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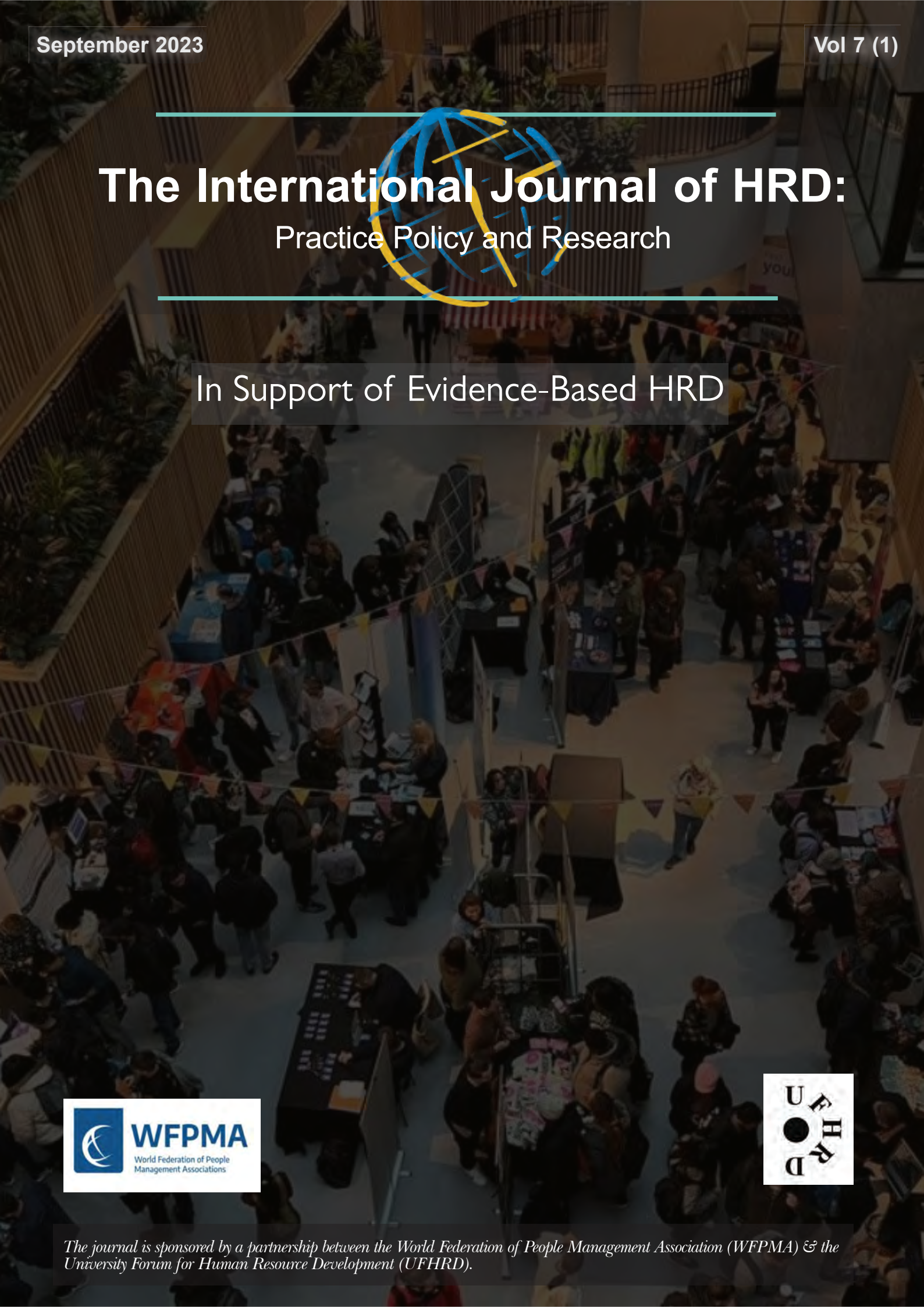

The journal is sponsored by a partnership between the World Federation of People Management Association (WFPMA) & the University Forum for Human Resource Development (UFHRD).

About the International Journal of HRD

The International Journal of HRD Practice, Policy & Research is a new peer-reviewed journal which seeks to bring together international practitioner and academic expertise to promote and support the understanding and practice of Human Resource Development.

Much is discussed about bridging the academic practice divide. It is in many ways a false distinction but a challenge nonetheless. Critically, the International Journal of HRD Practice, Policy & Research seeks to approach this challenge from first and foremost a practice perspective. It is a practice centred journal which nonetheless provides the opportunity to synergise practice with theory to develop further insights to inform both disciplines. It offers the critically reflective professional practitioner insight, ideas and understanding on the contemporary issues and challenges facing HRD, its impact and influence.

The types of contribution sought are described in more detail in the Contributor Guidelines on our website. Interested contributors are welcome to contact any of the Editorial Board to discuss their ideas.

The journal is sponsored by a partnership between the University Forum for Human Resource Development (UFHRD) and the World Federation of People Management Associations. Formed in 1999 the UFHRD is an international association for universities, reflective practitioners, and learning oriented organisations.

The Forum's mission is to create, develop and inform leading–edge HRD theories and practices by promoting professionally-focused qualifications, co-operative research initiatives and consultancy interventions.

The WFPMA is a global network of professionals in people management. It was founded in 1976 to aid the development and improve the effectiveness of professional people management all over the world. Its members are predominantly the continental federations which are made up of more than 90 national human resource associations representing over 660,000 people management professionals.

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Special Edition Editorial

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Introduction

In June 2022, Sheffield Hallam University was delighted to host the first online University Forum for Human Resource Development International Conference– its first conference in 3 years.

The conference theme 'Bridging Theory and Practice in a post covid era' was incredibly timely given the major changes that had occurred, during, and post, pandemic, in how and where we work. Change in the workplace has never been so topical.

The conference call resulted in 91 research presentations and papers being presented across 11 streams: Leadership and Management; Coaching and Mentoring; Critical Approaches to HR; Equality, Diversity and Inclusion; Learning in SMEs; Workplace learning; Training and Development, Global and comparative approaches to HRD, Employee engagement; Strategic capabilities and the changing nature of work; Practitioner research; teaching and learning; Employability and career development.

The research presented the data and catalysts for change based on live research undertaken during the pandemic within organisational contexts and settings of all shapes and sizes and from parts of the globe that are still grappling with the geo-political platforms in which they operate.

Following an extensive analysis, a small number of these presenters and authors were invited to submit full versions of their papers for inclusion in this special edition and five of these were successful and make up this special of the Journal.

The Articles

The articles included here come from a broad range of different perspectives and paradigms in HRD. For instance, Cox (2023) locates himself in the strategic capabilities stream and speaks to the importance of incorporating sensing, seizing and reconfiguration capabilities when using the dynamic capabilities construct when negotiating organisational transition. In particular, he calls for organisational culture, organisational learning and organisational leadership to be recognised and included as essential pre-requisites to that framework.

The importance of having organizational competences for transition is also explored by Dibra and Gerdoci (2023). Using a multi-level evaluation approach, they develop a new index which seeks to include training needs assessment, training programme design, training methods, training evaluation and training organizational climate. They characterise this as a configuration approach, which conceptualises the organization as a multi-level, open system which influences and is influenced by context. They conclude that managers and training officers can use their index as a self-assessment process for identifying areas for improvement in their training functions and policies.

Wen's (2023), similarly, picks up this theme of organisational learning but views it through a knowledge sharing lens, applied in a small family business context. Using a qualitative case study approach, she explores how a small family business employs strategies of knowledge sharing, but, also, knowledge-hiding in relation to how HRD is enacted. She conducted interviews with 22 key employees in the case study organization and uses this data to identify theoretical and practical implications for HRD in this particular context.

By contrast, Greer (2023) takes up a radically different focus in relation to HRD. She re-examines research in HRD from a feminist perspective and calls for a 'reboot' of feminist research in HRD, that is more inclusive. Taking a critical feminist lens, she argues that feminist HRD researchers need to be more

resistant to binary thinking, essentialism, heterosexism, and cisnormativity in HRD, and more focused on work that is more located in a multi-dimensional, intersectional gender diversity framework.

Cavanagh-Cole's (2023) article, focused on promoting the use of somatics in coaching, is similar to that of Greer (2023) in that her work seeks to question the dominant discourse within her field of practice. Cavanagh-Cole (2023) argues that, in the field of coaching, somatic practice coaching is under-explored. As with Wen's (2023) article, Cavanagh-Cole (2023) used a qualitative interview based approach and generated five key themes: labelling & language; somatic content; role of the coach & expertise; contexts for somatic coaching; blended or specialist approach. She concludes by calling for more research that includes the fields of movement and anatomical studies (currently being examined within neuroscience) and its potential to enhance coaching models, content and training.

Key Themes

The five articles we have included in this special edition seem to represent the wide scope of contemporary HRD research. Whilst each article addresses quite different contexts and issues within HRD, there do seem to be three connecting themes and points of similarity:

All five articles are constructively critical about the current state of research in their respective fields. Hence, each have an emancipatory agenda in terms of freeing up those who might use their conclusions (managers, researchers, trainers) to improve things in their respective areas of application.

All of the authors seek to build on existing literature and studies to propose new directions and perspectives. This is achieved by pointing out possible 'blind spots' or missing ingredients in existing typologies and frameworks (i.e. Cox (2023), Dibra and Gerdoci (2023) and Greer (2023)) or by more exploratory work which attempts to add a different concepts and perspectives by inducting theory from qualitative empirical data (i.e. Cavanagh-Cole (2023) and Wen (2023)

All authors were clear-sighted about the barriers and challenges in adopting proposed new directions and suggested clear directions of travel in order to overcome these.

Summary

In summary, the June 2022 conference represented a good opportunity to re-evaluate the relationship between HRD theory and practice in the post-pandemic context. The five articles featured in this special edition seemed to us to represent some of the richness and quality of that debate in terms of the breadth and depth of the work involved. Our intention, in producing this special edition, was to give those who were not able to engage with last year's conference an opportunity to sample some of that richness.

Our hope is that the work of these authors will inspire readers to take greater strides in their own work and thinking because of it. Therefore, we commend these articles to you and hope that you gain as much as we did from reading them and thinking about their implications for HRD thinking and practice.

About the guest editors

Prof Sarah Fidment

Prof Sarah Fidment is Professor of Leadership and Management and the Head of Department for People and Performance at the Manchester Metropolitan Business School, which is a triple accredited business school, placing it among the very best business schools in the world. Sarah is a transformational leader with vision, passion, and proven ability in increasing impact of management and leadership excellence. She is an expert on leadership development having designed, developed, and delivered over 50+ leadership development interventions for national and international audiences. Examples include the Small Business Leadership Programme, The Help to Grow Management programme and bespoke programmes for SIG Plc, the Co-operative Group, Nestle, Morrisons, Dixons Carphone and the Sheffield City Region.

Sarah's influence has extended to government policy development as a peer reviewer and published author on behalf of the Independent Commission for Aid Impact, enhancing the external reputation of HE and HRD practice, 2019, is a board member of the International Journal for HRD: Practice Policy and Research and was awarded Professorship in 2021 in recognition for her outstanding contribution to leadership and management professional practice. Prior to academia Sarah held Senior Executive positions in SME's in the Sheffield City Region.

Sarah's research interests include embodiment of leadership, strategic HRM, equality and diversity issues and how to create high performing organisations in small and medium sized enterprises, having led several projects in this area. Sarah was the Conference Chair of the 2022 UFHRD Annual Conference.

Dr Christine O'Leary

Dr Christine O'Leary is a Principal Lecturer in the Sheffield Business School at Sheffield Hallam University where she has held a number of leadership and management roles including programme leadership, Associate Director for the Centre for Excellence in Promoting Learner Autonomy (CPLA), Director of Sheffield Business School's Centre for Pedagogic Research and Innovation (CPRI), Sheffield Business School Assessment Lead and Subject Group Leader for the Languages and Cultures Subject Area. Christine is currently leading on a project relating to developing the assessment literacy of culturally and linguistically diverse students. Christine also co- leads the University's Hallam Guild Assessment for Applied learning Forum and leads its Advance HE Principal/ Senior Fellow Network.

As a Principal Fellow of Advance HE, Christine is committed to leading and supporting the development of colleagues in Learning and teaching and pedagogic scholarship/ research both within and outside the University through leadership roles in professional subject associations and international research networks.

Christine is an active researcher, practitioner, and contributor to local, national and international research networks relating to the development of learner/ teacher autonomy within formal educational contexts and assessment and has presented papers at both national and international conferences, and published articles in refereed publications in these areas since the mid 1990s.

Dr Paul Stokes

Dr Paul Stokes is Associate Professor of Coaching & Mentoring at the Sheffield Business School at Sheffield Hallam University. Paul is a Master Practitioner with the European Mentoring & Coaching Council and for the last 25 years, he has worked with many different organisations and their leadership teams on the development of their staff using a range of group and team-based interventions including action learning, open space methodologies and appreciative inquiry. Paul is an experienced researcher and, using action research methodologies, has developed impactful interventions within organisations on creating coaching cultures, organisational learning and organisational design.

As a coach and mentor Paul has worked with a range of individual coachees and mentees, as well as teams, from the public, private and third sectors and with first line managers up to senior executives. As a teacher and people developer, Paul was instrumental in setting up one of the first Masters courses in Coaching & Mentoring in 2002. Paul has worked on numerous leadership development programmes with clients such as Diageo, BP, Health Education England, Norgren, Sheffield City Council, South Yorkshire Police, Barnsley Hospital, Sheffield University and Robert McBride Ltd. He is also an experienced supervisor of coaches and mentors, with both individual and team supervisees. Paul has co-written two best selling books on coaching & mentoring: Mentoring in Action (Kogan Page) and Coaching & Mentoring Theory & Practice (Sage) as well as several book chapters and journal articles.

An argument that Organizational Culture, Organizational Learning, and Organizational Leadership are essential prerequisite antecedents to the Dynamic Capabilities Framework.

Andrew Lindsay Cox

Abstract

Organizations transitioning through periods of economic disequilibrium will typically look for solutions or pathways that can help them survive the turmoil. The Dynamic Capabilities (DC) construct (Teece, Pisano and Shuen, 1997) has been adopted by many organizations to guide them through such periods. However, an examination of DC within Saudi concluded that barriers and constraints to change are often internal in nature, suggesting that there are antecedents or prerequisites to organizational dynamics.

This paper presents an argument that in addition to being important components within the DC framework that facilitate the sensing, seizing and reconfiguration capabilities, organizational Culture, organizational Learning, and organizational Leadership should be considered essential prerequisite antecedents to the DC framework.

Despite the study limitations of context and sample size, the implications to practitioners generally, particularly in the management consulting and HRD disciplines, is that organizational culture, organizational learning, and organizational leadership developmental programmes should be designed to reflect the strong correlations between each, and the causal relations each has with an organization's ability to sense new opportunities, threats, and risks, make appropriate decisions, and continually realign its asset (tangible and intangible) portfolio with the environment in which it exists.

Keywords: dynamic capabilities, organizational culture, organizational learning, organizational leadership

Introduction

The current global pandemic and its impact on markets and organizational survivability provides a perfect lens through which to view the suitability of the Dynamic Capabilities (DC) framework as a guide for organizations making appropriate strategic long-term choices in periods of high levels of environmental dynamism. Although conceptualized decades ago, the DC framework continues to "host provocative and forward looking debates" on organizational change (Arndt, 2019).

The original work of Teece, Pisano and Shuen (1997, p. 511) attribute the long-term survivability of organizations to the "sustainability of [their] competitive advantage". However, "sustainability" was explained as being dependent on the existence of DC (processes and routines) that are continually reviewed and maintained to ensure their suitability to the prevailing level of environmental dynamism in the organization's economic ecosystem (Teece, 2014b, 2019). The challenge for both scholars and practitioners therefore, is to explore innovative aspects of how DC can be continually maintained.

This paper makes no attempt at producing a 'new' theory (Weick, 1995, p. 385), but goes some way towards articulating a process of establishing the types of variables and their relationships that organizational environment settings (antecedents) are to the maintenance of dynamic capabilities. Central to the argument is that the original DC framework assumes that organizations possess the internal environments conducive to the acquisition and maintenance of sustainable DC necessary for long-term organizational survivability. The causal relationship that the antecedents have on DC was

tested suggesting a potential for extension of the DC framework. The argument presented in this paper is not "the product of a straightforward deductive process" (Rivard, 2021, p. 316), but at best represents a pragmatic approach (Weick, 1995, p. 385) to understanding the role of organizational culture, organizational learning, and organizational leadership before, during and after the identification, building, and redeployment of strategic capabilities.

Objectives

This paper provides data based evidence, albeit from a limited geographical context, that organizational culture, organizational learning and organizational leadership capabilities, individually and collectively, positively influence the sensing, seizing, and reconfiguration capabilities of an organization.

Saudi Arabian context

The Kingdom of Saudi Arabia is transitioning its economy from almost complete reliance on its stable and mature extraction industries (oil and gas, petrochemicals, and minerals) to vibrant juvenile industries that may be short-lived but have growth and value-adding potential. As such it represents a unique combination of rapidly changing economic and social factors that provides a compelling argument for Saudi organizations to adopt the DC framework into their organizational strategic thinking and planning practices.

The Dynamic Capabilities Framework Explained

A consensus in the literature is that DC relates to how organizations relate to, and react to change (Easterby-Smith & Prieto, 2008; Lee, Lee, & Rho, 2002; Winter, 2003; Zahra, Sapienza, & Davidsson, 2006; Zollo & Winter, 2002).

The definition of DC as advocated by Teece, Pisano, and Shuen (1997) is centred on routinized methods or processes for sensing opportunities and threats; problem-solving; strategic decision making; and, efficient change management (Li & Liu, 2014). In essence, DC can be considered those routines, processes, and procedures that lead to choices on what strategic capabilities (Pisano, 2016) an organization requires in order for it to continually reconfigure (Schilke, 2014) its existing resources, acquire new resources, or dispose of redundant resources, to ensure that the organization is capable of continually aligning its products and services with the needs and expectations of the market (Ambrosini & Bowman, 2009; Donada, Nogatchewsky, & Pezet, 2016; Laaksonen & Peltoniemi, 2016).

DC are not the capabilities required by an organization to maintain 'normal' operations to satisfy existing customers; nor are they ad hoc problem solving or creative improvisation (Teece, 2014b; Winter, 2003). Ordinary capabilities are different from DC in that they relate to doing things the right way. In contrast, DC relate to doing the right things, at the right time (Teece, 2014b). DC are not ad hoc problem-solving actions because they are repeatable and routinized processes (Zollo & Winter, 2002). They are not spontaneous "firefighting" reaction (Ambrosini & Bowman, 2009), and they cannot be considered "good fortune" (Helfat & Martin, 2015). DC are often confused in the literature as those qualities an organization requires in order to be adaptable. This approach misses the point that DC is about how organizations make choices regarding strategic capability building, and the impact of those choices on long-term survivability outcomes (Pisano, 2016).

Debate on the concept of the DC framework has advanced from its original focus on the economic survivability of organizations grounded in economic theories such as the resource based view (RBV) scarcity-based approach. Discussions in the literature advanced the importance of entrepreneurial managerial behavioural, and the critical nature of knowledge to DC. The variations in conceptualizing DC are explained by Peteraf, Di Stefano, and Verona (2013, p. 1390) as "missing conversations" between disciplinary groups. How scholars define DC will depend on the lens through which they view the framework. DC are clearly differentiated from the 'ordinary' capabilities required to maintain 'normal' operations in a stable environment. ong-term survivability and evolution of organizations are attributed to the existence of sustainable processes (capabilities) that are continually reviewed and modified to reflect the changing economic eco-system.

The original DC framework

The original conceptual work on DC developed by Teece, Pisano, and Shuen, (1997) dominates the main stream literature. Google Scholar shows

39,753 citations of the work - Dynamic capabilities and strategic management (www.google.com, 2021). The original framework as shown in Figure 1 - Original DC Construct includes leadership and organizational processes, positions (assets), and paths (ways) for analysing how organizations create wealth. The processes are the accepted usual way (routines, practices, and learning) for doing things in the organization. Position is the organization's current collection of assets (tangible and intangible) including technology, intellectual property, resources, customer base, and supplier relationships. VRIN Resources refers to the extent to which organizational resources are Valuable, Rare, Inimitable and Non-Substitutable.

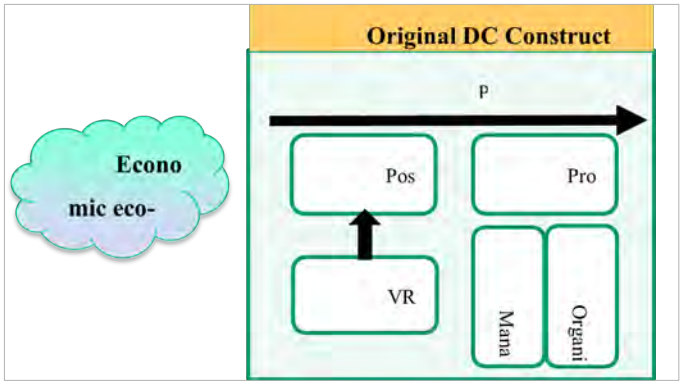


Figure 1 - Original DC Construct

In the original DC framework, the Authors did not elaborate extensively on the causal relationships between antecedents (organizational culture, organizational learning, and leadership capabilities) and DC.

The revised DC framework (Teece, 2007)

Teece (2007) enhanced the DC framework by defining the processes as three clusters of processes - sensing (scanning), seizing, and reconfiguration. The enhanced version of the framework is shown in Figure 2 and is explained below.

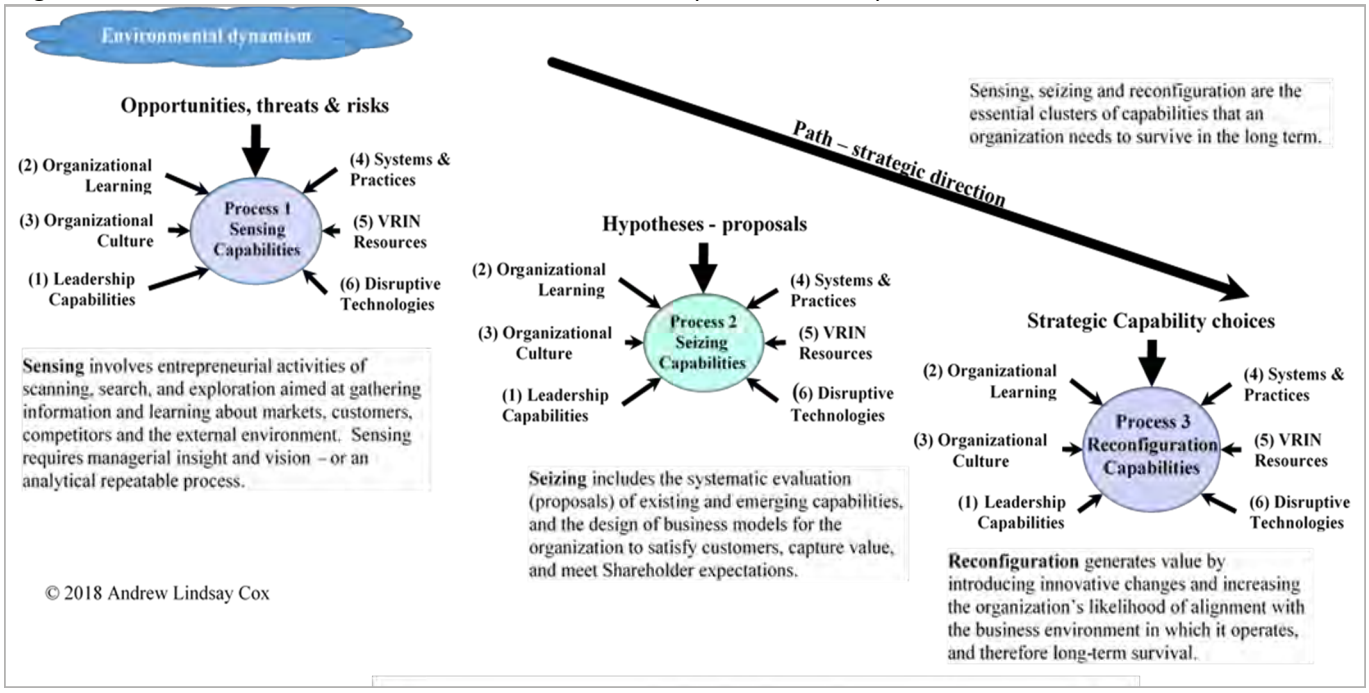
Sensing processes

The sensing processes are entrepreneurial (Foss & Lyngsie, 2014; Teece, 2014a; Zahra et al., 2006), their role is to scan the market and technologies for opportunities that could be advantageous to the organization (Teece, 2014a). Gathering information and critical analysis is a critical component of the sensing processes, therefore sensing capabilities include the ability to learn and the ability to make contextual sense of new knowledge and, what it means to the organization.

This process aims to filter new knowledge and frame new opportunities. The outputs from the sensing process include an assessment of opportunities and threats framed in such a manner that they make "sense" or relevance to the organization (Helfat & Peteraf, 2015; Jantunen, Ellonen, & Johansson, 2012; Lin, Su, & Higgins, 2016; Teece, 2007).

The effectiveness of this process is influenced by whether it is performed by a discrete entity within the organization or involves key people from a cross-section of the organization thereby ensuring the inclusion of all knowledge about the organization's position, its capabilities, and potential opportunities (Teece, 2007).

Figure 2 - Revised version of the DC framework (Teece, 2007)



Seizing processes

The role of the seizing process is to address opportunities and make the necessary investment decisions at the appropriate time to realize the full potential of the opportunity. The capability of management to dispense with established decision-making rules and procedures is a significant obstacle to seizing new opportunities (Helfat & Martin, 2015; Helfat & Peteraf, 2015).

A significant obstacle confronting organizations is recognizing the potential and importance of opportunities and threats and seizing them. Constraints to seizing opportunities include inertia, or "programme persistence bias" (Teece, 2007, p. 1327) – the continuance of funding for programmes beyond their usefulness; and, anti-innovation bias by leaders who are unwilling to disturb the status quo for fear of losing their importance (Dong, Garbuio, & Lovallo, 2016; Felin & Powell, 2016; Powell, Lovallo, & Fox, 2011). Organizational structure is a significant impediment to strategic capability decision making. In organizations that follow a 'command and control' structure, the importance and relevance of opportunities is often filtered, and lost by the time the opportunity is presented to the critical decision makers – those with the authority to approve the necessary investment (Helfat & Peteraf, 2015; Hermano & Martín-Cruz, 2016; Laaksonen & Peltoniemi, 2016; Ringov, 2017).

Seizing processes require leadership capabilities that recognize potential bias issues and can build loyalty and commitment from the workforce, while at the same time, balance the demands of those with a stake in maintaining the status quo and those interested in the growth and survivability of the organization (Fainshmidt & Frazier, 2017; Karimi & Walter, 2015; Sicotte, Drouin, & Hélène Delerue, 2014; Teece, 2007).

The outputs from the seizing process are decisions to either reject or approve further action on the opportunity or threat identified in the sensing process.

Reconfiguration processes

The role of the reconfiguration process is to ensure that the organization is continually "fit-for-purpose" (Teece, 2007), in that the organization is evolving along the correct path to acquiring the strategic capability that fits its operating environment. Central to the reconfiguration process is the notion of continuous alignment and realignment of the organization's resources, both tangible and intangible. Every transformation does not need to be radical, in most cases, reconfiguration should be evolutionary, thereby avoiding the potential for failure brought on by excessive and dysfunctional changes to routines (Teece, 2007). Furthermore, change is costly and requires a high degree of trust within the organization (Fainshmidt & Frazier, 2017) to gain acceptance. Incremental adoption of change has less risk as it requires only a gradual and more readily accepted modification to routines, and organizational structures.

Management leadership capabilities have a significant influence on this process. Firstly, to overcome a tendency of established organizations to limit their search for new opportunities to those that exploit existing resources. Secondly, to overcome existing knowledge and problem-solving practices (Teece, 2007, 2018), and emphasise the importance of knowledge (and organizational learning) from both internal and external sources.

Organizational Antecedents to DC

Antecedents are those variables that influence the creation, renewal or devolution of DC (Ambrosini & Bowman, 2009; Teece, 2007) and can be categorized as "internal (structural and social) and external (environment and network & relationships)" (Eriksson, 2014). They represent the predisposition of an organization to adapt and innovate to meet the changing business environment.

