in the development program, was not supported. Ratings from all four sources (self, boss, peer, and subordinate) were not significantly correlated with activity in a development program. However, peer performance ratings were significantly related to both feedback acceptance ($r=.19$; $p<.05$) and organized approach to dev ($r=.18$; $p<.05$). Performance ratings from employees also significantly correlated with feedback acceptance ($r=.20$; $p<.01$) and organized approach to dev ($r=.22$; $p<.01$). The hypothesis that personality factors (e.g., extroversion) would have a relationship to activity in the development program was not supported.

Finally, the third hypotheses predicted personality would play a role in predicting activity and performance ratings. Performance ratings submitted by peers emerged as the most important predictor of feedback acceptance and explained 31% of total variance. Employees were shown to account for 30% of variance. However, effect sizes were weak.

The second dissertation examined the effects of training for managers to gain employee trust (Norman, 2003). The determinants were work related attitudes and emotional well-being. Participants were randomly assigned to a treatment or control condition. Repeated measures ANOVAs were used to assess change in manager

behavior and employee attitudes and emotions between a baseline measure and a follow up. A series of regression analyses were run to further examine the relationship between manager behavior and employee trust. Two factors emerged; ongoing behavior (listening and giving feedback, applying company values, applying consistent values, and making an effort to understand employee values), and scheduled behavior (quarterly and annual recognition, scheduled coaching, creating a development plan with employees, setting objectives, and delegating meaningful assignments).

Baselines of scheduled and ongoing behaviors were entered into regression equations in order to predict subordinates perceptions of managers' benevolence, integrity, ability and trust toward the manager. Finally, regression analyses were used to examine the relationship between trust and employee work related emotional well being.

Trust toward managers was associated with higher levels of positive affect ($p < .001$) higher scores on pleasure at work ($p < .001$), less tiredness at work ($p < .001$), less anger ($p < .001$), and greater job satisfaction ($p < .001$). Increase in trust between baseline and follow up were associated with decreases in anger ($p < .05$) and increases in job sat ($p < .05$). Results indicate a relationship exists between trust and work related emotional wellbeing.

Qualitative, Case Study. Qualitative research designs focus on understanding a phenomenon from the perspective of the participants and context being studied (Creswell, 1998). Further, qualitative designs approach the research with a philosophical view that consists of socially constructed reality (and constantly changing), natural settings, rich descriptive narratives, inductive data analysis, and an emergent design in terms of procedures (McMillan & Wergin, 1997).

The qualitative research design used with regard to the sample in this study consisted of case studies. The case study approach provides an in-depth understanding of a phenomenon within a single case that can lead to theory building or provide a rich description (Creswell, 1998). The intent is not to generalize the findings, but rather describe a phenomenon within a single case or multiple cases (Creswell). The studies that are a part of this meta-synthesis consist of single cases. In one study, a retrospective design was applied within the Case Study method, in which data was collected after the fact. Retrospective has also been referred to as Ex post facto design (McMillan & Wergin, 1997). In effect, events have already occurred in the past and are being studied in the present.

There were seven qualitative, case studies included in this meta-synthesis. Of those seven, four were dissertations and three were journal articles. The first dissertation was an exploratory case study utilized with a work-based learning (action learning) intervention (Waddill, 2004). The intervention was a virtual asynchronous online management course on the topic of action learning. After the course, each participant was interviewed. All interviews occurred within one week of the course and were conducted by phone. All were transcribed and resubmitted to interviewees for confirmation, correction and additional comments. The transcripts were then coded (type of coding applied was not specified).

The second dissertation utilized a retrospective design in order to investigate discontinuous events (informal learning), more specifically organizational growth events that had significantly contributed to organizational learning within the company as it grew in age and size. Individual semi-structured interviews were conducted and themes

and patterns were induced into a composite illustration of organizational growth events and learning processes over a fifteen year period (Darnell, 2003).

The third dissertation utilized a case study to ethnographically describe practices and organizational supports that fostered deep (double loop) learning in its leaders (Hall, 2001). The research design consisted of opinion-polling of subject matter experts, semi-structured interviews and participant observation in ethnographically describing the practices and organizational supports used to foster deep learning. A vivid description is provided of a company operating under a silo-centric, command and control hierarchical leadership, and a focus on customer service. Further, the researcher describes the setting in which a leadership retreat (the focal point of the intervention) takes place.

The fourth dissertation utilized a grounded theory whereby the researcher explored that case through the use of a preplanned, structured interview guide, but at the same time allowed for openness to the direction of the conversation (Kiehl, 2004). The researcher used a combination of life story, critical incident, and focus group interview techniques, which all together provided for an emergent process. To supplement interviews, observations were of the plants, offices, and meetings were made, and secondary data was collected. Thus, triangulation was achieved and supported validity. The theory generated from this study was called, locker room learning (LRL), which included both individual and organizational level learning and was essentially double loop learning in the specific case of organizational process change.

The three journal articles consisted of a work-based learning intervention and the investigation of a management development system, which were both in the UK, and an

exploration of discontinuous learning events (informal learning) with regard to six entrepreneurs that started and grew their businesses.

In the first journal article, which explored the role of motivation to learn (Kinman & Kinman, 2001), semi-structured interviews were conducted with participants and lecturing staff. Literature was reviewed on motivation and learning styles of mature students, and was used as a basis for examination and coding of data from open-ended questionnaires and semi-structured interviews.

The second journal article involved a longitudinal study, spanning three years (1991-1994) (Antonacopoulou, 1999). Semi-structured interviews, observation, questionnaires, and critical incident technique were utilized. Interviews covered perceptions of the current management development training system, main influences on management training in the organization, perceived role of training to individual development, and perceived association between learning and training and the level of utilization of learning from training (transfer). An organizational perspective was obtained through records, archived materials, and interviews conducted with Human Resources and Training staff regarding perceived contribution of management training to total value of the company. Analysis of findings focused on three levels—individual manager, organizational systems (training and development) and understanding the interaction between personal and organizational factors and the impact on individual perceptions with regard to the association between training and learning.

The third journal article explored the development experience of six entrepreneurs within the context of small business ownership and growth (Cope, 2003). Development was explored through the lens of discontinuous learning events. Further, the concept of

critical reflection was explored, as were the distinctive forms of higher level (double loop) learning from facing, overcoming and reflecting on significant problems or opportunities during the career of the entrepreneur. In-depth, unstructured phenomenological interviews were conducted with the six participants, which delved into the history of their business. Critical incidents were an integral part of the interview process. Interviews focused on memorable moments. The researcher acknowledges that they played an active role in helping the interviewee reflect deeply on the occurrences—the researcher called it a, “sense-making process” whereby the participant was asked to clarify meanings and importance attached to events. The results were illustrated in two case examples that described the discontinuous events that triggered deeper learning. The learning was then framed in terms of double loop and transformative learning.

With regard to limitations in these studies, in two out of the three journal studies, an audit trail was not provided (DIAD #8) and standards for external validity, as it pertains to sampling were not met (DIAD #5). None of the three articles met the standard for external validity with respect to testing within subgroups (DIAD #6). Out of the four dissertations, none of the case studies met the standard of external validity with respect to testing within subgroups (DIAD #6), but met all other standards.

Mixed method. Mixed method designs are seen as the third major research paradigm, and the primary reasons given for using a mixed design is compatibility as well as an adherence to a philosophy of pragmatism (Onwuegbuzie & Teddlie, 2003). In terms of compatibility, the idea is that quantitative and qualitative methods are compatible, that is, they can both be used in a single research study. The philosophy of pragmatism says that researchers should use the approach that works the best in a real

world situation (Onwuegbuzie & Teddlie).

There were four mixed methods studies; two of which were journal articles and the other two were dissertations. The first journal article examined the extent to which managers engaged in informal learning, perceptions of support in the environment, and the level of managerial proficiency related to transfer of learning in twenty core managerial skills (Enos, Kehrhahn & Bell, 2003). In a prior study conducted one year prior to this study, the twenty competencies were identified. All data were collected using a single self-report questionnaire. Cronbach's alpha was measured for internal consistency and demonstrated between .87 and .93 on all scales.

The second journal article was an examination of work-environment support factors affecting transfer of supervisory skills training (Cromwell and Kolb, 2004). Trainees completed a self-report five part questionnaire and short answer questions. Questions were focused on transfer of skills from supervisory training and the degree of organizational, supervisor, and peer support. Also, the trainees' direct managers completed a three part questionnaire and short answer questions, with regard to the trainee; specifically, the trainee's ability to transfer training and their own perception of organizational and supervisor support.

The first dissertation was focused on an experiential education program (informal learning) in Tavistock style with executives (Rodenbaugh, 2002). The study utilized a Q-methodology and a questionnaire, which were augmented with personal interviews. Effectiveness of the training was investigated from four perspectives: a) changes in perception of authority relations as experienced by executives, b) the role of locus of control in changing perceptions of authority relations, c) the executives' satisfaction with

the learning they experienced, and the approach take to provide it, and d) the transfer of learning (i.e., changes made) to the work environment. Triangulation was used to counterbalance the limitations of each method.

The Q-methodology examined the participants' points of view of authority relationships through their subjective engagement with a group of statements. Factor analysis of the Q-sorting resulted in several factors representing each respondents' point of view, and the association of each respondent with each point of view as indicated by the magnitude of his or her loading on that factor. Factors were made relative to three mental models of authority—dependency, counter-dependency, and interdependency. Before the workshop, immediately after, and 6 weeks after, factors were compared to answer to a threefold question: what are the participants points of view about authority relations, do they change after a workshop, and is the role of locus of control involved? Twenty one-on-one, open ended interviews were conducted in order to augment the investigation and provide further insights. Finally, a self report measure of satisfaction was used 6 weeks after the training to assess perceived outcomes and satisfaction with the training.

The second dissertation evaluated the effectiveness of a mentoring program (also categorized as informal learning), whereby written instruments were used on both the mentors and mentees (Stromei, 1998). Instruments included the Leader Behavior Analysis II (LBAII) (pre and post test measures) the Myers-Briggs Type indicator was administered (pretest) , and a mentoring functions scale consisting of 30 questions was given to the mentees to assess their overall satisfaction (posttest). In addition, interviews

were conducted with a random sample of pairs. Methods of analysis included descriptive statistics, correlations, t-Tests, ANOVAS, and regressions.

In one journal study (Enos, et al.), the completeness of report was found to be limited (DIAD #8) and there was no testing within subgroups (DIAD #6). Further, contamination may be a concern given only content validity was identified (through pre-established measures). Both of the dissertations, as well as the second journal article met all DIAD criteria standards.

Action Research. Action/Practitioner research is undertaken by practitioners in their own setting for the purpose of understanding their organization and how to improve it. Action research can utilize any of the designs mentioned above (experimental, quasi-experimental, non-experimental, or qualitative). What distinguishes action research is that some form of action, such as policy change, is expected as a result of the research (Coghlan & Brannick, 2005).

Action research was applied to a Large Scale Intervention (LSI) at a state government's transportation department (Smilonich, 1999). This intervention was part of a dissertation who was also an employee at the organization. It was a longitudinal study to show whether the LSI had a substantive and lasting impact (it did not). The underlying purpose of the study was to positively impact the commitment level of employees around a transformational change through whole system learning. The author also wanted to better understand organizational learning in the context of researcher's organizational system.

