The Training of China's Managers: An analysis and evaluation of using overseas training for management development

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A thesis submitted in partial fulfilment of Coventry University's requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy

Coventry University

in collaboration with

University of Worcester

July 2007

Declaration

I declare that this project is the result of my own work and all the written work and survey are my own, except where stated and referenced otherwise. This thesis has not been accepted or submitted for any comparable award elsewhere.

I have given consent for my thesis, if accepted, to be available for photocopying and for inter-library loan, and for the title and summary to be made available to outside organisations.

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July 2007

Abstract

Despite of the rapid globalisation and international business there has been a growing consensus that the quality of an organisation's human resource is a critical factor in order to manage the change. Economic reform in China has led to rapid business expansion within the region. Chinese policy makers are aware that the development of its managers is crucial to creating competitive advantage in its post-WTO period. Training and education is therefore an important means of management development improving the competencies of managerial personnel with a global view. As a consequence large numbers of Chinese managers have been sent on training and education in the Western countries in order to bring new ideas and approaches to their organisations. This thesis questions whether the training has successfully achieved its objectives and how the effectiveness of such a training intervention can be addressed.

It has been widely accepted in the training community that evaluation of training effectiveness is an essential step in designing a training program. However evaluation is often problematic, particularly when the training seeks to achieve outcomes which are not readily measurable, as is the case in management training and development. Moreover, the involvement of various stakeholders from West and East adds complexity. This research presents a survey study covering 526 stakeholders who are involved in China's overseas management training and development. The approaches to evaluation are explored from a holistic perspective and an evaluation framework which uses stakeholder-based approach is developed for management training and development in a cross-cultural context.

Moreover this study addresses the empirical and methodological deficiencies of research on Chinese managers' development activities in Western countries. This research therefore contributes not only to theory on evaluation, but also on management training and development in cross-cultural settings. A mixed methods approach by triangulation of quantitative and qualitative information is employed to study training effectiveness from the perspectives of different stakeholders. The findings show important variables affecting Chinese managers' learning in Western countries and factors influencing the transfer of Western management to Chinese organisations.
The specific characteristics of China's overseas management training are also examined

which lead to the conclusion that the evaluation of a management training intervention should not be regarded as evaluating a training programme, but must be integrating with the processes of management training and development.

Key words: training evaluation, management development, management learning and knowledge transfer, cross-cultural studies, stakeholder approach

Acknowledgements

The completion of this research would have been impossible without the assistance of many people. I would like to take this opportunity to acknowledge the following people and organisations.

Firstly, I would like to express my thanks to my director of studies, Dr. Catherine Ross, and the supervisory team: Professor Jonathan Liu, Mr. Matthew Jellis, and Dr. Jan Francis-Smyth. Their advice and encouragement have been invaluable, which guided me in the whole process of my PhD studies. Appreciation also extends to my peer group in Centre for People @ Work for their constructive opinions on my research project.

Secondly, much appreciation to the China Association for International Exchange of Personnel, London office and China branches, as well as UK training institutions for their professional cooperation for my survey. Many thanks also give to the participants both from China and the UK for their enthusiasm to contribute in the survey studies. In addition I am grateful to my colleagues in China for their advice on translation of survey instruments.

Thirdly, thanks must go to Research Graduate School and Business School for their professional support in many ways, which has made my research possible. As an international student I would like to express my gratitude to the staff in International Centre, China Office, and Accommodation for their fully understanding a ‘foreigner’s needs’ and generous help. My research is also indebted to Mr. Tim Maxfield for his effort to me the scholarship, and to Professor Jean Webb for her mentoring at the critical point.

My finally and fullest acknowledgement must go to my family for their understanding of my commitment and sacrifices of normal family life: my son’s accompanying me in the UK and my parents and husband supporting me from China.

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GLOSSARY OF ABBREVIATION

ALT	Action Learning Theory
ASTD	American Society for Training and Development
CAIEP	China Administration for International Exchange of Personnel
CCM	Cross-Cultural Management
CCT	Cross-Cultural Training
CGA	Cultural-General Assimilator
ELT	Experiential Learning Theory
FAL	Factor Affecting Learning
FAT	Factor Affecting Transfer
FDICS	Foreign Direct Invested Companies
HRD	Human Resource Development
HRM	Human Resource Management
ICA	Industrial Collectivism Assimilator
IHRM	International Human Resource Management
IJV	International Joint Venture
JICAP	Joint Industrial and Commercial Attachment Programme
KSAs	Knowledge, Skills and Attitudes
LSI	Learning Style Inventory
MNCs	Multinational Corporations
MNEs	Multinational Enterprises
OD	Organisational Development
QUAN	Quantitative
QUALI	Qualitative
ROI	Return On Investment
SAFEA	State Administration of Foreign Expert Affairs
SLT	Social Learning Theory
SOEs	State Owned Enterprises
TNCs	Trasnational Companies
WTO	World Trade Organisation

CHAPTER 1
INTRODUCTION

1.0 PREAMBLE

The purpose of this introductory chapter is to provide a rationale for this research and an outline of the thesis. The aim and objectives of this study are to critically evaluate China's overseas management training interventions and to develop an evaluation framework for management training and development in a cross-cultural context. This chapter is laid out in six sections. Section 1.1 introduces the background which sets a context for this research and defines the research problem. Section 1.2 reviews the existing literature within the subject areas of this thesis and addresses the research deficiencies. Section 1.3 states the aim and objectives of this study and discusses the principles of the research design and the methods. The contents of this study and its intended contributions are elaborated in section 1.4. Section 1.5 illustrates the structure of this thesis and the last section, 1.6 concludes chapter 1.

1.1 RESEARCH BACKGROUND

1.1.1 Chinese Context

Since opening-up to the world in the late 1970s China has effected a transition from a command economy to a socialist market economy (Warner, 2004; Warner, 1993; Glover and Siu, 2000; Child and Rodrigues, 2005). Economic reform has lead to changes in organisational structure and management practices, which in turn impact on organisational culture and re-shape people's mindset, e.g., norms and values (Goodall *et al*., 2004; Child, 1994). Further in 1987 the reform of the Chinese civil service and cadre system launched by Deng and his team sought to improve performance through training and education (Cooke, 2003; Chow, 1991). Moreover China's new accession to the WTO (World Trade Organisation) and globalisation is exerting great pressure on Chinese policymakers to make fundamental changes and accelerate the transition to a market economy. This transitional economy has led to increased managerial responsibility and organisational autonomy that requires new managerial skills in an environment that is uncertain and becoming highly competitive. With the changing nature of China's economic life and management practices the need for efficient management has been felt at different organisational levels. The role of managers has shifted gradually from being mere bureaucratic administrators to becoming strategic decision makers.

Management training and education is an important means of improving the competence of managerial personnel in any economy (Borgonjon and Vanhonacker, 1994). There is a growing consensus and recognition that the quality of an organisation's human resource is a critical factor in the success of that organisation (Pilbeam and Corbridge, 2002; Mendenhall *et al*., 2003; Warner, 2004). Management development has therefore become a strategic goal for organisations in the 1990s (Beardwell and Holden, 2001). Previously during the era of the 'planned economy' the system of bureaucratic hierarchy meant that management in the 'Western' sense barely existed in China. Nowadays, however, the concept of 'management' is seen as critically important and something that has to be improved by learning the theories and operations of Western or modern management practice (Branine, 1996). The managerial competencies for a global world require modern management knowledge and skills, which can be achieved by education and training. Therefore investment in management training and education has become an important part of China's economic development (Warner, 2004; Warner, 1993; Cooke, 2005; Chu Ng and Siu, 2004; Borgonjon and Vanhonacker, 1994).

1.1.2 Initiation of China's Overseas Management Training and Development and the Research Problem

Deng Xiao-ping, the architect of China's economic reform and open-door policy, recognised that to change people's 'software' was of primary importance to foster the economic change in China. He pointed out that China's modernisation required the assimilation and learning of advanced foreign knowledge, managerial experience and all the fruits of human civilization. Starting in the late 1970s China has been sending professionals and managers to study or to take training courses in developed countries and areas. In order to sustain growth in the fierce competition of globalisation and encountering the new environment of China's accession to the WTO, the Chinese government has placed more emphasis on the development of high quality talent; for example sending managers to take management training courses has become a prevailing human resource activity throughout China (People's Daily Online, 2001).

People’s Daily (2002) published “2002-2005 National Talent Team Construction Plan” by the Administration Offices of the Chinese Communist Party and State Council. It raises the issue of human resources development and talent competition. One of the strategies is:

> “To build up a management team who master the knowledge of international economy and law… to choose them to take training courses both in China and abroad, to send them to learn, practice in big companies abroad and to increase their managerial competence which complies with international business norms and regulations.”

The State Administration of Foreign Experts Affairs (SAFEA) is a government department under the State Personnel Ministry. One of its responsibilities is to make policy and strategy as well as to administrate the overseas management training. The Association for International Exchange of Personnel (CAIEP) is one of the authorized organisations in China to organise and implement overseas management training and education. It works mainly with Chinese government organisations and SOEs (State Owned Enterprises) by designing specific training courses for their senior and middle managers and sending them to learn abroad. It sends 40,000 managers per annum to study or to be trained in developed countries, such as, in America, UK, Germany, Australia and Japan. By the end of 2006 the CAIEP has set up 30 branches in 21 provinces, 5 autonomous regions and 4 metropolitan cities, as well as 10 offices in other countries and regions, such as, USA, UK and Australia. The CAIEP cooperates with more than 300 institutions internationally, including training organisations, universities and research institutes. In the UK it has certified more than 10 educational institutions and training centres to deliver management courses. However in most of the provinces and cities in China the offices of SAFEA (hereinafter refer to training department) and CAIEP (hereinafter referred to as training organisation) are merged to fit the local institutional structure and budget.

Whilst there is anecdotal evidence to suggest that this has proved largely beneficial, there has been little or no systematic evaluation of the effectiveness of these programmes. It is widely accepted in the training community that evaluation of training is an essential step in designing a training program (Kirkpatrick, 1994; Bramley, 1996b;

Phillips, 1991). Since Kirkpatrick (1994) first introduced four levels of evaluation: *reaction, learning, behaviour, and results* in 1959, academics and practitioners have continually been working on developing new methods to assess the effectiveness of training and development. However training evaluation is often problematic, particularly when the training seeks to achieve outcomes which are not readily measurable, as is the case in management training and development programmes. Moreover it is even more challenging to assess the effectiveness of management training and development courses which take place across-cultures (Adler, 1997; Torrington *et al*., 2002). This research addresses the challenge of how to demonstrate whether a particular training programme has been successful, and how to evaluate management training and development in a cross-cultural setting.

1.2 CRITIQUES OF LITERATURE

1.2.1 Literature Review

The research problem mentioned above covers multiple subject areas which refer to the theories of training evaluation, management training and development, and cross-cultural management. However, many authors argue (Hamblin, 1974; Bramley, 1996b; Easterby-Smith, 1994; Salas and Cannon-Bowers, 2001) evaluation of training is not isolated, but integrated within the process of training as well as other related interventions such as the management development process. A holistic perspective is therefore adopted in this thesis to evaluate training by investigating the processes of management training and development which are impacted upon by culture. This overarching principle provides a guideline for this study, which incorporates the relevant theories.

There is an increasing recognition of the importance of investing in human capital. Development of managers has been widely accepted for enhancing the competitiveness of an organisation in today’s rapidly changing world (Winterton and Winterton, 1997; Luoma, 2005). Likewise management training and education are regarded as the most effective way for human resource development (Cooke, 2005; Mabey and Thomson, 2000). China’s economic reform and its entry to WTO have provided a typical case of the need for human capital investment. However there are arguments about the notion of management development, management training, and management education. Evans

(2005) suggests there is no single and agreed definition of management development. The earlier definition interprets management development as a 'formal, planned and deliberate process' (Training Services Agency). The modern concept of management development implies a broader meaning, which aims at making managers learn and improving managerial effectiveness through a learning process (Reid and Barrington, 1997; Mumford, 1997; Thomson *et al*., 2001). The key point of the modern concept of management development is to involve not only the structured and planned learning process such as training and education, but also to include any form of random learning.

The review of management development theory identifies two schools of classification of development methods represented by Mumford (1997) and Thomson *et al*. (2001). They are formal and informal management development processes. The former refers to planned and structured off-the-job processes, e.g., internal and external management training, seminars and conferences with clear and intentional development objectives. Whereas the latter method involves informal, accidental and experiential management development activities, for example, on-the-job training, mentoring and coaching. In addition Mumford (1997) and Thomson *et al*. (2001) stress the importance of incorporating both formal and informal management development processes which develop managers in management reality. The separation of these two types of development methods could cause insufficient and inefficient management development.

There is a consensus that management training and education are two important methods for formal management development (Reid and Barrington, 1997; Mumford, 1997). However the terms of management training, management education and management development are often found to be used interchangeably and sometimes overlapp. The major difference is that their characteristics are discussed in this thesis as follows: (a) management development aims at individuals' performance change over the long-term to deliver organisational business change and integrate with organisational development (Mullins, 2002; Staunton and Giles, 2001; Mayo, 1998; Bramley, 1996a); (b) Management training focuses on individuals' learning related to their job requirements and performance improvement in the short-term (Bramley, 1996b; Nadler, 1984; Bernhard and Ingols, 1988); and (c) management education refers to structured learning in academic disciplines and institutional environments which emphasise whole person change and long-term payoff, such as in value, culture, and concepts (Mayo, 1998; Pilbeam and Corbridge, 2002; Mole, 2000, Reid and Barrington, 1997; Burgoyne and Reynolds, 1997).

Further discussion includes learning theory because it is revealed that learning is the core of management development, training and education (Easterby-Smith, 1994; Mumford, 1997; Thompson, 2000). Kolb's four phases experiential learning theory (ELT) (Kolb, 1984) has provided insight into the management learning process (Yamazaki and Kayes, 2004; Kayes, 2002; Kayes, 2005). Therefore Mumford (1997) advocates the marriage of formal management development activities and informal learning experiences of managers. Moreover Kolb's ELT provides a theoretical construct for cross-cultural learning (Yamazaki and Kayes, 2004). First it identifies various elements in cross-cultural learning, such as values, and concepts, as well as the ethical approach to cross-cultural learning. Secondly, the learners' interaction with the environment of ELT implies that the interaction occurs between learners and the environment in the host country, such as culture, social system, and values. It has been criticised (Beardwell and Holden, 2001; Newell, 1999) that there is little involvement of learners in designing subject matter and the delivery of knowledge is usually teaching-orientated. The instructional activities thus do not take account of learners' home culture. Selvarajah's recent study (2006) reveals different educational objectives and attitudes to assessment methods between Chinese students and European students who take postgraduate management courses in New Zealand. Cultural factors and English language competence influence the performance of students from different cultures.

Transfer of learning has long been an important HRD research issue. Since Baldwin and Ford's review of the literature over two decades ago (Baldwin and Ford, 1988), considerable progress has been made in understanding factors affecting transfer of learning. Holton and his colleagues' study (Holton III *et al.*, 2003) has suggested that transfer systems differ across organisations, organisational types, and types of training. Learning transfer systems under different organisational settings are underpinned by different organisational cultures. In the case of management training in cross-cultural conditions it is also influenced by national culture (Holton III et al., 2003). Knowledge transfer across cultures is another issue which needs to be addressed. Previous studies have shown the causal links between managerial concepts and culture, the cultural dominance of delivering management courses and the constraints of transferring Western management theory to non-Western settings (Adler, 1997; Berrell *et al*., 2001; Batonda and Perry, 2003; Bedward *et al*., 2003; Branine, 2005; Hofstede and Hofstede, 2005). Selvarajah (2006) suggests designing methods of delivery to international students and providing an equitable and culturally sensitive platform for knowledge transfer. Moreover some authors (Thomas, 1996; Newell, 1999; Iles *et al*., 2004; Alon and Lu, 2004) argue that mutual knowledge creation is important in the process of cross-cultural knowledge transfer, which incorporates social, political, cultural and economic context of countries involved.

Hofstedes' cultural theory (Hofstede and Hofstede, 2005:4) provides a fundamental guideline for cross-cultural studies. It suggests national culture is "the collective programming of the mind that distinguishes the members of one group or category of people from others". On the other hand Adler (2002:18) perceives the cultural orientation of a society as a "complex interaction of value, attitudes, and behaviours by its members". China's economic reform requires management changes at different organisational levels and training managers abroad re-shape their mindsets in addition to developing new knowledge and managerial skills (Warner, 1993; Goodall *et al*., 2004; Branine,1996). As a consequence management development has become a multi-faceted process involving the cultural interaction of host country and home country. Chinese managers are not free from the challenges experienced by expatriates particularly cultural shock (Sims and Troy, 2004; Adler, 2002; Bhawuk and Brislin, 2000; Oberg, 1960; Taft, 1977) which is described by Sloman (1994b) as "an emotional and psychological reaction to the confusion, ambiguity, value conflicts, and hidden clashes that occur as a result of fundamentally different ways of perceiving the world and interacting socially between cultures". The issue of expatriate adjustment and cross-cultural training has increasingly received the attention of researchers since the late 1970s due to the growth in global assignments and the high costs of failed assignments (Warner, 2004; Black and Greenbuerg, 1991; Mendenhall and Oddou, 1985; Bhawuk and Brislin, 2000). There are many empirical studies on preparing expatriates for the new culture and some successful examples of cross-cultural training (e.g., Shim and Paprock, 2002; Selmer, 2001; Selmer, 2004b; Selvarajah, 2006). Moreover as pointed out by some authors (Adler, 1997; Black and Mendenhall, 1992) expatriates need to readjust to the home country environment both for work and non-work factors. Adler (2002) argues that the re-entry to work is more difficult than readjustment to personal affairs. Therefore the post-training facilitation of managers to their work challenges cross-cultural training.

On the other hand the impact of management development has been recognised most positively by many authors (Branine, 1996; Borgonjon and Vanhonacker, 1994; Cooke, 2005; Holden, 1991; Mumford, 1989). The benefits of management development are multi-faceted which include direct and indirect results at both personal and organisational levels, such as the positive changes of managers' behaviour and the improvement of individuals' and organisation's performances, personal development and promotion of organisational human resource development (HRD) systems and processes (DfEE, 1998; Winterton and Winterton, 1997). Thomson *et al*. (2001) argue that there is no negative impact of management development interventions. However the evaluation of management development activities remain problematic. For instance in some cases it relies on counting the numbers of training days per annum, which is an imprecise approach if used alone (Mabey, 2002). The other examples are the difficulty of measuring the extent of impact as well as the separation of the elements in a management development process (Thomson *et al*., 2001; Winterton and Winterton, 1997).

It has been widely accepted in the training field that evaluation is essential and is one part of the process of training (Bramley, 1996b; Kirkpatrick, 1994; Reid and Barrington, 1996; Bailey, 1999; Pont, 1996; Sloman, 1994b; Warr *et al*., 1970; Mann and Robertson, 1996). Training evaluation is primarily defined as a systematic process to obtain information about particular instructional activities or training programmes, and to determine the value and worth of the interventions based on the collected data (Bramley, 1996b; Hamblin, 1974; Goldstein, 1993; Warr *et al*., 1970). As suggested by Salas and Cannon-Bowers (2001) in the last 30 years training and evaluation has progressed dramatically both in theory and practice. They reveal many approaches and models for evaluating training and development by reviewing historical and modern literature on the evaluation of training and development programmes. The evaluation models presented in this thesis are those most relevant to the nature of this research.

The most influential model is Kirkpatrick's classical four-levels of evaluation: reaction, learning, behaviour, and results. It has been widely used, expanded, over-generalised and criticised (Salas and Cannon-Bowers, 2001; Alliger and Janak, 1989; Dawson, 1995; Tamkin *et al*., 2002). For example Hamblin refines the 'results' into intermediate impact on organisational performance and ultimate results which is measured in financial terms. Likewise Phillips (Phillips, 1991; Phillips, 1996) has developed a result-focused evaluation model which looks at the return on investment of training and development courses in monetary value. Phillips (1991) echoes the view of the causal links among the levels' of evaluation (Kirkpatrick, 1994; Hamblin, 1974) and recommends that the measurement should be done at each level which provides a baseline for the measurement of Level 5 return on investment, the last level. However Holton (1996) criticises Kirkpatrick's four levels of evaluation as being only taxonomy to test causal assumptions but fails to define the causal constructs. The other argument is the concern of Kirkpatrick's model being used as a 'standardised and pre-packaged model which might constrain people's mind but to regard it as a universal framework for all evaluation without assessing individual objectives, needs, and resources (Abernathy, 1999; Alliger and Janak, 1989).

The models developed after Kirkpatrick's levels of evaluation have gradually shifted from the focus on standardised criteria of each level to a wider context of training and development interventions. Firstly the concept of systematic evaluation is introduced rather than narrowly evaluating training programmes (Easterby-Smith, 1994). Warr *et. al* argue that evaluation is a systematic process which needs to be integrated throughout training. Both the CIRO (Warr *et al.,* 1970) model and the CAIPO model (Easterby-Smith, 1994) include the criteria 'context' which covers many contextual factors such as training needs assessment, and objectives of various stakeholders. In addition they add evaluation on resource, budget, design of delivery, trainees' selection, pre-course briefing and post-training facilitation respectively. Secondly some efforts have been made to link training evaluation to performance improvement and to integrate with an organisational performance evaluation system (Lee and Pershing, 2000; Nowack, 1993; Abernathy, 1999; Kaufman, 1987; Collins, 2002). For example, the Balance Scorecard involves the interpretation of an organisation's strategy into specific measurable objectives and focuses on long-term win by centralising business strategy and vision. The 360 degree feedback system contributes to the training needs analysis, which identifies critical knowledge, skills, and abilities (KSAs) factors at different developmental stages and thus establish a baseline for training evaluation. The other example is the Andersen Model of Concept Mapping and Pattern Matching that uses stakeholder expectations to design and evaluate training courses.

Thirdly, attention has been paid to learning effectiveness in the training process (Kraiger *et al*., 1993; Tamkin *et al*., 2002; Rowe, 1996). For instance Kraiger and his colleagues (1993) provide a multidimensional perspective on measuring learning outcomes which refines learning constructs into cognitive, skill-based and affective learning outcomes. Tamkin's model (Tamkin *et al*., 2002) of learning and development suggests that evaluation should integrate with the process of learning and development. Fourthly, the contribution of newly developed models relies on the specified focus on different purposes of evaluation, such as the return on investment (ROI) model (Phillips, 1991) focusing on results, the objective-oriented model (McClelland, 1994) emphasising learners. Comparing with traditional Kirkpatrick's standardised evaluation model the newly developed models have become more flexible and customised and are designed to measure programmes with the long-term and intangible effects (Tamkin et al., 2002; Easterby-Smith, 1994). The next feature is the identification of more intervening variables, which greatly refine the categories to provide specified criteria for different situations (Lewis, 1996; Collins, 2002; Kraiger *et al*., 1993). This contributes to the evaluation theory by helping researchers and practitioners to see the big picture of evaluation as well as defining the categories of variables in different situations.

Moreover there are arguments in recent years about the neglect of formative evaluation (Brown and Gerhardt, 2002). A recent survey indicates that 89% of responding training professionals believe formative evaluation improves training effectiveness (White & Branch, 2001). As pointed out by Brown and Gerhardt (2002) there are scientific benefits to engaging in more systematic formative evaluation. Geis's method of formative evaluation (Geis, 1987) allows pre-training design of instructional materials. Its involvement of various stakeholders in training design and development also helps to build the commitment of managers, trainers and trainees towards programme implementation and reduces apprehension regarding evaluation (Geis, 1987). The integrative model has combined the strength of different perspectives (Dick and Carey, 1996; Weston *et al*., 1995) on formative evaluation and aims to improve the effectiveness of training delivery in organisation situations. The argument of combining these two approaches is established by the possibility of both assessing the outcomes of training intervention and on-going improvement of the effectiveness of a training programme (Brown and Gerhardt, 2002). Last but not least, the key role of stakeholders has been raised as an important issue for training evaluation (Hamblin, 1974; Easterby-Smith, 1994; Geis, 1987). The latest development of stakeholder theory (Mitchell *et al*., 1997; Freeman, 1994; Freeman, 2004; Mellahi and Wood, 2003) adds new strength to the stakeholder approach of training evaluation (Vartiainen, 2003).

1.2.2 Deficiencies of Research

Based on the literature review across the above-discussed three theoretical disciplines the following research deficiencies have been pinpointed relevant to this study. The first important issue is the paucity of a holistic approach to the research of training evaluation. It is argued that training evaluation research differs from training effectiveness and they address different research questions (Kraiger *et al*., 1993). A review of literature by Salas and Cannon-Bowers (2001) on training and development from 1992-2000 further distinguishes the differences of these two subjects. Training evaluation examines the results or impacts of a particular training intervention and is more ‘micro’, whereas the training effectiveness research looks at training intervention in a systemic perspective and is more ‘macro’. There is a danger in separating these two types of research or developing an evaluation model purely based on ‘training evaluation’ study.

The research on training evaluation has well been recognised to benefit from Kirkpatrick’s classical four levels of evaluation (Alliger and Janak, 1989; Kirkpatrick, 1960; Kirkpatrick, 1994; Salas and Cannon-Bowers, 2001). The work after Kirkpatrick’s has developed gradually to a systematic training evaluation rather than sticking to standardised criteria (McClelland, 1994, Kaufman and Keller, 1994, Easterby-Smith, 1994; Warr *et al*., 1970). For example, Brown and Gerhardt (2002) and Geis (1987) suggest formative evaluation on instructional design improves the effectiveness of training programmes. Kaufman *et al*. (1995) and Lewis (1997) point out the importance of looking at training evaluation in a wider perspective and including various contextual factors into evaluation design. The arguments of Vartiainen (2003) and Nickols (2005) represent the latest trends of adopting stakeholder-based approaches in training evaluation. Nevertheless there exists hardly any research in published papers into the evaluation of management training and development in cross-cultural settings.

This study intends to develop an evaluation framework for management training and development in the context of cross-cultures by assessing the whole process of management training and development, as well as measuring the impact or the results of a particular intervention. Therefore a holistic approach is adopted to address the issues of both training evaluation and training effectiveness, which integrates evaluation into the process of management training and development. In the case of evaluating cross-cultural management training and development it involves multi-faceted factors determined by both the home country and the host country of the trainees. In addition the perceptions on the effectiveness of training vary among the stakeholders with different national and organisational backgrounds.

A third deficiency of existing research is the paucity of studies on the effectiveness of Chinese managers' development activities in Western countries. As mentioned in section 1.1 China's oversea management training is a method of developing managers to embrace changes and to achieve improved performance in different organisational sectors and at different levels. It is suggested by some authors (Salas and Cannon-Bowers, 2001; Tannenbaum *et al*., 1991) that training effectiveness addresses two major issues in a training intervention: learning and transfer of learning, whereas traditional and modern management development theory (Thomson *et al*., 2001; Kolb, 1984) emphasises the process of learning and development. Unlike local management training China's overseas management training is underpinned by a broader context involving two cultures. In addition the perceptions on the effectiveness of training vary among the stakeholders with differences according to national and organisational cultures.

As discussed in section 1.3 some studies have demonstrated problems in the cross-cultural learning of international students and expatriate managers as well as in the transfer of knowledge from Western to non-Western settings (Newell, 1999; Selvarajah, 2006, Berrell *et al*., 2001; Batonda and Perry, 2003; Iles *et al*., 2004). This research aims to make a contribution to the theory and methods of management development by (a) exploring the characteristics of China's overseas management training and development process, (b) identifying the key factors which influence Chinese managers' learning in host countries and, (c) identifying the key factors affecting the positive transfer of new learning from overseas training. Moreover the focus on the effectiveness of training and development highlights that the purpose of the evaluation framework is to improve training intervention and maximise the positive impact of management development.

1.3 RESEARCH STRATEGIES AND THE METHODS

1.3.1 Statement of Purpose of This Research

Taking a holistic view this thesis studies the effectiveness of China's overseas management training and development as well as explores how to evaluate China's management training and development in cross-cultural settings. The aim of this study is to develop an evaluation framework for management training and development in a cross-cultural context. In order to achieve this aim the following four objectives are specified:

(1) To critically examine the effectiveness of China's overseas management training programmes for management development

(2) To identify the factors which influence the effectiveness of China's overseas management training and development

(3) To critically examine the evaluation practice of China's overseas management training and to establish methods for training evaluation

(4) To explore the cross-cultural impact on China's management training and development

1.3.2 Research Design

Based on the aim and objectives, this research is characterised by obtaining a holistic understanding of China's overseas management training and development. It also explores and interprets the training intervention from the perspectives of the major stakeholder groups under study who are involved in the training and development process and are from different cultural backgrounds. It thus requires using qualitative method of gathering rich data and conducting in-depth studies. On the other hand, since it is an evaluation research quantitative/experimental methodology is also appropriate (Pedler, 1997; Thomson *et al*., 2001) for this study to triangulate and compare data in terms of attitudinal measurements of participants, evaluation criteria and methods perceived by different stakeholder groups.

Historically there have been paradigm debates about methodological issues of research in social and behavioural science (Tashakkori and Teddlie, 1998; Patton, 1997; Neuman, 2000b). The arguments referred to the use of either quantitative-based methods or qualitative-based methods advocated by researchers from different disciplines. Starting from the 1990s the focus of research methodology has shifted from paradigm debates into the mixed methods approach which combines quantitative and qualitative methods in one study (Creswell, 2003; Teddlie and Tashakkori, 2003). Some authors (Tashakkori and Teddlie, 2003; Morse, 2003) argue that mixed methods provide better opportunities to answer the complicated research questions of social and behavioural science, which are to understand, describe and explain the reality and the complexity of human behaviour and experiences.

In principle this research acknowledges the importance of paradigms of different approaches and pursues the enhanced strengths in a compatible format. Strategically a sequential and concurrent mixed methods approach is adopted with pragmatic knowledge claims (Creswell *et al*., 2003; Creswell, 2003, Erzberger and Kelle, 2003). The study is divided into two phases and designed to collect and analyse both qualitative and quantitative data. The details will be discussed in Part II. Technically Maxwell and Loomis's "Interactive Model" is used, which regards the design of this study as consisting of five components: purposes, conceptual framework, research questions, methods and validity (Maxwell and Loomis, 2003). The overall design emphasises the role of research questions and the five components are considered as a coherent system, which are interlinked with research questions in the central position (Maxwell and Loomis, 2003; Teddlie and Tashakkori, 2003).

As argued by many authors (Creswell *et al*., 2003; Morgan, 1998b; Morse, 2003; Jick, 1979) the mixed methods approach is still in development and there are limitations and problems in combining quantitative and qualitative methods in a single study. This research intends to contribute to methodology by applying a mixed methods approach in cross-cultural study and enriching the cases of pragmatic sequential and concurrent mixed methods in social science research.

1.3.3 Methods

As shown in Table 1.1 seven research questions are developed in relation to the four research objectives (see section 1.4.2).

These questions are primarily qualitative and cover three topics: training evaluation, training effectiveness and cross-cultural issues. Two phases of study are designed to answer enquires. In Phase I qualitative information is gathered and analysed by using secondary data sources and focus group interviews. It explores and generates themes in order to develop instrumentation for questionnaire surveys and semi-structured interviews in the second phase. Phase II employs concurrent triangulation of quantitative and qualitative methods by conducting a questionnaire survey and semi-structured interviews. The empirical studies were carried out in the period of 2004-2005 by means of the above-mentioned methods covering two countries: China and the UK.

This research targets defined populations in particular social business activities. They are categorised into four groups:

(1) Trainees who were taking training in the UK in 2004; ex-trainees who took training in Western countries during 2000~2003 and returned back to their work.

(2) Training managers and officials who were in charge of or organised overseas training activities.

(3) Lecturers and training managers in the UK training institutions/organisations who

delivered management training courses for Chinese managers.

(4) Ex-trainees' supervisors who worked as line managers of ex-trainees.

Table 1.1 Development of Research Questions against the Research Objectives

Objectives	Research questions
1) To critically examine the effectiveness of China's overseas management training programmes for management development	(a) How do different stakeholders perceive the learning outcomes of Chinese managers?
	(b) What are the perceived impacts of overseas management training and development by the major stakeholders?
2) To identify the factors which influence the effectiveness of China's overseas management training and development	(c) What are the key factors affecting the effectiveness of Chinese managers learning in overseas training?
	(d) What are the key factors affecting Chinese managers' application of learning to work place?
3) To critically examine the evaluation practice of China's overseas management training and to establish methods for training evaluation	(e) Is there a systematic approach to the evaluation of China's overseas management training and development?
	(f) What are the preferred criteria and methods for China's overseas management training and development?
4) To explore the cross-cultural impact on China's management training and development	(g) How does culture impact on China's overseas management training and development in a positive and negative way?

Therefore the sampling strategy was made to use a blend of probability sampling of a defined larger population for the questionnaire survey and stratified purposive sampling for semi-structured interviews and focus group interviews (Kemper *et al*., 2003; Tashakkori and Teddlie, 1998). The empirical data was collected from focus groups, questionnaire survey and semi-structured interviews. The proportion of data collection by these three methods was distributed in the way that focus groups took up 15% on average. Next was followed by semi-structured interviews of about 17%. Questionnaire survey covered about 68% of the total participants. This was based on the principle of using different methods in data collection to achieve different purposes (Jick, 1979; Johnson and Turner, 2003; Silverman, 2000). In this case the questionnaire survey was to collect larger amount of quantitative data, whilst the focus group and semi-structured interviews aimed at gathering smaller numbers of qualitative information for piloting and in-depth exploration in a pro-active process.

In the light of the Interactive Model of research design the analytical work took primary consideration of the type of data and then aligned with components of the framework: research questions, validity, purposes of the research and conceptual framework. The analysis was divided into seven steps which integrated with the two phases of data collection. They are: (a) instrument development, (b) match the research questions with responses, (c) concurrent preliminary data analysis, (d) data comparison, (e) data integration, (f) data verification, and (g) data interpretation. One of the unique features of this research was to combine the strength of analytical techniques for both qualitative and quantitative data processes. Moreover the use of cross-tabulation of data sources provided an effective analytical tool to integrate groups of participants and explore different perspectives against subjects under investigation.

Efforts were made to maximise the measurement reliability in the empirical studies and minimise the introduction of bias. The validity of findings was attained by three methods: (a) through a systematic process by employing an interaction model of research design, (b) through triangulation of data sources (perspectives of stakeholder groups), and (c) through triangulation of multi-methods (quantitative and qualitative). Moreover the strategy of employing both probability sampling and purposive sampling enables the generalisability of the findings to a new setting and larger population with similar characteristics (Kemper *et al.*, 2003). It is worth mentioning that the bilingual and cross-cultural skills of the researcher (also interviewer) ensured the reliability and successfulness of the empirical studies which involved two different cultural settings: China and Anglo-Saxon (refer to section 5.6.1.1).

1.4 CONTENTS OF STUDY AND RESEARCH CONTRIBUTIONS

This research aims at contributing to the empirical study on China's management development activities in Western countries and evaluation of management training and development in cross-cultural context. It also seeks to make a methodological contribution in relation to the application of mixed methods approach in cross-cultural research.

1.4.1 Contents of Study

This is an exploratory research guided by research questions which are underpinned by the research objectives. The construction of this study focuses on the following areas.

Table 1.2 illustrates the contents of study in relation to the research objectives and research questions.

Table 1.2 Contents of Study in Relation to the Research Objectives and Research Questions

Objectives	**Research questions**	**Contents of study**
1) To critically examine the effectiveness of China's overseas management training programmes for management development	(a) How do different stakeholders perceive the learning outcomes of Chinese managers?	To explore the effectiveness of training delivery, learning, transfer of learning and the impacts of overseas management training and development from the perspectives of different groups of participants
	(b) What are the perceived impacts of overseas management training and development by the major stakeholders?	
2) To identify the factors which influence the effectiveness of China's overseas management training and development	(c) What are the key factors affecting the effectiveness of Chinese managers learning in overseas training?	To identify the key factors influencing effective learning of Chinese managers in overseas training, and to identify the key factors influencing effective transfer of learning to Chinese organisations from the perspectives of different groups of participants
	(d) What are the key factors affecting Chinese managers' application of learning to work place?	
3) To critically examine the evaluation practice of China's overseas management training and to establish methods for training evaluation	(e) Is there a systematic approach to the evaluation of China's overseas management training and development?	To investigate the current evaluation practice, and approaches of China's overseas management training and development from the perspectives of different groups of participants
	(f) What are the preferred criteria and methods for China's overseas management training and development?	
4) To explore the cross-cultural impact on China's management training and development	(g) How does culture impact on China's overseas management training and development in a positive and negative way?	To explore the cross-cultural impact on China's overseas management training and development

Firstly this thesis studies the intervention of China's overseas management training and development by inviting different perspectives of the major stakeholders involved and evaluating the effectiveness of training programmes, such as delivery, learning and transfer of learning. Secondly the study explores the factors which influence the effective learning of Chinese managers in overseas training and the effective transfer to their workplace in Chinese settings. Thirdly this research intends to investigate the current evaluation systems and approaches of China's overseas management training and development such as purposes, criteria and methods of evaluation by different stakeholders. Fourthly cross-cultural impact is explored by identifying both positive and negative cultural interaction elements and their interactive process. The overarching principle of the empirical study is to investigate the same subjects from the perspectives of different stakeholders involved. Moreover various methods are used to study the same phenomenon, which involves both qualitative and quantitative information. As mentioned in section 1.3.3 they are methodologically called triangulation of data source and triangulation of methods. Since this research is designed to primarily maintain the consistency between research questions and related literature (see section 1.3.2) the contents are underlined by the theories of three disciplines respectively (see section 1.3). The using of the Interactive Framework in research design also provides consistency between the findings to each research question, and instrument with conceptual framework.

1.4.2 Intended Contributions

As discussed in section 1.1 the fast economic development and institutional restructuring of China has required investment into human resource development at different levels, particularly in the management system (Branine, 1996; Borgonjon and Vanhonacker, 1994; Warner, 1993). Some authors (Warner, 2004; Cooke, 2003; Chow, 1991) point out that Chinese policy-makers recognise the importance of training and education as an important means to improve performance. Western management theory and operation has been considered to be the scientific and advanced theory which needs to be learnt and applied into Chinese management practices (Branine, 2005). Early in the late 70s the Chinese government initiated overseas professional and management training to develop middle-and-senior-level managers. However there are few studies on Chinese managers' studying or learning in Western countries and their post training experiences in applying their learning to the workplace.

This research intends to take a holistic review of China's overseas management training and development process. It studies the effectiveness of management training programmes from the perspectives of the major stakeholders involved in this training intervention. Learning and knowledge transfer are the focus of exploring the training effectiveness. It aims to make a contribution to management development theory and practices by evaluating the effectiveness of management training and development in cross-cultural settings, identifying factors affecting effective learning of Chinese managers in Western countries, and the factors affecting transfer of learning to Chinese organisations.

In addition, this thesis concentrates on establishing methods of evaluating training and development by intensive examinations of current evaluation system of China's overseas management training. It intends to contribute to training evaluation by developing an evaluation framework for management training and development in cross-cultural contexts, which is a gap to be filled (refer to section 1.2.2 and 1.4.1). Moreover this research addresses the specific characteristic of cross-cultural influences on the training process. This leads to a contribution to cross-cultural studies for management development activities and learning theory. Last but not least, the application of a mixed methods approach in this study aims to make a contribution to the methodological issue of mixed methods research in cross-cultural studies.

1.5 STRUCTURE OF THE THESIS

This thesis consists of 12 chapters, with this chapter, Chapter 1 introducing this research. It sets out the background of this thesis by introducing Chinese context, the initiation of China's overseas management training and development, and the rationale for this study. A summary of literature and methodological issues are then followed to highlight the contents of this study and the intended contribution of this research.

Diagram 1.1 provides an overview of the structure of this thesis. The main body of this thesis is divided into four parts as below:

Part I: Literature Review

This part reviews the literature from three disciplines that are directly related to this study. Chapter 2 surveys the theory and methods of management development in a dynamic world with a focus on formal management development activities, management training and education. The theory of learning and transfer is also included to emphasise the process of learning and development. Chapter 3 covers the fundamental theory of training evaluation and evaluation models which are most suitable for evaluating management training and development interventions. Chapter 4 reviews the literature on cross-cultural studies by introducing cultural dimensions and orientations, attributes and processes of cross-cultural interaction, as well as the previous research on cross-cultural learning, knowledge transfer and facilitation in the context of management training, education and development.

Part II Methodology

Part II includes three chapters, which discuss the methodology for achieving the research objectives. Chapter 5 introduces the design strategy of this research—pragmatic sequential and concurrent mixed methods approach and provides the details in sampling, data collection. Chapter 6 discusses the implementation of empirical studies including instrumentation, operation of empirical studies and validity issues. The analytical strategy of this mixed methods research is included in Chapter 7 and the process of analysing and combining quantitative and qualitative data is illustrated.

Part III Tabulation of data

Part III presents the findings by triangulating and analysing information from various sources and by different methods. It consists of three chapters. Chapter 8 provides descriptive results of the major stakeholders and the basic information of training intervention by using stakeholder analysis approach. The purpose of this chapter is to outline the research subject and lead to a better understanding of the next two chapters. Chapter 9 demonstrates the findings from questionnaire survey and interviews and targets the fulfilment of training effectiveness research. It meets objectives 1, and 2. Chapter 10 presents the results of training evaluation and cross-cultural studies, which aims to answer objectives 3 and 4.

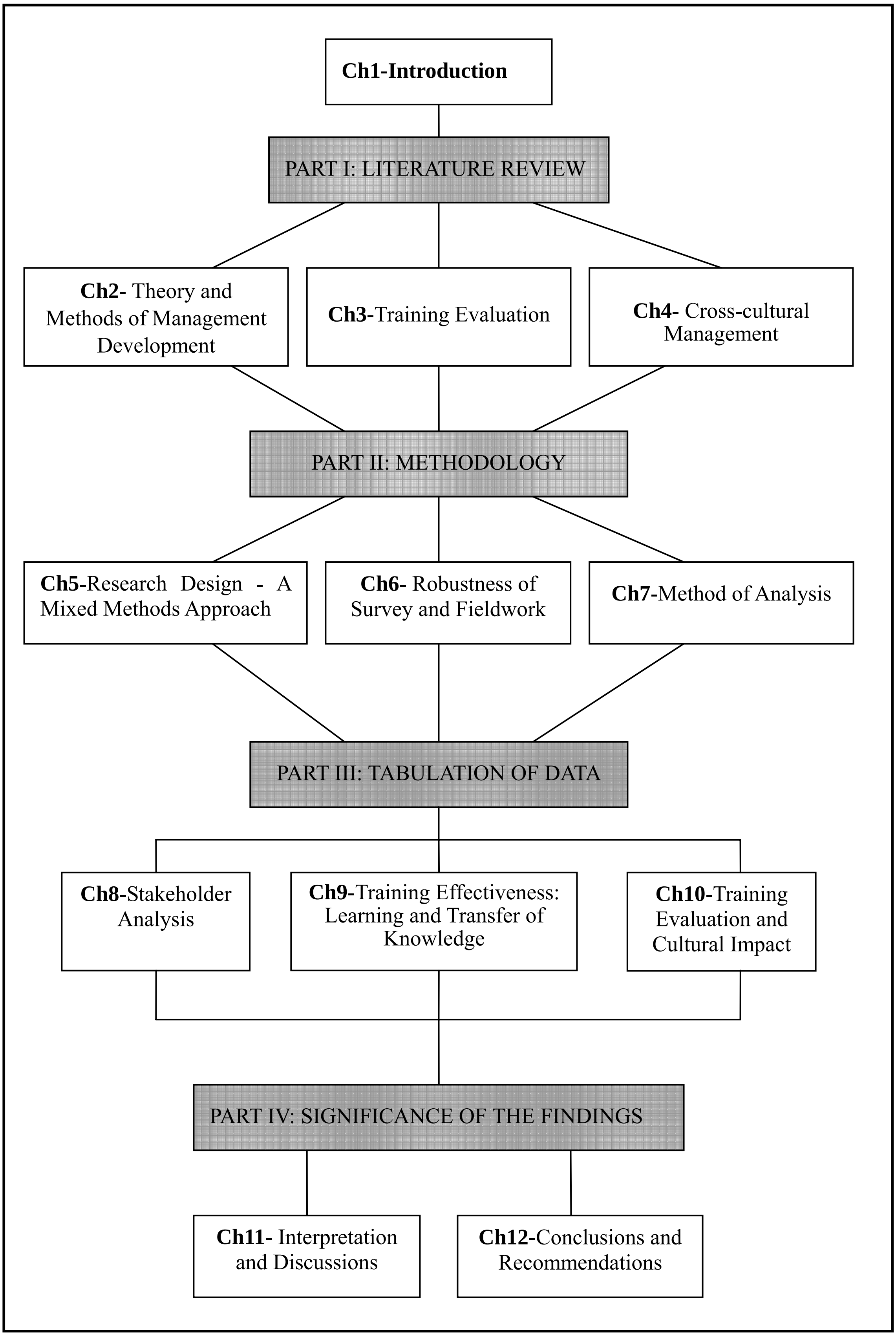
Part IV Significance of the findings

This last part discusses the key findings, implications, and the contribution of this research. It includes two chapters. Chapter 11 elaborates the important findings and presents the developed evaluation framework for management training and development in a cross-cultural context. Chapter 12 ascertains whether the aim and objectives of this study have been achieved. Contributions of this study to the knowledge of literature, methodology, and practices are reviewed. Limitations of this research and directions for future research are also discussed.

1.6 SUMMARY OF CHAPTER 1

Chapter 1 provided an introduction to the context, research problem, aim and objectives of this research. A critical review of literature in three disciplines has identified the research deficiencies related to this research. These are management development theory and practices including cross-cultural learning and knowledge transfer, development of training evaluation framework in cross cultural settings, and cultural impact on training and development. Methodological issues have also been addressed for the purpose of best meeting the research objectives. The structure of this thesis is presented in diagram 1.1 below with brief descriptions.

Diagram 1.1 Structure of This Thesis



PART I LITERATURE REVIEW

Chapter 2 Theory and Methods of Management Development

Chapter 3 Training Evaluation

Chapter 4 Cross-Cultural Management

INTRODUCTION

In chapter 1 the topic of this research has been discussed and ascertained as follows: evaluation of China's management training and development in an international context, which covers three subject disciplines: management development, training evaluation, and cross-cultural management. The purpose of Part I is to review the results of other studies closely related to this research; highlight the ongoing arguments in the literature about this topic; and aims to fill in gaps identified from prior studies.

The survey of literature consists of three parts, covering the above-mentioned three disciplines. Chapter 2 looks at the theory of management development and methods of developing managers in a dynamic world are also discussed. Other empirical studies on management development activities are reviewed with a focus on the effectiveness of learning and transfer of learning. The theory of learning and transfer are included such as Kolb's experiential learning theory.

Chapter 3 includes fundamental theory of training evaluation and reviews evaluation models which are most suitable for assessing management training and development interventions. It also discusses arguments on purposes of evaluation and different approaches to training evaluation, particularly the stakeholder-based approach.

Chapter 4 reviews the literature on cross-cultural research starting with cultural dimensions and orientations. Studies on the attributes and process of cross-cultural interaction are included. It also covers previous research on cross-cultural learning, knowledge transfer and facilitation in the context of management training, education and development.

CHAPTER 2
THEORY AND METHODS OF MANAGEMENT DEVELOPMENT

2.0 PREAMBLE

Over the last 20 years or so the contemporary theory of organisation and enterprise has gradually changed from a purely market-oriented concept to a resource focus, which includes management as one of the most important resources of an organisation (Thomson *et al*., 2001). There is a growing consensus that management development plays a crucial role in the process of helping an organisation to survive in a competitive environment and to develop in the changing world (Luoma, 2005; Winterton and Winterton, 1997; Marquardt *et al*., 2000). 'Developing their managers' has become one of the core strategies in different organisational sectors and nations with different systems (Osman-Gani and Tan, 2000; Borgonjon and Vanhonacker, 1994; Ralphs and Stephan, 1986; Holden, 1991) and the study of management development and practices has received increasing attention both from academics and practitioners (Mabey and Thomson, 2000; Mabey, 2002; Mintzberg, 2004; Saari et al., 1988; Xie and Wu, 2001; Xie, 2005; Cosier and Dalton, 1993).

This chapter first reviews the theory of management development in dynamic environments where organisations are facing changes (section 2.1). The methods of developing managers are also explored in line with human resource development theory which focuses on managers' core competences, i.e., new knowledge, skills, and long-term vision. Section 2.2 incorporates learning theory particularly Kolb's experiential learning theory (ELT). A survey of literature is carried out to look at the other studies of the effectiveness of learning and knowledge transfer. Section 2.3 focuses on the formal management development activities and their impact on organisations. Section 2.4 summarises Chapter 2.

2.1 MANAGEMENT DEVELOPMENT AND ITS ROLE IN MANAGING CHANGE

Many commentators focus on analysing the reasons for change, and types of changes, as well as the management transition in organisations (McCalman and Paton, 1992; Thornhill *et al*., 2000). Griffiths and Williams (1999) and Barry (1999) suggest that the important issue about managing change is for policy makers to have a clear vision of their organisations and link human resource development to the business strategies.

Traditional management can no longer facilitate the business operation due to the rapid changes in organisations and the environment. Managers thus need to be developed with new competences and managerial techniques to keep up with these rapid changes at various organisational levels. As described by Thomson and *et al*. (2001) development acts like a catalyst for change which may require cognitive, behavioural and environmental change. Consequently development activities are designed with a long term vision without referring to definite job criteria, which "prepares individuals to move in the new directions that organisational change may require" (Phillips, 1987:150).

2.1.1 Concept of Management Development

The concept of management development has been interpreted differently. Mullins (2002:851) argues that "there is no single, agreed definition of management development". Mumford (1989:5) quotes a definition from a training services agency that management development is "an attempt to improve managerial effectiveness through a planned and deliberate learning process". Mumford (1997) argues that to refer to management development as a 'formal, planned and deliberate process' is narrow and flawed. Mumford (1997) suggests that the concept of management development should include formal management development activity and informal learning. Mumford (1989:5) thus modifies the traditional version into 'an attempt to improve managerial effectiveness through a learning process'.

Thomson and his colleagues (2001:10) agree with Mumford's arguments (Mumford, 1997) by suggesting management development is a "multi-faceted process", which includes not only "formal learning of knowledge and skills" through training and education, but also "informal and experiential modes of human capital formation". Mabey and Thomson (Mabey and Thomson, 2000:276) also suggest including informal development activities in the entire organisational development protocol, which aims to improve their managers' knowledge and skills. They argue that a formal training programme is not the only solution for management development, as much learning is gained from experiences.

Likewise, Evans (2005) suggests that management development is a process of developing effective managers and meeting the needs of an organisation, which includes three aspects: (a) knowledge, (b) planning, analytical and creative skills, and (c) interpersonal skills. Staunton and Giles (2001:2) argue from another angle that management development is not simply sending managers for a course but aims to deliver business change. In recent years the focus of management development has shifted to individual and organisational learning because the purpose of development of its managers is to help the entire organisation to grow, which in turn stimulates the economic prosperity and cultural diversity of society as a whole (Evans, 2005; Luoma, 2005; Mintzberg, 2004; Li, 1999). This has brought multiple meanings to management development. First, learning is the core of developing managers. Second, management development aims to change the organisation. Third, its impact has a powerful effect on economic and social development.

Based on the above modern theory of management development it can be summarised that management development is a process of learning and developing which aims at the improvement of managerial effectiveness and to deliver business change by means of both formal and informal development activities.

2.1.2 Training in the Process of Management Development

As mentioned earlier training and education are two major development methods for managers, which are categorised in formal management development activities. It is apparent that the term ‘development’ is often mixed with the term ‘training’. For example, Hamblin (1974) uses ‘training’ to include ‘development’, which can be regarded as training activity for a future job, whereas Mabey (2002) use the term ‘training’ and ‘development’ interchangeably to cover formal training and informal development activities that managers engage in to improve their knowledge, abilities and skills.

A traditional definition of training, taken from the Department of Employment’s Glossary of Training Terms (Development of Employment, 1971:29) is that “The systematic development of the knowledge/skill/attitudes required by a person in order to perform effectively a given task or job". Hamblin, (1974:6) simply describes training as "any activity which deliberately attempts to improve a person's skill in a job". Some writers stress the individual's learning related to the present job and immediate changes in job performance (Nadler, 1984; Rothwell and Kazanas, 1994). Cambell, *et al.* (1970) define training as a planned learning experience designed to bring about permanent change in an individual's knowledge, attitudes, or skills.

Later studies develop the debate on 'training'. For example, Mayo (1998) argues that the term training has developed from the traditional meaning of programmes or activities to include various ways or methods of learning both for the present job and future demands. Bramley's view supports Mayo's argument. Bramley (1996a: xvii) suggests that "training aims at improving performance at present and future and therefore enhances the effectiveness of an organisation where the trainees (individual and group) work". This might account for the overlapping of the terms of training and development.

There are some attempts to distinguish between training and development. For example, Mullins (2002:844) suggests that training is normally the basic means in the development process and training usually emphasises the improvement of managers' performance for their current job. Development has more of an emphasis on their ability to manage change and their qualification for future positions. Rothwell and Kazanas (1994:397) agrees with Mullins' argument and points out that training focuses on individual learning related to job requirements while development "contributes to organisational learning by cultivating the collective skills of individuals in group settings".

Bernhard and Ingols (1988:41-42) argue that development "broadens people and gives them new perspectives", which emphasises developing organisational top managers and leadership. Training is, however, "a short-term activity that helps people to do their job better, to become skilled specialists". In other words "training is improvement for today and development is an investment for tomorrow".
Easterby-Smith (1994:10-11) contests the traditional definitions between 'training' and

‘development’: ‘training’ aims at improving managers’ current performance, while ‘development’ aims at improving managers’ future performance. He argues against basing the definitions on the obvious goals of programmes whilst the concept of goal and objectives of training and development is problematic in the first instance. Easterby-Smith (1994:12) defines training as a procedure involving managers attending a course or a workshop. His view agrees with the suggestion by Ashton and Esterby-Smith (1978) that training is regarded as a sub-system of management development.

Therefore, in the context of management development training can be defined as an intervention of systematic development of managers’ knowledge, skills, attitudes and other abilities in order to improve the performance of managers and their organisations through a planned and structured learning process with emphasis on business reality. Hereinafter training is referred to as management training.

2.1.3 Education and Its Integration with Management Training and Development

Reid (1997) suggests that education is one of the important elements in employee development. Manpower Services Commission (1981b) defines education as activities that aim to develop knowledge, skills, moral, values and understanding in relation to all aspects of life in general, but not limited to the knowledge and skills of specific area of activity. Mayo (1998) argues that the purpose of education is to reframe or develop people’s minds, and it may refine or influence attitudes and values of a person. Under this catalogue three major activities are included: (a) general management development programmes, (b) attitudinal change initiatives and, (c) courses of professional qualifications. As pointed out by Mayo (1998) these interventions are primarily educational and link with organisational business activities. Most of them aim at long-term pay-off such as evoking managers’ insights and raising multicultural awareness.

Some authors attempt to draw a distinction between education and training. For example, Pilbeam and Corbridge (2002: 284) suggests that “training is a planned activity conducted over the short term to impart specific job-related knowledge, skills and attitudes (KSAs)"; while "education is a much longer-term process developing broad and general KSAs, often not job –related at all". By reviewing the arguments of various authors (Rothwell and Kazanas, 1994; Nadler, 1984; Mumford, 1997; Pilbeam and Corbridge, 2002), the interrelation of education, training and development can be summarised as follows.

First, education and training focus on changing individual's knowledge, skills and attitude; while development focuses on 'changing the collective knowledge and skills of a work group or an organisation' (Rothwell and Kazanas, 1994; Mumford, 1997). However, individual development can be achieved through both education and training (Pilbeam and Corbridge, 2002; Cooke, 2005).

Second, according to Mole (2000) and Rothwell and Kazanas (1994) education and development is more future-oriented; while training is more related to the present job. However, there is argument that education also passes on cultural traditions in an organisation, which may be a barrier to future change (Rothwell and Kazanas, 1994).

Third, education is traditionally defined as an activity which aims at the 'whole person and total career', whereas training is directly linked with a person's 'job requirement'. In other words 'education is for life; while training is for work' (Reid and Barrington, 1997:8). Thomson *et al*. (2001) argue that management education normally refers to formal, structured learning in an institutional situation; while management training usually includes the formal activity of acquiring knowledge and skills related to job requirements. These are the two important means to be used for improving managers' ability and competences (Cooke, 2005; LaHote et al., 1999).

Last but not least, as Patrick (2000) points out, in a traditional definition, education and training have been viewed as two distinctive concepts. However, they overlap somewhat due to the advances of new technology and changing nature of jobs. Mumford (1997) argues that education and training has gained new meaning particularly by the introduction of MBA programmes. Similarly, Burgoyne and Reynolds (1997) suggest that management education has developed and become a subset of higher education, which aims to deliver analytical and critical skills in academic disciplines to managers using traditional teaching methods. Mumford (1997) argues that education is 'knowledge-based', while training contains higher skills and their applications. However, Burgoyne and Reynolds (1997:22) compare management education with management development from the perspective of academic and management practices. For example, in terms of course content, management education mainly delivers courses of management theories and principles, whereas management development programmes are based on personal knowledge, repertories and skills such as time management, teamwork, negotiation and personal development.