Research suggests that most antecedents to DC are intrinsically available within organizations (Eriksson, 2014) in the form of leadership capabilities (Teece, 2007), organizational culture (Fainshmidt & Frazier, 2017), and organizational learning processes (Eriksson, 2014). Leadership capabilities primarily include cognitive abilities (Helfat & Martin, 2015; Helfat & Peteraf, 2015), entrepreneur skills (Teece, 2007, 2012), and leadership (Teece, 2007). Organizational culture relates to the "whole of the organization's" inherent willingness to accept and adopt beneficial change (Fainshmidt & Frazier, 2017). Organizational learning often relates to the processes of learning to learn, or how does one learn what one does not know (Easterby-Smith & Prieto, 2008). In essence, how an organization develops the capabilities required for its long-term survivability cannot be decoupled from the organizational setting and the environment.

Organizational learning antecedent

The terms "dynamic capabilities" and "knowledge management" are consistently referred in the literature as precursors to organizations surviving in

changing business environments (Easterby-Smith & Prieto, 2008). Most of the valuable resources within an organization relate to the possession of knowledge, the acquisition of new knowledge, and the dissemination of knowledge. The literature recognizes knowledge as the predominant influence on competitive advantage (Wohlgemuth & Wenzel, 2016).

Dynamic capability processes rely on the generation of knowledge from internal and external sources, the integration of knowledge or sense-making of new knowledge, and the reconfiguration of knowledge (Prieto, Revilla, & Rodríguez-Prado, 2009a). Sources of knowledge should be extensive and inclusive of all employees to ensure a complete organizational body of knowledge that will positively influence DC (Nieves & Haller, 2014).

Organizational learning relies on both formal and informal systems, so is managerial information seeking and sense making behaviour. The variations will shape the way of DC development, particularly the DC sensing capability. A manager's information role includes fostering the acquisition of new knowledge from internal and external sources, making sense of new information by relating it to the context of the organization; and, ensuring the dissemination of new knowledge throughout the organization where it can be most useful (Marquardt, 2002; Schwandt & Marquardt, 1999; Zollo & Winter, 2002).

Leadership capabilities antecedent

Leadership capabilities feature prominently in the DC framework literature. For example, Helfat and Peteraf (2015) argue that leaders with strong "paradoxical cognition" are better at balancing the conflicting forces often encountered in making investment choices. Different leadership styles will affect DC development. Teece (2007, 2012, 2016), acknowledges the importance of entrepreneurial leadership in confronting the inertia of existing systems and practices that support maintaining the status quo. Leadership often involves the strength to make new commitments and break existing obligations where necessary, and the wisdom to balance between retaining the status quo and adopting potentially costly and potentially risky radical change (Peteraf, Stefano & Verona, 2013). Leadership capabilities are critical in the acquisition of new resources and the divestment of resources that are no longer relevant.

There is a diversity of opinions that dynamic leadership capabilities is a positive differentiator of organizational performance during change (Helfat & Martin, 2015). The authors advocate that future research on DC should focus less on establishing a relationship between DC and organizational performance, but more on the relationship between DC and leadership practices. Feiler and Teece (2014) recognized that DC are inherently the result of proactive leaders who take a direct interest across all processes that build, renew, or reconfigure in order to maintain survivability within complex and changing business environments.

The cognitive skills to see the potential of opportunities, threats and risk, and the ability to derive compensating strategies, make unbiased, timely decisions, and to galvanize internal resources to deal with change are the paramount leadership skills required to positively influence DC (Eriksson, Nummela, & Saarenketo, 2014; Helfat & Peteraf, 2015). As organizational leaders, the role of Chief Executive Officers (CEOs) is critical to how well the organization adapts to changing environments and the commitment to DC (von den Driesch, da Costa, Flatten, & Brettel, 2015).

Organizational culture antecedent

Organizational culture is a determinant of 'first-order' DC in that it can be a constraint or a barrier to innovation depending on the shared organizational values, norms, and practices (Karimi & Walter, 2015). Organizational culture can help to gain acceptance to change, making the adoption of innovation seem like standard practice (Zahra, Sapienza & Davidsson, 2006). Organizational, team, and individual culture influences every process of DC development, and therefore must be part of the changing process of developing dynamic capabilities.

Organizational culture, team culture, and personal culture traits inevitably influence the DC process. Changes in culture are subtle but can be vital for long-term DC development. There is limited study on the impact of culture on sensing, seizing, and reconfiguration processes, except Fainshmidt & Frazier (2017), who studied 209 organizations in Israel, and concluded that organizational climate has a positive influence on the three dynamic capability processes of sensing, seizing, and reconfiguration), and the "social fabric" of organizations is critical for developing DC.

Towards a conceptual extension of the DC framework

Different organizational antecedents will significantly shape the way that DC are developed. Teece (2007) assumes the existence of individual and organizational learning capacities; and the analytical systems and practices to identify and make sense of opportunities (Eriksson, 2014; Teece, 2007). Likewise, there is an assumption that the organization holds internally the leadership capacities that encourages a culture that accepts change, and a willingness to adjust organizational structures and business models to support the building of seizing capabilities (Eriksson, 2014; Teece, 2018). Concerning reconfiguration capabilities, leadership skills, organizational learning, organizational culture, are all critical enablers to do what Teece (2007) describes as the "continuous alignment and realignment of specific tangible and intangible assets".

The conceptual framework Figure 3 is adapted from the work of (Teece, 2007, p. 1342), and includes constructs from previous empirical studies (Table 1) on the individual relationships between the three antecedents (organizational learning, organizational culture, and leadership capabilities) and DC (Chang, Chen, & Huang, 2015; Fainshmidt & Frazier, 2017; Li & Liu, 2014; Nieves & Haller, 2014).

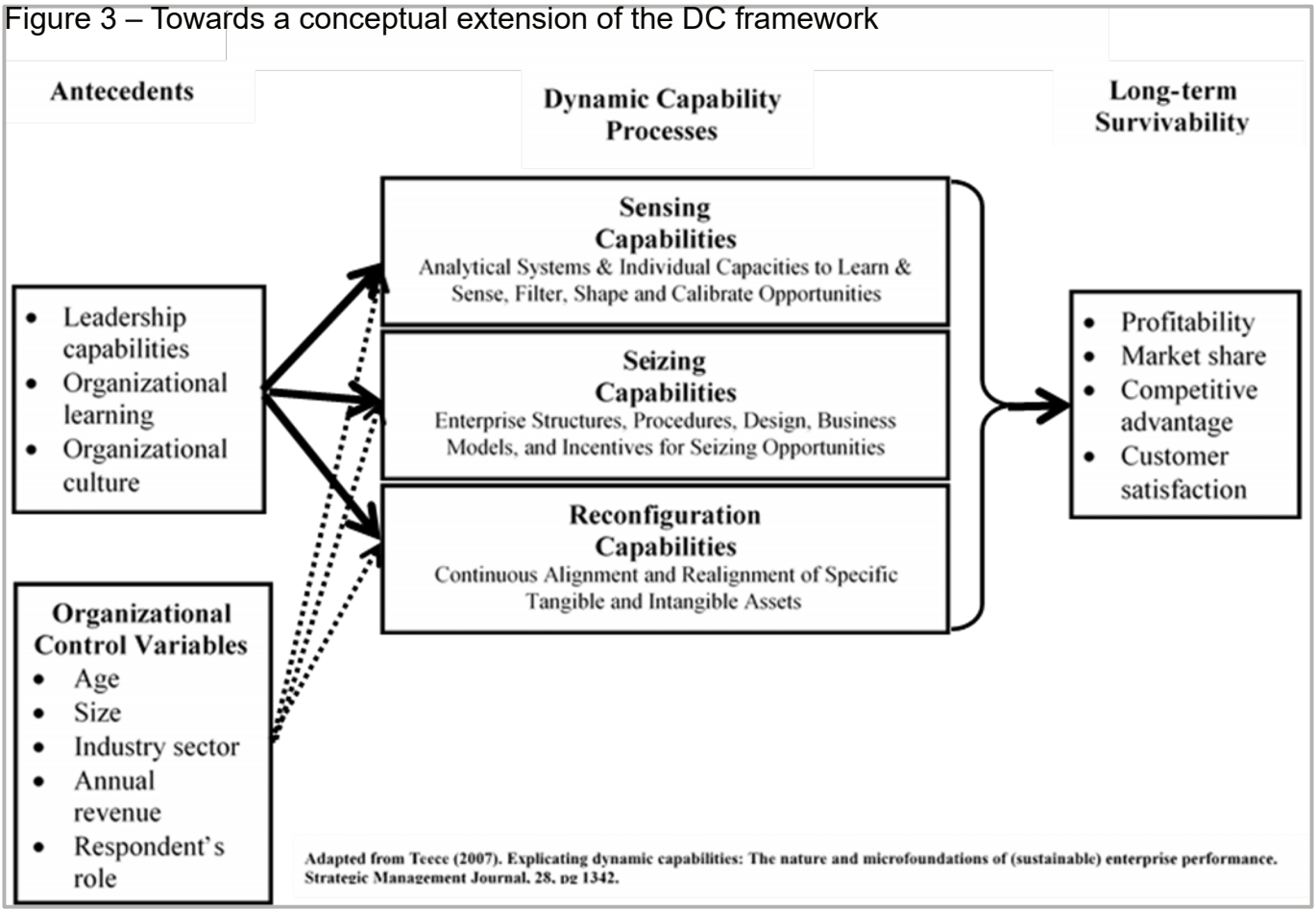
Method

The objectives focus on exploring the influence that leadership capabilities, organizational culture, and organizational learning have on how Saudi organizations identify and select those capabilities they need in order to sustain growth during periods of significant change occurring in their business environment. The constructs used to test the conceptual model were derived from previous empirical studies of dynamic capabilities. Data was collected from in-depth interviews (qualitative data analysis), and a survey (quantitative data analysis) of Saudi organizations.

Data Collection

Data was collected using mixed methods – qualitative (semi-structured interviews) and quantitative (online survey questionnaire), in order to gain insight of the unique Saudi Arabian context and to validate the conceptual model. The collection and analysis of qualitative data provided an elaboration of the Saudi Arabian context and the collection and analysis of quantitative data provided an understanding of actual practices. In-depth

Figure 3 – Towards a conceptual extension of the DC framework



interviews elevated understanding of the DC topic among participants, and proved effective in gaining insights and feedback to enhance the instruments used to collect quantitative data (Chang et al., 2015; Lin et al., 2016; Makkonen, Pohjola, Olkkonen, & Koponen, 2014; Schilke, 2014).

Qualitative data

The interviews provided a rich narrative on the unique factors and relationships within the Saudi Arabian context that would not have been possible to obtain from a survey questionnaire. In addition, they confirmed that the conceptual framework and the structure and constructs used in the survey questionnaire were applicable in a Saudi Arabian context.

The interview questions were derived from constructs used in previous empirical studies listed in Table 1.

Quantitative data

The survey instrument design incorporated constructs from previous empirical studies of DC. The questions were grouped into sections that approximately align with the conceptual model at Figure 3.

Sample size and selection strategy

Data was collected from two sets of participants, one for collecting the qualitative data, and the second for collecting the quantitative data.

Qualitative data was collected from eleven semi-structured in-depth interviews averaging in excess of eighty minutes each. A critical purposive sampling approach was adopted to create a sample of prominent interviewees with the in-depth knowledge and experience in high-ranking positions in Saudi organizations necessary to answer the

Table 1 - Constructs used in previous empirical studies of dynamic capabilities

Factor	Sub-factor	Authors
Competitive advantage	Market share	Schilke, 2014, p. 189
	Profitability, growth, industry dynamism	Li & Liu, 2014, p. 2798
Sensing	Sensing processes	Zhang & Wu, 2016, p. 175
	Organizational trust	Fainshmidt & Frazier, 2017, p. 556
	Opportunity and risk assessment	Li & Liu, 2014, p. 2798
		Nieves & Haller, 2014, p. 230
	Knowledge acquisition	Nieves & Haller, 2014, p. 230
	Absorptive capability	Wang et al., 2015, p. 34
	Knowledge generation	Prieto et al., 2009, p. 320
	Success traps	Wang et al., 2015, p. 34
Seizing	Collaboration	Chang et al., 2015, p. 284
		Fainshmidt & Frazier, 2017, p. 556
	Structures and procedures	Zhang & Wu, 2016, p. 175
	Timely decision making	Li & Liu, 2014, p. 2798
	Integration of knowledge	Prieto et al., 2009, p. 320
Reconfiguration	Ability to align with the changing environment	Fainshmidt & Frazier, 2017, p. 556
	Ability to manage change	Li & Liu, 2014, p. 2798
	Integration capability	Nieves & Haller, 2014, p. 230
	Knowledge reconfiguration	Prieto et al., 2009, p. 320
Organizational culture	Level of trust and collaborative support	Fainshmidt & Frazier, 2017, p. 556
		Prieto et al., 2009, p. 321
	Level of autonomy and empowerment	Prieto et al., 2009, p. 321
Organizational learning	Level of knowledge transfer from external and internal sources	Li & Lee, 2015, p. 671
		Schilke, 2014, p. 190
	The routinization of learning processes	Nieves & Haller, 2014, p. 230
	Skills level of employees	Nieves & Haller, 2014, p. 230
	Sharing of procedural knowledge	Nieves & Haller, 2014, p. 230
	The application of knowledge to process innovation	Schilke, 2014, p. 191
Leadership capabilities	Entrepreneurialism	Li & Lee, 2015, p. 671
	Coordinating capability	Nieves & Haller, 2014, p. 230
	Support to employees	Prieto et al., 2009, p. 321

research questions. This approach is commonly adopted in qualitative research to identify and select 'information-rich' contributors (Palinkas, Horwitz, Green et al., 2015)). The interviewees were not randomly selected but carefully selected from the top management strata of Saudi organizations including Chairmen, CEOs, VPs, and senior managers, who were knowledgeable and willing to articulate how Saudi organizations deal with opportunities, threats, and risks (Sandelowski, 2000).

The survey respondents were selected from two sets of people who met the selection criteria; those who were independently approached by the interviewees ('snowballing' approach), and a non-probability convenience sample obtained by direct requests to members of the researcher's extended network. Despite the arguments that using a non-probability sample relies on the subjective judgement of the researcher, given the logistical difficulties in obtaining survey data from Saudi Arabia it provided a cost and time-effective method of data collection for the purposes of this study (Wiśniowski, Sakshaug, Perez Ruiz, & Blom, 2020, p. 121).

Selection criteria of survey participants included their experience, in Saudi organizations in roles such as, but not limited to, executive management; strategic management; performance measurement; process improvement; R&D; marketing; change management; and, learning and development roles. There were seventy-five (75) valid responses to the survey.

Table 2 Thematic analysis themes

Interview Question Threads	Response Themes
VRIN assets (tangible and intangible) → competitive advantage	Access to natural resources Talent Entrepreneurs Infrastructure Capital Joint ventures Management practices
Sensing processes	Sources of knowledge Opportunities Threats and risks Role of the Saudi Government Organizational learning Innovation
Seizing processes	Linkage to Saudi Vision 2030 Agility Management structure Fact-based Management style Market Risk adversity
Reconfiguration processes	History of success in managing change Business process improvement Innovation Top-down management of change Organizational culture Organizational structure
Organizational learning	Knowledge acquisition Knowledge dissemination Knowledge management – technology Employee responsibility for learning Professional associations Organization culture Future of jobs Knowledge providers Vocational vs tertiary training
Organizational culture	Values and Beliefs Trust and Respect Empowerment Performance Experiential learning Gender Tenure of employment
Leadership capabilities	Leadership style Leadership team Entrepreneurial leaders Start-ups Wise Heads on Young Shoulders'

Findings

Qualitative data

A thematic analysis of the interview transcripts using NVivo produced the themes shown in Table 2.

Quantitative data

The online survey questionnaire was based on constructs used in previous empirical studies listed in Table 1 that tested the contribution the antecedents (organizational learning, organizational culture, and leadership capabilities) make in building DC.

The correlation coefficients (Table 3) for the Organizational Culture antecedent for Sensing Capabilities ($r = .630$, $n = 75$, $p < .01$), Seizing Capabilities ($r = .513$, $n = 75$, $p < .01$), and Reconfiguration Capabilities ($r = .741$, $n = 75$, $p < .01$).

	Variables	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4
1	Organizational Culture	3.0741	.84961	1			
2	Sensing Capabilities	3.2760	.69532	.630**	1		
3	Seizing Capabilities	2.9317	.72634	.513**	.681**	1	
4	Reconfiguration Capabilities	3.0778	.97195	741**	.688**	.630**	1

N = 75. **. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Table 3 - Correlation coefficients for Organizational Culture & DC

The correlation coefficients (Table 4) for the Leadership Capabilities antecedent for Sensing Capabilities ($r = .697$, $n = 75$, $p < .01$), Seizing Capabilities ($r = .590$, $n = 75$, $p < .01$), and Reconfiguration Capabilities ($r = .795$, $n = 75$, $p < .01$).

	Variables	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4
1	Leadership Capabilities	3.1387	.81372	1			
2	Sensing Capabilities	3.2760	.69532	.697**	1		
3	Seizing Capabilities	2.9317	.72634	.590**	.681**	1	
4	Reconfiguration Capabilities	3.0778	.97195	.795**	.688**	.630**	1

N = 75. **. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Table 4 - Correlation coefficients Leadership Capabilities & DC

The correlation coefficients (Table 5) for the Organizational Learning antecedent for Sensing Capabilities ($r = .715$, $n = 75$, $p < .01$), Seizing Capabilities ($r = .616$, $n = 75$, $p < .01$), and Reconfiguration Capabilities ($r = .802$, $n = 75$, $p < .01$).

Table 5 - Correlation coefficients for Organizational Learning & DC

	Variables	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4
1	Organizational Learning	2.9754	.86837	1			
2	Sensing Capabilities	3.2760	.69532	.715**	1		
3	Seizing Capabilities	2.9317	.72634	.616**	.681**	1	
4	Reconfiguration Capabilities	3.0778	.97195	.802**	.688**	.630**	1

N = 75. **. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

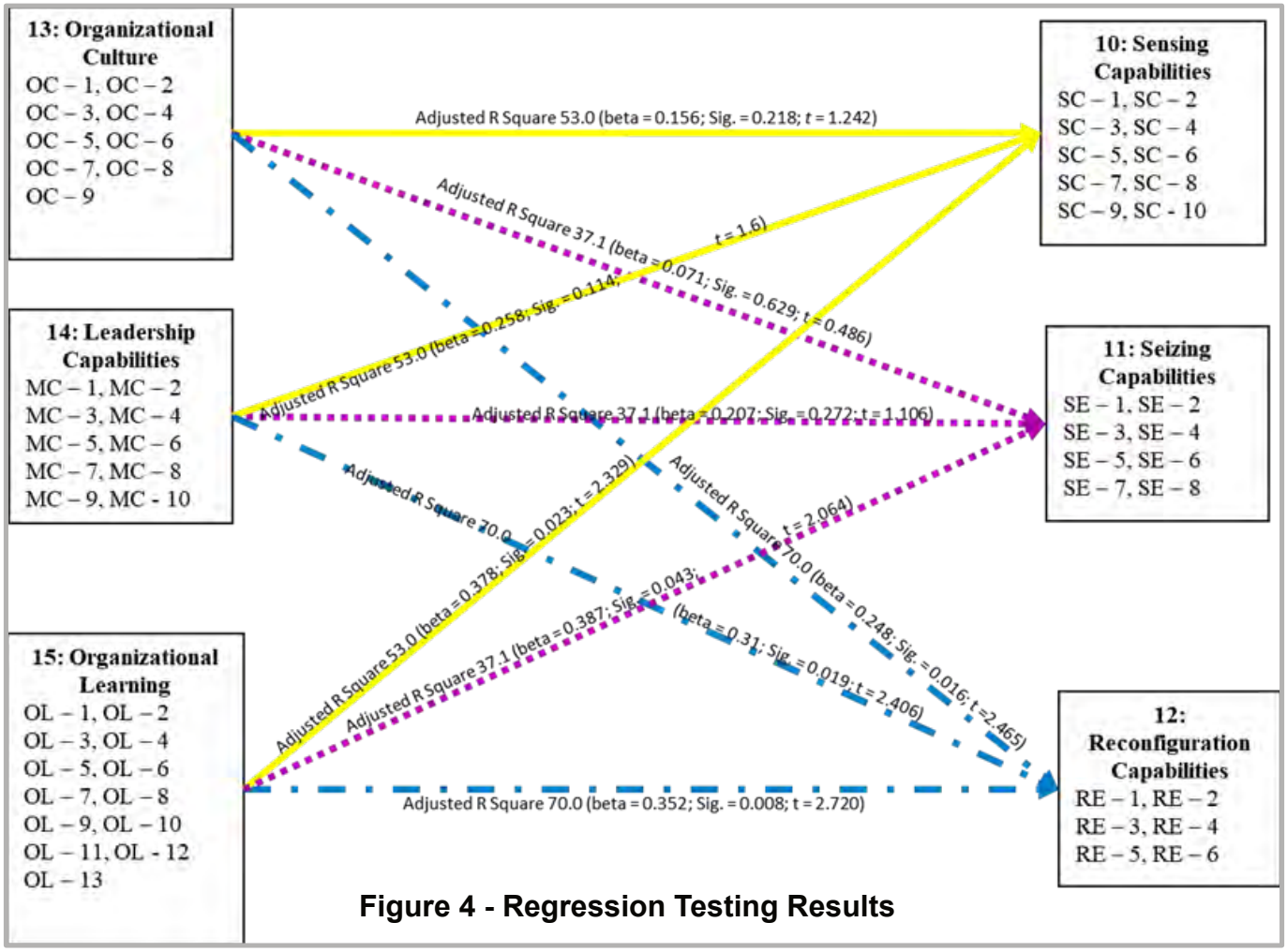


Figure 4 - Regression Testing Results

The Adjusted R Squared values (Figure 4) from the regression tests indicates the degree of variance in the dynamic capabilities (Sensing, Seizing, and, Reconfiguration) that can be attributed to the influence of the antecedents (Organizational Culture, Managerial Capabilities, and Organizational Learning). The Adjusted R Squared value of .484 indicates that the antecedents explain 48.4% of the variance in Sensing Capabilities. The Adjusted R Squared value of .371 indicates that the antecedents explain 37% of the variance in Seizing Capabilities. The Adjusted R Squared value of .7 indicates that the antecedents explain 70% of the variance in Reconfiguration Capabilities.

The R squared value is highest for the Reconfiguration Capabilities (70%), lowest for the Seizing Capabilities (37%) and in the middle for Sensing Capabilities (53%) (Table 6). Of the three antecedents, Organizational Learning has the strongest unique contribution to all three DC: Sensing (37.8%); Seizing (38.7%); and Reconfiguration (35.2%).

Dynamic Capability	Organizational Culture	Leadership Capabilities	Organizational Learning
Sensing Capabilities R^2 value .53	B = .156	B = .258	B = .378
Seizing Capabilities R^2 value .37	B = .071	B = .207	B = .387
Reconfiguration Capabilities R^2 value .70	B = .248	B = .310	B = .352

Table 6 - Influence of antecedents on dynamic capabilities

An intersection of data sources

By consolidating the qualitative and quantitative data and intersecting with peer reviewed academic articles, it is possible to develop a rich narrative that supports the argument that in addition to being critical contributors to identifying and developing strategic capabilities during periods of high environmental dynamism, organizational culture, organizational learning, and organizational leadership are essential prerequisite antecedents to the dynamic capabilities framework.

Organizational Culture

Many peer reviewed academic articles argue that a culture of trust reduces barriers to effective communication, such as organizational silos and conflicts, and creates a positive relationship that encourages the free exchange of opinions and intentions required to manage change Fainshmidt and Frazier (2017, p. 556). This paper identifies seven (7) themes on how the culture in a Saudi organization contributes to or constrains its capabilities to change and transform - values and beliefs, trust and respect, empowerment, performance, experiential learning, gender, and tenure of employment.

Teece et al., (1997) argues that the role of management is to establish a standard set of shared values and beliefs that the entire workforce agrees with and are willing to comply with. Qualitative data from the Saudi Arabian context suggests a strong belief that the values and beliefs of an organization are a significant component of organizational culture. However, the culture of Saudi organizations is currently experiencing pressure from a sizeable well-educated population of 'youth' (60% under 35 years of age), who are expecting a share of the Kingdom's wealth (jobs), and the changing roles and expectations of educated females.

The level of trust and collaborative support within an organization is a reflection of the organization's social norms. Those organizations with the highest levels of trust will normalize the sharing of opinions (positive and negative) and the free exchange of knowledge. High levels of trust will reduce the likelihood of misunderstanding of intentions and result in lower levels of conflict and dysfunctional behaviour, and ultimately lead to greater integration of effort and utilization of resources (Fainshmidt & Frazier, 2017, p. 554; Prieto, Revilla & Rodriguez-Prado, 2009, p. 317). Quantitative data from the Saudi Arabian context suggest inconclusive evidence of support for the notions of a climate of trust within an organizational culture.

Autonomy and empowerment of employees positively influence DC. It is dependent on the level of trust and respect the organization has for their abilities to act independently of continuous supervision (Prieto, Revilla & Rodriguez-Prado, 2009, p. 321). There is evidence that Saudi organizations are adopting technology that is systemizing decision making and approval processes, resulting in more transparency and elimination of many unnecessary non-value adding steps and delays. There is evidence of a trend in Saudi organizations to empower employees and encourage greater 'bottom-up' involvement in change. However, survey responses indicate a strong reluctance for Saudi organizations to empower employees. There is a connection between reluctance to empower employees and performance.

The presence of a 'performance culture' is prevalent in Saudi organizations, and failure to meet performance targets, is considered a personal failure by individuals to 'keep their promises' and reflects on their calculus of trust. Fear of failure and a low tolerance for mistakes is a constraint on Saudi organizations endorsing experiential learning and taking any type of risky decision.

One of the most significant triggers for cultural change within Saudi organizations has been the increased inclusion of females in the Saudi workforce. Females have historically been restricted in the Saudi Arabian context to working in 'acceptable' female roles such as nurses and teachers, and had restricted mobility because they were not allowed to drive. Female participation in higher education has been high for the past decade; however, on average, 70% of female graduates have not been able to participate in the Saudi workforce. Many Saudi leaders consider past failure to utilize this pool of highly educated females in the Kingdom as a 'lost opportunity'.

There is a noticeable trend for graduates to seek less secure employment opportunities. Graduates are less loyal to a single employer for their entire career than previous generations, and they are prepared to trade job security for better financial rewards and better developmental opportunities.

Organizational Learning

Organizational learning is critical in the building of dynamic capability processes. The original work on the DC framework emphasized the importance of knowledge acquisition, knowledge generation, and knowledge integration processes in the development of managerial capabilities, and VRIN capabilities (Teece, Pisano & Shuen, 1997, p. 510).

Saudi organizations, particularly the major ones, have historically invested significant resources into the "development of their employees" (Aramco Services Company, 1998).

Nine (9) themes were identified from the qualitative data on how organizational learning processes in a Saudi organization contributes to or constrains its capabilities to change and transform - knowledge acquisition, knowledge dissemination, knowledge management – technology, employee responsibility for learning, professional associations, organization culture, future of jobs, knowledge providers, and vocational vs tertiary training.

Knowledge acquisition is a collection of routine processes that continually scans the external and internal environments for information that could influence capability building. Senior management has a critical role in establishing and maintaining enduring conduits to universities, research organizations, and professional associations as a source of information about opportunities, threats, and risks. Their role also includes ensuring that the corporate 'body-of-knowledge' is valued and fully utilized.

External knowledge is critical for comparison of how the organization 'fits' into its business environment. Saudi organizations perceive joint ventures with leading international entities as their primary source of new knowledge, and scored low in the survey data on connections to universities, research organizations, and centres of excellence. There is an apparent contradiction between the desire for a well-educated population of potential employees and the continuing reliance on consulting companies, for knowledge acquisition.

While Saudi organizations may publicly express enthusiasm towards knowledge acquisition, their absorptive and transformative capabilities require internal capabilities that assimilate and merge new knowledge with existing internal knowledge. Absorptive capabilities require a willingness and ability to transform existing practices and update the organization's body of knowledge (Wang, Senaratne & Rafiq, 2015), and transformation of existing tacit and explicit knowledge involves collaboration and social interactions of all employees (Prieto, Revilla & Rodriguez-Prado, 2009, p. 316). The survey data indicates there is less emphasis on the internal sharing and socializing of new knowledge among employees and a reluctance to develop high-level absorptive capabilities that would lead to changes in the status quo. The survey data indicates a preference for the continued use of familiar technologies that are well established in industry. This supports the "success traps" constraint (Wang, Senaratne & Rafiq, 2015) that success reinforces past practices and creates a reluctance to adopt innovation.