The LSI used a real time strategic change model, and included three separate phases spread out over a twenty month period. Each phase consisted of an event focused

on a specific group: First, a 2-day district manager's retreat, second a 3-day event focused on middle management, which took place one month after the first event; and third, a large group, 3-day event involving all employees, which occurred sixty days after the second event. Each event was a unit of analysis for the researcher whereby descriptions of behaviors, actions and conversations were documented and later interpreted. As is the case with typical action research based projects, adjustments were made as needed.

While bias is inherent in making observations and interpreting behavior, and should be considered a limitation of this study, all standards were met with regard to the DIAD.

As outlined above, the studies included in this meta-synthesis come from diverse institutions, fields of study, and differing approaches to study. The studies reviewed include multiple factors, variables and themes. Taken together, the literature presents the construct of learning transfer at the far and/or creative level as a very complex and multi-faceted phenomenon.

Samples. The samples used within each of the studies included in this meta-synthesis were reduced to the following categories: a) Mid level managers, b) Supervisor / Jr. Mgr, c) Executive / Sr. Mgr, and d) Mixed (i.e., either hierarchical—senior, middle, and junior level managers; or the study sample consisted of both managers and non-managers. The majority of studies (seventeen) fell in the Mixed category, whereby twelve studies contained a mix of managers and five contained a mix of managers and non managers. The decision was made to include the studies that had a mix of managers and non managers because the results obtained through the study contained potentially important information for this meta-synthesis.

Mid-level managers participated in the interventions that consisted of general management development, informal learning (discontinuous events and mentoring), MSMR, Trust, and Decision Making/Expertise. Supervisors were targeted for interventions that consisted of general supervisory skills (EAP, Peer Support Network), informal learning (self directed), and Interpersonal skills (behavioral modeling and general). Executive and senior managers were involved in informal learning (discontinuous events, experiential education), interpersonal competency, and work-based learning (action learning).

Given the majority of studies utilized a mixed group, the number of studies with in each “pure” group were small. The only theme that emerged was the informal learning was utilized across the board. For mid-level managers the focus was on discontinuous events and mentoring. Discontinuous learning events were also focused on for executives (as well as experiential education). Supervisors participated in informal learning geared toward self-directed learning.

Theoretical Framework. Meta-theory involves the analysis of primary studies for the implications of their theoretical orientations (Paterson, Thorne, Canam, and Jillings, 2001). Paterson et al. outline four general orientations: Theory testing, generating, evaluating and framing. Further, there are three types of types of theories that can be encountered (Paterson et al.): 1) grounded theory, which is qualitative in nature and generated inductively from grounded data (Lincoln & Guba, 1985); 2) substantive or midrange theory, which is used to orient the research with regard to a specific concept; and 3) grand theories, which tend to be overarching and general in their claims (Paterson, et al). The studies in this meta-synthesis were primarily made up of theory framed

research that were substantive in nature, i.e., oriented the research to a specific concept or construct.

The procedures followed to analyze the theoretical frameworks utilized within this meta-synthesis consisted of reading the primary research reports and noting the theoretical perspectives within the matrix. According to Paterson, Thorne, Canam, & Jillings (2001), “the most significant step in meta-theory is a careful and thoughtful reading of the primary research reports to identify the various ways in which theory may have influenced their shape and nature” (p. 95). By concentrating not only on the theories espoused, but also the cues that were available, such as terms that were used consistently (e.g., change) but not labeled as part of a theory, I was able to analyze the study in terms of overt theories, as well as components of theories that may have been unintentionally influential (Paterson, et al.).

The next step was to create categories based my interpretation of underlying themes from each study. Theories that framed the studies contained in this meta-synthesis were categorized as organizational, social/behavioral, and individual/cognitive (see table 8). While the categories identify underlying themes, it is important to note that some of the theories were overtly, as well as unintentionally, combined within individual studies. In other words, some studies that utilized organizational theories were combined with social/behavioral theories or individual/cognitive theories. Likewise, some studies that utilized social/behavioral theories were combined with organizational or individual/cognitive theories.

Categories of Theoretical Frameworks

Organizational	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Organizational learning ▪ Organizational Change ▪ Systems Theory ▪ Complex Adaptive Systems ▪ Double-loop learning ▪ Social Constructivist (Organizational Learning) ▪ Transfer Environment-Organizational Climate & Continuous Learning Culture ▪ Organizational Trust ▪ Evaluation (levels)
Social / Behavioral	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Social learning theory ▪ Team member exchange theory and Social networks theory ▪ Experiential Learning Theory ▪ Informal learning ▪ Social cognitive ▪ Social practice ▪ Learning transfer – Organizational Climate ▪ Group dynamics
Individual / Cognitive	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Transformative Learning ▪ Analogical learning and structure-mapping theory ▪ Brainstorming (creativity) ▪ Interpersonal Style ▪ Adult learning ▪ Self-Directed Learning ▪ Self-Image formation ▪ Personality ▪ Motivation theory (Intrinsic / Extrinsic)

Table 8, Theoretical Frameworks

Cope (2003) conducted a study exploring discontinuous learning events experienced by entrepreneurs. The author contended that double loop learning (organizational) and transformative learning (individual) theories were integrally connected. The author suggested double loop learning involves a renewed understanding of organizational processes and strategies; which emerges from awareness of one's assumptions and beliefs, and involves profound changes in self. These changes are resultant through critical inward self reflection, which is a component of transformative learning, as defined by Mezirow (1991). While the two constructs are distinct, the author

suggested it is hard to differentiate between double loop and transformative outcomes because they are interdependent (Cope, 2003).

Also, a study by Benischek (1996) used a social learning theoretical framework, which was also laden with an individual/cognitive component that was influential. Specifically, Benischek utilized locus of control theory as part of a general management development program. The author contends that locus of control occurs within the context of social learning theory. According to locus of control theory, “a reinforcement acts to strengthen an expectancy that a particular behavior or event will be followed by that reinforcement in the future” (p. 42). Reinforcement is garnered through the environment (supervisor acknowledgement or peer support) and in this light, social learning theory is described as behavior in terms of a reciprocal interaction of person and environment. Rotter’s Locus of control theory also has a cognitive component in that the construct refers to the extent to which an individual feels in control of the reinforcements that occur relative to their behavior (Benischek).

In another instance, a social learning theoretical framework was espoused with regard to mentoring, which utilized Behavior modeling as the intervention (Bostain, 2000). Behavior modeling was described as behavior that is observed and subsequently leads to changes in others’ thoughts, feelings, and attitudes (Bostain). The author contends that observation of direct experiences influence human thought, affect and behavior. Specifically, the author suggested that individuals select, organize and transform stimuli. This description was interpreted to mean that an individual/cognitive component possibly influenced the study as well; even though it was not explicitly stated.

Based on the categories of theoretical frameworks that emerged from the studies (see table 8), it is clear there was not one dominant category utilized. Out of the thirty-one studies, there seemed to be a balance between organizational, social/behavioral and individual/cognitive frameworks. However, within each category, some frameworks were utilized more than others. For example, there were six studies that explicitly outlined organizational learning as a framework, and six others that explicitly framed their study with social learning theory. On the other hand, there were three studies that explicitly used experiential learning theory and three others that used adult learning theory. Further, there was one study that utilized organizational trust and one other that utilized self-image formation. Finally, it should be noted that there were four studies that did not explicate a theoretical framework; rather, the studies were tied applicable literature.

Overall Themes

Interventions. As outlined in table 6, Interventions were sorted into categories, which were broad in nature and made up one or more interventions. Categories included Informal Learning, Multi-Source / Multi-Rater (MSMR), General Supervisory Skills Training, General Management Development, Interpersonal, Double Loop Learning, Work-based learning, Resiliency, and Analogical Learning. Informal learning had the majority of interventions (eight) and many were framed by theories that included organizational learning, organizational change, transformative learning, double loop learning, intrinsic motivation theory, and social theories such as social practice, social learning, social constructivist learning, and social cognitive theory. Further, informal

learning was used across samples (supervisor, mid-level manager, senior/executive and mixed groups).

Methods. Within the primary research studies included for this meta-synthesis, there were six types of research methods represented, a) Quantitative experimental research (true experimental), b) Quantitative quasi-experimental research, c) Quantitative non-experimental designs (correlational), d) Qualitative research (Case Study), e) Mixed-methods design, and f) Action/Practitioner Research. The majority of studies in this review, eleven, utilized a Quantitative, Quasi-Experimental research design (see Table 7).

In thirteen out of the thirty-one studies (42%), measures were applied at the organizational level. In other words, performance and organizational impact were examined and/or measured. In 58% of the studies, measures were applied at the individual level via a pre and post test regarding learning or by examining behavioral changes as observed by peers or subordinates.

The DIAD (Banning and Cobb, 2001) was used to establish quality with regard to the studies in this meta-synthesis. The analysis was concerned with appraising the quality for exclusionary purposes, to outline which methods were used with which interventions, and to determine limitations within the studies that may have shaped the results. Overall, the DIAD components that seemed lacking included DIAD #6, external validity with regard to testing within subgroups, and to a lesser extent, DIAD #5, external validity, sampling. Fourteen journal articles were found to be lacking or limited in terms of DIAD #6, and four journal articles were lacking or limited in terms of DIAD #5.

Samples. Given the majority of studies utilized a mixed group, the number of studies within each “pure” group were small. The only theme that emerged was the

informal learning was utilized across the board. For mid-level managers the focus was on discontinuous events and mentoring. Discontinuous learning events were also focused on for executives (as well as experiential education); and supervisors participated in informal learning geared toward self-directed learning.

Theoretical Framework. As outlined in Table 8, Organizational learning theory has been used in six studies as the underlying theoretical framework. Moreover, social learning theory (in several variations) was utilized in eleven studies. In other words, 55% of theories utilized to frame the studies in this meta-synthesis were focused at a group or organizational level.

Discussion

Chapter Five

“I was gratified to be able to answer promptly. I said, I don’t know.”

Mark Twain

Organizations need to adapt, transform, innovate and create in order to survive or renew (Vaill, 1989; Sadler, 2001). As agents of the organization, managers play a key role in the adaptation, transformation, innovation and creation process (Pauwe & Williams, 2001; Ruegg-Sturm, 2005). Kirchoff (1977) stated organizational effectiveness “emerges as the ultimate outcome of a combination of managerial effectiveness and factors not under organizational control” (p. 348). Learning transfer is complex, multi-dimensional, and in many ways...not under organizational control. Transferring past learning to novel contexts is not readily done by individuals within organizations, and is difficult to capture in terms of measurement (Haskell, 2001).

I started this study with the hope of findings answers. Answers to questions about what management development interventions achieve what results utilizing what research methods, with what people, in what settings and utilizing what theoretical frameworks. The interpretations made from this meta-synthesis do not consist of “I don’t know,” as the quote above suggests; rather, the interpretations made can be likened to “it depends.”

This chapter will outline my interpretation of far and creative transfer as it relates to the thirty one studies in this meta-synthesis. Also, I will discuss implications, and make recommendations based on my interpretations. Further, I will outline implications for future research, and finally I will provide a conclusion to this study.

Interpretation

As with past research (Ford & Weissbein, 1997), some studies in this meta-synthesis were able to provide evidence of transfer (to varying degrees), while others were not. The reasons for this seem to be due to self-imposed obstacles from trainees and the collective organization (i.e., the way individuals think) and issues around measurement; specifically, how the content of management development should be measured, the units of analysis (individual vs. organizational), and the multi-dimensional nature of the transfer construct.