2.1.4 Methods of Management Development and Arguments of Formal and Informal Management Development

In a broad review of management development theories two representative schools of classification can be introduced below. First is Mumford's categoty of management development, which is based on his empirical study. In his model Mumford (1997:38-45) summarises three approaches which organisations usually adopt for management development.

Type I Informal managerial process:

This refers to accidental, informal developmental processes, which take place in real managerial activities. The learning involved is direct and explicit. There is no pre-planning and it is unstructured without clear development objectives.

Type II Integrated managerial process:

This is a structured and opportunistic development method involving the managers and colleagues with clear development objectives. It has the explicit intention of task performance and development and involves a planned learning process.

Type III Formal management development:

This is a type of planned off-the-job process with the explicit intention of development and with clear objectives. The intervention is usually structured by professional developers which involves a planned learning process.

Similarly the work of Thomson, and Mabey (Thomson *et al*., 2001: 143-50; Mabey and Thomson, 2000: S5-6) support Mumford's classification (1997).

Formal development method

This refers to off-the-job training such as internal and external courses, qualifications, seminars and conferences. Based on the empirical findings of Mabey and Thomson (2000:S5-6), the different development methods apply to managers according to their managerial levels.

Informal development method

This refers to experiential development, which includes on-the-job activities like in-company job rotation, job observation, on-the-job training, mentoring and coaching, and incidental development opportunities. For instance, informal development activities could involve experiential and accidental learning, which occurs while performing the job or other events related to managers' work and also from daily living (Mumford, 1997).

The above two types of classification of methods for management development have included management training and education into the formal management development category. Mumford (1997) argues that formal management development is important but insufficient. Additionally formal development processes are inefficiently provided. On the other hand informal management development processes could be insufficient and inefficient because managers often lack the special skills to best utilise it as effective learning experiences. In other words, informal managerial learning through normal work experience is also insufficient. Mumford (Mumford, 1997, p38) therefore suggests the marriage of formal and informal learning experiences in the development process, which emphases the learning nature of managers. Branine (2005) produces a good example of this in his work with Chinese management development programmes. He demonstrates that learning can take place in the form of the daily interaction and managerial reality of Chinese managers and their Western partners rather than in the classroom.

However there is a paucity of empirical studies providing strong evidence of the practical linkage of these two types of management development. In particular publications on management development, training and education for developing Chinese managers in Western countries are rare. Moreover some research (Mabey and Thomson, 2000; Thomson et al., 2001) has revealed that informal management development is less associated with an organisational management development system than the formal development activities.

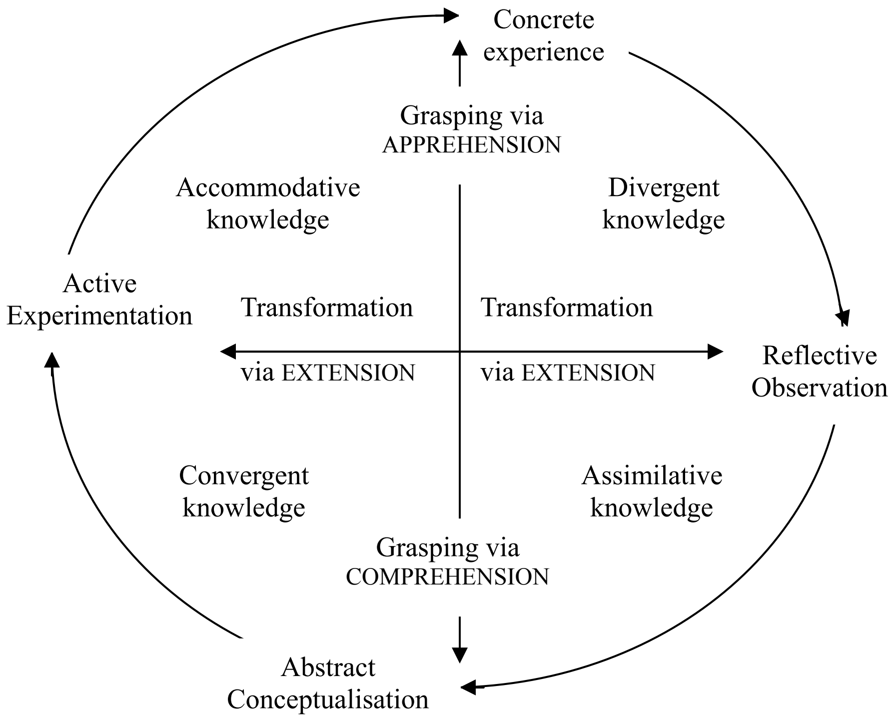
2.2 INTEGRATION OF LEARNING THEORY INTO MANAGEMENT DEVELOPMENT

Thomson *et al*. (2001) state that the application of learning theory research to management development helps the UK to understand the nature and characteristics of management learning. It also raises the question of whether management development programmes benefit the organisation as they are supposed to. Furthermore Thomson and his colleagues (2001) argue that any management development programme needs to engage with: the learner's knowledge and emotional investment in the learning they are embarking on; the learner's past experience of learning, and their expectations about the way in which learning occurs and their own capabilities to learn.

2.2.1 Experiential Learning Theory (ELT)

It is widely accepted that Kolb's experiential learning theory (ELT) published in 1984 is one of the most influential theories of management learning through experience (Kayes, 2002; Yamazaki and Kayes, 2004; Sugarman, 1985). ELT has been well known as a four-stage cycle involving four adaptive learning modes, which represents four kinds of learning style. They are described as concrete experience, reflective observation, abstract conceptualisation, and active experimentation and are integrated into a single framework (Kolb, 1984; Kayes, 2005). As shown in Fig. 2.1 Kolb's model of experiential learning consists of two dimensions of learning process (Kolb, 1984:42). First one is an apprehension-and-comprehension dimension through concrete experience and abstract conceptualisation, while the other one is transformation dimension via intentional reflection and extensional action (Kolb, 1984:58-59).

Figure 2.1 Structural Dimensions Underlying the Process of Experiential Learning and the Resulting Basic Knowledge Forms



Source: Kolb (1984:42)

Yamazaki and Kayes (2004) argue that Kolb's two-dimensional view provides an understanding of the current state of people's learning style as a single point on abstract, concrete, active and reflective. It specifies learning characteristics of learning styles, learning abilities and learning skills and dialectically correlates their positions (see Table 2.1). Sugarman (1985) suggests that Kolb's model has a significant impact on management training and development. For example, the learning style inventory (LSI) developed on the ELT by Kolb and his colleagues (Kolb *et al*., 1979) can be used to measure trainees preferred style of learning. The results of assessment provide a guideline for designing the format of programmes such as to be theoretical or practical against learners' preferences of learning.

Table 2.1 The Relationship of Learning Style, Learning Abilities and Skills

STYLE	ABILITY	ABILITY	SKILL
Convergent	Abstract Conceptualisation (AC) Active Experimentation (AE)	AC	Analytical such as information analysis technology learning
Divergent	Concrete Experience (CE) Reflective Observation (RO)	CE	Interpersonal, such as relationship building, leadership and understanding
Assimilation	Abstract Conceptualisation (AC) Reflective Observation (RO)	RO	Perceptual such as sense making, information gathering
Accommodative	Concrete Experience (CE) Active Experimentation (AE)	AE	Behavioural such as goal setting, action, initiative taking

Souce: edited from Kolb (1984:76-98) and Yamazaki and Kayes (2004:363-365)

Moreover Kolb's ELT theory introduces a third dimension which represents people's learning approach towards development. Kolb (1984:98) suggests that the process of learning and development are interrelated. Learning from experience shapes and actualises potential for development, which focuses in two ways: (a) the transaction between internal characteristics of individuals and the external circumstances, (b) the transaction between personal knowledge and social knowledge (Kolb, 1984: 132-160). It is also included as developmental learning in addition to the above-mentioned three types of learning: ability, style and skills (Mainemelis *et al*., 2002). Yamasaki and Kayes (2004) argue that developmental learning describes a process of how individuals learn to adapt to the changing environment. Since learning is a social process the development of individuals is therefore shaped by the cultural system of social knowledge.

However there are some criticisms (Holman *et al*., 1997; Freeman and Stumpf, 1980; Vince, 1998) that Kolb's ELT over emphasises personal self-assessment and individual learning experience, but neglects the contextual factors such as society, politics, and culture. Holman (1997) argues that Kolb's ELT fells into the trap of traditional cognitive psychology which machamnically explains the managers' learning in four cylidical process but places social, historical and cultural aspects as second phenomeno. He regards management learning as a process of argumentation ‘in which thinking, relecting, experiencing and action are different aspects of the same process’ (Holman et al: 145). Vince (1998) suggests to develop Kolb’s ELT by addressing the political power in management learning as well as unconscious learning process. More recently Kayes (2002) critically reviews Kolb’s experiential learning from a poststructuralist perspective by incorporating social knowledge with personal knowledge. It is also suggested by Kayes (2002) that much emphasis should be placed on language and conversation in learning process because language provides coherence and structure to the experience of management learning.

2.2.2 Action Learning Theory (ALT) Adds Value to Management Learning and Development

Mumford (1997) suggests that action learning strongly resembles the theory of Kolb’s experiential learning cycle (see Figure 2.1). Weinstein (1999) also explains that Kolb’s learning cycle applies to action learning, which starts from action, moves onto reflection and then is followed by consolidation of insights and finally plans to the next action. Pedler (1997) suggests moreover that action learning is always reinventing itself because each application is a practical case in terms of its technique and form although action learning is regarded as a simple idea.

The key point of action learning is the focus on learning from doing, such as a designed project, which is usually implemented in a structured learning situation (Mumford, 1997). The other critical point of action learning is to learn in the company of others, such as peers and colleagues, which has the benefit of sharing knowledge, ideas, questions and solutions to problems while working and learning in groups (Weinstein, 1999). Weinstein argues (1999) that action learning fits well in the situation when an organisation or individuals confront dilemma, face changes and challenges and need to make new strategies for the future. It is therefore concluded that action learning is an effective approach for organisational development, team development and personal development as well as playing an important role in management training and development (Weinstein, 1999).

2.2.3 Learning and Its Interrelationship with Management Development Activities

As discussed earlier sending managers for external training courses or education is part of the management development process, which falls under the category of formal management development intervention (Mumford, 1997). It was also discussed that learning is crucial to the success of training and education which in turn influences the effectiveness of management development. Mumford (1997) suggests an effectiveness triangle of management development, effective learning process and effective managerial behaviour, the latter focusing on managerial behaviour and practice. It is also arguable that the learning preference of individuals and the different managerial styles are two important elements in management development (Mumford, 1997).

Pedler (1995) argues that learning can be simply described as how people change. Pedler's notion (Pedler, 1995:22) is based on the assumption that changes occur after the process of learning, which includes four types of learning: (a) to learn about things or knowledge; (b) to do things using new skills, abilities, and competences; (c) to become self-aware and achieve your full potential; (d) and to achieve better collaboration and enquiry. Cunningham (1999) agrees with Pedler, that learning is a process to change people.

As discussed in section 2.2.1 Kolb's model of experiential learning has shown that individuals have different learning preferences, which greatly influences their developmental opportunities. Moreover the action learning theory elaborated in section 2.2.2 provides practical meaning to managerial learning. Management learning can be obtained both from other people or resources and from managers' own experiences through action and reflection (Weinstein, 1999). Mintzberg and Gosling (2002) argue that managers cannot be created in a classroom and management education should enable management learning through the reflection of their work experience. Mintzberg and Gosling (2002) identify five frames of developing a managerial mind; they are reflective mindset, collaborative mindset, analytic mindset, the worldly mindset, and action mindset. Momford (1997) points out that the challenge for management development is to identify these differences both in learning and managerial style, so as to maximise learning effectiveness, or in other words, to make managers learn how to learn effectively.

2.2.4 Factors Influence Effective Learning

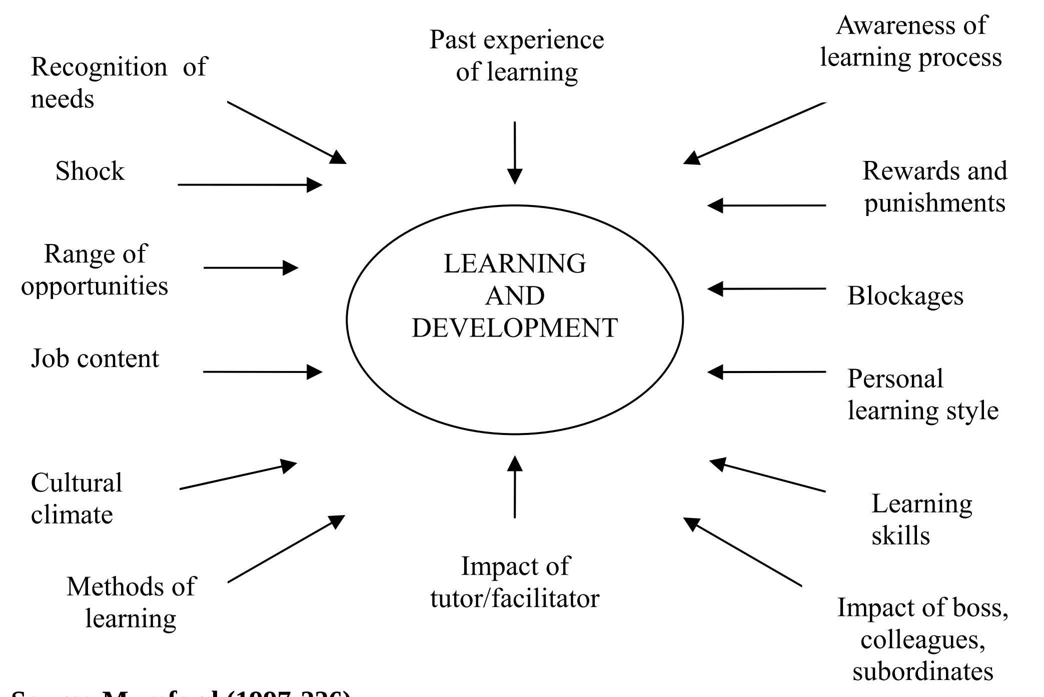
Having analysed the nature of experiential learning Kolb defines learning as the process whereby knowledge is created through the transformation of experience, which includes the following key points. First learning is a continuous process of adaptation derived from experience, not in terms of outcomes or contents. Secondly, the learning process is a holistic concept of adaptation and a continuous process. Thirdly, the transformation of knowledge is a continuous process, involving creation and recreation, not an independent entity to be received or transmitted. Fourthly, learning requires interplay between people and environment. Learning therefore transforms experience both in a subjective and objective way. Finally, it is necessary to understand the nature of knowledge if an understanding of learning is required, and *vice versa*.

Antonacopoulou's empirical study (1999) has been identified, from individuals' perspectives, that training does not necessarily imply learning because the expectation of trainees is constrained by the objectives of their organisations. She argues that training as a learning experience for individuals is not only the process of knowledge and skills acquisition but emphasises the individuals' needs, it provides confidence and the ability to develop and grow. In other words, it is unlikely the individuals would learn if a designed training programme could not meet the individuals' objectives and fail to facilitate the individuals' development. Marsick and Watkins (1997) point out the challenges for learning in groups are even greater than those for individual learning. For example, the needs for learning might vary and conflicts exist due to different ideas which need to be negotiated.

Cunningham (1999) argues that learning is not only a process of change but is also associated with the outcome of change. There is no lack of evidence of the negative impact on learning of pooly designed training courses. As pointed out by Cunningham (1999) didactic, authoritarian training may transfer inappropriate and irrelevant knowledge to learners, leading to ineffective learning. Patric (2000) includes the contexts of the training intervention and suggests that a training programme which aims at learning and transfer should take account of the wider organisational context.

Even though there is some recognition of the importance of learning and effectiveness there is little research to identify the key factors that influence effective learning in management training and education. Nevertheless, it is worth mentioning that Mumford (1997) identifies fourteen factors influencing the learning and development process. Shown in Figure 2.2 some of the factors support the theories and studies discussed earlier such as learning skills, learning style, past experience of learning, impact of tutor, and recognition of needs. This also shed light on exploring the factors affecting effective learning and how to maximise the effectiveness of learning in the process of development.

Figure 2.2 Influences on Learning



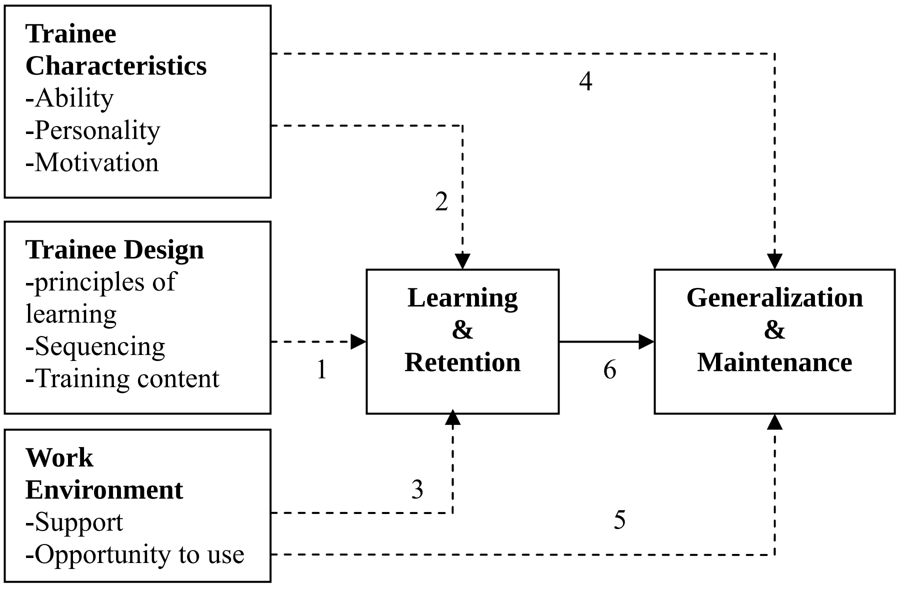
Source:Mumford (1997:226)

2.2.5 Transfer of Learning and Factors Affecting the Transfer of Knowledge

The key focus of research into training effectiveness is the extent to which the learning objectives have been achieved and the extent to which the learned knowledge, skills and abilities have been applied to the job. This issue of transfer has attracted more attention in organisational training and management development (Burke and Baldwin, 1999;

Baldwin and Ford, 1988; Ford and Weissbein, 1997; Noe, 2000; Noe, 1986) and some theoretical frameworks have been developed to study learning transfer. Baldwin and Ford (1988) suggest a model which describes the transfer process in three areas: training inputs, training outputs and conditions of transfer. Learning and retention refers to the outputs of a training intervention whereas trainees' characteristics, training design and work environment constitute training inputs. As indicated in Figure 2.3 conditions of transfer are influenced by learning outcomes and training inputs both directly and indirectly. Based on the model of transfer process Baldwin and Ford's work (1988) examines the literature on factors impacting on transfer. The critiques of the existing transfer research are provided in respect to the five elements listed in the transfer model. The major problems are identification of important trainees' characteristics, work environment variables, criterion of measuring factors related to transfer effects and lack of systematic approach to generalise results from training design.

Figure 2.3 A Model of the Transfer Process



Source: Baldwin and Ford (1988:65)

A later study by Ford and Weissbein (1997) focuses on the above-mentioned limitations addressed by Baldwin and Ford (1988) and explores the areas of (a) the generalisability of results from training design studies to actual training setting, (b) identification of important trainee characteristics which impact on transfer, (c) the conceptualisation and operationlisation of work environment factors, and (d) the criterion issues of how and when to measure training transfer. The key findings contribute to the transfer research exploring the factors influencing transfer of learning. For example, it identifies two environments in transfer research: the training environment and the transfer environment as well as their interaction with individual characteristics. Moreover, the work environment is found to be multidimensional including various factors such as support, climate and opportunity (Ford and Weissbein, 1997).

The latest argument about knowledge transfer refers to the criterion of evaluation of transfer of learning (Ford and Weissbein, 1997; Kim, 2004). It has been widely recognised that transfer of learning is a process of applying new knowledge and skills which is described as a 'sociopolitical process' by Kim (2004:498). Some literature on transfer climate elucidates the interaction of various stakeholders in the process of transfer in which the trainees attempt to apply what they learned to the job. It therefore raises the issue that the evaluation cannot possibly isolate the environment where the transfer process takes place, but simply measure the performance of the trainees (Baldwin and Ford, 1988, Ford and Weissbein, 1997). As suggested by Baldwin and Ford (1988) the previous research only emphasises training-input factors but neglects the factors of the condition of transfer. Kim (2004:499) argues that "the meaning of performance improvement is usually determined by its beholders, …, it is a subjective and value-laden concept rather than an objective and value-free one". The theory of stakeholder involved evaluation (Deepwell and Cousin, 2005; Rein and Stott, 2005) provides a possibility to solve the criterion issues in transfer research.

Huczynski and Lewis (1980) propose a model to look at transfer from a different route. A three-phase interaction is illustrated which follows the general principle's of the training process: (1) the pre-course phase, (2) the learning phase, and (3) the post-course phase. They are respectively characterised by training needs identification and motivation initiation, instructional delivery, and the management of the work environment to promote transfer.

Table 2.2 Factors Affecting Transfer of Learning (edited from previous studies)

Factors Sources	Training Design	Individual characteristics	Work environment	Criterion of evaluation	Others
Baldwin, T. T. and Ford, J. K. 1988	Identical elements Teaching of general principles Principles of learning Sequencing Stimulus variability Training content Various conditions of practice	Ability Personality Motivation	Support to trainees' attempt to application of learning to work place in the organisation Opportunities to use what trainees learned from training	Generalisation of learning and behaviour change Maintenance of changes after training	
Ford, J. K. and Weissbein, D. A. 1997	Teaching approach to adapt more complex and organisational relevant tasks Learning strategies Specific dimensions of transfer	Pre-training factors such as career exploration, career planning, motivation to learn, potential for obtaining intrinsic/ extrinsic incentives Individual differences such as self-efficacy, prior experience	Transfer climate Opportunity to perform trained tasks Systematic interaction of individual characteristics with training environment and transfer environment	Development of multiple methods for measuring transfer of learning Short retention vs. long retention Timing of evaluation	
Nasierowski, W. and Coleman, D. F.1997					Cultural incompatibilities

Continued

Factors / Sources	Training Design	Individual characteristics	Work environment	Criterion	Others
Olsen, J. H. 1998	Methods of training Financial resources Simulation of work setting Rewards linked to training	Practice	Coaching Organisational congruence Organisational stability Supportive strategies Culture which supports training	Techniques of evaluation	
Cheng E. W. L. Ho, D. C. K. 1998		Trainee's believe on controlling organisational outcomes Trainee's confidence in attaining anticipated performance Trainee's job/career expectations	Various organisational support Continuous-learning culture in an organisation		
Burke, L. A. and Baldwin, T. T. 1999	Mastery of course contents by trainees	Potential mediating variables such as self-efficacy Self-management tools	Transfer climate Use of transfer strategies Contextual variables Supportive transfer mechanism		
Kupritz, V. W. 2002			Workplace design meeting personal needs incl. physical design and environment Management support		

Continued

Factors / Sources	Training Design	Individual characteristics	Work environment	Criterion	Others
Lim D. H. and Johnson, S. D. 2002		Trainees' motivation to transfer Trainees' level of technical competence	Organisational level: organisational commitment for training, match of new learning to departmental goals and open and supportive communication climate Individual level: feedback from supervisor and peers, supervisor's attitude and involvement to new learning, mentor or role model		
Holton III, E. E. Chen, H. C. Naquin, S. S. 2003	Type of training Linkage of training content and job	Learner readiness Performance self-efficacy	Organisational transfer system Support from supervisor and peer Motivation to transfer Organisational sectors	Development of multiple methods for measuring transfer of learning Short retention vs. long retention Timing of evaluation	Learning transfer system
Cromwell, S. E. and Kolb, J. A. 2004	Mastery of course contents	Trainees' motivation to transfer Trainees' level of technical competence	Supervisor support Peer support Peer support network Organisational support Management support Time to use what trainee learned	Time frame for measuring transfer of learning	Cultural incompatibilities

It is arguable, from a review of transfer literature, that those factors like individual characteristics, organisational climate as well as training design have drawn much attention of practitioners and researchers (Noe and Schmitt, 1986; Baumgartel *et al*., 1984; Cromwell and Kolb, 2004; Tracey *et al*., 1995; Rouiller and Goldstein, 1993; Burke and Baldwin, 1999).

Other factors tend to be neglected, for instance the contextual factors beyond the boundary of an organisation which can affect transfer of learning. Furthermore the research on the transfer of learning in a cross-cultural setting needs to be addressed (Kim, 2004; Xiao, 1996). The exploration of the factors affecting transfer of learning in a cross-cultural condition is needed to enrich the study on transfer theory. Table 2.2 provides a summary of previous studies on factors affecting transfer of learning under five categories: training design, individual characteristics, work environment, criterion of evaluation and others.

2.3 FORMAL MANAGEMENT DEVELOPMENT ACTIVITIES AND THEIR IMPACT

As discussed in section 2.1 management development is a comprehensive and systematic process, which includes formal and informal development activities (Mabey, 2002; Mabey and Thomson, 2000; Thomson *et al*., 2001; Munford, 1986; Mumford, 1997). This research focuses on management training and education interventions which are classified into formal management development activities (Mumford, 1997; Thomson *et al*., 2001).

2.3.1 Understanding the Provisions of Training and Education for Management Development

Traditionally management education usually takes place in a business school of an educational institution, whereas training is delivered by management centres or comprehensive training centres (Munford, 1986; Mole, 2000). However, in recent years the historical functions of training and education have changed (Mumford, 1997; Burgoyne and Reynolds, 1997). For instance, some training centres also provide management training programmes which aim to change the whole person and total career, while some educational institutions tend to deliver courses which focus on meeting specified and practical needs of organisations (Mumford, 1997).

Therefore, it is arguable that, due to the changing nature of the area of management development, training and education, the functions of trainer and educator overlap (Wang, 1999). Accordingly the activities of training and education can also be blurred (Mumford, 1997). Nevertheless, the literature suggests that the following aspects need to be addressed while delivering management development programmes by either trainers or educators. First is the focus on managerial reality. There is an increasing consensus that any management development activities should link to organisational business strategies as well as managers' real work practices (Holden, 1991; Bolt *et al*., 1983; Badger and Sadler-Smith, 1997; Sels, 2002). Mumford (1997) argues that the process and content of any training or education initiatives that are divorced from management reality simply lead to the ineffective learning of managers.

Second, there is a need to emphasise the effectiveness of the design of the programme and its delivery. Professional developers are criticised for tending to adopt their preferred approaches, i.e., tutor and learner stereotypes or trainer-centred methods to provide management training and professional education rather than focusing on the real interests and levels of understanding of learners (Mumford, 1997; Branine, 2005). It is also stressed that the key to achieving the effectiveness of training and education is to provide what the managers want to learn and when they need to learn (LaHote *et al*., 1999; Bolt *et al*., 1983).

This last issue infers that the development providers, either trainers or educators, should have a clear mind of what the managers' needs are and what their organisations' objectives for the particular management development intervention are. Bernhard and Ingols (1988) argue that the frequent problem for training and education is running programmes which are not relevant to strategic organisational goals. On the other hand, the training and education must be delivered in a format that best suits the individuals' learning style and be transferable from conceptual understanding to real work application (LaHote et al., 1999). Likewise, Alon and Lu (2004) raise the pedagogical issue of management education in China delivered through Western-based approaches. There is a need to study the method of delivery of management development programmes across cultures.

2.3.2 Defining Demand for Management Development and Training Needs Assessment

The theory of supply and demand in market economics can be applied to management development practice. Thomson *et al.* (2001) argue demand for management development is a necessary precursor and complement to its supply, which has three facets (Thomson *et al*., 2001:74-75). Firstly, the demand for development usually comes from organisations or policy-makers rather than from the managers themselves. Secondly, the demand for development varies according to levels of management of an organisation, which in turn are influenced by managers' motives and career patterns. Thirdly, the demand of individuals and organisations differs in most cases in terms of objectives as well as preferred methods. In relation to formal qualifications striking evidence has been found about different perspectives between MBA students and training managers.

Mumford (1997) analyses demand for development from a different angle and suggests that in most situations demand is generated by identifying the performance weakness of managers by means of appraisal such as skills or behaviour-based individual appraisal. Likewise, demand exists when changes in skill requirements occur in the individuals' current job. The other important implication of demand is grounded in changes in organisational objectives and business priorities such as the transformation of management requirements and business activities (Mumford, 1997).

Training needs analysis or assessment has been widely recognised as an important issue in the training process (O'Driscoll and Taylor, 1992; Ford and Noe, 1987; Wircenski *et al*., 1989; Holton III, 2000; Bernhard and Ingols, 1988). According to Agnaia (1996) training needs assessment is a vital step for designing any management training and development programmes and evaluating these programmes. Brown (2002) suggests the purpose and objective for training needs assessment is to identify the following factors.

-Organisational goals and effectiveness in achieving these goals,

-Gaps between current skills and the expected skills for effective job performance,

-Problems that may not be solved by training intervention but relate to other factor such

as policies, practices and management procedures,
-Conditions which underpin training and development process.

The commonly accepted training needs assessment occurs at three levels: (a) organisational analysis, (b) operational analysis, and (c) individual analysis, from which arise the demand for management development (Agnaia, 1996; Holden III, 2000; Mumford, 1997). However, Holton III (2000) is critical of the above approach because of its unsuitability to large-scale application of performance-based training. It is arguable that simply relying on employees' or managers' listing of training and development needs could be problematic, which could easily miss the real needs felt by individuals (Holton III, 2000; Mumford, 1997). The incorporation of performance analysis into the traditional training needs assessment process is advocated. This includes two steps: strategic performance improvement process and employee perceived strategic performance improvement through training (Kaufman, 1987; Holton III, 2000).

Forster (1992) has supported the utilisation of more systematic training needs analysis, which is believed to enhance the effectiveness of decision making for management training and link it more closely with organisational strategies and objectives. At the same time attention needs to be paid to the scope of training needs analysis which could include organisational context and settings. Moreover, Brown (2002) suggests that a proper training needs analysis provides a good basis for evaluating the effectiveness of training programmes.

2.3.3 Management Development Activities Impact on Multiple Levels and in Various Forms

The benefits of management development including management training and education for any economy and culture have long being recognised (Borgonjon and Vanhonacker, 1994; Branine, 1996; Holden, 1991; Wang, 1999). As described by Mumford (1997) the benefits of management development activities are multi-faceted; they improve the effectiveness of managers in their existing and future jobs, meet the needs of individuals or groups, where performance has been lacking as well as meet the requirements of client organisations. These activities also help senior management to appreciate that development improves effectiveness and promotes to achieve bottom-line results.

According to the report of the Department for Employment and Education (DfEE, 1998) based on studies of British organisations, management development impacts positively on business performance both directly and indirectly. The direct benefits include improvement of staff morale, more active response and greater flexibility by managers, and improvement of quality which leads to customer loyalty/new business. The indirect ones represent improved management style, better tracking of projects and their assessment, promotion of general understanding of value of training and human resource development, and enabling quantitative measurement of impacts of management development on organisation. Research undertaken by some researchers (Borgonjon and Vanhonacker, 1994; Branine, 1996; Branine, 2005; Cooke, 2005; Goodall, *et al.*, 2004) on management development and training in China demonstrates that the training and development of its managers has contributed to different levels in China's economic reform, for example, transition from planned economy to market economy, institutional restructuring and adoption of Western management.

Thomson *et al*. (2001) identify quite a number of empirical findings that have shown the positive impact of management development programmes at the organisation-level as well as individual perspectives. For instance, a survey conducted by Baruch and Peiperl (1997) has revealed the strong belief of MBA graduates that their studies have greatly improved their skills and competence compared with non-MBAs. Likewise, the case studied by Winterton and Winterton (1997) among a range of British organisations have identified a significant impact of competence-based management development programmes at the following levels:

(1) **Individual performance**, which refers to improvements against the management standards, clear understanding of job role and work requirements, and support to individuals to improve their performance.
(2) **Organisational performance**, which includes the improvement in team performance against the management standards, improvements in the use of teams and their specialist roles , and reduction of accidents, failures, returns, wastes, complaints.
(3) **Business performance**, which refers to overall improvements against the

management standards, improved returns on staffing costs, increased market share as well as increased share prices

(4) **Organisational strategy**, which regards competence-based management development as a key explicit goal for organisational strategy, links management development to organisational strategy, and clarifies the key feature of all management roles for management development rather than the sole responsibility of personnel or training departments.

(5) **HRD systems and process**, which suggests that the HRD system and process is based on the occupational standards, the assessment and appraisal systems are designed to inform development rather than punish the incompetence, and every manager in the organisation views management development as their own responsibility both for their personal development and for others whom they work with.

However there is consensus regarding the ambiguity in measuring the extent of the impact of management development on various aspects even though there is strong evidence of positive effects by management development intervention (Thomson *et al.*, 2001; DfEE, 1998). For example the study of Winterton and Winterton (1997) has revealed the major difficulties in the measurement of individual performance, organisational performance and business performance and their attribution to management development. The main problems identified are how to separate the elements such as individual and team performance, and organisational and business performance, and the time and cost of systematic measurement and evaluation (Winterton and Winterton, 1997). On the other hand Mabey and Thomson (2000) suggest that the problem with measuring management development lies in the limitations of simply counting on the numbers of trainings days per annum. It is arguable that the number of training days is an imprecise criterion in the evaluation of training effectiveness and is likely to mislead the assessment results if used alone (Mabey and Thomson, 2000).

2.4 SUMMARY OF CHAPTER 2

The importance of management development has been widely acknowledged even though the definition of it varies, particularly in terms of its lack of differentiations from the terms of training and education. Based on the broader review of modern theory of management development this thesis suggests that management development is a process of learning and developing which aims at the improvement of managerial effectiveness and the delivery of business change by means of both formal and informal development activities. This chapter also provides a clear description of training and education in the context of formal management development activities. The exploration of methods of management development has shown a trend in research and practice to combine formal and informal management development activities, which emphasises developing managers in business reality.

Furthermore the learning theory is included to elaborate the core part of management development. First, Kolb's experiential learning theory (ELT) reveals the characteristics of managers' learning and their interaction with the learning environment. Second, action learning theory supports the learning cycle of ELT and adds the concept of learning from managerial practices. In addition the effectiveness of management development has been addressed in terms of learning and transfer of knowledge to managers' workplace. Moreover, the approaches of formal management development are discussed, which are focused on management training and education in this study. Finally the chapter addresses how to identify the needs of management development, what their impacts are, and the problems to measure these impacts.

The review of previous studies on management development has identified some research deficiencies in this field. Firstly there exists conceptual blurring of the definitions of management development, management training, and management education (Mullins, 2002; Thompson, 2000; Mumford, 1997). Secondly, there is a lack of empirical studies to provide evidence of the interrelationship of formal and informal management development activities even though they are strongly advocated by some authors (Mintzberg, 2004; Mumford, 1997). Thirdly, there is a paucity of studies on the factors affecting management learning in formal management development, particularly in management training and education. Last but not least there is a scarcity of research on the measurement of management impact even though there are plenty of reports on its positive impacts on various levels (Thomson *et al*., 2001; J. Winterton and R. Winterton, 1997).

CHAPTER 3
THEORY OF TRAINING EVALUATION AND EVALUATION MODELS

3.0 PREAMBLE

The purpose of this chapter is to examine prior studies on training evaluation. The term, 'training evaluation' used in this chapter refers to evaluation of training intervention in the process of management development. The chapter starts with defining training evaluation and analysing the interrelationship of the evaluation and management training process (Section 3.1). It is followed by a review of evaluation models from Kirkpatrick's classic four levels of evaluation to the latest developed ones, which are relevant to this research (section 3.2). The discussion on different purposes and approaches to evaluation in section 3.3 raises the issue of how to make strategic decisions about training evaluation and how to choose or design appropriate evaluation models. Section 3.4 summarises this chapter.

3.1 THE THEORY OF TRAINING EVALUATION

The development of management training and education over recent decades has stimulated an increase in research into the evaluation of the effects or effectiveness of these interventions. To a degree, existing research findings often reveal ambiguous results of evaluation on management development activities in practice even though the literature reviewed in the last chapter elucidate explicitly the positive impact of management development on all levels of stakeholders (Borgonjon and Vanhonacker, 1994, Branine, 2005; Holden, 1991; Mabey and Thomson, 2000; Thomson *et al*., 2001). Evaluation has been widely accepted as a systematic process which integrates with the management development process (Hamblin, 1974; Bramley, 1996b; Easterby-Smith, 1994; Salas and Cannon-Bowers, 2001). Therefore training evaluation should be geared into management development activities and processes. It was discussed in section 2.1.1 that management development activities include management training and education. However the focus of this research is on management training in the context of management development. Therefore the following sections include evaluation theory and models of management training and development.

3.1.1 Definition of Training Evaluation

Hamblin (1974:8) defines evaluation of training and development as ‘any attempt to obtain information (feedback) on the effects of a training programme, and to assess the value of the training in the light of that information’. According to Warr et al. (1970: 85) “evaluation is an integral part of training” and a successful training programme should include evaluation. Goldstein (1993:147) gives a more detailed definition arguing that “evaluation is a systematic process to collect descriptive and judgemental information necessary to make effective decisions related to the selection, adoption, value and modification of various instructional activities”. Yadapadithaya (2001:261) suggests that in a broad sense evaluation of training is to collect information or feedback obtained from a training programme and determine the value and worth of the training based on the collected data.

Differences between training evaluation and training effectiveness have been addressed in recent years by Kraiger *et al*. (1993), and Salas and Cannon-Bowers (2001). Kraiger *et al.* (1993) suggest that training evaluation refers to the subject of systematic measurement of learning outcomes, the gaining of designed training objectives and the attainment of knowledge and skills. On the other hand, training effectiveness attempts to measure training outcomes by exploring the factors of individuals, organisations and other relevant elements that occurred during training intervention such as learning and transfer (Tannenbaum *et al.*, 1991). In other words, training evaluation is the basis for determining the effectiveness of a training intervention by examining what has been achieved at different levels.

3.1.2 The Purposes of Training Evaluation

The function of training evaluation has been viewed differently by academics and practitioners. Kirkpatrick (1994) emphasises that the crucial function of evaluation is to justify the existence of the training department and demonstrate how it contributes to the organisation’s goals and objectives. It also provides information to improve future programmes and to eliminate those programmes which are ineffective (Kirkpatrick, 1987). In his latest article about four-level’s evaluation, Kirkpatrick (1996) describes the importance of evaluation more explicitly as:

- To decide whether to continue offering a particular training programme

- To improve future programmes
- To validate the existence and job as a training professional

Hamblin (1974:10) stresses the control function of evaluation by collecting, analysing and assessing the information which leads to decision-making and action. What Hamblin suggests here is that evaluation links the learning and change processes. It not only determines if the desired changes of learning did occur or not, but also predicts what the changes in the future will be.

Phillips (1991:40) argues that there could be several purposes of evaluation such as 'to determine whether a programme has achieved its objectives', 'to determine if the programme was appropriate', 'to gather data for marketing future programmes', but they can be categorised into one of the following two aspects: (a) to improve the HRD process, and (b) to make a decision on continuing or stopping the HRD intervention. Phillip's suggestion focuses more on the strategic aspect of training evaluation in relate to the whole HRD system.

Easterby-Smith (1994:15-19) contributes to the theory of evaluation by classifying the four general purposes listed below:

- Proving: to demonstrate the worth and impact of a training programme
- Improving: to ensure that either the current or future programme and activities become better than they are at present.
- Learning: to recognise that evaluation is a part of learning and development process itself, and to enable continuous improvement by feeding back into the training cycle.
- Controlling: to make sure that evaluation serves as a monitoring mechanism in an organisation and a means of controlling the quality of instructions.

Bramley (1996b:4-9) suggests the following elements of feedback, control, research and intervention as the key reasons of evaluation.

- Feedback: to provide timely feedback to the participants and the trainers during the training in attempt to ensure effective learning and instruction. It provides quality control over the design and delivery of a training activity and helps to improve the programmes currently being run and those planned for future. It focuses on the development of the learning situation and the alignment of training programmes with designed objectives.

- Control: to provide information on the worth and value of a training programme to an organisation, which helps the policy makers of an organisation to make decisions on whether a particular training intervention is the solution to solve their problems or make adequate contribution to achievement of the organisational goal.
- Research: focuses on identifying the factors of participants' learning or studying which facilitate transferability. It is concerned with training principles and practices and particularly with issues of validity: internal validity and external validity.
- Intervention: to be used to review the role of trainers, trainees and trainees' supervisors since evaluation certainly affects, more or less, the way in which the training programme is looked at. It usually involves pre-and-post-measurement, pre-and-post action of trainees' managers and training strategy adjustment of a training department.

3.1.3 The Training Process and Evaluation

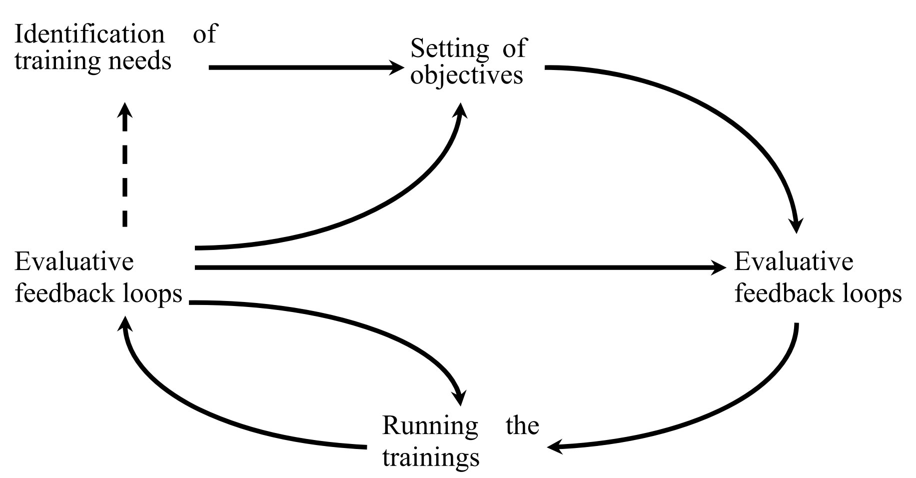
Some authors (Bramley, 1996; Pont, 1996) argue that training can be viewed as a cyclical process. Traditionally defined, training cycles are short-term, usually within one year (Hamblin, 1974; Bailey, 1999; Dixon, 1996; Toplis, 1992). However, enormous changes in global economy, technology, political and social structures have had a great impact on individuals and organisations. Moreover, the advancement of management development and management education has continuously interacted with training intervention in practice (Lewis, 1996). It is thus advocated that training processes should aim to address the long-term strategy of an organisation rather than short-term orientation (Wills, 1999).

It is suggested that the drivers for management training comes from the following main forces. Firstly, organisations have changed their attitudes towards training in a more positive way in order to manage changes in the business world (Cooke, 2005; Craig, 1996; Chu Ng and Siu, 2004). Secondly, there is a growing recognition from individuals of personal development as a life long process (El-Sawad, 2002; Engle Sr *et al*., 2001). Thirdly, trainers have become more aware of training provision, which should add value to the business and meet organisation needs (Pont, 1996). Finally, the policy-makers of government have been more aware of the importance of investing in human capital in the last 20 years (Dawson, 1995; Friedlander and Greenbuerg, 1997). Training processes therefore function as problem solving both at an individual and organisational performance level whereas a method of measurement is theoretically included to check whether the objectives of training have been achieved (Sels, 2002; Wills, 1999; Sels, 2002).

For instance, Kirkpatrick (1994) includes evaluation in his ‘Ten-Step’ training process, starting from the training needs identification and ending up with programme evaluation, which completes the training cycle. Another example is the most important and pervasive systematic training model which consists of the following series of phases (Sloman, 1994b; Commission, 1981a).

- Training policy making
- Training needs identification
- Development of training objectives and plans
- Training Implementation
- Validation, evaluation and review of training

Figure 3.1 The Training Cycle

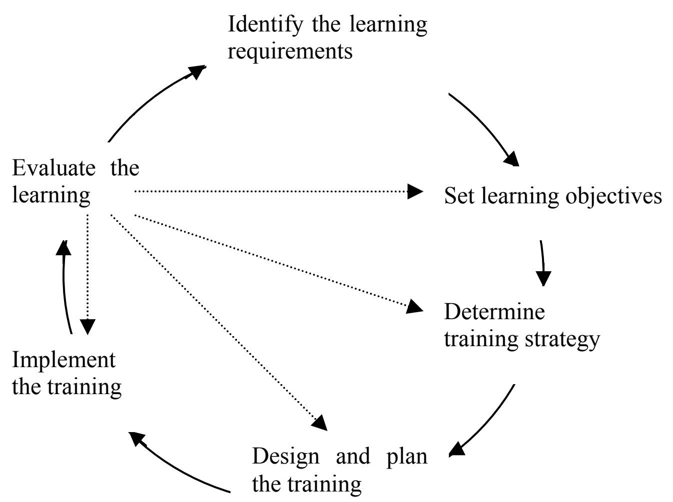


Source: Bramley (1996b: 3)

However (Bramley, 1996b) disagrees with the view of evaluation closing the training cycle, and suggests total evaluation integrates with the training cycle, controlling the quality of training and providing information on: (a) the effects of the adopted methods, (b) the attainment of designed objectives by both trainers and trainees, and (c) the extent of meeting the needs identified both at individual and organisational level. According to Bramley (1996b) as shown in Figure 3.1 evaluation therefore needs to be designed prior to the programmes' implementation.

A variation of the systematic model by Kenny and Reid (1992) not only links evaluation to the further identification of training needs but also emphasises the uses of feedback from evaluation at all stages in the training cycle (see Figure 3.2).

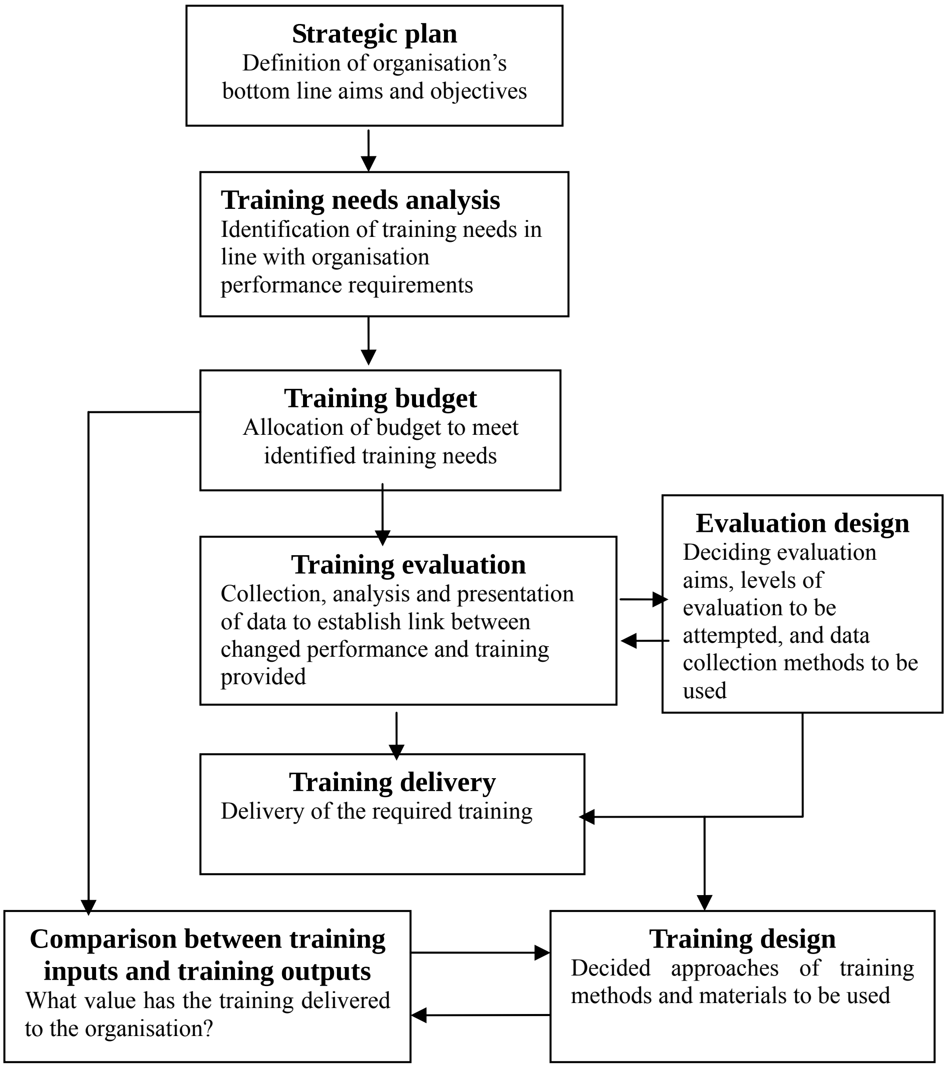
Figure 3.2 A Model of Planned Training



Source: edited from Reid and Barrington (1996:151)

Bailey (1999) suggests evaluation should fit in with other activities in the whole training process (see Figure 3.3). Since resources are limited training intervention and design need to be justified in terms of training budgets and expected benefits from training. Evaluation thus should start at the stage of training design, which allows a direct link between the resource allocated to training intervention and business reality. The benefits of incorporating evaluation in training design are to make a practical plan for evaluation which matches a particular training activity in terms of evaluation objectives, criteria, methods, and responsibility of stakeholders as well as costs of evaluation.

Figure 3.3 Evaluation and the Training Process



Source: Bailey (1999:125)

3.2 Models of Training Evaluation

The importance of evaluation of training effectiveness has been widely acknowledged (Kaufman and Keller, 1994; Bailey, 1999; Lee and Pershing, 2000; Phillips, 1991; Phillips, 1996). Since Kirkpatrick developed four levels of evaluation framework half a century ago his model has been adopted, expanded and refined (Salas and Cannon-Bowers, 2001). Consequently, varieties of models or approaches for training evaluation have been developed and proposed. As pointed out by Lee and Pershing (2000) various terms are used to describe different aspects of programme evaluation. On the other hand, similar or the same terms are used to discuss different cases for training evaluation. As suggested by Salas and Cannon-Bowers (2001) in the last 30 years training and evaluation has progressed dramatically both in theory and practice. One purpose of this research is to develop an evaluation framework for management training and development in a cross-cultural condition. Different terms are found to describe evaluation models. Some authors (Bramley, 1996a; Phillips, 1991; Weston *et al*., 1995) use the term ‘approach’ or ‘process’, some refer to them as a ‘framework’ or a ‘model’ (Kirkpatrick, 1994; McClelland, 1994). This thesis standardises the term as model for the consistency, which refers to the above-mentioned terms claimed by different authors.

The evaluation models included are classified into five types as follows (see Table 3.1):

(1) Levels of evaluation include those models with causally linked categories.

(2) Formative evaluation includes those models that assess a programme at the design stage or in implementation.

(3) Models in relation to performance evaluation cover those incorporating organisational performance appraisal or evaluation.

(4) Models of learning and evaluation focus on learning process and intervention.

(5) Comprehensive and systematic evaluation models are characterised by evaluating training intervention in a holistic and broader way, which integrates with phases of training and include many factors relating to the individual, organisation and context.

Table 3.1 A List of Models for Training Evaluation Relevant to This Study

Models	**Levels of Evaluation**					
	Four Levels of Evaluation	**Five Levels Evaluation**	**CIRO**	**ROI (Return On Investment)**	**Evaluation Plus**	**Carousel of Development**
Sources	**Kirkpatrick, 1994**	**Hamblin, 1974**	**Warr, Bird and Rackham**	**Phillips, 2003**	**Kaufman, Keller and Watkins, 1995**	**Industrial Society, Tamkin, 2002**
Evaluation Criteria/ Method	1. Reaction 2. Learning 3. Behaviour 4. Results	1. Reaction 2. Learning 3. Job Behaviour 4. Organisation 5. Ultimate Value	1. Context 2. Input 3. Reaction 4. Outcome -immediate outcomes - intermediate outcomes - ultimate outcomes	1.Reaction and satisfaction 2. Learning 3. Application and implementation 4. Business impact 5. Return on investment	1a. Input 1b. Process 2. Micro-acquisition 3. Micro-successful application 4. Macro- organisational results 5. Mega- societal consequences	1. Business needs 2. Development objective 3. Learning-design 4.Learning-implemen-tation 5.Learning-application and retaining 6. Organisational benefits
Models	**Formative Evaluation**				**Learning-Oriented Evaluation**	
	Testing and Review of Products	**Three Stage Evaluation**	**Four-Component Process**	**Integrative Practice**	**Learning Outcomes**	**Learning and Development**
Sources	**Geis, 1987**	**Dick and Carey, 1996**	**Weston, McAlpine and Bordonaro, 1995**	**Brown and Gerhardt, 2000**	**Kraiger, Ford, Salas, 1993**	**Tamkin, 2002**
Evaluation Criteria/ Method	The development testing -using learners as test subjects and critics The expert review - using experts to examine instructional materials	1. One-to-one evaluation - involving individual participant for evaluating programme 2. Small group evaluation - getting feedback from a group of participants 3. Field test - real situation test of instruction programme	Clearly defined components, simplicity of conducting evaluation on instruction 1. Participants 2. Roles 3. Methods 4. Situation	Concept: training subject matter and preliminary objectives Design: specific instructional objectives and activities Prototype: usability and learner satisfaction to training materials Pilot: format and delivery	Cognitive Outcomes: -verbal knowledge -knowledge organisation -cognitive strategies Skill-Based Learning Outcomes: -compilation, -automacity Affectively Based Learning Outcomes: -attitudinal, -motivational	Integrating evaluation with the process of learning, and development -identification of training needs - the learning process - learning outcomes - behavioural change - impact on others and organisation

Continued

	Performance-Related Evaluation			Comprehensive and Systematic Evaluation		
Models	**Balanced Scorecard**	**The 360-degree Feedback System**	**Concept Mapping and Pattern Matching**	**CAIPO Purpose-Oriented**	**Objective-Oriented**	**Thinking About Evaluation**
Sources	**Kaplan and Norton, 1992**	**Nowack, 1993**	**Andersen Consulting Education**	**Easterby-Smith, 1994**	**McClelland, 1994**	**Lewis, 1996**
	- Interpretation of an organisation's strategy into specific measurable objectives across four perspectives - Focus on long-term win - Centralising business strategy and vision	- a process of information collection from wider sources - assessment about employees' KSAs - identifying critical KSAs factors at different developmental stages - establishing baseline for training evaluation	- no possibility to isolate impact of training on business from other factors - adapting stakeholders expectations to design and evaluate training - focus on bottom line requirements and results	-Context: contextual situation of a raining programme or an activity - Administration: mechanism and management operation - Inputs: methods, techniques and manpower - Process: data collection in learning and development, participants' previous training experiences, exploration of specific factors - Outcomes: identification of individual changes such as learning and development - Organisational change: demonstration of the benefits of a programme to related stakeholders	- integration of evaluation closely in phases of training - advocating customised evaluation system - emphasising on: learner-driven, measurement of individual improvement, different roles playing by trainees and other stakeholders	- thinking about training in a broad and overarching way - seeing the big picture of evaluation - detailed categories and variables: - context and process factors includes basis of training, purpose of training, unit of productivity, time horizon, data sources, types of training and cost of training - outcome factors include individual, customer/public and organisation

3.2.1 Models of Levels of Evaluation

It is argued by researchers and practitioners alike (Alliger and Janak, 1989; Falletta, 1998; Kaufman and Keller, 1994; Tamkin *et al*., 2002; Salas and Cannon-Bowers, 2001; Dixon, 1996) that the most influential contribution to evaluation theory and practice has come from Kirkpatrick's series of publications (Kirkpatrick, 1960; Kirkpatrick, 1994; Kirkpatrick, 1996) in the late 50s and early 60s in the Journal of the American Society for Training and Development (ASTD). His four levels of evaluation model has been the basis for various 'levels of evaluation' models.

3.2.1.1 Classic Model: Kirkpatrick's Four Levels Model

Level 1: Reaction is a measure of how trainees think about the training programmes in terms of the subject, content, instruction, time schedule. Reaction is normally measured by using reaction questionnaires, which is also called a 'happy-sheet' (Lee and Pershing, 2002).