Despite the existence of research centres such as the King Abdulla University of Science and Technology (KAUST), interviewees indicated a lack of 'pure' research by Saudi organizations, and perceived KAUST as a "problem solver" rather than a "direction setter".

Survey data indicates that Saudi organizations are not effective at transforming existing information into new knowledge, and Interviewees agreed that the corporate 'body-of-knowledge' is typically underutilized and undervalued. Furthermore, they acknowledged that the pool of knowledge held internally by employees, remains dormant and not actively sought out by senior management and incorporated into corporate decision-making processes.

While existing knowledge and stable processes are sufficient to build capabilities in stable to moderately dynamic environments (Li & Lee, 2015, p. 671), rapid acquisition and dissemination of new knowledge and potentially unstable processes is critical to identifying and developing capabilities in situations of high environmental dynamism. Communication protocols and processes are key to knowledge dissemination across organizational boundaries (Schilke, 2014, p. 190). While Saudi organizations have established repositories of knowledge from internal and external sources, their management of knowledge remains a challenge.

Survey data indicates that Saudi organizations typically lack established routines to assimilate new knowledge leading to failures in utilizing knowledge in new products and services. Organizational structure, culture and leadership capabilities are nominated as common barriers to effective knowledge dissemination in Saudi organizations.

Sharing of procedural knowledge between internal divisions and departments is dependent on shared processes, effective integration and coordination capabilities (Nieves & Haller, 2014, p. 230). Although joint ventures are viewed as an important source of new knowledge for Saudi organizations, survey data indicates an absence of established processes for knowledge dissemination. This could be attributed to the limited adoption of technology by Saudi organizations to facilitate knowledge management.

Developing employee skills-sets creates a 'pool of

knowledge' necessary to continually align the portfolio of assets with the changing business environment (Nieves & Haller, 2014, p. 230). However, the 'performance culture' typically found in Saudi organizations emphasizes the improvement of existing business processes rather than developing future capabilities. Even though organizations might include 'becoming a learning organization' in their aims and objectives, the focus of organizational learning is on 'ordinary capabilities' not 'dynamic capabilities' and individuals are usually responsible for their own professional development. Professional associations find it hard to flourish unless the employees are part of a large organization that pushes its employees to participate.

Many factors have influenced the culture of Saudi Arabia as it emerged from a relatively isolated tribal society, and have consequently changed how knowledge is being identified, acquired, and disseminated. A significant contributor to cultural change has been the inclusion of females in tertiary education and the sending of young Saudis to universities abroad, which gave them the freedom to explore possibilities, and expanded the range of experiential learning opportunities. However, on their return to Saudi Arabia, the constraints of their organizations' learning approach replace the freedoms they experienced abroad.

New technologies such as artificial intelligence and process automation, the infusion of higher numbers of females in the workforce, and the shifting emphasis away from the traditional extraction industries, are contributing to challenges in defining future jobs.

The training and development function in most Saudi organizations have retained their historical focus on teaching employees how to operate and maintain the existing asset portfolio, and have not matured in pace with what is required to cope with the number and rate of changes occurring within the Kingdom.

An ambitious young generation who 'over trust' certifications from 'branded institutions' as an accurate indication of their skills and competencies is resulting in candidates not being 'job ready'.

Saudi high school graduates are more likely to pursue tertiary education rather than vocational training. This reflects Saudi society's lower status for vocational roles. A challenge is the substandard quality of vocational training in Saudi Arabia. This has an unintended consequence on Saudi job nationalization because the missing skills need to be imported.

Organizational Leadership

The original work of Teece et al., (1997, p. 510) featured leadership capabilities as an element of managerial capabilities and defined leadership roles in decision making, and galvanizing employees to a common set of shared values, goals, and objectives (Teece, 2007, p. 1334). However, the building and continual refreshing of DC within an organization is a reflection of the "managerial, entrepreneurial, and leadership skills of the firm's top management" (Teece, 2014a, p. 16). As the asset portfolio changes to meet the needs of environmental change, organizational leadership must have the capabilities to ensure that old and new processes, systems, and structures are complementary and not in conflict (Teece, 2007, p. 1335). Entrepreneurial leadership skills include the capability to identify new opportunities, threats, and risks, articulate a vision and convince others, that the investment of time and resources is worthwhile (Schoemaker, Heaton, & Teece, 2018, p. 27).

Five (5) themes were identified by the interviewees (Chairmen, CEOs, and Vice Presidents) on how leadership capabilities assist or constrain an organization's capabilities to change and transform – leadership style, leadership team, entrepreneurial leaders, start-ups, and 'Wise Heads on Young Shoulders'.

A supportive leadership style fosters a proactive dialogue with employees and establishes a trusting environment that facilitates the honest sharing of opinions and knowledge. Supportive leaders encourage employees to explore solutions to problems. They ensure that employees have access to all the resources they need in order to succeed. They provide employees with developmental opportunities, and, finally, they encourage a team spirit among all employees (Prieto, Revilla & Rodriguez-Prado, 2009).

In contrast, the leadership style in Saudi organizations is typically coercive and 'risk adverse', hence leaders tend to display controlling behaviour, lack entrepreneurial skills, do not want their 'view of the world' questioned by employees, and tend to 'blame' employees for failures.

The control and hierarchical aspects of leadership style, the level of support and interaction that leaders have with employees, the willingness of leaders to accept a reasonable and calculated risk, and the contribution of leaders to organizational climate all influence an organization's capabilities to deal with change (Prieto, Revilla & Rodriguez-Prado, 2009, p. 321).

Survey data indicates that on average leaders in Saudi organizations are not supportive of employee needs, do little to promote a strong sense of team among employees, and do not support the professional development of employees at an individual level.

The formal and informal structure and interactions of the top management team influence organizational adaptability; how new capabilities are identified and built; and, the speed and direction of innovation (Teece, Pisano & Shuen, 1997, p. 521). The "balancing and compromise" aspects of decision-making teams in Saudi organizations is a constraint on innovative projects and supportive of "programme persistence bias" (Teece, 2007, p. 1327).

Entrepreneurial leadership relates to leadership capabilities of continually questioning the status quo, seeking new, improved methods, and initiating improvement interventions (Teece, 2012, p. 1398). A robust entrepreneurial culture will positively influence the building of DC (. Li & Liu, 2014,). Characteristics of an entrepreneurial culture include encouraging employees to think creatively and valuing the ideas and suggestions of employees. However, entrepreneurialism requires a supportive organizational culture (Lessard, Teece, & Leih, 2016, p. 220).

Survey data indicates that, on average, leaders in Saudi organizations lack entrepreneurial skills, do not foster an entrepreneurial culture by encouraging employees to think 'outside the box', and do not value the original ideas of employees. It is essential to recognize that the entrepreneurial leadership aspect of DC is different from that of entrepreneurial start-ups. In the DC context, entrepreneurial leadership has a capital or economic management perspective in that it involves the continual alignment of assets to meet the changing environment (Teece, 2012, p. 1398).

The ability of an organization to develop DC is dependent on how well they develop their leaders (Nieves & Haller, 2014, p. 230). Many large Saudi organizations have created learning and development centres. However, these centres rely on learning and development professionals providing traditional curricula because while they may be well intentioned, they lack the authority to implement changes.

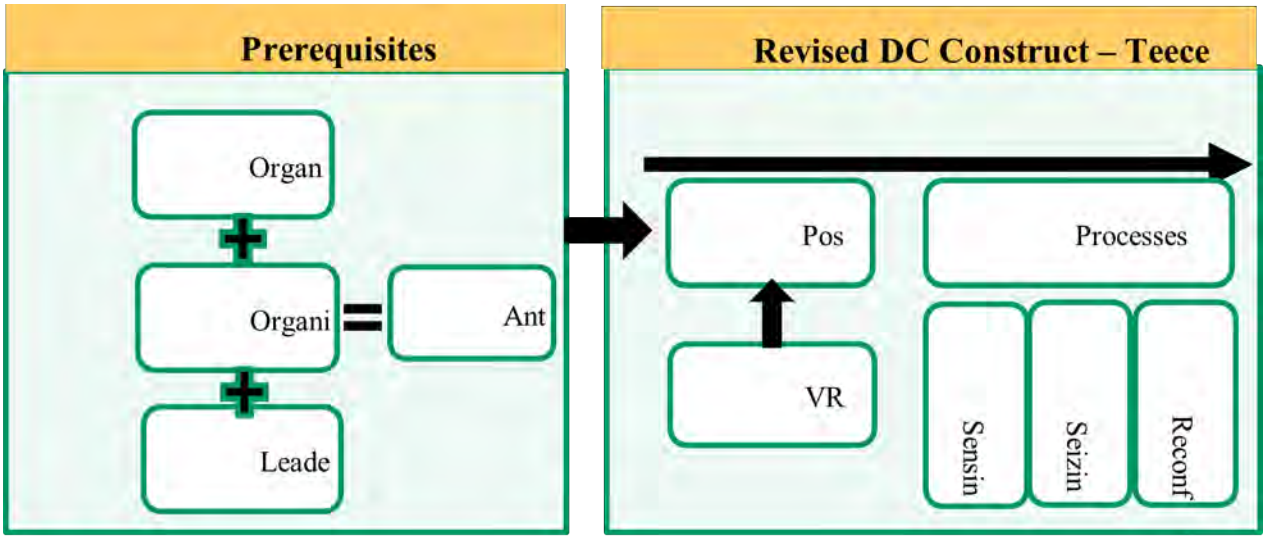


Figure 5 – Essential prerequisites to the DC Framework

Conclusion and implications

This paper has presented qualitative and quantitative data to support an argument that organizational culture, organizational learning, and organizational leadership are foundational in nature and are essential prerequisites to the identification, building and reconfiguration of strategic capabilities. It would be predictable therefore, to present the antecedents in the form of an extension to the DC framework (Figure 5), however this approach risks invoking an "issue of approximation" (Weick, 1995, p. 385), and misleads the reader into believing that the role of organizational culture, organizational learning, and organizational leadership is only that as antecedents.

Discussions in the literature abound on whether 'dynamic capabilities' are a 'tautology'.

The discussions typically centre on what comes first, environmental dynamism, or the pursuit of capabilities that facilitate an organization continually renewing and redeploying its capabilities to survive (Grant & Verona, 2015,; Prieto, Revilla, & Rodríguez-Prado, 2009; Schweizer, Rogbeer, & Michaelis, 2015,; Zollo & Winter, 2002).

The argument presented in this paper is that the organizational culture, organizational learning, and organisational leadership capabilities necessary for scanning, seizing, and reconfiguration DC processes are themselves outcomes created from processes that identify, build, and deploy organizational culture, organizational learning, and organizational leadership (Table 7). Table 7 – Organizational Culture, Organizational Learning, & Organizational leadership - "A Means to an End", shows sample expectations of organizational culture, organizational learning, and organizational leadership in their role as antecedents, that is, the means to an end, and as contributors (outcomes) to the three DC process clusters of sensing, seizing, and reconfiguration. The samples shown in Table 7 provide answers to what each of the antecedents do and how each antecedent contributes to each of the DC capabilities.

The challenge for organizations who conduct individual developmental programmes for each of the antecedents is that by labelling them individually, they set boundaries and 'silos' that prevent participants from seeing the relationships between leadership and culture, leadership and learning, and culture and learning, and the dynamic capabilities development processes.

The implications of this is that organizations need to create policies and strategies for creating/ maintaining organizational environments (antecedents) conducive to creating and sustaining the dynamic capabilities processes that support the continual alignment of the organization's asset portfolio (tangible and intangible) with the needs and expectations of the market. Organizations need to recognize that capabilities (tangible and intangible) have a life span and require continual maintenance and adjustment to avoid potential complacency brought on by past success.

Future research of a longitudinal nature would be useful to validate changes required in the organizational antecedents, or a synchronous development in antecedents and DC will prevail for long-term survivability.

	Antecedent	Sensing	Seizing	Reconfiguration
Organizational Culture	A stable organizational culture will foster collaborative and collegial workplace behaviours that will facilitate information sharing and lead to shared commitments, acceptance of new ideas and innovations, and foster a willingness to change.	Encourages discovery beyond existing technologies, markets, and problem-solving methods. Encourages the exchange of ideas among employees without fear of reprisals for threatening the status quo.	Encouraging the adoption of new ideas will facilitate constructive consensus on investment decisions and avoidance of 'programme persistence' and 'success traps'.	A collaborative and collegial environment of trust will lead to higher commitment to change and effective coordination of change across boundaries.
Organizational Learning	Organizational learning involves rational and focused investments of time and funds in a mix of learning activities. How an organization creates knowledge, accumulates knowledge, and renews knowledge. Processes for retaining tacit knowledge, maintaining the corporate 'body of knowledge' repository, and disseminating knowledge.	Goal-based learning processes are more likely to satisfy the knowledge requirements of an organization. Determining sources of new knowledge (internal or external), who should collect new knowledge, knowledge sharing, and discovering changing customer requirements and new opportunities.	Processes that provide the knowledge and capabilities necessary to support fact-based and unbiased decisions, and a 'change' culture that facilitates open challenges to current business processes, organization structures, business models, and practices and procedures.	The accumulation of knowledge gained from past experiences and the integration of new knowledge into organizational capabilities.
Organizational Leadership	Cognitive capabilities, entrepreneurial orientation and cultural awareness are central to the antecedent leadership capacities of DC.	Innovation-conscious and entrepreneurial leadership that can effectively manage the continual scanning for opportunities that lead to the creation, modification, or replacement of resources.	Strong leadership capabilities to counter the dysfunctional inertia and anti-innovation bias of existing structures, established practices, decision rules and resource allocation processes.	Leaders need capabilities to manage risk, uncertainty and counter anxieties associated with changes to practices and procedures.

Table 7 – Organizational Culture, Organizational Learning, & Organizational leadership - "A Means to an End"

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Dr. Andrew Lindsay Cox, eco81135@myport.ac.uk ORCID 0000-0003-2071-0766, is a 'late-career' researcher with many years of professional experience in Saudi Arabia, Australia, and Papua New Guinea assisting organizations (governments, airlines, oil & gas, and mining & manufacturing) manage complex transformations. His research has contributed to the field of organisational studies by advancing the dynamic capabilities framework. His recent doctoral research developed and tested an integrated model of dynamic capabilities considering the collective influence that the antecedent processes of organisational learning, organisational culture, and leadership capabilities have on dynamic capabilities. Andrew is keen to further his research and would welcome the opportunity to collaborate with practitioners and researchers.

Training Function Expected Performance index – a new HR measurement instrument for service companies.

Sidita Dibra & Blendi Gerdoçi

Abstract

This paper aims to contribute to the existing body of research on the impact of employee training and development on organizational performance. Despite the extensive empirical research on this topic, the results have been mixed. Therefore, this study proposes a new index, the Training Function Expected Performance (TFEP), which comprises five components: training needs assessment, training program design, training methods, training evaluation, and training organizational climate. The TFEP index is built based on empirical research on the effectiveness of different policies, procedures, and practices for each component. The study applies a multilevel evaluation approach, the equifinality principle, Boolean logic, and Qualitative Comparative Analysis to build the TFEP index. Data were collected from 34 service companies in Albania through questionnaires, semi-structured interviews, and company documentation analysis. The research findings indicate that the most critical component of the TFEP index is the training organizational climate, which varies by the company's sector, size, and maturity. Furthermore, the study shows that the deficiency of training system elements increases after the needs assessment. The TFEP index has practical value for human resource specialists to continuously improve policies and practices, and it also contributes to the theoretical research on training evaluation.

Keywords: training and development, training evaluation, multilevel evaluation approach

Introduction

Organizations are constantly facing change in various aspects such as social, technological, economic, and political, and as such, must respond promptly to show resilience. To do so, organizations have had to build their human capital with broad, deep, and flexible competencies (Salas & Kozlowski, 2010), which serves as a source of sustainable competitive advantage (Barney, 1991; Porter, 1990). To increase training effectiveness, innovative practices such as knowledge management, continuous learning, just-in-time and on-demand learning applications, optimization of training methods, team training, cross-training, flexible competencies, and combined learning strategies have been designed (Salas & Kozlowski, 2010).

Evaluating training effectiveness has been the focus of many researchers, who have examined the effects of training beyond the classical levels of Kirkpatrick (1959) by looking at the trainee level (Goldstein, 1989), expectations before and after training, the role of technology, review of learning theories, motivation, and performance (Mathieu & Tannenbaum, 1992). Later on, researchers examined training as a separate function but still in an organizational context, as part of new interdisciplinary human resource strategies such as high-performance work practices, talent management, or learning organizations (Glaveli & Karassavidou, 2011).

Recent empirical studies suggest that training programs have modest effectiveness in the short

term, but their positive effects are only realized in the long run (Diamantidis & Chatzoglou, 2014; Kluve et al., 2007; Lechner et al., 2004). However, evaluating the effectiveness of training programs has been challenging for researchers. Traditional approaches have focused on evaluating the impact of training at the trainee level, or combining training with other human resource elements, but these have not fully captured the impact of training on organizational performance (Delery, 1998; Huselid, 1995; Osterman, 1995; Pfeffer, 1994). The evaluation of training should include a multidimensional approach that considers the unique characteristics of organizations and their human resource practices (Becker & Gerhard, 1996; Mathieu & Tesluk, 2010). A comprehensive evaluation should utilize a configurative approach based on the concept of organization as a multilevel system that coordinates the different elements of the training system, creating an open system adapted to the organizational context (Al-Khayyat, 1997; Kozlowski & Klein, 2000). While some previous research has focused on individual outcomes or organizational performance, a comprehensive evaluation of training should combine different approaches and utilize a combined configurative approach.

In response to the growing need to better understand the expected effectiveness of human resource policies (Gomez, 2003), this research aims to develop a comprehensive model for evaluating the performance of training policies. Building on the principle of exploration and equivalence, the study seeks to identify how different elements of the training system can be combined in various ways to create valuable training policy variants (Lepak & Snell, 2002). This will be accomplished through an extensive literature review on the effectiveness of different training policy elements. By developing a model for evaluating the expected performance of training policies using a combined approach ((Mathieu & Tesluk, 2010), this study will contribute to the research stream on training evaluation and has the potential to be replicated for other human resource management functions.

The practical implications of the developed model and expected training performance index are significant for organizations designing and implementing policies. Specifically, the model will provide evidence in the Albanian context, which is an emerging economy and post-communist society, complementing existing international and national research on training. This article will provide a comprehensive review of the literature, research methodology, analysis, conclusions, discussions, and recommendations.

Literature review

Training is a complex process that encompasses multiple dimensions, such as skill, ability, and knowledge improvement (Noe, 2010; Reilly, 1979), and its impact on organizational performance (Goldstein, 1989) and career advancement of employees (Wright and Boswell, 2002). According to Becker (1964), training is a human capital investment that enhances employee productivity. Policymakers and organizations make decisions on training investments based on its potential returns, such as revenue growth (Blundell et al., 1999), reduced turnover (Haines et al., 2010; Pigou, 1912), improved organizational performance (Hitt et al., 2001), and cost-sharing (Becker, 1964). Various theoretical frameworks, including resource-based theory, behavioral perspective, and cyber systems models (Wright and Boswell, 2002), explain the impact of training on organizational performance. Different approaches, such as structure-oriented training, systems thinking, actor-oriented approach, and network-oriented training (Krogt and Warmerdam, 1997), or management philosophy where training plays an essential role in work systems, promote high performance or learning in organizations. The systems approach to training is widely used as a reference for empirical studies (Aguinis and Kraiger, 2009; Goldstein and Ford, 2002; Goldstein, 1989; Tannebaum and Salas, 1992) and is even used as a basis for modeling (Goldstein, 1989; Chang, 1995; Osborne, 1996; Blanchard and Thacker, 1999; Bellis and Hattingh, 2003). Other training models are based on instructional modeling principles (Noe, 2010; Van Merrienboer, 1997).

However, micro-assessment approach to evaluating training effectiveness, which focuses on the effects on the trainee and those caused by training (Mathieu and Tesluk, 2010), is considered insufficient. Other approaches, such as the macro approach developed from a universalist or situational point of view, aim to reveal the impact of training on organizational performance (Huselid, 1995; Osterman, 1995; Pfeffer, 1994)). However, their validity is also questionable (Becker and Huselid, 2006; Wright and Boswell, 2002). Another approach to studying training effectiveness is the combined approach based on a configurative perspective (Wright and Boswell, 2002; Kozlowski and Klein, 2000). This approach suggests that the training function can be studied based on the main elements of an open system (Krogt and Warmerdam, 1997), including the identification of training needs, design of training programs, selection of training methods, evaluation of training, and situational and organizational factors that

facilitate the transfer of training.

The training needs assessment (TNA) can be approached through various methods and sources of information, but empirical research suggests that some methods are more effective than others. The organizational level is considered particularly important (Eerde et al., 2008; Rouiller and Goldstein, 1993; Fleishman et al., 1955), as is the use of multiple levels and sources of information. However, performance appraisal is often given priority (Wilson and Wester, 2000).

In designing a training program, research emphasizes the importance of planning and considering organizational and logistical aspects, setting objectives, ensuring needs-based training, selecting internal or external trainers, and including principles such as applicability and feedback (Campbell, 1998; Goldstein and Ford, 2002; Noe, 2008, 2010; Sels, 2002; Wong and Wong, 2003; Eden and Shani, 1982; Salas et al., 2001; Cannon-Bowers et al., 1993; Baldwin and Ford, 1988).

Empirical research has shown that classical methods, such as lectures and on-the-job training, continue to be effective (Arthur et al., 2003; Chatzimouratidis et al., 2012; Diamantidis & Chatzoglou, 2014; Sánchez et al., 2003). However, other methods, such as those that promote reflection through errors (Keith and Frese, 2008; Heimbeck et al., 2003), simulations (Chatzimouratidis et al., 2012; Gopher et al., 1994; Shoenfelt et al., 1991; Goldstein, 1980), and online learning (Chatzimouratidis et al., 2012; Sitzmann et al., 2006), can also be effective depending on various situational factors. No consolidation conclusion can be reached on which method is best, but personalized training methods and those that reduce costs are generally preferred.

Training evaluation is a critical component of the training system. Literature on this dimension highlights the importance of distinguishing between formative and final evaluation (Scriven, 1975). Kirkpatrick's four-level model (1959, 2006) on evaluation levels (reaction, learning, behavior, and organizational performance) is widely studied but has been criticized for its fragmentation. Research has attempted to improve the model, with some studies emphasizing additional levels beyond the original four (Alliger et al., 1997). An evaluation system is considered more effective if it identifies as many final training effects as possible, particularly organizational outcomes. The evaluation methods that are more highly valued include control groups (McMillan et al., 2000), pre-and post-testing (Bristol et al., 2002; Sackett and Yang, 1996), and a variety of information sources that coordinate with the TNA (Goldstein and Ford, 2002).

The organizational environment for training was analyzed with respect to its horizontal integration into the overall business function. Research has demonstrated the significant impact of the strategic aspect of training (Beer et al., 1985) and the training transfer climate (Baldwin and Ford, 1988). Supporting elements that help facilitate training transfer by providing pre-, during-, and post-training support have also been identified (Diamantidis & Chatzoglou, 2014; Tannenbaum et al., 1992), within the context of an organizational learning climate (Garvin et al., 2008) and a consistent strategic training positioning (Montesino, 2002; Lim and Johnson, 2002; Watad and Ospina, 1999).

The literature review on the effectiveness of training elements was conducted, led to the development of different scales based on the expected training performance. Further details on this are provided in the methodology section.

Methodology

In support of the research goal, and following the configurative approach of the training function guided by the principle of research and equivalence (Wright and McMahan, 1992), qualitative research (Becker and Gerhart, 1996) with minimal quantitative features (Becker, 1970) was conducted. The unit of analysis is the organization, as suggested in similar research (Glaveli, 2011). The service sector was chosen to apply the developed model, specifically in large organizations with intensive intellectual capital (Smith and Hayton, 1999). A snowballing sample technique was used to select 34 organizations in Albania.

Questionnaires, interviews, and artifacts/policy documents, procedures, and reports from organizations (Creswell, 2008) were selected as primary research instruments. Following the literature review, these three instruments aimed to confirm the variant of a particular training policy element (e.g. TNA sources, methods, instruments, training methods). Each organization's manager responsible for training and development was first required to fill out a structured questionnaire. Desk review of internal policy documents and practices as well as semi-structured interviews were used to validate and triangulate findings. Strategies such as database construction, evidence chain, quasi-statistics, and face-to-face validity were applied to improve research validity and reliability (Yin, 2009). Annex 1 comprises the training policy components serving as variables for this research, their

operationalization, and research instruments sections that help identify the variant applied in each organization.

Qualitative Comparative Analysis was selected as the most appropriate method for analyzing the main results of this study (Fiss, 2007). Figure 1 illustrates the roadmap for the step-by-step procedure of the analysis.

In the first phase, the matrix of truth was constructed based on the literature review. Its rows (90) comprise scaled variants (Annex 2) of each sub-variable of training elements (variables). A total of 18 sub-variables were developed for TNA (3); program design (5); methods (2), evaluation (4), and organizational factors (4), based on their expected effectiveness. The classification of the variants for each sub-variable follows Boolean logic and empirical literature. The ranking of the variants is done based on literature (Annex 1). Variant 1 represents the least effective version of the practice, with an expected maximum effectiveness of up to 20% out of 100%. Variant 2 has an expected effectiveness of up to 40% and represents another configuration, which might include Variant 1, or might be a stand-alone, but has some elements from instruments, policies, practices, or procedures of the elements of the training system that make this model more effective than Variant 1. Variant 3 has an effectiveness of up to 60%, Variant 4 to 80%, and Variant 5 has a 100% effectiveness of the sub-variable. Variant 5 configuration corresponds to that set containing the elements expected to cause the highest training effectiveness. Each variant's weight (importance) represents the relative positioning, not the absolute difference between the expected effectiveness of different Variants. The authors decided to develop five levels and determined the difference between the variants by 20%, based on the flexibility allowed by this methodology (Namey et al., 2007), considering the study's exploratory and qualitative nature.

In the second phase, primary information obtained from organizations through questionnaires, interviews, and document review was coded to complete the matrix of truth (Annex 2). The existence of each sub-variable in an organization is confirmed based on the three sources of information. The matrix of truth is completed using a binary system, where "1" is placed in the box of the respective variant and "0" in the other four other variants. This procedure is followed for all sub-variables. The procedure is repeated for each organisation (Figure 1).