There are three primary interpretations I have made based on this study. Each are summarized here and elaborated upon in the following pages. The first is that in order to attain higher levels (far and/or creative) of learning transfer, managers and their respective organizations must think differently; they must think in terms of transfer (Hall, 2001; Kinman & Kinman, 2001; Loewenstein, Smilonich, 1999; Louis-Slaby, 2004; Thompson & Gentner, 2003). The second interpretation is that it may be beneficial to measure management development over extended periods of time, at the organizational unit of analysis (Darnell, 2003; Waddill, 2004; Wyszynski, 1998).

Finally, some studies demonstrated that procedural, straightforward knowledge and skills that can be found at the lower levels of learning transfer (i.e., application) and are easily trained utilizing formal methods (Kinman & Kinman, 2001; Summers, Williamson & Read, 2004). It seems that when delving into exploration at the higher levels of learning transfer, one must approach the learning and the measurement of learning transfer holistically and ecologically; that is, the “hard to train” skills are those found at the higher end of the transfer scheme (i.e., interpersonal skills) and involve

cognitive, emotional, behavioral, as well as environmental factors (Cope, 2003; Enos, Kehrhahn & Bell, 2003; Hunt & Baruch, 2003; Maddi, Kahn & Maddi, 1998; Norman, 2003).

Transfer thinking. In terms of the first interpretation, it would seem that achieving higher levels (far and/or creative) of learning transfer requires that we think differently in our organizations. According to Haskell (2000), the use of analogical thinking, understanding our mental models, and double-loop learning are evident in far transfer as well as creative transfer. Development in organizations that support these transfer mechanisms seems to be of critical importance.

In the case explored by Loewenstein, Thompson & Gentner (2003), it was found that by applying analogical thinking, they were able to facilitate understanding the general principle (i.e., abstract) underlying the examples provided and therefore transfer learning to a novel context. In a similar vein, Cope (2004) observed different levels of learning, from the more practical and routine, to a more adaptive learning that generated new and different ways of thinking and producing action thereby forcing individuals to question their established ways of doing things. Discontinuous events, experienced in the workplace were able to bring about the higher levels of learning transfer via double-loop learning.

Louis-Slaby (2004) studied the use of multi-source / multi-rater feedback in terms of how feedback motivates managers to pursue development activities. She found that feedback acceptance is particularly important, and that the predictive power associated with peer and employee performance ratings was higher than that of the participants' managers (even though there was a weak effect size). This supports the notion of

utilizing MSMR as a development tool, but moreover, it suggests that our traditional view (mental model) of how to measure performance of managers in organization is limiting. Perhaps if organization's are to become "learning" organizations, the way they think about learning and performance must change. Block (1994) stated that learning and performance are necessarily becoming one and the same.

Kinman & Kinman (2001) investigated a program in the UK that implemented a traditional management development program whereby the local university provided courses onsite (e.g., work-based learning) as part of a degree program. The purpose was to evolve a culture of life long learning. They found that individuals were working from primarily an extrinsic motivation (e.g., pursue learning for the external recognition), and that this was supported in the work environment. The participants were found to excel at the straightforward, step by step procedural types of activity; and they performed less well in terms of creativity and abstract thought. In fact, they struggled with analytical thinking. This suggests that how we think about learning impacts our ability to enact a learning culture.

Measurement. The second interpretation drawn from this meta-synthesis is that it may be beneficial to apply measurements that are conducted over the long term and focused on the group and organizational units of analysis. Ford & Weissbein (1997) came to a similar conclusion in their meta-study and found that between 1988 and 1997, more studies had utilized "a greater variety of measures and time intervals..." (p. 24).

There seemed to be two primary obstacles to measuring transfer; the content the researcher was trying to measure may not be measurable in the short term (e.g., organizational growth events) and measures themselves were lacking (e.g., only self

reports were used). In this meta-synthesis, there was a mix between studies that utilized a longitudinal versus short term approaches. Further, thirteen studies (42%) utilized units of measurement that went beyond the individual level of analysis.

In terms of studies that used shorter term approaches, at least in some cases, it seemed to be due to timing restraints within the organization of study, more than intentions of the researcher. This restriction may impact our ability to understand transfer. For example, Waddill, (2004) found that “results” (as defined in Kirkpatrick's fourth level of evaluation) may be obtained, but only in the long term, and that effects of behavioral change may take place after the measurement period has ended (in this case five weeks).

Managerial development content consists of critical factors that cannot be taught or measured easily (Paauwe & Williams, 2001). The principles, concepts and techniques needed for managerial development are the things that are not effectively learned in formal training (Paauwe & Williams, 2001). Bereiter and Scardamalia (2003) suggest examples include interpersonal skills and building relationships; which the authors state can best be learned by immersion in the environment. Sternberg & Horvath (1999) add the importance of intuition; which Paauwe & Williams (2001) contend intuition can be learned, and is learned through experiential and social conditions, and upon reflection. Brown & Duguid (2000) provide additional insight and suggest that individuals are contextual thinkers. In other words, individuals take action based on learning generated from the interaction within a social network in the organization.

The studies included in this meta-synthesis have provided examples of learning interpersonal skills and intuition (Bostain, 2000; Waggoner, 2001; Hall, 2001), as well as mechanisms to learn such as experiential, social conditions, and the use of reflection

(Cope, 2003; Cromwell & Kolb, 2004). Further, some studies underscored the contextual nature with which we think, learn and take action (Tracey, Tannenbaum & Kavanagh, 1995; Loewenstein, Thompson & Gentner, 2003; Darnell, 2003; Kiehl, 2004).

Ultimately, the studies in this meta-synthesis provide a broad perspective on the deeper level of learning that is required to achieve far and/or creative transfer.

In a case supporting the need for varied measures, Wyszynski (1998) discovered that the need for measures at the group and organizational levels are necessary in understanding effectiveness of a training program. Even though the managers in her study perceived an improvement from time one to time two, the data did not indicate the impact of that self-perceived improvement on the organization. Also, the author found that even though a positive relationship was found between the managers' perception of their own improvement and the subordinates' perception, it was not confirmed due to the differing scales being used to measure at each of these levels (Wyszynski). In effect, the method used to research the intervention impacted the results.

Ecological thinking. The third interpretation I have drawn from this meta-synthesis is that when delving into exploration at the higher levels of learning transfer, one must approach the learning holistically and think ecologically. The "hard to train" skills are found at the higher end of the transfer scheme (i.e., interpersonal skills) and involve cognitive, emotional, behavioral, as well as environmental factors.

Enos, Kehrhahn & Bell (2003) found that two skills that were taught as part of an interpersonal skills training appeared to be less responsive to training than any others; decision making and giving one to one feedback skills, both of which are cognitive in nature. The authors suggest that training may have little impact on the ways in which we

think, as well as on the way we are hard wired (e.g., our personality). For example, the authors suggest that for introverts, giving feedback may be more difficult, and therefore harder to “train.” A longer term development process is required. Further, the authors found that meta-cognitive knowledge and self regulation work together in a dynamic fashion to produce effective learning. They suggested that proficiency was a product of meta-cognitive ability.

Smilonich (1999) demonstrated the need for a holistic approach to learning and development when he presented findings from his study that suggested behavior changes, that he attributed to organizational learning, did not transfer because the learning that occurred was context-laden and counter-cultural within the organization. In other words, the behavioral changes that were achieved and observed directly after the LSI process were not sustainable and the system returned to its former state of equilibrium.

Hall (2001) found that critical reflection played a large role in learning at deeper levels. Cope (2003) had similar conclusion based on his study of entrepreneurs. He found that learning outcomes were the result of inward critical self-reflection, and suggested that entrepreneurs can experience distinctive forms of higher level learning from facing, overcoming and reflecting on significant problems. This study also found that entrepreneurs had a multifaceted and emotional relationship in the context of their organizations, and this had implications for learning at higher level.

The context, or environment, within the organization plays a key role. Wheatley (1992) maintained that managers have to manage and adapt to constant internal changes on a day to day basis. Further, Bereiter & Scardamalia (2003) suggest that transfer is more about the learning environment than other conditions (e.g., training design).

Tracey, Tannenbaum & Kavanagh (1995) found that work environment, as it pertained to learning transfer was made up of climate and culture factors. Specifically, transfer climate was made up of social, goal and task cues, as well as feedback, and reinforcement (both extrinsic and intrinsic). Also, it was found that continuous learning culture was made up of social support, continuous improvement and continuous competitiveness. Their results support that work environment is important for the application of newly acquired behavior and skills.

Together, these particular studies provide insight into learning transfer at the far and creative levels. They suggest a need to think about transfer from a multidimensional perspective--ecologically. The notion of multidimensionality has been strongly supported by Holton, Baldwin & Naquin (2001). Understanding multidimensional constructs can be achieved through ecological thinking.

Ecological thinking has been defined in terms of asking the question, "What are the mutually interdependent relationships among behavior, persons and environments" (Banning, 2003). According to Capra (1996), ecological thinking can be defined as consisting of relationships, connectedness, and context. Capra suggests that in science this kind of thinking is known as systems thinking. The author states that system thinking views a problem or phenomena within the context of a system. The system is viewed as an integral whole whereby no part can truly be understood if it is viewed separate from the entire system (Wheatley, 1992). It is evident to me that the notion of learning transfer, at the far and creative levels, should be thought of and studied *only* in terms of an ecological framework, measured at the group and organizational level and over the long term.

Implications

There are three primary implications with regard to the interpretations outlined above. First, organizations may be limiting their ability to change and subsequently remain competitive by not placing emphasis on long term managerial development (versus training and education) of skills and abilities that are demonstrated in the realm of far and creative transfer; such as, interpersonal skills, decision making and managing change. Further, organizations may limit their capability to grow and remain competitive by not utilizing learning mechanisms most amenable to far and creative transfer such as analogical and double loop learning. Further, managers may limit their potential to change and grow professionally if they do not place emphasis, in a self directed way, on these same elements.

Second, measurement is a factor that needs to be adjusted (longer-term and at an organizational level), as outlined in the preceding sections. Continuing to measure and evaluate management development based on participant reactions and immediate or short term learning via pre / post tests, is short sighted at best. It is extremely limiting in terms of advancing our knowledge and understanding learning transfer at the far and creative levels. Yet, it is easy, takes the least amount of time, and in many cases the only form of evaluation supported by the organization in terms of allocated resources.

Third, and I think fundamentally most important, is that unless organizations and individual managers embrace a different way of thinking, i.e., transfer thinking and ecological thinking, they will continue to waste precious resources by blindly using a training or educational mechanism rather than a developmental approach; and fail to question the assumptions that inevitably maintain a status quo in organizations and limit

the extent to which individual managers change, grow and remain competitive in today's marketplace (e.g., double loop learning).

Recommendations

Organizations should position HRD or Training and Development practitioners in a consultation role and cultivate partnerships between the practitioners and managers; whereby together they place emphasis on longer term approaches to management development, utilize the tools and approaches (design, delivery, and measurement) most applicable to far and creative transfer (e.g., analogical learning) and focus on those skills and abilities that equate to far and creative transfer (e.g., double loop learning).

Implications for future research

Research perspectives from cognitive, educational and behavioral psychology have to merge with research perspectives from human resource and management learning and development. A partnership must be forged whereby both philosophical positions and approaches to research are integrated in order to understand learning transfer from an ecological (i.e. multidimensional) perspective.