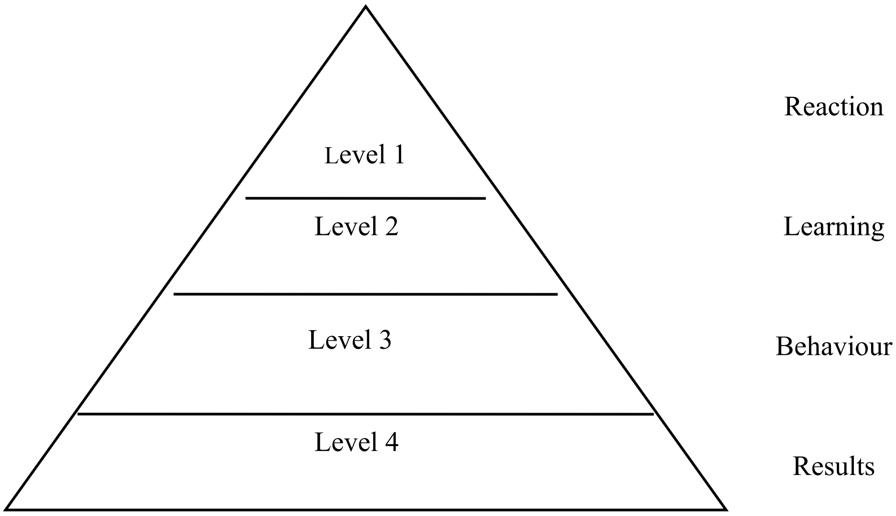
Level 2: Learning is to assess whether the trainees have acquired knowledge, improved skills, or changed attitudes because of training intervention.

Level 3: Behaviour is the measurement of any behaviour change of the trainees on their job as a result of the training programmes. Kirkpatrick suggests a scientific and systematic approach to measure on-the-job behaviour by collecting information on pre-and-post training performance appraisal of the participants from different sources.

Level 4: Results is a measure of the impact of a training programme on the organisation due to the change of participants' on-the-job behaviour. Nevertheless Kirkpatrick does not offer a detailed description of how to conduct the measurement of results. As Kirkpatrick points out it becomes more difficult, complicated and expensive to measure the 'results' of training even though the measurement at this level is more meaningful (Kirkpatrick, 1994).

Kirkpatrick (1994) suggests that evaluation should be conducted from lower level to higher ones in sequence if it is financially feasible (see Figure 3.4). However, as the measurement is moved from one level to the next, it takes more time, costs more money and becomes more complicated, but it is assumed to provide more valuable information than the previous level.

Figure 3.4 Kirkpatrick's Four Levels of Evaluation



Source: Bailey (1999:126)

Some authors describe Kirkpatrick's four levels of evaluation as being based on four simple questions (Phillips, 1991; Sadler-Smith and Down, 1999; Plant and Ryan, 1994) as below:

1. Reaction: Were the participants pleased with the program?
2. Learning: What did the participants learn in the program?
3. Behaviour: Did the participants change their behaviour based on what was learned?
4. Results: Did the change in behaviour positively affect the organisation?

Kirkpatrick's classic model is most widely used by practitioners and organisations as a result of its simplicity and ability to help trainers to think about the evaluation criteria of training programmes (Alliger and Janak, 1989; Sadler-Smith and Down, 1999). It has led to a large amount of work in training evaluation (Hamblin, 1974; Bramley, 1996b; Phillips, 1996; Warr *et al*., 1970; Tamkin *et al*., 2002).

However there has also been increasing criticism of Kirkpatrick's model. Holton (1996:6) argues that Kirkpatrick's model is "really only a taxonomy…and attempts to test causal assumptions within a taxonomy are futile because taxonomies classify rather than define causal constructs". The meta research conducted by Alliger and Janak (1989) explores three problematic assumptions of Kirkpatrick's model: (1) The levels are arranged in ascending order of information provided; (2) The levels are causally linked; (3) The levels are positively intercorrelated. A later meta-analysis by (Alliger and Tannenbaum, 1997) further supports the previous findings, which question the correlations among the four levels, particularly the correlation between 'reaction' and the other three levels: 'learning, transfer and results'. However, some authors echo Kirkpatrick's opinion about the causal links among the levels of evaluation and base their evaluation models on levels of criteria which will be presented later (Phillips, 2003; Hamblin, 1974; Kaufman and Keller, 1994; Warr *et al*., 1970).

It is also argued that Kirkpatrick's model is regarded as a 'standardized and pre-packaged model'. There is a danger that it is used to evaluate training without assessing individual objectives and resources (Abernathy, 1999:20). Kaufman and Keller (1994) criticises Kirkpatrick's four levels of evaluation because it encourages too narrow a focus on the evaluation of training alone, and neglects the multiple intervening variables which affect transfer and organisational results. Lee and Pershing (2000) argue that Kirkpatrick's framework fails to address the performance improvement of individuals.

3.2.1.2 Hamblin's Five Levels Model (1974)

Hamblin first presented his work in 1968 and made improvements in later years. His revised model of evaluation is based on Kirkpatrick's four levels of evaluation. Hamblin (1974) described his five levels model as a supplement to the other models rather than a replacement for them. He keeps the 'Level 1: reaction, Level 2: learning and Level 3: behaviour' the same as Kirkpatrick's, but refines the 'Level 4: results' into 'organisation level and ultimate value level'.

Hamblin is one of the first to modify Kirkpatrick's framework. He suggests the hierarchical links among his five levels more explicitly than Kirkpatrick (Clement, 1982). Hamblin (1974:82) agrees with Kirkpatrick that learning is measured at three categories: "knowledge, skills and attitudes". However he suggests that "reaction" is not always constant, but changes dynamically in the process of training. He divides the last level of Kirkpatrick's into two and makes a distinction between economic and non-economic values. The concept of 'organisational climate' is introduced which is concerned with the employees' perception of how their organisation should work, of how they should work, and the extent to which the employees feel satisfied with their organisation. Moreover, Hamblin (1974:41) develops an "objective-oriented strategy" in related to each level which suggests that training assessment could be done at any intermediate level to fit different objectives, not necessarily at the ultimate financial level.

3.2.1.3 CIRO Model (Warr, Bird and Rackham, 1970)

Warr *et al* (1970) argues that the evaluation of a training programme is not an action done at the end of the programme, but should be viewed in a wider context. In other words, evaluation is a systematic process, which is well-planned before a training programme takes place and is integrated throughout the programme. Warr *et al*.'s model is one of the first to incorporate training needs identification into the evaluation process in the way of 'context' analysis.

Context evaluation: to collect contextual information about organisational operations and analyse business objectives in an attempt to identify the training needs

Input evaluation: to collect information about possible resources such as budget, methods and delivery in order to make a best choice on training procedures from the options

Reaction evaluation: to gather trainees' opinion about the training programme they have taken, which can be done in the way of end-of-course review, follow-up survey as well as informal conversation

Outcome evaluation: to measure the outcomes of training programmes at the following three hierarchy levels:

- immediate outcomes - changes of trainees in knowledge, skills and attitudes, which can be measured immediately after the training
- intermediate outcomes - changes of trainees' on-the-job behaviour or changes in job performance, to which the attention should be paid to the layout of time and resources

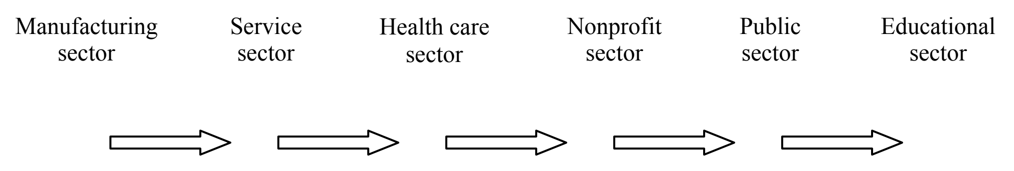
- ultimate outcomes - the impact on trainees' departments or organisations due to the above-mentioned changes, which reveals great difficulties to measure specific outcomes at ultimate level

The complexity of the evaluation of management training is identified and an emphasis is given on the intermediate outcome level due to the intervening variables for the on-the-job behaviour change (Warr *et al*., 1970). Like Kirkpatrick, Warr *et al.* (1970) do not provide an effective method to measure the ultimate outcome-the organisational level.

3.2.1.4 The ROI Model (Phillips, 2003)

Phillips' (2003) evaluation model is generally based on Kirkpatrick's four levels of evaluation criteria by extending the fifth level-ROI- the return on investment as the final level. According to Phillips (2003) the ROI evaluation is a results-focused systematic process. There is a chain linkage of the above five levels, which echoes Kirkpatrick's casual interlink of his four levels of evaluation. Phillips stresses that it is difficult to determine whether the final results are "produced by the HR initiative if the measurements are not taken at each level" (Phillips, *et al*., 2001: 24).

Figure 3.5 Progression of ROI implementation: movement within the sectors



Source: Phillips (2003:4)

ROI is an innovation in management and evaluation which provides bottom-line figures and accountability for all types of training, performance improvement, human resources, and technology programmes. Phillips takes the lead in developing the ROI evaluation framework to meet the three main driving forces: practitioners and training managers, clients and senior managers, and evaluation researchers. His model tries to identify the effects of a training programme, isolate them from other factors and convert data to monetary terms. Since its development in the 1970s the ROI method has gradually been introduced into a wide range of business sectors (Figure 3.5). It is arguable that the ROI model aims not only at calculating the ROI of tangible results but also at addressing the intangible benefits, which could be applied to HR initiatives with intangible outcomes, such as leadership development programmes (Phillips, 1996). It might be the main reason to explain why Phillips (Phillips, 2003) claims ROI evaluation can be applied to different settings.

3.2.1.5 'Evaluation Plus' Model (Kaufman, Keller, and Watkins, 1995)

Kaufman and Keller (1994) argue that Kirkpatrick's four levels evaluation aims at evaluating training in a narrow way which cannot meet the needs of organisations today and the problems their decision makers face (Kaufman, *et al.*, 1995). Kaufman and *et al*, (1995) therefore expand Kirkpatrick's model by modifying Kirkpatrick's level one reaction into resource and process, and adding a fifth level societal outcomes (Kaufman and Keller, 1994).

Level 1a Resource refers to the availability of resources, methods used and tools and efficiency of their use.

Level 1b Process includes analysing the accessibility of the method. It focuses on whether a training intervention was implemented properly according to the designed objectives.

Level 2 Acquisition measures the acquisition of individual and small group mastery and competency as a result of learning in a training intervention.

Level 3 Application measures the application of newly acquired knowledge and skills by individual and small group to their job. The assessment focuses on application of learning, the actual performance rather than the process of transfer.

Level **4 Organisational results** relates to organisational results assessment in terms of organisational benefits, performance improvement and payoffs.

Level 5 Societal outcomes concerns about societal consequences, such as societal and client's responsiveness, contributions, and payoffs. The evaluation at this level involves the interaction with the external context where organisations exist.

Kaufman and his colleagues' model contributes to evaluation in the three aspects. First it is claimed to be a holistic, realistic and practical model to evaluate both training and other performance interventions in an organisation (Kaufman and Keller, 1994).

Second, it includes the impact on and consequences in and for the society in which the organisation exists. Third, it includes the consideration and determination of the usefulness and appropriateness of resources and methods of training intervention.

3.2.1.6 The Carousel of Development Model (Industrial Society,2000)

The Carousel of Development Model formulates systematic evaluation and tries to overcome the weakness of Kirkpatrick's model to evaluate the outcomes after the programmes (The Industrial Society, 2000). As Forster (1992:38) points out "true evaluation needs to take place long before and after training has taken place". The other differences from Kirkpatrick's model is its focus on the learning process, which aims at not only evaluating learning effectiveness but also validating the training by refining learning factors.

Stage I – to identify the business needs
Stage II –to define the development objectives
Stage III –to design the learning process
Stage IV –to experience the learning process
Stage V –to apply and retain the learning
Stage VI –to determine the benefits to the organisation

3.2.2 Formative Evaluation Approach

More recently, there have been arguments for using different methods (Holton III, 1996; Alliger and Tannenbaum, 1997; Kraiger *et al.*, 1993; Phillips, 1996; Mathieu and Leonard, 1987; Morrow *et al.*, 1997; Morgan and Casper, 2000; Dixon, 1996; Fox and Dinur, 1988; Athanasou, 1998; Phillips *et al.*, 2001; McDaniel *et al.*, 1988). Traditionally formative evaluation models are instruction-oriented (Dick and Carey, 1996; Weston *et al.*, 1995). As Brown and Gerhardt (2002) point out, the researchers and practitioners have largely focused on evaluating training outcomes by using a summative approach, while formative evaluation is likely to be neglected. Brown and Gerhardt (2002) suggest that formative evaluation approach is a useful way to bridge the gap between evaluation and training design.

3.2.2.1 Geis Method Model (Geis, 1987)

Geis (1987) describes formative evaluation as aiming at obtaining feedback to improve instruction materials during the development stage. It is fulfilled by means of a cycle of testing and revision on products to be delivered. The particular feature of Geis's formative evaluation model is the involvement of various stakeholders in training design and development. This helps to build commitment of managers, trainers and trainees towards programme implementation and reduce apprehension regarding evaluation (Geis, 1987).

Geis's model focuses on two methods: developmental testing and expert review which are presented below.

The Developmental testing uses learners as test subjects and critics, which involves two strategies: the clinical method and the "teach-and-test" method. The trainees are expected to mirror the target population for whom the materials are being designed. The material being evaluated is tested in either a one-to-one or small group setting.

Expert review uses experts for critically examining instructional materials. The expertise is divided into eight categories: subject matter experts, designers, teachers/instructors, audience specialists, gatekeepers, sponsors, former students, and editors.

3.2.2.2 Dick and Carey Stage Model (Dick and Carey, 1996)

In their Systems Approach Model for Instruction Design Dick and Carey (1996) include three phases of formative evaluation: one-to-one evaluation, small group evaluation, and field test.

One-to-one evaluation aims at eliminating errors in the instruction and determines whether the training programme influences the participants in the intended pattern. The criteria are the clarity, feasibility and impact of the materials.

Small group evaluation verifies a step further the quality of instruction. More participants are involved at this stage and feedback on instruction materials is collected.

Field test is to decide whether effective changes have taken place after the first two stages. The instruction materials, the numbers of learners and lecturers are set up as a real situation. The responses from learners and lecturers are collected in order to make the final revision.

It should be noticed that Dick and Carey's systematic instruction design model suggests needs assessment to identify goal and followed by instructional assessment. For example, ‘conduct instructional analysis’, ‘analyse learners and contexts’, and ‘write performance objectives’ are designed: (a) to determine what skills and knowledge are required for learners; (b) to study learners’ characteristics such as learners’ present skills, attitudes, as well as to analyse the context in which they will implement their learning and the context they will apply their learning; (c) to define specific learning objectives and the criteria for successful performance after learning are defined prior to instruction. The information from formative evaluation allows the instructors to revise these important factors.

3.2.2.3 Four Component Model (Weston *et al*, 1995)

Weston and *et al.*’s model is specialised for its simplicity of implementing and clearly defined four components. It is also flexible of the scale of evaluation according to the purpose of evaluation. For example, smaller number of participants provide more detailed information; while larger number of participants provide less detailed, but more generalisable information. Weston et al’s evaluation model (Weston *et al*., 1995) consists four components as follows:

‘Participants’ are categorised into two types: ‘novices’ who have no previous training and experiences in a specified domain and ‘experts’ who have specialized knowledge about different training subjects and instructional design.

‘Roles’ refer to the tasks that participants are given during the evaluation: the role of an evaluator, the role of the learner, the role of a critic, and the role of a reviser.

‘Methods’ are the tools and techniques used in the formative evaluation.

‘Situation’ refers to the context defined by the participants when the evaluation occurs.

3.2.2.4 Integrative Model (Brown and Gerhardt, 2002)

Brown and Gerhardt’s integrated formative evaluation demonstrates scientific benefits to training evaluation. Brown (2002:977) argues that summative methods are “useful for establishing and assessing metrics representing the effectiveness of training’; while formative methods are “useful for collecting quantitative and qualitative data that would suggest why the level of effectiveness does or does not meet expectations and …what can be done to improve it”. His argument is to suggest the marriage of these two methods, which provides both assessment and improvement of the effectiveness of a training programme.The model consists four stages: concept, design, prototype, and pilot.

Concept describes training subject matter and provides preliminary objectives of training. The focus at this stage is to align training objectives with the organisational business strategy and goals as well as trainees' work environment. A proper training needs analysis is crucial in the concept evaluation.

Design outlines the objectives, subject matter, structure and methods of the training, which supplements more specific instructional objectives and activities to the 'concept stage'. Two criteria are set up at the stage:

(1) task-to-objective alignment, which ensures the effective performance by the aligning the training objectives to the trained task;

(2) objective-to-instruction alignment, which ensures the consistence between the instructional methods and the designed objectives.

Prototype includes some sections of the training materials presented in the format to be used in the final programme. Usability and Learner satisfaction are the two criteria at this stage. 'Usability' simulates real instruction activity with designed prototype, trainer, sample trainees and critics. 'Learner satisfaction' evaluates trainees' satisfaction to the instruction, both on instruction materials and technology.

Pilot includes all subject matter using intended format and delivery. It consists of two criteria: feasibility and learner engagement. Feasibility assesses the suitability of the resources required for desired training outcomes. Learner engagement refers to trainees' motivation to learn and their attention to the programme, which helps to identify the reason if desired levels of learning are not being achieved.

3.2.3 Models in Relation to Performance Evaluation

Easterby-Smith (1994:45) argues that training evaluation consists of three main elements: people, systems and things. The evaluation of people and their performance usually 'takes the form of examinations in the context of education establishments, or of appraisals and performance reviews within organisations'. Collin's research only finds five cases of formal management training which used system or financial evaluation during 1986-2000. It is suggested that the reason is partially a lack of effective performance-level evaluation methods (Collins, 2002). However some efforts have been made to link evaluation to performance improvement as well as to employ the methods of performance evaluation at the organisation level (Collins, 2002). The studies listed below provide examples of using performance evaluation which are most relevant to management training and development.

3.2.3.1 Balanced Scorecard (Kaplan and Norton, 1992)

Kaplan and Norton (1992) introduced the 'balanced scorecard' in 1992, a set of measures linked to organisational performance, which is described as 'a check-and–balance system' by Abernathy (1999). It involves the interpretation of an organisation's strategy into specific measurable objectives across four perspectives: customers, internal business processes, learning and growth, and finance and aims at balancing business management.

In contrast to the traditional, financial-based measurement systems, the Balanced Scorecard consolidates organisations' focus on long-term win by centralising business strategy and vision. The other advantage is that this approach is consistent with many new business initiatives such as cross-functional integration, globalisation, customer-supplier partnership and continuous improvement. This approach provides a fresh thinking to assess the impact of management training on those organisations which are underpinned by diversity and paradigm change.

3.2.3.2 The 360 Degree Feedback System (Nowack, 1993)

The term '360 degree feedback' refers to the process of an employee doing a self-assessment, being rated by his/her supervisors, peers, subordinates and even customers (Fletcher, 2000). It is well established in America and widely applied in businesses and industries (Manatt, 1997), which can be used in a wide range of HRD activities such as management development, training and organisational development (OD) evaluation, style and leadership awareness, and career development.

Nowack (1993) argues that the 360-degree assessment provides intensive information about employees' knowledge, skills and attitudes (KSAs) based on job-analysis, competencies, strategic planning, developmental theory and personality theory. Its application to management training and development is closely linked with training programmes and training needs analysis, which identify critical KSAs factors at different developmental stages and thus establish as a baseline for training evaluation.

3.2.3.3 Andersen Model of Concept Mapping and Pattern Matching (Abernathy, 1999; Tamkin *et al*., 2002)

Disagreeing with Phillips' ROI approach that impact of training can be shown in monetary terms, Andersen Consulting Education has developed an evaluation method titled "Concept Mapping and Pattern Matching". This approach is based on the notion that the impact of training on business cannot be isolated from other factors. It uses stakeholder expectations to design and evaluate training courses on the premise that line managers know what skills and behaviours their staff need to develop for the improvement of their performance.

3.2.4 Learning-Oriented Evaluation Model

Learning has been widely accepted as a key element to be measured in management training and development. Many authors (Kraiger *et al*., 1993; Antonacopoulou, 1999; Argyris, 1977; Boyatizis and Kolb, 1991) ague that the most fundamental task of training evaluation is to determine whether the learning objectives have been achieved in the training process. This thus highlights the central role of learning in evaluating training and development (Kraiger *et al*., 1993; Burgoyne and Reynolds, 1997; Chen, 2005; Tannenbaum *et al*., 1991). In addition learning theory such as ELT and ALT discussed in section 2.5 show learning outcomes are influenced by individual learning ability and styles, which in turn impact on the organisational outcomes and beyond (Boyatzis and Kolb, 1995; Chan, 1999; Kolb, 1984; Mitchell, 2001; Pedler, 1997). Some latest studies on evaluation of training and education have paid more attention to learning effectiveness and the focus has shifted from instruction-led to learner-driven (Antonacopoulou, 1999; Boyatzis and Kolb, 1995; Kraiger *et al*., 1993; McClelland, 1994; Mintzberg and Gosling, 2002).

3.2.4.1 Classification Scheme for Learning Outcomes Evaluation (Kraiger *et al*, 1993)

Based on the critical review of previous measures on learning outcomes, including Kirkpatrick's four levels of evaluation, Kraiger and *et al*. (1993) argue that there is a lack of conceptual models for evaluating learning outcomes even though learning has been commonly regarded as a fundamental element to be measured. Therefore, Kraiger and his colleagues develop a classification scheme to conceptualise the measures of learning outcomes and the other associated evaluation. Taking a construct-oriented approach it is suggested that learning is multidimensional which provides evidence from changes in cognitive, affective, or skill capacities (Kraiger *et al*., 1993).

The refinement of the categories for training evaluation by Kraiger *et al*. has provided a multidimensional perspective to learning outcomes, which leads to the consideration of a broader range of conceptually-based evaluation measures. The use of a construct-oriented approach to training evaluation requires researchers and practitioners to identify explicitly both the instructional objectives and the appropriate mechanisms to facilitate training development for meeting these objectives.

3.2.4.2 A Model of Learning and Development (Tamkin *et al.*, 2002)

Tamkin *et al*., (2002) suggest the integration of evaluation into the learning and development process. This evaluation framework includes five elements: identification of training needs, learning process, learning outcomes, behavioural change, impact on others and organisation. The special features of this framework are primarily to refine the learning measures by including not only formal learning, but also other methods such as learning from others, and from doing. Secondly it specifies the criteria of individuals' behavioural changes as capability, interpersonal skills, self-management, and creativity/initiative. Thirdly the individual factors and organisational factors are included into the evaluation process such as self-efficacy, ability, motivation to learn, relevance of knowledge, climate and support.

3.2.5 Comprehensive and Systematic Models

There have been increased efforts to seek new ways for evaluation of training and development by researchers and practitioners (Abernathy, 1999; Bernthal, 1995; Collins, 2002). There is a trend to shift from the standardised criteria but to take consideration of different purposes of evaluation. For example the evaluation models have been developed to adopt the concept of system rather than sticking to the measurement of the outcomes of levels (Easterby-Smith, 1994; Guba and Lincoln, 1989; Lewis, 1996). These models have the following characteristics. Firstly evaluation is integrated into the whole training process. Secondly more factors relevant to training intervention are included. Thirdly the new approach has become a more flexible and customised process and aims at measuring long-term and less tangible outcomes.

3.2.5.1 The CAIPO Evaluation Model (Easterby-Smith, 1994)

Easterby-Smith (1994, p. 46) develops a framework which focuses on less tangible training interventions such as developmental programmes. The CAIPO stands for five components and are illustrated below.

Context refers to the contextual situation of a training programme or an activity. In order to conduct context evaluation data should be collected from various stakeholders about their aims and objectives, budgets and implementation as well as evaluation of a particular programme. The comparison of different perceptions and value of stakeholders involved in training intervention enables the checking of whether the programme represents different views of its purposes.

Administration is directly related to training and developmental activities and their relevant processes. It usually includes the mechanisms of trainee selection, pre-course briefing and post-training facilitation. The administration evaluation is considered to help in improving training by adjusting inappropriate administrative operations. It is also suggested to include the evaluation of the appraisal system or a job rotation scheme of an organisation.

Inputs refers to the contribution of various methods, techniques and people involved in management training and development activities. Evaluation of inputs is about collecting data of a management course such as instructions, and role-plays. The purpose is to modify and improve aspects of a programme and its staff preparing for the future programmes.

Process means to evaluate three domains. First it involves gathering data generated during the learning or developmental phase. Second it emphases the information of participants' experience which is probably based on data from previous processes. Third, it involves investigating specific factors, especially in terms of interactions between people.

Outcomes focuses on the identification of the differences between a person's potential changes resulting from some aspects of management training or development and the implementation of that potential in the way of behaviour, relationships and attitudes; differences between learning and development since these two factors may occur separately under different situations.

Organisational change attempts to demonstrate the benefits of a training or development programme to related stakeholders. It is suggested that this is an ambitious evaluation approach which may require heavy resources.

The core of CAIPO model is the focus on purposes of evaluation. The focus is chosen depending on the particular questions to be answered and the purpose which evaluation is intended to serve. The strength of the CAIPO model is to introduce more intervening factors and systematic concept other than traditional outcomes evaluation. Esterby-Smith (1994) argues that the CAIPO model is more adaptable to management developmental activities.

3.2.5.2 Objective-Oriented Model (McClelland, 1994)

The objective-oriented training evaluation model developed by McClelland (1994) (see Figure 3.6) incorporates evaluation closely with training process of which includes following elements.

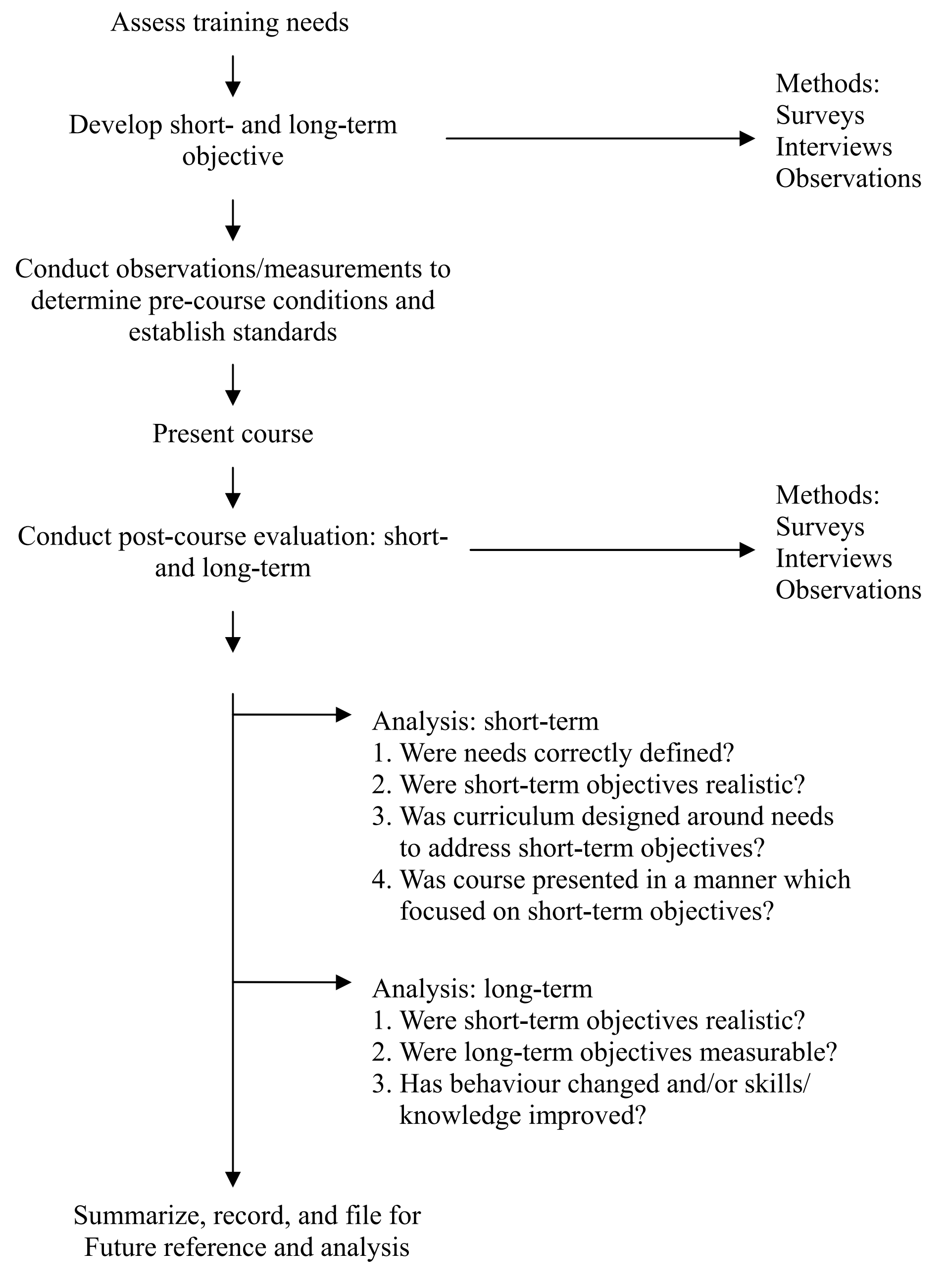
- **Training needs analysis** is to collect data related to skills or knowledge required to achieve better performance. It is suggested to assess skill or knowledge gaps in different categories e.g., competence-based skills, 'soft skills' like communications skills, knowledge on total quality management.
- **Short-and-long-term objectives** refers to the development of both short and long term objectives based on training needs assessment. It argues that objectives should be realistic, attainable, measurable and observable and be written in "action-and-results-oriented format".

- **Pre-course conditions** means to define pre-course conditions and establish observable and measurable standards for the comparison and analysis of pre-training and post-training conditions.

- **Immediate post-course feedback** refers to the assessment of short-term objectives immediately after training. The information collected is both qualitatively and quantitatively oriented and directly reflected back on the stated short-term-objectives.
- **Long-term feedback** is to compare the long-term objectives with pre-course standards and to identify the discrepancies. It seeks to link the outcomes of the course to observable results on the job.
- **Summary** implies to summarise whether the courses are successful or not. The result of evaluation is then to be recorded and filed in a composite format as reference for future programmes.

The objective-oriented framework overcomes some disadvantages of standardised evaluation approach such as one size fits all, little effort on evaluating the long-term impact of training. The key features of this model are as follows: (a) to include training needs analysis and to refine skills and knowledge for the accuracy of evaluation; (b) to specify short-and long-term objectives and conduct pre-course condition analysis so as to set up a reference for evaluation; (c) the effort to use both quantitative and qualitative data for evaluation; (d) to integrate evaluation with training process and the use of evaluation results for nurture future programmes.

Figure 3.6 Objective-oriented Training Evaluation Procedural Model



Source: McClelland (1994:6)

3.2.5.3 A Model for Thinking About Evaluation (Lewis, 1996)

Lewis (1996) proposes a model which covers two main categories and consists of eleven factors.

Context and process factors include the basis of training, purpose of training, unit of productivity, time horizon, data sources, types of training, kinds of trainees and cost of training.

Outcome factors include individual, customer/public, and organisation.

This model is developed on the premise that "both corporatist and humanistic orientations toward training require consideration". Lewis's model contributes to the evaluation theory by helping researchers and practitioners (a) to think about training in a broad and overarching way and, (b) to see the big picture of evaluation. The other contribution of this model is to provide detailed categories of variables in different situations. For example, it classifies nature of training into proactive training which is more based on an educative purpose for a life-long learning, and reactive training which is focused on needs-based training of some performance deficiency.

3.2.6 Critiques of the Reviewed Evaluation Models

The review of existing evaluation models which are most relevant to management training and development covers from classical standardised levels of evaluation to more recent comprehensive and systemic evaluation models. Every model has its pro and cons. For example, some levels of evaluation models provide clear criteria but are limited in the training process (Kirkpatrick and Hamblin's models), while other levels of evaluation include wider criteria such as training needs assessment, resources, and contextual elements (Kaufman, *et al*'s and Warr, *et al*'s models). Kirkpatrick's model stresses the importance of scientific and systematic of evaluation but with a lack of detailed methods of assessing the results of training, whilst the ROI model suggests measuring the results of training in monetary term.

On the other hand formative evaluation models provide methods of assessing instructions prior to and during training, which enhances the appropriateness of delivery and learning effectiveness. Nevertheless formative evaluation has limited functions and needs to be combined with other approaches. Models that focus on learning define the learning criteria and include individual and organisational factors influencing learning and development. Other models lead to a more systematic way of thinking about evaluation such as how to integrate evaluation with training, learning, and the development process, and to incorporate evaluation of training with organisational performance evaluation systems. Among them Easterby-Smith's CAIPO model is most comprehensive, and combines formative and summative approaches, takes consideration of management development process and involves various stakeholders. These models have shed lights on the evaluation framework for management training and development in cross-cultural context to be developed.

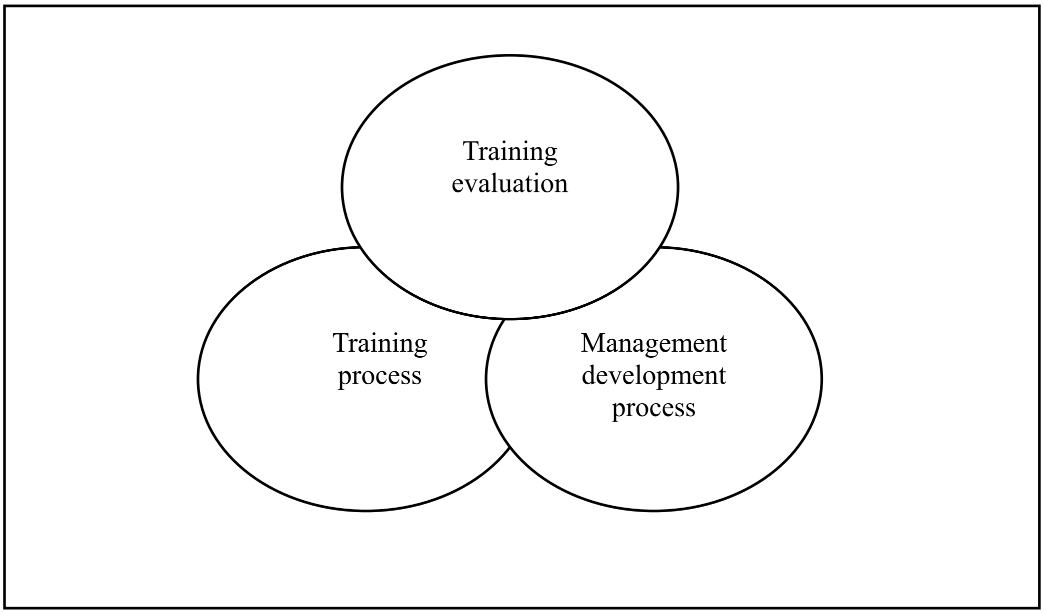
However, the review of literiature shows little research into evaluation of the effectiveness of management training and development across countries. In addition no evaluation model has been found for evaluating management training and development in a cross-cultural setting.

3.3 STRATEGY AND APPROACHES OF TRAINING EVALUATION

3.3.1 Strategy of Training Evaluation

Evaluation, as defined earlier, is a process of collecting information which is desired to meet a particular purpose. Bramley (1996: 30) argues that it is not "economic and feasible to evaluate something from all perspectives". Therefore it has been agreed by many authors (Hamblin, 1974; Phillips, 1996; McClelland, 1994; Lewis, 1996) that training evaluation should be "tailor-made" and interact constantly with the system it serves. Therefore awareness needs to be raised regarding the appropriate strategy of evaluation which optimises the resources in the process and prioritises the purpose of evaluation (Tannenbaum and Woods, 1992; Tamkin *et al*., 2002; Plant and Ryan, 1994). In addition evaluation cannot be isolated from the system it serves (Easterby-Smith, 1994; Bramley, 1996b; McClelland, 1994). In the case of this research it should integrate with management training and the management development process (see Figure 3.7).

Figure 3.7 Conceptualised Interactions of Training Evaluation, Training Process and Management Development Process



Reid and Barrington (1997) argue that evaluation of a particular programme is the most difficult task for a training officer. A strategy is suggested by Reid and Barrington (1997: 342) by asking a series of questions:

> "Why is the evaluation required?
> Who should do it?
> What aspects should be evaluated and when should this be done?
> What kinds of measurement will be used?
> When will it be done?"

It helps to understand the nature and purpose of evaluation by trying to answer those questions above. For example, the reasons for evaluation could be various: justifying the effectiveness of investment on training, providing feedback to the trainer, improvement for the future programmes, identifying an intrinsic part of the learners' progression, and indicating to what extent the objectives of training have been met and whether there are further needs to be met (Reid and Barrington, 1997).

Tannenbaum and Woods (1992) introduce five evaluation strategies mainly based on the criteria of Kirkpatrick's four levels of evaluation criteria: (1) No evaluation; (2) Reaction-only; (3) Basic evaluation; (4) Intermediate evaluation; (5) Advanced evaluation. They argue that before choosing any of the above five strategies it is necessary to study several organisational factors which includes:

- Change potential: the possibility to change or stop this programme
- Importance/criticality: the implications of erroneous conclusions
- Scale: the number of trainees and the size of the programme
- Purpose and nature of the training: the purpose and objectives of the training
- Organisational culture: cultural norms or expectations about evaluation such as the conventional way the decision makers include evidence.
- Expertise: the capability to design and analyse an evaluation study
- Cost: the total investment in a training programme
- Timeframe: the time of information required

3.3.2 Approaches of Training Evaluation

Easterby-Smith (1994) argues that it is unrealistic that evaluation accounts for more than one of the four purposes categorised by him which were presented earlier: proving, improving, learning and controlling. It might be possible to serve more than one purposes if participants are involved extensively in the process of design and evaluation. There is a danger of making 'an over-ambitious scale' of evaluation without considering the limits of resources such as people, time, and money. Therefore Esterby-Smith (1994:20) suggests two approaches to clarifying the purposes which evaluation is intended to serve: expediency and interests of stakeholders.

Expediency approach assumes that a given activity task is problematic and needs to generate some information to show its value. This approach is based on self-diagnostic questionnaires which help people to make a decision on evaluating a particular programme.

Interests of stakeholders approach is based on two principles. First, it is to identify the main stakeholders of evaluation and analyse their different objectives towards evaluation. For example, trainees are likely to be interested in learning while the policy makers are more concerned about improving and controlling (Esterby-Smith, 1994).

Second, different objectives of the main stakeholders need to be communicated and negotiated during the whole process in order to reach a balanced view of priorities about evaluation (Guba and Lincoln, 1989). Likewise, Copeland (1987) stresses the importance of reaching an agreement on the objectives of training in advance between the senders and the receivers in the process of international training whilst the training objectives to be accomplished are communicated to the trainees.

The latest development of a stakeholder approach to evaluating training echoes Esterby-Smith's opinion of addressing the interests of stakeholders in training intervention. Evaluation is concerned with judgements based on individual values that usually vary by stakeholders involved in an intervention (Nickols, 2005). Some authors define stakeholders (Freeman, 2004; Mitchell *et al*., 1997; Mellahi and Wood, 2003; Vartiainen, 2003) as interest groups who have different needs, expectations, objectives, values, and principles, which are ultimately linked to human motives according to structurlistic theory. Vartiainen (2003) explains, from the view of post-structuralism that cultural and social factors account for the differentiations of the stakeholders' behaviours. Therefore, in stakeholder evaluation the object under examination is connected with interrelations between context, evaluation processes and criteria (Vartiainen, 2003).

Based on the general principle of participatory assessment Vartiainen (2003) proposes a multiple constituency evaluation method. The term 'constituency' is used here to replace 'stakeholder' with broader meaning in concept. As suggested by Vartiainen (2003) multiple constituency evaluation includes four methodically different perspectives of evaluation listed below.

(1) Relativism refers to the strong informativeness and wider inclusiveness of the constituencies of the evaluation object in order to collect vast empirical information and conduct meaningful descriptive analysis of the phenomenon.

(2) Power means the ability and possibility of negotiation among constituencies of the structure and evaluation criteria in the evaluation process. It is assumed that the greater the power of a constituency, the better it can influence the operation of evaluation and choosing of evaluation criteria.

(3) Social justice emphasises the position of smallest beneficiary as a criterion, which compensates for the weaknesses of the weakest constituency. The core constituencies participating in the evaluation process are those groups whose interests are based on collective and social factors.
(4) Evolutionary interprets the evaluation objective in relation to the changes of the environment in which it exists. It also suggests time impact on changing of constituencies and their preferences, which in turn influence the nature of multiple constituency evaluation.

The key principle of multiple constituency evaluation is to invite different constituency groups to participate in the whole process of evaluation (Vartiainen, 2003). The major advantages are the versatility of data collection, the ability to apply both qualitative and quantitative methods, and the natural participants in forming the evaluation indicators and criteria rather than relying on the evaluator (Vartiainen, 2003; Nickols, 2005).

3.4 SUMMARY OF CHAPTER 3

Evaluation of training has been primarily defined as a systemic process to obtain information about particular instructional activities or training programmes, and to determine the value and worth of that intervention based on the data collected (Bramley, 1996b; Goldstein, 1993; Hamblin, 1974). This provides a fundamental understanding of various evaluation models as well as the way to perceive evaluation in a wider context. As suggested by some authors (Bramley, 1996; Kirkpatrick, 1994; Pont 1996) training is a cyclical process in which evaluation is integrated. Furthermore evaluation of training cannot be simply regarded as evaluating a programme but as assessing an intervention underpinned by other systems and factors.

The review of various evaluation models demonstrates the evolution of training evaluation and the trends of development in evaluation theory and approach. From Kirkpatrick's four levels of evaluation to the latest models the evaluation of training has gradually shifted from the focus on standardised criteria to a systematic perspective of management training and development (Easterby-Smith, 1994; Warr *et al.*, 1970). Some efforts have been made to study performance evaluation of the organisation. Attention has also been paid to the evaluation of learning effectiveness which emphasises the learning and development process. Formative evaluation models add a new method of training evaluation which can be used as a supplementary method with summative evaluation.

Despite the availability of various models it is argued that there is no single model fit for every application of evaluation (Phillips, 1991; Hamblin, 1974). The purposes of evaluation are viewed differently by researchers and practitioners which influence the approaches to evaluation (Easterby-Smith, 1994; Kirkpatrick, 1994; Tannenbaum and Woods, 1992). It is necessary to make a strategy by connecting purposes of evaluation with the evaluation approach. For example, multiple constituency evaluation provides a theoretical and methodological foundation for stakeholder-based approach and has shed light on training evaluation for its versatile attributes (Nickols, 2005; Vartiainen, 2003). There is a paucity of work on evaluating management training and development in cross-cultural conditions. Therefore there is a need to develop a framework to suit the purpose of evaluation of cross-cultural management training and development.

CHAPTER 4
CROSS-CULTURAL MANAGEMENT

4.0 PREAMBLE

Globalisation has brought fundamental changes to the business environment and operations in the world. It has led to the increased internationalisation of economics, politics and society (Oddou and Mendenhall, 1991; Parker, 1998; Aycan, 2005). There is an increasing amount of research into the management of multinational enterprises (MNEs), multinational corporations (MNCs), transnational companies (TNCs), international joint ventures (IJV) and foreign direct invested companies (FDICs) (Adler, 2002; Hofstede and Hofstede, 2005; Mintzberg, 2004; Rowley *et al*., 2004; Warner, 2004; Zhou *et al*., 2005). There is an increasing awareness that effectively managing cross-cultural interaction, multinational teams and global partners is crucial to the success of the above mentioned international organisers (Adler, 1997, Mendenhall *et al*., 2003). Adler (2002:11) suggests that cross-cultural management is to study the behaviour of people in organisations around the world. It "describes organisational behavior within countries and cultures; compares organisational behavior across countries and cultures; and ….seeks to understand and improve the interaction of co-workers, managers, executives, clients, suppliers, and alliance partners from countries and cultures around the world".

As discussed in Chapter 1 the aim and objectives of this research are directly related to cultural influences. In order to embed culture in this study properly it is necessary to review relevant literature to scope the level, elements and the role of culture as well as the process of cross-cultural management in diverse cultures. Section 4.1 defines culture by national and organisational dimensions. Section 4.2 indicates the attributes of cross-cultural interaction and impact on people who study or work in a new culture. Section 4.3 reviews the studies on cross-cultural learning, knowledge transfer and facilitation in the context of management training, education and development. The approaches of cross-cultural training are also surveyed to enhance the efficiency and effectiveness of management training and development in a cross-cultural condition.
Section 4.4 summarises chapter 4.

4.1 DIMENSIONS OF CULTURES

4.1.1 The Definition of Culture

It is agreed by many authors (Tayeb, 1994; Tayeb, 2003; Mead, 1994; Hofstede, 1994; Hofstede, 1983) that there is almost no single way to define 'culture'. There are definitions of culture under different disciplines such as anthropology, sociology, psychology and business (Adler, 1997). Tayeb (2003) suggests that culture cannot be clearly defined. It may be defined as values, feelings, thinking, roles, rules, behaviour, beliefs, attitudes, expectations and meanings. On the other hand it may be something related to economics, politics, law, religion, language, education, technology, industrial environment, society or the market (Tayeb, 2003:10). However it is agreed that in order to understand how culture influences the different subjects it is essential to define the concept of culture (Hofstede, 1994; Moghaddam *et al*., 1993; Smith and Bond, 1998).

The earlier and broader definition of culture is based on Herkovits's view that it is "the human-made part of the environment which combines societal environment and material products by human beings and implies that culture is something that remains in individuals' minds" (Herskovits, 1948:17).

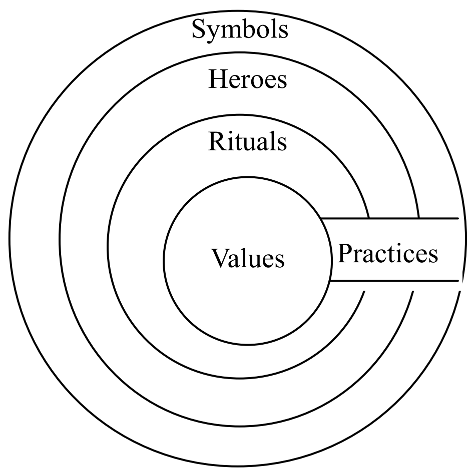
Anthropologists Kroeber and Kluchhohn (1952:181) produced a comprehensive definition below:

> "Culture consists of patterns, explicit and implicit, of and for behaviour acquired and transmitted by symbols, constituting the distinctive achievement of human groups, including their embodiment in artefacts; the essential core of culture consists of traditional (i.e., historically derived and selected) ideas and especially their attached values; cultures systems may, on the one hand be considered as products of action, on the other, as conditioning elements of future action".

A contemporary study (Tayeb, 2003:10) summarises culture as "historically evolved values, attitudes and meanings that are learned and shared by the members of a given community, and which influence their material and non-material way of life. Members of the community learn these shared characteristics through different stages of the socialisation processes within institutions such as family, religion, formal education and society as a whole".

Hofstede and Hofstede (2005:3-4) argue that culture is the “software of the person’s mind” and is “the collective programming of the mind which distinguishes the members of one group or category of people from another”. Hofstede and Hofstede (2005:7) illustrate the levels of culture as ‘skins of onion’ (see Figure 4.1) in the sequence of value, rituals (collective activities), heroes (persons alive or dead, real or imaginary) and symbols (words, gestures, pictures or objects). Value is the core of culture while symbols represent the surface of the culture onion. Symbol, heroes and rituals are subsumed under practice.

Figure 4.1 The “Onion” and Levels of Culture



Source: Hofstede and Hofstede, 2005:7

Adler (1997:15) also suggests that culture is expressed through the media of values held by the individuals of a society. However Adler looks at cultural orientations in a different way. Adler (2002:18) perceives culture to interact with values, attitudes and behaviours in a continuous cycle and defines value, attitudes and behaviour as below.

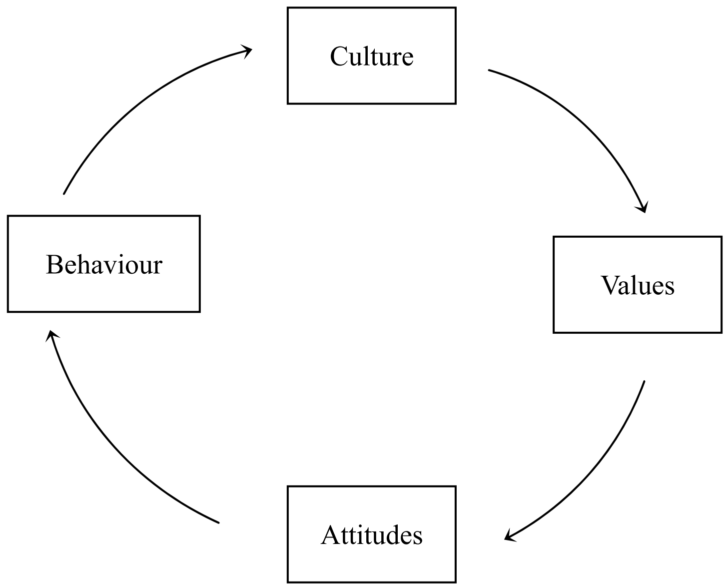
Values explicitly or implicitly reflect the general beliefs of an individual or groups and it influences the selection from available modes, means and ends of action.

Attitudes express values and dispose a person to act or to react in a certain way toward something.

Behaviour is any form of human action.

As shown in Figure 4.2 Adler (2002:17) suggests culture is expressed by values, which in turn influence their attitudes and behaviour, which eventually influences the society's culture, and the cycle begins again. This forms continually changing patterns of culture impacting on individual and group behaviour, which impacts on societal culture.

Figure 4.2 Cultural Interaction Cycle



Source: Adler (2002: 17)

4.1.2 Dimensions of National Culture

Hofestede's dimensions of culture (Hofestede, 1980; Hofestede 1994; Hofestede and Hofestede, 2005) are so far the most popular theories in the culture domain, which focuses on a national or ecological level. They are frequently cited and replicated in international and cross-cultural studies (Ardichvili and Kuchinke, 2002; Batonda and Perry, 2003; Clark, 1990; Sondergarrd, 1994; Wong and Birnbaum-More, 1994). Smith and Bond (1998:44) argue that Hofstede's five cultural dimensions are the "classic study of work-related values". They are defined by Hofstede and Hofstede (2005) as below.

(1) Power distances within countries: the extent to which the less powerful members of institutions and organisations within a country expect and accept that power is distributed unequally. Institution is defined here as the basic elements of society, e.g.,

family, and school while organisation refers to the place where people work (Hofstede and Hofstede, 2005:46).

(2) Individualism and collectivism: two forms of societies in the world. In an individualist society ties between individuals are loose, whereas in collectivist society people are integrated into strong, cohesive in-groups (Hofstede and Hofstede, 2005:76).

(3) Masculinity and femininity: social typology described by emotional gender roles. A society is called masculine when emotional gender roles are clearly distinct, whilst a society is called feminine when emotional gender roles are overlapped (Hofstede and Hofstede, 2005:120).

(4) Uncertainty avoidance of individuals: the extent to which the member of a culture feels threatened by an ambiguous or unknown situation (Hofstede and Hofstede, 2005:167).

(5) Long-term versus short-term orientation: two types of cultural value or perceptions about the world. Long-term-orientation (LTO) is to foster virtues oriented toward future rewards; while short-term orientation focuses on the development of virtues related to the past and present (Hofstede and Hofstede, 2005:210).

The implications of Hofstede’s national dimensions are versatile; they can be applied to daily life, education, organisation, business (Hofstede and Hofstede, 2005). The results of value test from their empirical studies have provided a meaningful index for cultural research. For instance, the test of individualism shows China is listed at the bottom among 74 sampled countries (Hofstede and Hofstede, 2005:79); whereas the index of long-term orientation for China is the highest in 39 countries under study (Hofstede and Hofstede, 2005:211).

It is suggested by many authors that since Hofestede’s dimensions are the most widely used among the cultural instruments there are more opportunities for their validity and reliability to be proven (Batonda and Perry, 2003; Huang, 1999; Robert and Wasti, 2002, Saner and Yiu, 1994; Tor, 2004). For instance Hofestede’s natonal cultural dimensions are regarded as a useful framework for cross-cultural research (Nasierowski and Mikula, 1998; Newman and Nollen, 1996; Perry, 1992). Similarly, Batonda and Perry (2003) take Hofstede’s dimensions as a starting point to study how individuals from different national cultures (Australian vs. overseas Chinese in his research) could act in work-related network management situations. Moreover Hofestedes' five cultural dimensions have led to the identification of other cultural dimensions, for example, the study by Kanungo *et al*. (1999) on America, Canada and India has revealed that the paternalism, power distance, uncertainty avoidance and community loyalty are the most significant cultural dimensions.

However the limitations and flaws of Hofsteds's cultural dimensions have attracted critiques in recent years which should be addressed while using Hofsted's model as theretical guidance in a research. Firstly, it is critised that Hofested's work neglects the potential influence of a variety of other contextual factors (Chiang, 2005). Similarly other authors argue (Gerhart and Fang, 2005; Yeh and Lawrence 1995) that Hofested's cultural dimensions are not sufficient to explain economic growth and other factors need to be included. Secondly, there remain methodological problems which include method of data collection (entirely based on attitudinal questionnaire survey), validity of data source (participants from one organisation, students), interpretation of statistical analysis (Bond and Kagitcibasi, 2006; Gerhart and Fang, 2005; Chiang, 2005; Teyeb, 2001). Thirdly philosophical flaw has been pointed out by some authors particularly in the construction of Hofestede's long-term orientation v.s short-term orientation dimension (Fang, 2003; Bond and Kagitcibasi, 2006; Yeh and Lawrence 1995).

4.1.3 Organisational Culture

Hofstede and Hofstede (2005:35) argue that "an organisation is a social system of a different nature than a nation" and different ways of acting and interacting in organisations has distinguished their unique culture even in the same region. He therefore defines organisational culture as "the collective programming of the mind that distinguishes the members of one organisation from another" (Hofstede and Hofstede, 2005:282-283), which conforms with his definition of culture in general.

Hofstede's other contribution is to identify six dimensions of organisational culture in his cross-organisational study in which considerable variations were found: (Hofstede and Hofstede, 2005:292):

- Process oriented vs. results oriented

- Employee oriented vs. job oriented
- Parochial vs. professional
- Open system vs. closed system
- Loose control vs. tight control
- Normative vs. pragmatic

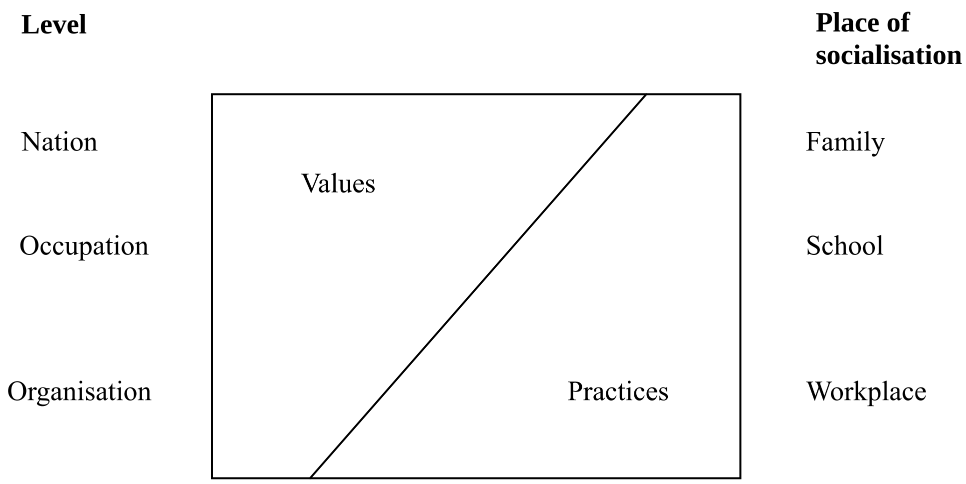
Mead (Mead, 1994: 139) looks at organisational culture from a different angle. He refers to it as two facets of organisational perceptions: perceptions 'developed by employees' own experience' as well as perceptions 'deliberately manipulated by top management' within a organisation. They include organisational values, beliefs and attitudes which fit into the domain of the general culture definition. (Smith and Bond, 1998: 231) argue that organisational cultures are influenced by two elements: (a) individuals' career objectives, and (b) the organisation's goals which the leaders would like to achieve. The harmony of these two goals is determined by whether the leaders' vision can be transformed in a way that resonate their employees' values and practices. Moreover the study by Kanungo and colleagues (1999: 282) identifies the differences between public sector and private sector organisations in India. This suggests that both the socio-cultural environment and the corporate environment have an influence on management vision and mission which in turn shape organisational cultures.

4.1.4 Relationship Between National Culture and Organisational Culture

Hofstede suggests a distinction between national culture and organisational culture and describes them as two different concepts. Hofstede (1994:182) describes the national culture as representing the value differences more while the organisational culture symbolises the practices more (see Figure 4.3).

Adler (2002) suggests that organisational culture maintains and enhances national culture. Smith and Bond (1998) argue that national culture and organisational culture may overlap, but there is no logical evidence for the overlapping. It is widely known that some multinational companies are making efforts to create a transactional corporate culture such as IBM. Presumably, organisational culture in multinational organisations goes beyond the limit of national cultures (Smith and Bond, 1998:226).