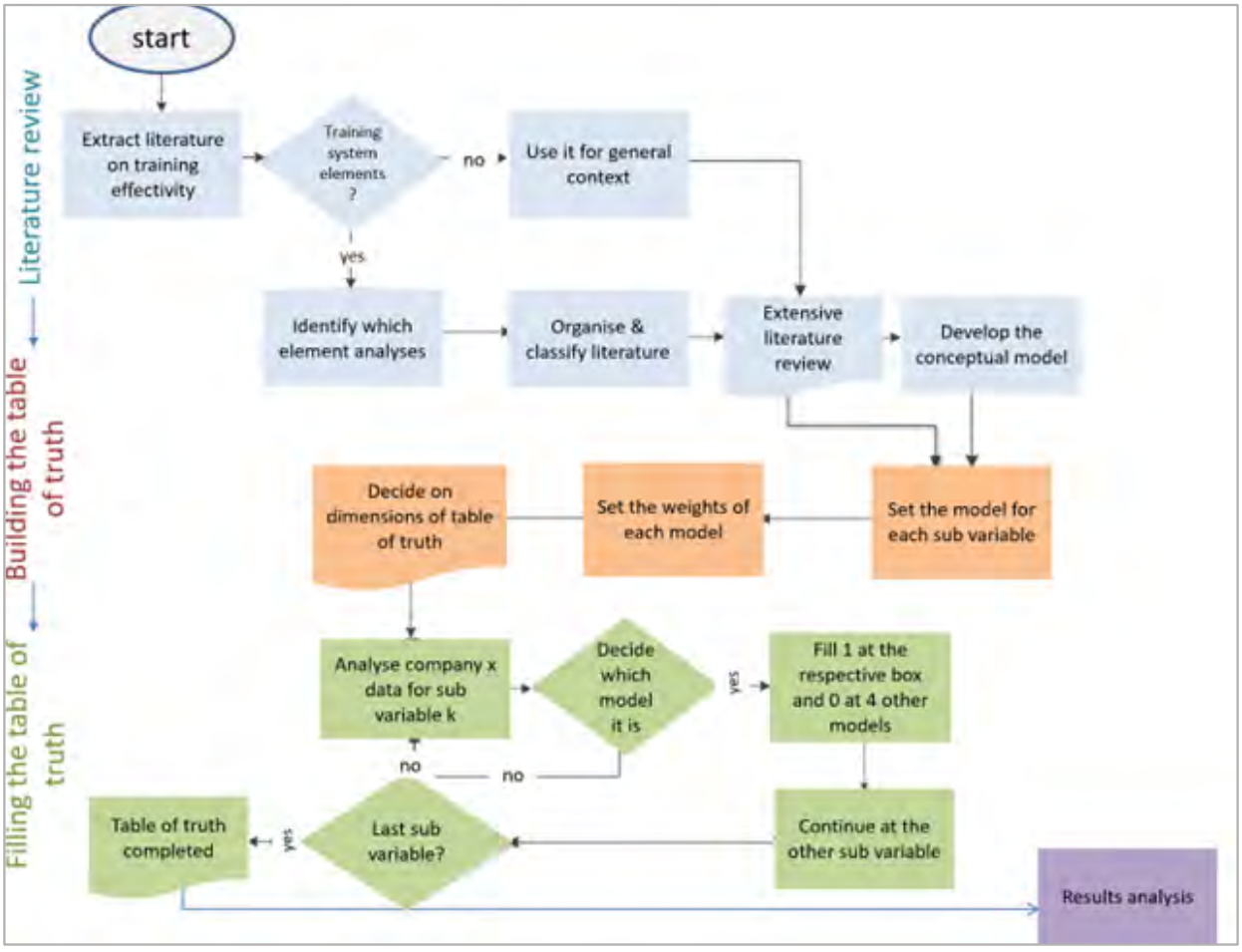


Figure 1: Roadmap toward developing and using a TFEP index

In the third phase, mathematical calculations were performed to discover the expected effectiveness of each element of the training system and the expected performance of the activity. of training. Quasi statistics is used for this step, as explained in below.

i) every expected performance indicator is calculated for each sub-variable as per the formula below:

$$EPsv = \sum_{n=1}^{5}(WVn * Xn/N)$$

ii) for each element/variable, is calculated the expected performance as per the formula below:

$$EPv = [\sum_{k=1}^{k}(EPnv_k)] /k$$

EPsv Expected Performance of sub-variable
n is the variant number (1, 2, 3, 4 or 5)
WVn is the weight of each variant (0.2; 0.4; 0.6; 0.8; 1)
Xn number of organisations with this variant

iii) training function expected performance is calculated as per the formula below:

$$TFEP = [\sum_{e=1}^{5}(EPv_e)] /5$$

EPv is the Expected Performance of the variable/element
$EPnv_k$ is the Expected Performance of each sub-variable
k number of sub-variables for each variable

TFEP is Training Function Expected Performance
PPve is the expected performance of each variable
e number of variables (në total 5)

The matrix of truth employed in this research not only allows for comparative analysis of different organizations and observation of service industry trends, but can also be a useful tool for individual organizations to improve their management practices. By filling out the matrix, an organization can map its current practices and identify areas for improvement. Mapping practices at different points in time can provide a dynamic view of the training function and support continuous improvement toward higher performance.

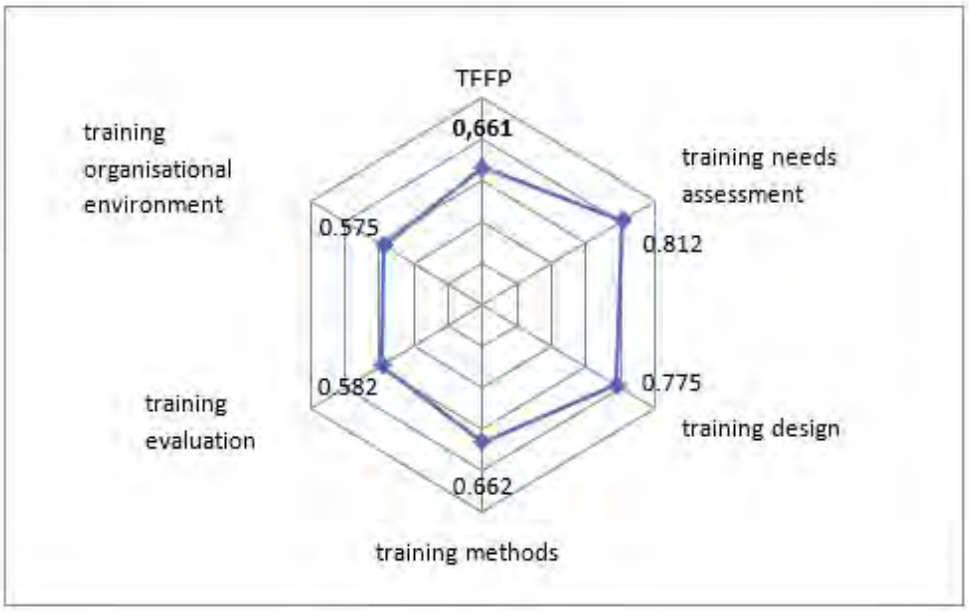
Results

The following section presents data retrieved from 34 service sector organizations, highlighting various elements of their training policies. Results show that the training needs analysis (TNA) is one of the most effective aspects of the system, contributing to 81.2% of the potential performance. This high figure is attributed to the use of a variety of methods and information sources and the extension of the analysis to three levels, mostly at the organization level. On the other hand, other elements of the system, which are more applicable in nature, have lower expected effectiveness. The program design element, for example, has an expected performance indicator of 77.5%. Most organizations have consolidated plans for specific training programs and individual development plans. The training programs are offered by various trainers such as staff, managers, and external trainers. The objectives/learning outcomes are generally integrated with the overall organizational objectives and are developed with considerable participation, although not enough from the trainees themselves and not always linked with their development plans.

The deficit in the training system increases as it reaches closer to implementation. The expected performance for training methods and facilities stands at 66.2%. However, different methods are applied unevenly among companies, with traditional methods such as on-the-job training and lectures being more common. Although training facilities are generally available from organizations, they are not always at maximum capacity.

A critical aspect of the system, training evaluation, reveals a low expected effectiveness of 58.2%. This is because most organizations only reach level 3 of evaluation, which measures changed behavior according to Kirkpatrick's model. The most commonly used method for evaluating the

Figure 2: Training Function Expected Performance



effectiveness of training is performance appraisal, which has a significant deficiency in its formative nature (Scriven, 1967). There is also a high variation in the actors involved in this process across companies.

Regarding the organizational training environment, the analysis was conducted on three dimensions: (i) training responsibilities, where most organizations have dedicated administrative units or assigned responsibilities for this function; (ii) strategic training positioning, where companies vary in the role of training in implementing organizational strategies; and (iii) the climate of training transfer and the existence of learning organizations, two dimensions where most organizations have deficits. These deficiencies are reflected in the aggregate indicator of the organizational training environment, which is only 57.5%.

The TFEP indicator was derived by aggregating the results of the analysis based on the various elements of the training system, resulting in an overall score of 0.661. The truth table shows significant variability among organizations in different sectors. Larger companies with higher levels of formalization and international organizations that have transferred their training practices to Albania tend to score higher on TFEP.

The analysis of the involvement of different actors in training reveals interesting findings. Managers are involved in all stages of the training process, but their engagement varies depending on specific elements of the system, thereby affecting various dimensions of TFEP. Managers play a critical role in identifying training needs, with about 80% of managers identifying deficiencies in the competencies of their subordinates through performance appraisals. Managers are also responsible for setting training objectives in 88% of cases and are formally designated as trainers. In all organizations, they are involved as on-the-job training supervisors.

The involvement of managers is lower in the evaluation phase, as only 47% of organizations use performance appraisals to evaluate the effectiveness of training. Managers' involvement further decreases in creating an organizational environment that supports the transfer of training. Only 26% of organizations offer managers the opportunity to identify talent, while in 24% of companies, they provide support in developing employees through flexible schedules or tasks. Post-training support is observed in only three companies.

Managers' involvement follows the same trend as the sub-variables and features of specific elements, making it one of the main factors influencing the effectiveness of training, as supported by previous researchers (Garvin et al., 2008; Tannenbaum et al., 1993; Cohen, 1990; Eden and Shani, 1982).

Having trainees on the focus of training policies varies depending on the stages of training. In 82% of cases, TNA at the employee level is conducted through performance appraisal. Trainees are actively involved in TNA to a significant extent, mainly through performance dialogues (88%). However, the focus on the trainee declines during the design phase, with only 38% of organizations developing personalized training plans for employees in banking and mobile companies. Only four companies involve employees in setting specific training objectives, and the individuality of trainees is not considered in the choice of methods. Although feedback is aimed to be stimulated

through applied methods (in 75% of cases), most are executed in groups. Only eight companies have an online platform offering flexibility and personalization of training. Employee involvement is maximum in training evaluation, but at the lowest level of evaluation (i.e., opinions after training), mainly through questionnaires. Organizations that focus more on the trainee provide support before, during, and after training and create opportunities for knowledge management, critical thinking, and creativity in line with the learning organization framework. However, contrary to the authors' suggestions (Salas and Kozlowski, 2010; Tannenbaum et al., 1993; Baldwin and Ford, 1988; Mabe and West, 1982), the companies surveyed do not have trainee-focused training policies negatively affecting most elements of PPAT.

Colleagues of trainees are essential actors in the training system, and the involvement of employees as trainers is usually high (74%), mostly through the "trained trainers" network. In-house training enables customized training programs, reducing training expenses, facilitating transfer and creating a supportive training climate, as suggested by Aguinis et al. (2009) and Wong and Wong (2003).

Senior executives, as actors who shape the organizational climate of training, are supportive at the desired levels only in seven organizations, which have the highest TFEP (confirming the results of Garvin et al., 2008; Burke and Hutchins, 2007; Al-Khayyat et al., 1997; McDonald, 1991). Other organizations with "non-friendly" training policies promoted by senior executives, such as budget cuts or merging of responsible administrative structures, are associated with increased employee turnover.

The effectiveness of internal training systems depends heavily on the organizational training environment. The surveyed organizations have a generally low score (57.5%) on this indicator, which is a complex and multidimensional variable that requires significant investment and time to improve. The typology of training responsibility allocation, degree of strategic training positioning, and existing organizational climate are sub-variables of the organizational training environment that can guide policies and procedures for identifying training needs, designing, implementing, and evaluating training programs. Several studies (Garvin et al., 2008; Gilpin-Jackson and Bushe, 2007; Burke and Hutchins, 2007; Kontoghiorghes, 2004; Montesino, 2002; Lim and Johnson, 2002; Al-Khayyat et al., 1997; Tannenbaum et al., 1993) support the importance of the organizational training environment for training effectiveness.

However, there are sectors, such as banking (69%) and mobile telephony (65%), as well as specific companies, where the expected effectiveness of the organizational environment is higher than the average. The size and maturity of a company can also affect the effectiveness of its training programs. Larger organizations with mature training policies and procedures tend to have a higher TFEP, which is consistent with the findings of Nikandrou et al. (2008). Sectors such as banking and mobile telephony have higher TFEP scores (0.779 and 0.739, respectively) due to their established training structures and practices. As companies grow, they may develop and improve their training procedures and practices, which can also affect their TFEP scores over time.

Conclusions

This study is an effort to research and evaluate training policies and procedures as a vital function of the human resource system (Pfeffer and Veiga, 1999; Pfeffer, 1994; MacDuffie, 1995). The organisations under review have implemented a diverse range of training policies and practices. However, through exploratory comparative analysis based on grouping, several patterns have emerged.

The process of identifying training needs (81.2%), extended to all three levels (person, position, organisation), is the variable with the most positive impact on TFEP. Assessment of individual performance is the prevailing method in 82% of cases. The needs identified are more employee-oriented, with 73% of cases intending to use this information to design individual training or development plans by the supervisor in collaboration with the employee. However, despite policy needs assessment and expected effectiveness (Eerde et al., 2008; Arthur et al., 2003; Wilson and Wester, 2000; Kupreans, et al., 1999; Rouiller and Goldstein, 1993; Fleishman et al., 1955), the budget is not always sufficient to implement them. Generally, training focuses on mandatory or technical training and less on transferable/social skills.

The expected performance decreases after the TNA, by up to 77.5%. While most organisations (76%) translate identified needs into specific training programs and plans consolidated in form, they have shortcomings in terms of personalisation, inclusion during conception, and content. Only 38% of organisations with the highest TFEP draft individual development plans. In only four organisations, trainees themselves participate in the design, thus explaining the loss of value between these successive links of the training system.

While there is a wide variety of training methods available, traditional approaches are still the most commonly used. On-the-job training, whether independent, mentored, or combined with other methods like lectures and case studies, is the most frequently applied and cost-effective approach, with moderate effectiveness (Chatzimouratidis et al., 2012; Arthur et al., 2003; Sánchez et al., 2003). Approximately half of all organizations use various methods for training. However, those organizations that use online learning platforms tend to have higher training effectiveness, validating findings from researchers (Kraiger, 2008; Sitzmann et al., 2006; Shank, 2004; Welsh et al., 2003). These organizations are typically international and benefit from their parent companies' investments, as well as the ability to personalize learning (Salas and Kozlowski, 2010).

Despite the availability of different evaluation methods, training evaluation is not being utilized to its full potential. The majority of surveyed companies (91%) carry out post-factum, or summative assessments (Scriven, 1975), which only measure the effects of training and do not allow for constructive feedback or corrective actions. Similarly, most organizations only evaluate training at the third level (change of behavior at work) according to Kirkpatrick's evaluation model (Kirkpatrick, 1959; 2006). While 62% of organizations measure this level of evaluation, lower levels of evaluation are assessed mainly through participant questionnaires (first level) and to a lesser extent through testing to measure the impact of training on learning outcomes (second level). This approach is insufficient for a full assessment of training effects, due to the lack of confirmation of the correlation between the evaluation criteria by researchers (Alliger et al., 1997).

There is a low level of coordination between TNA and training evaluation, leading to a discrepancy in these elements and reducing training effectiveness. TNA companies conduct a thorough analysis of deficiencies that can be addressed through training. However, the training assessment is not tracing the same criteria, thus decreasing the relevance and validity of this assessment. This lack of alignment between TNA and training evaluation is one of the main reasons for reducing TFEP.

Discussions and Implications

The research findings on the expected performance of the training activity emphasize the importance of each specific element of the training system and coherence among them. The training activity should be considered a system within a system (Kozlowski and Klein, 2000), where the relationship between systems and the level of integration are essential for the overall balance. To evaluate the training activity effectively, a combined approach is necessary, which considers both horizontal and vertical integration (Mathieu and Tesluk, 2010; Wright and McMahan, 1992). This approach allows for evaluation at several levels of training and helps bridge the gap between micro and macro perspectives (Kozlowski and Klein, 2000).

The analysis shows that horizontal integration is more achievable than vertical integration. Vertical integration depends on the variable of the organizational training environment and assumes a more strategic positioning of the training function, while horizontal integration is expected among internal elements of the system (identification of training needs, design, selection of methods, and evaluation of training). Due to the cyclical nature of training, internal elements of the system are expected to be more integrated. The combined approach provides an opportunity to stimulate in-depth discussions and address the implications of training activity in an organizational environment from a configuration perspective.

In the companies that were studied, it was generally found that vertical integration was at lower levels than horizontal integration. Vertical integration served as a "steering wheel" for the entire training system and as a "window" for the environment outside the system. In almost all observed cases, when vertical integration was low, horizontal integration was also low. This negative effect on horizontal integration occurred due to organizational factors causing shortcomings from one system link to another. Due to limited budgets and a lack of strategic positioning of training, only some identified training needs passed to the design stage. Additionally, a non-supportive leadership and organizational climate reduced the possibility of using evaluation for decision making. Such an approach did not encourage assessing the impact of training at the organizational level. In cases where vertical integration was high, as was found in the banking and mobile sectors, higher horizontal integration was observed, resulting in higher TFEP. It can be concluded that cohesion of vertical and horizontal integration is necessary, where the impact of horizontal integration prevails.

In addition to the expected typologies, where horizontal and vertical integration converge, atypical cases were also observed, mainly in organizations in a growth and consolidation phase. These companies were developing training activity strategically from top to bottom but failing to

coordinate training elements at the operational level. These were experienced local companies (not international) undergoing internal development or foreign companies supported by the parent company. However, it is worth noting that the developed tool provided only a snapshot of training policies in these companies, and it is difficult to conclude if there is a strategic position or supportive climate for training. The combined training evaluation approach highlights the complex relationships between horizontal and vertical integration. A lack of coordination between these dimensions of integration is not always enough to determine an inefficient situation of the training system, as suggested by Mathieu and Tesluk (2010). A lack of coordination can be a typical situation in emerging organizations. An advantage of vertical integration of training indicates a strategic approach to the system, while a substantial negative difference indicates a bottom-up development of the system. The expectation is that the top-down strategy will provide greater system stability in the long run (Armstrong, 2006). However, when implementing a combined evaluation approach, organizations should be considered as evolving systems. In this case, it would be worth repeating the study at a later stage to observe changes in TFEP.

The tool developed to evaluate the expected performance of training activities is an essential contribution to research in human resources management. However, this tool should be regularly updated based on new conceptual frameworks and empirical research findings. Due to the dynamism of the business environment, many practices that work today may not guarantee success in the future (Capelli, 2008). Therefore, organizations should apply resilience to their training policies and practices. Furthermore, future versions of the TFEP model should reflect the effectiveness of training in a multicultural workforce (Tannenbaum et al., 2010) by including appropriate evaluation dimensions.

The index built in this study and the methodology applied for the evaluation of TFEP provide a sound basis for analyzing various training activity typologies at the organizational level. However, the limited number of companies involved in the study does not allow for generalization to the entire service sector (Fiss, 2007). Therefore, extending the study to a larger number of organizations or conducting focused studies in specific industries can complete the panorama of training policies and practices and their eventual effectiveness.

In the context of strategic human resource management and situational factors, further studies can analyze TFEP according to different stages of organizational development or organizational strategy, following the work of Gomez-Meja et al. (2006), Schuler and Jackson (1987), and others. Longitudinal case studies for certain companies could also be of interest.

This study has practical value for managers and training officers in organizations. The index and evaluation model used in this research can serve as a self-assessment technique to identify aspects that need improvement in the training function and policy. The TFEP index equips decision-makers with the elements that need to be managed and coordinated within a multilevel system, such as the organizational one. The combination of training program components and organizational environment offers a wide variety of systems, which, if not adapted to the situation, may lead to under-optimization. Although the literature provides suggestions on the expected effectiveness of each element, training policy needs to coordinate these elements not mechanically to achieve the highest TFEP, but rather develop the perfect mix and share responsibilities with every system client.

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Annex 1. Definition of the variables, sub-variables and variants

Elements (variable)	Sub-variable	Variant	Level	Literature	Question in the questionnaire	Question in interview	Documents
Organizational environment	Responsibility on training function	1	Not defined	Bucley & Caple, 2007; Adamson & Caple, 1996	18, 19, 23, 28, 35c, 35d, 35e, 39, 40	3, 5, 6, 7, 8, 21, 28, 30, 31, 34, 37	HR manual, training policy; organisational structure
		2	supervisors				
		3	HR department				
		4	Training unit				
		5	Training unit and managers				
	Strategic positioning of training	1	Only minimal urgent/compulsory trainings	Capelli, 2008; Burke & Hutchins 2007; Tennant et al., 2002; Montesino, 2002; Al-Khayyat et al., 1997; Tannenbaum et al, 1993, 1992	20a1-20a16; 20c1-20d8	4, 5, 7-19	HR manual, training policy; organisational structure; mission; vision; annual reports
		2	There are annual training plans				
		3	Training budget				
		4	Instruments for strategy implementation				
		5	Talent management				
	Transfer climate	1	Employees are informed	Diamantidis & Chatzoglou (2014); Burke & Hutchins 2007; Gilpin-Jackson e Bushe 2007; Kontoghiorghes, 2004; Lim e Johnson 2002; Bailey, 1993; Tannenbaum et al, 1993, 1992; McDonald, 1991	20b1-20b5	11-18	HR manual, training policy; organisational structure; pay structure
		2	Support during training				
		3	Support before training				
		4	Support after training				
		5	Support before and after				
	Learning organisation	1	Individual training incentivised	Garvin et al., 2008; Burke & Hutchins 2007; Gilpin-Jackson e Bushe 2007; Al-Khayyat et al., 1997; Tannenbaum et al, 1993; Cohen, 1990	20a1-20a6; 20b1-20b5	6, 8-18	HR manual, training policy; organisational annual reports and directors' opinion
		2	Many possibilities for training				
		3	Supportive managers				
		4	Opportunity for different opinion				
		5	Leadership supporting learning				
Training needs assessment	TNA levels	1	Only position	Eerde et al., 2008; Rouiller & Goldstein, 1993; Tannebaum, 1992; Sonnenfeld & Peiperl, 1988; Latham, 1988; McGehee & Thayer, 1961; Fleishman et al., 1955;	24-34	20-23	Training policy
		2	Only person				
		3	Only organisation				
		4	Two levels				
		5	Three levels				
	TNA methods	1	No method	Wilson & Wester, 2000; Latham, 1988; Tucker, 1985	25, 28, 31	22	Training policy; evaluation forms; training needs assessment forms
		2	Check list/questionnaire				
		3	Several methods				
		4	Performance assessment				
		5	Several methods and instruments				
	Source of information	1	Only the employee	Maddox, 1994; Tannebaum et al., 1992; Baldëin et al., 1991; Noe & Schmitt 1986; Ford e Noe 1987; McErny & McErny, 1987; Kilburg1978; Mabe & West, 1982	23, 25, 28, 31	21	Training policy; evaluation forms; training needs assessment forms
		2	Only the supervisor				
		3	The employee and supervisor				
		4	Other resources as well				
		5	High variety of resources				

Elements (variable)	Sub-variable	Variant	Level	Literature	Question in the questionnaire	Question in interview	Documents
Training design	Training plan	1	There are no training plans	Noe, 2010, 2008; Goldstein & Ford, 2002; Campbell, 1998,	20d7	9, 24, 25, 26	Training policy; requested planning format
		2	Plans are build by trainers				
		3	There are plans but not for all trainings				
		4	General training plan for the unit				
		5	Individual development plan				
	Training plan elements	1	There are no training plans	Salas et al., 2001; Adamson & Caple, 1996	36	27	Training policy; training plans structure
		2	participants				
		3	Need for training and participants				
		4	Need for training and time				
		5	Consolidated plan				
	Trainers	1	Only external	Noe, 2010; Kierein e Gold, 2000; Tannebaum et al., 1993; Eden & Shan, 1982	35a13, 37	31	Training policy
		2	Managers				
		3	Trained trainers				
		4	Employees and managers				
		5	Employees, managers, external translators				
	Learning environment	1	Five information	Goldstein & Ford, 2002; Campbell, 1988; Cannon-Bowers et al., 1993; Thorndike, 1927	35	29	Training policy; annual training report
		2	Aims trainee satisfaction				
		3	Social learning is incentivised				
		4	Opportunity for practice				
		5	Opportunity for feedback				
	objectives	1	Now riten objectives	Noe, 2010; Aguinis et al., 2009; Sels, 2002;	35a1-35a5	28, 30	Training policy
		2	Decided by the trainer				
		3	Dedicated by the managers				
		4	Internalised as part of each employee				
		5	Employees participate				
Training methods	Training methods	1	Only on job training	Chatzimouratidis et al., 2012; Poëell, et al., 2010; Aguinis et al., 2009; Keith & Frese, 2008; Kraiger, 2008; Sitzmann et al.,2006; Sitzmann et al., 2006; Welsh et al., 2003; Heimbeck et al., 2003; Arthur et al., 2003; Sánchez et al., 2003; Aragón et al., 2003; Salas et al., 2001; Tannenbaum et al., 1992; Shoenfelt et al., 1991; Goldstein, 1980; Carter & Ginsberg, 1976	37, 38	32, 33, 34	Training policy; observations
		2	Mainly traditional methods				
		3	Methods that incentivise feedback				
		4	High variety				
		5	There is an on-line learning platform				
	Physical training environment	1	Trainer responsibility		35a14, 35a15, 36k, 40d	32, 33, 34	observations
		2	Only equipment enrured				
		3	Opportunity created as per occasion				
		4	Special environment within the organisation				
		5	Environment with capacity at the organization				

Elements (variable)	Sub-variable	Variant	Level	Literature	Question in the questionnaire	Question in interview	Documents
Training evaluation	Levels	1	Trainee opinions	Noe, 2010; Krikpatrick, 2006; Arthur et al., 2003; Phillips, 2003; Ford & Goldstein 2002;	41a2-41a7; 42	35-38	Training policy
		2	learning				
		3	Changed behaviour at work				
		4	Organisational performance				
		5	Return on environment				
	methods	1	Questionnaire	Yang, 1996; Bristol et. al., 2002; McMillan et al., 2000; Sadri & Snyder, 1995; Mathis e Jackson, 1991;	42	35, 36	Training policy, performance evaluation forms
		2	+ post tests				
		3	Pre and post test				
		4	Performance evaluation				
		5	Control group				
	Goals	1	Documents	Brown & Gerhardt, 2002; Goldstein, 1993; Scriven, 1967;	41a1, 41a8, 43	35, 38	Training policy
		2	Learning outcome assessment				
		3	Training results assessment				
		4	Summative and formative assessment				
		5	Full feedback for the programme				
	People involved	1	Only the employee	Adamson e Caple, 1996; Worthen et al., 1997; Weiss, 1972	42	35, 37	Training policy
		2	The employee and the trainers				
		3	HR				
		4	Employees and managers				
		5	many stakeholders				
Training activity performance	Training environment	1	Modest	Mathieu & Tesluk, 2010; Delery, 1998; Al-Khayyat et al., 1997; Becker e Gerhart, 1996; Wright e McMahan, 1992	17-43	2-38	
	Training needs assessment	2	Low				
	Training design	3	Average				
	Training methods	4	High				
	Training evaluation	5	Very High				

Annex 2. Matrix of Truth

Variant/ company	01_01_	01_02_	01_03_	01_02_	02_01_	02_02_	02_03_	02_04_	02_05_	02_06_	02_08_	02_09_	02_10_	03_01_	03_02_	08_01_	05_01_	05_04_	06_01_	06_02_	07_01_	07_02_	07_03_	09_01_	09_02_	09_03_	11_01_	11_02_	10_03_	10_04_	10_05_	10_02_	10_02_	12_01_
I. Training needs assessment																																		
TNA levels																																		
Variant 1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	0
Variant 2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Variant 3	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Variant 4	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	1	1	0	0	1	0
Variant 5	1	1	1	0	1	1	0	1	1	1	0	1	1	1	1	0	1	0	1	1	1	0	1	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	1
TNA methods																																		
Variant 1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	0
Variant 2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Variant 3	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0
Variant 4	0	0	0	1	1	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	0
Variant 5	1	1	1	0	0	1	0	1	1	1	0	1	1	1	1	0	1	0	1	0	1	0	1	1	1	1	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	1
Source of information																																		
Variant 1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	0
Variant 2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Variant 3	0	0	0	1	0	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	1	0	1	0
Variant 4	1	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Variant 5	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
II. training design																																		
Training plan																																		
Variant 1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0
Variant 2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
Variant 3	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0
Variant 4	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	1	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	1	1	1	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	1
Variant 5	1	1	1	0	1	1	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	0

Variant/ company	01_01_	01_02_	01_03_	01_02_	02_01_	02_02_	02_03_	02_04_	02_05_	02_06_	02_08_	02_09_	02_10_	03_01_	03_02_	08_01_	05_01_	05_04_	06_01_	06_02_	07_01_	07_02_	07_03_	09_01_	09_02_	09_03_	11_01_	11_02_	10_03_	10_04_	10_05_	10_02_	10_02_	12_01_
Training plan elements																																		
Variant 1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0
Variant 2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	0
Variant 3	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Variant 4	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0
Variant 5	1	1	1	0	1	1	0	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	0	0	1	1	0	1	0	1	1	1	1	1	0	0	0	1	0	1	1
Trainers																																		
Variant 1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
Variant 2	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	0
Variant 3	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Variant 4	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Variant 5	1	1	1	0	1	1	0	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	1	1	0	1	1	0	1	0	1	0	1	1
Learning environment																																		
Variant 1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	0
Variant 2	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Variant 3	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0
Variant 4	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	1	1	0	1	1	0	0	1	0	0	1	1	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	1	1
Variant 5	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	1	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
objective																																		
Variant 1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	0
Variant 2	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0
Variant 3	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	0
Variant 4	1	0	1	1	1	1	0	0	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	1
Variant 5	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
III. training implementation																																		
Training method																																		
Variant 1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Variant 2	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	1	0	1	1	0
Variant 3	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Variant 4	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0
Variant 5	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1

Variant/ company	01_01_	01_02_	01_03_	01_02_	02_01_	02_02_	02_03_	02_04_	02_05_	02_06_	02_08_	02_09_	02_10_	03_01_	03_02_	08_01_	05_01_	05_04_	06_01_	06_02_	07_01_	07_02_	07_03_	09_01_	09_02_	09_03_	11_01_	11_02_	10_03_	10_04_	10_05_	10_02_	10_02_	12_01_
Training environment																																		
Variant 1	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	1	0
Variant 2	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Variant 3	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	1	0	0	0
Variant 4	1	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
Variant 5	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
IV. Training evaluation																																		
Levels																																		
Variant 1	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	0
Variant 2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	0
Variant 3	1	1	1	0	1	1	0	0	1	1	0	1	0	0	1	0	1	1	1	0	1	1	0	1	0	1	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	1
Variant 4	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0
Variant 5	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Methods																																		
Variant 1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	1	0	0	1	0	1
Variant 2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Variant 3	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	0
Variant 4	0	0	1	0	1	0	1	1	1	0	1	0	0	1	1	0	0	1	1	0	1	1	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Variant 5	0	1	0	0	0	0	0		0	1	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	0
Objective																																		
Variant 1	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	1	1	0
Variant 2	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	1
Variant 3	0	1	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	1	0	0	0
Variant 4	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Variant 5	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Persons involved																																		
Variant 1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	1
Variant 2	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	0
Variant 3	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	0
Variant 4	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Variant 5	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0

Variant/ company	01_01_	01_02_	01_03_	01_02_	02_01_	02_02_	02_03_	02_04_	02_05_	02_06_	02_08_	02_09_	02_10_	03_01_	03_02_	08_01_	05_01_	05_04_	06_01_	06_02_	07_01_	07_02_	07_03_	09_01_	09_02_	09_03_	11_01_	11_02_	10_03_	10_04_	10_05_	10_02_	10_02_	12_01_
V. Training environment																																		
Responsibility for training																																		
Variant 1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Variant 2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	0
Variant 3	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	1
Variant 4	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0
Variant 5	1	0	1	0	1	1	0	1	0	1	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0
Strategic training																																		
Variant 1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	1	0
Variant 2	0	1	0	1	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	1	1	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	0
Variant 3	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0
Variant 4	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Variant 5	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
Learning organisation																																		
Variant 1	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	1	1	1	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	1	0
Variant 2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	1	1	0	0	
Variant 3	1	1	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Variant 4	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
Variant 5	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Organisational climate																																		
Variant 1	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	1	0	1	0	1	0	1	0	0
Variant 2	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	1	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	1	0
Variant 3	1	1	1	0	0	1	0	1	0	1	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
Variant 4	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Variant 5	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0

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How do small family businesses enhance workplace learning? From knowledge sharing and hiding perspectives

Bo Wen, Scott Foster, Khalid Abbas

Organizational learning is an effective approach to help small family businesses retain competitiveness by increasing the knowledge of employees. Knowledge sharing, an act of making knowledge available to others, has been broadly recognized as the key to organizational learning. However, compared with sharing knowledge, employees prefer hiding knowledge, which may impede organizational learning. Hence, this study aims to explore how a small family business enhances organizational learning, from knowledge sharing and hiding perspectives. Data was gathered from twenty-two key employees through semi-structured interviews in a small Chinese family business where the local government has accredited its training and development, patents, and intellectual properties. The results revealed that employees held different motivations for knowledge sharing and hiding, influenced by the corporate context of the small family firm. The unfairness toward non-family employees was the most significant reason for knowledge hiding, undermining employee learning. It contributes to understanding learning in SMEs by investigating knowledge sharing and hiding in a small family business. This paper provides theoretical and practical implications for human resource development (HRD) in the small family business context.