The research methods used to measure far and creative transfer have to go beyond simple self assessments (reactions) and pre / post assessments (learning). Instead, measures should place more emphasis on coupling learning application (behavioral) and organizational impact (performance). This requires a longitudinal approach and measures that are geared toward linking individual learning and performance with organizational change, learning and growth. Some of the studies in this meta-synthesis attempted measurement at the organizational level (42%). Even though measurement at this level was not found in the majority, there was a positive mix between dissertation,

HRD or management-related journals and psychology journals. Specifically, six studies were represented by dissertations (Bostain, 2000; Darnell, 2003; Hall, 2001; Kiehl, 2004; Smilonich, 1999; and Wyszynski, 1998), and seven were journal articles; of which four studies were in HRD or management development related journals (Antonacopoulou, 1999; Cope, 2003; Cromwell & Kolb, 2004; and Tyson & Ward, 2004) and the other three were found in psychology-related journals (Baily, 2002; Tracey, Tannenbaum & Kavanagh, 1995; and Warr & Bunce, 1995).

Finally, more research is needed in terms of creative transfer (Haskell, 2000); in particular memory research, scheme theory and information processing theories should be explored in the context of management and organizational innovations.

Conclusion

This meta-synthesis was the beginning of a journey; an exploration into where only a few have gone before--the higher (far and creative) levels of learning transfer. The construct of transfer in this meta-synthesis, was framed primarily by social learning and organizational learning models and concepts, and is still very much in its infancy in terms of operationalization. There is much uncharted territory yet to be discovered. Yet, at the same time, the construct of transfer has a rich history that can be traced back a full century (Thorndike, 1901; Judd, 1908) and is useful to understand in terms of the varying perspectives and iterations (Broad & Newstrom, 1992; Ford & Weissbein, 1997; Holton & Baldwin, 2003), as well as levels such a application, near, far and creative (Haskell, 2000).

In a few instances (Cope, 2003; Darnell, 2003; Hall, 2001; Kiehl, 2004; Loewenstein, Thompson & Gentner, 2003; and Smilonich, 1999), the primary studies

included in this meta-synthesis provided a window into the next evolutionary phase of transfer research; specifically, the far and creative levels, operationalized as analogical and double-loop learning. Within these studies there is great promise in learning transfer in terms of organizational growth and renewal.

It has been a humbling experience to learn from the authors represented in the primary studies that made up this meta-synthesis. Many have made a positive impression on the field and will become foundations from which to build upon the construct of learning transfer. If nothing else, this meta-synthesis should be reviewed for the literature that I have been fortunate enough to find and compile.

In many respects my study is mired by flaws and limitations in terms of methodology and limitations of the researcher herself. Looking beyond these limitations, I can't help but feel excited for the potential for learning transfer; that is far and creative transfer, as a mechanism to organizational learning, change, performance, and growth.

Appendix A

Article ID	Year	Publication	Location Found	Date Sample	Sample	41	42J	3J	1J	18J	44J	48J	10J	20J	24J	45J	23J	16J	46J	12J	29J
41	1999	International Journal of Training and Development	Psych Info. Under Sociology	6/12/2005	78 Managers across three Retail Banks; randomly selection across 3 banks, seniority, specialization, gender and background.	TRAIINEE CHARACTERISTICS AND THE OUTCOMES OF OPEN LEARNING	The Use of 360 Degree Feedback Technique in the Evaluation of Management Development	Applying Trained Skills on the Job: The Importance of the Work Environment	Does method of acquisition affect the quality of expert judgment? A comparison of education with on-the-job learning	Effects of multisource feedback and a feedback facilitator on the influence behavior of managers toward subordinates.	The Effectiveness of Hardness Training	Analogical Learning in Negotiation Teams: Comparing Promotes Learning and Transfer	The role of motivation to learn in management education.	Developing top managers: The impact of interpersonal skills training.	Informal Learning and the Transfer of Managers Develop Proficiency	An analysis of an employee assistance supervisory training program	Examination of Work-Environment Support Factors Affecting Transfer of Supervisory Skills Training to the Workplace	Entrepreneurial learning and critical reflection: Discontinuous events as triggers for higher-level learning.	Understanding how creative thinking skills, attitudes, and behaviors work together: A causal process model	The impact of multiple source feedback on management development: Findings from a longitudinal study.	Training does not imply learning: the individual's perspective
42J	2004	Management Learning, V.35, No. 2, 205-223	Psych Info. Under Management development	8/11/2005	Mixed. Initial target population for the change in diversity was the top 254 senior managers per store (known as Impact 1). 217 remained through 1999, but two years later this group was followed by 300 members of middle management (known as Impact II). 500 managers in a large UK public authority.	Warr, Peter; Buncer, David	Tyson, Shaun; Ward, Peter	Tracy, J. Bruce; Tannenbaum, Scott L.2; Kavanagh, Michael J.2	Sumruts, Barbara; Williamson, Trevor; Read, Daniel.	Seifer, Charles F; Yuki, Gary; McDonald, Robert A	Maddi, Salvatore R.; Kahn, Stephen; Maddi, Karen L.	Loewenstein, Jeffrey; Thompson, Leigh; Gentner, Dedre	Kimman, Gail; Kimman, Russell	Hunt, John W; Baruch, Yehuda.	Enos, Michael D; Kebabian, Martije; Thamm; Bell, Alexandria	Donohoe, Timothy; Johnson, James; Stevens, Joanne.	Cromwell, Susan E; Kolb, Judith A	Cope, Jason	Basilar, Mir; Ramco, Mark A.; Vega, A. Luis	Bailey, Caroline; Fletcher, Clive	Antonacopoulou, Elena P.
43	1995	Journal of Applied Psychology, Apr95, Vol. 80 Issue 2, p239, 14p	EBSCO Business Source Premier	6/11/2005	Mixed. Study conducted in a private org that owns and operates four northeastern states. Employs on avg. 10 managers per store. One store manager, one assistant manager and remaining managers directly supervise various depts (deli, produce, etc.). Over a 5-month period, approx 200 dept mgrs were scheduled to attend a supervisory skills training program. 159 dept mgrs (that group) who made the most correct failure predictions. The credit managers were all either attendees at a major	44J	48J	10J	20J	24J	45J	23J	16J	46J	12J	29J					
44J	1998	Consulting Psychology Journal: Practice and Research, vol. 50, No. 2, 78-86	EBSCO Business Source Premier	6/11/2005	Mixed. Managers in a company. With CEO's permission, interviews place in its newsletter announcing stress management courses available to voluntary basis. After a 3-week response period, 54 of the pool of 64 volunteers were assigned to nine random to nine groups with the restriction that groups be balanced as to gender. Some participant attrition occurred both	48J	10J	20J	24J	45J	23J	16J	46J	12J	29J						
48J	2003	Academy of Management Learning and Education, v2, #2, 119-127.	EBSCO Business Source Premier	7/23/2005	Mixed. 270 managers in sales and managers of management students. An additional 1,110 MBA students and middle level sales managers served to establish baseline performance.	10J	20J	24J	45J	23J	16J	46J	12J	29J							
10J	2001	Journal of Workplace Learning, Vol 13(4) 2001, 132-144. Emerald, United Kingdom	Psych Info Under Sociology	6/13/2005	Mixed. 18 senior and middle managers (16 males) with an avg length of service of 22 yrs. They were drawn from across the functional areas of the company, although production predominated. Most had no formal qualifications, and almost all have risen through the ranks - often from engineering and technical backgrounds. Results from learning styles inventory indicate the group was predominantly "achievement" oriented to	20J	24J	45J	23J	16J	46J	12J	29J								
20J	2003	Journal of Management Development, Vol 22(8) 2003, 729-752. Emerald, United Kingdom	Psych Info Under Sociology	8/11/2005	Executives. Strict selection criteria with regard to age, seniority and experience. 252 chairs, chief executives, heads of functional and divisional regional managers, from 48 different organizations, participated in 14 interpersonal skills programs, conducted in London, over a four year period (1993-1997). Of parties 84% were male; 67% were employed by large global firms (telecommunications, banking, oil, chemicals);	24J	45J	23J	16J	46J	12J	29J									
24J	2003	Human Resource Development Quarterly, V. 12, No. 3, 25-34. The Haworth Press, Inc.	Psych Info Under Sociology	8/12/2005	Mixed. Mgrs selected (out of pool of 4500) chosen from a range of depts who had participated in both types of learning activities (formal and informal). Selection - assumed that any member of engaged in internal learning, so selection focused on internally housed), 19 were dropped due to non-participation at the delayed post measurement period.	45J	23J	16J	46J	12J	29J										
45J	1997	Employee assistance quarterly, V. 12, No. 3, 25-34. The Haworth Press, Inc.	EBSCO Business Source Premier	7/23/2005	Supervisor. 89 male and female supervisors with varying degrees of experience, number of subordinates and education. Employed by Federal contractor and trained by the coordinator (EAP at this site was internally housed), 19 were dropped due to non-participation at the delayed post measurement period.	23J	16J	46J	12J	29J											
23J	2004	Human Resource Development Quarterly, Vol 15(4) Win 2004, 449-471. John Wiley & Sons, U.S.	Psych Info Under Sociology	8/11/2005	6 supervisors. Sixty-three front line supervisors from one unit of a large non-union university and their eighteen direct supervisors participated in this study. Sample selected for consistency, all supervisors in this work unit within the university had completed the supervisory training program within the given time period and at the appropriate time intervals needed to meet management learning. This is due to	16J	46J	12J	29J												
16J	2003	Management Learning, Vol 34(4) Dec 2003, 429-450. Sage Publ	Psych Info Under Sociology	8/11/2005	Executives. 6 practicing entrepreneurs; this article focused on a special breed of managers, namely individuals who are embroiled in the ownership and management of a small enterprise. It has been suggested that study of entreps represents a rich, unique context in which to explore the phenomenon of management learning. This is due to	46J	12J	29J													
46J	2000	Journal of creative behavior, V. 34, No. 2, 77-101	Psych Info Under Creativity	8/13/2005	Mixed. Managers (N=112) from a large international consumer goods manufacturer from finance, manufacturing, employee relations and distribution.	12J	29J														
12J	2002	Journal of Organizational Behavior, Vol 23(7) Nov 2002, 853-867. John Wiley & Sons, U.S	Psych Info Under Sociology	7/1/2005	Mixed. 104 managers (78.8 male and 19.2 female); 1.9 missing data) from a large private-sector organization. Paric was mandatory and used for all employees with more than 3 subordinate managers were selected at random from the database held by tech external consultancy managing the administration of the 360 degree process. Managers cam from 4 different business areas - commercial service	29J															
29J	1999	International Journal of Training and Development	Psych Info Under Sociology	6/12/2005	Mid-level Managers. 78 Managers across three Retail Banks; randomly selection across 3 banks, seniority, specialization, gender and background.																