Figure 4.3 The Cultural Differences Between National and Organisational Levels



Source: Hofstede (1994:182)

The emergence of global business activities has substantially increased the integration of cultures at different levels (Rijamampianina and Maxwell, 2002; Caligiuri *et al*., 2001; Bennett *et al*., 2000; Bradford and O'Grady, 2000; Osman-Gani, 2000; Mendenhall *et al*., 2003; Liberman and Torbiorn, 2000; Rijamampianina and Maxwell, 2002) . For example, Hofstede (1994) suggests that there is no single and simple understanding and interpretation of organisational culture. Tayeb (2003:14) argues that it is difficult to pinpoint the origins of national culture precisely because it is influenced by various factors and sources such as societal environment, geographic climate, history, organisations as well as institutions, which are grouped into national and superanational institutions, such as World Trade Organisation, and the European Union.

Nevertheless culture is usually connected with organisational structure, strategy and management. It therefore should be looked at holistically and related to anthropological studies. The research by Liberman and Torbiorn (2000) has identified variances in managerial practices in the eight subsidiaries of a trans-national corporation, which are 'attributable to cultural factors, institutional pressures and other societal forces'. Tayeb (2003: 30-31) summarises that cultural norms are internationalised in the long process of socialisation. Institutions influences organisational activities and people's behaviour through their laws, and regulations. while the relationship between national culture and institutions is a two way process. This research will use cross-cultural to refer to cross-national cultures.

4.2 UNDERSTANDING THE NATURE OF CROSS-CULTURAL INTERACTION AND THE CHALLENGE FOR EXPATRIATES

As a consequence of the rapid development of globalisation and international businesses the numbers of expatriate have increased dramatically. The type of expatriates is divided into two groups: (1) cross-country business missionaries, (2) international students who undertake education and training (Selmer, 1995; Selmer, 2006; Shim and Paprock, 2002; Black and Gregersen, 1991; Marshall *et al*., 2003; Lago and Barty, 2003; Mendenhall and Oddou, 1998). In order to attain and sustain global competitiveness organisations send their directors, managers and professionals for international assignments such as management of overseas businesses, technology transfers, development of new markets, new skills and knowledge acquisition (Bennett *et al*., 2000; Black and Mendenhall, 1990; Shim and Paprock, 2002). Management development activities have become more versatile and are no longer limited to one region but are undertaken internationally. As a consequence management development has become a multi-faceted process which involves diverse cultures.

4.2.1 Expatriates and Culture Shock

Culture shock is the 'gift' received by almost all expatriates no matter whether they go abroad for work or study, for a short or long period, and wherever they come from. Oberg (Oberg, 1954, Oberg, 1960) was probably the first author to use the term 'culture shock' describing both the physical and psychological problems experienced by expatriates when they moved from one culture to another (Bhawuk and Brislin, 2000: 163; Taft, 1977:139). Oberg (1960:177) suggests it is "an occupational disease' and a consequences of anxiety where individuals have lost their 'familiar signs and symbols of social intercourse'. However nowadays it is no longer to be considered as a disease but emotional stress (Adler, 2002; Mendenhall and Oddou, 1985; Mendenhall and Oddou, 1986).

Taft (1977: 139) describes culture shock as 'emotional disturbance' felt by an individual who enters an unfamiliar environment and finds his/her previous education and knowledge is inadequate to cope with the new situation. Similarly, Solomon (1994a:58) considers culture shock as “an emotional and psychological reaction to the confusion, ambiguity, value conflicts, and hidden clashes that occur as a result of fundamentally different ways of perceiving the world and interacting socially between cultures”.

Adler (1997:239) also suggests that culture shock is related to stress and may be characterised as ‘embarrassment, disappointment, frustration, impatience, anxiety, identity confusion, anger, and physiological responses’. Black and Gregersen (1991: 463) argue that “many symptoms of culture shock are in part a function of the stress induced by all the behavioural expectation differences and the accompanying uncertainty with which the individual must cope”. Likewise, Adler (1997: 239) proposes that changes in environment, job role, and social status exacerbate the stress of expatriates because they are not prepared to use the interpretation system of the host country culture, but rather use that of their home country.

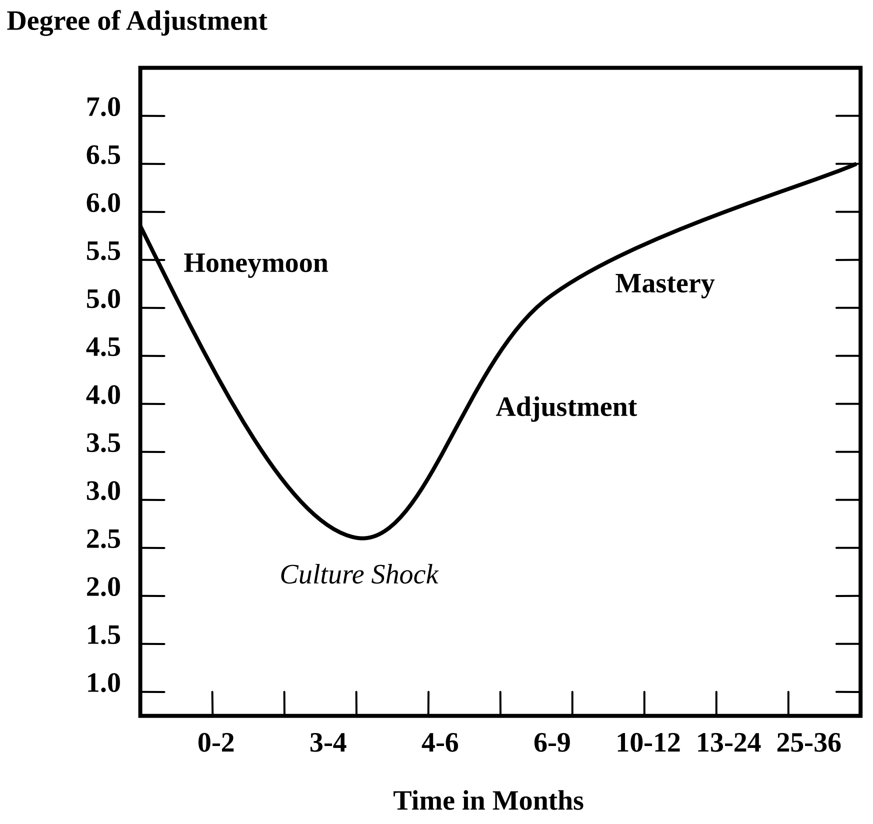
Sims and Troy (2004: 74) indicate that culture shock can be represented in two forms. First is the immediate emotional reaction while expatriates are transferred to the host country with a different culture and even a different language. Second is a gradual awareness by expatriates of more culture differences in the host countries. However Adler (1997: 238) looks at culture shock positively and points out that severe culture shock reveals that expatriates have come out of the isolation stage and begun to integrate into the new culture. Bhawuk and Brislin (2000:164) also point out that the study on culture shock has contributed to the concept of ‘culture distance’ in the way that the greater the cultural distances between the host country and an expatriate home country, the more the expatriate experiences cultural shock.

4.2.2 Characteristics of Cross-Culture Adjustment

The construct of culture shock is considered to be the first conceptual tool to study the process of cross-culture adjustment (Bhawuk and Brislin, 2000). As many authors have indicated (Adler, 1997; Black and Gregersen, 1991; Black and Greenbuerg, 1991; Black and Mendenhall, 1991; Black and Mendenhall, 1992), cross-cultural adjustment is the degree of psychological comfort that expatriates feel working and living in host countries after their severe culture shock, which is described as a 'low' period of culture shock by Adler (1997:240; Hofstede and Hofstede, 2005:324). The issue of the effectiveness of international assignment and expatriate adjustment has increasingly received the attention of researchers since the late 1970s due to the increasing number of global assignments and the high costs of failed assignments (Black *et al.*, 1991; Mendenhall and Oddou, 1985; Selmer, 2006; Selmer and de Leon, 2002).

Cross-culture adjustment has been commonly interpreted as a U-shaped curve (Black *et al.*, 1991; Adler, 1997; Sloman, 1994a; Hofstede and Hofstede, 2005). This model is largely supported by empirical studies on international students (Golden, 1973; Klineberg and Hull, 1978). Black and Mendenhall (1991:227) describe four stages of adjustment: 'honeymoon, culture shock, adjustment, and mastery' (see Figure 4.4).

Figure 4.4 The U-curve of Cross-Cultural Adjustment



Source: Black and Mendenhall (1991:227)

Similarly, Adler (2002:263-264) suggests that expatriates, while entering the host country, would normally experience four major stages: (1) excitement about the novelty; (2) waking from illusion and the struggle to cope with the new environment; (3) learning how to adapt to the new environment according to the culture norms of host countries; (4) feeling more comfortable and acting more effectively in the new culture. It is suggested by Lago and Barty (2003) that although the terms used for each stage by different authors may differ, the description of the overall pattern remains the same. Moreover most of the empirical studies have reported the adjustment in relation to a time span (see Figure 4.4). However, Lago and Barty (2003) argue that there is no fixed timescale for the adjustment process because individuals' experiences may vary.

As suggested by some authors (Black and Mendenhall, 1992; Adler, 1997) expatriates need to readjust to the home country environment both for work and non-work factors. They normally pass the similar U-curve on their return to the host country. Therefore Lago and Barty (2003:101) describe the process of entry and re-entry as a W-curve.

Adler argues that for repatriates the readjustment to work is more difficult than readjustment to personal affairs. Previous research (Black and Gregersen, 1991; Adler, 1981; Selmer, 1995; Sloman, 1994a; Selmer, 2004a) has revealed that most of the expatriates were not satisfied with the reaction from their organisations regarding their career change such as promotion, especially in the short term. Expatriates may find that their overseas experiences are not greatly valued by their organisations especially those which are domestically business based.

Based on a study of empirical research into U-curve adjustment, Black and Mendenhall (1991) incorporate social learning theory (SLT) as a theoretical framework. The four elements of SLT (attention, retention, reproduction and incentives and motivational process) are used to explain in theory why cross-culture adjustment manifests itself in a U-curve pattern (it is also discussed in section 4.3.3.3). The contribution of their work to cross-culture studies is to integrate cognitive and behavioural theories and to provide a theoretical framework which enables researchers and practitioners to further explore which are the important situational and individual factors for cross-culture adjustment.

4.2.3 Acculturation and Adaptation

The concept of acculturation has been widely used in cross-cultural studies in the areas of psychology and social science (Kosic, 2002; Segall *et al*., 1999; Selmer and de Leon, 2002; Mendenhall and Oddou, 1985; Mendenhall and Oddou, 1986; Kosic, 2002). Segall *et al*. (1999:303) use acculturation to describe 'the general processes and outcomes of cultural contact'. Berry (1990) suggests that psychological acculturation refers to individuals' change in behaviour and traits both overtly and covertly in the way that the individuals' cultural group is collectively experiencing acculturation. In earlier years Graves (1967) has classified acculturation into two categories: collective or group-level acculturation and psychological acculturation. This distinction helps researchers and practitioners to study systematically the relationships between these two types of cultural variables.

Segall *et al*. (1999) present an acculturation framework based on Graves' work. As shown in Figure 4.5 the acculturation process is consisted of two parts. One type represents the acculturation beyond individual level, which involves changes of hardware; they are physical changes, biological changes, political changes, economic changes, cultural changes and social changes. The other is psychological acculturation which includes software changes at the individual level, such as behaviour, values, acculturative stress, and adaptation.

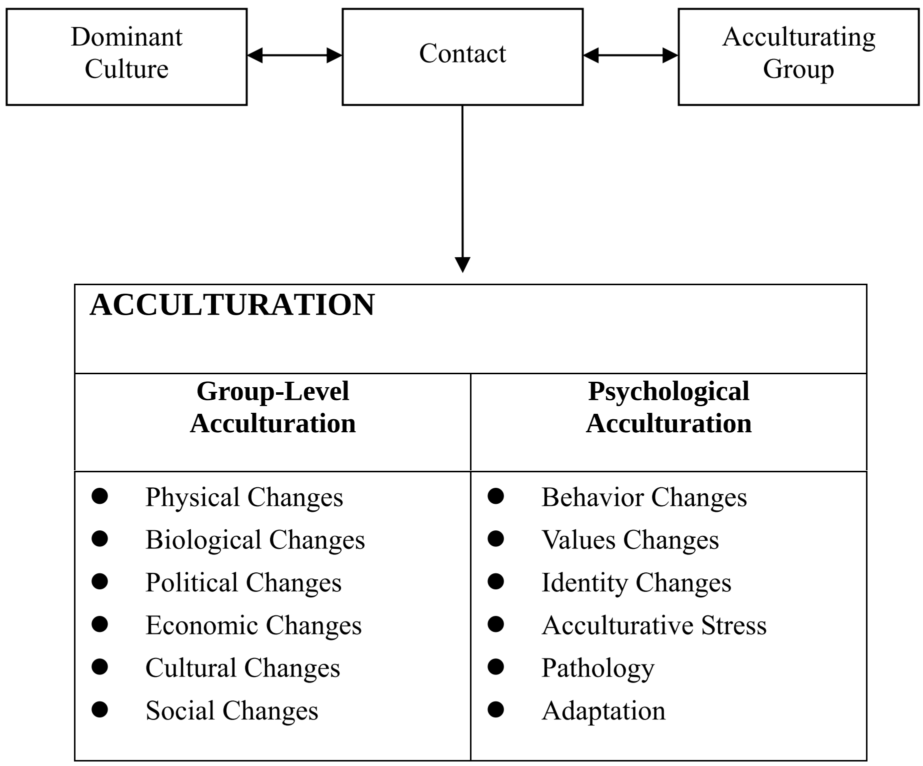
Mendenhall and Oddou (1986) argue that 'most of the conceptual models created to explain and predict acculturation have themselves been narrow in scope, focusing on discrete aspects of the acculturation process' and studies on expatriate acculturation have been limited to one-dimensional phenomenon, but neglect other relevant variables. Mendenhall and Oddou (1985) identify four dimensions of cross-culture adjustment of expatriates in the acculturation process by a series of empirical studies of expatriate managers (see Table 4.1). They are (a) self-oriented dimension of expatriate managers, (b) others-oriented dimension involving interaction with local people, (c) perceptual dimension covering the ability to observe and understand new culture, and (d) cultural-toughness dimension reflecting the level of cultural barriers between two countries. It has contributed to the study of cross-cultural training as well as expatriate selection.

Table 4.1 Dimensions of Expatriate Adjustment Process

Self-Oriented Dimension	Reinforcement substitution Stress reduction Technical competence
Others-Oriented Dimension	Relationship development Willingness to communicate
Perceptual Dimension	Ability to understand how foreigners behave Ability to understand host-national's behaviour
Cultural-toughness Dimension	The degree of cultural barriers between home culture and host national culture

Source: edited from Mendenhall and Oddou (1985:40~43)

Figure 4.5 Acculturation Framework



Source: Segall, et al. (1999: 302)

The above intercultural theories have provided a fundamental principle to understand the characteristics and process of interculturalisation when people from one culture work or study in another culture. However there are rarely studies on Chinese managers studying and living in Western countries and how they interact with an Anglo-Saxon culture (Selvarajah, 1998).

4.3 MANAGEMENT OF TRAINING AND DEVELOPMENT ACROSS COUNTRIES

Within the area of international human resource management (IHRM) it has been widely accepted that effectively managing expatriates is a critical step for the success of international assignments (Wright *et al*., 1996; Engle Sr *et al*., 2001). Some recent research suggests that international assignments play an important role in developing managers with global vision or global leadership (Mendenhall *et al*., 2003; Black and Gregersen, 2000).

4.3.1 Cross-Cultural Learning and Kolb's Experiential Learning Theory (ELT)

It is suggested that the great contribution of Kolb's experiential learning theory lies in the integration of multiple management learning processes of action, cognition, reflection and experience into a single framework of learning theory (Kayes, 2002; Kayes, 2005). Yamazaki and Kayes (2004) suggest that Kolb's ELT adds value to cross-cultural learning. The studies on styles, abilities, skills and the development of experiential learning give theoretical construction to the area of cross-cultural learning (Kolb, 1984; Yamazaki and Kayes, 2004). For instance, various skills are identified in ELT such as values, concepts and action. Furthermore, the humanistic values which underpin ELT introduce an ethical approach to learning in a cross-cultural learning process, that is, values difference, self-development and self-actualisation (Kayes, 2002; Yamazaki and Kayes, 2004).

The other argument (Yamazaki and Kayes, 2004) for the link of ELT with cross-cultural learning lies in Kolb's developmental dimension of ELT. Kolb (1984:133-150) suggests that interaction occurs in the learning process between learners and the environment where they are situated. It complies with the acculturation theory that expatriates are not free from the interaction with the host country environment which includes host culture, social system, values in the process of learning and development (Mendenhall and Oddou, 1985; Segall *et al*., 1999). Sim's study (1983) suggests specific learning strategies be introduced for particular cross-cultural learning situations to attain the congruency of the learner's home culture and the host culture.

Salvarajah's recent work (2006) supports Sim's viewpoint. Based on his comparative study of Chinese students and European students in New Zealand who are taking postgraduate management courses, he raises the issue of educational paradigm shifts in technologies, methods and perception in order to facilitate the changes in education styles. His aim is to develop programmes that address the academic needs of non Western students, particularly related to skills of cross-cultural communication, subject study, English language and taking examinations.

Some other studies into cross-cultural learning have supported the above theory by identifying the influences of the cultural differences of the host country on learning effectiveness which underpin the process of learning and teaching (Ledwith and Seymour, 2001). Firstly, the great difficulty for learners is studying in a foreign language (Harris, 1997; Houghton and Dickinson, 1992; Roger and Smith, 1992; Shim and Paprock, 2002). The second issue is the different approach to learning and delivering between two cultures (Alon and Lu, 2004). For example, a mismatch is found between Western deliveries and Chinese managers in management training and educational activities (Berrell *et al*., 2001; Branine, 2005; Branine, 1996; Saner and Yiu, 1994). Therefore Thomas (1996) advocates the development of a culture-sensitive pedagogical approach to adapt to the emerging 'global culture'. Finally, management learning takes place through consistent cross-cultural interaction between expatriates and the local community outside the classroom, which is referred to as 'experiential learning' in Chapter 2 (Branine, 2005).

4.3.2 Knowledge Transfer across Cultures in the Process of Management Development

There is a growing interest in the research of knowledge transfer in cross-cultural contexts. It is arguable that causal relationships remain between managerial concept and culture (Adler, 1997; Bedward *et al*., 2003). The cultural dimensions discussed earlier (Hall, 1990; Hofstede, 1994) are unavoidably reflected through management operation both in the national and organisational level. For example, the high context and collectivism nature of Chinese society influences management approaches in a way that it pursues harmony and relationships in an organisation and emphasises face and group-welfare, which results in a higher level of tolerance for ambiguity with less attention to general laws and regulations (Adler, 1997; Borgonjon and Vanhonacker, 1994).

In contrast, the low-context and individualism of Western culture attributes to managerial behaviour emphasises general principles, laws and regulations, maintain loose relationships between groups and highlight personal achievement at the workplace, which forms the basis of Western management theory and knowledge (Berrell *et al*., 2001; Adler, 1983). Previous research has critically examined the constraints of transferring Western management theory and knowledge to non-Western settings (Batonda and Perry, 2003; Berrell *et al*., 2001; Branine, 2005; Hofstede, 1980; Newell, 1999; Iles *et al*., 2004; Bedward *et al*., 2003).

In the context of international management development problems have been identified in several studies which are subject to cultural incompatibilities. The study undertaken by Holton III *et al*. (2003) has suggested that transfer system is underpinned not only by organisational culture but also by national culture in the case of management training in cross-cultural setting. For instance, the case of the Joint Industrial and Commercial Attachment Programme (JICAP) sponsored by the British Council for management training highlights the differences in management theory and practice between the UK and the Former Soviet Union and Central and East European countries (Bedward *et al*., 2003). Likewise, Nasierowski and Coleman (1997) have identified the problems in the transfer of managerial techniques from Japan into North America. The findings by Subedi (2006) have identified that cultural factors and beliefs held by stakeholders in the training process influence the transfer of training to workplace. Other examples of knowledge transfer from Western countries to China reveal the fundamental differences between the underpinning tacit knowledge, and value systems of Chinese learners and those of Western academics and knowledge deliveries (Branine, 199; Alon and Lu, 2004; Saner and Yiu, 1994; Newell, 1999).

One criticism of management training and educational interventions is that knowledge transfer of programmes is constructed usually in a uni-directional mode (Beardwell and Holden, 2001; Newell, 1999). The cases have rarely shown any involvement of learners' in the design and delivery of subject matter which in turn does not take account of learners' home culture. Hofstede (1980) argues that the quality of cross-cultural teaching and learning is influenced by pedagogical approach, thus training methods are likely to be culturally specific. Likewise, Selvarajah (2006) suggests that specially designed pedagogy to international students provides equitable and culturally sensitive platforms for knowledge transfer. Mutual knowledge creation is suggested in the process of knowledge transfer across cultures which incorporate the social, political, cultural and economic context of countries involved (Alon and Lu, 2004; Thomas, 1996; Newell, 1999; Iles and Yolles, 2004). Nasierowski and Coleman (1997) argue that any transfer process across countries always involves two cultures under which the managerial techniques or knowledge were developed. It thus raises the concern of identifying the factors affecting managers' learning in a different culture and the application of their learning to their home cultural settings.

4.3.3 Cross-Cultural Training (CCT) and Enhancement of the Effectiveness of Management Training and Development Across-culture

The development of cross-cultural training (CCT) studies date back to the 1950s and constructs like culture shock, space, and time in the period from the fifties to the sixties have laid solid foundations for CCT (Bhawuk and Brislin, 2000). It is generally agreed that methods of CCT are greatly influenced by Hofstede's cultural dimensions and elements of cognitive psychology, which can be grouped into three areas: cultural awareness, attribution training and scenario-based cultural assimilator (Morris and Robie, 2001: 115).

4.3.3.1 The purpose of CCT to prepare managers for new culture

As mentioned earlier, understanding expatriates' individual behavioural tendencies in acculturation helps trainers to tailor the training programmes for expatriates' adaptation skills in the host country. These specially designed programmes were first defined as "cross-cultural orientation" programmes by Brislin and Pedersen (1976) and nowadays are usually referred to as "cross-cultural training" (CCT) programmes.

It is suggested by Brislin and Yoshida (1994) that cross-cultural training is a formal attempt to prepare people to work more effectively in the context of extensive interaction with people from different cultural backgrounds. For some authors cross-cultural training has a wider scope since these programmes are not only designed to prepare expatriates to live and work in other countries, but also to prepare them for re-entry to their home country (Paige, 1986). Furthermore they are designed to train people in the host country about how to deal with people from another culture (Bhawuk and Triandis, 1996; Brislin and Horvath, 1997).

4.3.3.2 Development of cross-cultural indicators

Clearly one of the most significant aids to CCT is the "culture-general assimilator" (Brislin *et al.*, 1986) which covers 18 themes consisting of 100 incidents. These could be, for instance, anxiety, disconfirmed expectancies, lack of emotional support from the hosts, confrontation with expatriates' own prejudice and ethnocentrism, value, work, time and space, language, roles, importance of the group and the individual. These items are classified into three major categories: (a) people's intensive feelings, (b) knowledge areas, and (c) bases of cultural differences. The development of the "cultural-general assimilator" has directed the research of CCT into an increasingly theory-based path (Brislin and Bhawuk, 1999).

Research into the evaluation of CCT programmes has attracted more attention since the 1990s. New methods have been tried to measure the various CCT programmes such as meta-analysis, theoretical models and setting-up of criteria (Morris and Robie, 2001). For example, further to the study of the "culture-specific assimilator and "culture-general assimilator" Bhawuk (1998) developed a theory-based Individual and Collectivism Assimilator (ICA) which has significant effects on various criterion measures like intercultural sensitivity, category width, reaction measures, learning measures and behaviour measures.

4.3.3.3 Integration of social learning theory (SLT) with CCT

Another contribution comes from the study by Black and Mendenhall (1990). They use social learning theory (SLT) as a robust foundation to integrate with CCT, which is a first attempt to move CCT in to a more theory-based direction. The four elements of

SLT: attention, retention, reproduction and incentives, and motivation integrate with cross-cultural training processes to develop acculturation skills in three dimensions. This in turn helps individuals to adjust to a new cultural environment as well as enhancing the effectiveness of cross-cultural learning and the performance of expatriates in the host country.

More recent studies (Alon and Lu, 2004; Berrell *et al*., 2001; Hawthorne *et al*., 2004; Parnell *et al*., 2003; Iles and Yolles, 2004; Kosic, 2002; Kanungo *et al*., 1999; Mendenhall and Stahl, 2000; Bennett *et al*., 2000; Sergeant and Frenkel, 1998; Wright *et al*., 1996; Wright and Geroy, 2001; Shim and Paprock, 2002) on how to enhance the effectiveness of international assignment have greatly enriched the content of CCT and expanded its boundary. In the international context the degree of novelty of new behaviour is significantly higher than those in the domestic working environment. The relationship between the novelty of culture and modelled behaviour needs to be studied in order to motivate individuals' incentives for knowledge attention and retention. Nevertheless there is a lack of research on the application of combining cross-cultural training and social learning theory on the management training and development in cross-cultural settings.

4.3.3.4 Incorporating CCT into organisational management development system

Bennett *et al.* (2000) suggest objective-guided CCT and stress the importance of including the following key components in CCT programmes to increase their effectiveness:

- Needs assessment
- Content
- Design and methodologies
- Programme duration and timing
- Trainers and training team;
- Quality assurance

Bennett *et al* argue that not all training is the same and neither can these programmes be a substitute for some other important interventions related to international assignment such as policies for expatriation and repatriation, further coaching and training activities, performance management systems for promoting and rewarding the development of intercultural competencies (Bennett et al., 2000: 246).

Likewise, Wright *et al*. (1996) propose a systematic approach which analyses expatriate management from a holistic viewpoint. They identify six stages of management: needs assessment, expatriate selection, pre-field orientation, entry, development and re-entry. The constructs of this systematic model provide a useful tool to integrate CCT into the management system for international assignments. Based on the empirical study of Swedish expatriate managers working in a Hong Kong subsidiary, Selmer (2001) identifies that pre-knowledge of both expatriate managers and host managers about the cultures of both home and host country is one of the critical elements for the success of international assignments. Therefore Selmer and de Leon (2002) suggest that pre-knowledge be included in the CCT.

Similarly, another study (Shim and Paprock, 2002) on American expatriates has pinpointed some important factors which could help expatriates' adjustment to the new culture such as their previous overseas experiences, foreign language competency, information acquiring skills as well as bi-culture professional and social interaction ability. Shim and Paprock (2002:22) argue that expatriates obtain culture in another country through reflective learning and cross-cultural training programmes should be examined based on expatriates' actual needs.

4.3.3.5 New trend of research into CCT for management development

Mendenhall and Stahl (2000) suggest that researchers and practitioners are requested to keep up with the dynamic changes in 'cross-cultural training industry'. They address three emerging CCT issues: firstly, In-Country, Real-Time Training; secondly, Global Mindset Training; thirdly, CD-ROM/Internet-based Training. First they argue that pre-departure training usually provides standard contents for all expatriates and cannot meet the specific needs of expatriates; while real-time training in the host country has the advantage of solving the actual problems expatriates come across individually with 'more in-depth knowledge of the idiosyncrasies, complexities and paradoxes of the host culture' (Mendenhall and Stahl, 2000:253). The combination of these two CCT methods is therefore suggested.

The second CCT method proposed is to utilise repatriates as a resource and help organisations to globalise mindsets by structured programmes and seminars. The successful cases of Bosch have shown that this training method not only benefits repatriates re-gearing to their job role but also benefits the other employees by sharing repatriates' overseas experiences and knowledge (Mendenhall and Stahl, 2000). Lastly, fast growing IT and computer-aided learning have provided more options for CCT which make self-learning of different cultures possible such as CD-Rom/Multimedia Software, Culture Assimilator Software and the Internet (Mendenhall and Stahl, 2000).

Many studies (Bennett *et al*., 2000; Bhawuk and Brislin, 2000; Black and Mendenhall, 1990; Eschbach *et al*., 2001; Caligiuri *et al*., 2001) have demonstrated that CCT programmes are effective and expatriates and repatriates hold positive feelings about the CCT programmes they have received. The findings based on empirical evidence have revealed that CCT is an effective tool to develop key cross-cultural skills, facilitate cross-cultural adjustment and increase job performance (Black and Mendenhall, 1990). This has therefore led to the conclusion that various CCT programmes help expatriates to reduce their experience of culture shock and adjustment time to achieve cultural proficiency; to improve their intercultural ability and productivity in their assignments (Bhawuk and Brislin, 2000; Eschbach *et al*., 2001).

However the survey of literature has revealed little research into how to increase the effectiveness of management training and development in cross-cultural situations, for example, to prepare trainees with intercultural skills, to facilitate trainees in cross-cultural adaptation and adjustment in host country and provide support for ex-trainees to use their learning at work. Moreover, there is a paucity of publications on preparing the host organisations and their staff to work effectively with international managers and students even though it has been theoretically proven that the interculturation process involves both expatriates and host country (Segall *et al*., 1999; Mendenhall and Oddou, 1985).

4.4 SUMMARY OF CHATPER 4

It is obvious that international management development processes involves cross-cultural management. The culture of both host country and home country applies impact on the effectiveness of expatriates' learning and the application of their new learning. Thus it is critical to understand the nature of the cultural dimensions in the training and development process across cultures. The theory of national and organisational culture has contributed to the previous cross-cultural studies (Adler, 1997; Hofstede, 1980). It is also important to identify characteristics in terms of the psychological reaction of individuals and the interaction process in cross-cultural learning such as culture shock, cross-cultural adjustment as well as acculturation (Mendenhall, 1985; Black *et al*., 1991).

The review suggests that it is not only important to focus on the indicators of cultural differences of the two major stakeholders in the management development process: the learner and the teacher, but also to explore the methodology to enhance the effectiveness of management training and development across cultures. Previous research (Brislin *et al*, 1986; Brislin and Bhawuk, 1999; Shim and Paprock, 2002; Mendenhall and Stahl, 2000) on cross-cultural training has undoubtedly provided a theoretical and practical guidance to the success of international assignments in the world of globalisation. However few publications have been found on the existing research of management training and the development of Chinese managers in Western countries, and there are even less studies on how to enhance the effectiveness of learning and knowledge transfer from Western countries to China.

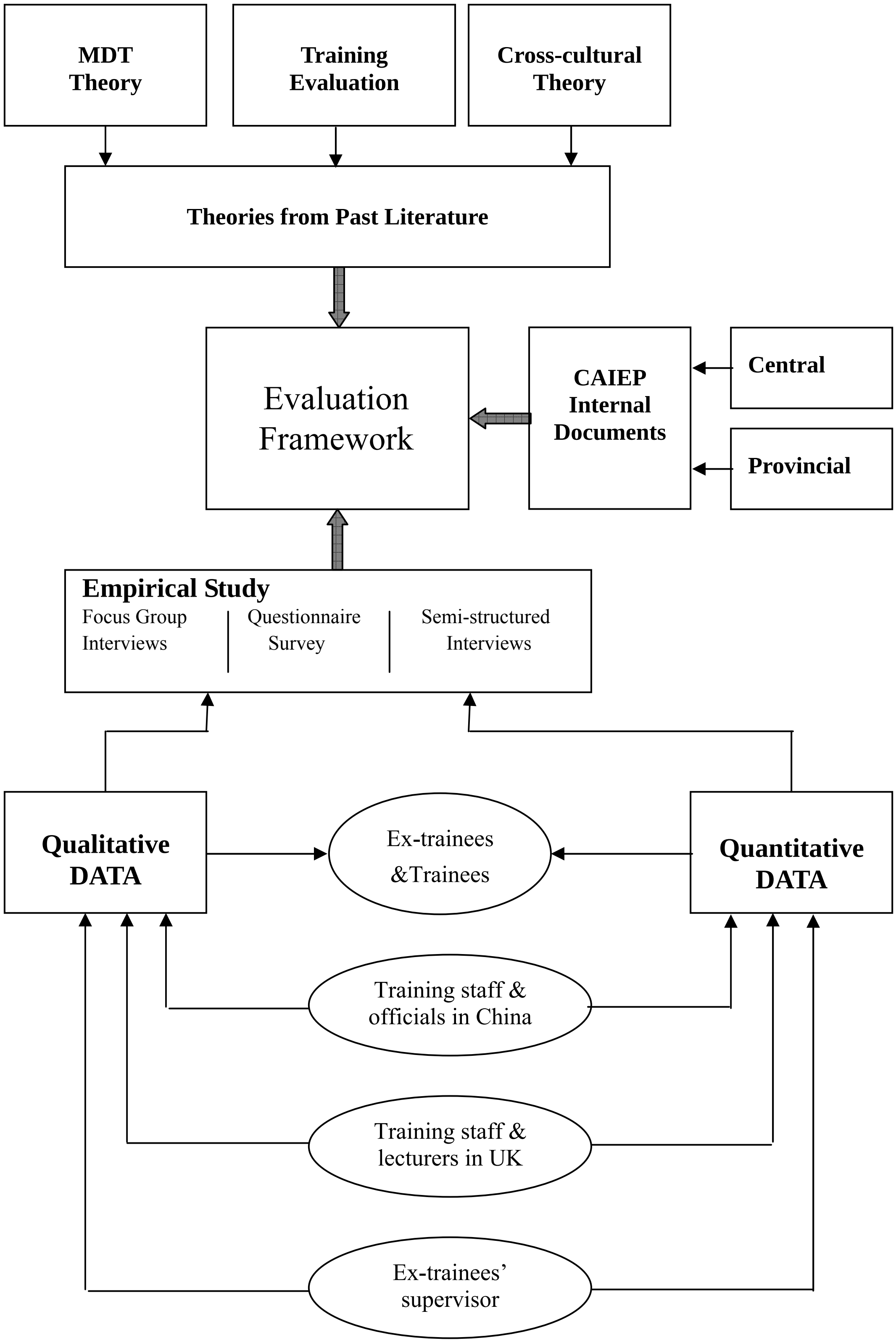
PART II METHODOLOGY

INTRODUCTION

Part II includes three chapters, which discuss the methodology for achieving the research objectives. A mixed methods approach was used to triangulate multiple methods and data sources from desk research and document data sources as well as from empirical studies, that is, larger size survey, focus groups meetings and in-depth semi-structured interviews. Diagram 2.1 demonstrates a conceptual structure of this research which highlights the methodological principle.

Chapter 5 introduces the design strategy of this research and details the mixed methods in sampling, and data collection. Chapter 6 discusses the implementation of the empirical studies including instrumentation, operation of empirical studies and the issue of validity. The analytical strategy which suits mixed methods approach is elaborated in Chapter 7 and the process of how to analyse quantitative and qualitative data is illustrated.

Diagram 2.1 Research Framework



CHAPTER 5
RESEARCH DESIGN-A MIXED METHODS APPROACH

5.0 PREAMBLE

As pointed out by Patton (2002) the research on the evaluation of training has been dominated by a natural science paradigm employing a hypothetical deductive methodology. It has tended to use experimental design and quantitative measures and statistical analysis (Patton, 1997:268). Patton (1990) argues that it is not assumed that social science researchers could only rely on quantified data, and random sampling to generate social facts. Silverman (2000:5-7) supports Patton's argument and suggests that some generated practices from quantitative studies may turn out to be inappropriate for qualitative research. It is possible to neglect factors of social and cultural construction if a social science researcher depends purely on quantitative methods (Hunter and Brewer, 2003; Steckler *et al*., 1992; Tashakkori, 2003). Recently qualitative methods have received equal attention as quantitative methods. In addition the marriage of the two methods is advocated in social and behavioural science research including evaluation studies (Teddlie and Tashakkori, 2003; Patton, 1997; Rallis and Rossman, 2003).

The challenge for this research is to construct a pragmatic research methodology, which utilises the strengths of both quantitative and qualitative methods to facilitate the research project. This chapter addresses the issue of the research design strategy, which underpins the methods used in this research. Moreover, the research design model on which this study is based is presented.

5.1 PARADIGMS OF RESEARCH

In social and behavioural science there was a time (about 1800s ~ 1950s) when only single data sources were used in research. In another words, researchers either adopted purely quantitative-oriented methods or purely qualitative-oriented methods for study (Tashakkori and Teddlie, 1998). Therefore the so-called qualitative-quantitative debate on the superiority of one method over the other is referred to as the 'paradigms war' or 'paradigms debates' (Tashakkori and Teddlie, 1998:3; Patton, 1997: 267). Paradigms are defined as the worldview by Patton (1997:267), which is constructed on 'implicit assumptions, accepted definitions, comfortable habits, values defended as truths, and beliefs projected as reality'. Neuman (2000a: 65) suggests a paradigm is 'a whole system of thinking' in a broad sense. Patton (1997: 273) demonstrates the competitive elements respectively by classifying the qualitative methods as the naturalistic approach and quantitative as the experimental approach (see Table 5.1). Starting in the early 1990s the 'paradigms war' have gradually withered. Methodological approaches have evolved into a stage of compatibility of quantitative data resource and qualitative data resource in a single study, which is described as mixed methods and mixed model studies (Tashakkori and Teddlie, 1998; Creswell, 2003; Maxwell and Loomis, 2003).

Table 5.1 Dimensions of Competing Methodological Paradigms

Qualitative/Naturalistic Paradigm	**Quantitative/Experimental Paradigm**
Qualitative data (narratives, descriptions) Naturalistic inquiry Case studies Inductive analysis Subject perspective Close to the program Holistic contextual portrayal Systems perspective focused on interdependencies Dynamic, ongoing view of change Purposeful sampling of relevant cases Focus on uniqueness and diversity Emergent, flexible design Thematic content analysis Extrapolations	Quantitative data (numbers, statistics) Experimental designs Treatment and control groups Deductive hypothesis testing Objective perspective Aloof from the program Independent and dependent variables Linear, sequential modelling Pre-post focus on change Probabilistic, random sampling Standardized, uniform procedures Fixed, controlled designs Statistical analysis Generalizations

Source: Patton (Patton, 1997:273)

It is now commonly agreed by many authors (Teddlie and Tashakkori, 2003:4; Creswell, 2003:18) that current research in social and behavioural science can be categorised into three types.

(1) Quantitatively-oriented research approach (QUANs), which employs primarily numerical data based on postpositivist tradition.

(2) Qualitatively-oriented research (QUALs), which employs primarily qualitative data based on the constructivist tradition.

(3) Mixed methods research applies within other paradigms such as pragmatism paradigm, and transformative-emancipatory paradigm, by combining both quantitative and qualitative data.

5.2 RESEARCH DESIGN STRATEGY

The task of social science research is to understand, describe and explain the reality and the complexity of human behaviour and experience (Morse, 2003). Research methodology should serve as a tool to enable researchers to realise the goal, not to be restricted by the methods. The latest studies on research methodology (Tashakkori and Teddlie, 2003; Tashakkori and Teddlie, 1998; Punch, 1998; Morse, 2003; Maxwell and Loomis, 2003; Greene and Caracelli, 2003; Creswell *et al*., 2003) suggest that mixed methods provide better opportunities for answering complex research questions. As mentioned earlier research on evaluation has increasingly used both quantitative and qualitative methods to avoid the limitation caused by a single method. However the complexity of mixed paradigms has raised many issues in methodology. For example, Tashakkori and Teddie (2003:15) suggest that normally QUAN research is confirmatory and used for theory verification, while much QUAL research is exploratory and involves theory generation. Punch (1998:16-17) argues that the idea of QUAN research verifies theory and QUAL research generates theory is 'historically valid'. However he suggests that a quantitative approach can be used for theory generation as well as theory verification while a qualitative approach can be used for theory verification as well as theory generation. Nevertheless, their focus is on how to 'answer confirmatory and exploratory questions simultaneously', or in other word, to verify and 'generate theory in the same study'.

Morgan (1998b:363) summarises that the challenge comes from two aspects: (a) conflicts between different paradigms and (b) technical problems. Therefore the paradigms are primary factors to be acknowledged in order to understand the epistemological differences between qualitative and quantitative approaches in mixed methods research design. Teddlie and Tashakkori (2003:17-23) suggest six perceptions by researchers on the use of paradigms of the development of mixed methods research below.

(1) The A-Paradigmatic Stance—Methods and paradigms are independent of one another and mixed methods research is possible without the need to take into consideration the epistemology-method link.
(2) The Incompatibility Thesis and Mixed Methods Research—Mixed methods research

is impermissible.

(3) The Complementary Strengths Thesis and Mixed Methods Research—Mixed methods research is possible on the condition of separating quantitative and qualitative paradigms to recognise their identical strengths.

(4) The Single Paradigm Thesis and Mixed Methods Research—A single paradigm serves as a foundation for mixed methods research, which includes pragmatism as the foundation for mixed methods research and the transformative-emancipatory paradigm as the foundation.

(5) The Dialectical Thesis and Mixed Methods Research—All paradigms have their values, and it should not be assumed that one paradigm is above the other.

(6) The Multiple Paradigm Thesis and Mixed Methods Research—Multiple paradigms serve as the foundation for mixed methods research in social and behavioural sciences.

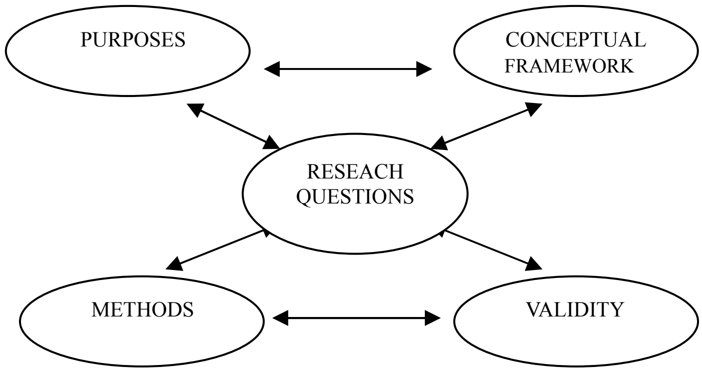
The research undertaken for this thesis acknowledged the importance of differences of paradigms and pursued the enhanced strengths in a compatible format, which took the third perspective shown above. Strategically, it adopted the mixed methods approach with pragmatic knowledge claims and employed sequential and concurrent inquiry in a mixed methods study (Creswell *et al*., 2003;Cresswell, 2003) (refer to Table 5.2). Technically, the overall research design emphasised the role of the research questions with the other elements such as methods and the underlying paradigm chosen to best facilitate answering the research questions. Some authors (Teddlie and Tashakkori, 2003; Creswell *et al*., 2003; Erzberger and Kelle, 2003) refer to it as the “dictatorship of the research questions” and classified it as a pragmatic research approach. Therefore Maxwell and Loomis’s ‘Interactive Model’ (Maxwell and Loomis, 2003:245-56) was employed to guide this research design, which suits the pragmatism paradigm (see Figure 5.1).

Table 5.2 Qualitative, Quantitative, and Mixed Methods Approaches

Tend to or Typically	Qualitative Approaches	Quantitative Approaches	Mixed Methods Approaches
Use these philosophical assumptions	Constructivist/Advocacy/ Participatory knowledge claims	Postpositivist knowledge claims	Pragmatic knowledge claims
Employ these strategies of inquiry	Phenomenology, grounded theory, ethnography, case study, and narrative	Surveys and experiments	Sequential, concurrent and transformative
Employ these methods	Open-ended questions, emerging approaches, text or image data	Closed-ended questions, predetermined approaches, numeric data	Both open-and closed-ended questions, both emerging and predetermined approaches, and both quantitative and qualitative data and analysis
Use these practices of research, as the researcher	Positions himself or herself Collects participant meanings Focus on a single concept or phenomenon Brings personal values into the study Studies the context or setting of participants Validates the accuracy of findings Make interpretations of the data Creates an agenda for change or reform Collaborates with the participants	Tests or verifies theories or explanations Identifies variables to study Relates variables in questions or hypotheses Uses standards of validity and reliability Observes and measures information numerically Uses of unbiased approaches Employs statistical procedures	Collects both quantitative and qualitative data Develops a rationale for mixing Integrates the data at different stages of inquiry Presents visual pictures of the procedures in the study Employs the practices of both qualitative and quantitative research

Source: Creswell (2003:19)

Figure 5.1 Interactive Model of Research Design



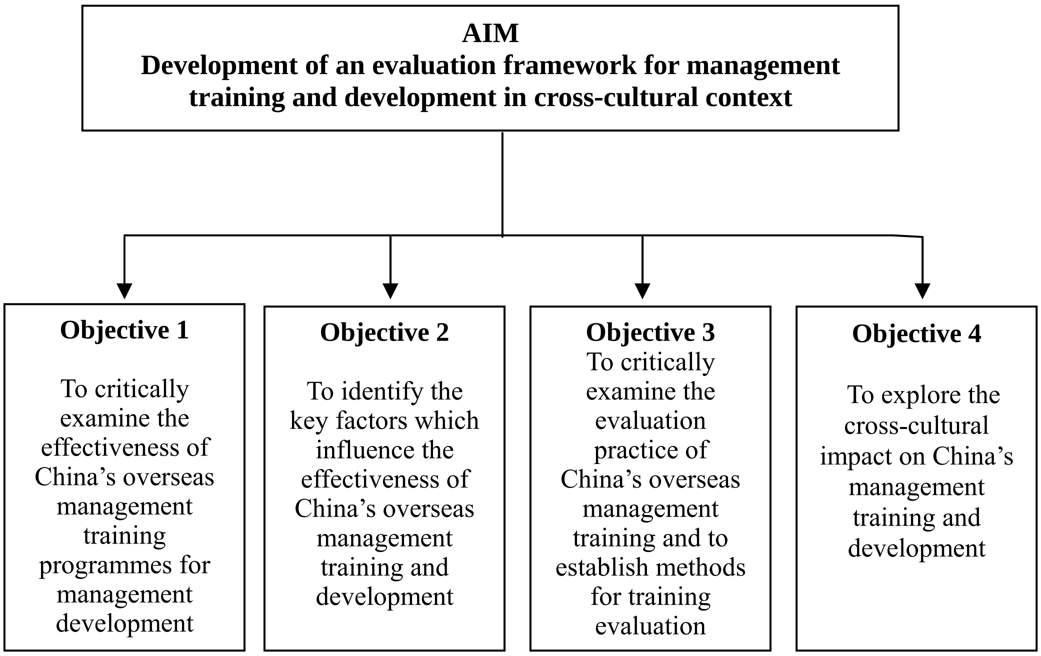
Source: Maxwell and Loomis (2003: 246)

The use of this approach to design was to 'treat the design of a study as consisting of the actual components and the ways in which these components connect with and influence one another' (Maxwell and Loomis, 2003: 245). As in Maxwell's model there were five components to be considered as a coherent system, which were linked with Research Questions in a central position. As suggested by Maxwell these five components are combining effectively and functioning interactively, which in turn enhances the successfulness and the validity of the whole research. The components of purpose of this research, research questions, conceptual framework, and methods are to be discussed in the following sections respectively. Validity will be discussed later in section 6.3 Chapter 6.

5.3 PURPOSE OF THIS RESEARCH

The intention of this study was to establish a method to evaluate training effectiveness for Chinese management development in cross-cultural settings, leading to the development of an evaluation framework for management training and development in cross-cultural conditions. In order to achieve this aim the four objectives were designed and they are illustrated in Figure 5.2.

Figure 5.2 Aim and Objectives of This Research



The first objective is to critically examine the effectiveness of China's overseas training intervention for developing Chinese managers from the perspectives of the various stakeholders involved. Secondly, to explore the key factors which affect learning and transfer of learning which are regarded as the most crucial elements in training and evaluation (Kraiger *et al*., 1993; Tannenbaum *et al*., 1991). Thirdly, to critically review the current evaluation practice of China's overseas management training intervention and to explore methods for training evaluation in the cross-cultural context. Fourthly, to explore cross-cultural impact on China's overseas management training and development.

The nature of this research involved obtaining holistic understanding, exploring and interpretations of the perceptions of the major stakeholders involved in training process. This study was guided by mixed-methods methodology, but not using quantitative/experimental approach which dominated previous evaluation research (Patton, 1997; Thomson *et al*., 2001). The quantitative method was appropriate for this study to triangulate and compare data from different perspectives in terms of attitudinal measurements, methods and criteria of evaluation. On the other hand the review of literature showed that there was a paucity of studies on Chinese managers' training and development in Western countries (see section 2. and 4.). Moreover, the cultural issue related to this study added complexity to this research (Batonda and Perry, 2003: 1557). Therefore a qualitative method with rich data was required which enabled in-depth exploration of inquiries and generating themes (Silverman, 2000; Bryman and Burgess, 1994; Creswell, 1998).

For the above-mentioned reasons a sequential and concurrent mixed methods strategy (Creswell, 2003) was adopted to collect and analyse quantitative and qualitative data in a single study, which was divided into two phases. The sequential exploratory strategy was adopted in Phase one which involved qualitative information collection and analysis (Creswell *et al*., 2003). This was designed to explore and generate themes about the investigation by using secondary resources and empirical studies. Then based on qualitative analysis of these themes, the instruments were developed for the questionnaire survey and semi-structured interviews. In phase two the concurrent triangulation method was used to conduct a questionnaire survey which measured different perspectives and attitudes of the participants from different stakeholder groups and interviews which explored in depth the subject under investigation from the rich experiences of different stakeholders (Gilmore and Carson, 1996). Therefore the quantitative and qualitative data derived from the questionnaire survey and the semi-structured interviews respectively were gathered and analysed concurrently. The mixed methods of triangulation provided the advantages of supplementary, cross-validation, and confirmation of the findings within this single phase of study (Creswell, 2003:210, 217). This avoided the limitation of relying on only one means of information resource and methods. It also shortened the survey and fieldwork time.

5.4 CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

This thesis studies evaluation of management training in multi-facets: what does training do and why does it work, both in ‘macro’ and ‘micro’ lenses (Salas and Cannon-Bowers, 2001:490-491). First it assesses the training from a holistic perspective, which integrates contextual and environmental elements (Easterby-Smith, 1994; McClelland, 1994; Lewis, 1996). Secondly, it identifies what was learnt in training intervention and whether the new learning has been applied to managerial reality and brought benefits to different levels (Tannenbaum *et al*., 1991; Thomson *et al*., 2001;

Winterton and Winterton, 1997; Tamkin *et al.*, 2002). Thirdly it involves stakeholders from different cultural backgrounds and institutions (Vartiainen, 2003; Nickols, 2005). Management training and education serves as an important means of developing its managers and improving individual and organisational performance (Branine, 2005; Beardwell and Holden, 2001; Cooke, 2005; Neary and O'Grady, 2000). It has been widely accepted by both training researchers and practitioners that evaluation is an essential step in a training process (Kirkpatrick, 1994; Hamblin, 1974, Bramley, 1996a; Phillips, 1996; Warr and Bunce, 1995; Kaufman *et al.*, 1995; Brown and Gerhardt, 2002; Easterby-Smith, 1994; Kraiger *et al.*, 1993). However evaluation is often problematic, particularly when the training seeks to achieve outcomes which are not readily measurable as in the case of management training and development. Unlike technical training it is more difficult to clearly state the specifications for management training, especially for development purposes.

It is, therefore, suggested that contextual factors which underpin the intervention of management training need to be considered in assessment and training needs analysis and these should be linked closely with training evaluation (Ford and Wroten, 1984; Warr *et al.*, 1970; Agnaia, 1996; Brown, 2002). Evaluation on training effectiveness is a systematic and comprehensive process, which involves many individual, organisational and contextual factors rather than viewing it as simply a programme or curriculum evaluation (Salas and Cannon-Bowers, 2001: 491). Kraiger *et al.* (1993:312) define training evaluation model as a system of measurement and design of learning outcomes and transfer of knowledge and skills; while training effectiveness research emphasises exploring and assessing both the effects of individual and organisational achievements from training and training related factors such as learning outcomes and attainment of transfer.

5.5 DESIGNATION OF RESEARCH QUESTIONS

Directed by the mixed methods strategy of inquiry, this research addressed both qualitative and quantitative research questions (Creswell, 2003; Creswell *et al.*, 2003). The subject areas under investigation were divided into three topics: training evaluation, training effectiveness, and cross-cultural impact, under which, as discussed in section 5.3, four objectives were established.

5.5.1 Objective 1 To Critically Examine the Effectiveness of China's Overseas Management Training Programmes for Management Development

This objective was designed to look at the effectiveness of China's overseas management training intervention from the perspectives of the major stakeholders. The perceived effectiveness of training and development was explored mainly in relation to learning and transfer of learning. Two questions were thus developed to serve this purpose: (a) how do different stakeholders perceive the learning outcomes of Chinese managers? (b) What are the impacts of overseas management training and development perceived by the major stakeholders?

5.5.2 Objective 2 To Identify the Key Factors which Influence the Effectiveness of China's Overseas Management Training and Development

Since this thesis emphasis is on learning, and the transfer of learning with regards to the effectiveness of training and development, this objective aims to identify the key elements affecting learning and transfer. The questions were therefore developed based on the above objective and covering two areas as follows: (c) What are the key factors affecting the effectiveness of Chinese managers learning to the overseas training? (d) What are the key factors affecting Chinese managers' application of learning to the work place?

5.5.3 Objective 3 To Critically Examine the Evaluation Practice of China's Overseas Management Training and to Establish Methods for Training Evaluation

To achieve this objective it was first necessary to take a holistic view of the current evaluation practice by investigating whether there was a systematic approach to the evaluation. Secondly it was necessary to explore whether individual stakeholders perceived evaluation in different ways in terms of evaluation criteria and methods. The following two research questions were designed to address these: (e) Is there a systematic approach to the evaluation of China's overseas management training and development? (f) What are the preferred criteria and methods for China's overseas management training and development?

5.5.4 Objective 4 To Explore the Cross-Cultural Impact on China's Management Training and Development

Objective 4 was based on the assumption of the studies of previous experiences that culture influenced the intervention of China's overseas management training and development (Berrell *et al*., 2001; Harrison, 1992; Ledwith and Seymour, 2001; Sims and Troy, 2004; Iles et al., 2004; Lago and Barty, 2003). Therefore, an exploratory question was developed in an attempt to explore the cross-cultural impact from a dialectical perspective: (g) How does culture impact on China's overseas management training and development in a positive and negative way?

As demonstrated in Table 5.3 seven research questions were developed in relation to the designed objectives which served the aim of this thesis. These research questions guided the empirical studies in the two phases. The details will be discussed in the findings chapters.

Table 5.3 Development of Research Questions against the Research Objectives

Objectives	Research questions
1) To critically examine the effectiveness of China's overseas management training programmes for management development	(a) How do different stakeholders perceive the learning outcomes of Chinese managers?
	(b) What are the perceived impacts of overseas management training and development by the major stakeholders?
2) To identify the factors which influence the effectiveness of China's overseas management training and development	(c) What are the key factors affecting the effectiveness of Chinese managers learning in overseas training?
	(d) What are the key factors affecting Chinese managers' application of learning to work place?
3) To critically examine the evaluation practice of China's overseas management training and to develop an evaluation framework	(e) Is there a systematic approach to the evaluation of China's overseas management training and development?
	(f) What are the preferred criteria and methods for China's overseas management training and development?
4) To explore the cross-cultural impact on China's management training and development	(g) How does culture impact on China's overseas management training and development in a positive and negative way?

5.6 METHODS

As discussed in 5.1 the strength of mixed methods design is to maximise the complexity and comprehensiveness. On the other hand the concurrency of methods should be maintained (Morse, 2003). It has been recognised that it is not an easy task to combine qualitative and quantitative methods in a single research (Jick, 1979; Morgan, 1998b). Morgan (1998b:363) claims mixing methods in research design is a 'risky business'. Similarly Creswell *et al*. (2003:217) argues that the researcher is challenged to resolve discrepancies while comparing the results of quantitative and qualitative data analyses. Despite the above limitations mixed methods research has numerous advantages in social science research (Neuman, 2000b; Teddlie and Tashakkori, 2003). For example it has the flexibility to induce and reduce data in a single study by using triangulation mixed methods (Tashakkori and Teddlie, 1998; Punch, 1998; Steckler *et al*., 1992). The approach of methodological triangulation used in this research involved two aspects: (a) triangulation of qualitative and quantitative methods, (b) triangulation of data resources. As shown in Table 5.4, the empirical studies were carried out using various methods: focus groups meetings, questionnaire survey and semi-structured interviews to study the same subjects or phenomena.

Table 5.4 Mixed Methods Approach

<table>
<tr><th>Process</th><th>Type of Data</th><th>Instruments</th><th>Approach</th><th>Data Source</th></tr>
<tr><td>Focus groups meetings</td><td>Qualitative data</td><td>Open-ended questions</td><td>Emerging themes
Naturalistic inquiry
Purposeful sampling
Inductive inference</td><td rowspan="3">-Trainees
-Ex-trainees,
-Training managers and officials in China's government department,
-Project managers and lecturers in UK training institution,
-Ex-trainees' supervisors</td></tr>
<tr><td>Questionnaire Survey</td><td>Quantitative and Qualitative data</td><td>Close-ended questions & Open-ended questions</td><td>Predetermined variables
Emerging variables
Purposeful sampling within targeted population
Reductive inference
Inductive inference</td></tr>
<tr><td>Semi-structured interviews</td><td>Qualitative data</td><td>Open-ended questions</td><td>Holistic contextual exploration
In-depth understanding of phenomena
Purposeful sampling
Focus on uniqueness and diversity
Inductive inference</td></tr>
</table>

Methodological triangulation has increasingly attracted attention in mixed methods research and there is no lack of published practices in research books and professional journals (Creswell, 2003; Morse, 1991). The characteristic of this research is to explore and describe the phenomena based on research questions which leads to develop theory. Thus, this research was driven by an inductive process, in other words, the inductive inference was used as a theoretical drive (Morse, 2003:193). Since the research problem was primarily qualitative the theory was developed qualitatively to generate measures and instrument, followed by questionnaire survey and interviews simultaneously, in which the primary information was gathered both by pre-determined instrumentation and themes emerging. This required verifying previous findings and exploring themes to induce new theory (Steckler *et al*., 1992; Tashakkori and Teddlie, 1998; Creswell *et al*., 2003). This method is referred to as sequential and concurrent triangulation model by some authors (Creswell *et al.*, 2003; Tashakkori and Teddlie, 1998; Steckler *et al*., 1992; Morse, 1991).