Keywords: Small family business, knowledge sharing, knowledge hiding, employee learning, motivations for knowledge sharing and hiding.

Introduction

In the current turbulent period, small family firms have encountered tremendous challenges in retaining their competitiveness (Cunningham, 2020) because of a lack of innovative abilities and resources (Motoc, 2020). Organizational learning is an effective approach to help SMEs (Noe, Clarke & Klein, 2014) and family businesses (Zahra, 2012) retain competitiveness as it can strengthen employee knowledge (Saru, 2007) through acquiring, sharing, and using knowledge to adapt to a changing external environment (Lee, Kim & Kim, 2012; Yeo, Stubbs & Barrett, 2016). However, organizational learning in SMEs is still under-explored as learning in this context tends to be socially situated and takes place in day-to-day routines (Short, 2019).

Knowledge sharing, especially tacit knowledge sharing, is perceived as a basis for organizational learning (Kumaraswamy & Chitale, 2012) because knowledge sharing is an approach to making knowledge available to others (Ipe, 2003). In this way, employees across the firms can learn from each other at the personal level (Ipe, 2003; Swift & Hwang, 2013) and integrate their learning outcomes for practical applications at the organizational level (Yang, 2007; Yeo, Stubbs & Barrett, 2016).

Nonetheless, it is hard for small family companies to obtain tacit knowledge because it is possessed by employees rather than firms (Cunningham, 2020). Small family businesses struggle to attract and maintain a skilled workforce due to their small size and family involvement (Cunningham, 2020). Moreover, family involvement in the business and management generates conflicts and excludes non-family employees (Ahluwalia, Mahto & Walsh, 2017). On the other hand, tacit knowledge resides in people's minds (Polanyi & Sen, 2009); whether to share it relies upon individual motivations (Gagne,

Tian, Soo, Zhang, Ho & Hosszu, 2019; Pereira & Mohiya, 2021). Coinciding with knowledge sharing, people may choose to hide knowledge (Peng, 2013). In particular, during the pandemic, people tend to hide their unique competitiveness to circumvent any detrimental effects of resource sharing, such as losing jobs (Nguyen, Malik & Budhwar, 2022). As a result, knowledge hiding may hinder organizational learning.

Past research has investigated knowledge sharing or hiding separately rather than looking into these two aspects simultaneously (Gagne, Tian, Soo, Zhang, Ho & Hosszu, 2019; Hadjielias, Christofi & Tarba, 2021). As such, simultaneous knowledge sharing and hiding behaviours have become a new conceptualization in the knowledge management field in recent years (Hadjielias, Christofi & Tarba, 2021). Furthermore, extant HRD researchers usually consider SMEs a homogenous group (Short, 2019). However, the small family business is a distinct type of SME whose family and business systems overlap (Tsang, 2020). Small companies are still under-representative in the research on learning in SMEs (Short, 2019); therefore, there is a need to respond to a call for learning in SMEs that notes the sizes, types, and structures of organizations (Short, 2019). As such, this study investigates how a small family business enhances organizational learning by exploring knowledge sharing and hiding simultaneously.

To advance understanding, this study relies on a single case-study strategy and qualitative approaches (Easterby-Smith, Thorpe & Jackson, 2021), drawing on twenty-two interviews from a small family firm in China. Self-determination theory (SDT) was the theoretical foundation of this study. It highlighted that knowledge sharing and hiding are autonomous behaviours that contain a lot of discretional possibilities, determined by intrinsic and extrinsic motivations (Stenius, Hankonen, Ravaja & Haukkala, 2016; Gagne, Tian, Soo, Zhang, Ho & Hosszu, 2019). This theory has been widely used to explain knowledge sharing (Hon, Fung & Senbeto, 2022), but not often do knowledge hiding studies emerge (Yang & Lee, 2021). Echoed by the suggestions of Pereira & Mohiya (2021), studying the concurrence of knowledge sharing and hiding needs a more theoretical lens and qualitative data. Therefore, this study utilizes qualitative approaches to collect and analyse data regarding knowledge sharing and hiding based on SDT. To guide the aim of inquiry for this study, we raise the following research questions:

RQ1: How do employees share and hide knowledge?

RQ2: Why do employees share and hide knowledge from corporate and motivational perspectives?

Context of the study

The case study was conducted in Zhengzhou, Henan province. SMEs in Henan have demonstrated high growth trends compared to other provinces in China because of the central government Strategy of Rising of Central China (Henan government, 2020). Amongst them, family firms took up 80% (Zhu, 2020). Even during the pandemic, the number of small and micro companies in Henan has increased by 2.31%, and the added value has reached over 2 billion yuan in total by the end of October 2020 (Henan news, 2021). The majority of leading small enterprises are manufacturing companies committed to researching and developing cars, foods, new materials, and new energy (Henan government, 2020). It is notable that Zhengzhou is the capital city and the largest city in Henan province (Zhu, 2020), which made the most GDP for Henan with over 120 billion RMB in 2020 (Henan government, 2020). However, prior research on the context of small family firms mainly aims at the eastern coastal areas rather than the middle and western provinces (Zhou, 2019). Therefore, this research selects small family firms from Zhengzhou.

The case-study company is a leading small family business in Henan, and it has survived in the competitive market for over 10 years. However, according to Zhou (2015), almost 60% of small-sized firms shut down within the first five years, and in China only 10% of them survive after ten years. The long-standing survival and success of the selected small family business arose from its organizational learning. The local government granted it the title of provincial innovation pilot enterprise due to its patents and intellectual properties, and Provincially Excellent Learning Organization because of the learning and developing programmes for its employees. Learning and development programmes are a significant formal mechanism for organizational learning and knowledge sharing in

the small family business (Zahra, Neubaum & Larrañeta, 2007). Patents and reputations are viewed as compelling evidence of knowledge innovation in manufacturing sectors in China, which is in line with knowledge sharing practices (Motoc, 2020). Hence, the case-study small family business has been considered a 'good practice' for understanding organizational learning and knowledge sharing practices.

The present study will provide a theoretical grounding following this section. A description of the methodology will be presented before the finding and discussion sections. Finally, this paper will also highlight implications for theory and practice in HRD practices within the small family business context and outline some limitations to the study, informing suggestions for future research.

Theoretical underpinning

Organizational learning and knowledge sharing

Organizational learning is "the process of improving actions through better knowledge and understanding" (Fiol & Lyles, 1985, p. 803). It has been studied from two perspectives: a strategic standpoint and from the perspective of organizational behaviour (Yeung, Lai & Yee, 2007). From the strategic standpoint, organizational learning relies on the learning needs of the firm (Iebra Aizpurúa, Zegarra Saldaña & Zegarra Saldaña, 2011). From an organizational behaviour perspective, organizational learning often occurs when the learning process resides among people and the learning culture is established (Yeung, Lai & Yee, 2007). According to Dodgson (2016), organizational learning is more than the sum of individual learning of the members of organizations; however, it needs to be achieved through individual learning through various mechanisms (Argote, 2011). Accordingly, individual learning is significant for organizational learning (Park & Kim, 2018).

Knowledge sharing is a behaviour that makes knowledge available to others (Ipe, 2003). Based on self-determination theory (SDT), it has been perceived as an autonomous behaviour as people have lots of discretion to determine whether to share knowledge through their intrinsic and extrinsic motivations (Stenius, Hankonen, Ravaja & Haukkala, 2016; Gagne, Tian, Soo, Zhang, Ho & Hosszu, 2019). Knowledge in the minds of people can be shared through four mechanisms: contribution of knowledge databases, formal interactions, informal interactions, and communities of practices (Bartol & Srivastava, 2002). The first mechanism is that individuals donate their knowledge to collective knowledge databases (Chai, Gregory & Shi, 2003). Second, formal interactions establish scheduled channels for employees to learn or exchange knowledge (Wen & Wang, 2021). Third, the informal mechanism occurs in informal or unstructured interactions among individuals (Yi, 2009). The last method is communities of practice, involving people sharing ideas on a topic of interest in forums (Jeon, Kim & Koh, 2011). This fashion does not necessarily occur from the same departments, as long as people hold a similar interest in learning (Bartol & Srivastava, 2002).

Knowledge sharing behaviour plays a pivotal role in individual and organizational learning (Yeo, Stubbs & Barrett, 2016; Nugroho, 2018; Fullwood & Rowley, 2021) since organizational learning can be enhanced through knowledge creation, transfer and sharing (Lee, Kim & Kim, 2012). Knowledge sharing also facilitates employees learning from each other and gathering their learning outcomes for practical use throughout the company (Yang, 2007; Yeo, Stubbs & Barrett, 2016). Overall, organizational learning and knowledge sharing are complementary components (Nugroho, 2018). Learning can be perceived as the outcome of knowledge sharing (Swart & Kinnie, 2010), whereas knowledge sharing is one of the mechanisms of organizational learning (Kumaraswamy & Chitale, 2012). As a result, various knowledge sharing mechanisms are likely to help organizational learning in small family businesses.

Due to close and informal social relationships, employees in family businesses often display knowledge transfer in informal ways (Lin, 2013). Zahra, Neubaum & Larrañeta (2007) suggested that the family business could use formal knowledge sharing mechanisms when sharing explicit knowledge and informal fashion for exchanging tacit knowledge. However, the excessive pursuit of formal approaches may result in the sharing of tacit knowledge being less fluid than it could be (Zahra, Neubaum & Larrañeta, 2007); hence, there are needs for small family businesses to adopt various approaches to knowledge sharing for organizational learning.

Knowledge hiding

Knowledge hiding is considered "an attempt by an individual to retain and hide the knowledge that has been requested by someone else" (Connelly, Zweig, Webster & Trougakos, 2012, p. 65). Connelly, Zweig, Webster & Trougakos (2012) also portrayed

three methods of knowledge hiding: evasive, rationalized, and playing dumb. Evasive hiding refers to providing incorrect or misleading information; rationalized hiding occurs when individuals explain not sharing; playing dumb is when individuals pretend not to know or ignore the request for knowledge from others (Connelly, Zweig, Webster & Trougakos, 2012).

In previous studies, knowledge hiding is usually viewed as the opposite or a barrier to knowledge sharing (Chatterjee, Chaudhuri, Thrassou & Vrontis, 2021; Pereira & Mohiya, 2021). It adversely affects individual and organizational performance, such as creativity (Mubarak, Osmadi, Khan, Mahdiyar & Riaz, 2021). Knowledge sharing may bring risks to those who share knowledge, such as losing power (Pereira & Mohiya, 2021). By hiding knowledge, employees can protect themselves (Oliveira, Curado & de Garcia, 2021). At the organizational level, knowledge hiding potentially impairs interpersonal relationships (Connelly & Zweig, 2015) and it also holds back the development of innovative ideas that, subsequently, would help learning among employees, teams and organizations (Dong, Bartol, Zhang & Li, 2017).

Despite knowledge hiding being researched within the last decade, Pereira & Mohiya (2021, p. 369) posited that "the literature on knowledge hiding is in its infancy stage". In family-business research, Hadjielias, Christofi & Tarba (2021) have provided the first empirical evidence of knowledge hiding. Consequently, it is necessary to study knowledge sharing and hiding simultaneously to make sense of how to enhance learning in the small family business context.

Knowledge sharing and hiding in small family businesses

Knowledge sharing and hiding behaviours residing in the organizational process are largely influenced by the corporate context (Cormican, Meng, Sampaio & Wu, 2021). The most overt characteristic of family businesses is that members of the same family are involved in the governance of the business operation and management, otherwise known as family involvement (Botero, Barroso Martinez, Sanguino & Binhote, 2022). Consequently, this characteristic also affects the knowledge sharing and hiding of employees in small family businesses.

Influenced by family involvement, the owner-managers who have a high status in the family often take the leading role in the business (Botero, Barroso Martinez, Sanguino & Binhote, 2022). The leaders in the Chinese family business are actually 'patriarchs' with a higher reputation; thus, most employees will follow them (Zhou, 2019). When leaders support setting up favourable environments, individuals hold open attitudes to knowledge transfer (Zahra, Neubaum & Larrañeta, 2007). By contrast, when owner-managers withhold knowledge by avoiding training and development opportunities for employees (Sparrow, 2001), the perceptions regarding not knowledge sharing will detrimentally affect the employees (Cunningham, Seaman & McGuire, 2017) and, thereby, employees would believe knowledge sharing is undesired behaviour (Botero, Barroso Martinez, Sanguino & Binhote, 2022). Hence, knowledge hiding would occur more regularly (Gagne, Tian, Soo, Zhang, Ho & Hosszu, 2019).

Furthermore, inappropriate treatment of family members in Chinese family businesses fleshes out favouritism (Lin, 2013). Zhou (2019) stated that the owner-managers in Chinese family businesses do not always treat non-family and family members equally concerning promotion, salary, and trust. Family businesses may not value satisfying talented people's psychological needs via reward systems (Zhou, 2019). As a result, non-family employees would feel excluded and distrusted (Lin, 2013). Thus, knowledge hiding may occur in this context (Hadjielias, Christofi & Tarba, 2021).

The culture of family business embodies the beliefs of the founders and is inherited and developed by the leaders from the next generation (Botero, Barroso Martinez, Sanguino & Binhote, 2022). The values of the family outstandingly highlight commitment, working harmony and stability of organizational members, which is available for developing the collective culture (Zhang, Luo & Nie, 2017). According to Zhang, Luo & Nie (2017), Chinese employees working in the collective culture may not perform a particular behaviour that will damage organizational benefits, for instance, knowledge hiding behaviours (Xiong, Chang, Scuotto, Shi & Paoloni, 2021).

Family involvement is beneficial in creating intimate relationships among organizational members (Zhou, 2019; Botero, Barroso Martinez, Sanguino & Binhote, 2022). The relational advantages help conform personal interests to business interests and, therefore, they enhance their mutual dependencies (Zhou, 2019). When facing hardship, the family members will work together to help the company rise with the tide to overcome difficulties (Zhou, 2019). The intense emotional bonds between family and non-family members across the company enhance internal trust to support knowledge transfer

(Cormican, Meng, Sampaio & Wu, 2021). Close interpersonal relationships are particularly prominent in Chinese enterprises because Chinese people are relationship-oriented in their active behaviours (Lin, 2013).

On the other hand, family involvement is fertile ground for conflicts, such as rivalries, jealousy, and exclusion of non-family members (Si, 2020). These conflicts may cause inappropriate treatment of family members (Chrisman, Kellermanns, Chan & Liano, 2010). To avoid conflicts, members may withhold their knowledge (Zahra, Neubaum & Larrañeta, 2007). Meanwhile, conflicts also fracture interpersonal relationships (Motoc, 2020). Therefore, when employees feel excluded and distrusted (Lin, 2013), knowledge hiding is more likely to take place (Hadjielias, Christofi & Tarba, 2021).

Self-determination theory (SDT)

SDT is a critical theory to explain human behaviours by the extent to which three psychological needs are fulfilled, driven by intrinsic or extrinsic motivation (Ryan & Deci, 2000). First, extrinsic motivations, such as rewards and reputation, are the goal-oriented reasons (Ryan & Deci, 2000). Intrinsic motivations from an interest in the activity are associated with a desire for autonomy, competency, and relatedness with other people (Gagne & Deci, 2005). Perceived autonomy concerns the desire people have to self-regulate their actions, varying with their values and lifestyle (Haas, 2019). Competency is aligned with the ability that people can exert (Haas, 2019). Finally, relatedness involves people's sense of belonging to others (Haas, 2019).

The extant literature has presented varied intrinsic and extrinsic motivations for knowledge sharing within SDT. Gagne (2009) stated that people with intrinsic motivations may be susceptible to sharing their knowledge passionately, even when not requested. Cormican, Meng, Sampaio & Wu (2021) found that trust as intrinsic motivation is significantly connected with knowledge sharing. Within SDT, trust and distrust are concerned with the psychological needs of relatedness (Wang & Hou, 2015). Al-Eisa, Furayyan & Alhemoud (2009) argued that motivation to learn directly affects people's motivation to share; thus, learning knowledge sharing motivation can help the learning of employees to ensue.

It has been discovered that extrinsic motivations, particularly monetary rewards, influence knowledge sharing positively or negatively (Islam, Jantan, Khan, Rahman & Monshi, 2018). When people have little interest in an activity, external regulation does increase knowledge sharing (Gagne, Tian, Soo, Zhang, Ho & Hosszu, 2019). However, when knowledge sharing is rewarded, it would be risky for externally motivated individuals to share something useless or unimportant with others; thus, they can maintain their knowledge strength (Cress, Kimmerle & Hesse, 2006).

Individual intrinsic and extrinsic motivations also impact knowledge hiding behaviours. Job insecurity and lack of rewards may increase the probability of knowledge hiding (Nguyen, Malik & Budhwar, 2022). Time pressure renders people prone to hiding knowledge (Chatterjee, Chaudhuri, Thrassou & Vrontis, 2021). As Huo, Cai, Luo, Men & Jia (2016) stated, knowledge hiding occurs when people feel threatened with losing their knowledge ownership. Stenius, Hankonen, Ravaja & Haukkala (2016) discovered that identified motivation, one intrinsic motivation based on SDT, is the best predictor of tacit knowledge sharing; however, if the sense of importance is missing, it may cause knowledge withholding. On the contrary, external motivation is not associated with knowledge sharing but is positively concerned with knowledge hiding (Stenius, Hankonen, Ravaja & Haukkala, 2016).

Limited extant research has applied SDT to the knowledge hiding studies (Gagne, Tian, Soo, Zhang, Ho & Hosszu, 2019; Yang & Lee, 2021) and small family business context (Hadjielias, Christofi & Tarba, 2021). Rezwan & Takahashi (2021) reviewed 88 studies from 2009 to February 2021 and showed that only two studies conducted by Gagne, Tian, Soo, Zhang, Ho & Hosszu (2019) and Stenius, Hankonen, Ravaja & Haukkala (2016) applied SDT to simultaneous knowledge sharing and hiding behaviours. Therefore, SDT is adopted as the theoretical foundation in this study.

Methodological consideration

This paper focuses on data from a large single case study which explored knowledge sharing and hiding in a Chinese family business. The selection criterion of this case study included: (1) registered as a small enterprise in China, (2) would concur research access, and (3) long-standing survival or success due to knowledge innovation capability. Knowledge innovation is concerned with knowledge sharing behaviour through various mechanisms (Bartol & Srivastava, 2002). Furthermore, the case-study company was considered good practice (Yin, 2018) for the field research where the local government granted it the title of "Provincially Excellent

Learning Organization" because of the learning of its employees and its programmes for their development.

Participants and interviews

The sample in this study was chosen through a purposive sampling approach (Bryman & Bell, 2015) based on pre-defined criteria including (1) participants who should have more than a three-year tenure, as an employee becoming a mentor having worked in the case-study company for three years, and those working in the company longer who could better understand the corporate context and who get involved in learning practices more than those working over a shorter period (Chirico, 2008); (2) participants who were often assigned as trainers to guide newcomers or apprentices/ subordinates in knowledge sharing practices; and (3) respondents who were from various positions at different workplace levels, in order to achieve data triangulation and thickness (Denzin & Lincoln, 2011).

Based on the above criteria, the owner-manager of the case-study company (the gatekeeper) identified who was eligible for this research, and then selected suitable participants from three hierarchies (owner-manager, managers, and employees) and different groups (the family and non-family members) to participate in the interview process. The interviews were conducted until no further information emerged, which means reaching theoretical saturation (Charmaz, 2006). Finally, twenty-two employees from three hierarchies and two groups were involved in this study, generating robust findings on knowledge sharing and hiding practices, reasons why employees share and hide knowledge and how both practices affect organizational learning across the small family business studied. All the participants were named by pseudonyms, for example, owner meaning the owner-manager, Mg meaning the manager and Em meaning the employee. The numbers 1-11 stand for the ordinal

Table 1. Summary of the demographic profile of the participants

No.	Departments	Tenure (yr)	Positions	Group (Family or Non-Family)	Coding
1	Administration	4.5	HR	Non-F	Em1
2	Manufacturing	12	Group leader	Non-F	Mg1
3	Supply and sales	3	International business specialist	Non-F	Em2
4	Equipment/tech	27	Manager	Non-F	Mg2
5	Administration	20	Owner	F	Owner-manager
6	Supply and sales	9	Group leader	Non-F	Mg3
7	Administration	6	Accounting	F	Em3
8	Manufacturing	3	Worker	Non-F	Em4
9	Manufacturing	4	Worker	Non-F	Em5
10	Supply and sales	4	Sales	Non-F	Em6
11	Supply and sales	5	Sales	Non-F	Em7
12	Quality testing	11	Quality tester	Non-F	Em8
13	Quality testing	15	Manager	Non-F	Mg4
14	Administration	38	Accounting manager	F	Mg5
15	Quality testing	20	Manager	Non-F	Mg6
16	Manufacturing	19	Manager	F	Mg7
17	Manufacturing	9	Group leader	F	Mg8
18	Administration	20	Manager of the quality management system	F	Mg9
19	Equipment/tech	22	Senior engineer	F	Mg10
20	Supply and sales	8	Manager	F	Mg11
21	Supply and sales	5	Sales	F	Em9
22	Quality testing	11	Worker	Non-F	Em10

number of each manager and employee, as depicted in Table 1.

Knowledge sharing and hiding depend on their motivations (Gagne, Tian, Soo, Zhang, Ho & Hosszu, 2019); therefore, we undertook a cross-sectional documentation analysis followed by semi-structured interviews for participants to respond to how and why they share and hide knowledge. The document analysis helped this study to discover organizational learning and knowledge sharing practices; and other possible reasons for motivating employees to share knowledge, which guided further interviews (Altheide & Schneider, 2012). Then, the semi-structured interview offers a greater degree of latitude to the interviewees to interpret their experiences in knowledge sharing and hiding at the case-study business.

The interview process included ten face-to-face and twelve telephone interviews. The change in interview approaches was due to the outbreak of COVID-19 on 21st February 2020. Each interview lasted around 50-70 minutes and was audio-recorded and transcribed in Chinese. The researcher applied the member-checking method to check and confirm the accuracy of understanding and analysis regarding data from the participants (Easterby-Smith, Thorpe & Jackson, 2021). With the help of a language expert, the transcripts were translated into English. Afterwards, a template analysis approach was used to analyse all qualitative data. The entire data transcription, coding, and analysis processes were achieved using NVivo 12. At last, two themes and two sub-themes were integrated into the final template, as shown in Table 2.

Table 2. Final Template

Main themes
1. Tacit knowledge sharing and hiding practices
1.1 Knowledge sharing practices
1.2 Knowledge hiding practices
2. Reasons for knowledge sharing and hiding
2.1 Corporate context: Family involvement
The role of the owner-manager
Collective culture: 'Big family' culture
Close interpersonal relationships
2.2 Individual motivations for knowledge sharing and hiding
Knowledge sharing: Sense of trust
Knowledge hiding: Sense of distrust
Fears of being replaced by others
Time pressure

Findings

This investigation addressed the gap in studying knowledge sharing and hiding simultaneously at the small family business level. It was explicitly divided into two themes according to the research objectives.

Theme One: Knowledge sharing and hiding practices

The first theme is how employees share and hide their tacit knowledge in the researched company. The employees often shared knowledge through two mechanisms: formal and informal approaches. The formal approaches often took place in formal learning practices, including various training sessions, group sharing activities and regular meetings. That is because the owner-manager valued employee training and learning. Thus, the company organized these formal learning practices for the employees to share knowledge. The owner-manager expressed this result:

> We often select senior engineers and excellent employees to attend external training. When they are back, we will organize the experience-sharing meeting and technical training for the senior engineers to share what they have learned outside. This method can maximize the value of advanced knowledge within a limited budget.

Apart from the formal learning approaches, the employees usually shared their tacit knowledge on informal occasions embedded in social life. Informal interactions happened during interpersonal communication to facilitate the learning of less-experienced employees. Therefore, the participants described the informal

knowledge sharing practices as social interactions at work, as the following quotation shows:

> Young people are better at using the computer than us. So, when I have difficulty using a computer, I'll ask them for help. They can teach me how to use it (Mg5).

Therefore, informal knowledge sharing practices were unstructured methods of sharing and learning. It was an essential aspect of organizational life because "it is impossible that no conversation and sharing takes place among us. Without sharing, the manufacturing tasks could not be achieved punctually and safely" (Mg2).