DIAD	3 = Stratified Purposeful sample 5 = No	3 = Purposeful Random 5 = Pattern Matching is evident.	3 = Criterion 5 = No.	3=Criterion 5=Pattern matching; data reported indicating variations in settings or field experiences.	3= Criterion 5= Sample data included demographic data.	3= Criterion 5= No	3= Criterion 5= Sample data included demographic data.	3= Criterion 5= Sample data included demographic data.	3= Criterion 5= NO	3= Doesn't say. 5=Pattern matching - findings can be matched to other published conceptual frameworks.	3= Purposeful random sampling 5= gender and managerial level only.	3= Purposeful Random 5= Just gender	3= combination or mixed purposeful sample 5= Just experience, education/training	3= Criterion 5= Sample data included demographic data.	3= Criterion 5= No	3 = Criterion 5 = Sample data included demographic data.
Variables	Perceptions of role, significance and impact of training as a learning opportunity. Focus of the study is the way individual managers learn and adapt during periods of change and the contribution of org systems (such as training and dev) to these processes. Association between mgr and lmg with the individual manager as the unit of analysis. Individual manager as teh unit of analysis.	Sample provided self assess at two time points during the course of the annual (mandatory) admin of a developmental feedback program. All 50 items comprising the feedback questionnaire were included in analyses; the items corresponded to four competency dimensions which questioned respondents about the interpersonal behaviors of target managers. For each item, raters had to rate the target's	Inter-relationship between 6 attitudinal and behavioral skill variables learned during training were measured to improve understanding of how these variables contribute to the process. Behavioral skill in generating quality options was the most important variable overall; it was directly associated with behavioral skill in both generating quality options and evaluating options. The key attitudinal skill and the second most important variable overall	The importance of 'learning events' has become an emergent theme within theorizing on how entrepreneurs learn. understanding of the learning outcomes triggered by significant, discontinuous events during the entrepreneurial process. It suggests that the domain of entrepreneurs hip represents a special and unique context in which to study	supervisory skills training	Study provides support for small group interaction as well as corrective feedback strategies as a specific methodology when trining mangers and supervisors in eAP practices.	examined how the extent to which managers engaged in informal learning, perceptions of support in the transfer environment, and level of managerial proficiency related to transfer of learning in twenty core managerial skills. Research Qs - To what extent and in what ways did manager learn core managerial skills through formal training and informal learning? Q2 What is the relationship of	Interpersonal Skills Training. Hypotheses: impact of interpersonal skills training on subsequent skill performance will improve the effectiveness of those skills; H2 Impact of interpersonal skills training on subsequent skill performance will be positive but modest; H3 Impact of interpersonal skills training on subsequent skill performance will very across different skills.	Examine relationships between inhouse delivery of a degree program for managers using workbased learning, motivational orientations to learn, learning styles and the eventual learning outcomes.	Our primary measure was whether negotiating groups formed contingency contracts. We predicted that drawing comparisons should increase the likelihood that parties would successfully transfer the contingent contract schema from the cases to the negotiation. A condary measure was whether contingent contracts that were formed created greater joint expected value than other contracts.	Same composite questionnaire was used at pretest and posttest. It included measures of personality hardiness, job satisfaction, subjectively experienced strain, perceived social support and illness. The personal views survey was used to measure hardiness. This test consiste of 45 rating scale items worded to refer to beliefs about oneself or the world that concern sense of commitment, control, or challenge. On	Measures of influence behavior: Used an updated version of Influence Behavior Questionnaire (Yukl & Tracey, 1992). 11 influence tactics in the updtaed target version of the questionnaire. Each item had five anchored response choices indicating how frequently the focal manager used the tactic in influence attempts with the target person. (1-5). Feedback was based on the 11 tactic scales. Evaluation fo the feedback intervention was based primarily on the composite score of the core tactics, but supplementary	Expert judgment; tasks are are learnable -meainig improvalbe in response to feedback on past performance. RQ - does the way that professional skills are acquired influence the level of expertise developed? In other words, is it better to learn from a book or form experience?	Measures: learning. Assessed from scores on identical pre andposttraining supervisory knowledge tests. The tests contained six short answer items which were derived from our content analysis of the training materials and then subjected to review by the trainers to ensure content validity. Ex. Describe three barriers tothe communication process. the score for ea item ranged from 2-5 points, depending on the importance and relative tiem spent on the corresponding	Examines 360 degree feedback as both an intervention and an evaluation technique for assessing management learning.	over a 7-month period, the impact of 11 trainee characteristics was investigated in relation to immediate learning scores, reactions to the program, and changes in rated job behaviors. Time 1 and 2 questionnaires were completed by attendees; learning scores were provided by tutors; line managers' performance ratings times 1, 2, and 3. Prior to program, time 2 = immediately after the training, approx 4 months later; then time 3 at 3 months later.

<p>MD Intervention</p> <p>General Management Development. Management Development System. No specific intervention. See method for outline. Focus was on Management Development Systems within respective banks; main influences on mgmt trainign ad devt in the org.; the perceived association between learning and trianing and the elvel of utlilizatio fo learning from training.</p>	<p>Multi source / Multi Rater Feedback program (MSMR). Changes in management competence over time, through a longitudinal study of MSMR ratings provided at two time points in a two year period, for a group of middle to senior managers.</p>	<p>General management development. Creativity. 20 hours of intensive training in the Simplex creative process over 2 days; creative thinkign to solve real management problems. Hands on and experiential, with exercises and diverse tasks that encouraged discovery of concepts such as value of ideastion-evaluation. Using chosen real word problems, partis practiees ideation-evalatlution. One goal of training was to encourage</p>	<p>Informal. Discontinuou s Learning. Learning and personal development experienced by entrepreneurs within the context of small buseinss ownership and growth. Exploration of discontinuous learning events. It goes on to explore the concept of critical reflection and suggests that these learning outcomes are the result of what can be described</p>	<p>General Supervisory Training. Peer Network (Transfer mechanism). examine the relationship between four specific work-environment factors (organization support, supervisor support, peer support, and participation in a peer support network) and transfer of training at one-month, six-month, and one year points; Quantitative and qualitative data were collected from both trainees</p>	<p>General Supervisor Training. EAP. 9 training session 3 hours duration; Training used informal round table discussion style; film-assess behavior, then discuss in large group. Refer to handbook which contined list of job performance criteria, then re-assess and discuss with group. Comparisons were made between assessment to demonstrate the value of using evaluation criteria (vs.</p>	<p>Informal learning. Comparison between informal and formal managerial learning approaches.</p>	<p>Interpersonal. Interpersonal Competency. Purpose is to assess the impact of interpersonal competencies training on the subsequent performance of senior executives. The program under study is a concentrated five days, T & D workshop for top level managers, drawn from very different backgrounds, countries and industries. Its stated objectives are to improve the perceived interpersonal skills of the participants.</p>	<p>Work-based learning. In collaboration with the training dept of the UK subsidiary of a major motor manufacturer, Luton Business School has developed an undergraduate business degree for employees based at one of the company's five plants. A principle reason for implementation of the program was to help evolve a culture of life long learning. The program is delivered predominatntly in house and incorporates accreditation of prior experiential</p>	<p>Analagical Learning. Two phases: Training and face to face negotiation. During training, we gave parties two training cases to read in a packet entitled Negotiation amr up Analysis. Partics were given approximately 20 minutes to read and discuss the cases with ehtir randomly assigned teammate. In the separate cases condition, teams were instructed to analyze each case</p>	<p>Resiliency, Hardiness training condition was compared with a relaxation/meditation condition and a placebo/social support control. The process of training for this experiment involved written manuals, tape recordings, and the amount of supervised experience with pilot participants deemed necessary for mastery. Hardiness training condition involved four parts. Intro part (2 sessions), partic's described their</p>	<p>MSMR. compared a feedback workshop with both a no-feedback control group and a comparison group of managers who received a feedback report but no feedback workshop. A letter from the bank president was sent to all participants and raters, along with cnosent forms to be returned directly to the resarcerhs. The premesaure questionnaire was mailed directly to the participants. A similar procedure was followed in teh second bank to obtain volunteers for the feedback only condition. The multisource raters used the</p>	<p>General Management Development. Decision Making / Expertise: Asked parties to make three main types of judgements relevant to credit management. First, parties were asked whether they thought th ecompany would fail. Second, asked for an assessment of the likelihood of late payment. Finally, asked parties whether they would grant credit to each company.</p>	<p>General Supervisory training. Basic supervisory behaviors and skills training. Voluntary. Program consisted of 3 days of training in an offsite facilitat operated by the orgs training dept. Training focused on interpersonal skills, and various admin procedures, shift scheuling, and purchasing. Multiple training methods were used throughout the course, including lecture, discussion and demonstration, role plays, and audiovisual techniques to facilitate both</p>	<p>MSMR. Major plank in the HR strategy of the local authority entitled, "Impact," it was aimed at changing the leadership style, relationships, behaviours and working practices of the entire management team. Emphasis was on OD through sustainable personal development, so there were policy supports such as planning and coaching systems. Concepts such as</p>	<p>Informal Learning. Self Directed. Open Systems (individuals work on their own to learn material that is presented either in written form, through a computer, in audio or videotapes or by an interactive video system). Increasingly part of management and skill maintenance programs. Key feature is that learners have more autonomy to decide what is studeid as well as how, when, where and at what pace.</p>	
<p>DIAD</p> <p>1 = Thick description of "network" of literature associated with phenomenon/intervention.</p>	<p>1 = Thick description of "network" of literature associated with phenomenon/intervention.</p>	<p>1 = Adequately (but not thoroughly) described.</p>	<p>1 = Adequately thick description</p>	<p>1 = Thick description of intervention.</p>	<p>1 = Intervention was adequately described.</p>	<p>1 = Description of network of literature associated with the phenomenon.</p>	<p>1 = Thick description of network of literature associated with intervention.</p>	<p>1 = Thick description of network of literature associated with intervention.</p>	<p>1 = Intervention was adequately described; embedded in a network of findings of previous stuides.</p>	<p>1 = Adequate description of intervention.</p>	<p>1 = Adequate to get a feel for the intervention.</p>	<p>1 = Intervention was adequately described; embedded in a network of findings of previous stuides.</p>	<p>1 = Intervention was adequately described; embedded in a network of findings of previous stuides.</p>	<p>1 = Intervention under study was adequately described.</p>	<p>1 = Intervention was adequately embedded in a network of theoretical concepts/findings of previous studies.</p>	<p>1 = Intervention was adequately described and embedded in the literature.</p>