5.6.1 Sampling

This research targeted special groups in a particular social business activity, which were the major stakeholders involved in China's overseas management training intervention. Hence the sampling strategy was one of mixed probability sampling with a stratified purposive strategy, which was suitable for the research objectives and all research questions (Tashakkori and Teddlie, 1998: 74-76; Kemper *et al.*, 2003: 275).

5.6.1.1 Selection of countries

As discussed in Chapter 1 the Chinese government initiative of international management training and development occurred in many countries in the world. However this study intended to focus on the most developed Western countries where Chinese managers could learn from their successful experiences as well as draw lessons on their failures. The other factor for choosing host countries was on the consideration of the similarity of their cultural roots, which limits the generalisability, as findings will not be generalisable to countries with different cultures. This in turn enhanced the internal validity of results (Tashakkori and Teddlie, 1998:67-72). The decision was made that the sampling participant (trainees and ex-trainees) took training or study in those countries which were identified as having similar national cultural dimensions by previous cross-cultural studies (Hofstede, 1994; Hall, 1990); they were UK, Germany, U.S.A., and Canada. Among those countries the UK was the key sample country for this research for the following two reasons. Firstly, UK represents Anglo-Saxon or Western identities in terms of its culture and language. Germany is considered closer to Anglo-Saxon culture since ancient time (Dictionary.LaborLawTalk.com, 2005). The other reason was for the accessibility as it was where the researcher was based during the research period.

5.6.1.2 Selection of areas and organisations

The logic behind choosing the sites and organisations was to enable the transferability of findings to those uncovered areas and units in this study (Tashakkori and Teddlie, 1998: 66).

5.6.1.2.1 Research sites in China

Information was gathered about China's government initiative of management training and development by the examination of internal documents of the CAIEP at the national and provincial level (the headquarter, 27 provinces, 3 municipality cities and 1 special administrative district). The geographic site of the respondents in China is classified in provincial terms including municipalities and autonomous regions under direct administration of the State (Cooke, 2003:383). This best reflects the reality of China's international management development process in terms of governance as well as operation.

A preliminary choice was made to eliminate 4 provinces (Tibet, Xinjiang, Inner Mongolia, Qinghai, and Hainan) and 1 special administrative district (Hong Kong) for two major reasons: (1) geographically too far away from centre of China; (2) fewer practices relevant to this study. Then the characteristics of training practices of the remaining 23 provinces, 3 municipality cities were compared. Finally the decision was made to include 5 provinces: Jiangsu, Guangxi, Guangdong, Shanxi, Gansu and one municipality city: Beijing, which adopted a mixed sampling method of purposive and availability for the following reasons (Creswell, 2003, Kemper *et al*., 2003). The rational was first to represent typical training characteristics in terms of policy, quantity of training, types of training and the location of host countries (Creswell, 2003: 156;

Tashakkori and Teddlie, 1998: 72) (see 5.6.1.1). Secondly, the consideration was given to the possibility of approaching sites in the time allowed for research (Silverman, 2000: 105; Kemper *et al*., 2003: 276). Thirdly, the availability of cooperation from local CAIEP was included.

5.6.1.2.2 Research sites in the UK

For the reasons discussed in 5.6.1.1 UK was the focus for this research as a host country to deliver management training courses for Chinese managers. In order to ensure the quality of management of overseas training the CAIEP has established a system of crediting training institutions and organisations (hereinafter refer to as training institutions) in the host countries. For example, there are 17 educational institutions and organisations in the UK alone, which have been authorised to provide training for Chinese managers. The choosing of the sampling units for this research was based on the discussion with CAIEP London office with the following considerations to maximise the representativeness and further transferability to other settings (Tashakkori and Teddlie, 1998:72-74; Creswell, 2003: 156-157; Kemper *et al*., 2003: 275-276). They are: (1) the proportion of education institutions and training agents; (2) the history of cooperating with the CAIEP such as years, numbers of training personal; (3) the combination of subject areas of training. As a consequence, 10 units were chosen out of the 17 training institutions and organisations with 6 educational institutions and 4 training agents. The number of educational institution exceeds that of training agents because in the UK market there are more educational institutions than training agents credited by the CAIEP.

5.6.1.3 Selection of participants

It was stated earlier that the selection of participants mixed two sampling techniques: probability and purposive sampling (Kemper *et al*., 2003: p277). This has the advantage of introducing larger samples to allow meaningful statistic analysis, which is normally used in quantitative studies. It also enables the investigation of smaller samples in depth with particular focus on the most information-rich population, which is most commonly adopted in qualitative studies (Kemper *et al.*, 2003:277-80). Participants were stratified to be able to compare the differences of perceptions to the questions under study between the major stakeholders involved (Kemper *et al*., 2003: 283).

5.6.1.3.1 Participants from China

The study covered 5 provinces and one municipality city in China (see section 5.3.1.2). China's overseas management training and development is sponsored by Chinese government departments, the State Administrative for Foreign Affairs (SAFEA) which is under China's Human Resource Ministry, while the China Association of International Exchange of Personal (CAIEP) is responsible for the operational management (see section 1.1.2). Therefore the recruitment of participants was supported by the CAIEP headquarter and the 6 provincial/municipal branches mentioned in section 5.6.1.2. The research involved four types of participants amounted 526 (see Table 5.5) listed below in the host country.

(1) **Officials and training managers** who work for the CAIEP and SAFEA Departments (herein after referred to as training departments and organisers).
(2) **Trainees** who were taking the management training courses in the UK during the period of participating the research.
(3) **Ex-trainees** who had taken the management training programmes in the 5 host countries discussed in section 5.6.1.1 and returned back to their posts after training.
(4) **Ex-trainees' supervisors** who work as line managers of ex-trainees in ex-trainees' organisers (herein after referred to trainees' organisation).

It should be mentioned that although trainees and ex-trainees were a homogenous group they were stratified for differentiation of their perceptions to the questions studied, particularly for the identification of different perspectives in transfer of learning to the workplace (Kemper *et al*., 2003). This research focused on training interventions in the last five years from 2000~2004, which provided the most up-to-date information and was most practical to implement.

5.6.1.3.2 Participants from UK

The training institutions/organisations in the host country were regarded as one stakeholder, which was divided into educational institutions and training agents. Usually educational institutions deliver medium and long courses while training agents provide short ones. However there is some crossover in recent years. For example, the educational institutions also provided short training courses up to one-month programmes if the subject matter was in their expertise.

In training and education lecturers always play an important role for the success of delivered programmes, as in the case of providing management education and training for international students. On the other hand, training managers or project managers are also crucial in the process. Unlike internal training in an organisation external training providers face more challenges such as communication and management. Moreover, undertaking education and training for another culture is an even harder task. It is, therefore, necessary to differentiate between the perceptions of lecturers and that of the training managers (Kemper *et al*., 2003). To sum up, the participants in UK were **training managers or project managers and lecturers** from institutions or employed by training agents and they amounted to 68 (see Table 5.5).

5.6.2 Data Collection

Data was collected from the above-mentioned five types of stakeholders; they are trainees, ex-trainees, China's training departments/organisers, UK training institutions, ex-trainees' supervisors. A framework of data collection and analying will be fully developed and illustrated in chapter 7.

Table 5.5 Data Collection

Methods / **Participant**	**Focus groups**		**Questionnaires Survey**		**Semi-structured interviews**		**Total (%)**	
	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%
Trainees	20	14	95	68	24	18	139	100
Ex-trainees	48	24	120	61	30	15	198	100
Training staff and officials in China	10	16	45	68	11	16	66	100
Training managers and lecturers in UK	8	12	48	71	12	17	68	100
Ex-trainees' supervisor	5	10	40	72	10	18	55	100
Total (#)	91	17	348	66	87	16	526	100

5.6.2.1 Empirical studies

The empirical studies adopted three approaches: focus groups, questionnaire survey and semi-structured interviews. The total sample size was 526. As shown in Table 5.5 the proportion of data collection by these three methods distributed in the way that focus groups took up 16% in average, next was followed by semi-structured interviews of about 17%. Questionnaire survey covered about 66% of the total data. This was based on the designation of mixed methods data collection by using questionnaire survey to collect a larger amount of random data in the targeted population. Focus group and semi-structured interviews were used to collect smaller numbers of qualitative information purposefully selecting participants for in-depth exploration (Creswell *et al.*, 2003; Jick, 1979; Johnson and Turner, 2003; Silverman, 2000).

5.6.2.1.1 Focus groups meetings

In the first phase 14 focus group meetings were carried out with 91 participants involving four stakeholders. Thematic information about training evaluation, training effectiveness and cultural impact on training was gathered for the preparation of the questionnaire survey. The questions asked in focus group interviews are included in Appendix 1.1 and 1.2. It should be noticed in Table 5.5 that ex-trainees had the highest proportion in focus group interviews (24%) The main reason for this was that ex-trainees were most involved in the training and development process among the stakeholder groups. Their perceptions added more value in phase one for themes' generation. Some authors (Dawson, 1995; Warr and Bunce, 1995; Plant and Ryan, 1994; Lee and Pershing, 2002; Mathieu et al., 1992; Mathieu and Martineau, 1993) suggest that trainees should have more say in evaluating a training intervention.

5.6.2.1.2 Questionnaire survey

Questionnaire survey was designed in a structured format to mainly collect primarily quantitative data with some open-ended questions, which allowed the respondents to give complementary information. It surveyed five stakeholder groups: trainees, ex-trainees, training departments/organisers, training institutions and ex-trainees' supervisors. Questionnaire was designed to target two groups: standard questionnaire (see Appendix 2.1 and 2.2) was for trainees, ex-trainees, training departments/ organisers, and training institutions, whereas ex-trainees' supervisors used different questionnaire (see Appendix 3.1 and 3.2). The details will be discussed in section 6.1.2.1. Technically the stratified random sampling was used for questionnaire survey

(Kemper *et al*., 2003: 275-278). The scope of sampling and the stratification of each group from defined populations was concerned to (a) answer the research questions, (b) gather sufficient data and produce rich and meaningful description by triangulation of different groups, and (c) maintain valid stratification of the sample which reflected the actual amount of each group (Kemper *et al*., 2003: 276). The total valid return responses numbered 348 (see Table 5.5) with a response rate of 24% in UK and 45% in China.

5.6.2.1.3 Interviews

A selection of stakeholders (see Table 5.4) was involved in face-to-face or telephone interviews to provide rich information from their individual perspectives about the training evaluation, training effectiveness and cross-cultural impact (Kemper *et al*., 2003). The selection of the 87 participants was based on the most representative of target groups in respect to individual stakeholder groups. For example, for ex-trainees' group the following criteria were taken into consideration: year of training, types of training, host countries, provinces, and types of organisations (see section 5.6.1). Standardised open-ended questions were asked with flexibility for participants to express freely about the above-mentioned subjects (Oppenheim, 1992; Bryman and Buckley, 1994; Silverman, 2000; Silverman, 2001). The details of semi-structured interviews in terms of questions asked and combination of participants are included in Appendix 4.1, 4.2, 5.1, 5.2, 6.1, 6.2, and 7.

5.6.2.2 Documents analysis

The other important data source was drawn from the internal documents of the CAIEP and provincial HR departments in China. As suggested by Patton (2002:4) internal documents is one of the the major data sources in qualitative studies. It was stated earlier that the particular training intervention under study was not commercial. Therefore a large amount of fundamental information was not accessible through the public media. Having gained agreement from the CAIEP to support this research it was possible to study relevant documents about China's overseas management training and development sponsored by government departments in the state and provinces, and these reviews contributed to the development of the structured questionnaires and interviews.

5.6.2.3 Research relationship

As discussed in data collection the empirical studies involved survey and interviews. In general, the researcher had no direct relationship with the participants in questionnaire survey. This was to eliminate the possible subjective influences of the researcher to the results (Maxwell and Loomis, 2003:254). However in a few cases the questionnaires were administered by the researcher who kept independent from the answering of participants. Such data was marked and could be identified in the analysis process and this will be discussed in a later chapter.

On the other hand, in the process of fieldwork which consisted of focus groups meetings and interviews the researcher managed to create a relaxed atmosphere and establish a friendly relationship with participants (Maxwell and Loomis, 2003:254). Appropriate ‘rapport’ was maintained with participants to keep their attention and interest, which maximised the understanding between the participants and the researcher (Oppenheim, 1992: 82; Maxwell and Loomis, 2003: 254). Details of this will also be discussed in a later chapter.

5.7 SUMMARY OF CHAPTER 5

The problematic characteristic of mixed methods research challenges researchers who use this tool to achieve their goal of research. Therefore a clear understanding of the paradigms is crucial. In this research the complexity of mixed methods design was elucidated. This thesis was able to acknowledge the individual strengths of both quantitative and qualitative paradigms and it pursued the enhancement of these strengths in a compatible format. A sequential and concurrent mixed methods approach was adopted with pragmatic knowledge claims, which facilitates the nature of this study to evaluate training effectiveness by triangulating data and obtaining holistic understanding and in-depth exploration of the phenomenon under investigation. At the same time Maxwell and Loomis’s interactive model was employed to emphasise the compatibility and interaction of five components in this study; they are purposes of research, conceptual framework, research questions, methods and validity, with research questions at a centre position.

CHAPTER 6
ROBUSTNESS OF SURVEY AND FIELDWORK

6.0 PREAMBLE

Silverman (2000) argues that any research should be able to demonstrate that the methods used were reliable and the conclusions made were valid. According to Frankfort-Nachmias and Nachmias (1997) the variables in social sciences are primarily measured indirectly. Therefore, in a quantitative approach, there arise questions about whether the data was collected and measured in a valid and reliable method while the qualitative researchers emphasise the quality of information which underpinned their conclusions (Tashakkori and Teddlie, 1998:75; Frankfort-Nachmias and Nachmias, 1997: 165-170). Burns (2000: 345, 358) includes administration as one of the important factors affecting the validity and reliability both in quantitative and qualitative inquires.

This chapter reviews the measures and instruments as well as administrative procedures. It discusses how the triangulation techniques in mixed methods research sustain the consistency of the variables and the quality of the transferability of findings.

6.1 MIXED METHODS AND INSTRUMENTATION

Tashakkori and Teddie (1998:41) claim the introduction of methodological triangulation is the 'intellectual wedge' which breaks the hegemony of the monomethod purist. Patton (1990) describes the triangulation of methods as across methods which reconciles qualitative and quantitative data. Neuman (2000b) suggests that triangulation of methods is the interactive process of deductive and inductive approach in practice. As discussed in section 5.6 triangulation of data sources in this research involved collection of both quantitative and qualitative information by means of a questionnaire survey, semi-structured interviews, and focus groups. In addition the triangulation of methods was adopted to study the same phenomenon or subjects. Therefore the instrument was designed to answer the same research questions underpinned by the conceptual framework of theories (see section 5.4). Neuman (2000b:161) describes this specific measurement procedure as an operationalisation measurement process.

6.1.1 Translation and Instrumentation Equivalence

In cross-cultural research language is usually part of its subject as well as serving as a vehicle which is not neutral because people's thinking is affected by the words and categories available in their own language (Hofstede, 1980: 34). Previous cross-cultural studies have proved it to be crucial to ensure the validity of that research by minimising the error of the translation of instruments such as questionnaire, interview questions and back-translation, (Hofstede, 1980: 35-36). A good translation never relies only on the literal exactness, that is, word-to-word translation, but also understands the context of subjects under studies and pursues the equivalence of meaning presented in different languages (Hofstede, 1980; Brislin 1970; and Guba and Lincoln, 1989).

This research targeted two groups in terms of language: English spoken population and Chinese spoken population. As Hofstede (1980: 35) suggests the wider the gap between the structures of the two languages, the more difficult the translation is. This applies to the case of translation between English and Chinese because they are two different linguistics which differ in many ways such as semantics, grammar and construct of a sentence (Chan, 1999; Li and Lan, 2007; Liu, 2006). The items in questionnaires, and interviews were constructed in English and then translated into Chinese. The researcher's bilingual ability and familiarity with both Western and Chinese cultures was of premier importance. Moreover, Chinese language was the dominant language in which the researcher could accurately express the meaning rather than simply translating it literally. For example, sometimes the sentence structure of an item needed to be reorganized to equalize the meaning of both languages. Sometimes circumlocutory description was employed to transfer the desired meaning if there were no direct equivalents of a concept between Chinese and English (Hofstede, 1980:35).

The next step to assure the equivalence of meaning of the instruments in both languages was to invite a panel of bilingual experts who had human resource management backgrounds to review the instruments in both languages. The third measure was to test the questions in focus groups first and then pilot questionnaires, which contained all items and were used to evolve the final questionnaire and interview questions. The purpose of these measures was to eliminate ambiguous items and increase the accuracy of equivalents of instruments in both two languages so as to make sure that the meaning of the items was understood equally by the participants from two language groups.

6.1.2 Questionnaire Survey

There are two measurement processes: conceptualisation and operationalisation which are adopted both by quantitative researchers and qualitative researchers. As discussed in section 5.6.1.2 the questionnaire was used to survey five groups of participants: trainees, ex-trainees, training managers and officials from China's training departments/organisers, training managers and lecturers from the UK training institutions, and ex-trainees' supervisors. The questionnaire contained a large proportion of predetermined questions and a small number of open-ended questions.

6.1.2.1 Standard questionnaire survey

A standardised questionnaire was designed to survey the above-mentioned participants (see Aappendix 2.1 and 2.2) except ex-trainees' supervisors. The questionnaire was divided into three parts as follows: Part I: background information, Part II: training and evaluation, and Part III: training effectiveness, all of which were based on research questions (see section 5.5).

6.1.2.1.1 Part I Background information

The questions asked in Part I aimed to collect general information about the participants and their organisations in relation to China's overseas management training. For example they enquired about personal details of respondents, features of courses or a particular programme, and the involvement of individuals and their organisation in training intervention. The information collected was objective and used for overall and stakeholder analysis (Oppenheim, 1992; Freeman, 1994; Freeman, 2004; Greenwood, 2001; Manktelow, 2006; Mitchell *et al.*, 1997).

6.1.2.1.2 Part II Training and evaluation

The questions in Part II were related to the operation of training intervention and evaluation practices. Firstly descriptive information was collected about the perceived roles of major stakeholders in the training process such as subject matter, training delivery, objectives, and trainees' selection. Secondly, the questions were asked to gather perceptions about evaluation practices and the opinion of the respondents about issues related to training evaluation such as criteria and methods of evaluation, purposes of evaluation, and barriers to evaluation. Pre-determined instruments were generated from other studies on evaluation, internal organisation documents and focus group interviews. They were designed to verify the findings from previous research as well as to identify key issues with relation to this particular type of training evaluation.

6.1.2.1.3 Part III Training effectiveness

The instruments in Part III were designed to measure perceived training effectiveness as well as cross-cultural impact by collecting two types of information: (a) primarily quantitative data and (b) primarily qualitative data. It combined methods of measurement both in Likert scales and open-ended questions. The Likert scales were presented in different formats to increase the interests of respondents and make them think (Oppenheim, 1992:195). Firstly, 5-point items were designed to measure perceived quality of training delivery. Secondly, questions were asked about prior knowledge and understanding of the training courses and objectives in the form of percentage rating. Thirdly, a set of questions were asked in 7-point Likert scales which cover the measures of learning, transfer of learning, cross-cultural elements, evaluation and objectives at various levels. In addition, open-ended questions were designed to invite participants to list the factors which were considered most important to learning and transfer of learning and their perceived cross-cultural impact.

6.1.2.2 Questionnaire survey for ex-trainees' supervisors

The questionnaire (see Appendix 3.1 and 3.2) for ex-trainees' supervisors emphasised the transfer of learning to their organisations, which was mentioned in section 5.6.2.1.2. Therefore firstly, the questions asked focused on the observed changes of ex-trainees' by their supervisors in terms of behaviour and performance after training. Secondly, factors affecting transfer of learning were asked about. Thirdly, the opinions of supervisors about the effect and impact of training on their organisations were also invited. Finally the perception of the supervisors about evaluation was explored. In addition to the major topics mentioned-above some basic information was gathered about a particular training intervention of ex-trainees and the knowledge and involvement of the supervisors. This information was used for stakeholder analysis.

This questionnaire was designed differently in the form of instruments comparing with the standardised one. It was much simpler in structure, with the purpose of increasing the response rate. It was assumed that ex-trainees' supervisors were in a higher position with busy business agenda. Since China's overseas management training is a government initiative ex-trainees' supervisors might prioritise their involvement in or contribution to overseas management training less than other groups of participants. Therefore the long and 'complicated' questionnaire would be more likely to prevent them from completing it. A brief and focused questionnaire design was therefore developed, which accorded to the research questions (see section 5.5).

6.1.3 Fieldwork Instruments

Apart from the above-mentioned structured questionnaire survey another two methods were used for studying the topics among the five groups and the instruments are discussed below. In contrast to the questionnaire, focus group, interviews and semi-structured interviews used open-ended questions, asking more attitudinal and opinion questions (Oppenheim, 1992:87). There was an emphasis on exploring the perceptions of the five groups of populations about training effectiveness, factors affecting learning and transfer, cultural impact and training evaluation, which followed the line of research questions (see section 5.5).

6.1.3.1 Focus group interviews

Pure qualitative focus group interviews were conducted covering three topics: training evaluation, training effectiveness and cross-cultural impact on training. The eight questions were asked to probe insights into the topics and to get answers to the designed research questions (see Appendix 1.1 and 1.2). Then ideas and themes were generated for assisting further data collection in phase two. The questions asked for individual groups were worded differently. However the meaning was more or less the same.

Eight questions were developed in the principle of encouraging the participants to reconstruct their experience in particular training interventions, give their impression about it and to explore participants' perspectives about the effectiveness of management training and education in Western countries. They were also designed to invite participants to give their opinions about training evaluation, give additional comments about overseas management training intervention. Compared with the questionnaire survey the questions in the purely qualitative focus group interviews were less structured to motivate participants to think and interact during discussion (Johnson and Turner, 2003:309). The themes might come out across questions and flexibility of wording and sequencing of questions was made in respect to different groups.

6.1.3.2 Semi-structured interviews

The interest of conducting interviews was to understand in-depth the experiences and perspectives of the four groups about the topics under study. Therefore the design of interview questions was based on phenomenological inquiry (Seidman, 1998:3). A set of open-ended questions covered the three major subject areas, which were based on the standardised questionnaire (see Appendix 4.1, 4.2, 5.1, 5.2, 6.1, 6.2, and 7). The wording and sequence of questions asked was flexible to suit the different roles of the four groups (Saunders *et al*., 2003:246). For example, the questions asked of trainees and ex-trainees emphasised their learning experiences in host countries and their perceived attainment of transfer of learning rather than the training process; while questions for training managers both in China and UK intended to get more information about training evaluation and the process of training and management. Explicit questions about learning in host countries and cultural impact were omitted while interviewing ex-trainees' supervisors to focus on observed changes of ex-trainees and transfer of training. Semi-structured interviews allowed respondents to expand their ideas, which helped respondents to rebuild their experience within the topics under investigation (Seidman, 1998:9).

6.1.4 Documents Analysis

One of the data sources was the internal documents of organisations in China which sponsored and organised overseas training intervention. The purpose of document examination was (a) to construct questions for empirical studies as it was expressed in the conceptual definition (Neuman, 2000b:160), (b) to establish arguments for further discussions in the phase II empirical study. Therefore questions were prepared based on the research questions to examine the documents. Firstly, they enquired about the background of China's government initiative in management training and development such as history, context and policy. They then examined issues occurring in the training process as well as evaluation, such as stakeholders and their roles, training needs identification and trainees' selection, evaluation methods and criteria. Next they investigated the objectives of overseas management training, whether these objectives had been achieved and whether it had a positive impact on organisations.

6.2 THE ADMINISTRATION OF THE EMPIRICAL STUDIES

It has been recognised by some researchers on China that access to information on human resource development is more difficult than in Western countries for the following reasons (Xie, 2005). Firstly, a systematic database of management training and development has not been established in China. Secondly, management style in Chinese organisations is still based on interpersonal relationship (Glover and Siu, 2000; MacKinnon, 2003; Warner, 2004; Wright *et al.*, 2002). Since this study covered two research sites: UK and China the administration of information and operation was sought in both countries. Moreover, support was given by the Chinese government departments in finance and personnel particularly for the fieldwork in China such as facility rental, support staff, and accommodations, whereas CAIEP London office and training institutions provided a convenient access to accurate information.

6.2.1 Implementation of Questionnaire Survey

The questionnaires were distributed by the most cost effective way: post and e-mail by means of various approaches to achieve the maximum response rate. A few were administrated by the researcher. Firstly, a successful cooperation was sustained with the CAIEP and government HR departments in the selected provinces and cities in China. An official covering letter was provided by each regional government department, which stated the importance of this survey and expressed appreciation for the participation. Secondly, the researcher paid personal visits to the surveyed provinces and cities to give briefings to respondents. They were encouraged to ask questions about the questionnaire. This evidently increased the response rate as well as the accuracy of completion of the questionnaire. Thirdly, anonymity was promised so that participants could express their true ideas without exposure to any authorities involved in the training process. Lastly, return envelopes with pre-paid postage were included in the posted questionnaires (Saunders *et al.*, 2003:310-313).

6.2.2 Management of Interviews

Similar to the study of questionnaire survey, different perspectives of the stakeholders to the same research question were compared and analysed. Either English or Mandarin was used as working languages for interviewing to allow the interviewees to express themselves freely in their mother tongue and to minimise the possibility of misinterpretation. The transcripts were also written in either English or Chinese to minimise translation. However, themes were translated into English for coding and categorising to fit into one research system. Moreover, NUD-IST 6 software was used for coding as well as to link themes and interview transcripts. As described in section 6.1.1 since the researcher could use both English and Chinese fluently no interpreter was involved in interviews which eliminated the possibility of errors due to an interpreter (Hofstede, 1980:34-37). The researcher's familiarity with both cultures, and particularly with Chinese culture, provided an even better understanding of nuances of the expressions by participants in the course of interviews.

6.2.2.1 Focus group interviews

The sites of focus group interviews were both in China and the UK and stratified purposive sampling was employed in an attempt to generate lively discussions and collect insight information by listening to people in depth (Morgan, 1998a:56). The small group (between 2-6) and large group (between 7-12) were designed to suit data collection purposes (Morgan, 1998a: 73-76). For example large focus groups were used with training staff in China to gain brief suggestions for overseas training and evaluation; while the small groups were adopted with ex-trainees with the purpose of hearing their experiences and stories about overseas training and re-entry to work and life The screening criteria in recruitment of participants were based on demographic characteristics, individual characteristics as well as organisational sectors (Morgan, 1998a: 94).

Structured questions were asked during the focus group, which addressed the specific goals of this research. Moreover the discussion was guided to focus on topics and the group's dynamics were tightly controlled (Morgan, 1998a). On the other hand attention was paid to create a comfortable and harmonious atmosphere among participants so that a flowing conversation was maintained to assure a friendly and productive discussion

(Morgan, 1998a: 58-62). In order to maintain the validity of data collected more than one focus group interview was conducted within one homogeneous stakeholder group to allow comparison of the transcripts (Morgan, 1998a:82). To respect the participants' ethical requirements no recording was made in most cases. In order to maintain the validity of transcripts two note takers were employed to enable cross checking of notes.

6.2.2.2 Semi-structured interviews

Face-to-face and telephone interviews were carried out based on the anthropological interviewing principle, which was defined by Seidman (1998:9) as "phenomenologically based interviewing". A set of structured open-ended questions was prepared to cover topics under study (see Appendix 4.1, 4.2, 5.1, 5.2, 6.1, 6.2 and 7). The sequencing of questions varied according to the role of a participant, but the general principle was to start with the questions which focused on his/her personal experience in the training process. Then questions were asked to explore the interviewees' opinion about the topics such as "how do you think training abroad could influence your career" and "how do you think the cross-cultural impact could affect training effectiveness".

In order to obtain large in-depth information purposive sampling was used to select information-rich samples (Kemper *et al*., 2003: 279; Silverman, 2001:250). They are 24 trainees who were taking management training and education in the UK, 30 ex-trainees who had finished their training and education in the Western countries, 10 ex-trainees' supervisors, 11 training managers and officials in China's government HR departments and 8 lecturers and training managers in UK training institutions (see Table 5.5). The length of interviews varied between one hour to an hour and half, which was controlled according to the needs of conversation and attitudes of participants (Seidman, 1998: 13-14). Effort was made during the interviews to balance between giving enough openness for the interviewee to express himself/herself and enough focus for the interviewee to follow the structure (Seidman, 1998:13). Attention was paid first to engage the participants' attention and interests, second to sustain a rapport, which motivated them to answer questions truthfully (Oppenheim, 1992: 89-90). On the other hand, the interviewer kept awareness of not interfering with participants' opinion which greatly reduced the interviewer bias (Oppenheim, 1992:86).

6.3 VALIDITY

As shown in the Interactive Model (see Figure 5.1) validity is one of the essential parts of the research design (Maxwell and Loomis, 2003:246). How to demonstrate the validity of the research findings is a thorny issue for any researcher. Frankfort-Nachmias and Nachmias (1997) argue that in social science there is always a lack of evidence of validity because measurement in the social sciences is primarily indirect and the number of errors in measuring social variables tends to be greater than in measuring the physical variables.

There are many ways to define or maintain validity in methodological research. Many authors (Tashakkori and Teddlie, 1998: 66; Neuman, 2000b: 172; Maxwell and Loomis, 2003: 255) suggest that the validity involves two basic issues as below:

(a) Internal validity: it has traditionally been conceptualised as the degree to which the conclusions/inferences of a research finding be trusted in terms of the causal relationship between variables or events.

(b) External validity: it usually refers to the ability to generalise findings from a specific setting and small group to a broad range of settings and people.

Moreover the use of triangulation techniques has attracted the attentions of many researchers to discuss the issue of validity such as internal validity, measurement validity and design validity (Denzin, 1978; Jick, 1979; Patton, 1990; Creswell and Miller, 2000). Denzin (1978) and Silverman (2001) introduce the concept of triangulation, which combines data source to study the same social phenomenon. Triangulation validity includes: (a) data triangulation: the use of a variety of data sources in a study; (b) methodological triangulations: use of multiple methods to study a research problem.

In this research both internal and external validity was assured by three means. Firstly it was built into the research design strategy, which could be claimed as methodologicaly validity in this study. The use of Maxwell's Interactive Model (Maxwell and Loomis, 2003:246) in research design enhanced the validity of the whole research (see section 5.2). For example, the research questions were precisely based on the purposes of this study. Consistency between research questions and related literature was designed primarily to be maintained since each of the various topics had its own body of literature. Therefore the validity was attained between the findings to each research question with regard to various topics of literature, and instrumentation within the conceptual framework. Moreover the results of this study could be generalised and transferred to a new setting and larger population (Kemper *et al*., 2003: 277) with similar characteristics.

Secondly, this research adopted triangulation validity by two means (Creswell, 2003; Creswell *et al*., 2003; Denzin, 1978; Mabey and Thomson, 2000): (a) using of a variety of data sources in a study; (b) using of multiple methods to study the same phenomenon (see section 5.6). For instance, the validity of findings was established among the stakeholder groups of participants by triangulating different perceptions of stakeholder groups. On the other hand the internal consistency of the instruments across different methods was sustained by triangulation of focus groups, questionnaire survey and semi-structured interviews.

Thirdly, the methods of descriptive and interpretative validly were used, which were usually employed in qualitative research (Maxwell, 1992). For example, this thesis provided rich description and clear interpretation of the subjects under study, individual's experience, perceptions and cross-cultural settings.

6.4 SUMMARY OF CHAPTER 6

In order to achieve the objectives of this research the methodological strategy was decided on adopting a pragmatic sequential and concurrent mixed methods approach (see section 5.2). Efforts were made to maximise measurement reliability in focus group interviews, questionnaire survey, and semi-structured interviews. Firstly, techniques were used in translation of survey and fieldwork instruments such as pursuing the equivalence of meaning rather than word-to-word translation, and inviting a panel of bilingual experts. Secondly, consistency of instruments was maintained between quantitative and qualitative studies or among the above-mentioned three methods by referring to the subjects under investigation which were underpinned by research questions.

Thirdly, some techniques were used in the implementation process of survey and fieldwork to both promote efficiency and minimise the introduction of bias. Fourthly, the bilingual and cross-cultural skills of the researcher (also interviewer) ensured the reliability and successfulness of the empirical studies which involved two different cultural settings: Chinese and Anglo-Saxon (see section 5.6.1.1). Last but not least, the validity of findings was attained through a systematic process by employing an interaction model of research design. The generalisability of the findings was affirmed by the published literature and sampling strategy (refer to section 5.6.1). In addition the validity was attested by triangulation of data source (perspectives of four groups of participants) as well as triangulation of multi-methods (quantitative and qualitative).

CHAPTER 7
METHOD OF ANALYSIS

7.0 PREAMBLE

Once the data has been collected, like traditional quantitative and qualitative studies, the next step of mixed methods research is to analyse it. This is more complex than purely conducting either quantitative or qualitative data analysis (Onwuegbuzie and Teddlie, 2003:353). It needs more comprehensive planning, configuring the typology or framework and employing the analytical techniques of both quantitative and qualitative research. This chapter expounds the strategies of analysing data in mixed methods research and then explains the rationale for choosing the strategy for this research.

7.1 LITERATURE FOR MIXED METHODS ANALYSIS

The main objective of mixed methods data analysis is to utilise the strength of both quantitative and qualitative analytical techniques simultaneously or sequentially in the same study so as to pertain a better understanding of phenomena in the society (Onwuegbuzie and Teddlie, 2003:353; Tashakkori and Teddlie, 1998:125). Onwuegbuzie and Teddlie (2003:351) argue that the important feature of data analysis in mixed methods research is the coherence of data analysis with the data collection process, which in turn depends on various elements such as the research purpose and design. The general analytical strategy of mixed methods should comply with the fundamental principle to complement the strengths and to avoid overlapping of data analysis weaknesses of the quantitative and qualitative methods (Johnson and Turner, 2003).

Tashakkori and Teddlie present a series of alternative mixed methods analytical strategies (Tashakkori and Teddlie, 1998:126-136).

(1) Concurrent mixed data analysis: to analyse simultaneously qualitative and quantitative data in the way of parallel/triangulating analysis of quantitative and qualitative data, or concurrent analysis of quantitative or qualitative data in two methods separately by transformation of qualitative data to numerical data, or by transformation of quantitative data to qualitative categories.

(2) Sequential qualitative-quantitative data analysis: to analyse qualitative data followed by confirmatory quantitative data collection and analysis by (a) forming groups of people/setting on the ground of qualitative data and comparing the groups on quantitative data; or (b) forming groups of attributes/themes through content analysis followed by confirmatory statistical analysis of quantitative data collected.
(3) Sequential quantitative-qualitative data analysis: to analyse quantitative data followed by qualitative data collection and analysis by (a) forming groups of people/setting on the basis of quantitative analysis and then comparing the groups on qualitative data; (b) forming groups of attributes/themes through exploratory quantitative analysis and then confirming with available/new qualitative data and analysis.

Tashakkori and Teddlie (1998:126-127) stress one of the most important strategies of converting the data primarily collected in one of the traditions into the other tradition, which is referred to as transformation of data. That is to convert qualitative information into numerical data and analyse them statistically, and to convert quantitative data into narratives and analyse them using a qualitative method.

Creswell (2003:220) argues that data analysis in mixed methods research directly relates to what type of research strategy is being chosen. After presenting the six strategies for mixed methods design it can be defined in two major branches: sequential and concurrent data collection and analysis. Creswell epitomises the principle that data analysis in mixed methods uses both quantitative and qualitative approaches and most likely interacts between these two approaches.

Creswell (2003:220-221) examples the most popular approaches in relation to the six models for mixed methods research as:
(1) Data transformation: to quantify qualitative data and to qualify quantitative data.
(2) Explore outliers: to analyse quantitative data and produce outlier cases, followed by qualitative interviews with these outlier cases.
(3) Instrument development: to acquire themes and categories in a primary qualitative data collection, which are used as specific items and scales to create survey instruments.

(4) Examine multiple levels: to get quantitative results in a survey and to gather qualitative data through interviews at the same time to explore the phenomenon with specific individuals of the population.

Onwuegbuzie and Teddlie (2003:361-372) discuss mixed methods analysis in a different way by suggesting preanalysis considerations before decisions are made on how to analyse collected data such as the purpose of the research, data types, relationships between quantitative and qualitative data types, exploratory or confirmatory data-analytical techniques, analytical tools. They (Onwuegbuzie and Teddlie, 2003:373-379) then propose an analytical model consisting of seven stages.

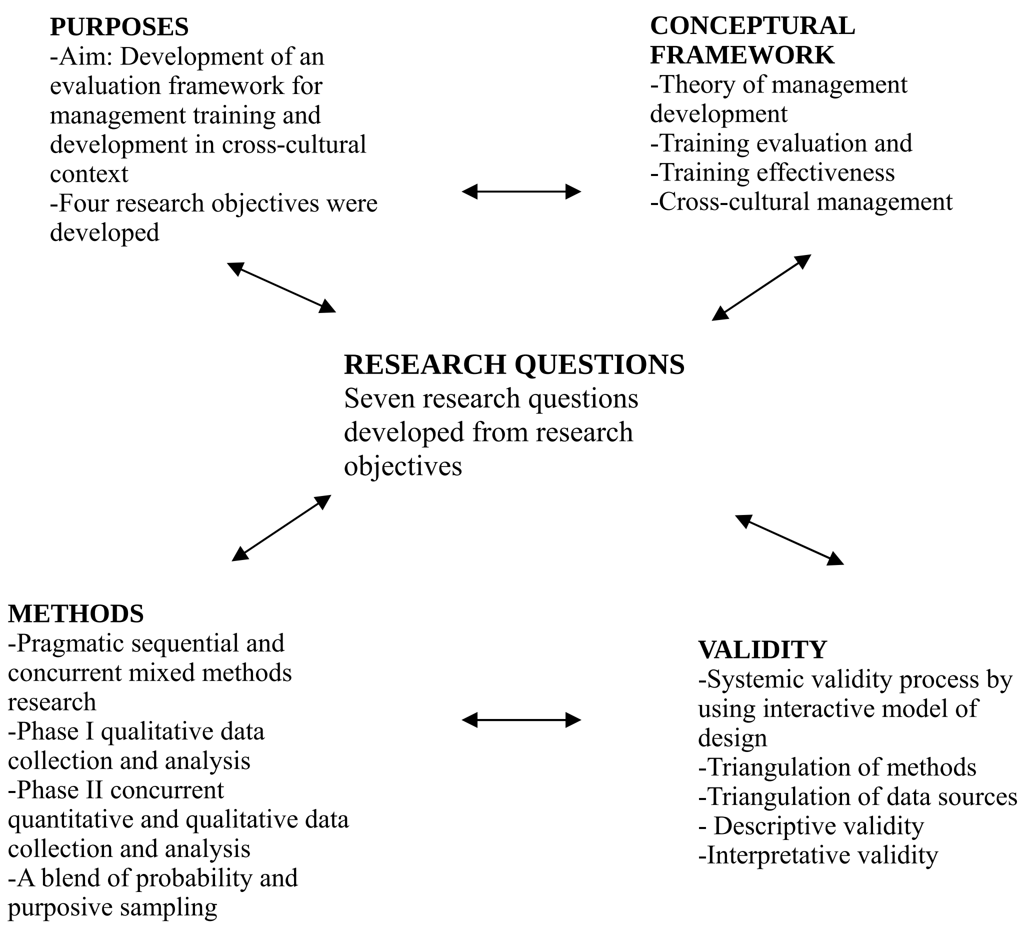
Stage one: Data Reduction—to reduce data collected in the form of quantitative and qualitative.
Stage two: Data Display—to simplify and exhibit the information into an appropriate and easily understood configuration.
Stage three: Data Transformation—to quantitise or qualitise the data gathered, which can proceed directly to the Stage seven, data integration if the purpose of the mixed methods research is expansion (Greene et al., 1989).
Stage four: Data Correlation—to correlate quantitative and qualitative data provided they are both collected.
Stage five: Data Consolidation—to combine both quantitative and qualitative data so as to establish new variables or data sets as an alternative to data correlation.
Stage six: Data Comparison—to compare the quantitative and qualitative data from different data source as an alternative to either data correlation or data consolidation.
Stage seven: Data Integration—to integrate all data forms into one coherent entity or two separate sets of coherent unit.
Onwuegbuzie and Teddlie (2003:378) conclude that data integration leads to initial data interpretation, on which the inferences are made.

Guided by the research strategy this research used sequential and concurrent mixed methods data analysis which was divided into two phases: (a) Phase I qualitative data analysis; and (b) Phase II quantitative and qualitative data analysis simultaneously. It incorporated some of the analytical strategies and techniques above, but did not simply adopt one method or another. The details will be discussed in the later sections.

7.2 ANALYTICAL STRATEGIES AND VISUAL MODEL

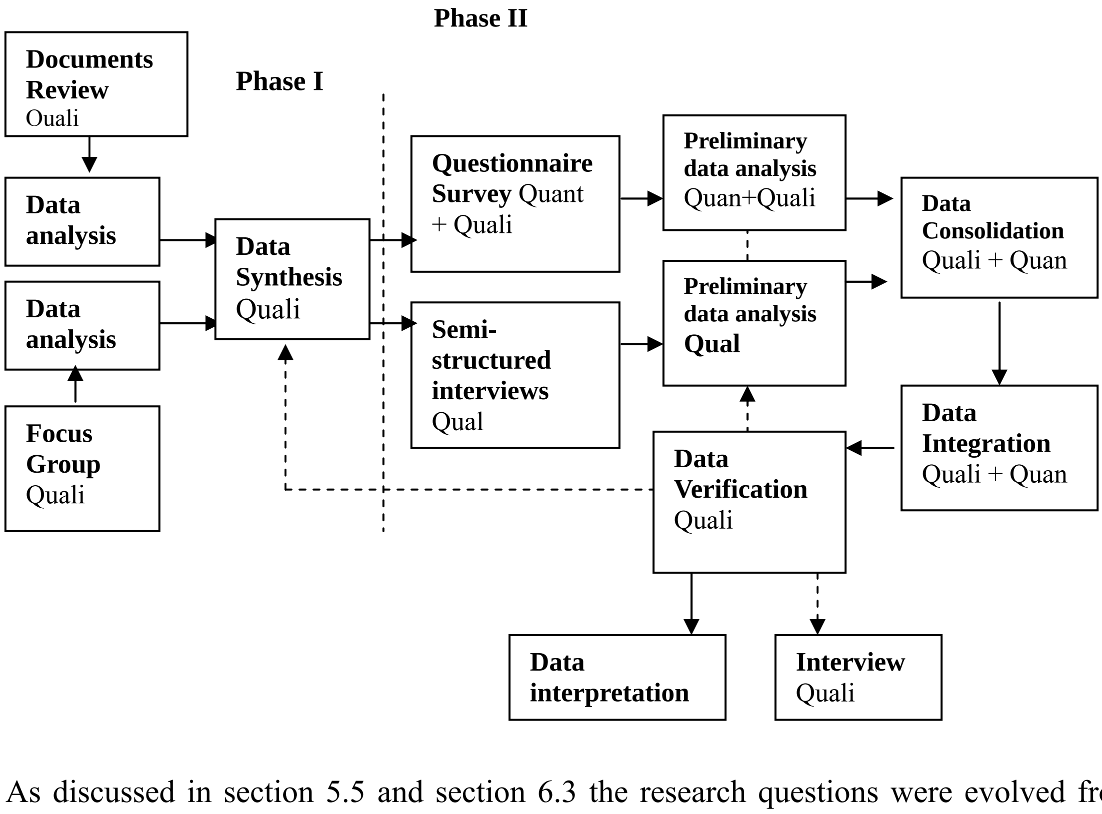
As described earlier the method of analysis depends on many factors such as the purpose of the mixed methods research, design, data collection (Creswell, 2003; Onwuegbuzie and Teddlie, 2003; Tashakkori and Teddlie, 1998). In the light of Interactive Model (Maxwell and Loomis, 2003) the analytical protocol for this mixed methods research was based on the developed interactive framework illustrated in Figure 7.1. The analysis took consideration of firstly the type of data collected. It then integrated with the other four components—research questions, validity, purposes of the research and conceptual framework (see section 5.2). In Phase I qualitative data, for example, documents review and focus group interviews was used for answering the research questions, while both quantitative and qualitative data were collected in Phase II through questionnaire survey and semi-structured interviews, which were also underpinned by research questions.

Figure 7.1 Interactive Framework of Mixed Methods Design



Therefore the analysis strategies were made accordingly, which also involved two phases: (a) primary qualitative data analysis followed by a (b) concurrent quantitative and qualitative data analysis (see Figure 7.2). In Phase I qualitative data was gathered by reviewing internal documents and conducting focus group interviews, which was analysed qualitatively. The information generated from Phase I was used to help developing instruments for the next step research. In Phase II questionnaire survey and semi-structured interviews were carried out simultaneously with the former collecting both quantitative data and primarily qualitative data and the later collecting qualitative data only. The qualitative data from interviews was analysed qualitatively while the data from questionnaire survey were analysed quantitatively. This data was then to be compared, consolidated and integrated which was followed by data verification by referring back to results of Phase I and interviews with the representatives from the two sample groups. It finally leads to data interpretation. The details of analytical process were discussed in section 7.3.

Figure 7.2 A Framework for Data Collection and Analysis of Mixed Methods Design



As discussed in section 5.5 and section 6.3 the research questions were evolved from research intention and underpinned by literature. Since this research was designed to use mixed methods to measure the same phenomenon (Morse, 1991:120; Onwuegbuzie and Teddlie, 2003:369) potential threats to validity in data analysis were considered for both quantitative data and qualitative data. The strategy of validity was considered from three aspects in order to maintain the internal and external validity of this study (see section 6.3).

7.3 DESCRIPTION OF ANALYTICAL PROCESS

Onwuegbuzie and Teddlie (2003) advocate researchers using mixed methods provide detailed procedural and interpretational information to contribute to the development of mixed methods research. In the principle of mixed methods research and quantitative and qualitative paradigms, which underpin the analysis methods, a seven-step analysis process was developed and is discussed below. The purpose of explaining the process is to highlight the analysis procedure for this particular mixed methods research.

Step 1: Instrument development

As shown in Figure 7.2 two types of information were gathered in Phase I: documents review and focus group interviews. They were both analysed using a qualitative method. For example the textual data from internal documents was treated so as to understand the characteristics of China's overseas management training, such as stakeholders, norms, and objectives (Silverman, 2001). The focus group interviews were also analysed using traditional qualitative method. The transcripts were labelled and categorised manually. They were then synthesised by comparing each other and incorporated textual analysis results. The purpose of data analysis in Phase I was to develop instrumentation for the questionnaire survey and semi-structured interviews in Phase II, for instance to generate measures for identifying the characteristics in training evaluation such as 'who evaluates training', 'what are the roles of major stakeholders involved in training'.

Step 2: Matching research questions with responses

The data collected from both the questionnaire survey and interviews was aligned with seven research questions underlined by research objectives (see section 5.5). A matrix was built to display the correlation between the research questions and the items for each type of instrument respectively such as standard questionnaire, interviews with ex-trainees' supervisors, which acted as a mother mould for analysis (Miles and Huberman, 1994:239-241). As soon as the matrix was created the responses categorised against items were ready to 'sit in the box' for analysis. The advantage of this step was to sort data in order, which avoided missing data or to putting the data in the 'wrong box', which in turn maintained the consistency of data analysis by a standardised rule since this research involved various data sources to explore the same phenomenon.

Step 3: Concurrent preliminary data analysis

Once the matrix template was established the preliminary data analysis was ready to start which was divided into three sections. Firstly, it analysed the data from the standard questionnaire, which included four groups of participants. The close-ended questions in the questionnaire were coded and entered into SPSS and analysed using mostly descriptive statistics and one-way ANOVA. The open-ended questions were first processed by exploratory and iterative thematic analysis. It was then converted into numerical data by coding and entered into SPSS to conduct statistic analysis. The data from the survey of ex-trainees' supervisors was processed in a similar way to the standard questionnaire. Then some of the items were integrated with an analytical SPSS sheet of the standard questionnaire, which allowed conduct cross-tabulation of the findings, for example, the factors affecting transfer of learning, and trainees' selection.

Secondly, the analysis of semi-structured interviews involved traditional qualitative data analysis. The transcripts were labelled so as to enable identification of groups as well as sequences. The transcripts of each group were analysed separately without cross contamination. Themes were generated in an iterative process, and were clustered into the categories in the taxonomy of topics. NU-DIST6 software was used to assist categorising of themes, which provided the possibility of comparing the themes generated from open-ended questions in the questionnaire survey in one coding system. However the analysis of semi-structured interviews focused on in-depth understanding of the meaning, and context of the responses rather than simply identifying the themes emerged (Maxwell and Loomis, 2003; Silverman, 2001). Moreover, narrative description was used when presenting the findings from semi-structured interviews (Silverman, 2001).

Step 4: Data comparison

Based on the preliminary analysis of both quantitative and qualitative data the comparison of data occurred: among qualitative data and between quantitative and qualitative data. For example, to compare the results of interviews across groups about one particular topic a thematic comparison matrix was created to (a) reduce data, (b) display data, (c) create new themes (Miles and Huberman, 1994:10-11,132). The survey results and interviews were also compared, which highlights different aspects of results by different methods (Erzberger and Kelle, 2003:469). The advantage of this step was to enable the triangulation of different data source and utilisation of different methods, which reduced the error in analysis introduced by one method or single data sources (Onwuegbuzie and Teddlie, 2003:377).

Step 5: Data integration

The quantitative and qualitative data were pulled together at this stage, which was suggested by Erzberger and Kelle (2003:467) the convergence of empirical results of quantitative and qualitative research. At this stage the results of questionnaire survey and the interviews were united and the integration occurred between quantitative and qualitative results in the form of a matrix against the research questions. The preliminary inferences were then made to meet qualitative inquiry.

Step 6: Data verification

The preliminary conclusions were verified by two means. Firstly, they referred back to the results of Phase I and preliminary data analysis of Phase II. Secondly, preliminary conclusions were attested in two selected sites involved in studies: one of the provinces in China and one of the UK training institutions. New information was collected by face-to-face and telephone interviewing of the participants who were stratified by representing five stakeholder groups from the above-mentioned two sampling sites. A qualitative method was used for analysing data collected and verifying the reliability and validity of the findings (Maxwell and Loomis, 2003; Maxwell, 1992).

Step 7: Data interpretation

Refinement and adjustments were made accordingly after data verification. Final conclusions were then made which led to the interpretation of findings. As discussed in section 5.6 the research questions were primarily qualitative. Therefore the interpretation of the results from both quantitative data analysis and qualitative data processing converged to a holistic understanding of the context underlying China's overseas management training and development. Furthermore the exploration and interpretation of the perceptions of the major stakeholders induced and developed new theories to the subject areas under study.

7.4 TRIANGULATION OF DATA SOURCE AND TABULATION

As described in the last section analysis across two types of data (qualitative and quantitative) was one of the distinctive features of this mixed methods research. The other characteristic was to study the same phenomenon by triangulating different perspectives from five groups of participants.

The data collected from the interviews was also analysed individually. As mentioned in the last section various traditional methods were involved in qualitative data analysis. An iterative process was to abstract emerging themes, categorise them with coding and labelling with the help of qualitative analytical software, which allowed referring to the original text in transcripts for in-depth analysis. Data interaction was used in the preliminary analytical process to allow comparisons of different data sets.

The whole analytical process followed the line of research questions, and the cross-tabulation of data demonstrated the relationship between the groups of participants and the variables. One discipline for the process of cross-tabulation analysis was to cluster groups according to the attributes of individual groups and the topics under investigation. For example, trainees & ex-trainees and lecturers were combined and analysed for the topics in relation to learning in host countries because they were main subjects in the learning process. The other example was to include ex-trainees, ex-trainees' supervisors, trainees, and training managers and officials in China for studying the transfer of learning. The lecturers and training managers in UK institutions were excluded because they had little involvement in the management development activities after training. The approach of cross-tabulation was well employed to interpret the results of analysis in the finding chapters (Chapter 9 and 10).

7.5 SUMMARY OF CHAPTER 7

The research strategy was the key factor upon which the analysis method was based. As discussed in Chapter 5 the interactive approach (Maxwell and Loomis, 2003) overarched this study and inevitably impacted on the analysis framework. Analysis was woven into the format of methods which was in turn interdependent on the other four elements in the research construct (refer to Figure 7.1). Among varieties of analytical models and approaches in mixed methods research the sequential and concurrent strategy was employed for this particular study, which involved seven steps: (1) instrument development, (2) match the research questions with responses, (3) concurrent preliminary data analysis, (4) data comparison, (5) data integration, (6) data verification, and (7) data interpretation.

One of the fundamental principles of this research was to combine the strength of analytical techniques for both qualitative and quantitative data process. Quantitative analysis displayed the statistical correlations between different groups and variables, whereas qualitative data revealed the meanings, and contextual elements to the phenomenon under study. Moreover the use of cross-tabulation of data source provided an effective analytical tool to integrate groups of participants and explore different perspectives against subjects under investigation.

PART III   TABULATION OF DATA

INTRODUCTION

Part III consists of three chapters which present the empirical findings of this research. The findings shown are derived both from quantitative and qualitative data analysis by triangulating multiple data sources relevant to this study. Chapter 8 defines the major stakeholders who are directly involved in China's training process in questionnaire survey and interviews. The attributes of the major stakeholders and the characteristics of China's overseas management training are analysed and discussed. Chapter 9 aims to meet the research objectives 1 and 2, by critically evaluating the effectiveness of China's overseas management training programmes from the perspectives of the major stakeholders defined in Chapter 8 with a focus on learning and transfer of learning. The factors affecting learning and transfer are also explored.

Chapter 10 examines the current evaluation practices of China's overseas management training by investigating whether there is a systematic approach to evaluation and what are the criteria and methods preferred by the major stakeholders are. It also studies the cross-cultural impacts on the intervention of China's overseas management training and development by exploring both positive and negative cultural interaction elements and process. This chapter aims to meet the research objectives 3 and 4.

The findings of these three chapters in Part III provide precious information and lead to the discussions and conclusions in chapter 11 and 12.

CHAPTER 8
THE STAKEHOLDERS AND THE QUALIFYING SAMPLE

8.0 PREAMBLE

The nature of this research involves multi-data sources from various stakeholders, which necessitate the adoption of stakeholders' analysis so that an all-round picture is generated of the subject (Finkenflugel, 2006; Manktelow, 2006). The purpose of this chapter is to provide descriptive information about the major stakeholders and their contribution to China's overseas management training interventions. The data is derived and analysed on the bases of two sources: (a) Background information from the questionnaire survey, and (b) internal documents reviewed in research phase I. Chapter 8 is composed of four sections. Section 8.1 defines the major stakeholders in China's overseas management training interventions and analyses the attributes of these stakeholders. Section 8.2 conducts analysis of the basic situations about these training activities as observed and experienced by the questionnaire respondent as well as set out in the internal documents. Section 8.3 discusses the findings from the questionnaire survey of the power or influences of the major stakeholders on the key operations in training preparation and development. Section 8.4 concludes this chapter.

8.1 DEFINING THE MAJOR STAKEHOLDERS IN CHINA'S OVERSEAS MANAGEMENT TRAINING AND DEVELOPMENT

The growing interest in organisational relationships between various stakeholders has stimulated research on stakeholder theory since the late 1980s (Freeman, 1984; Friedman and Miles, 2002; Greenwood, 2001; Manktelow, 2006). Freeman's (1984:46) classic definition represents the broader concept of stakeholders, that is: any group or individual who can influence or be affected by the achievement of organisational objectives. In the narrower sense stakeholders can refer to persons, groups or institutions who have power and interests in any organisational activities or projects (Mitchell, 2001; Clarkson, 1995).

Theoretically the ultimate nature of the stakeholders' motives and aims is connected with human motives. In reality stakeholders become involved in an organisation's activity on the basis of their own interests and motives (Mitroff, 1983), since stakeholders have different needs, hopes, expectations and action principles (Vartiainen, 2003) in the process of management development. They have different perceptions of the effectiveness of any training and education interventions. Therefore, in stakeholder evaluation, it is important to identify the characteristics of different stakeholder groups, which makes it possible to understand and analyse the information collected in the evaluation process better (Mitroff, 1983).