Along with sharing, people chose various methods to hide knowledge, for instance, telling others they had no time, pretending not to know, or stopping sharing when the conflict happened. Em6 gave evidence of telling others they had no time:

> Answering some questions would take me lots of time and effort. So, I would tell others that I don't have time. Also, after I helped them for the first time, they would repeatedly come to me to ask for help because they would get used to counting on me.

Em1 could pretend not to know the information, as sharing something inappropriate in the workplace may adversely influence her career.

> The newcomers may want to know what the managers like or dislike. However, if I tell them too much, the newcomers may believe that my perceptions are not right after a couple of months. Therefore, I'll hide my experience from the newcomers to protect myself.

Mg11 expressed that keeping silent was a great choice where there are conflicts, as keeping on arguing could not solve problems but may damage the work relationships with their colleagues.

> When arguing different perceptions with others, I will choose to hide knowledge because some colleagues who strongly insist on their own opinions will not modestly receive your help. A continuous argument cannot reach an agreement or solve problems but can ruin interpersonal relations.

To sum up, employees in this company usually used various formal and informal learning styles to share knowledge, which helped less-experienced employees to acquire and learn knowledge. However, experienced employees also hid knowledge by telling others they had no time, pretending not to know or stopping sharing when the conflict happened.

Theme Two: Reasons for knowledge sharing and hiding

The reasons for knowledge sharing and hiding were analysed from the corporate context and individual motivations. In the first place, family involvement in this business formed various organizational characteristics, including the role of the owner-manager, collective culture and close relationships. These characteristics influenced the knowledge sharing and hiding behaviours of employees.

The first outstanding corporate characteristic was the role of the owner-manager. Mg9, who was mainly in charge of the quality management system, stated:

> The training sessions are organized and coordinated by the owner-manager ... Thus, my tasks in sharing knowledge could be completed.

It showed that the owner-manager valued formal mechanisms, such as training, for knowledge sharing and the learning of employees. Meanwhile, the data also demonstrated that the owner-manager often built various off-the-job activities for informal communications. As Em4 demonstrated:

> We have the year-end dinner in a good hotel before the Spring Festival holiday. It is a good chance for us to express ourselves with other departments because we do not have enough time to speak with them daily.

However, some non-family employees conveyed

that the owner-manager favoured the family members in terms of a more flexible timetable, authority, and higher compensations. These situations caused knowledge hiding by non-family employees. Mg2, who was a non-family employee, narrated:

> Apart from the fact that the owner-manager's relatives can come to work later or leave earlier than us without deduction of wages, the more outrageous thing is that some top managers required us to use their names when we applied for and registered the patents. They also attempted to persuade us that all the technological or knowledge creation results should belong to the firm. The unfairness, as a hidden rule, made us uncomfortable.

Through these data, the owner-manager valued learning and knowledge sharing of employees, thereby developing formal and informal approaches to reach these goals. Nevertheless, the owner-manager approach led to various degrees of unfairness between family and non-family members. These situations caused the non-family people to hide their knowledge.

The overarching reason affecting the decisions and actions of the owner-manager was found to be in line with collective corporate culture, as explained by the owner-manager:

> As a fine Chinese tradition, respect for seniority is quite essential in our family. When my father handed over the company to me, he asked me to treat them well. So, I have to agree with them in most cases, although some are not necessarily helpful, especially regarding rewards for knowledge sharing behaviours.

The family members advocated the 'big family' culture, as Mg5 stated: "The knowledge should not be secret. It should belong to the company". This culture deeply influenced not only the perceptions and behaviours of family members but also non-family employees, including with regard to knowledge sharing. The data of Mg1 could illuminate this argument.

> Our owner-manager often says, 'We are the family members'. I am a member of this 'big family'. To make the family better, I would like to contribute my knowledge to other family members.

By contrast, even though agreeing with the 'big family' culture, most non-family people felt stressed when the top managers excessively emphasized it and pushed them to behave in ways that followed that value. As a result, they opted to hide their knowledge. A non-family manager demonstrated this:

> Some top managers required to use their names to register the patents instead of mine. In fact, they did nothing. Meanwhile, they also told me that: 'all the knowledge should belong to the firm, as the company is our big family'. This unfair excuse makes me hide my knowledge (Mg2).

The above viewpoints from family and non-family people revealed that the 'big family' culture represents a collective corporate culture in this small family business. Therefore, it could trigger employees to share and hide knowledge simultaneously.

Furthermore, under the 'big family' culture, the workplace interpersonal relationships among employees were intimate. Many participants perceived the relationship with their colleagues as 'friendship' in this company. It was the foundation for employees to share knowledge because they increased their sense of trust toward the people who received knowledge from them. As Mg1 described:

> Even if I have different viewpoints from others, I would like to solve the disagreements through sharing instead of hiding knowledge or having no conversation. After discussing it, we are still close friends, as usual.

Surprisingly, the data from two participants revealed

that this type of friendship could also drive their knowledge hiding when they found that other people whose relationships were intimate to them were making mistakes in public. That was because pointing out the mistakes of colleagues openly might lead to others losing face and their friendship being destroyed. As explained by Em8:

> When I see that my peers work in the wrong way in public, I cannot correct their mistakes openly because if I directly do so, they'll feel embarrassed, and I would also feel embarrassed. This would also damage our friendship.

To summarise, influences by family involvement, the corporate characteristics, including the role of the owner-manager, collective culture, and close interpersonal relationships, triggered knowledge sharing and hiding behaviours and coincidently impacted employee motivations for these behaviours. For example, supported by the owner-manager, the collective culture and close friendship could enhance the sense of trust of employees towards their colleagues; thereby, knowledge sharing fostered the learning of other people. By contrast, the same corporate environment made employees distrust and fear being replaced by others. Hence, they chose to hide tacit knowledge, which was less instrumental for the learning of employees at work, although some reasons were not necessarily detrimental to the company, for example, protecting friendships.

Family involvement characteristics produced individual motivations for sharing and hiding behaviours. The sense of trust was the salient motivation for knowledge sharing practices. This argument was underpinned by the statement from Em5.

> It depends on whom I will share. If the audience is those whose relationship is close to me, I'll enjoy sharing my experience as much as I can. However, if sharing is with those with whom I rarely communicate, I may not share too much because I don't have to help those whom I don't trust too much.

On the other side, this statement also illustrated that, to some extent, a sense of distrust might lead employees to hide knowledge. Em2 told a story about this argument.

> There was a newcomer joining our department, called L. One colleague told me something negative about him, which brought me a bad impression of him. So, when the manager assigned me as his mentor, I was reluctant to teach him. Therefore, I only introduced the basic and superficial things to deceive him.

Another motivation for knowledge hiding was fear of being replaced by others because the owner-manager was more likely to provide better treatment to the family members than the non-family. This made the non-family worry about being replaced by other colleagues if they shared the core knowledge. The following perception from Em2 demonstrates why they had this fear:

> I spent much time learning the export laws and operating. When another colleague wanted to know, I would generally talk about it, not in detail. This was how I kept my knowledge ownership.

The company adopted a "996" timetable, meaning that employees worked from 9 a.m. to 9 p.m. each day and six days per week. Due to the favouritism of the owner-manager, the family members did not necessarily follow this regulation strictly. Nevertheless, the non-family members could not break this rule. Thus, this situation made them generate much psychological burden and dissatisfaction. Also, working overtime led to an imbalance between work and life. Therefore, the non-family people preferred hiding knowledge. As Em3 expressed:

> No matter how hard I work, the top managers do not want to offer a bonus. They only care about their interests. Following this crazy timetable, I felt that I am just a working machine. Therefore, why shouldn't I hide knowledge to play dumb?

Due to the favouritism of the owner-manager, the family members could obtain bonuses in their

monthly wages, but the non-family members could not do so. Hence, the non-family employees shortened external motivations to share knowledge; as such, knowledge hiding happened. As Em1 stated:

> Compared to our province's average salary, our wages are below this level. Besides, there is no bonus on our monthly wage. It doesn't inspire me to share knowledge because knowledge sharing tasks are beyond my job duties.

As concluded, influenced by the corporate context, a sense of trust was discovered as the primary intrinsic motivation for knowledge sharing, whereas a sense of distrust, fear of being replaced by others and time pressure were the inside drivers for hiding caused by unfairness. Additionally, a lack of bonuses might engender non-family employees to hide knowledge. It was evident that the bonuses were external motivations for knowledge sharing. These motivations for knowledge hiding were likely to be unhelpful for the learning of their colleagues in the company. Interestingly, all the family members conveyed that nothing made them hide knowledge because sharing knowledge helps employees' learning to be enabled, achieving common goals for their family and business.

Discussion and conclusion

This study aims to investigate how a small family business enhances learning in the workplace by exploring: (1) how employees share and hide their knowledge; and (2) why they share and hide tacit knowledge.

The methods of knowledge sharing and hiding

The findings illustrate that the small family business adopts formal and informal learning approaches for knowledge sharing. It differs from the previous outcomes in which people prefer sharing knowledge in informal ways because of the small size of family businesses (Cunningham, Seaman & McGuire, 2017). As Zahra, Neubaum & Larrañeta, (2007) suggested, formal knowledge sharing practices should apply to help knowledge sharing in family firms; however, in the meantime, the family businesses need to notice that these approaches may cause knowledge sharing to be less flexible than it could be. Therefore, the case-study business has a wise approach to helping employees learn (Nugroho, 2018; Park & Kim, 2018; Fullwood & Rowley, 2021) in a combination of formal and informal learning mechanisms.

Meanwhile, employees often use rationalized and playing dumb methods to hide knowledge, concerned with the classification of Connelly, Zweig, Webster & Trougakos (2012). Precisely, when telling others they have no time, employees explained rejection of knowledge sharing when their colleagues asked for help (Connelly, Zweig, Webster & Trougakos, 2012). As such, it tends to be rationalized hiding. Furthermore, whilst employees pretend not to know the expertise or ignore the knowledge requested within these knowledge-hiding behaviours, these hiding behaviours conform to playing-dumb hiding (Connelly, Zweig, Webster & Trougakos, 2012). Hence, it indicates that employees primarily used playing dumb and rationalized methods to hide their tacit knowledge; however, no evident evasive hiding behaviours have been found in the studied company.

The above situations occur, primarily, due to the collective culture. Zhang, Luo & Nie (2017) stated that Chinese employees in the collective culture might not perform a particular behaviour that will do harm to the company. Evasive hiding is detrimental to this company because delivering false knowledge to mislead other people will "make my colleagues get into trouble at work" (Em6). Working in the 'big family' culture, employees play dumb to protect interpersonal relationships as soon as they realize that sharing knowledge might bring conflicts to their colleagues. Hence, playing dumb becomes the principal method for knowledge hiding rather than deliberately sharing false expertise. Nevertheless, regardless of which method employees use, it is evident that knowledge hiding is not helpful for organizational learning because hiding behaviours impede the opportunities for knowledge delivery and mutual learning among employees (Mubarak, Osmadi, Khan, Mahdiyar & Riaz, 2021).

Reasons for knowledge sharing and hiding

Our study explains the reasons for simultaneous knowledge sharing and hiding from the corporate context of family involvement and individual motivations based on SDT. From the corporate context perspective, the support of the owner-manager, the 'big family' culture and intimate relationships enhance the sense of trust of employees towards their colleagues; thereby, knowledge sharing occurs to enhance learning in

the studied company (Nugroho, 2018; Park & Kim, 2018).

Conversely, the same corporate context results in the owner-manager showing unfairness between family and non-family members in terms of the privileges of the family members, inequal compensations and working hours, even though she knows these issues may cause knowledge hiding of non-family people, which is not instrumental to organizational learning; these findings are consistent with Zhou (2019). Owner-managers in Chinese family businesses are challenging to treat non-family and family members equally concerning promotion, salary, and trust (Zhou, 2019).

In this case, knowledge hiding behaviours concur with sharing by impeding the motivations of people for sharing and generating motivations for hiding (Stenius, Hankonen, Ravaja & Haukkala, 2016). On one side, the '996' timetable or no bonuses makes non-family people feel loss in motivation for knowledge sharing, thereby undermining their well-being in sharing (Stenius, Hankonen, Ravaja & Haukkala, 2016). Meanwhile, these circumstances render the non-family people distrustful of their colleagues and fearful of being substituted. Hence, they decide to hide knowledge instead of sharing it.

Within SDT, intrinsic motivations from an interest in the activity are associated with an inherent desire for autonomy, competency, and relatedness (Gagne & Deci, 2005). Thus, trust can be viewed as intrinsic motivation for knowledge sharing in this study because employees feel happy when sharing knowledge with those they trust, which arises from their internal well-being of relatedness (Haas, 2019). Meanwhile, differential treatments enable non-family people to distrust their colleagues because their knowledge may be learned by others, and they fear being replaced at work. Time pressure caused by the '996' timetable concerns the intrinsic autonomy of people, namely, their desire to self-regulate their actions according to their values and lifestyles (Haas, 2019). At this point, distrust and psychological pressure from unfair treatment may impede intrinsic motivation for knowledge sharing of non-family employees and generate motivation for knowledge hiding.

By contrast, low compensations inspire non-family people to hide knowledge because sharing knowledge is an extra workload, but they cannot obtain corresponding returns. Performing knowledge sharing and hiding appear to be goal-oriented behaviours in line with whether they can be satisfied by external incentives (Ryan & Deci, 2000). Thus, herein, external incentives could be considered extrinsic motivations for knowledge sharing and hiding.

Taking all consequences together (see Table 3), the family-involvement characteristic positively influences intrinsic motivations for knowledge sharing–trust; thus, employees could autonomously participate in workplace formal and informal sharing activities to help the learning of other colleagues. However, meanwhile, this contextual characteristic also engenders unfairness toward non-family members, undermining their sharing motivation and bringing about their hiding motivations concurrently — distrust, fears of being replaced by others and time pressure. As a result, knowledge hiding occurs to impede organizational learning.

Table 3. Methods and reasons for knowledge sharing and hiding behaviours

Behaviours	Description	Reasons	Outcomes to learning
Knowledge sharing	Formal and informal	Organizational: The owner-manager's support, the 'big family' culture and intimate relationships	Helpful
		Motivational:	
		Intrinsic: Trust and confidence Extrinsic: Rewards	
Knowledge hiding	Rationalized and playing-dumb	Organizational: Unfairness in terms of the privileges of the family members, inequal compensations and working hours; interpersonal relationships	Impeding
		Motivational:	
		Distrust, fears of being replaced and time pressure	
		Extrinsic: Lack of rewards	

This paper investigated knowledge sharing and hiding simultaneously in a small Chinese family business. Employees often shared knowledge during formal and informal activities, whereas, at the same time, they also hid knowledge by rationalized and playing-dumb approaches. Both sharing and hiding behaviours were triggered by intrinsic and extrinsic motivations affected by family-involvement characteristics in the case-study company. It was worth noting that unfairness toward the non-family group was the main reason for the knowledge hiding phenomenon. When experienced people shared knowledge in formal and informal circumstances, their colleagues were able to learn new skills and expertise. However, as soon as knowledge hiding took place, it impeded the learning pathway for less-experienced people; as a result, knowledge hiding was not helpful for organizational learning in the small family business.

Implications to HRD theory and practices

Our study has two implications for HRD theory. First, this study contributes to extending the understanding of organizational learning in a small family business from knowledge sharing and hiding perspectives. The outcomes show that employees often choose formal and informal knowledge sharing styles to help the learning of colleagues; coincidentally, they also use playing dumb and rationalize methods to hide knowledge, which is not beneficial for organizational learning. These behaviours are primarily affected by the family involvement context in small family businesses and the intrinsic motivations of employees. Furthermore, these consequences also reflect the contributions to a new research topic in knowledge management studies - simultaneous knowledge sharing and hiding, which is a significant field of HRD (McGuire, 2014).

Second, the current paper provides valuable evidence on knowledge hiding behaviours in the HRD field (Wang, Han, Xiang & Hampson, 2018; Yang & Lee, 2021) based on SDT. In this project, distrust and psychological pressure from unfair treatment may be motivations for knowledge hiding associated with internal needs of people of relatedness, competence and autonomy (Haas, 2019). By contrast, monetary incentives (bonuses) as external motivations (Ryan & Deci, 2000) concurrently affect the sharing and hiding behaviours of employees, which either helps or impedes organizational learning in the small family business context. Consequently, SDT enables a deepening understanding of how knowledge sharing and hiding influence organizational learning or HRD from a motivational dimension.

Practically, the case-study company is a 'good practice' for understanding organizational learning in the small family business context. Differing from the majority of previous literature (Cunningham, Seaman & McGuire, 2017), the small family business studied applies formal learning approaches in combination with informal interactions to encourage experienced employees to share knowledge rather than in a singular style (Zahra, Neubaum & Larrañeta, 2007). It facilitates less-experienced people to learn and acquire knowledge and enhance creativity. Moving forward, knowledge sharing practices among individuals bring knowledge to the organization, strengthening knowledge innovativeness that is most valuable for survivability for the case-study company. Thus, this case study may reference HRD practices in a broader context, especially in the post-covid period.

Moreover, this research can make decision-makers in small family businesses mindful of various individual motivations for knowledge sharing and hiding. In doing so, they may take appropriate HRD actions to enhance the sharing motivations of employees and improve their hiding motivations in the long and short run. In the long run, decision-makers should use the 'big family' culture wisely because it renders the co-occurrence of knowledge sharing and hiding and influences employee learning. Remarkably, unfairness between the family and non-family employees caused by the 'big family' culture is the primary reason for knowledge hiding. Establishing an advantageous culture and resolving the conventional unfairness in this context is challenging and time consuming. Therefore, in this context, owner-managers need to consider building a long-standing and helpful culture and solving unfair issues to motivate experienced members to share knowledge and facilitate less-experienced members to learn.

In the short term, it is urgent that practitioners should pay attention to improving the compensation and working hours of junior employees. Recognition and rewarding practices could increase the confidence of employees and trust in the company. Meanwhile, the dearth of rewards and long working hours for non-family people engender their psychological burden. In the period post COVID-19, it is pivotal for small family businesses to care for the mental health of employees and to offer flexible working hours. Through various HRD practices, improving matters with regards to these problems may be beneficial to recovering the motivations of employees for

knowledge sharing and lessening the motivations for knowledge hiding in a short period. To this end, it is likely to enhance organizational learning.

Limitations and suggestions for future research

This paper envisages suggestions for further investigations. At first, although interviewing twenty-two participants in a single case study could produce an in-depth understanding of knowledge hiding, it may limit the generalization of findings to a broader context (Easterby-Smith, Thorpe & Jackson, 2021). A single case study was conducted in China. Thus, it is possible to infer similar outcomes in other countries. Significantly, the current study discovered the typical representation of the collective culture dimensions, which varies from other cultures. Therefore, it is suggested that subsequent researchers could consider probing parallel topics through multiple comparative case study approaches in more nations that share common or contrasting contextual features. Second, this paper suggests that future scholars and practitioners may consider measuring correlations among the concepts of individual motivations, contextual factors, knowledge sharing, hiding, and organizational learning.

Summary

To conclude, this paper responds to a call for future research on learning in SMEs and provides valuable evidence on the enhancement of organizational learning in a Chinese small family business. The consequences can contribute to future research and practices within Chinese family businesses and SMEs and facilitate key decision-makers being mindful of the significance of knowledge sharing and hiding to organizational learning in the post-COVID-19 period. Our study advances a focus on HRD in SMEs from knowledge sharing and hiding perspectives.

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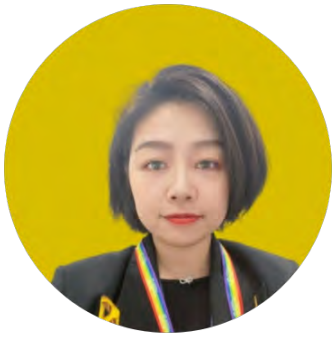

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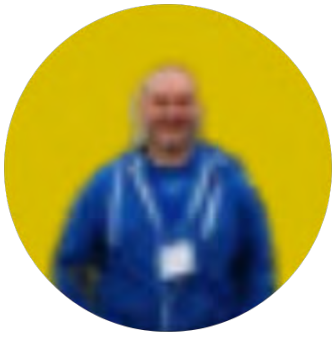

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Rebooting Feminist Research in HRD: Shifting from Gender Binary to Gender Diversity

Tomika W. Greer, Laura Bierema, Weixin He and Eunbi Sim

This article traces the history of Bierema's (2002) "A Feminist Approach to HRD Research," and extends and reconceptualizes her framework by exploring key contrasts between early feminist research and critical feminist research 20 years later, discussing the key lexicons that define current feminist research, and considering how feminist research can be more inclusive and resist binary thinking, essentialism, heterosexism, and cisnormativity in HRD. This article reconceptualizes critical feminist research that is grounded in a multidimensional, intersectional gender diversity framework.

Keywords: feminist research, gender diversity, intersectionality, human resource development

Purpose and Overview

Feminist approaches to Human Resource Development (HRD) began appearing in the early 2000s (Bierema & Cseh, 2003; Howell et al., 2002; Hughes, 2000; Metcalfe, 2008) in reaction to research that ignored gender in data collection, analysis, and implications. In 2002, Laura L. Bierema published "A Feminist Approach to HRD Research" in Human Resource Development Review (HRDR). The article marked one of the first descriptions of how to use a feminist lens for HRD research. Ways of defining, understanding, discussing, and studying gender during the ensuing 20 years have become more diverse, nuanced, and intersectional, making a revisiting of Bierema's work overdue.

The purpose of this article is to extend and reconceptualize Bierema's (2002) Feminist HRD Research Framework using a critical, feminist lens to critique existing definitions, reconceptualize HRD feminist research, and investigate the needed shift from gender binary to gender diversity in HRD. The research questions include:

What are the key contrasts between early feminist research and feminist research today?

What are the key lexicons that define feminist research?

How can feminist research be more inclusive and resist binary thinking, essentialism, heterosexism, and cisnormativity in HRD?

Historical Perspectives on Bierema's (2002) Feminist HRD Research Framework

Bierema's (2002) HRDR article, "A Feminist Approach to Research in HRD", began as a 1998 symposium for the Academy of Human Resource Development (AHRD) conference held in Oak Brook, IL, USA. The paper was part of an "Advances in Qualitative Research" symposium that was proposed by its conveners out of frustration

over a lack of methodological diversity in the AHRD at that time. Other topics and panelists included: "Case Study and Its Virtuosos Possibilities," by Verna J. Willis; "The Promise of Narrative Research in HRD," by Ann K. Brooks; "HRD Theory Building through Qualitative Research," by Carol D. Hansen; and "Updating the Critical Incident Technique after Forty-four Years," by Andrea D. Ellinger and Karen E. Watkins. Bierema's symposium paper on feminist research in HRD was recognized with an ARHD "10 Best Papers Award" for the 1998 conference, and subsequently published in HRDR (Bierema, 2002). Bierema's research in this area evolved into other publications (e.g., Bierema & Cseh, 2003; Bierema et al., 2002). The early 2000s also marked the first Critical HRD symposium at the 2002 conference entitled "Critical Thinking in HRD—A Panel Led Discussion" (Elliott & Turnbull, 2002). The symposium convened HRD scholars and practitioners (Carole Elliott, Monica Lee, Jim McGoldrick, Linda Periton, Dani Truty, John Truty, Sharon Turnbull, Sandra Watson, and Jonathan Winterton) in exploring critical management theory and research relevance to the HRD field.

When Bierema presented her symposium paper in 1998, AHRD was five years old, being formed in 1993. The association leadership was predominantly white men who, early in AHRD's history, blocked the creation of a special interest group (SIG) focused on women's issues. Although AHRD has since become more welcoming to issues of diversity, equity, inclusion, and belonging, it was several years later when the Diversity and Critical HRD SIGs were created and approved by AHRD leadership. In 2013, the AHRD acknowledged critical HRD research by creating the Laura Bierema Excellence in Critical HRD Award.

During 2018, Bierema presented a keynote address at the University Forum for Human Resource Development (UFHRD) Conference in Newcastle, England. At that time, she introduced a reboot of her 2002 model of feminist HRD research, which we extend in this article. The keynote address inspired a special issue of Human Resource Development International, focused on gender hegemony and its impact on HRD research and practice (Callahan & Elliott, 2020). The volume included a summary and musings on Bierema's UFHRD keynote remarks (Bierema, 2020). The 2020 article was born in Bierema's preparation for the 2018 UFHRD conference and reflects her understanding that scholarship on gender requires ongoing learning, fluidity, and intersectionality.

Creating Knowledge in HRD through Feminist Research

Creating new knowledge is vital to HRD practitioners and researchers. Emerging in the mid-twentieth century, the HRD field was heavily influenced by humanism and paralleled developments in adult education. Over time, performative masculine viewpoints and theorists dominated and continue to prevail. Yet, important feminine views helped shape the HRD field, including Parker Follett (1925) who urged:

> One of the greatest values of controversy is its revealing nature. The real issues at stake come into the open and have the possibility of being reconciled…. There are three ways of dealing with difference: domination, compromise, and integration. By domination only one side gets what it wants; by compromise neither side gets what it wants; by integration we find a way by which both sides may get what they wish. (Metcalf & Urwick, 2004, p. 2)

HRD practice and research has been performance-oriented, masculine-dominated, and western-centered. HRD has not been overly concerned with issues of diversity, equity, inclusion, heterosexism, racism, discrimination, or other issues of oppression and marginalization in organizations or society. Based on human performance technology and human capital theory, the purpose of HRD has been generally acknowledged as increasing the profits and competitive advantage of companies (e.g., Carnevale et al., 1990; Jacobs, 1987; and Swanson et al., 2001), which was also regarded as good for all employees in the name of personal development.

The early 2000s saw the rise of critical HRD when HRD's performative views were critiqued, and the field was challenged to be more reflexive and critical of its practices and perspectives. The rise of critical HRD paralleled the first calls for feminist research in HRD. Frontier feminist research in HRD critiqued invisible women in HRD research and provoked a feminist approach in HRD (Bierema,

2002; Bierema & Cseh, 2003; Howell et al., 2002). Although the number of women in leadership positions is still insufficient and women are still being marginalized in workplaces, research on women has become more visible in HRD literature for 20 years. For instance, women's experiences and voices have emerged; gender (usually either women or men) has been utilized as a significant variable for analysis; and women have been included in the data analysis in HRD research (e.g., Diehl et al. 2020; Germain et al. 2012; Hirudayaraj & Clay, 2019).

The core concepts in feminist research are about sex, gender, race, discrimination, equality, difference, and choice. However, there is no single terminology or concept that defines feminist research. Nonetheless, feminist research focuses on certain key elements as defining features. Ollivier and Tremblay (2000) identified three defining principles of feminist research: 1) feminist research aims to construct new knowledge and advocate social change; 2) feminist research is grounded in feminist values and beliefs; and 3) feminist research is characterized by its diversity and is constantly being redefined due to the evolution of societal change. Therefore, in this article, we build on the feminist research in HRD perspective introduced by Bierema in 2002 and update the framework to accommodate the shifts, new understandings, and diversity in gender identity and expression we have learned in the last 20 years.

Critiquing Gender Binary Discourse

Traditionally, gender discourse in HRD has been essentializing (e.g., women do X, men do Y) problematizing the contradictions placed on women in organizations and society (e.g., women should be aggressive, but not too aggressive) or challenging the oppression of women in life and work. Studies have drawn conclusions, for example, that women leaders tended to utilize accommodative strategies, and democratic and transformational leadership styles more than men leaders did (Chapman, 1975; Van Engen & Willemsen, 2004). These studies reinforced stereotypes and gender norms while also dichotomizing gender as either "female" or "male," producing gender binary discourses despite counteractive studies that rejected essentializing gender. For instance, past research concluded there were no statistical differences between women's and men's leadership styles (Andersen & Hansson, 2011; Oshagbemi & Gill, 2003).

Feminist research in HRD which reproduced gender binary discourse has inadvertently fortified hegemonic masculinity, legitimizing men's social dominance by justifying the marginalization of women and non-masculine men. Gender binary discourses have fixed men as gender norms, which reproduce gender hegemony by reinforcing hierarchy in gender (Knights & Kerfoot, 2004). In the gender binary discourse, whereas men have been regarded as "The One," women were grouped into "The Other," which pushed women to overcome the negativity of otherness to meet the standard that "The One" made (Beauvoir, 1972). Furthermore, "often coupled with biological essentialism, [gender binary] eras[es] the existence of intersex bodies and transgender identities" (Robinson et al., 2017, p.310).