Method	Qualitative. Case Study; longitudinal; 3 years to complete (1991-1994). Qualitative interview (semi structured; observation, questionnaires and critical incident technique were supplementary. Interviews covered perceptions of current training system; main influences on management training in the org; perceived role of training to individuals development, perceived association between learning and training and the level of utilization of learning from training. Org perspective was obtained through	Quantitative. Quasi-Experimental. Ratings of 104 target managers (by self assessments, bosses-, first- and second-level subordinates) were investigated within the context of a developmental feedback programme in operation within an organization, compared ratings over 2 administrations (with 2 yrs between administrations)	Quantitative. Quasi-Experimental. Field experiment to measure interrelationships among variables that include six attitudinal and behavioral skills learned during training. Predicted relationships were tested and a best-fit causal model was developed. Before and after training, participants were measured on the variables. Multivariate analysis of variance was used to ensure that a normal "take" had occurred consistent with previous	Qualitative. Case Study--research into the lived experience of 6 practising entrepreneurs. focus was learning and personal development experienced within the context of small business ownership and growth; indepth, unstructured phenomenological interviews were conducted with the six participants, which explored developmental history of the business.	Mixed methods study. Trainees completed a five part questionnaire that asked for self report data on the transfer of key skills emphasized in the supervisory training program and the degree of org, direct supervisor, and peer support, as well as the level of participation in a peer support network, experienced by trainees. Short answer questions on these same topics were included in the questionnaire.	Quantitative. Quasi experimental. Repeated measures design. Pre, post, and delayed post at six months format was used to measure retention of information provided by the training.	Mixed. Quant- Descriptive / Corr. One-group descriptive survey approach to answer the research questions. All data were collected using a single self report questionnaire. Explored how variables of interest were related for a purposefully selected group of manager with data collected from self-report questionnaire. Proficiency measure - rated extent of their	Quantitative. Quasi. A comprehensive and robust system of assessment was used to overcome the deficiencies noted in the literature regarding the assessment of how the competencies should be developed-- assessing the impact of the training on interpersonal skills. It was based on a longitudinal, before and after assessment of each participant skills by his or her direct reports. It was suggested that upward	Qualitative. Case Study. Semi structured interviews were conducted with parties and lecturing staff. Interview data were content analyzed using a method of categorizing and coding responses. Learning styles were assessed by Approaches to Studying Inventory.	Quantitative. Q Experiment. used three trainers and three treatment conditions. Training took place in small groups of 6 trainees with one trainer. Over the course of the study, each of the three trainers employed all of the treatment conditions, such that there were three groups per treatment. A battery of questionnaires was administered at pretest (no more than 1 week before training began) and again at posttest (no	Quantitative. Experimental. Field included an experimental group and a control group in the same org. There was also a quasi-experimental comparison group in another org. Managers in the experimental condition received a feedback report in a workshop with a facilitator. Managers in the comparison group received the same type of feedback report, but no workshop. Managers in the control group received no feedback, but after the study was completed they also had an opportunity to participate in a	Quantitative. Quasi experimental. In this study, compare judgmental expertise developed through education versus experience on the outcomes--credit management decisions made by four groups of participants who varied in their degree of experience in credit management and in their education in finance and accounting. Control group-- laypeople. Decisions made fell into the first two functional responsibilities of credit managers: assessing credit risk and granting credit. Credit risk assessment tasks are particularly suitable for this type of study in that they have a high degree of context independence, meaning the outcome	Quantitative. Quasi experimental. Three weeks prior to training a measure of supervisory behaviors was collected from the trainee and their supervisor. This measure, developed from the specific objectives outlined in the training materials and interviews with the trainers, was used as a baseline to account for behaviors that had been demonstrated by trainees before training. Next, managers attended the training. Learning was assessed by	Quantitative. Quasi experimental. Evaluation model created to distinguish the effects of different interventions for different stakeholders. Conducted over three years in a large UK public authority. Principles of evaluation that were adopted were based on Hesselting (1966) and Kirkpatrick (1994). Based on limitations of Kirkpatrick model (outlined in paper), three levels were	Quantitative. Quasi Experimental / Correlational. Examination of the literature indicated that previous measures of these constructs were very specific to the training investigated in each study-- therefore necessary to create new scales for use in this situation. Two scales were devised to assess distal and proximal forms of pre-training motivation. 1. general attitude to training (5 items, alpha = .91; 2. specific motivation for
DIAD	7 = Limited transparency. 8 = No.	7 = Limited transparency. 8 = Minimal description except results (results are quantitatively described)	7 = Effect Size 8 = Moderate completeness in reporting	7 = Analysis procedures are clearly identified and included narrative examples from interviews. 8 = Yes; methods, analytical strategies and results outlined.	7 = Open coding of short responses and categorized 8 = Evidence presented regard methods, analytical strategies and results.	7 = Effect Size 8 = Limited in terms of completeness of reporting - methods described, but decision, analytical strategies were not outlined.	7 = Data analysis procedures clearly identified and reported. Effect size can be deduced from means and Std Devs 8 = Audit trails - limited.	7 = Effect Size 8 = moderate audit trails regarding methods analytical strategies and results.	7 = Deductive coding from literature. 8 = No	7 = Effect Size 8 = Discussion of results.	7 = Effect Size 8 = Audit trail provided in terms of results.	7 = Effect Size 8 = Adequate to get a sense of analysis decisions	7 = Effect Size 8 = Audit trails provided with regard to analysis and results	7 = Effect Size 8 = Reporting was complete; audit trail.	7 = Effect Size 8 = No - list of all measures and results, but no trail regarding decisions, analytical strategies and results.

Outcomes	Shows the multiplicity of factors affecting whether individuals actually learn from training. Findings challenge some of the assumptions that have guided our thinking in management training and devt field. Managers perceived learning to result from four main sources: experience, training, modeling others in the workplace, and coaching. Learning approach was consistent across the banks--through absorbing information by making it relevant to	Overall there was mixed evidence for the benefits hypod to follow parties in MSMR feedback. On avg, competence was perceived to increase by all raters (self, bosses, first and second level subords); this increase was found to be significant for three out of the four rater constituencies (large managers and both levels of subord staff). Develop needs were also perceived to decrease by target managers first in second level subords (a	No significant differences between mean task set scores on any of the ideational or evaluational skills measures; either pre test or post test. Training produced the intended results for all but evaluation of not original solution ideas. Quantity of ideas produced increased significantly from a mean of 9.1 to a mena of 13.4 ideas (p < .001). Also a significant increase in the quality of ideas produced from a mean of 3.1 to a mena of 5.4 original ideas	illustrates that these discontinuous events have the capacity to stimulate distinctive forms of 'higher-level' learning-- learning that is fundamental to the entrepreneur in both personal and business terms. Discreet and unusual events can often be transformational in the sense that when individuals face such non routine	Showned that trainees who reported receiving high levels of organization, supervisor, and peer support, and who also participated in a peer support network, reported higher levels of transfer of knowledge and skills. When data were segregated and examined according to length of time since trainees had completed training, findings were still significant for organization,	Post test scores were significantly greater than at pretest and delayed post test; delayed post test scores were still significantly greater than at pretest. Results from a between-group one way analysis of variance (ANOVA) yielded significant differences $f(2,138) = 196.84, p < .001$ (see table 2 p. 30). Using Tukey's post hoc comparison, it was found that the post test scores were	Results suggested that informal learning is predominantly a social process and that managers with high levels of proficiency who experience low levels of coworker, supervisor, and organizational support learn managerial skills mostly from informal learning and transfer learning more frequently. Interaction with others (44%) was the most prevalent learning activity named. Research Q1 -	results indicate significant impact on some, but not all, of the competencies and skills under study. Across all groups, 68 significant changes were identified. No cohort failed to improve its mean on at least some questions. Overall, the training proved to be effective-- findings support H1. Findings support H2, the impact of interpersonal training has been modest. Refinement, rather than radical change is possible. H3 - supported; the	This paper examines the possibility that the main motivational factors for manager participants to undertake and complete one such programme are not necessarily conducive to the most effective forms of learning. It reviews some of the literature focusing upon the motivation and learning styles of mature students, and uses this as a basis for examination of data from questionnaires and semi-	Analogy training led to better performance than separate cases or no training. Teams that compared cases (n=24/60 = 40%) were more likely to form a contingent contract in the actual, face to face negotiation than were those who analyzed the cases separately (n=8/27 = 22%) a marginal association, $X^2(n=97,1) = 3.50, p = .06$. Comparison training, but not separate case	Hardiness training condition was more effective than the other 2 conditions in increasing self-reported hardiness, job satisfaction and social support while decreasing self-reported strain an illness severity. Although parties were assigned to treatment conditions at random, pretreatment scores on the dependent variables of this study showed some variation across conditions (see Tables 1 & 5--pg. 83). these pretreatment	Managers in the feedback workshop increased their use of some core influence tactics with subordinates, whereas there was no change in behavior for the control group or for the comparison group. The feedback was perceived to be more useful by managers who received it in a workshop with a facilitator than by managers who received only a printed feedback report. Feedback Wroshop Evaluation: The mean scale score for the quality of workshop content was 4.3 for the first	Lecturers had the highest mean number of correct corporate failure predictions, closely followed by students, with managers and laypeople doing somewhat less well. Analysis revealed that both lecturers and students were able to predict corporate failure more accurately than laypeople ($t(78)=2.6, p < .01$; $t(78)=2.1, p < .05$). Moreover, there was a nonsignificant trend suggesting that lecturers outperformed managers ($t(78)=1.7, p < .1$). There was no difference between managers and laypeople. Lecturers and students generally outperformed	Knowledge: Mean pretrain scores for all was 9.71 (std 4.12). Mean posttrain scores for all was 16.63 (std 2.82). A t test showed a signif diff betweenpre and posttraining knowledge ($t(103) = 28.86, p < .01$, indicating that the trainees knew moreabout the basic suprvy skills and behaviors at the end of training then before training. The internal consistency est (Cronbach's alpha) was .80 for pretraining knowledge and .71 for posttraining knowledge. Preand posttrain behaviors--to	The eval reported covers a period of approx three and a half years--from 1997-2001. See Table 1 on p 213 for outcome measures for each stakeholder and ea level. Sr mgrs showed first round results for each competency using a t-test a significant	learning score was significantly independently predicted by general training attitude, the use of an analytic learning strategy, and (low) age. Post-training reactions were identified as being of three kinds: reported enjoyment, usefulness, and difficulty. These were shown to be differentially associated with the trainee characteristics studied. Significant associations were found between learning score and changes in rated
DIAD	2 = Moderately Thick description of findings and associated conceptual theories. 6 = Not really, only subgroups reviewed were fast-trackers compared to non-fast trackers.	2 = Thick description of findings and associated theory. 6 = No.	2=Findings were adequately described in terms of related literature. 6=No	2=Findings were described in terms of related literature. 6=No	2= Finds described in terms of related literature. 6= limited - between supervisors and trainees perceptions	2= Findings were adequately described in terms of related literature. 6= No	2=Findings were adequately described in terms of literature. 6=No testing within subgroups	2=Findings were adequately described in terms of literature. 6= No	2=Thick description of findings associated to theoretical framework. 6=No	2= Results described in terms of related literature. 6=No	2=Outcomes were adequately described in terms of related literature. 6= No	2= Findings were adequately described in terms of related literature. 6= No	2=Adequately described in terms of literature. 6=No	2= Findings were adequately described in terms of related literature. 6= No	2= Findings were described in terms of literature. 6=No	2= Findings were described in terms of related literature. 6= No
Effect Size (if quantitative)	N/A	medium to large effect sizes	Low to moderate	N/A	Low to moderate	High	High	Low	N/A	moderate	Moderate to large across measures	Ranged from moderate to large for all analyses.	medium to large effect sizes	Low to moderate across measures	small to medium	Moderate to large across measures