8.1.1 Identification of the Major Stakeholders in China's Overseas Management Training

The analytical results of research phase I identifies five groups of major stakeholders. They are presented in Table 8.1.

Table 8.1 Glossary of Definitions of Stakeholder Groups in China's Overseas Management Training

Training Departments/Organisers—the Chinese government departments and organisations that are in charge of and organise overseas management training and development.

Training Institutions—The educational or training institutions outside China who are credited by the State Administration of Foreign Experts Affairs (SAFEA) to deliver management training programmes.

***Trainees**—The Chinese managers who were taking management training and educational programmes under the initiative of China's overseas management training and development when they were surveyed

***Ex-trainees**—The Chinese managers who had participated and completed overseas management training and educational programmes and returned to China.

Ex-trainees' Supervisor—The line manager of Ex-trainees' in the organisation where the Ex-trainees work.

*Although trainees and ex-trainees belong to one stakeholder group their perceptions about the subject under investigation could be different. Therefore these two groups are differentiated in sampling, data collection and analysis to compare the differences of these two groups.

8.1.2 Characteristics of the Participants of This Study

Stakeholder analysis usually follows the route of descriptive, instrumental and normative principles (Donnaldson and Preston, 1995:66-67). This research is no exception. In order to specify the characteristics of the stakeholder groups a breakdown analysis was conducted on various elements relevant to the studies in the characteristics of each stakeholder group. The characteristics cover the variables of age, organisational sector, job role and educational backgrounds, which inform subsequent analysis and provide references for adjustment if necessary. Table 8.2 gives these characteristics of the questionnaire respondents from the different stakeholder groups. This reflects the natural distribution of respondents due to the probability sampling strategy for the questionnaire survey (see section 5.6.1.2).

The variables identified for each stakeholder group vary to best represent the characteristics of individual stakeholders. For instance, analysis of the characteristics of ex-trainees' supervisors is limited to three variables: organisational sector, job role and province. The major reason for this is the nature of the study on ex-trainees' supervisors differs from that of the other stakeholder groups. As shown in Table 8.2 the majority of the participating trainees and ex-trainees are in the age group 31-45, which complies with the age criteria of trainees' selection. Most of them are from government and non-profit organisations, and enterprises, while a smaller number of them come from educational organisations and research institutes. Ex-trainees' supervisors have similar distribution in terms of organisational sectors. The majority of respondents from UK training institutions are from educational institutions (66.7%), and some of them are from training organisations, e.g., training centres, companies, and agents (25.1.5%). On the other hand the participants from China's training departments/organisations come mostly from government departments (53.3%) and non-profit organisations (46.7%).

In relation to the job role the participating trainees and ex-trainees are similarly distributed. About 40-46% of them are middle-level managers. The next highest proportion is professionals (15-22%) and then senior managers (about 15%). Half of the ex-trainees' supervisors are senior managers, and 30% of them are middle managers and 20% are at the top level chief executives or directors. Over half of the respondents from UK training institutions are lecturers and about 40% training managers and project managers. The respondents from China's training departments and organisations consist of 40% of administrators, 22% middle level managers, 17.8% project managers, 11.2% senior managers, and 8% training managers. The analysis of educational backgrounds reveals that only 4.4% of respondents from training departments/organisers have qualification in human resource management. It also shows that the participating trainees and ex-trainees have high qualifications and educational levels. The findings reveal that there are fewer training managers in China who are in charge of overseas training projects and very few of them have an educational background in human resource management.

Table 8.2 The Attributes of the Questionnaire Respondents by Age, Organisational Sector, Job Role, and Educational Background/Degree

Stakeholders / Characteristics	Training Department/ Organiser in China		Training Institution in UK		Trainees		Ex-trainees		Ex-trainees' Supervisor	
Age	**No.**	**%**	**No.**	**%**	**No.**	**%**	**No.**	**%**		
>=25	5	11.1								
26-30	10	22.2			7	7.4	#8	6.7		
31-35	15	33.3	6	12.5	33	34.7	#47	39.2		
36-40	5	11.1	9	18.8	23	24.2	#31	25.8		
40-45	6	13.3	7	14.6	20	21.1	#21	17.5		
46-50	1	2.2	9	18.8	7	7.4	#10	8.3		
51-55	3	6.7	10	20.8	3	3.2	#3	2.5		
56-60			4	8.3	2	2.1				
61 and +			3	6.3						
Organisational Sector										
Government Department	24	53.3	2	4.2	41	43.2	40	33.3	15	37.5
Non-profit Organisation	21	46.7	2	4.2	21	22.1	24	20.0	11	27.5
Education/ Institute			32	66.6	2	2.1	14	11.7	6	15.0
Company					31	32.6	42	35.0	8	20.0
Training organisation			12	25.0						
Total	45		48		95		120		40	

Continued

Stakeholders / Characteristics	Training Department/ Organiser in China		Training Institution in UK		Trainees		Ex-trainees		Ex-trainees' Supervisor	
Job Role	**No.**	**%**	**No.**	**%**	**No.**	**%**	**No.**	**%**		
Administrator	18	40.0			10	10.5	9	7.5		
Project Manager	8	17.8	7	14.6	1	1.1	1	0.8		
Training Manager	4	8.0	12	25.0						
Professional					21	22.1	18	15.0		
Middle Manager	10	22.0			44	46.3	48	40.0	12	30.0
Senior Manager	5	11.2			15	15.8	19	15.8	20	50.0
Chief Executive/Director					4	4.2	6	5.0	8	20.0
Lecturer/Professor			28	58.3			3	2.5		
Others			1	2.1			2	1.7		
Education Background										
Science/Engineering	12	26.7	12	25.0	49	51.6	53	44.2		
Business/Economics	8	17.8	24	50.0	17	17.9	39	32.5		
HRM	2	4.4	7	14.8	6	6.3	5	4.2		
Linguistic/Arts	19	42.2	5	10.4	15	15.8	15	12.5		
Others	4	8.9			8	8.4				
Highest Degree										
Doctorate							3	2.5		
Master	15	33.3			32	33.7	56	46.7		
Bachelor	23	51.1			57	60.0	57	47.5		
Others	7	15.6			6	6.3	4	3.3		

8.2 THE CURRENT PRACTICE OF CHINA'S OVERSEAS MANAGEMENT TRAINING AND THE CONTRIBUTION OF THE MAJOR STAKEHOLDERS

An examination of data was carried out through empirical studies as well as by reviewing the annual report of the China Association of International Exchange of Personnel, and the internal documents of the State Administration for Foreign Expert Bureau and their branches in the five provinces and one autonomous city under investigation. For the analysis a series of statistics are presented in this section to describe the situation, involvement and the attributes of different stakeholders in China's overseas management training intervention.

8.2.1 The Scale of China's Overseas Management Training

The analysis of internal documents of SAFEA, CAIEP and provincial foreign expert bureaus has shown that since the late 70s and early 80s, the Chinese government has initiated long-term talent development projects by sending professionals and managers to study or undertake training in other countries particularly in developed or advanced countries. It has gone through three major phases as follows:

(1) Technical training (late 70s ~late 80s): Chinese professionals are sent to developed countries and areas to learn advanced/ modern technology in science, industry, and agriculture.

(2) Mixture of technical training and management training (early 90s~mid 90s): technical and managerial persons are sent to developed countries and areas to learn advanced/ modern technology and management.

(3) Managerial skills training, leadership development, and high-tech intellectuals training (1996~present): senior managers/executives from government departments/ organisations and enterprises (usually state-owned and state share-holding companies) are sent to developed countries and areas, particularly the Western countries to learn Western/advanced management knowledge, skills, practices and experiences.

This research is focused on Phase three from 2000 to 2004. Table 8.3 gives the number of Chinese managers who were sent abroad for management development from the five provinces (Jiangsu, Guangxi, Shanxi, Gansu, Guangdong) and one autonomous city (Beijing) under investigation during 2000~2004. In general, the number of managers who were sent abroad for training increased steadily except in 2003 due to the influence of SARS. Of the five provinces and one autonomous city, Beijing takes the lead in overseas management training (7700 persons) which takes about 11% of the accumulated number of the whole nation from 2000~2004. Shanxi organises the next highest amount of overseas management development with 4717 persons/time (7.08%) during 2000~2004. They are followed by Guangdong province (3963 persons/time: 5.95%), and Gansu province (4.91 persons/time: 4.91%). Jiangsu and Guangxi are the two provinces who sent the least number of managers abroad for management development, with only 3.7% (2465 persons/time) and 3.01% (2009 persons/time) of the total number in those five years.

Table 8.3 The Scale of China's Overseas Management Training in the Sampled Provinces/City

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	Total
Jiangsu	410	450	525	470	610	2465
Guangxi	310	360	402	277	660	2009
Shanxi	646	1143	1107	733	1088	4717
Gansu	570	640	710	550	800	3270
Beijing	800	1300	1400	1700	2500	7700
Guangdong	741	827	862	513	1020	3963
Total	3477	4720	5006	4243	6578	24124

Source: edited from the annual report of the six provinces and autonomous city from 2000~2004

8.2.2 Types of Overseas Management Training

It is obvious that one of the characteristics of China's overseas management training interventions is that the majority involves group training instead of individual activities. The questionnaire survey indicated that 306 respondents out of the 308 (99.4%), who were from trainees', ex-trainees', UK training institutions' and training departments/organisations' groups, claimed that they participated or organised group training while only 45 of them experienced individual training, this comprising only 14.1% of the total samples (see Table 8.4). The percentage adds to more than 100% because the respondents could give more than one answer.

Table 8.4 Trained in Groups *v.s.* Individually Trained

Type of Training	Frequency	Percent of Questionnaire Respondents
Group Training	306	99.4
Individual Training	45	14.6

Note: The total respondents=348
(Some respondents gave more than one answers)

Another key variable of China's overseas management training is the duration of time. On the basis of analysis of internal documents these activities are categorised into five groups: (1) less than one month, (2) 1~3 months, (3) 4~6 months, (4) one year, and (5) more than one year, which are described as short term (less than one month), medium term (1~3 and 4~6 month) and long-term (one year and plus) respectively. The responses from trainees', ex-trainees', UK training institutions' and China's training departments/organisers' groups show that short-term training is the most frequently used, followed by medium-term and then long-term. Short-term training was introduced first at the beginning of Phase two while the medium-and-long-term management training was launched in the late 90s. The percentage adds to more than 100% because some respondents might be involved in more than one type of training such as those from training departments/organisers, and training institutions.

Table 8.5 Duration of Training

	Frequency	Percent
Less than 1 month	154	50.0
1~3 months	93	30.2
4~6 months	83	26.9
1 year	92	29.9
More than 1 year	26	8.4

Note: The total respondents=308
(Some respondents gave more than one answers)

As shown in Table 8.5 the most common length of training is less than one month (154:48.3%), 1~3 month (93:30.2%), 4~6 month (92:29.9%), one year (83: 26.9%), and more than one year (26: 8.4%). When the Chinese training department categories are used the medium-term takes the lead with 176 persons/time (57.1%). It is then followed by the short-term with 154:50%. Lastly, there are 118 persons who are involved in long-term training comprising 38.4%. The total respondents exceeds 100% for the same reason mentioned above.

A breakdown analysis of the duration of training by the years from 2000~2004 demonstrates the steady increase of middle term training every year, while short term remains unchanged and the one year programme has declined. The findings of research phase I have provided some references to explain these changes. Short-term management training is the most cost-effective way for management development in consideration of the time of managers away from work, costs, and the results. On the other hand it had been found that one month or less is too short for managers to achieve the training objectives and thus longer courses are needed to allow in-depth learning of management practices and business operations as well as experiencing other aspects of the society, e.g., culture, life, customs. Budgetary constraints mean that medium-term training has become popular recently and long-term training has declined relatively.

8.2.3 Subject Area and Methods of Delivery

As illustrated in Table 8.6, of the most common subjects for China's overseas management training and education, the courses in public sector management and business management are the most popular, 53.2% and 42.5% of questionnaire respondents being involved in these courses respectively. Human Resource Management is ranked in the third place with 31.6%. Next come economics and finance which are 24% and 22.4% separately. They are closely followed by social development, and science & technology (20.7% and 19%). Programmes on industry are slightly more popular than those on agriculture with 13.5% over 8.4%. Lastly the remaining professional subjects of tax, law and language, involving 9.1%, 5.8% and 8.8% of questionnaire respondents respectively. The percentage adds to more than 100% because the respondents experienced more than one method of delivery.

It is noted that most of the development activities are in the form of certificated training. 84.4% of questionnaire respondents claim they took or provided certificate training 36% of them doing degree studies, with MBA taken or provided by 13.3% and other degrees 22.7%. The diploma study is taken or provided by 16.2%.

Table 8.6 A List of Training Subjects and Their Frequency and Percentage Rated by the Major Stakeholders

Training Subjects	Frequency	Percent of Respondents Taking/Organising Courses
Public Administration	175	50.3
Business Management	148	42.5
Human Resource Management	110	31.6
Economics	74	24.0
Finance	78	22.4
Social Development	72	20.7
Science/Technology	66	19.0
Industry	47	13.5
Tax	28	9.1
Language	27	8.8
Agriculture	26	8.4
Law	18	5.8
Others	6	1.9
Don’t Know	2	0.6

Note: The total respondents=348
(Some respondents gave more than one answers)

As shown in Table 8.7 the commonly used methods for delivery for China’s overseas management development are traditional classroom lecturing, company and organisational visits, work experience or placement, and seminars. The findings have revealed that classroom lectures remain the most frequently employed method, which is experienced by 87% of questionnaire respondents. In contrast, work experience is the least experienced by respondents, experienced by only 21.4%. The on-site visits and seminars range in the middle, experienced by 56.5% and 41.9% respectively. The percentage adds to more than 100% because the respondents experienced more than one form of delivery. Moreover a further analysis by means of one-way ANOVA demonstrate a decrease of on-site visits and work experience/placement in 2003 and 2004.

Table 8.7 Forms of Training Delivery

Type of Delivery	Frequency	Percent of Respondents Taking/Providing Courses
Classroom Lecture	268	87.0
On-site Visits/Pratice	174	56.5
Work Experience	66	21.4
Seminar	129	41.9
Others	1	0.3

Note: The total respondents=308
(Some respondents gave more than one answers)

8.2.4 The Distribution of Host Country, Training Institution and the Languages Used in Training

The strategic planning for China's overseas management development is to learn from developed countries and areas of advanced Western management. Table 8.8 and 8.9 provide a distribution of the countries and institutions where the surveyed trainees and ex-trainees took their training from 2000~2004. Since this research focused on the UK 149 out of 215 of the trainees/ex-trainees group studied in the UK. Only 20%, 8.84% and 1.86% of ex-trainees respectively studied in the USA, Germany, and Canada. The finding shows that at 80.9% educational institutions in the host countries provide more training than other organisations. The other training providers are training agents (16.3%), research institutions (1.4%) and enterprises (0.9%). Moreover the questionnaire survey to ex-trainees' supervisors reveals that 35% of the respondents did not know the details of where their subordinates participated in training courses. A further analysis will be conduced in Chapter 9.

The regulations made by the State Training Department include criteria for the level of foreign language depending upon the training type. Generally speaking trainees who take short term certificate study do not usually require foreign language ability and translation is provided during the training. Nevertheless there are exceptions to this, particularly in recent years some short training courses have been developed to use English for specific managers. In contrast for the medium and long term training especially for degree study, foreign language ability is required as one of the criteria. Business Foreign Language Tests (BFT) is the English level test most recommended by the State Training Department. However the other equivalent language tests are also accepted such as IELTS and TOFEL test.

Table 8.8 A Distribution of the Host Countries Where Trainees and Ex-trainees Took Management Training from 2000~2004

Host Country	Frequency	Percent of Respondents of Trainees and Ex-trainees
UK	149	69.3
USA	43	20.0
Germany	19	8.8
Canada	4	1.9
Total	215	100.0

Table 8.9 A Distribution of the Host Institutions Where Trainees and Ex-trainees Took Management Training from 2000~2004

Host Institution	Frequency	Percent of Respondents of Trainees and Ex-trainees
Educational Institution	174	80.9
Training Organisation	35	16.3
Research Institute	3	1.4
Enterprise	2	0.9
Others	1	0.5
Total	215	100.0

The results of the questionnaire survey show that most of the trainees use a foreign language (particularly English) in the training process (74.9%) whereas 25.1% receive training though language translation. Interestingly it is found that only 73 (34%) out of 215 trainees/ex-trainees took English tests prior to training while 142 (66%) of the managers only have self-rated English level. A further analysis demonstrates that most of the surveyed trainees and ex-trainees (47.2%) rated themselves as ‘average level’, 33.1% claimed to be ‘good’ and only 9.9% thought they could use English fluently. Finally 7.7% and 2.1% of managers claimed that they had little or no English knowledge at all.

8.2.5 The Analysis of China’s Training Departments/Organisers and UK Training Institutions

The characteristics of the training departments/organisers in China are just as important as those of the trainees and ex-trainees because they are the initiator, one of the sponsors of China’s overseas management training. As Table 8.10 illustrates 19 departments/organisers in China where the questionnaire respondents work have had 6~10 years practice in overseas management training and development, comprising 42.2% of the total 45 participants from China’s training departments/organisers responding to the questionnaire survey. About 24% of the representatives from departments/organisers observe that their organisations have worked with training projects for 11~15 years and 17.8% of them have participated for 16~20 years. Only a few of the respondents’ organisations have experience of organising overseas training either one year (1 case) or 21~25 years (2 cases).

Table 8.10 The Involvement of China's Training Departments/Organisers in Overseas Management Training Perceived by Questionnaire Respondents

Years	Frequency	Percent of Respondents from China's Training Department/Organisers
0-1	1	2.2
2-5	4	8.9
6-10	19	42.2
11-15	11	24.4
16-20	8	17.8
21-25	2	4.4
Total	45	100.0

On the other hand the results show that the representatives of UK training institutions surveyed have had shorter participation in China's management training . As shown in Table 8.11, 58.3% questionnaire respondents from UK training institutions only have between 2~5 years' experiences and 20.8% of the respondents claim that their institutions have delivered training for Chinese managers for 6~10 years. Only 14.6% of the respondents have observed that their institutions have been involved in China's management training for a longer period, 11~15 years. Even fewer institutions (just 3 cases) have only been involved in delivering management development programmes for one year or less.

Table 8.11 The Involvement of UK Training Institutions in China's Overseas Management Training Perceived by Questionnaire Respondents

Years	Frequency	Percent of Respondents from UK Training Institutions
0-1	3	6.3
2-5	28	58.3
6-10	10	20.8
11-15	7	14.6
Total	48	100.0

As far as the Chinese training managers are concerned most of them have either 2~5 years (40%) or 6~10 years (31.1%) work experiences with overseas management training (see Table 8.12). Quite a few staff (20%) have less than 2 years experiences. On the other hand there are a few highly experienced staff, with 6.7% having 11~15 years experience and 2.2% having 16-20 years. However the findings show that over half of them have received professional training (57.8%) in various forms and they all hold positive opinions about their personal training.

Table 8.12 The Involvement of Questionnaire Respondents from China's Training Department/Organiser in Overseas Management Training

Years	Frequency	Percent of Questionnaire Respondents from China's Training Departments/Organisers
0-1	9	20.0
2-5	18	40.0
6-10	14	31.1
11-15	3	6.7
16-20	1	2.2
21-25	-	-
Total	45	100.0

Similarly, as demonstrated in Table 8.13, the majority of responding lecturers and staff in the UK training institutions have 2~5 years' experience of working with Chinese managers and their development projects (79.2%). Those who have only one year or less, or over 6 years and up to 15 years experiences represent under 10% of the total respondents. 46 out of 48 acknowledge that having some background knowledge about China would help them to provide better training or service for Chinese managers. The analysis shows that 41.7% of them learn knowledge about China by themselves whereas only 6.3% have received formal training. Nevertheless most of them (52.1%) combine self-learning and attending courses to access knowledge and improve their teaching and service.

Table 8.13 The Involvement of the Questionnaire Respondents from UK Training Institutions in China's Overseas Management Training

Years	Frequency	Percent Questionnaire Respondents from UK Training Institutions
0-1	4	8.3
2-5	38	79.2
6-10	3	6.3
11-15	3	6.3
Total	48	100.0

8.3 IDENTIFYING LEGITIMATE POWER/INTEREST OF THE MAJOR STAKEHOLDERS IN CHINA'S OVERSEAS MANAGEMENT TRAINING

The concept of power stakeholder theory implies 'power drive'. Mitchell *et al.* (1997:867) suggest that a stakeholder to a relationship possesses power, which, to some extent, “has or can gain access to coercive, utilitarian, or normative means, to impose its will in that relationship”. Meanwhile the notion of legitimacy is based on who or what really counts in any corporative activities (Mitchell et al., 1997:866). Donnaldson and Preston (1995:67) argue that “Stakeholders are persons or groups with legitimate interests in procedural and/or substantive aspects of corporate activity”. The identification of the major stakeholders has been laid out in Section 8.1. A further analysis of their legitimate power or interest will be displayed in this section.

8.3.1 Involvement of Stakeholders in Making Training Objectives

A descriptive analysis demonstrates the collective perspective of the stakeholder groups which is based on the individual’s experience in China’s overseas management development activities. Among the major five stakeholders the training organiser is considered to be the most powerful party in deciding the objectives, with 59.4% of the respondents perceiving it to have a role and the Chinese government training department is perceived to have influence by 33.1%. Interestingly trainees’ organisation and training institutions in host countries are considered to have influence by similar proportions of respondents (15.3% and 14.6% respectively), whereas the trainees are perceived to have influence on objectives by only 3.6%. The other parties mentioned only take 1.3% which can be neglected. However there are quite a percentage of respondents (13.3%) who respond that they are not aware of who is involved in making decision on training objectives.

In order to establish whether the major stakeholder groups share the same or similar opinions about influence over objective-making some further analysis was carried out. Firstly, the ANOVA analysis shows the significant differences ($p \leq 0.05$) in variable of training department, training organiser, trainees and don’t know. Next, a breakdown exploration of the perspectives of each stakeholder in Table 8.14 provides details of those differences.

Table 8.14 The Power Distribution of Stakeholders in Deciding Training Objectives from Perspective of Questionnaire Respondents

Who Decide Training Objectives?	Collective Perspective		Perspectives from Respondents of Different Stakeholder Groups							
			Trainees		Ex-trainee		Training Department		Training Institution	
	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
Training Department in China	102	33.1	24	25.3	34	28.3	23	51.1	21	43.8
Training Organiser in China	183	59.4	53	55.8	74	61.7	43	95.6	13	27.1
Trainees' Organisation	47	15.3	12	12.6	17	14.2	10	22.2	8	16.7
UK Training Institution	45	14.6	10	10.5	19	15.8	4	8.9	12	25.0
Trainees and Ex-trainees	11	3.6	-	-	2	1.7	2	4.4	7	14.6
Others	4	1.3	1	1.1	1	0.8	-	-	2	4.2
Don't Know	41	13.3	13	13.7	13	10.8	-	-	15	31.3

Note: The total respondents = 308

(Some respondents gave more than one answers)

Both trainees and ex-trainees rate the influence of 'training department' as low as 25.3% and 28.3% respectively, but rate the involvement of 'training organiser' higher (44.2% and 61.7% respectively), matching the collective perspective. In contrast, the respondents from UK training institutions think Chinese 'training departments' are involved more than the 'training organisers' (training department: 43.8%; training organiser: 27.1%). However, respondents from training departments/organisations rate 'training organiser' much higher than the average (95.6%), which is followed by 51.5% of rating for 'training department'.

The other interesting finding is that the respondents from UK training institutions rate the influence of 'training institution' and 'trainees' higher than the average. On the other hand the trainees and ex-trainees consider they hardly have any say in influencing objectives making (rate 0% and 1.7%). Another striking contrast is responses of 'don't know'. No single respondent from China's training departments/organisations chose 'don't know' while 31.3% of respondents from UK training institution express they have no idea about who make the training objectives. This raises the question of communications between China's training departments/organisers and UK training institutions.

Table 8.15 shows the analysis of variables on which these training objectives are perceived to be based. 'Job requirement' is cited by the highest number of respondents (46.1%). The next most frequently cited factor is the 'local government development strategy' (43.5%). These are then followed by the factors of human resource development strategy of trainees' organisation (14.9%) and individual needs (8.1%). Nevertheless about 18% of respondents don't know what the objectives are based on. They are mostly respondents from training institutions (number 23: 47.9%), and followed by trainees (18:18.9%), and ex-trainees (15:12.5%). The percentage adds to more than 100% the respondents could give more than one answers.

Table 8.15 The Elements on Which the Training Objectives are Based Perceived by Questionnaire Respondents

Elements	Frequency	Percent of Questionnaire Respondents
China's National Five-Year Plan	29	9.4
Local Government Development Strategy	134	43.5
Organisational HRD Strategy	46	14.9
Job Requirement	142	46.1
Individual Needs	25	8.1
Others	5	1.6
Don't Know	56	18.2

Note: The total respondents=308
(Some respondents gave more than one answers)

The above questions are not designed to be applied to ex-trainees' supervisors because both their organisation and themselves are not involved in training design. However a general question is asked in an attempt to get their opinion about whether the particular training their subordinates attended met their organisational needs. The result of analysis has demonstrated that 55% of the respondents hold a positive perspective while 17.5% suggest that the training does not comply with their organisational needs. In addition, 27.5% of them reserve their opinion in the middle way, which means neither too positive nor too negative.

8.3.2 Trainees' Selection

The analysis of trainees' selection demonstrated a different perceived power distribution than that for the training objective-making (see Table 8.16). Firstly, from the aggregate perspective the 'training organiser' is still considered to be the most powerful party in the process of trainees' selection (54.9%). It is then followed by 'trainees' organisation' (44.3%). The next two most influential stakeholders are the 'training department' in China (24.1%) and 'training institution' (17.8%). As often the case the 'trainees' have, as perceived by the questionnaire respondents, hardly any participation in the selection process (5.5%). About 7.8% of respondents claim that they have no knowledge about who is involved in trainees' selection. The other party's involvement can be neglected in this case as it is only cited by 0.3%.

A breakdown study comparing the viewpoint of different stakeholders has been carried out to follow up the significant findings in ANOVA analysis. The differences of perceptions from different responding groups are shown in Table 8.16. Firstly the respondents from UK training institutions give a low rating to the influence by ‘training organiser in China’ (14.6%) but rate the involvement of ‘training department’ higher (35.4%). Secondly, a big gap remains in rating the involvement of ‘trainees’ organisation’ in trainees’ selection between the respondents from training departments/organisers (77.8%) and ex-trainees’ supervisors (17.5%). Likewise a striking difference exists in rating the influence of ‘training institutions’ between the respondents of trainees (1.1%) and ex-trainees’ supervisors (95%). This could be interpreted as showing that ex-trainees’ supervisors observe little involvement of their organisations in trainees’ selection and they consider training institutions to be influential in trainee’s selection. In contrast trainees’ experience of this is very different. Moreover the analysis shows that 37.5% of the respondents from Training Institutions do not know who is involved in trainees’ selection whereas none of the respondents from Training Department tick the item “Don’t Know”. This raises the question of why the respondents from these groups have such different opinions about influence over trainees’ selection.

The criteria for trainees’ selection as rated by questionnaire respondents are shown in Table 8.17. The surveyed respondents rate ‘seniority’ most frequently with 78.4%. ‘Age’ is the second most frequently cited criterion (62%), which is set in the range between 25~55 years old (Jiang, 2002). It can be further specified according to the nature of training. For example, for medium-and-long-term training and degree study it is regulated that the trainees’ age should be within the range of 30~45 (Jiang, 2002). The next most frequently cited criterion is ‘foreign language level’ (60.1%). This is compulsory when the training is delivered in English particularly for medium-and-long-term training or degree study. Trainees’ educational background is cited by 55.5%, which is slightly less than the others. 13.2% of the respondents claim that they are not clear about the criteria for trainees’ selection; these are mostly trainees’ and those from UK training institutions. The percentage adds to more than 100% because the respondents could give more than one answers.

Table 8.16 The Power Distribution of Stakeholders in Trainees' Selection

Who Involved in Trainees' Selection?	Collective Perspective		Perspectives from Respondents of Different Stakeholder Groups									
			Trainees		Ex-trainee		Training Department/ Organiser		Training Institutions		Ex-trainees' Supervisors	
	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
Training Department in China	84	24.1	19	20.0	21	17.5	7	15.6	17	35.4	20	50.0
Training Organiser in China	191	54.9	56	58.9	73	60.8	25	55.6	7	14.6	30	75.0
Trainees' Organisation	154	44.3	35	36.8	61	50.8	35	77.8	16	33.3	7	17.5
UK Training Institution	62	17.8	1	1.1	11	9.2	7	15.6	5	10.4	38	95
Trainees	19	5.5	-	-	-	-	-	-	4	8.3	15	37
Others	1	0.3	-	-	1	0.8	-	-	-	-	-	-
Don't Know	27	7.8	6	6.3	2	1.7	-	-	18	37.5	1	2.5

Note: The total respondents=348

(Some respondents gave more than one answers)

Table 8.17 Criteria for Trainees' Selection

Criteria	Frequency	Percent of Questionnaire Respondents
Seniority	273	78.4
Age	215	62.0
Foreign Language Level	209	60.1
Educational Background	193	55.5
Don't Know	46	13.2
Others	8	0.2

Note: The total respondents=348
(Some respondents gave more than one answers)

8.3.3 Decision on Subject Matter and Design of Delivery

Subject matter and delivery are two important elements in the process of management training and education. It is therefore necessary to understand who is involved in deciding these and to what degree. Table 8.18 and 8.19 demonstrate the perceived contribution of stakeholders to subject matters of training as well as contents and methods of delivery.

Table 8.18 A Distribution of Stakeholders' Involvement in Deciding Subject Matters of Management Training

Subject Matter	Frequency	Percent of Questionnaire Respondents
Training Department in China	107	34.7
Training Organiser in China	183	59.4
Trainees' Organisation	42	13.6
UK Training Institution	67	21.8
Trainees	13	4.2
Others	5	1.6
Don't Know	27	8.8

Similar to the situation in setting training objectives, the training organiser in China is equally perceived to have the most power (59.4%) while the Chinese training department is perceived to play the next most important role (34.7%). The other parties are perceived to have less influence in choosing subject matter. 21.8% of respondents believe that the 'training institutions' are involved in the choice of subject matters while 13.6% of respondents consider 'trainees' organisation' are involved and only 4.2% believe 'trainees' have influence over subject matter. Among the 308 respondents 8.8% of them perceive that they do not know who decides the subject matter for China's overseas management training. The analysis of the responses of ex-trainees' supervisors has disclosed very different result compared with the other four stakeholders. Most of the respondents (75%) do not know who choses the subject matter for training while only 25% of them think the training department in China (17.5%) and Chinese training organiser (7.5%) are involved in choosing the training subject matter.

Table 8.19 A Distribution of Stakeholders' Involvement in Designing Contents and Methods of Delivery

Delivery: Contents and Methods	Frequency	Percent of Questionnaire Respondents
Training Department in China	102	33.1
Training Organiser in China	124	40.3
Trainees' Organisation	32	10.4
UK Training Institution	162	52.6
Trainees	11	3.6
Others	5	1.6
Don't Know	35	11.4

Note: The total respondents=308
(Some respondents gave more than one answers)

The analysis of the power of stakeholders over designing training content and delivery methods has revealed some difference from the analysis on subject matter. Training institutions are perceived to have the most power in regard to design of delivery (cited by 52.6%). This is then followed by training organiser (cited by 40.3%) and training department (cited by 33.1%). As in the case of subject matter, trainees' organisation and trainees have the least influence on the design of delivery, cited by 10.4% and 3.6% of respondents respectively. 11.4% of the respondents are not aware of who has power over the design of delivery.

8.4 SUMMARY OF CHAPTER 8

Based on stakeholder theory, five major stakeholder groups are clearly defined, who have direct involvement in China's overseas management training activities. They are training departments/organisers in China, training institutions outside China, trainees, ex-trainees, and ex-trainees supervisors. The attributes of the survey respondents from the major stakeholders are analysed by their age, organisational sector, job role, and educational background. Three phases of overseas training have been initiated by the Chinese government since China implemented economic reform. This study focuses on the period of 2000~2004 in the third phase of managerial training and development starting from 1996. Hundreds and thousands of Chinese managers are sent by their provincial government and organisation to advanced and developed countries, particularly Western countries, to take less than one month to a year and plus training courses or degree studies. These managers are mostly in the age of 30-45 and well educated. The majority of them are middle and senior managers or professionals in government organisations, public services, and enterprises. The analysis also shows that in the UK most of the training is delivered by educational institutions.

Next, the characteristics of training were discussed by analysing survey respondents and internal documents. China's overseas management training is normally taken in groups rather than individually trained. The trend is towards more medium-term training for its cost-effective value and the most popular subjects of training are public administration, business management, human resource management, economics, and finance. The training experienced by the respondents includes not only classroom teaching but also other forms like seminars, company visits and work experience in the host countries. The majority of the respondents took training in the UK institutions due to the focus of this research. It is found that the UK training institutions and the surveyed staff and lecturers had fewer years involvement in China's overseas management training than China's training departments/organisers and the respondents from this group.

The findings reveal that training departments/organisers are perceived by the stakeholders to have the biggest influence on training development, e.g., training objectives, subject matters, trainees' selection, while training institutions are perceived to have less influence and the least influential groups are perceived to be trainees, and trainees' organisations. Training objectives are largely based on local government development strategy and job requirement according to analysis of the responses to the questionnaire survey. The analysis also shows the criteria of trainees' selection is perceived to consist of seniority, age, foreign language level, educational background. Moreover different perceptions and understandings about the above subjects are found between stakeholder groups. For example, different stakeholders respond quite differently about who decides on training objectives, particularly to the 'training departments', and 'training organisers'. The respondents from UK training institutions consider trainees and ex-trainees have more say in objective making than the other groups. On the other hand ex-trainees' supervisors observe less involvement of their organisations in trainees' selection than the other groups. Many of the respondents from UK training institutions do not know who is involved in making training objectives, or trainees' selection and what the criteria are.

CHAPTER 9
TRAINING EFFECTIVENESS:
LEARNING AND TRANSFER OF KNOWLEDGE

9.0 PREAMBLE

This chapter reveals findings generated from the survey instrument which aim to achieve two objectives: (1) to critically examine the effectiveness of China's overseas management training programmes for management development; and (2) to identify the key factors which influence the effectiveness of China's overseas management training and development. The analytical work is based on both quantitative data derived from the questionnaire survey and qualitative data collected from the interviews. These two types of data triangulate and supplement each other and the findings are presented around the five research questions defined in Chapter 5. Mean test, cross-tabulation analysis and uni-variant ANOVA tests are the major methods for quantitative data analysis, whereas categorising themes and narrative descriptions are used for analysing qualitative information from interviews. Moreover the tabulation for each of these questions is carried out to triangulate the perspectives of the major stakeholders defined in Chapter 8. They are trainees, ex-trainees, China's training departments/organisers, UK training institutions, and ex-trainees' supervisors. The inclusion of different stakeholders in respect to individual questions is decided by the extent of the involvement of each stakeholder in the training process.

The structure of Chapter 9 is as follows. Section 9.1 addresses the research question 1(a): how do different stakeholders perceive the learning outcomes of Chinese managers? Section 9.2 discusses the research question 1 (b): What are the perceived impacts of overseas management training and development by the major stakeholders? They are guided by objective 1. Section 9.3 and 9.4 refer to research objective 2 by answering the research question 2 (c): 'What are the key factors affecting the effectiveness of Chinese managers learning in overseas training?' and the research question 2 (d): 'What are the key factors affecting Chinese managers' application of learning to workplace?' separately. The last section 9.5 summarises Chapter 9.

9.1 EVALUATION OF LEARNING EFFECTIVENESS

RESEARCH QUESTION 1a: HOW DO DIFFERENT STAKEHOLDERS PERCEIVE THE LEARNING OUTCOMES OF CHINESE MANAGERS?

The exploration of this research question provides multi-faceted results. Firstly, it illustrates the extent to which the designed objectives of training have been achieved in the learning phase. Secondly, different viewpoints are demonstrated among the stakeholders, which enables triangulation of the same question between different groups. Learning outcomes are evaluated by the measurements related to the issue of learning. They are objectives, pre-training preparation, instruction, management practices, business and social activities, and other services.

9.1.1 Total Quality Assessment of Training Delivery

9.1.1.1 Quantitative data analysis

To assess the overall quality it is essential to clarify the criteria on which the designed training objectives are based. Table 9.1 provides a glossary of categories for the evaluation of the quality of training delivery defined according to the result of research phase I.

Table 9.1 Glossary of Defined Categories for the Evaluation of Learning Effectiveness of Chinese Managers in the Host Country

Instruction—refers to the teaching and learning activities occurring during the period of delivery phase that covers subject matter, contents/materials, methods of delivery and other matters in relation to instruction. **Work practice and on-site visits**—includes the visits to local organisations and work experience of Chinese managers in the host country relevant to the training and development purposes. **Business discussion and cultural exchange**—implies any activities involving professional/ business discussion as well as cultural exchange between Chinese managers and people in the host country in both a structured and unstructured way. **Other services**—covers all facilitations provided to trainees to ensure their effective learning such as transport, accommodation, environment, and language support.

The participants from the four groups rate the quality of training delivery in terms of the four categories. The 5-point Likert scale is designed as below.

1—Excellent

2—Very Good

3—Good

4—Fair

5—Poor

Firstly, mean test has shown (see Table 9.2) that the assessment of quality of training delivery by the four groups is between very good and good (between mean 2 ~ 3). Among the four items, ‘instruction’ is most satisfactory, while the business discussion/cultural exchange is least satisfactory (mean 2.26: instruction, 2.52: on-site visits, 2.68: business discuss/cultural exchange, and 2.48: other services). Secondly, cross-tabulation mean test of the four groups for the quality of training delivery and ANOVA analysis demonstrates the different perceptions between groups. For example, a further look at the mean score by each group against every item illustrates that the respondents from the training institution give the lowest mean scores for most of the items except ‘practice/on-site visits’ (see Table 9.2). Likewise negative mean differences with significant values are identified between the training institution group and the other three groups in terms of ‘instruction’ (-0.379, -0.271, and –0.399), ‘business discussion/cultural exchange’ (-0.627, -0.479, and –0.618), and ‘other services’ (-0.309, -0.339, and –0.392) (see Table 9.3). This means that the respondents from UK training institutions hold a more positive opinion of the delivery than the other three groups for most of the items except practice/onsite visits. Thirdly, as shown in Table 9.2 the ex-trainees’ group has the most positive views of ‘work practice/on-site visits’ (mean 2.40), in contrast, the trainees’ group has the most negative opinion about ‘practice /on-site visits’ (mean 2.67) and ‘business discussion and cultural exchange (mean 2.83). This result has supported and supplemented the finding in section 8.2.3 that there was a decrease in the method of delivery ‘work practice/on-site visits’ in the year of 2003 and 2004.

Table 9.2 The Perceived Quality of Training Delivery by Stakeholders

Items	Total		Trainees		Ex-trainees		Training department		Training institution	
	Mean	**No**	**Mean**	**No**	**Mean**	**No**	**Mean**	**No**	**Mean**	**No**
Instruction	2.26	308	2.36	95	2.25	120	2.38	45	1.98	48
On-site visits	2.52	298	2.67	95	2.40	120	2.42	45	2.61	38
Business discussion/ cultural exchange	2.68	304	2.83	95	2.68	120	2.82	45	2.20	44
Other services	2.48	303	2.49	95	2.53	120	2.58	45	2.19	43

Table 9.3 The Comparison of Mean Differences about the Quality of Training Delivery Perceived by Stakeholders

Dependent variable (rating)	(I) Group	(J) Group	Mean difference (I~J)
Instruction	Training institution	Trainees Ex-trainees Training department	-.379* -.271* -.399*
Business discussion/cultural exchange	Training institution	Trainees Ex-trainees Training department	-.627* -.479* -.618*
Other services	Training institution	Trainees Ex-trainees Training department	-.309 -.339* -.392

* The mean difference is significant at the 0.5 level.
* Minus mean difference shows positive result of the tested variable, while positive mean difference shows negative result of the tested variable in this rating standard.

9.1.1.2 Qualitative data analysis

The results from the interviews have firstly revealed critical opinions of trainees and ex-trainees about the content of instruction, quality of teaching, and the attitudes of lecturers. The interviews support the questionnaire findings and help to explain the mean differences. Some of the quotations are listed below:

"I think classroom teaching takes too much of our training. The lecturers keep on talking pure theory and that gives little help in solving our managerial problems at work. ….” (Ex-trainees, 2003)

“Some of them (the lecturers) are not committed to teaching, which we can see from their attitude, preparation of lectures and handouts. In most cases we still feel ‘thirsty’ after class.” (Trainees 2004)

“I find some lecturers are reluctant to communicate with us either during the teaching or after class.” (Ex-trainees, 2001)

On the other hand, the interviews with respondents of UK training institutions show contradictory results. For example, the majority of them believe that they have tried their best to deliver quality teaching according to the requirements of the training organisers in China. They suppose that most of the trainees are satisfied with their instruction.

“They are very polite and work hard. I enjoy teaching them. It seems to me that most of the trainees like to attend my class. However, I find some trainees have too high and unrealistic expectations.” (Lecturer)

Next it has been found from interviews that the organisation of practical activities remains problematic. Firstly, Chinese managers and Chinese training organisers value highly management practice and business discussions whilst the interviewees from training institutions claim it is more difficult to arrange these activities than to provide classroom teaching. Secondly, some activities organised are not satisfactory to the perspectives of trainees and ex-trainees due to the resource constraints of training institutions and the host countries. It is a concern of Chinese training managers and officials that an unsuccessful visit or experience could convey biased information and mislead to conceptualisation of what they have learnt. Thirdly, the individuals of a training group usually have different interests in visiting local organisations in the host country because they have a different wish to visit different organisations.

Critical opinions are found from interviewing Chinese training managers, trainees and ex-trainees in terms of services provided by training institutions, such as accommodation, transport, and health care. The following comments are listed to illustrate the problem areas:

"Apart from delivering teaching and other professional activities, we expect training institutions to provide a good service for delegates' daily life such as accommodation and transportation. But some training institutions did not abide by the agreement, instead they "discount the living condition and services during training".

(one Chinese training manager)

"There was no public transport service where we lived. We had to rely on the training organiser to arrange transport for us to go out, which constrained our activities. In most of time we stayed in our apartments…We felt very frustrated." (trainees 2004)

"...The host institution did not know our culture and customs, so our needs were sometimes regarded as 'unreasonable requirements', or to be considered too demanding...They were very slow to respond to our urgent requests." (ex-trainees, 2003)

On the other hand, several interviewed training managers from UK training institutions said they had provided the best conditions for Chinese managers possible within the budget, which was really 'tight'. Quite a number of them mentioned that they had to deal with many uncertainties of receiving a training delegation such as arriving date, number of people.

Nevertheless positive viewpoints are found in relation to cultural exchange and experience, particularly from trainees and ex-trainees. These broaden managers' learning by helping them to understand the context of the host country, helping trainees' to reflect their learning in another culture, promoting mutual understanding and teaching and learning with lecturers and local people. Some comments are exampled below:

"Through cultural visits we experienced various aspects of British society which cover infrastructure such as transportation, communication, townscape and building, and tourism and services as well as humanity and culture such as environment, history, geography and arts" (ex-trainees 2002)

“I spend some time mixing with the local community, participating in activities. I should say I’ve learnt a lot of what local people do, for example the awareness of environment protection of citizens. I find there are many excellent values and traditions worth us learning from and accept”. (Trainees 2004)

“Having being exposed to the new culture, the Chinese managers learnt about Western history, culture and civilization. The acquired knowledge helps them to understand fundamentally the constitution of the British political system, government structure and Western market economy”. (Chinese training manager)

“I’ve enjoyed working with Chinese managers, through whom I get to know something about real life in China, their culture and customs...” (lecturer)

9.1.2 Suitability of Delivery Methods and Course Contents

9.1.2.1 Quantitative data analysis

Two attitudinal questions listed below are designed to measure the suitability of methods of delivery and course contents. The participants are asked to give rating in 7 scales from 1—strongly agree to 7—disagree.

Statement 1 Overall, the delivery methods were appropriate to meet course objectives.

Statement 2 Most of the courses should be modified to ensure a better application to the client organisation.

As shown in Table 9.4 the mean test demonstrates that the aggregate rates Statement 1 on scale 3 which is approaching to ‘strongly agree’, whereas rates for Statement 2 are closer to the side of ‘strongly agree’ (3.97). Breakdown analysis by groups shows that the respondents from training institutions are most in agreement with the two Statements (mean 1.98, 3.79) while the training department group is least in agreement. Further ANOVA analysis by post-hock comparisons using the Turkey HSD identifies significant negative mean differences between the training institution and the other three groups (training department: -1.243; trainees: -1.116; and ex-trainees: -0.854) (see Table 9.5). This supports the result of mean test that the training institution group holds the most positive viewpoints about the suitability of delivery methods to the objectives of program. On the other hand no significant differences are found between groups in relation to Statement 2, which could be interpreted as showing that respondents from the four groups share a similar opinion that courses need to be improved to ensure better application to trainees' organisations (see Table 9.4).

Table 9.4 Perceived Suitability of Delivery Methods and Program Contents by the Stakeholders

Items	Total		Trainees		Ex-trainees		Training department		Training institution	
	Mean	**No**	**Mean**	**No**	**Mean**	**No**	**Mean**	**No**	**Mean**	**No**
Delivery methods	2.84	308	3.09	95	2.83	120	3.22	45	1.98	48
Course Contents	3.97	303	3.98	95	3.98	120	4.07	45	3.79	43

Table 9.5 Comparisons of the Perceptions about Suitability of Delivery Methods to Course Objectives among the Stakeholders

Dependent variable (rating)	(I) Group	(J) Group	Mean difference (I~J)
Delivery methods were appropriate to meet course objectives	Training institution	Trainees Ex-trainees Training department	-.1.116* -.854* -1.243*

* The mean difference is significant at the .05 level
* Minus mean difference shows positive result of the tested variable in this rating standard.

9.1.2.2 Qualitative data analysis

The interviews show that Chinese managers are mostly concerned about the relevance of the course content to their work and method of delivery while the interviewees from training institutions only emphasise the issue of method of delivery. This result is different from the findings of questionnaire survey. For example, one ex-trainee commented that some lecturers did not consider the special identity of Chinese students but delivered training in the way that they would normally teach their domestic students. Likewise some interviewed lecturers feel a challenge in teaching a class with a mixture of Chinese managers and British students. "I find in some situations Chinese students expected to get the 'right' answer, although I tell them there is no simple solution to it. It appears that some managers from China don't appreciate the importance of business rules, norms and ethics in the UK", said one lecturer.

9.1.3 Meeting with the Objectives

9.1.3.1 Quantitative data analysis

The success of management training depends greatly on whether the programmes delivered are meeting with the needs of the organisations and the individuals. According to the result of research phase I the objectives of China's overseas management training intervention are classified into three as below:

Designed Objectives—the objectives stated in the protocol or agreement between overseas training institution and training organiser in China.

Trainees' Organisational Objectives—the objectives of the organisation in which the trainees work for.

Individual Objectives—the objectives of Chinese managers who participate training, which in turn determined by individual needs and expectations.

The participants are asked to give their opinions about the following three statements:

Statement 1 Overall, the courses were consistent with designed objectives

Statement 2 Overall, the courses were consistent with client organisational objectives

Statement 3 Overall, the courses were consistent with individual needs and objectives

The measures use 7-point Likert scale from 1 (strongly agree) to 7 (disagree). Table 9.6 demonstrates both the total mean scores and the individual mean scores in terms of the three levels.

Table 9.6 The Perceptions of Stakeholders about Meeting with the Objectives

Meeting with objectives	Total		Trainees		Ex-trainees		Training department		Training institution	
	Mean	No	Mean	No	Mean	No	Mean	No	Mean	No
Designed objectives	3.05	302	3.27	95	3.14	120	3.27	45	2.07	42
Trainees' organisational objectives	3.33	291	3.55	95	3.41	120	3.44	45	2.19	42
Trainees' objectives	3.26	298	3.38	95	3.28	120	3.51	45	2.58	38

The mean test shows that the aggregate thinks that the courses meet most with designed objectives (3.05), next with trainees' objectives (3.26), but least meet with the trainees' organisational objectives (3.33) (see Table 9.6). It also shows that trainees', ex-trainees' and training department groups share similar opinions about courses meeting with the three objectives. In contrast the respondents from training institutions have the most positive opinion about meeting the objectives of the three levels (2.07, 2.19, and 2.58). Furthermore, ANOVA test has identified significant negative mean differences between the training institution group and the other three groups for all three items, which validates the results of the mean test. As seen in Table 9.7 most of the mean differences are over 1.0 and the rest are approaching 1.0, except the mean difference between training institutions and ex-trainees about 'courses consistent with trainees' objectives'. This means that the respondents from training institutions are most positive about meeting with objectives at the three levels.

Table 9.7 Comparisons of the Perceptions of Stakeholders about Courses Meeting with Objectives

Dependent variable	(I) Group	(J) Group	Mean difference (I~J)
Courses consistent with designed objectives	Training institution	Trainees Ex-trainees Training department	-1.202* -1.070* -1.195*
Courses consistent With trainees' organisational objectives	Training institution	Trainees Ex-trainees Training department	-1.354* -1.215* -1.251*
Courses consistent with trainees' objectives	Training institution	Trainees Ex-trainees Training department	-.800* -.696* -.932*

* The mean difference is significant at the 0.5 level.
* Minus mean difference shows positive result of the tested variable, while positive mean difference shows negative result of the tested variable in this rating standard.

9.1.3.2 Qualitative data analysis

However the findings from interviewing show a different picture from the result above. The interviews show that the UK training institutions do not actually know what objectives they are supposed to be achieving rather than that they don't think they achieve them. Therefore the findings from the qualitative data analysis contradict the results of quantitative analysis, with regard to the positive viewpoints of meeting with objectives at the three levels.

Quite a few training managers in the UK training institutions complained that they receive vague outlines of objectives of particular training programmes defined in the agreement between training organisers in China and training providers abroad. They doubted whether the training organiser in China was clear about the resource of the host country in terms of the training subject in most cases. They also expressed the view that specific objectives and requirements were needed in order to provide the right programmes for trainees. One of the training managers from a UK training institution suggested: "...Proper communication prior to the delivery would be helpful for us to understand the needs of individuals and their organisations apart from the requirements written on the agreement". However, in practice he found it difficult to establish a smooth dialogue with China's training departments. "We had no idea about the trainees' background such as, who they are, what about their organisation, what they want to learn…"

One lecturer also complained: "Very often I am not sure what students have been promised prior to the lecture. There is an issue about knowing what is really required. Sometimes I could not get a clear picture of the requirement and even the dates of teaching well in advance".

However interviews with training managers and officials from China's training departments/organisers only reveal the macro aim of overseas management training. It seems they are not clear about the objectives of individuals and their organisations. For example, one of the senior officials in the State Training Department commented: "The competition of 21st Century is the competition of talent. After entering the World Trade Organisation, China has been pushed into the centre of the international market. We face the challenge of how to change the function of government from controlling to servicing. In this aspect, some government organisations from developed countries such as America, UK, and Germany have operated for years in a market economy and have matured experiences and lessons that we can learn from". Most of the interviewed Chinese managers feel that training courses are too general but not designed to meet their needs.

9.1.4 Pre-Course Preparation

9.1.4.1 Quantitative data analysis

The questionnaire respondents are asked whether they have provided or received pre-course instruction or briefing prior to training. The cross-tabulation analysis of the four groups has revealed that the majority of the respondents (72.4%, 218 out of 301) claim they have received or provided pre-course instruction/briefing (see Table 9.8). The highest percentage among the four groups is the training department, which reaches 86.7% while the lowest group is ex-trainees (68.3%). This means that pre-course introduction or briefing is widely used from the experiences of the four groups.

Table 9.8 Investigation of Pre-course Instruction/Briefing to the Four Groups

Pre-course instruction/ briefing		**Total**	**Trainees**	**Ex-trainees**	**Training department**	**Training institution**
No	No. %	83 27.6	28 29.5	38 31.7	6 13.3	11 26.8
Yes	No. %	218 72.4	67 70.5	82 68.3	39 86.7	30 73.2
Total	No. %	95 100	120 100	45 100	41 100	301 100

9.1.4.2 Qualitative data analysis

Furthermore an open-ended question is asked ‘what is the main content of pre-training instruction?’ The responses classify pre-course instruction/briefing into four major areas as follows.

Political issues refers to educating trainees to abide by series rules and regulations in relation to overseas training such as political point of view, foreign affair disciplines, and security and safety rules.

Host country is to provide Chinese managers with background information on the country where the training takes place, for instance, politics, economy, social situation, and culture and traditions.

Subject knowledge includes introduction of basic theory of the subject that will be taught and studied in management training.

Foreign language training aims to improve trainees’ foreign language ability and skills that will be used as a language in management training.

The frequencies of the use of these four items in the descending order are as follows: political issue (42.9%), briefing of host country (30.5%), foreign language (22.7%) and subject knowledge (21.4%). This implies that the political issue the most common content. Subject knowledge and foreign language are least common from the experience of the questionnaire respondents.

It is also found out that there are two types of pre-training preparation: (a) pre-departure training, which takes place in the trainees' home country and is normally arranged by the training organiser in China; (b) pre-course induction which is usually delivered in the training institution abroad. Quite a number of interviewed trainees and ex-trainees suggested that both pre-departure training and pre-course induction were too simple and short, and did not provide them with enough information about programmes. Several interviewees were critical of the training institutions in terms of pre-course induction. One of them said: "We received very little information from the university before the courses started. We experienced confusion about courses for the first month." Several interviewed trainees mentioned their difficulties in accommodation and living. "I wish I could have got information from the training providers beforehand so I could avoid meeting so many difficulties in studying and living here (UK)", said one of the trainees. It is therefore concluded that the pre-course preparation has been revealed to be problematic.

9.2 EVALUATION OF THE EFFECTIVENESS OF TRANSFER OF LEARNING

RESEARCH QUESTIONS 1.b WHAT ARE THE PERCEIVED AND OBSERVABLE CHANGES IN BEHAVIOUR AND PERFORMANCE OF CHINESE MANAGERS AFTER OVERSEAS MANAGEMENT TRAINING

To answer the above research question it is primarily important to find out whether any changes occur to Chinese managers and to their work after taking management training in Western countries, and secondly to explore what these changes are and their impacts. The questionnaire survey looks at the first question by enquiring whether there are perceived changes in behaviour and performance of ex-trainees whereas interviews aim to fulfil the second task.

9.2.1 Perceived Changes in Behaviour and Performance-Quantitative Data Analysis

This question targets three groups of respondents: trainees, ex-trainees and ex-trainees' supervisors.

9.2.1.1 Changes in behaviour and performance

The results demonstrate that all three groups perceive changes in behaviour and performance result after overseas training. More respondents of supervisors observe positive changes in performance (65%) than in behaviour (47.5%) (see Table 9.9) while trainees and ex-trainees perceive more positive changes in behaviour (mean 2.0) than in performance (mean 2.84) (see Table 9.10). This could be explained by the different focus of changes between ex-trainees' supervisors and trainees and ex-trainees.

The reason for inviting the opinions of trainees about changes in performance is to explore the attitudinal differences of trainees and ex-trainees in two phases of the training processes. The analysis shows that ex-trainees seem to be more positive than trainees in perceiving changes in behaviour (1.96: 2.06), but less positive about changes in performance (2.87: 2.79) (see Table 9.10). This could be interpreted as showing that trainees hold a more optimistic attitude about the expected performance improvement than ex-trainees perhaps because they haven't encountered the real situation of applying new knowledge to their work that ex-trainees have experienced.

Table 9.9 Perceived Changes of Ex-trainees in Behaviour and Performance after Their training Abroad by Ex-trainees' Supervisor

	Behaviour change		**Performance change**	
	Number (No.)	Percent (%)	Number (No.)	Percent (%)
Positive	19	47.5	26	65.0
Negative	3	7.5	14	35.0
Not clear	18	45.0	-	-
Total	40	100.0	40	100.0

Table 9.10 Perceived Changes in Behaviour and Performance by Trainees' and Ex-trainees' Group

Group	**Mean test**	**Open views & Change perceptions**	**Assignment achievement**
Total	Mean	2.00	2.84
	No	215	190
Trainees	Mean	2.06	2.79
	No	95	70
Ex-trainees	Mean	1.96	2.87
	No	120	120

9.2.1.2 Time span of changes observed by ex-trainees' supervisors

As pointed out by some authors, the timing of measurement of changes in behaviour and performance of individuals and its impact on the company is crucial (refer to Section 3.3). The study of ex-trainees' supervisors was included in this research to collect their observed time span for those changes. The analysis shows below that the behaviour changes are observed to take place between 6-18 months after training whilst the changes in performance occur more than one year after the trainees come back from training and normally after 19 months.

(a) Time of changes in behaviour

The analysis showed that most of the interviewed supervisors (57.5%) claimed that changes in behaviour took place between 6 months and 18 months while only 17.5% perceived changes in behaviour of individuals occurred within 6 months (refer to Table 9.11). This could suggest that the behaviour of individuals after training usually took several months to change.