The gender binary perspective also aggravated cisnormativity and heteronormativity in organizations by marginalizing gender and sexual minorities (GSMs). "Cisnormativity is the root of unawareness about transgender experiences because it suggests that transgender people do not exist or, that if they do, their numbers are so minuscule that the average person does not need to know about their existence" (Robinson et al., 2017, p. 303). Similarly, "heteronormativity is a societal hierarchical system that privileges and sanctions individuals based on presumed binaries of gender and sexuality; as a system it defines and enforces beliefs and practices about what is 'normal' in everyday life" (Toomey et al., 2012, p. 188). As such, cisnormativity and heteronormativity in organizations are rooted systems that reproduce normativity in gender and sexuality while disregarding the existence and lives of GSMs.

Disregarding fluidity in sexuality and gender, the gender binary approach has disallowed queering gender identity and has regarded GSMs as peculiar and odd group members. GSMs have experienced formal discrimination (e.g., employment), informal discrimination and stigmatization (e.g., social interaction), and microaggression (e.g., incorrect pronouns) in the workplace, which has been likely to lead to their career setback, economic disparities, and psychological pressure and diseases (Collins et al., 2015; Gedro, 2010; Köllen, 2018; Sawyer et al., 2016). Dray et al.'s (2020) experimental research revealed that fictitious co-workers' likability and perceived job performance were most negatively rated by participants when their gender was reported as nonbinary. These challenges could not be easily overcome because the binary approach has obscured and blinded experiences of GSMs and reproduced heteronormative and cisnormative discourses in HRD research.

Feminist research needs to challenge assumptions of fixed identity and ontological essentialism of the subject since the assumptions were "set within the terms of a hegemonic cultural discourse predicated on binary structures that appear as the language of universal rationality" (Butler, 1999, p.13). For example, feminist strategies that either emulate or usurp men (or masculinity) supposed that there is one single, universal standard of truth from which deviations are inferior (Hekman, 1999). This gender binary discourse confines women individuals to subjects of masculine supremacy, which oppresses women and obstructs the development of gender equality (Knights & Kerfoot, 2004).

Feminist organization scholars have criticized organization studies for having gendered limitations, particularly around stances of "gender neutrality," and "objectivity" of knowledge while overlooking gender inequities in the workplace (Benschop & Verloo, 2011; 2015). Hatch (2012) observed that organization and management theory remains silent about gender and that gendered work is marginalized (Alvesson & Billing, 2009). Although emerging from humanist roots, contemporary HRD is more aligned with neoliberal performative capitalist interests than upholding issues of oppression and marginalization in organizations or a society that addresses diversity, equity, inclusion, heterosexism, racism, discrimination

For example, the post-feminist movement buttressed the binary approach with individualized measures that focused on fixing women, masquerading as research for women. Based on neo-liberalism, post-feminist research (e.g., Sandberg, 2013) stressed women's complete responsibility for well-being while disavowing the structural system that has oppressed marginalized groups. From the viewpoint of privileged women (e.g., White, Western Europe/U.S. citizen, heterosexual, cisgender, able-bodied, middle to upper-class women), the post-feminist research individualized challenges that women faced in organizations and denied the existence of other oppressed, marginalized women groups (e.g., women of color, transgender, lesbian, disabled, poverty to working-class women). The post-feminist movement stepped on a rake by producing a discourse that merely being a woman was a deficit and by encouraging women employees to embrace or emulate masculinity.

Although post-feminism seems to go along with the current trends of the 'post-' movements (e.g., post-structuralism, posthumanism) the post-feminist movement does not follow the core agenda of the other post-movements that deconstruct dominant understanding because the post-feminist movement rather solidifies the dominant understanding. Despite their intention to increase women's power in organizations, the post-feminist studies engendered unintended consequences that boosted gender hegemony. This recent approach to gender shows how neoliberalism that highlights individuals' freedom of choice exercised an evil influence on feminist research.

Key Lexicons that Define Inclusive Feminist Research

Cornell University Library's Research Guide to Feminist, Gender, and Sexuality Studies (Cornell, 2022) stated that the terminology/vocabulary and the scholarship on feminism, gender, and sexuality has changed markedly since 2000. The American Psychological Association's (APA) Key Terms in Understanding Gender Diversity and Sexual Orientation Among Students (2015) also revealed that the language around gender and sexuality continues to evolve rapidly. Lexicons and concepts and their definitions change or become refined as our understanding of complex constructs related to sexuality and gender evolves. For example, some lexicons and concepts, such as "cisnormativity" and "intersectionality," are not yet seen as entries in some encyclopedias. It reveals that lexicons have evolved since the third wave feminist movement, which is characterized by making feminism more inclusive and intersectional. Therefore, it is important to explicitly and consciously articulate our current understanding of the lexicons and concepts that define feminist research.

Our conceptual paper uses a critical HRD lens to critique existing definitions, reconceptualize feminist research, and investigate the needed shift from gender hegemony to gender diversity in HRD. Some key lexicons that help define feminist research include, but are not limited to, the following:

a. Gender Binary: A traditional term that refers to the gender duality of thought and language. The key binary opposition which structures much feminist theory is between sex and gender (Andermahr, 1997). For feminist researchers, this gender binary concept limits complete understanding of the complexity of gender, which is not "black and white/male and female" in our evolving human society. Thus, feminist research challenges binary op-

positions precisely because they imply hierarchies, which are maintained through control and dominance. Further, feminists assert that dualisms are gendered, that they reflect the fundamental dichotomy of male/female, wherein the male is privileged over the female.

b. Gender Identity: Personal sense of self as female or male in terms of behaviors, attitudes, interests, and orientations. The term was coined by Robert J. Stoller in 1964 and popularized by John Money (Unge, 2001). Most people adhere to gender identity which includes expectations of masculinity and femininity in all aspects of sex and gender: biological sex, gender identity, and gender expression. However, some people do not identify with some, or all, of the aspects of gender assigned to their biological sex, such as those who are transgender, non-binary, or genderqueer.

c. Gender Diversity: This is an umbrella term that is used to describe gender identities that demonstrate a diversity of expression beyond the binary framework. Simply, gender diversity is beyond masculine and feminine. Gender diversity is about acknowledging and respecting that there are many ways to identify outside of the gender binary. Feminist research sees that a high priority on the respect and celebration of gender diversity issues will greatly contribute to the reduction of gender bias (Worell, 2001).

d. Gender Role: This term refers to the patterns "of appearance, personality, and behavior that, in a given culture, [are] associated with being a boy/man/male or being a girl/woman/female". Gender role may or may not be consistent with one's assigned sex at birth. Gender role can also reflect one's social role and interactions with others, "with some role characteristics conforming and others not conforming to what is associated with girls/women or boys/men in a given culture and time" (APA, 2015, p. 21).

e. Transgender: This term describes the mismatch between one's assigned biological sex and their felt identity. Transgender can include people who do not feel that they fit into the gender binary structure, as well as those who feel they are perceived in the wrong gender. These individuals may not necessarily desire surgical or hormonal gender reassignment (APA, 2015).

f. Cisgender and cisnormativity: Cisgender describes someone whose internal sense of gender corresponds with the sex that person had or was assigned at birth. Cisnormativity is the belief that cisgender orientations are the default and only acceptable lifestyle.

g. Sexual Orientation: Refers to the sex of those to whom one is sexually and romantically attracted. An individual's sexual orientation may be lesbian, gay, heterosexual, bisexual, queer, pansexual, or asexual. A person may be attracted to men, women, both, neither, genderqueer, androgynous or have other gender identities. Sexual orientation is distinct from sex, gender identity, gender role and gender expression (APA, 2015).

h. Queer: This umbrella term describes sexual orientation, gender identity, or gender expression which is not consistent with dominant social norms. Many GSMs embrace this label as a positive description despite the historic derogatory use of the term (APA, 2015).

i. Intersectionality: Coined by civil rights activist and professor Kimberlé Crenshaw (1991), this term refers to the complex, cumulative ways in which the effects of multiple forms of discrimination (such as racism, sexism, and classism) combine, overlap, or intersect, especially in the experiences of marginalized individuals or groups (Merriam-Webster). Feminist research tends to use intersectional approach as a framework, considering the many different aspects of identity, such as gender, race, class, sexuality, ethnicity, religion, and age, that can both enrich individual's lives and lead them to be faced with oppression and discrimination.

j. DEI (diversity, equity, and inclusion): A term used to describe policies and programs that promote the representation and participation of different groups of individuals, including people of different ages, races and ethnicities, abilities and disabilities, genders, religions, cultures, and sexual orientations.

In the new millennium we find a series of terms designed to contest a binary conception of gender and to redefine our understanding of diverse gender identities. Feminist research places emphasis on self-identification because twenty-first century terminology addresses whether or not one feels "congruent" with the biological sex with which one was born. In Western cultures, gender is traditionally treated as binary and fixed to which a person is commonly assigned a gender based on biological characteristics and responds accordingly.

However, one can experience considerable variation in one's gender roles, identity, and behavior across contexts and time. Gender should, therefore, be considered a dynamic process rather than a fixed construct. As a result, how one defines what is appropriate for one's sex and the development of these changing definitions for identity are at the heart of the discussion of gender roles from feminist research perspectives.

Shifting from Gender Hegemony to Gender Diversity in HRD Research

Based on a review of handbooks of adult and continuing education (1989-2010), adult education research conference proceedings (1993-2017), and journals sponsored by the AHRD (2008-2018), Bierema and Grace (2020) found that gender discourse has started to move from cisgender focus to intersectionality, understanding gender with other social identities and categories. However, studies report that topics regarding gender (e.g., feminism, intersectionality, gender identity, transgender, gender hegemony) are still rare in HRD publications (Bierema, 2020; Bierema & Grace, 2020). Especially, gender identities, gender expressions, and transgender issues have been undervalued in HRD (Collins et al., 2015).

Fortunately, queering the gender binary approach and advocating for gender diversity has started to emerge in organizational studies (Bierema, 2020; Collins, 2015; Collins et al., 2015; Dray et al., 2020; Fine, 2017; Köllen, 2018; Kroese, 2022; Ozturk & Tatl, 2016; Paisley & Tayar, 2016; Sawyer et al., 2016; Schmidt et al., 2012; Schwartz et al., 2017; Robinson et al., 2017; Rumens et al., 2019; Worst & O'Shea, 2020). These studies pointed out the essentialism and binary understanding of gender in HRD research, reported discrimination and oppression in organizations as experienced by GSMs, and suggested how HRD scholarship and practices should proceed toward gender diversity. For example, organizations need to devise their diversity strategies and policies to shape inclusive culture for transgender workers (Collins et al., 2015; Ozturk & Tatl, 2016); HR professionals need to understand and lead on these issues rather than being reactive (Schmidt et al., 2012; Schwartz et al., 2017); and employee training should shift from gender-neutral to sex/gender-sensitive, which promotes contextualized, intersectional, and non-binary understanding of gender (Kroese, 2022).

We advocate for rebooting feminist research in HRD toward gender diversity and intersectionality. The first step in this shift is understanding the differences between gender hegemony and gender diversity, which are contrasted in Table 2. "Gender hegemony is the oppressive privileging of heterosexual masculinity ('hegemonic masculinity') and hetero-normativity in ways that justify patriarchy and reinforce men's power, [...and...] the subordination of femininity and other masculinities (e.g., the subordination of gay men to heterosexual men) to hegemonic masculinity" (Bierema, 2020, p. 476). Hegemonic discourse positions the male or masculine as normal visible today in terms such as chairMAN or MANkind. Hegemonic practices have created the gender pay gap, inequitable laws and policies for GSMs, and hegemonic mindsets that perpetuate sexism, cisgenderism, and heterosexism.

The oppressive and heterosexist gender hegemony stems from the notion that gender is binary (Bierema, 2020). By gender as a binary, we mean interpreting gender very narrowly as "male" or "female" and making essentializing statements like "women do X and men do Y." As we contrast hegemonic versus diverse gendered thinking, the shift is from essentializing terms like "male" and "female" to valuing femininities and masculinities and the ways they manifest in organizations and society. Hegemonic research conceptualizes, analyzes, and discusses gender as a binary ("female" or "male") rather than treating gender as a spectral or a fluid identity. Notably, understandings of gender have shifted from viewing gender as a binary, heteronormative construct to gender as a more fluid, intersectional construct, and asset (Crenshaw, 1991; Grace, 2015; Valentine, 2007). Various gender identities have a spectrum. People can have multiple gender identities, and gender identities can be changed at any time. Rather than describing gender as fixed and stable, e.g., "woman" or "man," HRD research needs to recognize that gender is fluid and intersectional.

Also, "research on women" represents studies with assumptions of "males as a norm," "women as deficient," and "gender identity as fixed and stable." These studies, for instance, tend to find the shortcomings of femininities and suggest intervention to chase the normative, hegemonic, and masculine leadership. Feminist research has long advocated that research should be for women in ways that inform and promote gender equity, equality, and social justice, rather than being "on" women and potentially creating harm. Similarly,

Table 2 Shifting from gender hegemony to gender diversity

Gender Hegemony	Gender Diversity
• male versus female • fixed and stable identity categories • male as norm • research on women • women as deficit • gender as binary	• femininities and masculinities • fluid identity categories and intersectionality • diversity as norm • research for gender equity, social justice, and liberation • gender as asset • gender as spectral

Adapted from Bierema (2020)

women have often been conceptualized as deficient; whereas gender diverse research, instead, views gender as an asset. Thus, feminist research in HRD should not be "on" women but "for" gender equality, social justice, and liberation.

Although it may seem contradictory that we are advocating against gender binaries by presenting a table polarizing gender hegemony and gender diversity, the opposite is the case: we are advancing and embracing the whole multiplicity and possibility of gender diversity by shifting away from the narrow, sexist thinking advanced by gender hegemony. Standing against the gender binary approach, critical feminist researchers in the HRD field are challenging binary understanding and essentializing of gender in an organizational context by focusing on hidden, embedded, and rooted elements such as gender hegemony, microaggression, implicit bias, power relations, ideologies, and economic and social systems that aggravate gender inequity in the organization (Bierema, 2020; Fox-Kirk et al., 2020; Liu, 2020; Syed & Metcalfe, 2017; Worst & O'Shea, 2020).

These efforts from a critical feminist lens let us scrutinize the unseen but fundamental mechanisms that reproduce gender hegemony. In 20 years, gender discourse in HRD has been shifted to advocating for diversity, complexity, and examination of mechanisms in gender at work. In Figure 1, we depict the gender discourse in HRD over the past 20 years as an iceberg, contrasting the superficial understanding of gender (as explained by the gender hegemony approach) and the profound understanding of gender (as explained by the gender diversity approach). HRD research and practice has begun to look beyond the tip of the iceberg to understand what lies beneath the surface of a critical feminist HRD framework.

Responsible feminist research in HRD should critique prevailing gender norms and challenge cisnormativity and heterosexism. Although recent gender studies in HRD have urged disruption of gender hegemony embedded in HRD (Bierema, 2020; Callahan & Elliott, 2020; Gedro & Mizzi, 2014; Patterson et al., 2012), promotion of gender diversity through feminist research is still needed. Feminist research has a responsibility to call for gender diversity to expatriate embedded masculine supremacy in organizations. Gender diversity is not an exclusive property for GSM workers or queer theorists. understanding and advocating gender diversity as imperative for all . Gender diversity is a shift from the gender binary that has reproduced the normative gender and sex whereby reinforcing asymmetrical power structures in organizations. There is a need to bring visibility, safety, and comfort to issues related to gender identity so we can contest the hegemony of cisgender as the normative status and accommodate gender diversity in HRD research and practice.

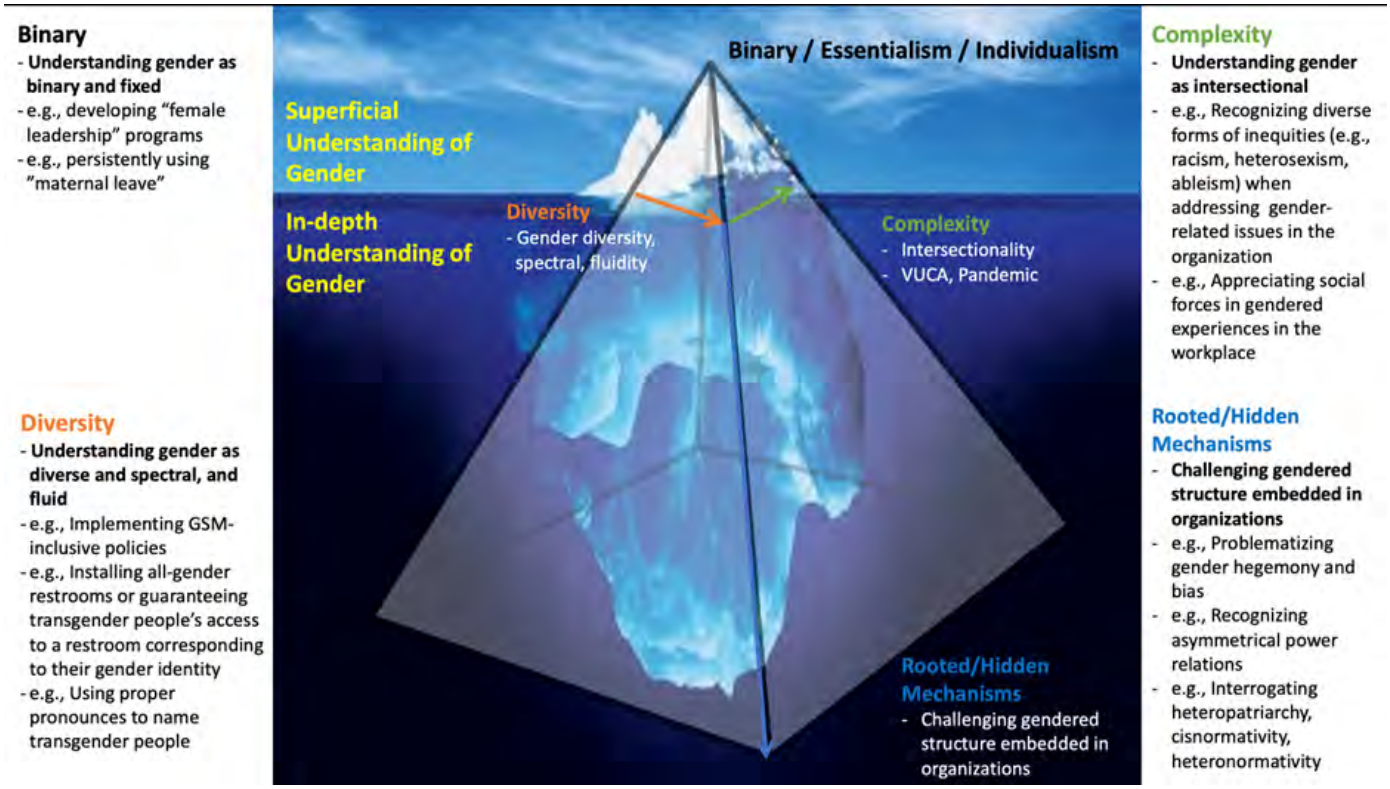

Figure 1. Recent 20 years of Gender Discourse on Gendered Organization in the HRD Field

Towards More Inclusive Feminist Research in HRD

Byrd (2014) explored "critical" through multiple lenses to examine diversity issues and found that intersectionality can be used as an analytical tool to highlight multiple, interlocking forms of societal oppression experienced by historically marginalized groups and to serve as a means of making sense of these experiences. To that end, critical HRD research centers intersectional identities, and can help broaden the meaning and understanding of the experience of engagement in the workplace (e.g., Davis et al., 2020). However, gender-based research in HRD continues to be rare in major HRD journals, averaging just 1.6 articles per journal per year (Bierema & Grace, 2020). Given the near invisibility of gender-based research in HRD literature, much work remains to spotlight issues of diversity, equity, and inclusion around issues of gender and intersectionality.

Critical research demands the examination of the whole person (Collins, 2012). Rosette et al (2018) found that in recent years, research from various disciplines, including gender studies and organizational behavior, has illuminated the importance of considering the various ways in which multiple social categories intersect to shape outcomes for women in the workplace. For example, in their research on an intersectional examination of Black women's belongingness and distinctiveness at work, McCluney and Rabelo (2019) highlighted that 1) people experience paradoxical tensions to feel that they belong to, yet are distinct from, groups; 2) race, gender, and class shape how people experience and negotiate these tensions; 3) these tensions create conditions of visibility that shape how people are seen. But, unfortunately, conditions of visibility for Black women can be precarious, invisible, hyper-visible, or partial. They recommend for organizations to dismantle visibility conditions that undermine marginalized employees.

HRD research has made some progress in requests for diverse representation across multiple identities. As gender diversity becomes more widespread, however, the field of HRD has resisted discussions of diversity, despite claims that diversity is a legitimate part of the field (Bierema, 2010). This needs to be changed in HRD research. Scholars are aware of the importance of it, and advocate for exploring the subject. One trending theme in this area is the continuing discussions about intersectionality. Bold researchers have realized that intersectionality, which is viewed by scholars as an analytical approach, allows us to examine relationships between identity categories and inequality between oppression and privilege within

a broad range of individuals in a specific social group (Dillard & Osam, 2021). Dillard and Osam further pointed out that, intersectionality, as a point of departure to address how a diversity of identity categories can be explored, gave unique insight into workplace experiences that can help extend HRD research. For example, an intersectional approach can be used to explore the critical questions that need to be answered by a 50+, Black, lesbian woman, who is qualified based on all other considerations, but is continuously overlooked for career advancement (Byrd, 2014).

Similarly, Davis et al (2020) described the intersectional identities of four faculty members to expose the seemingly innocuous systemic inequalities in higher education that adversely affect underrepresented and marginalized faculty.

Research literature on the topics of gender, intersectionality, and belongingness has increased in recent years. However, how to integrate them and to put them as an interrelated whole in research is limited. We argue that belongingness or sense of belonging, gender diversity, ethnicity, and intersectionality are the components of organization inclusion that are as important as diversity, equity, and accessibility in the workplace culture and policy. For example, gender consciousness attributes to belongingness in the workplace and in society. And there is a strong interconnectedness in the relation of individual employees and organizations, the relationality of which, according to Ladwig (2021), includes a feeling of belongingness, and needs be to be valued in reflections on gender diverse identities. Such belongingness contributes to building a fertile environment that benefits both the organization and individual.

Belongingness has been described as "one's personal belief that one is an accepted member of an academic community whose presence and contributions are valued" (Good, Rattan & Dweck, 2012, p. 701). However, Haggins (2020) observed that lingering unconscious biases and daily cues continue to permeate and persist in the workplace. One example is the persistent use of the term "maternal leave", which is traditionally viewed as a leave of absence for women who have recently given birth to a child. While some organizational policies have extended this idea to include parents who adopt children and "paternal leave", organizations can consider implementing "parental leave", which removes the connotation of this leave being available only to one binary gender. Feminist research in HRD needs to have a shared awareness of such underlying biases so that gender diversity, belongingness, and intersectionality in corporate environments are integrated, rendering women and underrepresented racial/ethnic/sexual groups visible to be seen, heard, and valued.

Advancing research, practice, policy, and theory-building in the field of HRD can be accomplished through an intersectional lens; "using multidisciplinary perspectives, including women's studies, Black feminist studies, social epidemiology, sociology, critical theory, legal studies, and psychology is a signature strength of scholarship on intersectionality" (Bowleg, 2008, p. 323). Intersectionality illuminates the ways in which our identities interact and overlap in ways that create unique opportunities to engage power and agency through both privilege and oppression (Cole, 2009). While the concept of intersectionality has been studied in many other fields, conversations about intersectionality have only just begun to emerge in HRD.

As practitioners and scholars of HRD who are committed to social justice, the field of HRD should be having such conversations, and an understanding of the complex processes in which identity dimensions intertwine should inform our social justice-related practices, research, policy, and advocacy. Choo and Ferree (2010) pointed out how intersectionality provides a better understanding of "core sociological issues, such as institutions, power relationships, culture, and interpersonal interaction" (p. 130). In intersectional feminism, intersectionality is the critical perspective where race, class, gender, sexuality, ethnicity, nationality, ability, and age function not as individual phenomena, but rather in a collective, reciprocating manner, that frames complex social inequalities (Collins, 2015). Intersectionality calls on scholars to be more inclusive of a broader group of women in their analysis of gender and definitions of what is feminist (Samuels & Ross-Sheriff, 2008).

From the new wave feminist perspective, gender cannot be used as a single analytic frame without also exploring how issues of race, migration status, history, and social class, in particular, come to bear on one's experience as a woman (Samuels & Ross-Sheriff, 2008). Women may carry multiple identities in terms of race, color, age, social class, ethnicity, culture, history, geographic location, language, and migrant status. It is no longer acceptable to produce analyses that are embedded solely within an essentialist or universal collective experience as "woman." Consequently, scholars and theorists who endorse social identity theory must attend to overlapping and mutually reinforcing oppressions

that many women face due to other identities, in addition to gender. The challenge is to attend to changes in contexts that shift the meaning of various social identities and statuses, and to analyze and understand women as multidimensional, yet uniquely whole. Bold, critical HRD research does not shy away from the issues or the ongoing self-awareness and self-work necessary to advocate for transformative change when the research goals demand it (Bierema, 2020).

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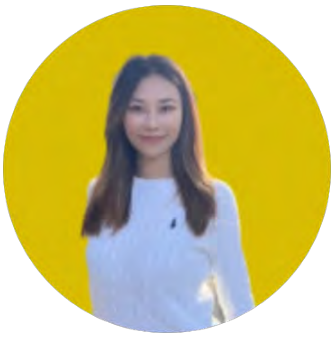

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Promoting the use of Somatics in Coaching

UHFRD Conference 2022 Sheffield Hallam University

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Abstract

The philosophy of somatics can be traced back to the ancient Greeks and the concept of the soma: the unified, whole individual. The philosophy has underpinned many development practices, but it is in recent years that somatic approaches in coaching have come to the fore. Neuroscientific research supports and validates mind-body connection in learning practices and is contributing to the increased use of mind-body approaches within coaching.

The research and literature on the subject are limited, and although neuroscientific inquiry into coaching is a growing area of research, the wide range of somatic practice in coaching is under explored. Very few practical applications exist, and methodologies and frameworks that guide coaches in using a somatic coaching approach are limited. The field is further complicated by the many labels that coaches may be using to describe their use of a somatic approach, but without any real consensus over vocabulary and what a somatic approach might include.

The growing neuroscientific evidence that a mind-body approach to coaching could significantly enhance coaching effectiveness, suggests that more coaches would benefit from gaining an understanding of somatics and how it may be integrated into their existing coaching practice. This qualitative and exploratory study explores what makes somatic coaching distinct from more traditional coaching approaches. It asks whether somatic coaching can be used in any coaching context, and whether the approach suits being part of a blended or specialized coaching approach.

Key words: coaching, somatics, neuroscience, mind-body

Introduction

Following the COVID-19 pandemic, many of us have perhaps become more acutely aware of our bodies and the link to our mental wellbeing and development. There is a growing appetite to better understand how our mind and bodies connect, reflected even in mainstream media. It seems then, that in the field of people management and development, approaches that support this understanding would be useful. The brain and body are inextricably linked, and although our traditional societal view may place the brain in charge, neuroscience is proving otherwise. In the face of strong neuroscientific evidence, it is becoming increasingly beneficial for coaches to understand the role of the mind-body connection and influence in the coaching process. Horstmeyer (2018) suggests that existing coaching approaches are reductionist in nature. Using neuroscientific research to support his theory, he states that a mind-body coaching approach activates awareness, promotes strengths, improves the working of the brain, boosts emotional intelligence, and develops curiosity, ultimately leading to a more sustained effect on the coachee.

Somatics is the philosophy and science that explores the concept of interconnectedness of the mind and body. The mind and body together, in essence, create the way that we are in the world, making decisions together that affect not just our physical function, but our thoughts, sensations, emotions, and actions. A somatic coaching approach values the body as a source of valid and essential information within the coaching session, and somatic coaches guide and develop the coachee using somatic practice. Somatic practice enables the coachee to train and build attention on the body and the information it may be giving them and promotes the embodiment of change. Somatic practices vary, and at the very least would ask questions about sensations in the body and how they relate to intention, embedded behaviour, and action. Practice may also include the use of breathing, mindfulness, or other centring techniques, and some somatic coaches will use somatic movement forms of some kind such as yoga, martial arts, or the Feldenkrais method.