<p>Setting</p> <p>Financial services sector; UK; 3 banks which have been undergoing numerous operational and strategic changes over the last few years. One of the most significant changes however, has been the cultural shift from being operational to becoming more sales oriented. This shift has been reflected in the redesign of the banks' premises and in particular the branch network, the technology for delivering services. these changes have also been a major driver across the three banks prompting a reconsideration of training and development</p>	<p>UK - large private</p>	<p>Large Intl Consumer Goods Manufacturer</p>	<p>6 small businesses</p>	<p>The work unit where the supervisors and managers reside is responsible for the stewardship of the university's physical plant. The seventy-five supervisors in this unit are primarily front line supervisors and their direct reports are largely front line employees. The 25 managers in the unit are the direct supervisors of the front line supervisors. Union environment Impact of union constraints and union contract</p>	<p>The work unit in a rural area. Company employees approx 450 individuals who are engaged in various technical, admin, and professional services. EAP at this site was internally housed, has been operative for over 6 years, and has previously conducted several supervisory training evolutions.</p>	<p>Managers who work at a large subsidiary of a hundred-year-old Fortune 100 company located in New England. Co is a leading provider of insurance products that employed approx twenty thousand employees, was experiencing rapid growth, deep change, and extensive mergers. Co offered wide variety of formal training programs for managers centered on development of proficiency in identified core management behaviors, and</p>	<p>London.</p>	<p>UK plant of a major motor manufacturer. The staff consider the org to be highly bureaucratic. The authors note literature that indicates managers in bureaucracies to be risk-averse, deeply concerned with immediate problems, and likely to rely on past solutions when solving new problems. The org also has elements of a strong and pervasive "ow" culture, and an "achievement" orientation. Manager who work in these environments tend to be</p>	<p>Carried out in actual management training courses with participations who were highly motivated to learn.</p>	<p>Does not say.</p>	<p>Setting for feedback workshop: conducted over a 7 hour period at the bank's training facility, and the researchers were the facilitators for the workshop.</p>	<p>Participants assumed the role of credit manager and made creditworthiness predictions and credit granting decisions for six companies with known performance.</p>	<p>Offsite facility used by orgs training dept.</p>	<p>UK - local gov</p>	<p>Held at Universities; formal group sessions; then required to study on their own at their work locations or at home.</p>
<p>Intervention Characteristics</p> <p>models of mgmt training and development with systematic approach to delivery of job specific knowledge and skills; conditions for effective learning</p>	<p>Each manager received their ratings in a written feedback report; this detailed individual ratings for items for the self and the supervisors assessment, and rating aggregates for first and second level subordinates ratings.</p>	<p>3 phase process: finding and defining their own problems, solving those problems and preparing to implement their own solutions. Various tools and techniques of ideation and evaluation were applied in each of 8 steps and three phases of the process. As a procedural check, participants gains after training were checked against previous research, using multivariate analysis of variance. This was done to ensure that a normal "take" had occurred consistent with</p>	<p>Exploration of critical incidents was integral part of the interview process, primarily because these discontinuous events were perceived as a way in to studying the complex and dynamic phenomenon of entrepreneurial learning. Interviews focused on 'memorable' moments from a number of different perspectives--the antecedents of the event;</p>	<p>Twenty three topic areas were the basis for the core modules of the training program. Each focused on a specific management skill (see development controls on p. 458). Group Projects: Supervisors in the training each participated in a small group project during the program. This project was intended to provide an opportunity to apply skills or competencies addressed in the program while</p>	<p>All nine training sessions were approx 3 hours duration and were limited to 8-12 participants per session. Each participating supervisor received one training session. The training protocol consisted of 23 items ranging in length from a) assessment of the attitudes and general knowledge concerning the nature of alcoholism/drug addiction, b) the legal/ethical/ethical reasons for making a referral, c) personal awareness items, and d)</p>	<p>Informal learning - on the job. From literature review - informal learning occurs in the presence of both action and reflection (Watkins and Marsick, 1992) and includes self directed learning, networking, coaching, mentoring, performance planning, and trial and error.</p>	<p>18 senior executives per five day session. Designed to give participants multiple sources of feedback. Verbal feedback would come from other participants on the program, three full time tutors and program director. This verbal feedback was to be linked, through the tutors, to the survey feedback from direct reports to check the face validity of the survey results. Group and/or individual feedback has been shown in</p>	<p>Delivered predominantly inhouse, and incorporates accreditation of prior experiential learning, structured, negotiated work-based learning, and formally taught components, using a "mixed-mode delivery model (as recommended by prior study).</p>	<p>The cases were approx 225 word descriptions of negotiation situations involving a conflict between individuals. The cases provide concrete details and context information and outlined a clear and elegant solution to the conflict; namely, the deployment of a contingency contract. Participants were given approx 20 minutes to read and discuss the cases with their teammates.</p>	<p>Haridness training condition involved 4 parts: 1) participants described their current stressful circumstances, and the trainer presented a model that highlighted coping and clarified the purpose of the various sessions. In the next four sessions, participants practiced the three techniques for transformatonal coping. Situational reconstruction stretches the imagination to facilitate a broader perspective on</p>	<p>In each condition, we randomly selected five peers and five subordinates of each manager to serve as raters. If a manager had fewer than five subordinates or peers, all of them were included. In most cases the managers had only one boss to provide feedback. In the bank used for the experimental and control conditions, the response rate on the premeasure survey was 80% for subordinates, 85% for peers, and 100% for bosses. The response rate for the comparison group in the other bank was 96% subordinates, 91% peers, and 100% for bosses. The first</p>	<p>In an attempt to maximize, as much as possible, the degree to which the judgment tasks were ecologically valid, the task was one that falls within the normal domain of the participant's activity. For a credit manager, this means making judgments of such things as failure likelihood and credit worthiness, and the offering of trade credit terms. Procedures: participants made credit related decisions for the six companies based on extensive accounting and payment behavior data. Credit managers would have recognized all the information, but not all of it is included in</p>	<p>15 trainees per class, with 10 classes conducted over a 5 month period. Learning was assessed by using pre and post training supervisory knowledge measures.</p>	<p>360 feedback reports - before and after; participants, peers, boss, subordinates, and customer (internal/external) providing detailed feedback on competencies. Surveys to participants asking for responses on process, content and objectives achieved for all interventions. Surveys to managers of participants--comment on observable changes in performance, behavior, attitudes, and</p>	<p>Procedure: Prior to the program (at time 1) trainees were asked to complete a questionnaire and mail that to the researchers university address. Questionnaire contained items which tapped the individual characteristics examined (see method). At the same time, trainees line manager were asked to rate the job performance of each trainee (through a separate mailed questionnaire) in terms of 15 criteria identified through job</p>

<p>DIAD</p>	<p>4 = Design, purpose and data collection indicate coherence.</p>	<p>4 = Evidence presented of triangulation of sources; purpose, data collection indicate coherence.</p>	<p>4=Minimal - two procedural checks.</p>	<p>4=The design purpose, data collection strategies indicate coherence.</p>	<p>4= Minimum: Controls put in procedures (each module was delivered by same instructor at each iteration of the program; content and format checks of materials)</p>	<p>4=Design, purpose and data collection strategies indicated coherence.</p>	<p>4=only content validity of measures (they were preestablished)</p>	<p>4= Triangulation; contended that upward survey feedback does not suffer from before/after respondent bias if it is purely developmental and not part of an internal appraisal process (bias for leniency or for harshness).</p>	<p>4=Negative case analysis to a small degree</p>	<p>4= Team report content coded by blind raters; As a manipulation check to ensure that comparison groups were drawing comparisons and separate cases groups were not, we coded whether participants made reference to the first study case when discussing the second.</p>	<p>4=As a means of ensuring that the three treatment conditions were experientially different, two psychology graduate students who were familiar with the specific of these approaches to rating but were unaware of the present hypotheses judged samples of the audiotaped sessions. Specifically, they were given tape recordings and they listened as long as necessary to reach certainty as to which treatment condition they</p>	<p>4=Measures used to establish credibility - mean ratings of feedback accuracy, relevance, and utility by managers in the two feedback workshops and comparison group were analyzed and presented.</p>	<p>4=A common context with regard to matters likely to influence the decision was provided. Also, the domain is unusual in that education and experience are largely separated. Coherence in design, purpose, and data collection strategies.</p>	<p>4= Triangulation was employed; t-tests conducted to determine pre and post training knowledge estimates (significant); internal consistency estimates (alphas) provided; to avoid self rating bias, and to decrease common sources variance, only supervisor rating of the trainees supervisory behaviors were used. However, a control group was not used therefore differences pre and post behaviors cannot conclusively be attributed to the training.</p>	<p>4=Measures used to establish credibility - Peer examination outcomes realized for each intervention (360 feedback, leadership, coaching, learning exchange and self devt guide). Used a steering group to derive outcomes and measures; worked in pairs and checked results with the rest of the group.</p>	<p>4=</p>
<p>theory / Framework</p>	<p>Org Learning and Self</p>	<p>theory of self image formation (self perception perspective) may provide explanation of findings. Suggests an indivis self image is largely drawn from introspective observations of one's own behavior (ie others' opinions are not incorporated) thus supporting the finding that a target's self ass at time 1 is the best predictor of their self assess at time 2. However, they state that an individ will modify their own self image if (a) they</p>	<p>Brainstorming. 4 P causal model (Product, Person, Press (Environment), Process. Outcomes support Osborns Theory on brainstorming. During prob solving phase of complete process of creativity, an attitude of preference for active divergence is triggered by an attitude of preference for avoiding premature evaluation of options as premature eval of options. However, the latter attitude-acceptance of the value of</p>	<p>Mezirow's transformativ e learning; Double loop learning. Theories of higher-level and lower-level learning; experiential learning; Double loop and transformativ e learning are both a higher order learning theory, and yet remain qualitatively different. Interpreting these conceptual frameworks in relation to this research, it appears that double loop</p>	<p>For this study, the focus is the work-environment factor "support" identified in Baldwin and Ford's (1988) conceptual model. We examine organizationl, supervisory, and peer support, and explore the use of a peer support network, as factors that influence transfer of training. For the latter two factors, we also draw on team member exchange theory (Seers, 1989; Seers,</p>	<p>Only literature cited regarding benefits and value of supervisor training, and the crucial role it has played relative to the effective EAP supervisory relationship. For example, supervisory perception of EAP effectiveness was the best predictor of referrals. Also, factors of a job performance along with a worksite "triggering event" tend to influence supervisory referral rates.</p>	<p>Informal Learning (Watkins and Marsick's Theory-1992); Social practice theory; Learning transfer theory</p>	<p>Argyris' Interpersonal Style Theory mentioned and the interpersonal circumplex (leary, 1957 and Orford, 1994) whose proponents argue that all interpersonal exchanges can be described around two orthogonal axes: dominance/submissiveness and hostility/friendliness. the model has not been rigorously tested; Managerial Competency Theory (Mintzberg and</p>	<p>Motivation Theory. Motivational theory will be used to argue that the main factors driving partic mgrs to learn might not necessarily be conducive to the most effective outcomes; indeed they might actually discourage the dev of flexibility and independence of thought that are required to develop and sustain a learning org. More broadly, it is also maintained here that a strong and pervasive org culture will significantly</p>	<p>Analogical learning-based on theoretical research in cognitive psychology. Analogy is recognized as both a source of new ideas and a means for communicating new ideas, thus, analogy is lightly bound to learning. Analogical encoding stresses that drawing analogies during learning leads to understanding the cases differently (i.e. with respect to what they have in common) than if those cases were</p>	<p>only literature. Research that has identified mechanisms whereby hardiness may preserve health and enhance performance. Relevant findings include the tendency of hardiness to a) promote the view of life changes as less stressful, b) elicit more effective coping efforts, c) produce a more vigorous immune response and d) result in increased conscientiousness in terms of sound health practices.</p>	<p>Control Theory (Carver & Scheier, 1981) - one may be more motivated to change one's behavior when ratings from others are lower than self ratings. However, negative feedback may be discounted if the rater is perceived as being biased or uninformed. When feedback from multiple sources is consistent, it is more likely to be accuagte and useful for guiding behavior change.</p>	<p>Only literature. No theory. Study of expert performance drawn on two contrasting perspectives: those of cognitive science and behavioral decision research. Cog science approach focuses on the differences in how experts and novices approach problems. The underlying message of the cog science approach is that experts structure and represent problems significantly differently than do novices. In contrast, priary focus of behavioral decision research is on the performance of experts relative to novices or to statistical models.</p>	<p>Theoretical framework tested by considering factors outside the formal training context- influence of the work environment on transfer of training. Specifically, organizational climate and the continuous learning culture. Org climate is conceptualized as individual perceptions about the salient characteristics (policies, reward systems, managerial behaviors) of the org context; based on interaction between observable,</p>	<p>Evaluative inquiry (a means to action through evaluation and change) for Organizational Learning and change is grounded in a social constructivist theory of learning which suggests that learning takes place through a) the collective creation of meaning, b) action c) development of new knowledge, d) and improvement in systemic processes, and e)</p>	<p>Individual - trainee characteristics. No specific theory used to frame the study. However, social cog theory and other constructs are used to frame the study. Specifically, differences between settings of closed and open learning and the use of a behavioral (rather than analytic) learning strategy. This possibility is developed in the next section. More generally, there is a need for more research into variations between people in conditions of</p>