Table 9.11 Time Spans of Changes of Trainees' in Behaviour

	Time	Frequency	Percent
Valid	1-6 months	7	17.5
	7-12 months	12	30.0
	13-18 months	11	27.5
	≥19 months	2	5.0
	total	32	80.0
Missing		8	20.0
Total		40	100.

(b) Time of changes in performance

As illustrated in Table 9.12, 57.5% of supervisors perceived that the performance changes of trainees' organisations occurred mostly after 19 months of individuals came back to their work, whilst 30% of the interviewed supervisors considered that changes were observed between 13 and 18 months. Unlike the study of the behavioural change of trainees there were no changes perceived in performance within 12 months of the trainees returning back to their work. This meant that the time spans were longer to demonstrate the impact of management training on trainees' performance than on the behavioural changes of individuals.

Table 9.12 Time Spans of Changes of Trainees' in Performance

	Time	Frequency	Percent
Valid	13-18 months	12	30.0
	≥19 months	23	57.5
	total	35	87.5
Missing		5	12.5
Total		40	100.

9.2.2 The Impacts of Overseas Management Training-Qualitative Data Analysis

The interviews with trainees, ex-trainees, China's training departments/organisers as well as the ex-trainees' supervisors provide rich information about the impacts of overseas training. The interviews with trainees have shown changes in trainees' mindsets rather than a direct impact on their performance.

The findings are grouped into four categories of impact as below:

Talent benefit refers to developing middle and senior managers both in public services, industrials and commercial business. One interviewed official from China's training department stated managers have attained new knowledge and skills, developed ability and competence, and changed concepts and way of thinking. The improvement of ex-trainees' competences are demonstrated at different organisational sectors: (a) ability in decision-making of the leaders in governing party and government organisations, (b) managerial skills of senior managers of enterprises, and (c) innovative capability of professionals. Having been exposed to Western culture and society, Chinese managers have experienced different values, norms, customs and ways of thinking. They have learned to look at things from a global perspective and they are more tolerant of the diversity of cultures. One ex-trainee commented that he was more confident to embrace changes and challenge. "The process of applying new learning to work is a process of improving and developing". Several ex-trainees' supervisors also suggested that the most obvious achievement of their managers after overseas training was the attainment of new knowledge and scientific managerial skills. Secondly their ability to analyse and solve problems at work had been improved. Thirdly they were more motivated and creative. Fourthly they became more foreign-orientated with fluent foreign language ability and intercultural communication. Lastly they were politically matured and more committed to the socialist route with Chinese characteristics. However, as agreed by most of the interviewees the results in most cases could not be 'measured by figures' or seen in the short-term.

Economic benefit implies the process of positive transfer of learning and the impact on the economic development of trainees' organisations, cities and provinces. Comparing with other benefits it is more tangible, measurable and can be seen in the short-term. Some interviewed supervisors considered overseas management training a 'wise, effective and high return on investment' intervention. It promotes innovation in institutional structures and management systems to facilitate local economy and business. It also helps to develop a market economy and foreign-oriented business that stimulates China's post WTO implementation and globalisation. One supervisor gave an example that his subordinate brought new ideas to the institutional reform. "xxx came back with very constructive suggestions about how to survive in competition, how to develop our company, as well as the methods we can borrow from developed countries. We've recognised that there are limited resources, but infinite creation". Some ex-trainees commented that after training they could analyse the nature from facts and source the principle from successful practices, so as to find ways to catch up with the developed countries. "We can learn to improve the service of Chinese government organisers from British government structure and functioning. We can also draw lessons from the mistakes Westerns have made", said one ex-trainees. It is noticed that some managers have contributed to their organisations by using their foreign languages and global vision, which promotes foreign-oriented economic development.

Social benefit includes changes of notion about governmental department functioning, service oriented public administration, and various initiatives of social development projects. The interviews have shown examples of setting up an E-Government website, and establishing an "anti-corruption web", which increased the transparency of government service and promoted the construction of integrity government. Some other cases are mentioned by the interviewees of the awareness of environment protection, communication of ancient city preservation and education, which promotes healthy growth of China's economy and social development.

Openness benefit implies conceptual changes of Chinese managers and the efforts made by them to bridge China and the West and to promote friendship between their peoples. The promotion of China to the Western countries and vice verse leads to a better understanding of the diversity of the global world as well as to establish smooth communication with the rest of the world. Some interviewees called trainees “friendship ambassadors”. “Some trainees used the chance to publicise China in host countries by organising activities such as ‘Cultural Festivals’, and ‘Investment Environment Weeks’ to introduce their cities and provinces. Some trainees participated in activities of the local community and charity. For instance, the trainees in Canterbury New Zealand acted as volunteers in International Handicapped Wheelchair Sports”, said one training manager. One ex-trainee suggested that interacting with the local community had multi-faceted benefits and commented: “More people in the host countries know about China and it counteracts the biased information from local media. As a consequence, foreign friends and companies come and visit my city and new links have been established. The friendship flowers have born fruits”.

Apart from the positive impacts above some negative responses are collected from the interviews particularly with trainees, ex-trainees and supervisors. The negative views from ex-trainees and trainees are summarised as: considering training not beneficial to management reality but as ‘gold-coated’, that it is difficult to use their learning, and that promotion is unsatisfactory. Criticisms are also heard from ex-trainees’ supervisors, for example, that there is no significant positive change in the subordinates, and managers are too idealistic and dogmatic in copying the ‘Western way’, which could sometimes lead to disagreements with other colleagues. One supervisor commented that his subordinate did bring new concepts and become more ambitious. But some ideas were not realistic to apply to their business reality. “We believe in harmony of the working environment. So I have to balance between the traditional management style which has been accepted and innovation brought in by the manager (ex-trainee) based on Western management theory”, said one supervisor.

9.3 FACTORS AFFECTING LEARNING

RESEARCH QUESTION 2.c WHAT ARE THE KEY FACTORS AFFECTING THE EFFECTIVENESS OF CHINESE MANAGERS’ LEARNING IN OVERSEAS MANAGEMENT TRAINING

This question is explored by three methods. Firstly, four pre-determined questions are used to test attitudes of the questionnaire respondents and are analysed as quantitative data in SPSS. Secondly an open-ended question is used in the questionnaire survey to identify the key factors. Secondly, information from interviews is categorised and coded. They are analysed separately. Factors emerging from the open-ended question and interviews with the four groups are then clustered to generate key factors and sub-factors which influence the effectiveness of learning. In addition the interviews provide details about contents of these identified factors. Four stakeholders are invited to answer this question; they are trainees, ex-trainees, training departments/organisers, and training institutions. Since the results of the attitudinal test confirms the findings of the open-ended question the analytical work is not presented in this thesis.

9.3.1 Analysis of Open-Ended Question

Seventeen themes emerged from the open-ended question, among which eight themes comply with the factors generated from the pre-determined attitudinal test. This provides broader themes and contents of the factors affecting learning. A list of these factors is presented in Table 9.13.

Mean test has demonstrated statistically that 'language' is most frequently cited, followed by 'delivery', and 'programme design'. The least frequently cited factors are 'concept', 'management', and 'assessment/evaluation' (see Table 9.14). Moreover the cross-tabulation and ANOVA test also reveal multilateral differentiations between the aggregate and the individual stakeholders as well as among the stakeholders with regard to their perceptions about the importance of these factors (see Table 9.15). Firstly, the groups of training institutions and trainees' are found to be less focused on the factors of 'practice/on-site visits', whereas the groups of ex-trainees' and training departments/organisers are the opposite by emphasising 'practice/on-site visits'. Secondly, compared with other groups it appears the training institution group have less awareness of the factors 'programme design', and 'living', whilst having more recognition of the factors of 'pre-course preparation', 'individual', 'group', 'objective/needs', and 'context/backgrounds'. By contrast the representatives from training departments/ organisers has less emphasis on 'objectives/needs', and 'context/backgrounds'. In addition this group is least aware of the factor 'culture' among the stakeholders. Thirdly, it has been found that ex-trainees' group prioritises 'evaluation' more than other groups.

Table 9.13 A Glossary of Factors Affecting Learning of Chinese Managers Generated from Open-ended Question

	Factor	Contents
Themes comply with pre-determined attitudinal questions	Language	Foreign language barrier, translation
	Culture	Cultural difference, cross-cultural impact, cultural visits
	Delivery	Contents, methods, quality of teaching, attitude of lecturer
	Practice/On-Site Visits	Work replacement, business visits,
	Facilitation/Services	Support for trainees' learning, services in living
	Pre-Course Preparation	Pre-course induction, cross-cultural training,
	Living	Accommodation, environment
	Assessment/Evaluat-ion	Assessment of learning outcomes, evaluation of delivery
Themes emerging from open-ended question	Objectives/Needs	Objectives of training, organisational needs, individual needs
	Communication	Communication skills with local people, students, lecturers, ability of intercultural communication
	Individual	Background, attitude, learning style, incentive, experiences
	Group	Unity, discipline, differentiation of needs, leadership
	Time/Budget	Availability of time and budget
	Context/Background	Space, Political system, Social structure, economic development
	Concept	Conception, notion, way of thinking, perception
	Management	Operat, cooperation, schedule, communication, commitment

Last but not least, the breakdown analysis of the years spanning from 2000~2004 when training takes place shows that the managers who took training in the period of 2000~2003 (ex-trainees) prioritised the factor 'practice/on-site visits' more than those who took training in 2004 (trainees). This may reflect the decrease of practice/on-site visits by the training providers previously discussed (see section 8.2.3 and 9.1.1.1). It might also be possible that UK training institutions place less emphasis on 'practice/on-site visits' than the training providers in other host countries surveyed.

Table 9.14 Ranking of the Factors Affecting Learning Effectiveness from Collective Perspective and Individual Viewpoint of the Stakeholder Groups

Series No.	Factors	Count/ Percent	Total	Trainees	Ex-trainees	Training Department	Training Institution
1	Language	No. %	253 82.1	82 86.3	97 80.8	33 73.3	41 85.4
2	Delivery	No. %	215 69.8	65 68.4	94 78.3	28 62.2	28 58.3
3	Programme Design	No. %	188 61.0	57 60.0	77 64.2	36 80.0	18 37.5
4	Culture	No. %	151 49.0	49 51.6	66 55.0	6 13.3	30 62.5
5	Communi-cation	No. %	145 47.1	45 47.4	54 45.0	20 44.4	26 54.2
6	Practice/On-Site Visits	No. %	133 43.2	21 22.1	86 71.7	22 48.9	4 8.3
7	Living	No. %	99 32.1	30 31.6	46 38.3	19 42.2	4 8.3
8	Pre-Training Preparation	No. %	87 28.2	24 25.3	27 22.5	9 20.0	27 56.3
9	Individual	No. %	85 27.6	25 26.3	22 18.3	12 26.7	26 54.2
10	Objectives/ Needs	No. %	83 26.9	8 8.4	29 24.2	5 11.1	41 85.4
11	Facilitation/ Services	No. %	81 26.3	11 11.6	37 30.8	20 44.4	13 27.1
12	Group	No. %	76 24.7	14 14.7	31 25.8	6 13.3	25 52.1
13	Time/ Budget	No. %	75 24.4	16 16.8	32 26.7	8 17.8	19 39.6
14	Context/ Background	No. %	71 23.1	11 11.6	35 29.2	0 0	25 52.1
15	Concept	No. %	48 15.6	16 16.8	17 14.2	0 0	15 31.3
16	Management	No. %	42 13.6	7 7.4	21 17.5	8 17.8	6 12.5
17	Assessment/ Evaluation	No. %	30 9.7	6 6.3	22 18.3	0 0	2 4.2

Table 9.15 Comparisons of Factors Affecting Learning by Stakeholders

Dependent variable	(I) Group	(J) Group	Mean difference (I~J)
Pre-training preparation	Training institution	Trainees Ex-trainees Training department	.310* .338* .363*
Programme design	Training institution	Trainees Ex-trainees Training department	-.225* -.267* -.425*
Practice/on-site visits	Trainees	Ex-trainees Training department Training institution	-.496* -.268* .138
	Ex-trainees	Trainees Training department Training institution	.496* .228* .633*
	Training institution	Trainees Ex-trainees Training department	-.138 -.633* -.406*
Culture	Training department	Trainees Ex-trainees Training institution	-.382* -.417* -.492*
Living	Training institution	Trainees Ex-trainees Training department	-.232* -.300* -.339*
Individual	Training institution	Trainees Ex-trainees Training department	.279* .358* .275*
Group	Training institution	Trainees Ex-trainees Training department	.373* .263* .388*
Context/backgrounds	Training department	Trainees Ex-trainees Training institution	-.116 -.292* -.521*
	Training institution	Trainees Ex-trainees Training department	.405* .229* .521*
Objectives/needs	Training department	Trainees Ex-trainees Training institution	.027 -.131 -.743*
	Training institution	Trainees Ex-trainees Training department	.770* .613* .743*
Evaluation	Ex-trainees	Trainees Training department Training institution	.120* .183* .142*

* The mean difference is significant at the 0.5 level.
* Minus mean difference shows negative result of the tested variable while positive mean difference shows positive result in this rating standard.

9.3.2 Findings from Interviews

The factors emerging from the interview mostly match the factors from the open-ended question with the exception of the factors ‘context/background’, and ‘communication’, which are not mentioned. The interviewing also explores in-depth the contents of the factors which affect the effectiveness of learning. Table 9.16 provides the abstract of interviewing with the four stakeholder groups about the factors affecting learning.

Table 9.16 Abstract of Contents of Interviews with the four Stakeholders of Factors Affecting Learning

Factor	Abstract of Contents from Interviewing
Language	**Foreign language barrier**: Language competence of trainees, ability of using foreign languages **Quality of translation**: effective language skills and familiarity with business management i.e., inefficient knowledge attainment, difficulties in discussion and communication with lecturers and classmates, information loss in learning via translation.
Delivery	**Subject matter and contents**: suitability and applicability of courses **Quality of instruction**: ability to relate concepts to Chinese environment and culture, empathy and enthusiasm of lecturers, teaching methods and style, communication skills with trainees limited i.e., Pure Western theories, particularly those not linked with business reality and not applicable to China’s context are not popular, limited resource and lack of commitment of training providers result in poorly prepared instruction
Practice/on-site visits	**Resource of training provider and the host country**: availability of providing management practices and appropriate case studies, commitment of training provider and local business to have proactive discussion with Chinese managers
Facilitation/ services	**Learning support**: quality learning infrastructure and learning support by training institution, support from trainees’ organisation **Non-academic support**: accommodation, travel arrangement and other social activities i.e., language support, assistance in information access, commitment of training institution and peer support, allocation of non-class independent studies, introduction of Western business norms and culture, response to trainees’ feedback, environment to communicate with lecturers and students from other cultural background
Individual	**Attitude**: willingness to learn, self-efficacy, motivates to learn, realistic expectation to learning and teaching **Characteristics**: learning style, openness and adaptation to new learning environment and method **Qualification**: background of education and work, previous experience of overseas experience, pre-knowledge of training subjects i.e., enthusiasm of trainees in class, understanding the context behind Western management principles, flexibility of students, ability to connect theory to Chinese business practices, self management such as time management and information access

Group	**Interests within group**: difficult to meet the needs of every body in a group, characteristic of individual **Organisation of group**: unity and discipline, cooperation and harmony, competence and leadership style of group leader i.e., group diversity in organisation sectors, seniority, age, job role and ability and style of learning
Culture	**Cultural difference**: between Chinese managers and training providers **Cultural shock**: conceptual conflicts with local people due to different cultural background and political and social system i.e., impact on understanding of lecturing, knowledge acquisition, interaction with local people, psychological well-being such as feel lonely
Programme design	**Arrangement of programmes**: organisation of courses, schedule and timing i.e., courses are not evenly distributed, sometimes too intensive, no time for reflection or digesting, sometimes too short and relaxed; too much classroom teaching, not enough company visits, work practice, and other cultural exchange and social activities; sometimes no consideration for trainees' special needs and customs in timetable arrangement such as jet lag
Objectives/ needs	**Objectives**: designed objectives, trainees' and their organisational objectives **Needs**: individual needs and expectations i.e., training providers are sometimes not clear about the objectives before delivering. No detailed learning objectives and courses are not clearly linked to organisational and personal objectives, there remain differences between designed objectives and trainees' expectation
Management	**Competence and responsibility** of training managers and staff both in China and in overseas training institution, **Mechanism** of management development system in China **Trainees' selection**: criteria and operation of candidates screening i.e., policy and procedures of overseas management training, triangulation of communications with overseas training institution and trainees and trainees' organisations
Living	**Living conditions and environment**: living standard, location and accessibility to public transport and city centre **Customs**: food and drink, ethics, interpersonal relationship
Pre-course preparation	**Pre-course training and induction**: pre-knowledge of training subject, contents, technical and professional terms relate to training subjects, to clarify learning objectives, introduction of background information of host country
Time/budget	**Availability of time and budget for training**: matching training objectives with time and budget available i.e., not able to meet trainees' requirements due to the limitation of time and budget, too tight budget to organise training activities, too short time for adapting to the study in new culture
Concept	**Conceptual differences**: between Chinese managers and lecturers, staff, local people and students from other cultures, way of thinking **Notion**: acceptability to the notion of Western management theory, knowledge **Perceptions**: way of thinking and doing managerial work
Assessment/ evaluation	**Assessment criterion** agreed by the major stakeholder for evaluation of learning outcomes and quality of delivery

The interviews not only extend the contents of the factors but also provide full descriptions and explanations, thus they greatly enrich the findings of the quantitative analysis. For example, the content ‘custom’ emerges in addition to ‘living conditions and environment’ for the factor ‘living’. For the factor ‘facilitation/services’ learning support is defined as learning infrastructure and support by training provider, as well as trainees’ organisations.

9.3.3 Classification of Key Factors and Sub-Factors Affecting Learning

The classifying of the key factors is carried out in two steps. Firstly the themes generated from the interviews with four groups are clustered (see Table 9.17).

Table 9.17 Classification of Key and Sub Factors Affecting Learning by Clustering Themes Emerged from Interviews and Open-ended questions

Key/ Sub Factors	Open-ended question	Interviews			
		Trainees	Ex-trainees	Training department	Training institution
key	1. Language	√	√	√	√
key	2. Delivery	√	√		√
key	3.Programme design	√	√	√	√
key	4. Culture	√	√	√	√
key	5. Communication				
sub	6. Practice/on-site visits		√		√
key	7. Living	√		√	√
key	8.Pre-training preparation	√	√		√
key	9. Individual	√	√	√	√
key	10. Objectives/needs	√	√		√
sub	11. Facilitation/services	√	√	√	
sub	12. Group	√	√		√
sub	13. Time/budget	√			√
sub	14. Context/background				
sub	15. Concept	√	√		
sub	16. Management		√	√	
sub	17.Assessment/ evaluation	√	√		

Ten themes agreed by at least three groups are chosen. These factors are then clustered with the top 10 factors from the open-ended questions rated by the aggregate analysed in Table 9.14. Adjustment is made to add ‘communication’ based on the fact that it is rated fifth by the aggregate in the questionnaire survey. In addition it is found out that the theme ‘communication’ appears within other factors, e.g., ‘language (communication)’ by re-checking the interview result. Finally nine themes are induced, which are regarded as the key factors affecting learning; they are language, delivery, programme design, culture, communication, individual, living, pre-training preparation, and objectives/needs. The other eight themes are classified as sub-factors: practice/on-site visits, facilitation/services, communication, group, time/budget, concept, management, context/background, and assessment/evaluation. Table 9.17 shows the classification of key factors and sub factors which influence learning.

9.4 FACTORS AFFECTING TRANSFER OF LEARNING

RESEARCH QUESTION 2.d WHAT ARE THE KEY FACTORS AFFECTING CHINESE MANAGERS APPLICATION OF LEARNING TO WORKPLACE ?

The study of this research question is based on two data sources: (1) the open-ended question in the questionnaire survey and, (2) semi-structured interviews. Factors emerging from the open-ended question and interviews with the four groups are then clustered to generate key factors and sub-factors which influence the effective transfer of learning. In addition the interviews provide details about these identified factors. Similar to Section 9.2 four stakeholders are invited to answer this question; they are trainees, ex-trainees, training departments/organisations, and ex-trainees' supervisors, which fits into the feature of subject under investigation (see Section 9.2). The qualitative data from the open-ended questions are quantified and analysed in SPSS. Likewise the information from interviews is categorised and coded in the same system to facilitate in-depth exploration of the factors.

9.4.1 Findings from Open-Ended Question

The analysis of the open-ended questions is based on the previous literature (Baldwin and Ford, 1988; Ford and Weissbein, 1997; Huczynski and Lewis, 1980; Burke and Baldwin, 1999; Kim, 2004; Cromwell and Kolb, 2004) reviewed in Section 2.2.5 (see Table 2.2). However the results refine the categories in Table 2.2 into six categories, under which seventeen factors are identified. Table 9.18 provides a glossary of these factors.

Table 9.18 A Glossary of Factors Affecting Transfer of Learning Identified by Open Ended Questionnaire

Context	Environment	Society, background, condition, resources
	System	Political and social infrastructure, legislation, level of economic development, mechanism of management development
Work environment	Organisational climate	Hardware: institutional structure, mechanism for transfer, rules and regulations, Software: perception of training by bosses and colleagues, commitment for training transfer, Reaction: cooperative and supportive actions of bosses and colleagues
	Development process	Management development strategy, plans and implementation
	Management	Management style, business operation
	Time/budget	Time to practice learnt theory, financial support for experimental and innovative initiatives
Training process	Objectives/needs	Targets to be achieved, training needs identification in different levels
	Training design	Subject matter, contents, method of delivery, sourcing the institution
	Quality of delivery	Subject knowledge of lecturer, attitude of lecturer, awareness of cultural diversity, facilitation outside classroom
	Learning outcomes	The extent of achieving learning objectives
	Pre-course preparation	Induction of courses and other arrangements, cross-cultural training
	Post-training facilitation	Retention of learning, coaching, re-entry training programme, supportive strategy for transfer
	Practice	Opportunity to apply new learning, visits and work replacement to local companies, willingness to use or accept a trial of knowledge, skills from training
	Knowledge transferability	Applicability of knowledge and skills of host country to home country
Individual characteristics	Trainee's characteristics	Motivation to transfer, job role and self-efficacy, ability and competence, career expectation, emotional quotient
Evaluation	Criteria/method	criterion for assessing behaviour and performance change agreed by the major stakeholders involved, methods of evaluation and timeframe, management of information exchange
Cross-cultural impact	Cultural difference	National culture, organisational culture, concept, value and norms.

Table 9.19 Ranking of the Factors Affecting Transfer of Learning from Collective Perspective and Individual Viewpoint of the Stakeholder Groups

Series No.	Factors	Count/ Percent	Total	Trainees	Ex-trainees	Training Department	Supervisor
1	Organisational climate	No. %	224 74.4	77 81.1	100 83.3	30 66.7	17 41.5
2	Environment	No. %	216 71.8	70 73.7	96 80.0	26 57.8	24 58.5
3	System	No. %	185 61.5	49 51.6	78 65.0	28 62.2	30 73.2
4	Trainees' characteristics	No. %	178 59.1	62 65.3	78 65.0	19 42.2	19 46.3
5	Cultural difference	No. %	145 48.2	49 51.6	67 55.8	10 22.2	19 46.3
6	Knowledge transferability	No. %	138 45.8	31 32.6	58 48.3	23 51.1	26 63.4
7	Practice	No. %	120 39.9	27 28.4	54 45.0	15 33.3	24 58.5
8	Training design	No. %	114 37.9	48 50.5	39 32.5	7 15.6	20 48.8
9	Objectives/ needs	No. %	112 37.2	32 33.7	52 43.3	2 4.4	26 63.4
10	Development process	No. %	95 31.6	25 26.3	46 38.3	4 8.9	20 48.8
11	Time/budget	No. %	76 25.2	14 14.7	18 15.0	23 51.1	21 51.2
12	Evaluation criteria/ methods	No. %	69 22.9	4 4.2	43 35.8	0 0	22 53.7
13	Post training facilitation	No. %	66 21.9	3 3.2	47 39.2	4 8.9	29 70.7
14	Learning outcomes	No. %	64 21.3	17 17.9	29 24.2	4 8.9	14 34.1
15	Quality of delivery	No. %	58 19.3	23 24.2	22 18.3	4 8.9	9 22.0
16	Management	No. %	35 11.6	3 3.2	12 10.0	0 0	20 48.8
17	Pre-training preparation	No. %	15 5.0	2 2.1	13 10.8	0 0	0 0

Table 9.20 Comparison of Factors Affecting Transfer of Learning by Stakeholders

Dependent variable	(I) Group	(J) Group	Mean difference (I~J)
Environment	Ex-trainees	Trainees Training department Ex-trainees' supervisors	.063 .222* .215*
Organisational climate	Ex-trainees' supervisors	Trainees Ex-trainees Training department	-.396* -.419* -.252*
Development process	Training department	Trainees Ex-trainees Ex-trainees' supervisors	-.174 -.294* -.399*
	Ex-trainees' supervisors	Trainees Ex-trainees Training department	.225* .104 .399*
Training design	Trainees	Ex-trainees Training department Ex-trainees' supervisors	.180* .350* .017
	Training department	Trainees Ex-trainees Ex-trainees' supervisors	-.350* -.169 -.332*
Post-training facilitation	Trainees	Ex-trainees Training department Ex-trainees' supervisors	-.360* -.057 -.261*
	Ex-trainees	Trainees Training department Ex-trainees' supervisors	.360* .303* .099
Evaluation	Training department	Trainees Ex-trainees Ex-trainees' supervisors	-.042 -.358* -.537*
	Ex-trainees' supervisors	Trainees Ex-trainees Training department	.494* .178* .537*
Culture	Training department	Trainees Ex-trainees Ex-trainees' supervisors	-.294* -.336* -.241
Objectives/ needs	Training department	Trainees Ex-trainees Ex-trainees' supervisors	-.292* -.389* -.590*
	Ex-trainees' supervisors	Trainees Ex-trainees Training department	.297* .201 .590*

* The mean difference is significant at the 0.5 level.
* Minus mean difference shows negative result of the tested variable while positive mean difference shows positive result in this rating standard.

The cross-tabulation test (see Table 9.19) ranks the frequencies of the seventeen factors affecting transfer of learning by the aggregate as well as by individual groups. The respondents from the ex-trainees' supervisors group have most cognition of factors affecting transfer of learning, followed by ex-trainees' and trainees' groups, while the training department group shows least cognition of the factors. Different perspectives about prioritising the factors have been found among the four groups. Moreover, ANOVA analysis (see Table 9.20) reveals significant differences between groups about some factors. Firstly, significant positive and negative mean differences between the groups of training departments/organisers and ex-trainees supervisors and the other groups show that ex-trainees' supervisors have more recognition on the factors 'development process', 'objectives/needs', and 'evaluation'. By contrast the respondents from training departments/organiser have less awareness of these factors. Secondly, supervisors' group shows less awareness of the factor 'organisational climate', while training departments/organisers' group has less recognition of the factor 'culture' which is similar to the result in factors affecting learning. Thirdly, the trainees' group appears to have less awareness of the factor 'post-training facilitation', whilst the analysis of the ex-trainees' group shows the opposite result. In addition the respondents from the ex-trainees group have more recognition of the factor 'environment'.

9.4.2 Findings from Interviews

Compared with the findings from the open-ended question (see Table 9.18), the interviews reveal more detailed information about these factors (see Table 9.21). For example, the interviews with ex-trainees' supervisors suggest the contextual differences between China and host countries that affect transfer of learning are such as industrial structures, natural resources and human capital, market drivers and humanitarian environment. Similarly, interviews with trainees suggest that the category of context not only includes social background, condition and resources as identified in questionnaire survey, but also that conception and perception of people are influenced by different environments which are underpinned by their national cultures and tradition. The factor 'environment', therefore, could include 'soft environment' which is intangible or invisible.

Most of the interviewees emphasise relevance and applicability of knowledge and skills learnt abroad to China's context and organisational management system. Some interviewees argue that Western management theories and models cannot be copied to their organisations without modification. For instance several interviewed ex-trainees commented that it was not feasible to apply Western systems and formated management modes into the Chinese dynamic environment. The added detail in relation to ‘evaluation’ and ‘post-training facilitation’ is valuable, that new themes are identified under the category ‘evaluation’ and ‘post-training facilitation’, such as ‘follow-up and generalisation of training achievement and application’, and ‘discussion of business reality with lecturers’. Moreover, two new factors emerge which enrich the understanding of the category of ‘work environment’. The factor ‘support of local government’ is identified beyond the organisational boundary. On the other hand the emerging of the factor ‘policy and strategy of management development’ provides empirical support to the research by Mabey and Thomson (2000) regarding the effectiveness of management development activities and strategies.

Table 9.21 Abstract of Contents of Interviews with the Four Stakeholders on Factors Affecting Transfer of Learning

Categories	Factors	Abstract of Contents from Interviewing
Context	**Environment**	Difference of national context of home country and host country such as political, economic and cultural differences; Imbalance and backwardness of China’s social and economic development in comparison with host country; Differences in fundamental conditions and societal needs between China and host country; Macro policy of Chinese government; Industrial regulations relevant to ex-trainees’ career sector; Conditions to facilitate transfer of Western knowledge to China such as level of economic development, notion and ethic of society; Different resources and needs of society across countries; Constrained conception and perception of people by national cultural and traditions
	System	Differences between China and host countries in political and social system, legislation and institutional structure; Different situations between China and host countries in the structure of economic development, supply and demand, as well as natural and human resources Mechanism of management development and facilities for knowledge transfer from the Western

	Organisational climate	Mechanism of organisation to facilitate knowledge transfer and innovation; Organisational policy and regulations to support knowledge transfer; Platform for using new knowledge learnt abroad; Recognition, and acceptance of the knowledge ex-trainees learnt abroad by ex-trainees' organisation and clients; Trust and empowerment from top management for innovation by using Western model; Support from bosses and colleagues for trial and application of new methods of management; Openness of management team and employees to new ideas, and Western models
Work environment	**Support of local government***	Recognition of the value of management learning and achievement of ex-trainees' learning abroad by Chinese government departments and officials; Support from central and local governments to the new ideas, suggestions and innovation proposed by ex-trainees
	Management	Differences between Chinese organisations and those in host countries in management structure, mode, and style such as dynamic management and formated management style; Differences of organisational behaviour between Chinese organisations and host country organisations in democratic atmosphere, employees' behaviour, such as parental management style vs. individualism; Differences between Chinese organisations and host countries' in the customer relationship management and market operation
	Time/budget	Investment and resource to support innovation based on ex-trainees' learning and application; Funding and time allocated for a trial of introducing the new methods from learning abroad; Commercialised training practice
	Policy and strategy*	Management development policy and use of talent, such as to include overseas management training into managers' career profile for assessment, appointment and promotion by the Party's Personnel Department and governmental human resource department; Strategy of management development, such as the role of human resource development in organisational development and talent policy; Policy and measures to make best use of talent and overseas management development
	Development process	Talent needs analysis in difference levels such as regional talent needs and organisational needs; Role change of training department from process implementation to macro-management and guidance with focus in the research of overseas management development activities

Training process	**Objectives/ needs**	Organic combination of the objectives of talent development of regional government and party's with trainees' organisational needs and individual needs; Policy, criteria and methods for trainees' selection, designed objectives of training programme; Setting up clear objectives of overseas management training among the major stakeholders involved
	Training design	Selection of training providers with the appropriate resource; Design of instruction such as subject matter, contents, methods of delivery; Relevance of case study and on-site visits and work practice; A shift of management training from group training to individual training abroad to cultivate trainees' independent work and living experiences in new environment; Focus and relevance of training subject and contents to trainees' work
	Learning outcomes	Outcomes in the attainment of new knowledge, managerial skills, foreign language ability, and intercultural communication; Achievement in management practice and business exchanges with local organisations such as experiences of Western management operation, networking, and post business development
	Post-training facilitation	Connection with lecturers and possibility to discuss business reality with lecturers and experts in host country; To provide supportive strategy measures in mentoring and coaching for ex-trainees; To facilitate ex-trainees to combine Western management theories to organisational practices and publicise their learning such as seminar and forum
	Practice	Persuasion to bosses and colleagues of benefits and practicality of 'borrowing' Western method; Opportunity to apply new knowledge; Flexibility of using Western management models with consideration of China's context; Effectiveness of visits, work practice and business discussion with local organisations in host country
	Knowledge transferability	Relevance of subjects and contents of overseas management training to Chinese organisations as well as to ex-trainees' work place; Applicability of delivered knowledge to Chinese context and Chinese organisational environment; Suitability of Western management theories for ex-trainees' organisations in time and space
Individual characteristics	**Trainee's characteristics**	Cognition of the importance of learning abroad; Understanding and assimilation of new knowledge; Effort in learning and competence of applying learning to workplace; Reflection of Western theories to work practice;

		Impact of training on ex-trainees' behaviour and performance such as changes in conception and perception; Position and responsibility of ex-trainees in organisation; Insistence and enthusiasm of ex-trainees to the application of learning; Motivation to transfer such as self-efficacy, career expectation, and emotional quotient
Evaluation	**Criteria/ method**	Criteria and methods of assessing performance achievements, behaviour changes; Follow-up and generalisation of training achievement and application; Research and practices in evaluation of development activities such as return on investment, quantitative and qualitative assessment, and stakeholders evaluation
Cross-cultural impact	**Cultural difference**	Difference of cultural background and values between host country and home country; characteristics of organisational cultures; Difference of societal culture such as values, believing, norms; Difference of management culture of Chinese organisation; Degree of understanding the links of Western management and traditions and culture; Ability to use foreign language at work; Conceptual difference of employees in Chinese organisations and host country Integration of Western management model with organisational culture such as corperates' traditions, norms, as well as employees' believing, feeling, value, and self-identity

* Factors emerged from interviews

9.4.3 Classification of Key Factors and Sub-Factors Affecting Learning

The classifying of the key factors is carried out in two steps. Firstly the themes generated from the interviews with four groups are clustered. As shown in Table 9.22 most of the themes are agreed by three or more groups except evaluation, post training facilitation, learning outcomes, quality of delivery, pre-training preparation, and support of local government. These are then clustered with the top 10 factors from the open-ended questions as rated by the aggregate. Adjustment is made to add 'support of local government' as the majority of the interviewed groups suggest it. Finally eleven themes are identified, which are regarded as the key factors affecting transfer of learning; they are organisational climate, environment, system, trainees' characteristics, cultural difference, knowledge transferability, practice, training design, objectives/needs, support of local government, and development process. The other eight themes are classified as sub-factors including the newly emerged themes from the interviews.

Table 9.22 Classification of Key and Sub Factors Affecting Transfer of Learning by Clustering Themes Emerged from Interviews and Open-Ended Question

Key/ Sub Factors	Open-ended question	Interviews			
		Trainees	Ex-trainees	Training department/ organiser	Ex-trainees' supervisor
key	Organisational climate	√	√	√	√
key	Environment	√	√	√	√
key	System	√	√	√	√
key	Trainees' characteristics	√	√	√	√
key	Culture	√	√		√
key	Knowledge transferability	√	√		√
key	Practice	√	√		√
key	Training design	√	√	√	
key	Objectives/needs	√	√	√	√
key	Development process	√	√		√
sub	Time/budget	√		√	
sub	Evaluation			√	√
sub	Post training facilitation		√		√
sub	Learning outcomes				√
sub	Quality of delivery				
sub	Management	√	√		√
sub	Pre-training preparation	√	√		
Newly emerged factors from interviews					
sub	Policy and strategy		√	√	
key	Support of local government	√	√		√

9.5 SUMMARY OF CHAPTER 9

This chapter conducts a critical evaluation of the effectiveness of China's overseas management training programmes by cross-tabulating the perspectives of the major stakeholders involved in the process of training and development. The results show different viewpoints and arguments between groups, which necessitates the exploration of the problems. Firstly, meeting with the objectives at three levels appears most problematic. The respondents from training institutions are least clear about details of the objectives but are most positive that the training programmes are consistent with the objectives among the groups. Trainees' organisational objectives are perceived to be least met followed by trainees' objectives. Next the assessment of training delivery, methods, and course contents, and services of the training institution reveals that the training institution group is also most satisfied with the quality of training programmes. The evidence from interviews suggests that somewhere in the process an obstacle exists preventing training institutions understanding what the real needs are, or the training institutions have different criteria for evaluation. Thirdly, the Chinese stakeholders emphasise managerial activities, business discussions and cultural experience in host country, whilst the UK training institutions focus on classroom teaching. On the other hand pre-training preparation for the trainees is found not to be properly designed both by China's training departments/organisers and UK training institutions influencing effective learning.

The evaluation of transfer of learning seems more positive than learning. Firstly, positive changes in behaviour and performance of ex-trainees are observed by trainees and ex-trainees as well as ex-trainees' supervisors, with a different focus and to a different extent by individual groups. For example, supervisors have more recognition of performance change, while ex-trainees consider more changes in behaviour than performance. Secondly most of the surveyed ex-trainees' supervisors observe changes of their subordinates in behaviour between 6~18 months, whilst in performance between 12-19 months after training. Thirdly, these changes and impacts are exhibited in four ways as follows with Chinese characteristics: (a) Talent benefit refers to the development of Chinese managers' in management knowledge and skills, mindset, ability, competence, and political mature; (b) Economic benefit refers to impact on the economic development of trainees' organisations, regions, and the country; (c) Social benefit refers to the impact on public services and social development; (d) Openness benefit refers to conceptual changes of Chinese managers and influence on the societies of West and China. Fourthly, the findings also show some negative impacts exampled by trainees, ex-trainees, and supervisors. For example a few managers are disappointed about not being promoted. On the other hand the supervisors find some ideas are not realistic and conflict remains between Western management theory and Chinese tradition.

The exploration of factors affecting effectiveness of training identifies the key factors and sub factors in learning and transfer of learning. However the results reveal differences in prioritising these factors by individual groups. In addition different awareness of these factors are identified between groups. For instance training departments/organisers' group prioritises the factors 'programme design', and ‘time/budget’, but is less aware of the factor ‘culture’, ‘development process’, and ‘objectives/needs’. On the other hand trainees, ex-trainees, and training institutions prioritise the factor ‘culture’. Ex-trainees’ supervisors appear to have more recognition of the factors affecting transfer of learning, particularly ‘objectives/need’, evaluation’, and ‘development process’. Moreover the interviews provide in-depth descriptive information of these factors, for example, suitability and applicability of delivered Western management theories to Chinese organisers and context (knowledge transferability); commitment and availability of training providers and host organisers to provide management practices for Chinese management (practice/on-site visits); difference of cultural background and values between host country and home country, and conceptual difference of employees in Chinese organisers and host organisations (cross-cultural impact).

CHAPTER 10
TRAINING EVALUATION AND CULTURAL IMPACT

10.0 PREAMBLE

Nearly half a decade has passed since Kirkpatrick developed the model of four levels of training evaluation. A number of researchers and practitioners have contributed to this area and a variety of new models and frameworks have emerged. However evaluation in reality is still dominated by Kirkpatrick's model and it rarely gets beyond the first level 'smile sheet', trainees' reactions (Nickols, 2005; Dixon, 1996; Tamkin *et al*., 2002; Salas and Cannon-Bowers, 2001). As pointed out by some authors evaluation of training is easier said than done. As a result there are a limited number of empirical studies for training evaluation. There is even less research work on the evaluation of training in cross-cultural settings.

This chapter is to provide empirical evidence of the evaluation of management training in cross-cultural context. It aims to meet the third and fourth objectives of this research: <u>(3) to critically examine the evaluation practice of China's overseas management training and to establish methods for training evaluation; and (4) to explore the cross-cultural impact on China's overseas management training and development.</u> Chapter 10 is structured as follows. Section 10.1 and 10.2 seek to answer research questions 3(e) and 3(f) which are developed under objective 3 (see section 5.5). The research question 4(g) developed under objective 4 (see section 5.5) is addressed in section 10.3. Section 10.4 concludes this chapter. These questions are answered mainly by questionnaire survey, although interviews are also included where appropriate. The opinions of the major stakeholders are invited; they are trainees, ex-trainees, training departments/organisers in China, training institutions in the UK, and ex-trainees' supervisors.

10.1 PRACTICES AND COGNITIONS OF THE MAJOR STAKEHOLDERS IN RELATION TO TRAINING EVALUATION

RESEARCH QUESTION 3.e: IS THERE A SYSTEMATIC APPROACH TO THE EVALUATION OF CHINA'S OVERSEAS MANAGEMENT TRAINING AND DEVELOPMENT?

The theory of the stakeholder (Donnaldson and Preston, 1995, Freeman, 1984, Greenwood, 2001, Vartiainen, 2003) has provided a methodological and philosophical lens for training evaluation with the participation of relevant stakeholders. The nature of stakeholder evaluation is to collect multiple data from stakeholders and make reliable analysis of the phenomena. This question is studied from several aspects. Firstly it looks at whether the evaluation, to the knowledge of the respondents, has been included in the training process and what the perceptions of the major stakeholders are of the need for evaluation. Two sub-questions are developed (sub-question 1 and 2). Secondly it explores whether individual stakeholders have different purposes of evaluation by using sub-question 3. Thirdly it investigates the responsibility and perceived role of the major stakeholders in training evaluation by asking sub-question 4. Lastly the barriers for training evaluation and features of training interventions in a cross-cultural context are discussed, by asking sub-questions (5) and (6).

10.1.1 Findings from Questionnaire Survey

10.1.1.1 Sub-question (1) Has evaluation of training programmes been included in China' s overseas management training and development?

Sub-question (2) Do you think the evaluation of training programmes should be included in the process of management training and development?

The pre-designed answers are: 'yes', 'no', and 'don't know'. As shown in Table 10.1 the results of the first question suggest that less than half of the total respondents are aware of any evaluation activity (47.3%). Of the five groups, ex-trainees supervisors are least aware of training evaluation with 46.3% of respondents giving a 'don't know' answer and few observing activities of evaluation at the organisational level (19.5%). In contrast the training departments/organisers' group is most aware of the extent of evaluation practices with no respondents ticking 'don't know', but less than half of the participants think evaluation has been included in the process of overseas management training and development (44.4%). On the other hand evaluation is recognised by half and more than half of the respondents from training institutions (50%) and trainees (61.1%). This means evaluation is mostly adopted in the training institution.

Table 10.1 Sub-question (1) Has evaluation of training programmes been included in China's overseas management development process?

Groups \ Variables		No	Yes	Don't know
Trainees	No	23	58	14
	%	24.2	61.1	14.7
Ex-trainees	No	54	55	11
	%	45.0	45.8	9.2
Training department/ organiser	No	25	20	0
	%	55.6	44.4	0
Training institution	No	12	24	12
	%	25.0	50.0	25.0
Ex-trainees' supervisor	No	14	8	19
	%	34.1	19.5	46.3
Total	No	128	165	56
	%	36.7	47.3	16.0

The analysis to sub-question (2) reveals very positive attitudes from the five groups. Table 10.2 demonstrates the frequencies in descending order of their agreement of this question "training evaluation should be included in the management training and developments process" as following: training department: 96%, ex-trainees: 92.3%, training institution: 91.7%, trainees: 81.1%, and ex-trainees' supervisors: 72.7%. The findings show the majority of respondents from all five groups hold a positive attitude of the necessity and importance of training evaluation.

Table 10.2 Sub-question (2) Do you think, evaluation of training programmes should be included in the process of management training and development?

Groups \ Variables		No	Yes	Don't know
Trainees	No	5	30	2
	%	13.5	81.1	5.4
Ex-trainees	No	5	60	0
	%	7.7	92.3	0
Training department/ organiser	No	0	24	1
	%	0	96.0	4.0
Training institution	No	2	22	0
	%	8.3	91.7	0
Ex-trainees' supervisor	No	6	24	3
	%	18.2	72.7	9.1
Total	No	18	160	6
	%	9.8	87.0	3.3

10.1.1.2 Sub-question (3) What are the perceived purposes of evaluation for China's overseas management training by the major stakeholders?

Eleven pre-determined items are presented and the participants are required to rate by importance the reasons for which evaluation is conducted according to the scales listed below.

1—Very important

2—Important

3—Neutral

4—Less important

5—Not important

These items are generated from the framework of Phillips (1991), Estaby-Smith (1994) and Bramley (1996) reviewed in Section 3.3.2 and incorported with the findings in research Phase I. Table 10.3 provides a glossary of these purposes of evaluation.

Table 10.3 Glossary of Purposes of Evaluation

No	Variables: Reasons for Evaluation	Purposes
1	To justify the existence of the training function	Proving
2	To determine a programme achieved its objectives	Proving/controlling
3	To determine the appropriateness of a programme	Proving/controlling
4	To determine the return on investment of training	Proving/controlling
5	To find out where improvement is required	Improving/learning
6	To assist marketing for future programmes	Feedback
7	To identify the strengths and weaknesses in the HRD process in which training facilitates	Intervention/Research
8	To test the clarity and validity of instruction	Research/Feedback
9	To establish management development requirement	Research/Controlling
10	To determine promotion of trainees	Intervention/Controlling
11	To determine the service quality of training providers	Controlling/Feedback

Edited from the purposes of evaluation by Phillips (1991), Estaby-Smith (1994) and Bramley (1996)

Total mean test shows that all variables are rated between very important and important (1.79~2.51) except one variable approaching neutral (2.83), which means that the aggregate consider these reasons for evaluation are important. Cross-tabulation tests reveal differences and similarities between groups. For instance the mean distribution against variables are similar among the groups of trainees, ex-trainees and training institutions, whilst the mean scores by training departments/organisers exhibit a different pattern from the other three groups (see Table 10.4), which can be interpreted as showing that the respondents from training departments/organisers prioritise the reasons for evaluation differently as follows: to assist marketing for future research, to determine the service quality of training providers, to determine the return on investment of training, to justify the existence of the training function, and to establish management development requirement.

Table 10.4 Mean Test of Reasons for Evaluation Perceived by Aggregate and Individual Stakeholders

Reasons for evaluation	Mean				
	Total	Trainees	Ex-trainees	Training department	Training institution
To determine whether programme achieved its objectives	1.79	2.05	1.83	1.55	1.42
To determine the appropriateness of programme	1.89	2.17	1.89	1.78	1.46
To find out where improvement is required	1.90	2.18	1.90	1.76	1.50
To assist marketing for future programmes	1.98	2.22	1.97	1.49	2.02
To determine the service quality of training providers	2.01	2.27	2.00	1.62	1.85
To test the clarity and validity of instruction	2.02	2.14	2.00	1.91	1.91
To identify the strength and weaknesses in the HRD process in which training facilitates	2.15	2.36	2.14	1.89	2.02
To justify the existence of the training function	2.29	2.34	2.31	1.91	2.50
To determine the return on investment of training	2.39	2.47	2.37	2.20	2.50
To establish management development requirement	2.51	2.61	2.52	2.30	2.48
To determine promotion of trainees	2.83	2.81	2.70	2.96	3.07

The findings from post-hoc comparisons of ANOVA (see Table 10.5) partly support the result above by showing that the training department's group have more belief of the importance of: "to assist marketing for future programmes", "to identify the strengths and weaknesses in the HRD process in which training facilitates", and "to determine the service quality of training providers". Moreover, significant negative mean differences are identified between the training institution group and the other groups for several variables: "to determine whether a programme achieved its objectives", "to determine the appropriateness of a programme", and "to find out where improvement is required". This could be interpreted as showing that training institution groups prioritise the reasons for evaluation related to the programme delivery whereas training departments/organisers consider training process related reasons more important. However, compared with other groups training institutions and training departments/organisers share similar opinions about these two reasons for evaluation.

Table 10.5 Comparisons of the Perceptions of Stakeholders about Reasons of Evaluation

Dependent variable (rating)	(I) group	(J) group	Mean difference (I~J)
To determine a programme achieved its objectives	training institution	trainees ex-trainees training department	-.636* -.418* -.129
To determine the appropriateness of a programme	training institution	trainees ex-trainees training department	-.710* -.429* -.319
To find out where improvement is required	training institution	trainees ex-trainees training department	-.681* -.396 -.256
To assist marketing for future programmes	training department	trainees ex-trainees training institution	-.732* -.476* -.532*
To identify the strengths and weaknesses in the HRD process in which training facilitates	training department	trainees ex-trainees training institution	-.470* -.250 -.133
To determine the service quality of training providers	training department	trainees ex-trainees training institution	-.651* -.378 -.232

* The mean difference is significant at the 0.5 level.
* Minus mean difference shows positive result of the tested variable, while positive mean difference shows negative result of the tested variable in this rating standard.

The categorising of the variables into purposes of evaluation against groups has revealed five items out of seven are agreed by all survey stakeholders; they are proving, controlling, feedback, learning and improving (see Table 10.6). This means that the purposes of evaluation of the programmes surveyed here are versatile, which contradicts the views of Easterby-Smith (1994) discussed in section 3.3.2.

Table 10.6 Categorising Purposes of Evaluation by Stakeholders

Purposes of evaluation	Trainees	Ex-trainees	Training department	Training institution
Proving	√	√	√	√
Controlling	√	√	√	√
Feedback	√	√	√	√
Learning	√	√	√	√
Improving	√	√	√	√
Research		√	√	√
Intervention			√	√

10.1.1.3 Sub-question (4) What are the perceived roles of the major stakeholders in the training evaluation

Two questions are asked of the questionnaire respondents as follows: (a) who, to their knowledge, evaluates training; and (b) who, do they think, should evaluate training. Five variables are tested: they are training departments/organisers, trainees/ex-trainees, training institutions, trainees organisations, and independent evaluator. The findings show that 'training departments/organisers' (37.9%) are perceived on aggregate to be most involved in training evaluation practice, followed by 'training institution' (25.4%). The groups of 'trainees/ex-trainees' (13.2%) and 'trainees' organisation' (12.4%) are perceived to be less involved in evaluation and 'independent evaluator' (3.2%) is least observed to participate in evaluation (see Table 10.7).

The ranking of who should evaluate training by the aggregate is distributed in descending order as showing 'trainees' organisations (50.9%), 'training departments/organisers' (50.6%), and 'training institutions' (48.3%), followed by 'trainees/ex-trainees' (38.5%), and 'independent evaluator' (30.5%) (see Table 10.8). The disaggregated analysis demonstrates that trainees and ex-trainees perceive them less involved in training evaluation than other stakeholders. Out of the five groups the participants from the training departments/organisers are most clear about the responsibility of evaluation both in reality and recommendation. In contrast ex-trainees' supervisors are least clear about the roles of training evaluation. All surveyed groups suggest the involvement of stakeholders and an independent evaluator in evaluation of training.

Table 10.7 Who evaluate training perceived by the questionnaire respondents

	Training departments/ organisers	Training institutions	Trainees/ Ex-trainees	Trainees' organisations	Independent evaluator	Don't know
No.	132	88	46	43	11	96
%	37.9	25.4	13.2	12.4	3.2	27.5

Table 10.8 Who should evaluate training suggested by the questionnaire respondents

	Training departments/ organisers	Training institutions	Trainees/ Ex-trainees	Trainees' organisations	Independent evaluator	Don't know
No	176	168	134	177	106	47
%	50.6	48.3	38.5	50.9	30.5	13.5

Paired-sample t-test is conducted to explore whether there are any differences between question (a) 'who evaluate training' and question (b) 'who should evaluate training' by the aggregate. As shown in Table 10.9 there are significant increases of mean scores statistically for all variables except for the item 'don't know' between question (b) and (a). This means that gaps exist between the suggested responsibility of stakeholders in evaluation and their actual involvement in evaluation practice, particularly for the 'trainees' organisations', 'trainees/ex-trainees' and 'independent evaluator'.

Table 10.9 Paired Sample Tests for Perceived Roles of Implementing Training Evaluation

Pairs		t	df	Significant (2-tailed)	Mean	
Rank	Item					
1=	Training departments/ organisers	-4.037	347	.000	Pair a Pair b	.38 .51 ↑
1=	Trainees' organisation	-12.735	347	.000	Pair a Pair b	.12 .51 ↑
3	Training institution	-8.259	346	.000	Pair a Pair b	.25 .48 ↑
4	Trainees/extrainees	-9.840	347	.000	Pair a Pair b	.13 .39 ↑
5	Independent evaluator	-10.811	346	.000	Pair a Pair b	.03 .31 ↑
6	Don't know	5.098	348	.000	Pair a Pair b	.28 .13 ↓

It also suggests that on average the respondents from different groups believe more stakeholders should be involved in training evaluation than they observe in reality. In addition the decrease of mean scores of 'don't know' can be interpreted as showing that the respondents have a clearer idea about who should evaluate training than who is doing it.

10.1.1.4 Sub-question (5) What are the barriers to evaluation for China's overseas management development training programmes perceived by the major stakeholders?

Sub-question (6) Is evaluation of international management training programmes easier or more difficult than that of local management training programmes?

The instrument is purely derived from the study of Phase I and is designed for testing the reasons for not conducting evaluation perceived by stakeholders includes fifteen items, which are classified into seven categories. Table 10.10 provides a glossary of these items.

Table 10.10 Glossary of Reasons for not Conducting Evaluation

Categories	**Reasons for not Conducting Evaluation**
Attitude for evaluation	Evaluation is not necessary at present
What to evaluate	Unclear objectives of management development
How to evaluate	Lack of evaluation criteria and methods
Who implement evaluation	Unclear responsibility of evaluation
Why to conduct evaluation	Unclear purposes of evaluation
Techniques for evaluation	Difficult to evaluate management development
Resources for evaluation	Lack of expertise and skills of evaluation
	Lack of money
	Lack of staff
	Lack of time
Stakeholders involved in evaluation	Not required by client organisation
	Lack of cooperation of ex-trainees' organisation
	Lack of cooperation of trainees & ex-trainees
	Lack of cooperation of training institution
	Not required in training application and approval

Similar to the test of 'reasons of evaluation', the participants from the four groups are asked to score the 15 pre-determined items which represented the reasons for not conducting evaluation by five scales listed below.

1—Very important 2—Important 3—Neutral

4—Less important 5—Not important

The results show that the average opinions about the reasons for not evaluating are within 2.43~3.41 between important and less important against the fifteen items tested. It is noticeable, as shown in Table 10.11, that the reason ‘evaluation is not necessary at present’ (mean 3.41) is considered least important by the aggregate whereas the reasons categorised in what, how, who, and why to evaluate training are most emphasised by the aggregate, e.g., ‘unclear objectives of management training and development’ (mean 2.43), and ‘lack of evaluation criteria and methods’ (mean 2.6). This partly supports the results of sub-question 2 and shows the average respondents highlight the importance of evaluating training.

Table 10.11 Mean Test and Comparison of the Stakeholders about Barriers for Evaluation

Reasons for not Conducting Evaluation	Mean Scored by Aggregate and Four Groups				
	Total	Trainees	Ex-trainees	Training Department	Training Institution
Unclear objectives of management development	2.43	2.45	2.47	2.22	2.50
Lack of evaluation criteria and methods	2.60	2.48	2.44	2.02	3.76
Lack of expertise and skills of evaluation	2.70	2.60	2.64	2.09	3.61
Unclear purposes of evaluation	2.77	2.76	2.79	2.47	3.04
Unclear responsibility of evaluation	2.84	2.84	2.91	2.53	2.96
Difficult to evaluate management development	2.85	2.91	2.90	2.42	3.04
Not required in training application and approval	2.89	3.01	3.03	2.29	2.91
Not required by client organisation	2.89	2.91	3.05	2.71	2.69
Lack of cooperation of ex-trainees’ organisation	2.98	2.99	3.14	2.22	3.34
Lack of money	3.05	2.78	3.17	2.98	3.35
Lack of staff	3.06	2.99	3.25	2.58	3.22
Lack of cooperation of trainees & ex-trainees	3.06	3.02	3.11	2.38	3.70
Lack of time	3.08	3.02	3.28	2.64	3.17
Lack of cooperation of training institution	3.09	3.00	3.04	2.82	3.63
Evaluation is not necessary at present	3.41	3.35	3.44	3.16	3.72

Table 10.12 Comparisons of the Perceptions of Stakeholders about Reasons for Not Conducting Evaluation

Dependent variable (rating)	(I) group	(J) group	Mean difference (I~J)
Lack of staff	training department	trainees ex-trainees training institution	-.410 -.677* -.640*
	training institution	trainees ex-trainees training department	.229 .037 .640*
Lack of cooperation of ex-trainees' organisation	training department	trainees ex-trainees training institution	-.766* -.917* -1.119*
	training institution	trainees ex-trainees training department	.353 .202 1.119*
Lack of cooperation of training institutions	training department	trainees ex-trainees training institution	-.178 -.215 -.808*
	training institution	trainees ex-trainees training department	.630* .593* .808*
Lack of cooperation of trainees and ex-trainees	training department	trainees ex-trainees training institution	-.646* -.733* -1.318*
	training institution	trainees ex-trainees training department	.672* .585* 1.318*
Lack of evaluation criteria, and methods	training department	trainees ex-trainees training institution	-.455 -.414 -1.739*
	training institution	trainees ex-trainees training department	1.284* 1.325* 1.739*
Lack of expertise, and skills	training department	trainees ex-trainees training institution	-.516 -.547* -1.520*
	training institution	trainees ex-trainees training department	1.004* .972* 1.520*

* The mean difference is significant at the 0.5 level.