Strozzi-Heckler (2014), a leader in the field of somatic coaching, suggests somatic practice helps us to embody new skills and ways of being, that without them our intentions for change would only be good ideas. He argues that building skills not just in cognitive understanding but also in somatic understanding, allows us to observe ourselves through the life of the body rather than just through the lens of thought and its content. The premise of somatics, that the body is an essential source of wisdom and of equal importance to the brain, challenges the more traditional coaching frameworks which focus primarily on the brain as a source of understanding behaviour.

The field of somatics in coaching is generally under researched and has relied heavily on associated practices such as philosophy and now neuroscience, to underpin its use.

Although it might be expected for somatic coaching approaches to be used naturally within life or health-based coaching, Brendel & Bennett (2016) list many US organisations that have incorporated a mind-body approach into their leadership and management programmes, reading like a "who's who" of influential businesses such as IBM, Google, Goldman Sachs, and Pfizer. US universities and business schools include a mind-body approach in training, and the ICF (International Coaching Federation) offers coaching accreditations for mind-body based coach training programmes. There seems now to be an emergence in the UK in professional development for coaches offering neuroscientific coach training, and more mind-body based discussion.

Brendel & Bennett (2016) argue that somatic methodologies are yet to be fully grounded within empirical research. Some of this absence could be at least partly ascribed to the word and philosophy itself not being present. Coaching approaches that use somatic techniques may be under different 'banners', for example embodiment, transformational, and holistic. How many coaches are using somatic practice in their approach, but just not calling it that is unclear. This creates difficulties in trying to ascertain how widespread somatic based coaching might be.

Bamber (2019) cites research that has shown that coaches who have basic information about how the brain works will help increase the efficiency and overall effectiveness of a coaching programme. Having ascertained that the body cannot be left out of the equation, then it would benefit coaches to understand how the brain and body together affect coaching outcomes.

This study explored the following questions,

1) What is somatic coaching and what makes it distinct from more traditional coaching approaches?
2) Can somatic coaching be used in all coaching contexts? Is it appropriate to use it with all coachees?
3) Can a somatic approach be blended with an existing coaching approach? or does it need specialized training?

Previously a movement teacher of 30 years standing, the author assumed that training as a coach would lead a path away from the body into a primarily language and cognitive based practice. This expectation was in line with the accepted view of coaching. Peter Jackson (2017) suggests that coaching literature reflects the idea that the body, embodiment, and physicality are largely absent from coaching practice, and that coaching is traditionally perceived as a practice that is embedded in language. Whilst studying for a Masters in Coaching at Northumbria University, the author noticed some references to the body in the coaching literature. Somatics as a word and concept had personal resonance and familiarity, as it is used in many physical movement practices. Somatics in coaching subsequently became the focus of the study. This study has allowed the author to blend past physical expertise and emerging coaching knowledge, enabling a wider personal view and understanding of what coaching practice might be.

Theoretical Framework

Historical disconnect between mind and body

The concept that the mind and body are interlinked is recorded strongly throughout history, particularly in eastern cultures, where practices such as meditation and yoga are culturally and spiritually entwined with overall health, wellbeing, and development. In Western culture we start to see a divergence from this concept with Descartes and the "age of reason" or the Enlightenment, and the subsequent separation of mind and body. Strozzi-Heckler (2014) argues that when Descartes said that human beings should dominate or ignore feeling and emotion in service to rationality, he essentially de-legitimized moods and sensation, and that this duality of brain and body still exists today. Strozzi-

Heckler further argues that there is an emotional and physical cost to being distanced from our bodies that leads to confusion about how we live our lives. That by devaluing sensation, intuition, and lived experience, the body becomes something made from anatomical parts that we look to control or suppress.

In our society this disconnect leads us to value intellectual intelligence above physical intelligence. As a result, we are not educated about the body, how it links to the brain, and what a useful source of wisdom it can be in helping us to deepen understanding of ourselves. Learning to listen to the body and use the information it gives us, is key to somatic intelligence.

Existing coaching approaches that look to the body

There are existing, widely used coaching methodologies that mention the body. Gestalt coaching, with its grounding in Gestalt psychology, is one of the most prominent coaching approaches that includes physicality. Gestalt emphasises the element of "physically doing" and moving towards action and allowing the body to speak (Wright, 2012). Richard Strozzi–Heckler's Embodied Leadership approach, arguably the most prolific, successful, and longest standing somatic coaching methodology, promotes utilising physical sensation in the coaching process. His training courses have a clear underlying philosophy and a structure to work within that moves through stages of somatic awareness, opening and change (Strozzi-Heckler, 2014). Ontological Coaching believes that change needs to happen within the nervous system and therefore mood and body are equally as important as language in a change and learning process (Sieler, 2018).

Meditation

Mindfulness and meditation practices are increasingly being used within coaching and present frequently in the literature. Meditators are shown to have thicker prefrontal cortexes. This is associated with increased attention and memory, and better decision making and reasoning processes (Blake, 2018). Brendel & Bennett (2016) report that this approach engenders better connection to others and increased resourcefulness and resilience. Rigg (2018) suggests that the critical reflection needed within coaching, could benefit from understanding how and why the body supports this. She encourages the inclusion of mindfulness as a vehicle to improve the somatic learning process that connects body sensation to cognitive understanding.

Neuroscience in coaching

There is evidence in current coaching research that neuroscientific study is influencing coaching, leading to the further development of mind-body coaching approaches.

Boyatzis & Jack (2018) claim that neuroscience can shed light on the underlying mechanisms of coaching, creating a more fluid and responsive environment. They point towards data that proves that the analytical brain stimulated by more traditional 'compliance' coaching, exists in tension with the brain regions responsible for emotionally connecting with others, understanding ethical issues and being open to new ideas. Hamill (2011) suggests that although the neo-cortex is the largest part of the brain, responsible for language, theorising, and planning, we tend to over emphasise what the neo-cortex gives us. We believe we can live in the rational/cognitive capacities of the neo-cortex and deny the limbic and reptilian brain that drive emotions, responses, and behaviours. He argues that leadership development needs to move beyond the neo-cortex and engage the limbic and reptilian brain and to do that, 'motor learning' needs to be engaged via the body.

Some practitioners are now combining somatics, and neuroscience and are attempting to present practical models to be used in various contexts. Attan et al. (2018) present a practical framework for embodied coaching. They argue that although somatic approaches are gaining in popularity and more people are researching it, there is still a lack of practical models. They combine a traditional psychometric personality test with a four-pattern framework (original work by Josephine Rathbone and built on by Betsy Werzig) which identifies four main movement patterns and looks at how people have preferences for some and not others and relate this to personality and psychological patterns. Attan et al. (2018) formulated a model in which they use actual movement to shift coachees into different mindsets and behaviours.

Bamber (2019) suggests six easy strategies for encouraging mind body connection including increasing autonomy, enhancing strengths, and building trust. Hamill (2011) presents an embodied approach to leadership development which focuses on the Strozzi institute use of centring practice. Horstmeyer (2018) states four distinct effects of mind body training and encourages professionals to gain mind body training to improve coaching outcomes. All authors are attempting to present models for practical use.

Perhaps more detailed, Brendel and Bennet (2016)

present a practical model for leadership coaching based on critically reviewing relevant theory, mind body practice and empirical research. They specifically state their aims as being to stimulate further understanding in the field, add to the existing dialogue, and present ways to practically apply the knowledge. They suggest that although a mind body approach to leadership training is widely popular, that there is little understood practical application. Although neuroscientific research is being increasingly used to support somatic coaching approaches, this presents its own difficulties. Hamill (2011) suggests that it is inaccessible to many outside of that field, meaning that the findings are not available to many coaches. His case study research looks at his own ideas on somatic approach to leadership combined with accessible neuroscientific information to support his findings.

Expertise in somatic practice

Using somatic practice within coaching raises questions about expertise: how embodied and experienced in somatic practice would the coach themselves need to be to coach this in others? If you are a coach that is integrating specialized practices, there are issues that arise around training and skills.

Flaherty (2014) suggests the body "is the way we are in the world" and cites many practices that have focused on the human body as the locus of transformation. Although he recommends that coaches should have awareness of the body and its impact in the coaching space, he suggests this largely as a way of informing referral to other practitioners. In contrast, Strozzi Institute coaches will often have expertise in related physical practices and at the very least will use concepts of centring, grounding, breathing, body scans and elements from the martial arts' 'dojo' within their coaching practice. For Jackson (2017) although somatic coaching can involve physical elements, it may just be about how the coach draws attention to the clients' physiological states and allows them to become part of the coaching process and outcome.

Matthews (2013) suggests that somatic coaches do need additional embodied skills, citing her own case study evidence of difficulties that arise if the coach has less expertise.

Findings included not being able to regain the flow of a session after physical work and difficulties in creating boundaries between physical and cognitive intervention. She concludes that coaches need extensive physical experience and to be grounded in in-depth embodied understanding of physical experience as well as fluency in coaching. She admits that this would immediately make this approach inappropriate for many coaches. Her case studies also identified some other barriers such as the approach not being suitable for all clients, that lack of evidence might lead to this approach being side lined, and that certain coaching contractors, for example businesses, may feel reluctant to use this approach.

Philosophy and Methodology

The ontological perspective for this study is relativist: that phenomena exists only as we experience it. The epistemological stance of the study is interpretivist. Interpretivism recognizes that because humans create meaning they are different from other physical phenomena and therefore cannot be researched in the same way (Saunders, Lewis & Thornhill, 2019).

Interpretivism recognizes subjectivity: that meaning is created and experienced differently. It aligns to qualitative data collection, data which focuses on the meaning derived from words or other non-numerical sources allowing for multiple meanings that can be explored and clarified with participants (Saunders, Lewis & Thornhill2019).

There are some interesting arguments for adopting a different philosophy in relation to context of somatic research. There is a growing link between a pragmatic philosophy approach, somatics, and neuroscience. Voparil & Giordano (2012) research the evidence of a "somatic turn in contemporary thought" focusing on the pragmatic versions of exploration of embodiment. They quote the work of pragmatic philosopher Richard Shusterman and his "Somaesthetics" which forms the basis of contemporary pragmatic discussion and provides a framework that integrates a broad range of thinking and research concerned with the body. At the 2011 conference on Neuroscience and Pragmatism, the speakers reminded the audience that "pragmatists were the first cognitive scientists" and reported that findings in neuroscience support pragmatism and provide insight into embodiment (Shook, 2011).

Considering the sometimes confusing and complex nature of definitions of research methodology, the decision was made not to explore this further at this point for this study. This would be an interesting method of inquiry for future somatic based research.

An exploratory research design was used in this study and not being tied to a specific methodology such as case study or action research allowed for more flexibility. The qualitative nature of the study was the most influential aspect of the design. Braun and Clarke (2008) state that qualitative studies are

"driven by a desire to get in peoples' heads" and make it possible to value and validate all meanings and perspectives and prioritize and accept interpretation. Non-probability sampling was used for this study in the form of purposive sampling, and two main factors affected sampling methods. Firstly, the timeline for the study had a specific date for conclusion and so recruitment to the study needed to happen relatively quickly. Secondly, the study needed coaches who were already aware of somatics and using it to some degree within their practice, meaning that recruitment might prove more difficult. The study recruited four practising coaches who did not label themselves as somatic coaches but were willing to explore the subject. As an MA research project at Northumbria University the study was conducted with full ethical approval and followed full confidentiality guidelines.

Primary data collection was carried out utilising one to one semi-structured interviews. All interviews were conducted online partly due to the COVID-19 pandemic and due to the fact that the coaches were spread around the UK and abroad. Four main interview questions were designed around the study purpose, with sub questions that allowed for further probing. This meant that key questions could be asked across all interviews with the reassurance that the research themes were thoroughly covered, but with the flexibility needed to follow up on interesting emerging ideas. The order of the questions was planned so that the interviewee moved from general to more personal information. The data was transcribed and then analysed using thematic analysis.

Findings

Five themes emerged from the interviews that provided insight into the use of a somatic approach to coaching.

Labelling and language

This section looks at the difficulties of labelling in coaching and specifically at the word "somatics".

Coaches can define themselves in several ways; target market; technique used; underpinning philosophy; or perhaps a word that describes what they hope the coaching will achieve. For the participants, the lack of clarity over somatics as a word and concept brought its own set of complexities. When asked about their understanding of somatics in coaching, whether they would say they used it and what they would call it, the consensus of all participants was that there was lack of clarity around what the word meant within coaching.

Interviewee 3 commented on the unfamiliarity of the word and how it may confuse clients when describing what coaches do;

> I probably wouldn't (call it somatics) because it wouldn't mean anything to people and it will confuse them ... when we're trying to deal with the wider public, when we're trying to talk about our practice, or when we describe to people what might be happening if they engage with us or our services, I feel like the somatic element might put some people off, because it's unknown. It's a Greek word, so it sounds fancy, and it means body (Interviewee 4).

Interviewee 2 picked up on the same issue, directly relating it her own business decisions;

> In France, the word somatics is less known and so when I looked for a name for my coaching facility, I didn't use it. I thought it would not say anything to my potential clients. It's hard to promote it, it's not famous enough (Interviewee 2).

Each participant was certain that they would not call themselves a somatic coach, partly for the reasons outlined above and partly due to what they deemed as lack of training. They described themselves in other ways, using words such as transformational, eclectic, holistic, and a "five senses coach". Interviewee 3 highlighted the potential complexity of labels, terminology and training when looking at the nature of somatics;

> I wouldn't put myself in the category of somatic coach, but I wouldn't say it's definitely not somatics … everything we do is somatics … I would not exclude myself from that terminology ... I wouldn't self-select, simply because I haven't had enough experience or exposure to either the theoretical or applied work (Interviewee 3).

Somatic content

All the participants, although not calling themselves somatic coaches, could clearly describe how they were using elements of somatics within their existing approach. Body language and posture was a common to all interviewees, as was use of physical sensation to inform the coachee, described here by Interviewee 4;

> Sometimes I might ask them if they notice any physical sensations or reactions to what they've shared with me … if it was appropriate, I would ask them "where do you feel this, if anywhere, in your body?". I might just simply reflect and share with them what I see on the outside … I would give them a description of what I saw in any changes in their physical appearance, or even just energetically … do they notice it at other times in their lives ... are there any patterns (Interviewee 4).

Interviewee 2 described further elements to this introducing movement, rhythm, and voice;

> I encourage clients to be aware of their body reactions in a coaching session, their rhythm and movement and body language … I've always been aware of body movement and body language, rhythm of breath and of speaking (Interviewee 2).

The interviewees were able to say what they would expect from someone who called themselves a somatic coach and how it may differ to what they were currently offering. All coaches highlighted something slightly different. Interviewee 1 mentioned "a level of rigour" and how this might indicate a difference in approach in a coach who may integrate some somatics alongside other tools, from coaches who may look to specialize. Interviewee 2 felt that further somatic movement training was needed for her to classify herself as a somatic coach. Interviewees 3 and 4 both looked to a comparison with a more traditional cognitive coaching approach to describe the difference. Interviewee 4 compared the activity levels;

> I would expect some of that blended approach of using movement ... some of the things we talked about mind body connection … I wouldn't imagine that we'd just sit like this. You in your seat and I'm in mine and we shall never move until an hour and a half has elapsed. Because that would feel counterintuitive … there would be movement and some kind of activity (Interviewee 4).

Interviewee 3 outlined using a sliding scale of body versus cognitive elements;

> I would expect the coaching would give me a lot more around the body and movement. If there was a ratio, a sliding scale ... lets' say the kind of coaching I would offer 1:1 it would be maybe 90% of talk and maybe 10% of "what's going on in there?" Whereas if someone said to me "I'm a somatic coach" I would expect the sliding scale to be very different. I would expect 90% movement-based stuff or focused on the body and then a smaller amount of talk (Interviewee 3).

These somatic elements were mentioned throughout the interviews by all participants, but there was some disagreement about using movement within the coaching session.

Interviewees 1, 2, and 3 freely talked about movement being part of a somatic approach but Interviewee 1 had reservations about the use of something "directive" being used within the coaching session. She questions it in relation to the general context of fundamental coaching principles. The principles of particular importance to Interviewee 1 were around the issues of the coachee agenda and the equality of coach and coachee;

> If you think back to coaching principles … the coachee is in control of the agenda and they're in control of the change and you're managing the process. So, there's some real fundamental tenets about coaching. … I get a bit uncomfortable, and this came up in

> the neuroscience course as well, about some specific directive interventions, because it sorts of goes against the grain of coaching ... formal coaching … (Interviewee 1).

Interviewee 1 expanded on the idea of how adding in movement may not work in the traditional set up of coaching sessions;

> Most coaching is about 3 to 6 sessions. If you think about how challenging change is for us as human beings, that's not a lot of time. And you've got to build trust and psychological safety before you can even begin to do the work. … I think unless someone somebody really knew what they were coming for, I think you'd be hard pressed in 3 or 4 sessions to do something very intensively (Interviewee 1).

Role of the coach and expertise

This section focuses on the role of the coach in coaching generally but also on somatics specifically. Themes emerging included safety, ethics, expectations, expertise, confidence, and the role of the coach as an embodied presence.

This theme grew out of some of the flexible further discussions stemming from the questioning around confidence and expertise. Generally, the participants agreed that the coach needed to be experienced but perhaps not expert in the field. This contrasts with Matthews (2013 who argues that the coach needs to have extensive physical experience and an in-depth embodied understanding of physical experience. For Interviewees 2 and 3 it was less to do with expertise but more about experience of using the skills. Interviewee 3 suggested that a less embodied coach may find a limit to where they could get the client but that that may not be an issue, as long as the coach was honest about their experience.

For Interviewee 4 it was directly related to the physical activity "expertise" that you may be using within a session and the ethics of the situation;

> It depends on what you're doing ... I could do meditation because actually you don't need to be an expert ... there's lots of stuff on simple sitting, pausing, breathing … so I think some of it is around boundaries. I think if you're doing something more physical, then for me, the expertise needs to be proved in that area of activity … If it was something like a more active thing, if you were taking mountaineering, Pilates class, a yoga thing, to do that without training would be professionally negligent in my view (Interviewee 4).

All coaches agreed that some form of embodiment: being present and aware in the body was important as a coach generally, using descriptions such as "being present and bringing the body into the coaching session" (Interviewee 2) and "fully engaged" (Interviewee 4) and this underpinned the professional practice of being there for the client.

Interviewee 1 described the use of her own body in playing a role in the response of the coachee,

> There's also the notion of co-regulation. About how if you're in a calm, centred, really focused space in terms of working with them, that can help bring them down. I use it in that way as well (Interviewee 1).

Interviewee 1 was asked a question directly about the possibility of referring to another practitioner if the coachee needed more physical expertise.

> I wouldn't feel confident to sell it … I suppose I'm worried that things might seem a bit odd and then they'd lose trust and confidence in me (Interviewee 1).

Contexts for somatic coaching

This section looks at contexts for somatic coaching. It explores whether a somatic approach could be used within a variety of coaching environments and with a range of coachees. This theme emerged from the questions about whether the coaches would use a somatic approach with all clients, and what their criteria for use would be. Sub-themes emerged on

the importance of theoretical proof and the importance of taking cues from the coachee.

Trish Matthews's (2013) case study research findings suggested that coaches may be reluctant to use somatic in certain more traditional contexts such as business where it might not be as easy to persuade someone of the value. These findings suggest that the interviewees felt similarly, but they identified ways of overcoming this.

Interviewees 1, 3, and 4 all mentioned the importance of taking cues from the coachee when judging whether to use a somatic approach and described continuing to use those cues when deciding how far to "push" the somatic investigation. They all use the word "intuitive" to describe an approach to this. For Interviewee 3, although recognising there might be reluctance to use it, felt that there might be benefits for everyone,

> I know some people would be reluctant to use it, because especially in France you make a distinction between body and mind ... but it's part of coaching to help them become aware of their body and I'm sure it will help them. But it could also be interesting to at least have this common conversation with these people. So, I think it might be really useful with every kind of person. It's a question of change and development (Interviewee 3).

Interviewees 1, 2, and 3 identified theory as being a helpful factor in contexts where there may be less understanding or expectations of somatics, with Interviewees 1 and 2 mentioning neuroscience as proof of the approach and how it works. Both Interviewees 1 and 2 highlighted the importance of not "frightening" the coachee with the approach.

Interviewee 3 describes being in a professional situation where the approach does not feel appropriate. Working with multi-cultural students she describes;

> I defaulted to the more cognitive … because I don't know about their culture ... I'm thinking about cultural identities and how the body means different things in different cultures. Out of respect more than anything and also because it's online and I can't read the room … (Interviewee 3).

Blended or specialist approach

Where a somatic approach might sit within the coaching industry was not present in the literature and was not a specific line of planned questioning, but it presented as an underlying theme throughout the findings. The question that formulated from the interviewees' responses was: Can somatic practice be used as another tool for a coach as part of a blended approach, or does it need to be a more defined specialist training?

Interviewee 3 reflected on the idea of coaches being "generalists" who "synthesize and absorb" information and then make a decision about what to use. Indeed, all interviewees suggested that they used somatics as part of a blended approach. Interviewees 1, 2, and 3 mentioned the idea of primary context: whether they were a somatic practitioner or a coach who uses some somatic influence;

> It's about your primary context. And if your primary context is coaching then I think we weave it in softly, gently ... if your primary focus is somatics and you have permissions do all of that stuff, then you use coaching questions to facilitate, enable a relationship etc … (Interviewee 1).

For Interviewee 3, it was more personal, and she reflected on her dual role;

> When I'm a Pilates teacher I am a somatic teacher … I'll call it embodiment. So, an embodiment practice that uses some elements or aspects of coaching … I become a facilitator, someone who holds the space. But if I was to coach someone, I would put my coaching hat on and then the somatic element would just be a part (Interviewee 3).

Interviewee 1 reflected on the coaching industry and where somatics might fit in the future;

> I think somatic coaching is going to become more foreground, I think it's going to be tested around some of these boundaries that I'm talking about around coaching principles. And it's going to have to find some kind of resolution in that. And I think what will happen is that it will become a distinct school of coaching … (Interviewee 1)

Discussion

A main limiting factor to the study was basing it on the language of somatics. The lack of the word in existing coaching theory suggested that somatic practice is not currently widely used in coaching. On further exploration it was clear that it is, but just not always under that heading. The interviewed coaches did know what somatics was and described elements to their practice that were clearly somatic, but they avoided using the word. This was partly because they felt that currently, they did not have the experience and understanding that would define them as a "somatic coach", but also in concluding pragmatically that the unfamiliar word would confuse a potential coachee. Instead, the interviewees described themselves in ways that they believed would communicate their services more clearly and appropriately to a coachee. What do we call ourselves that clearly communicates to a potential coachee what coaching is, and what we do? The use of somatics in coaching brings with it unfamiliar language and techniques that are potentially more difficult to articulate to clients.

The interviewees also talked about somatics in relation to the expectations and context of the coaching, noting that the somatic elements of their coaching were used only when appropriate to the individual and need not always be explained to a client, particularly if there was a risk that the coachee would be frightened off in some way. This highlights the issue of expectations of coachees when they come to coaching. It would be safe to presume that if they have expectations, then they would be of taking part in more traditional language-based coaching. The interviewees were certain they would still use a somatic approach, seeing no reason not to if expectations were clear and/or the approach was used intelligently according to the needs of the coachee. Most of the interviewees saw somatic elements as something that could be used alongside other techniques in coaching as part of an eclectic approach.

The question over whether somatic coaching could be used by coaches as part of a blended approach, or whether it is more suited to becoming a specialist approach is an important one. It could impact whether coaches would be interested in using it and whether they considered that they had the right kind of experience. When describing what they would expect from someone who called themselves a "somatic coach", the interviewees essentially described a specialist approach that included using a larger amount of physical work and reference to the body within a coaching session. The findings suggest that for this to happen, a coach would need more specialized and robust training. The interviewees would not necessarily look within the coaching industry for his further knowledge, they were happy with their existing coach training, and recognized that somatic training might come more naturally from outside of the industry. The coaches were already using elements of a somatic based approach without any specific specialized training, describing being aware of body language, physical sensation, voice, and breath.

Discussion about the role of the coach in the coaching environment was evident in the existing coaching theory, with descriptions of the importance of a coaches' awareness of their own bodies being central to the success of a somatic approach. The coach uses themselves as a tool in the process, checking their own physical responses and reflecting on them, and the coach should understand the embodiment of the beliefs, assumptions, and behaviours that they take into the coaching space (Strozzi–Heckler, 2014). This reflects in the findings where all the interviewees mentioned this in some form, describing elements to coaching such as co-regulation and being present. Coach training will involve skills in listening on all levels and techniques such as mirroring, ensuring that coaches are aware of how they behave in the coaching space. It is perhaps when more overtly physical elements and techniques come into play that the picture is more complex.

The role and importance of movement within a somatic coaching approach was not clear in the literature. In the study interviews, if somatic coaching involved physical practice of some kind, it raised issues around coaching principles such as coaching being non-directive, whether somatic coaching would then fit into the normal parameters of coaching, and issues around training and

expertise. This does raise questions about the accepted nature of coaching. In a role that already faces challenges through lack of regulation, there may be a reluctance to venture into less proven practice without further exploration of boundaries and ethics.

Generally, without dialogue over what somatics could mean in coaching, it may be that most coaches would be uncertain over the validity of a somatic coaching approach and in how they could apply the approach in practice.

Limitations and Direction for Further Research

There were limitations to the study. Firstly, the number of participants. Although all four interviews generated rich personal data, more participants would have offered a more comprehensive range of experience from which to draw findings. Any conclusions and discussion are therefore on a limited scale. The participants were homogenous in terms of gender, age, and ethnicity leading to a less diverse range of perspectives. As previously mentioned, existing theory about the use of somatics in coaching was limited, with sources found under alternative words and language. This created a sometimes confusing context for the study.

The use of movement within somatic coaching is underexplored from a theoretical perspective. The muscular-skeletal system facilitates one of the primary ways in which information is transmitted from body to brain and therefore significantly contributes to the embodiment of change. This is a field of movement and anatomical studies that is currently being researched using neuroscience. To look at this within the field of coaching would contribute to wider discussion about coaching models, content, and training.

Contribution to Practice

The findings from this study suggest that there are many complex and varied elements to consider when using a somatic approach in coaching. The lack of definition of what somatics is in coaching, and the unfamiliarity of the word, potentially undermines confidence in the use of somatic coaching. Coaches may already have valid and usable somatic understanding that could, with some guidance, be incorporated into their existing approach.

Neuroscience can help both justify a somatic coaching approach and enable the coach to understand how the mind and body are linked. In understanding how the brain and body create thought, emotion, and action together, a coach is more equipped to make the best choices on how to coach the coachee for more sustained change and development. The argument in the current coaching neuroscientific research, suggests that all coaches need this as a minimum to help improve coachee experience and for many coaches this awareness will be enough. Some coaches will want to investigate further, but currently there are few specific somatic coach training courses. This is not necessarily an issue as somatic practice can be found in other industries and coaches may already have existing coaching skills that they feel are sufficient. It appears that if the coaching skills are already there, then the specialist elements are about increased understanding, recognising somatic practice, and integrating it confidently. Coaching fundamentals provide a starting framework that can be adapted and developed to incorporate the specifics of a somatic approach.

The language of somatics is not widely used within coaching, but the philosophy and language of the approach could widen the scope of what we understand coaching to be. As a starting point, providing a clear and inviting conversation around somatics may enable coaches to explore the approach with more confidence. As practitioners who work with people to support them in all aspects of life, it feels timely that we look at the range of information on how we can best do this. The emerging neuroscientific evidence will only continue to strengthen behind mind-body approaches as practitioners of all kinds increasingly research and implement a somatic approach. Emerging from the pandemic, people have been led to question the nature of how they live their lives emotionally and physically. Somatic coaching is an approach that acknowledges and faces these complexities.

The benefits coaches gain from being more mind body aware can inform and enhance their coaching skills, allowing them to observe, listen, and reflect on a deeper level. This is turn can lead to more insightful questioning. A somatic approach can offer another tool to use in the coaching process, blended

with existing approaches and techniques. Enabling coachees to become aware of their physical being and response can be the "lightbulb" moment in which they realize that they don't have to respond in a habitual way to a stimulus, but that they have choice. This can help to challenge assumptions, values, and behaviours and form the foundation for embodied change.

This paper has attempted to communicate how only focusing on the brain in coaching does not consider the full scientific and behavioural complexity of human beings. The brain does not give the full story because it cannot. Incorporating this understanding into coaching practice gives coaches access to the whole person, not just part.

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