<p>DIAD</p> <p>7 = Transparency in data analysis (intermediate identified) = No? (Quasi-estimation) 8 = Yes (low outcomes)</p>	<p>7 = Yes (Effect Size) 8 = Yes (Effect Size)</p>	<p>7 = Yes (Effect Size) 8 = Yes (Effect Size)</p>	<p>7 = Yes (Effect Size) 8 = Yes (Effect Size)</p>	<p>7 = Yes (Effect Size) 8 = Yes (Effect Size)</p>	<p>7 = Yes (Effect Size) 8 = Yes (Effect Size)</p>	<p>7 = Yes (Effect Size) 8 = Yes (Effect Size)</p>	<p>7 = Yes (Effect Size) 8 = Yes (Effect Size)</p>	<p>7 = Yes (Effect Size) 8 = Yes (Effect Size)</p>
<p>Outcomes</p> <p>The pretest and posttest scores showed significant improvements in the use of the program. The findings suggest that the program is effective in improving the performance of the participants. The results support the hypothesis that there is a significant effect for the intervention effect for the program. The findings suggest that the program is effective in improving the performance of the participants. The results support the hypothesis that there is a significant effect for the intervention effect for the program.</p>	<p>My findings suggest that the program is effective in improving the performance of the participants. The results support the hypothesis that there is a significant effect for the intervention effect for the program. The findings suggest that the program is effective in improving the performance of the participants. The results support the hypothesis that there is a significant effect for the intervention effect for the program.</p>	<p>14 hypotheses were only partially supported. The findings suggest that the program is effective in improving the performance of the participants. The results support the hypothesis that there is a significant effect for the intervention effect for the program.</p>	<p>The independent sample t-test results showed that the program is effective in improving the performance of the participants. The results support the hypothesis that there is a significant effect for the intervention effect for the program.</p>	<p>17 (75%) Participants showed significant improvements in the use of the program. The findings suggest that the program is effective in improving the performance of the participants. The results support the hypothesis that there is a significant effect for the intervention effect for the program.</p>	<p>7 = Yes, Quasi = Factor Analysis. The findings suggest that the program is effective in improving the performance of the participants. The results support the hypothesis that there is a significant effect for the intervention effect for the program.</p>	<p>7 = Yes (Effect Size) 8 = Yes (Effect Size)</p>	<p>7 = Yes (Effect Size) 8 = Yes (Effect Size)</p>	<p>7 = Yes (Effect Size) 8 = Yes (Effect Size)</p>
<p>DIAD</p> <p>7 = Yes (Effect Size) 8 = Yes (Effect Size)</p>	<p>7 = Yes (Effect Size) 8 = Yes (Effect Size)</p>	<p>7 = Yes (Effect Size) 8 = Yes (Effect Size)</p>	<p>7 = Yes (Effect Size) 8 = Yes (Effect Size)</p>	<p>7 = Yes (Effect Size) 8 = Yes (Effect Size)</p>	<p>7 = Yes (Effect Size) 8 = Yes (Effect Size)</p>	<p>7 = Yes (Effect Size) 8 = Yes (Effect Size)</p>	<p>7 = Yes (Effect Size) 8 = Yes (Effect Size)</p>	<p>7 = Yes (Effect Size) 8 = Yes (Effect Size)</p>

<p>Theoretical Frame</p> <p>Social learning theory. Rotters' Locus of Control (construct which occurs within the context of social learning theory). According to the theory - a reinforcement acts to strengthen an expectancy that a particular behavior or event will be followed by that reinforcement in the future. the locus of control construct refers to extent to which an individual feels that before has control over the reinforcements (rewards and punishments) that occur relative to higher behaviors. Two contingencies internal and external based on an individual's perception of reinforcements as being a consequence of his/her own making (internal) or as being a result of something that is beyond his/her control.</p>	<p>Social learning theory. Behavior modeling (Gibbertsen and Sorcher 1974). activities associated with modeling, role play, feedback and transfer of training. Focus is on behavior that leads to changes in attitude and understanding of the reasons why the new behaviors are effective. Social Learning Theory (Bandura's (1977) social learning theory, which describes behavior in terms of a reciprocal interaction among cognitive, behavioral, and environmental factors—psychological functioning is explained in terms of a continuous reciprocal interaction of personal and environmental</p>	<p>Organizational Learning study is grounded in theories of organizational learning and organizational change, and draws from literature in knowledge management and social psychology. However, no model or framework was used. The concept of adaptive org learning effectively mingles the boundary between concepts of org learning and org change. This study approaches org learning and org change as two distinct concepts, while they may or may not be related. Villinger (1996) is cited as making a similar distinction: "Learning in orgs does not equal change in orgs" (p. 185). Viewing change as a neutral term, and associating learning with the positive connotation of personal improvement. The</p>	<p>Transformative and Double loop learning. Deep learning. Adult learning theory; Transformative learning. Belief that the historical emphasis on behavioral change as an indicator of transformative learning minimizes the value to be gained by applying the experience of one's models, and frames the experience of individuals is somehow evidenced at the organizational level. And second, it describes how knowledge that has been learned from experience, is transferred to other domains and change tasks. These findings will be related to</p>	<p>Organizational Learning. In order to examine the literature is reviewed and a theoretical framework is developed. In general, it is uncovered key elements of a path or process of "learning from experience" at an organizational level. This was investigated looking in two directions. First there is learning that occurs because of assumptions, mental models, and frames of reference. Conscious recognition is the first step in recognizing one's potential for change follows. Perhaps, it is this "behavioral change" characteristic that will come to define</p>	<p>Performance and Personality relationships among personality, job performance, feedback and participation in developmental persons, it is first necessary to discuss the development and contribution of two existing models, which prompted the present study. First, served as a framework of performance dimensions that were noted as important factors in managerial development (McCaulley, et al 1989). Second, proposed by Conway (2006), was a revision of McCaulley model and incorporated personality correlates in addition to performance measures. Three constructs included were Respect for Self and Others, Adaptability, and Molding a Team. Conway's secondary goal was to determine the motivational precursors of perf dev connects by examining correlations with personality variables. Thus, a major</p>	<p>Trust. Model of Trust in Organizations: trust a multidimensional construct involving both cognitive and affective components. The researchers proposed trust is comprised of three factors: ability (extent to which manager is perceived to have skills to allow others to be influenced by him or her), integrity (perception that manager adheres to a set of principles that the employee finds acceptable) and benevolence (extent to which a manager is perceived as being concerned with individual employee's interests and development. Ability captures a cognitive component, benevolence captures an affective component, while integrity may be viewed as involving both.</p>	<p>Instructional Technology, intrinsic motivation, and social cognitive theories - the theory and practice of design, development, utilization, management and evaluation of learning (Seels & Rieley, 1994). Both long methods were based on three behavioral objectives that correlated to the three core skills taught in the training course. Highlighting the research of group dynamics is the complexity, authority, and change in experiential groups, particularly when these processes center on the individual and group process. Psychodynamic theory and open systems theory provide the underpinnings for this study.</p>	<p>Group Dynamics and experiential learning. This study is rooted in the model of Lewin (1947) and in concepts at the core of classical theory of organizational development that integrates transformative education (Floyd & Meyers, 1989) and recognizes that it culture are involved in work through ambiguities and paradoxes is the source of personal growth and an integrative personality. Specifically, theories of group dynamics and experiential education supported this study. Within CAS, the focus was on a specific form of social learning theory from a behaviorist orientation and focused more on the cognitive processes involved in the behavioral changes that occurred. The multi-faceted and heterogeneous nature of an org as a social system makes sub-cultures almost guaranteed. Not only does work groups have</p>	<p>Organizational Learning: Complex adaptive systems. OL focus was on Situated Learning (a key construct in OL), which is to say, activity, context, and culture are interdependent. OL lens was juxtaposed with a view of the org as a complex adaptive system as a means of explaining the results of the interventions. Within CAS, the focus was on a specific form of social learning theory from a behaviorist orientation and focused more on the cognitive processes involved in the behavioral changes that occurred.</p>	<p>Theoretical basis for mentoring - Social learning theory posits that people learn from observing others; people, but not just observation alone—it must be initiated and reinforced. Social learning theory can be used as the groundwork for developing mentoring relationships or systems that lead to planned org change. People can acquire knowledge, skills, strategies, beliefs, attitudes, and values through observing and imitating models. Bandura (1976) broad social learning theory from a behaviorist orientation and focused more on the cognitive processes involved in the behavioral changes that occurred. The multi-faceted and heterogeneous nature of an org as a social system makes sub-cultures almost guaranteed. Not only does work groups have</p>	<p>Experiential and Adult Learning Dewey - adult learning grounded in experience coupled with the process of reflective thinking (intra-personal communication), thereby enhancing knowledge and its application. This inclusionist philosophy of education provides the participant with some degree of autonomy and influence over what, when and how learning occurs. NTL embraced this philosophy and focused it on the field of experiential ed, group dynamics, adult learning theory, OI and learn. NTL popularized the training group (t-group) in teh form of sensitivity training. Ed Schein reported on the use of experiential ed methods through the use of the group methodology called T-groups in affecting personal and org growth in organizations. Argyris described the functions of the t-group for the executive</p>	<p>Adult Learning. Conceptual framework consists of constructs in the study and their relationship. How Action learning process relates to adult learning theory is on construct for analysis. Application in an online environment introduces the construct of technology. The intended audience, management, introduces a third construct for analysis.</p>	<p>Adult Learning Theory Holton (1996) challenges researcher to design as research to evaluation that would consider measuring the different levels of the evaluation (Kirkpatrick's 4 levels) simultaneously. Holton argues that the relationships between current four levels are structural and not linear and that the integration of the relationships between and among levels is important in determining the impact in the training program on org performance. This type of evaluation would be considered level V evaluation (Phillips, 1996). Dissertation identifies the relationships between management development and org performance, as well as</p>	<p>Evaluation (levels) Holton (1996) challenges researcher to design as research to evaluation that would consider measuring the different levels of the evaluation (Kirkpatrick's 4 levels) simultaneously. Holton argues that the relationships between current four levels are structural and not linear and that the integration of the relationships between and among levels is important in determining the impact in the training program on org performance. This type of evaluation would be considered level V evaluation (Phillips, 1996). Dissertation identifies the relationships between management development and org performance, as well as</p>
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