* Minus mean difference shows positive result of the tested variable, while positive mean difference shows negative result of the tested variable in this rating standard.

Moreover the post-hock comparisons of ANOVA demonstrate that there are differences of focus between groups. For example, the training departments/organisers group is identified to have more recognition of the barriers for evaluation than the other groups particularly for the reasons of resources and stakeholders such as ‘lack of cooperation of ex-trainees’ organisation’, ‘lack cooperation of ex-trainees’, ‘lack of staff’, and ‘lack of expertise and skills’ (see Table 10.12). In contrast the training institution group is found to recognise least the barriers for evaluation with regard to the reasons of how to evaluate, resources and the stakeholders involved such as ‘lack of criteria and methods’, ‘lack of expertise and skills’, ‘lack of cooperation with training institutions’, and ‘lack of cooperation with training trainees and ex-trainees’ (see Table 10.12). This raises the issue of how well the training organisers and training institutions cooperate in evaluation in terms of sharing resources and information.

The results to sub-question 6 show that the majority of each group considers that the evaluation of international training is more difficult than that of local training evaluation (over 50%), with the exception of ex-trainees’ supervisors. Interestingly it is found out that over half of the participants from the ex-trainees’ supervisors (51.2%) has no opinion about whether the evaluation of international management training is easier or more difficult than the evaluation of domestic management training programmes (see Table 10.13). This might be due to the reduced involvement of ex-trainees’ supervisors in the evaluation practices.

Table 10.13 Sub-question 6 Is evaluation of international management training programmes easier or more difficult than those of the local management training programmes?

Group \ Variables		More difficult	Easier	Don’t know
Trainees	No	56	17	12
	%	65.9	20.0	14.1
Ex-trainees	No	70	22	28
	%	58.3	18.3	23.3
Training department/ organiser	No	32	2	11
	%	71.1	4.4	24.4
Training institution	No	23	5	11
	%	59.0	12.8	28.2
Ex-trainees’ supervisor	No	13	7	21
	%	31.7	17.1	51.2
Total	No	194	53	83
	%	58.8	16.1	25.2

10.1.2 Findings from Interviews

In support of the findings of the questionnaire survey the majority of interviewees thought it essential to incorporate evaluation into management training. As expressed by one lecturer from UK's training intuition the Chinese government invested a lot of money sending their managers abroad to study and it was necessary to check the learning outcomes and find out whether it was worth the money. One interviewed Chinese training manager commented: "I think evaluation is very important and should be an organic part of overseas management training. Effective evaluation ensures the quality of overseas training from which we draw lessons and experiences, so that we can improve our programmes and provide better training for our managers". One ex-trainee suggested training evaluation was one of the key links in the management training cycle, which ensured the attainment of desired objectives and the results of overseas management training.

Nevertheless, a few participants did not think evaluation had been placed in an important position in overseas management training. One of the interviewed Chinese managers expressed the view that evaluation, to his knowledge, was the last thing to be considered and implemented in management training. "Actions need to be done to establish systematic and scientific evaluation in routine of management training", said this manager.

There is consensus by the five groups that evaluation of the overseas training is problematic given the diversity of cultures of stakeholders involved. For example, several Chinese managers questioned the fairness and transparency of the standard for assessing their learning outcomes; while a few interviewees from training institutions suggested inconsistency of purposes of evaluation between training providers and training organisers as well as inconsistency in the requirement of the training institution and the expectation of Chinese students. Moreover some of the training managers from training organisations in China pointed out the negative impact of language and culture on information exchange with overseas training organisations and setting up a baseline for training evaluation. This supports the questionnaire findings regarding the different opinions of stakeholders about the barriers of evaluation and provides explanations of why these differences exist.

Interviewing also shows that most of the participants support the need to invite independent evaluators in order to provide a fair and objective evaluation. Some interviewed trainees and ex-trainees are critical of the minimal involvement of themselves and their organisation in overseas management training and evaluation. Likewise there is a consensus among the interviewees from different groups that ex-trainees are the most important evaluator among the stakeholders. “They have experienced the whole process of training intervention and should have the most say in whether the training has achieved its objectives”, one Chinese training manager commented.

10.2 CRITERIA AND METHODS OF TRAINING EVALUATION PERCEIVED BY THE MAJOR STAKEHOLDERS IN CHINA’S OVERSEAS MANAGEMENT DEVELOPMENT

RESEARCH QUESTION 3f: WHAT ARE THE PREFERED EVALUATION CRITERIA AND METHODS FOR OVERSEAS MANAGEMENT TRAINING PERCEIVED BY THE MAJOR STAKEHOLDERS?

The above research question addresses training evaluation issues at the micro level. It explores the criteria and methods preferred by the major stakeholders by surveying four groups: trainees, ex-trainees, training departments/organisers and training institutions. This will contribute to developing an evaluation framework. The pre-determined instruments for evaluation criteria and methods are generated from research phase I and previous literature.

10.2.1 Findings from Questionnaire Survey

10.2.1.1 Evaluation criteria

Twelve pre-determined criteria are used as instruments and and they are derived from relevant evaluation models listed in Table 3.1. Table 10.14 provides a glossary of these criteria and contents. The participants are asked to give a rating to the evaluation criteria in use and those they recommend in 5-point Likert scales listed below.

1—Never 2—Seldom

3—Sometimes 4—Often 5—Always

Table 10.14 Glossary of Criteria of Training Evaluation Measured by Pre-determined Instrument

No.	Criteria	Contents
1	Reaction of trainees	Trainees' satisfaction about the training programmes in terms of subjects, contents, time schedules, etc.
2	Changes in knowledge and skills possessed by trainees	Acquisition and mastery of new knowledge and skills of management pertained in overseas management training by trainees
3	Changes in attitudes possessed by trainees	Any changes of trainees attitudes such as way of thinking, perception
4	Changes of trainees in performance on the job	Any changes in behaviour of trainees at work after training such as achievements, performance improvement, approaches and etc.
5	Changes in trainees' organisation relevant to training	Impact of overseas management training on trainees' organisation in terms of organisational performance, benefits, efficiency, productivity
6	Meeting trainees' objectives	The extent of meeting the objectives of trainees which are based on their work related and career development needs
7	Meeting objectives of trainees' organisation	The extent of meeting the objectives of trainees' organisations directly related to cooperate HRD needs which in turn determined by business development
8	How well the programmes were designed	Appropriateness and effectiveness of training design in terms of learning such as contents of instruction, methods of delivery, activities outside classroom
9	Extent of the applicability of programmes	The extent of knowledge transfer to trainees' organisation as well as the underpinning environment
10	Financial return of the programme	Comparison and determination of organisational benefits from training against training costs
11	Extent of the continued demands for the programme	The extent of repetition and demands for the same type of training programme, which reflects the satisfaction of stakeholders
12	Comments to the trainees from their colleagues	Data collection and assessment from trainees' colleagues relevant to their work position such as their supervisors, subordinates, HR managers, clients and etc.

Derived and edited from the models listed in Table 3.1

Firstly the mean tests show that four criteria out of the twelve are perceived to be most frequently used as well as strongly recommended by the aggregate (see Table 10.15). They are: 'reaction of trainees', 'changes in knowledge and skills possessed by trainees', 'changes in attitudes possessed by trainees', and 'how well the programmes were designed', followed by the other two criteria 'Extent of the applicability of programmes' and 'meeting objectives of trainees' organisation''.

Table 10. 15 Mean Tests of Evaluation Criteria Perceived by Aggregate

Evaluation Criteria	Mean Test (use in practice)	Mean Test (recommended)
Reaction of trainees	3.60	4.40
Changes in knowledge and skills possessed by trainees	3.16	4.23
Changes in attitudes possessed by trainees	2.91	4.10
Changes of trainees in performance on the job	2.41	3.83
Changes in trainees' organisation relevant to training	2.16	3.76
Meeting trainees' objectives	2.31	3.97
Meeting objectives of trainees' organisation	2.51	4.00
How well the programmes were designed	2.85	4.16
Financial return of the programme	2.27	3.89
Extent of the applicability of programmes	2.52	4.07
Extent of the continued demands for the programme	2.32	3.53
Comments to the trainees from their colleagues	2.24	3.49

Table 10.16 Mean Comparisons of Criteria for Training Evaluation Used in Practice Perceived by Stakeholders

Dependent variable	(I) group	(J) group	Mean difference (I~J)
Changes of trainees in performance on the job	trainees	ex-trainees training department training institution	.399 .619* 1.251* ↑
	ex-trainees	trainees training department training institution	-.399 .219 .852* ↑
	training department	trainees ex-trainees training institution	-.619* -.219 .633 ↓
	training institution	trainees ex-trainees training department	-1.251* -.852* -.633 ↓
Extent of the continued demands for the programme	trainees	ex-trainees training department training institution	.162 -.387 -1.240* ↓
	ex-trainees	trainees training department training institution	-.162 -.549 -1.402* ↓
	training department	trainees ex-trainees training institution	.387 .549 -.853* ↑
	training institution	trainees ex-trainees training department	1.240* 1.402* .853* ↑

* The mean difference is significant at the 0.5 level.

* Minus mean difference shows negative result of the tested variable while positive mean difference shows positive result in this rating standard.

Secondly, one-way ANOVA test shows the differences among the surveyed groups both for their perceived uses of evaluation criteria and their recommendations (see Table 10.16). For example, the trainees and ex-trainees observe the criteria 'changes of trainees in performance' to be more frequently used in evaluation than the training institutions' and training departments/organisers' groups. On the other hand the participants from the training institution and training department observed the criteria of 'extent of the continued demand for programme' to be used more frequently than trainees and ex-trainees' groups. This could be explained by the different role of the stakeholders.

Table 10. 17 Paired Sample Tests for Training Evaluation Criteria

Pairs		t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean	
No	**Item**					
1	Reaction of trainees	-10.407	225	.000	Pair a Pair b	3.60 4.45 ↑
2	Changes in knowledge and skills possessed by trainees	-12.768	214	.000	Pair a Pair b	3.17 4.35 ↑
3	Changes in attitudes possessed by trainees	-14.712	208	.000	Pair a Pair b	2.29 4.18 ↑
4	Changes of trainees in performance on the job	-18.575	201	.000	Pair a Pair b	2.42 3.87 ↑
5	Changes in trainees' organisation relevant to training	-18.979	185	.000	Pair a Pair b	2.17 3.38 ↑
6	Meeting objectives of trainees' organisation	-17.161	190	.000	Pair a Pair b	2.31 3.99 ↑
7	Meeting trainees' objectives	-17.272	204	.000	Pair a Pair b	2.54 4.07 ↑
8	How well the programmes were designed	-14.449	199	.000	Pair a Pair b	2.85 4.27 ↑
9	Extent of the applicability of programmes	-16.311	194	.000	Pair a Pair b	2.26 3.94 ↑
10	Financial return of the programme	-18.617	210	.000	Pair a Pair b	2.52 4.14 ↑
11	Extent of the continued demand for the programme	-14.559	195	.000	Pair a Pair b	2.34 3.63 ↑
12	Comments to the trainees' colleagues about their performance after training	-15.240	204	.000	Pair a Pair b	2.24 3.55 ↑

Thirdly, paired-sample t-tests show that statistically there is a positive increase of mean scores for these twelve criteria between respondents' suggestions and the use of these criteria in reality (see Table 10.17). This means that the aggregate suggest using these twelve criteria for training evaluation more frequently than they are used in current evaluation practice. In addition the t value shows most significant negative mean score differences between Pair a and Pair b (see Table 10.18). This means that three criteria are most highly recommended to be used, they are ‘changes of trainees in performance on the job’ ‘changes in trainees’ organisation relevant to training’, ‘financial return of the programme’, followed by ‘meeting objectives of trainees’ organisation’, ‘meeting trainees’ objectives’, and ‘extent of the applicability of programmes’.

10.2.1.2 Methods for evaluation

Twelve pre-determined items are generated from the reviewed evauation models relevant to this study (see Table 3.1) to enquire about the evaluation methods used in practice and the recommendations. Table 10.18 provides a glossary of pre-designed methods of training evaluation for China’s overseas management development. The participants are invited to rate them in 5-point Likert scales listed below.

1—Never 2—Seldom 3—Sometimes
4—Often 5—Always

Table 10.18 Glossary of Methods of Training Evaluation for China’s Overseas Management Development

No.	Item	Methods
1	Pre-and-post-training questionnaire	Questionnaire survey before and after training to assess the outcomes of training such as trainees’ satisfaction, learning results
2	Pre-and-post-training tests	Assessment or comparison of attainment of instructions during training by trainees, such as knowledge mastery
3	Informal collection of comments by trainees	Informal feedback collection from trainees about their opinion of training, such as free conversations between lecturers and trainees
4	Evaluation form filled by instructors	Any assessment forms given by training institutions to collect feedback from trainees about the quality of delivery
5	Pre-evaluation on instruction	Evaluation of training programmes before delivery, such as module or training programme validation
6	Post training report by group	Any written form of documents by a group of trainees to reflect the outcomes or achievements of learning abroad, such as group report, diary, suggestions
7	Self-report by trainees	Any written form of documents by individual to reflect the outcomes or achievement of learning abroad, such as report, thesis, diary, suggestions and etc.
8	Intermediate evaluation	Assessment of learning effectiveness in the mid of training in terms of lecturing, and other related activities
9	Follow up survey	Information collection after training to follow up the results

		from overseas training such as application of learning, impact on organisations, individual development
10	Use of performance appraisal	Assessment of individual changes in work performance before and after training, which in turn provides evidence of impact of training on HR development
11	Use of business records	Assessment of impact on trainees' organisation due to overseas management training by comparing business profiles before and after management training
12	Comparison with group of people who did not take training	Comparison and assessment of changes in terms of knowledge, skills, attitudes, performance between trainees and their colleagues who did not take training

Derived and edited from the models listed in Table 3.1

Firstly the mean tests show that out of the twelve pre-determined methods of training evaluation the following methods are both most frequently used in practice and most highly recommended by the aggregate (see Table 10.19). They are 'post training report by group', 'self-report by trainees', followed by 'pre-and-post-training tests', 'pre-and-post- training questionnaire', and 'evaluation form filled by instructor'. In addition the method 'pre-evaluation on instruction', and 'follow-up survey' are also strongly suggested by the aggregate. The least used methods are found to be 'comparison with group of people who did not take training' and 'use of business records'; the former method is also found to be least recommended relatively.

Table 10.19 Mean Tests of Use of Evaluation Methods Perceived and Recommended by the Stakeholders

Evaluation Methods	Mean Test (use in practice)	Mean Test (recommended)
Pre-and-post-training questionnaire	2.56	3.94
Pre-and-post training tests	2.68	3.78
Informal collection of comments by trainees	2.36	3.40
Evaluation form filled by instructors	2.54	3.84
Pre-evaluation on instruction	1.97	3.88
Post training report by group	4.37	4.17
Self-report by trainees	3.78	3.97
Intermediate evaluation	2.02	3.30
Follow up survey	2.32	3.75
Use of performance appraisal	2.00	3.59
Use of business records	1.70	3.19
Comparison with group of people who did not take training	1.52	2.90

Secondly, results of one-way ANOVA analysis reveal differences of perceived use of some methods by different stakeholders (see Table 10.20). For example training departments/organisers observe using **‘**post training report by group’ most, but least observes the using of ‘pre-and-post tests’. On the other hand the training institution group perceives using the following methods most: ‘pre-evaluation on instruction’, and ‘informal collection of feedback’, but less wish to use ‘post training report by group’**.** In addition there is significant positive increases in mean scores between the methods being used in evaluation practice and the recommendations by the stakeholders except for ‘post training report by group’ (see Annex). This could be interpreted that the average of the respondents suggest using these methods of evaluation more frequently than they are used in reality.

Table 10.20 Mean Comparisons of Methods of Training Evaluation Used in Practice Perceived by Stakeholders

Dependent variable	(I) group	(J) group	Mean difference (I~J)
Pre-and-post test	training department	trainees ex-trainees training institution	-.807* -.723* -.913*
Informal collection of comments	training institution	trainees ex-trainees training department	1.647* 1.599* 1.321*
Pre-evaluation on instruction	training institution	trainees ex-trainees training department	.813* .764* .889*
Post training report by group	training department	trainees ex-trainees training institution	.756* .473* 1.159*

* The mean difference is significant at the 0.5 level.
* Minus mean difference shows negative result of the tested variable while positive mean difference shows positive result in this rating standard.

Thirdly, paired-sample t-tests show that statistically there is a positive increase of mean scores for these twelve methods between respondents’ suggestions and the use of these methods in reality, with the exception to the method ‘‘post report by group’ (see Table 10.21). This means that the aggregate suggests using these twelve criteria for training evaluation more frequently than they are used in current evaluation practice. It appears that the method ‘post report by group’ is considered a little bit overused in practice statistically by the aggregate. In addition t value shows most significant negative mean score differences between Pair A and Pair B for the methods 'Pre-evaluation on instruction', 'use of performance appraisal', followed by 'use of business records', and 'comparison with group of people who did not take training' (see Table 10.21). This means that there remain big gaps between these four methods recommended and their use in practice.

Table 10. 21 Paired Sample Tests for Training Evaluation Methods

Pairs		t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean	
Rank	Item					
1	Post training report by group	3.371	237	.001	Pair a Pair b	4.38 4.14 ↓
2	Self report by trainees	-2.835	241	.005	Pair a Pair b	3.78 3.99 ↑
3	Pre-and-post-training questionnaires	-14.482	195	.000	Pair a Pair b	2.57 3.98 ↑
4	Evaluation form filled by instructors	-13.255	199	.000	Pair a Pair b	2.54 3.95 ↑
5	Pre-evaluation on instruction	-18.600	195	.000	Pair a Pair b	1.97 3.91 ↑
6	Pre-or-post-training tests	-12.108	205	.000	Pair a Pair b	2.68 3.84 ↑
7	Use of performance appraisal	-17.170	189	.000	Pair a Pair b	2.01 3.61 ↑
8	Informal collection of comments	-12.521	200	.000	Pair a Pair b	2.35 3.44 ↑
9	Intermediate evaluation	-14.449	199	.000	Pair a Pair b	2.03 3.31 ↑
10	Use of business records	-16.624	179	.000	Pair a Pair b	1.71 3.18 ↑
11	Comparison with group of people who did not take training	-16.610	187	.000	Pair a Pair b	1.53 2.98 ↑
12	Follow-up survey	-14.736	196	.000	Pair a Pair b	2.32 2.74 ↑

Moreover it appears that different stakeholders have a different focus on recommending the uses of evaluation methods apart from the common views on some items. For instance trainees strongly suggest 'pre-evaluation on instruction', the training departments/organisers group suggests using 'follow-up survey' more, and training institution and ex-trainees' groups recommend using 'pre-and-post tests' and 'intermediate evaluation'.

10.2.2 Findings from Interviews

The results of interviews mostly support the findings from the questionnaire survey. They also add new contents and provide details to the differentiations of preferred evaluation criteria and methods among the major stakeholders. Most of the interviewees mention that the evaluation process of China's overseas management training is complicated. It involves the interaction of organisations of both home country and host country, which in turn is influenced by various factors. Firstly, as pointed by some participants, it is difficult to collect all-round information and get a whole picture of training outcomes from the perspective of individual stakeholders. For example the interviews with training departments/organisers and ex-trainees' supervisors show that the supervisors and training managers can hardly access the information of trainees when they take training abroad. One interviewed training manager commented: "…It is almost impossible to carry out on-going follow up investigation due to the distance and costs. Post training reports are the most cost-effective way we use for evaluation. Of course we understand the disadvantage of only relying on post-training information". Several interviewed ex-trainees expressed the necessity of conducting on-time evaluation. "The feedback from post evaluation might benefit other trainees after us. But it is often too late or even meaningless to assess the training abroad after we have completed the courses".

On the other hand the interviewing with training institutions reveals that the training providers usually have little feedback from ex-trainees, and training departments/ organisers. One lecturer commented that he had 'no clue' about how trainees applied their learning to the workplace. One training manager from a UK training institution mentioned that they had tried to conduct a post-training survey to several cohorts of Chinese training groups, but it had turned out to be very difficult, even impossible.

Secondly criteria and methods for evaluating training are diverse. Some of the participants suggested that stakeholders from different cultural backgrounds might hold different opinions on the same type of training. "Cultural differences result in different standards for measuring the outcomes of training. Language, a media of exchange of information, is also a barrier for evaluation", said one lecturer from a UK training institution. This is echoed by the opinions of some trainees and ex-trainees that the differentiation of culture leads to different approaches to evaluation. “I believe the standard of assessing the value and worth of training cannot be the same between the Western institutions and us. It is not appropriate to simply use the Chinese way to evaluate the effectiveness or purely use Western perspectives”.

Thirdly intangible features and the long-term effect of management training are addressed as a technical issue for choosing the evaluation approach. For example, one manager expressed the view that the results of training were usually potential and could not be measured. Similarly, some interviewed trainees suggested that it was difficult to measure changes in concepts and ways of thinking, such as the notion of the market economy, cultural awareness and value changes. Moreover several interviewees particularly from China’s training departments and ex-trainees regard evaluation of China’s overseas management training as a systematic process, which includes individuals, organisations, and regions. “A scientific evaluation system needs to be established”, suggested one official from China’s training department.

Lastly, new criteria and methods of evaluation emerge from analysing the interviews and they are presented below:

--Criteria

(a) Changes in concepts possessed by trainees

This refers to the formation of new concepts generated from reflection on learning and pertaining to new knowledge such as Western market economy concepts, and the notion of service-oriented public administrative management.

(b) Results beyond organisational level.

This includes the achievements of overseas management training in terms of social benefits, intellectual nurturing, regional (municipal and provincial) and national development which are beyond the impact on trainees’ organisations.

--Methods

(a) Focus group meetings

This method comprises the adoption of group meetings to collect post training information, for example to gather information about the achievements derived from training by focus meetings with ex-trainees’ and ex-trainees’ organisers.

(b) Integration of talent development policy and strategy

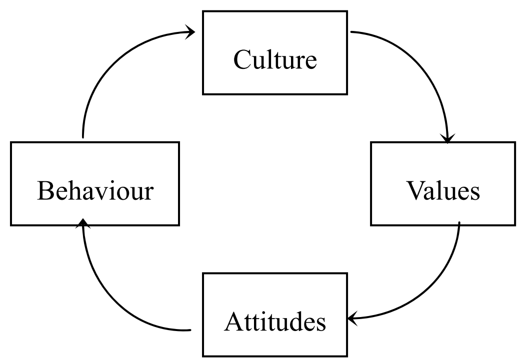
This aims to connect overseas management training evaluation with management cultivation and promotion which is consisted as one part of the talent development policy and strategy of the Chinese government.

10.3 CULTURAL IMPACT ON CHINA'S OVERSEAS MANAGEMENT TRAINING AND DEVELOPMENT

RESEARCH QUESTION 4g: HOW DOES CULTURE IMPACT ON CHINA'S OVERSEAS MANAGEMENT TRAINING AND DEVELOPMENT IN A POSITIVE AND NEGATIVE WAY?

To answer this question Adler's cultural interaction model is used as a theoretical framework to investigate the cultural impact. As discussed in section 4.1.1 Adler argues that culture interacts with values, attitudes and behaviour in a continuous cycle (see Figure 10.1). The themes emerging from the questionnaire survey and interviews are designed to be classified into categorises of value, attitudes, and behaviour. Cultural interaction elements are identified and different perspectives of these elements are explored by individual groups (section 10.3.1). The contents and principle of cultural elements of interactions are studied in section 10.3.2. Four stakeholders are included in the cultural study; they are trainees, ex-trainees, training departments/organisers, and training institutions. The exclusion of ex-trainees' supervisors is because they are less likely to be experienced in the whole process of the overseas management training.

Figure 10.1 Cultural Interaction Cycle (copied from Figure 4.2)



Source: Adler (2002: 17)

10.3.1 Findings from Questionnaire Survey

An open-ended question is asked to the above-mentioned stakeholders about how culture could impact on China’s overseas management training both positively and negatively. Eighteen themes are identified respectively as positive and negative cultural interactive elements. These are then classified into six categories value, attitude, behaviour, performance, impact on organisation and impact on context, which augment Adler’s cultural interaction elements by including the categories of ‘performance’, ‘impact on organisation’, and ‘impact on context’.

10.3.1.1 Positive cultural interaction elements

Table 10.22 provides a classification of the 18 positive cultural elements identified under six categories.

Table 10.22 A Classification of Cultural Interaction Elements Which Positively Impact on China’s Overseas Management Training and Development Perceived by the Stakeholders

Categories	Elements
Value	Change perception
	Change concept
Attitude	Understand cultural diversity
	Realise gaps between cultures
	Realise strength and weakness of home culture
Behaviour	Open-up views
	Cross-cultural exchange
	Analytical thinking
	Cross-cultural experience
Performance	Intercultural communication
	Motivation to learning
	Motivation to work
	Personal development (career development)
Impact on organisation	Application of learning
	Leadership development
	Organisational benefits (e.g., international cooperation)
Impact on context	Promote economic development
	Introduce international regulations (e.g., WTO regulations and rules, Western norms in business)

The mean test shows that the top 6 elements by aggregate are ‘open-up views’, ‘cross-cultural exchange’, ‘understand cultural diversity’, ‘personal development’, ‘change perception’, and ‘change concept’, among which the elements ‘open-up views’ and ‘change concept’ are commonly recognised by the four groups. They are in the categories of value, attitudes, behaviour and performance. However the analysis of cross-tabulation and one way ANOVA demonstrate differences between the four groups in relation to their level of cognition of these cultural elements. Firstly the trainees’ group has more cognition of the element ‘cross-cultural experience’, but is less aware of the elements ‘application of learning’, and ‘organisational benefits’. Secondly ex-trainees have shown higher cognition of the elements in relation to performance and behaviour, e.g., ‘personal development’, ‘analytical thinking’ and ‘motivation to work’. The above two groups have less cognition of the elements relating to impact on organisation and context.

On the other hand, the training department/organiser group appears to be more aware of the elements referring to impact on organisation and context, for example, ‘promote economic development’, ‘organisational benefit’, and ‘leadership development’, but have less cognition of the items with regard to value, attitude, behaviour, and performance. Finally, similar to the training department/organiser, the training institution group is also found to be more aware of the elements in relation to the impact on organisation and context. In addition the respondents from training institutions recognise more of the elements in value, but less in attitude, behaviour, and performance.

10.3.1.2 Negative cultural interaction elements

Table 10.23 provides a classification of 18 cultural interaction elements under six categories.

A cross tabulation test shows the top five elements are recognised by 50% of the aggregate; they are ‘miscommunication’, ‘language barrier’, ‘learning outcomes’, ‘misunderstanding’, and ‘transfer of learning’. They fall under the categories of behaviour, performance, and impact on organisation. The analysis of one-way ANOVA reveals that the perceptions vary according to group with the exception of the elements ‘learning outcomes’, ‘time/budget’, ‘gaps due to cultural differences’, and ‘personal development’.

Table 10.23 A Classification of Cultural Interaction Elements Which Negatively Impact on China's Overseas Management Training and Development Perceived by the Stakeholders

Value	Cultural conflicts
	Cultural shock
Attitude	Rejection of new culture
	Adaptation/acculturation
Behaviour	Language barrier
	Misunderstanding
	Miscommunication
	Cross-cultural interaction (with local student/people)
	Living
Performance	Learning outcomes
	Information access
	Personal development (career development)
Impact on organisation	Time/cost
	Development process
	Transfer of learning
	Evaluation
Impact on context	Pervasion of Western ideology
	Gaps due to cultural difference

Firstly, the training department group is found to be more aware of the element 'development process', and 'miscommunication', but has lower cognition of the rest of the elements, e.g., 'language barrier', 'cultural shock', and 'cross-cultural interaction'. Secondly, by contrast the training institution group has more cognition of a variety of elements such as 'cultural shock', 'cultural conflicts', 'rejection of new culture', and 'language barrier', but is less aware of the element 'information access'. Thirdly trainees appear to be more aware of the elements of 'adaptation and acculturation', and 'misunderstanding' than the three other groups, but recognise less the elements of 'transfer of learning', 'persuasion of Western ideology', and 'evaluation'. On the other hand, ex-trainees have more cognition of the element 'transfer of learning'. In addition they are most aware of the element 'living' among the groups. Interestingly they are found to be less aware of the elements of 'development process', and 'cultural conflict'.

10.3.2 Findings from Interviews

10.3.2.1 Positive cultural interaction elements and the interaction process

The interviewing is supportive of the results of questionnaire survey and adds richer information to the questionnaire survey in terms of the contents of these cultural interaction elements. The majority of themes which emerge from interviews are consistent with the elements generated from the questionnaire survey. Table 10.24 presents these element and abstracts of contents derived from interviews. In addition the analysis of the interviews explains how these elements have a positive effect.

Table 10. 24 Abstract of Contents of Positive Cultural Interaction Elements by Interviewing with the Four Stakeholders

Categories	Abstract of Contents	Elements Emerged from Interviews
Value	To gain new perspectives and insights; To reflect things in a new way; e.g., to look at the Western and China from a new angle; to look at management problems in new way; to think from counterparts' position	**Change perception**
	To develop creative ideas and new concepts To develop new way of thinking and doing things;	**Change concept**
Attitude	To understand the cultural diversity of the learning environment in host country; To be tolerable to different cultures, e.g., values, customs, norms.	**Understand cultural diversity**
	To find complementarities of host culture and home culture; e.g., to learn the strong points of host culture and to offset the weakness of home culture; to face reality and transfer pressure into action; to raise the awareness of cultural identity of Chinese students	**Realise gaps between cultures**
	To compare the pros and cons of home culture and Western culture; To exam and improve own culture;	**Realise strength and weakness of home culture**
Behaviour	To be more open to the new ideas and ways of doing things To learn to tackle things with global views and to stimulate creative thinking	**Open-up views**
	To know and learn other cultures so as to promote friendship; to improve teaching and learning; e.g., to learn from the Western and to learn from China; to share new ideas with Chinese managers	**Cross-cultural exchange**
	To understand Western management theories by comparing the contextual differences of Western and China; To develop new methods of analysing managerial problems	**Analytical thinking**
	To be exposed to new cultural environment To experience real life in the host country and to enrich personal overseas experience; To experience business reality in host country;	**Cross-cultural experience**

Performance	To enhance intercultural communication skills by interacting with people from different cultural backgrounds	**Intercultural communication**
	To be motivated to learn due to cultural novelty, condition and resource; e.g., Western management theories and business operation, foreign languages and host cultures and traditions	**Motivation to learning**
	To broaden knowledge area and to improve the ability of understanding management operations in the Western; To be adaptable to different cultures, and to increase foreign language ability; e.g., to be more creative in managerial work; to cultivate the cognition and acceptance to new ideas and things; to build work ethics in host county;	**Personal development (career development)**
Impact on organisation	To develop managers with comprehensive ability and global views; e.g., to build up senior management team with open minded, new knowledge and concepts	**Leadership development**
	To identify management speciality under different context and to explore the needs of different cultures To introduce new ideas and best practices from Western organisations;	**Organisational benefits**
Impact on context	To promote international exchange and to develop foreign-orientated economy To provide reference for solving China's problems; e.g., restructuring of China's economy and industry; institutional innovation	**Promote economic development**
	To promote the integration with Western countries and the progress of China's globalisation; To benefit China's post WTO by introducing WTO related regulations and rule as well as Western norms and business; to build sturdy law system	**Introduce international regulations**

The majority of the participants suggest that the initiative of China's overseas management training enables Chinese managers to "learn Western advanced management knowledge and skills directly in the Western countries". It also improves the ability to analyse and solve problems by looking at things from a new angle. "Taking training in a Western country allows us to understand the cultural differences which underpin the different management concepts, which in turn helps us to identify the cultural impact on perceptions and opinions of management", commented one ex-trainee. Similarly it was suggested by training managers and officials in China's training departments and organisations that having been exposed to a new culture Chinese managers learnt to look at things from a wider view and with long-term vision, which in turn helped them to introduce advanced concepts and knowledge of developed countries to China and their organisations.

Most interviewees, except those from China’s training departments/organisers point out that working and living in the host country has provided them with a unique cross-cultural experience. One of the lecturers expressed the view that studying in Western countries Chinese managers were exposed to ‘real life’ experience in a new situation. “Meeting and discussing with UK people could help Chinese students stimulate new ideas and offers new perspectiones and insights”, commented one training manager from a UK training institution. “I have learned and observed from the real life of a Western country.” “Learning abroad has motivated my creativity and innovation at work…”, expressed one trainee and ex-trainee respectively. In addition, the findings show that since lecturers and students are from different cultural backgrounds the cross-cultural exchange occurring in the process of training is mutually beneficial to both parities and stimulates the creation of new ideas and notion by deliverers and Chinese managers. One of the lecturers commented: “I have always enjoyed sharing ideas, discussing management issues with the Chinese managers.”

Some interviewees suggest cross-cultural communication leads to greater understanding of peoples from different cultures which in turn promote mutual understanding between the West and China. It also develops cross-cultural interaction skills and thus increases the efficiency of teaching and learning. For example one lecturer suggested that not all ideas that worked well in one culture would cross cultural boundaries to work well in different contexts, but that sharing ideas and perspectives could benefit all. One Chinese government official expressed his view that “sending managers to study abroad has provided them an interface with the outside world and activated contacts with businesses in other countries which have promoted the foreign-oriented economy and international trade”. “Overseas training has provided our managers with the opportunity to interact with different cultures and borrow the matured management experience and to shorten the gaps with developed countries”, commented another interviewed Chinese official.

It was found out that cultural diversity motivated Chinese managers’ learning in the host country. “Having recognised the gaps with developed countries I’ve realised that we have more responsibility to bring back advanced knowledge from developed countries and catch up with them”, said one of the interviewees. “We must face the reality, study the differences of cultures and improve our culture by learning the strong points of the host country and offsetting our weakness”, said the other trainee. One lecturer commented that from his observation Chinese managers had gradually built work ethics in the process of learning. One Chinese training manager pointed out: “Overseas experiences trigger the trainees to study successful experiences under different cultural backgrounds. It surely contributes to the practice of building up China’s four moderations with Chinese characteristics”. This is echoed by the comment of one UK training manager that management development in the West undoubtedly strengthened the concept of legislation and introduced international regulations, rules, and Western norms and best practices to China.

10.3.2.2 Negative cultural interaction elements and the interaction process

The interviews support the findings of questionnaire survey, identifying the majority of the elements identified in the questionnaire survey. In addition one new theme emerges from interviewing with training departments/organisers; it is ‘contradiction of concepts and performance’. By comparison with the questionnaire survey the interviewing provides richer detail of these elements and explains how they have a negative effect. Table 10.25 presents the negative interaction elements derived from interviewing and the abstracts of contents.

The interviewing shows that the language barrier is considered to be the key issue by most of the interviewees, which has a direct negative impact on the training quality. It can influence the smooth communication between students and lecturers as well as between the training providers and training organisers. It also results in misunderstanding and even unnecessary conflicts. Sometimes it even subdues ex-trainees’ learning enthusiasm. It therefore reduces the learning outcomes such as knowledge attainment, classroom activities, work practices, and assignment completion. Next element is the fact of cultural differences between the home country and the host country. Several trainees mentioned that they spent a lot of time trying to improve their foreign language, and adapting to the local culture and the environment. “New culture and environment in the host country sometimes tire me out, putting psychological pressure and causing me confusion. This decreases my learning efficiency", commented one of the trainees. One ex-trainee expressed his view that "Every country has its own culture, tradition, norms and customs, which are not possible to know in a short time unless you have grown up here. For my experience cultural differences can be an obstacle for effective learning".

Table 10.25 Abstract of Contents of Negative Cultural Interaction Elements by Interviewing with the Four Stakeholders

Categories	Abstract of Contents	Elements Emerged from Interviews
Value	Confrontation of inherent value against tradition and culture as well as business norms and operations; e.g., to have difference views with lecturers and locals in the host countries	**Cultural conflicts**
	To be in tension and confused; To feel lonely and home sick To be unhappy, stressed; To become culture sensitive;	**Cultural shock**
Attitude	To be passive in learning and interacting with local people To be discouraged by recognising gaps; To be reluctant to participate in class;	**Rejection to new culture**
	To take longer time to adapt to learning and living in new culture; To feel uncomfortable,	**Adaptation/ acculturation**
Behaviour	To influence training quality; To block smooth communication; e.g., knowledge acquisition; assignments; in-depth discussion	**Language barrier**
	To result in misconception; To result in conflicts unnecessary	**Misunderstanding**
	Barrier and collision in communication between various parties, e.g., between lecturers and students, between training organiser and training provider	**Miscommunication**
	To have difficulties in mixing with the host country people and with students from other culture background; The lack of information about the background of Chinese managers; e.g., education, business and their organisation	**Cross-cultural interaction (with local student/people**
	To have difficulties in everyday life, e.g., accommodation, travelling, shopping and information access.	**Living**

Performance	To influence learning and assimilation of knowledge; To reduce the efficiency of teaching and learning; To have difficulty to interpret concept or knowledge due to context difference; To become passive in learning and participation in classroom activities; e.g., to decrease quality of classroom learning, work experience and cross-cultural exchange; quality of assignments	**Learning outcomes**
	To have difficulties in getting information about learning, particularly for independent studies To be provided little support in information in relation to learning by training providers	**Information access**
	To be inconsistent of concepts with management and business operation	**Contradiction of concepts and performance ***
Impact on organisation	Higher costs comparing with domestic training; Longer time on assimilation of knowledge due to language barrier;	**Time/cost**
	Knowledge learnt not suitable for Chinese context, organisations, and business practices; Resistance of applying learning from home colleagues Constraints of environment to the transfer of Western knowledge, e.g., business operation, mindset of people and social relationship	**Transfer of learning**
	Disagreement of evaluation criteria; Different objectives of evaluation; Misunderstanding of assessment criteria for assignments	**Evaluation**
	Lack of clear objectives; To provide inappropriate programmes; Lack of post-training facilitation	**Development process**
Impact on context	To copy Western theory without considering Chinese situation such as different political and social system; To mislead conceptualisation of managers To think about establishing a more free and democratic society in China	**Pervasion of Western ideology**
	To be constrained by cultural difference between China and Western countries; To be constrained by national culture and organisational culture between two cultures, e.g., individualism vs. collectivism; high context vs. low context; power distance To be ignorant of the business background of Chinese managers, relevance to the management practice across cultures	**Gaps due to cultural difference**

*Newly emerged element from interviews

On the other hand the interviews with UK training institutions expose different arguments. One lecturer expressed the view that to some students it was difficult to change old habits and thus “become culturally sensitive”. Some of them were afraid of making mistakes in the class and thus adopted a passive attitude in discussion. Some of the trainees, one lecturer felt, did not have clear objectives for training and were not keen on getting to know about the host country. However one lecturer thought that some of her colleagues did not take into consideration the job background of Chinese managers and their cultural identity but took the same approach as when teaching their home students.

Thirdly, most interviewees except for those from the training department/organiser group mentioned that negative cultural influences not only occur in study but also in the daily living of the students, which in turn impact on their learning outcomes. One of the lecturers said that some of the students experienced cultural shock, e.g., being home sick, stressed, unhappy, and keeping away from local students and people. It is also found having seen the big gaps between China and host country in culture some Chinese managers are discouraged to accept Western ‘things’, which in turn results in the passive behaviour in study and interacting with the locals.

Some of the interviewees pointed out that the gap between Western theory and Chinese context negatively influenced the application of learning. For instance one Chinese manager commented: “I find it impossible to explain and analyse Chinese management practices by using Western theory. The situations between the two cultures are so different”. Some interviewees suggested that they experienced difficulties in trying to use Western models at their work. Likewise, one interviewed Chinese training manager expressed the view that some ideas and business practices could not be copied directly from one country to another because of the difference of cultures and other social factors. Similarly, one lecturer from UK training institution mentioned the danger that “the trainees may reach the conclusion that Western management model and approaches, particularly UK, are always right”. Moreover a few interviewees from training institutions suggested the possibility that “Chinese managers could go back thinking about establishing a more free and democratic society in China”.

Lastly, a new element ‘contradiction of new concepts and performance’ was identified from the interviews with China’s training departments/organisers and supervisors. As described by one training manager, the changes in concepts of ex-trainees' are not compatible with the management systems and norms in their organisations. "It takes time to influence the people around them such as senior officials, top management and employees in an organisation. This sometimes causes confusion in management operations and unsatisfactory performance", said one interviewed official. However a few interviewees argue that cultural difference has no negative impact at all. One lecturer expressed the view that the difference of culture was the "nurturing ground for management system and mode of an organisation". Another interviewed Chinese official commented: "…Our managers need to learn how to combine Western theory with their business practices and to innovate a new model which could embed in Chinese political system, economic foundation, social structure and cultural traditions".

10.4 SUMMARY OF CHAPTER 10

Evaluation is found not to be widely used in practice and there is unequal participation of the individual stakeholders in evaluating training. Among the major stakeholders training departments/organisers appear to be most involved in evaluation followed by the training institution group. Trainees, ex-trainees, and their organisations are perceived to have less involvement in evaluation. The exploration of the responsibility and purposes of different stakeholders in evaluation of training and their perceived barriers of evaluation demonstrates the different perceptions and focus of stakeholders on conducting evaluation. This leads to segmented processing of information and evaluating training effectiveness. The results show that the key problems are: no clear objectives of management training and development, unclear purposes and responsibility of evaluation, lack of evaluation criteria, methods, expertise and skills.

On the other hand, the findings show that all stakeholder groups surveyed agree that evaluation should be included as one part of training intervention. Multi-participation of the key stakeholders in evaluation is suggested. In addition to the responsibility of training departments/organisers and training institutions, trainees, ex-trainees and their organisations are recommended to participate in evaluating training, particularly of ex-trainees who have experienced the whole process of training and development. An independent evaluator is also highly recommended. This expresses the wish of particpants to increase the fairness and transparency in the process of training evaluation by inviting a neutral party and give independent evaluation. Therefore it can be concluded that there is not yet an integrated system of evaluation for China's management training and development and more should be done in evaluating activities.

The statistical analysis reveals the most popular evaluation criteria and methods, both in use and recommended by the surveyed respondents. However it appears that the perceptions of approaches to evaluation used in reality is related to the positions of the stakeholders and the phases of training in which they are involved. For example, the training institution group tends to use the methods and criteria in relation to instruction assessment such as 'pre-or-post training test', and 'extent of the continued demand for programme' while trainees and ex-trainees are more focused on those approaches in performance and organisational results, and post report by themselves.

Moreover the qualitative data has shown the problems arriving from these different approaches of evaluation by individual stakeholders. The diversity of evaluation approaches is also found to be influenced by the cultural background of the stakeholders involved. Moreover the special characteristics of management training constrain the effective evaluation of China's overseas management training, e.g., intangible and long-term features. Therefore the fragmentation of training evaluation needs to be replaced by a system of evaluation which is integrating into the process of training and development. Respondents recommend some new methods and criteria to meet the needs of this particular training intervention such as to measure the changes in concepts of trainees, and results beyond organisational level. A list of evaluation criteria and methods (see Appendix 8) identified in this study is provided which contributes to theory and approaches of training evaluationin.

The study of the perceptions of the major stakeholders involved about the cross-cultural impact on China's overseas management training and development has identified both positive and negative cultural interaction elements. They are classified into six categories: value, attitude, behaviour, performance, impact on organisation and impact on context, which refines Adler's cultural interaction cycle: culture, value, attitude, behaviour. The results are characterised by differences prioritising different elements by different stakeholders.

The findings from both the questionnaire survey and the semi-structured interviews are supportive of and complement each other. The statistical analysis demonstrates the most recognised cultural interaction elements through the ranking of frequencies by the average respondents. For the positive cultural interaction elements the most recognised elements are 'open-up views', 'change perception', 'change concepts', and 'cross-cultural exchange'; whereas for the negative cultural interaction elements the most perceived ones are 'language barrier', 'miscommunication', 'learning outcomes', and 'transfer of learning'. The interviews explain how these elements have positive and negative influences on the process of overseas management training and development. When studying and living in a new culture changes take place by structured learning and daily cross-cultural experiences, which brings a series of evolutions of value, attitude, behaviour, performance, which in turn impacts on the organisation and context both positively and negatively.

PART IV
SIGNIFICANCE OF FINDINGS

INTRODUCTION

The structure of Part IV is relatively simple by only consisting two chapters which summarise and concludes the arguments from the empirical findings reported in Part III. The inferences from this empirical study are drawn by referring to the theories elaborated in Part I.

Chapter 11 takes a holistic stance in reviewing qualitative and quantitative findings as well as discussing the arguments. This is underpinned by the conceptual framework of training effectiveness and training evaluation which is in line with management development across-culture. It is thus leading to the development of an evaluation framework for management training and development in a cross-cultural context.

Chapter 12 keeps a narrow focus in summarising the key findings from empirical study aligned with the objectives of this research. The contributions to the research have been clearly stated in the areas of theory, methodology, and empirical studies. The limitations of this research relate to both general methodological issues such as sample size, as well as mixed methods methodology of integrating quantitative and qualitative data. This thesis also sets up a direction for future research covering subjects of management development, training and evaluation, as well as methods to serve similar studies.

CHAPTER 11
INTERPRETATION AND DISCUSSION

11.0 PREAMBLE

The aim of this research was to develop an evaluation framework for management training and development in a cross-cultural context, using empirical studies on China's overseas management training and development through the lens of training effectiveness and training evaluation. This chapter summarises and discusses the findings in Part III and ascertains that the results have met the research objectives outlined in Chapter 1. Chapter 11 is composed of six parts. Section 11.1 takes a stakeholder analysis of the effectiveness of China's overseas management training and development. The characteristics and problems are discussed. The factors affecting learning and application, and cross-cultural impact are discussed in section 11.2. Section 11.3 elaborates the development of the evaluation framework for management training and development in cross-cultural settings. The last section, 11.4 concludes chapter 11.

11.1 CRITICAL REVIEW OF THE EFFECTIVENESS OF CHINA'S OVERSEAS MANAGEMENT TRAINING FROM THE PERSPECTIVES OF STAKEHOLDERS

As elaborated in section 1.1 Research Backgrounds, Chinese political and economical reform requires major changes at different organisational levels, and the demand for professional managers has been increasing over the last two decades (Cooke, 2005; Warner, 2004; Borgonjon and Vanhonacker, 1994; Child, 1994). Western management models and practices have been regarded as 'advanced' and 'scientific' by Chinese policymakers and senior managers (Branine, 2005). Cooke (2005) argues that management training and education in China has been influenced by Western management theories. In recent years, it has become a trend across China for central and local governments to send civil servants and enterprise managers to train and study abroad in order to bring new ideas, approaches and competences to their organisations (People's Daily Online, 2001; Wang, 2003).

As suggested by some authors (Kraiger *et al.*, 1993; Salas and Cannon-Bowers, 2001; Tannenbaum *et al.*, 1991; Easterby-Smith, 1994) research on training effectiveness needs to be viewed holistically rather than being narrowly considered as evaluating a training programme. Training effectiveness studies not only how well the trainees learn and apply their learning to work, but also how training is positioned and supported, what mechanisms are provided to enhance the effectiveness of learning and the positive transfer of learning to trainee' organisations. It also identify the factors of individuals, and organisations, that influence effective learning and application (section 3.1.1). This requires an analysis of context, the stakeholders involved and individual factors which impact on the process of management training and development.

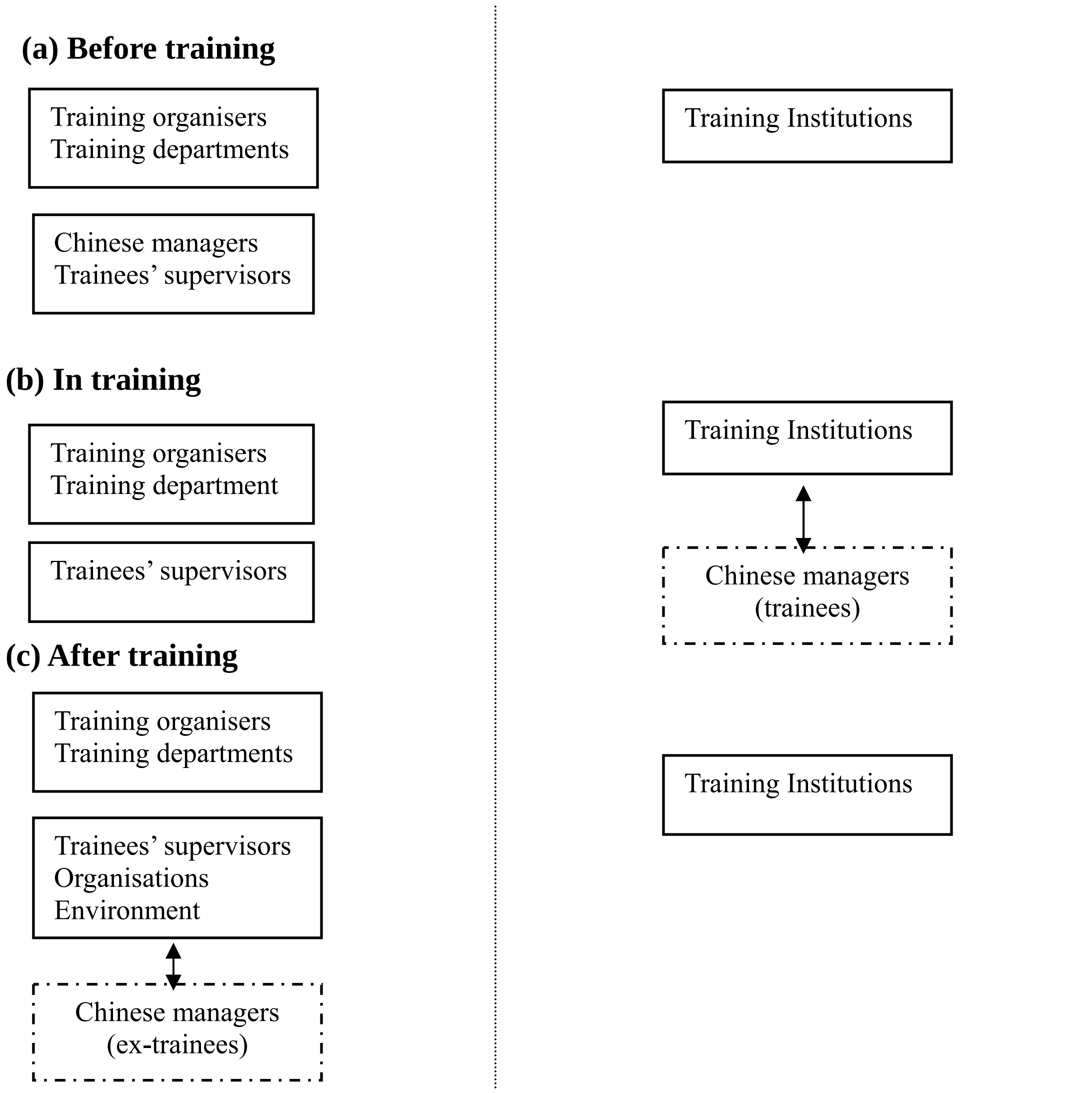
11.1.1 Attributes of the Major Stakeholders Involved in China's Overseas Management Training and Development

As defined in section 8.1 there are five stakeholders who form the core of this particular training intervention for Chinese managers' development. They are training departments/organisers, training institutions, trainees, ex-trainees, and trainees' supervisors (see Table 8.1). In the process of China's overseas management training and development these five stakeholders form certain relations over different phases of operation.

The most obvious positioning of the stakeholders is to distinguish them by cultural origin. As shown in Figure 11.1 four stakeholders are categorised in one national culture-Chinese culture-while the training institution in another, which belongs to an Anglo-Saxon cultural region in this particular case (see section 5.6.1.1). Taking a detailed look the China group training departments and training organisers are of one homogeneous group whereas Chinese managers and their supervisors are closely linked. It appears that training institutions are isolated from the other groups in terms of their culture. However, the configuration of relation diagram changes when the relationship is viewed from the perspective of the training process. Chinese managers are cross-over positioned in this case. In the learning period they interact with training institutions, while in the post-training phase they interact with their supervisors, organisations and Chinese environment. This can also be explained as a phenomenon of cultural dimensions (sections 4.1.2, 4.1.3), which will be discussed later.

Figure 11.1 Positioning of Stakeholders by Cultural Identity

Home country: Chinese culture | **Host country: Anglo-Saxon culture**



Looking at China's overseas management training and development from the process of learning and transfer, the parties in the learning phase mainly include training institutions and Chinese managers (trainees) (Bartram and Gibson, 1999; Brown, 2002, Noe, 1986); whereas trainees' organisations and ex-trainees consist of the main parties in the phase of knowledge transfer (Abdalla and Al-Homoud, 1995; Antonacopoulou, 1999). On the other hand training departments and training organisers initiate the intervention, make relevant policies, and administrate the process. They play an important part in the process of training and development. However this party can only work through other parties. From this perspective training departments and organisers act as a carrier for China's overseas management training and development. The diverse roles and imbalanced power and interests of the major stakeholders account for some key problems influencing training effectiveness (sections, 9.1.2.1 & 9.1.2.2 &9.2.2). The typical example is that Chinese managers and their organisations have the least influence on the key issue in training such as subject matter, contents and methods of delivery inspite of their highest interests in management training intervention. This partly supports the study of Thomson and his colleagues (2001) that the demand for development, and the methods, does not come from the managers (section 2.3.2).

From a business point of view the training organiser is a direct client of a training institution. Chinese managers are not usually acknowledged in the contract in relation to training delivery such as objectives, contents of training and facilities prior to the training. In addition, a smooth and accurate flow of information is not always guaranteed between the economic buyer, a training organiser and the programme deliverer, a training institution; between training department/organiser and trainees and their supervisors; and between training deliverer, training institution and trainees. This therefore causes confusion in the training process, for example conflicts between learners and teachers in the learning process (sections 9.1.1.1 & 9.1.1.2), which can be described as a conflict of meeting the expectations of Chinese managers. Moreover training institutions might not expect an information block at the China end.

However there are other influences on the effectiveness of training programme. For instance, like all external training on-time adjustment of the courses to meet the real needs is not always practical due to the time span of a specific training course. In this particular case the physical and cultural distance of the various stakeholders add barriers to operating the training activities. Therefore how to overcome these obstacles needs to be explored by means of incorporating evaluation to make adjustment and increase the effectiveness of training.

11.1.2 Overseas Management Training- A Way of Developing Managers in the Reality of Modern Management Theory and Operations

The findings demonstrate that it is believed by Chinese policy makers that a 'high-level international personnel training and development strategy' provides a solution to the new challenges presented by China's WTO membership and globalisation (sections 9.1.3.2 & 9.2.2). In recent years, with the development of the institutional reform and WTO-regulation adaptation, there is an increasing demand for managerial expertise in public administration, business management, human resource management, finance, and social development (section 1.1 & 8.2.3). Although many local educational institutions in China offer the management training and education which are prevalent in developed countries (Cooke, 2005; Alon and Lu, 2004) the policy makers also choose to cooperate with the educational institutions and training organisations abroad, particularly in Western countries (Jiang, 2002; Sun, 2004) (section 8.2.4).

Compared with taking management training and education in China, studying abroad aims to expose Chinese managers to the 'real world' of modern management which originates from the West. It allows the managers to learn not only from textbooks but also from working with the organisations of host countries and other activities such as seminars, business and cultural visits and even from daily living (section 9.1.1). In other words, the learning is attained through structured management programmes as well as experiential and accidental learning. This provides evidence to support the argument of combining formal management development activities and informal management development made by Mumford (1997), Thomson *et al*. (2001), and Mabey (2002) (section 2.1.4). Moreover the results show that there is a constant interaction of Chinese managers with the environment of the host countries where they take trainings (section 9.1.1), which complies with the theories of Kolb's experiential learning, Mumford's informal management development and Yamazaki's cross-cultural learning (section 2.1.4 and 2.2.3). However differences and problems exist in terms of the development methods which will be discussed later.

The study of transfer of learning has demonstrated positive changes for Chinese managers and multi-faceted impacts: these are talent benefit, economic benefit, social benefit, and openness benefit (section 9.2.2). This agrees with the previous research (Mumford, 1997; Branine, 2005; Winterton and Winterton, 1997) that management development activities have multi-faceted impacts, for example, improved performance of individuals, business and organisers; developments in economy, strategy, and human resource development system (section 2.3.3). In addition this study adds new implications to the impact of management training. Firstly, it changes the concepts and perceptions of Chinese managers to the notion of management and develops their competencies in analysing and solving managerial problems. Secondly, it enhances the mutual understanding of peoples between West and China and brings awareness of the diversity of cultures in the post WTO era. This in turn promotes a foreign-oriented economy, and China's openness to the outside world. Thirdly, the impact is shown not only at an organisational level but also at a regional, even national one.

11.1.3 Conceptual Problems of China's Overseas Management Training

The review of literature showed arguments in relation to definitions and notions of management development, education and training (sections 2.1.1, & 2.1.2, & 2.1.3). The term China's overseas "management training" could mislead one into adopting a narrower concept in the light of the theories of previous work. It suggests improving managers' knowledge, skills and attitudes through planned and structured learning (section 2.1.2). This research reveals that in reality the intervention of "China's overseas management training" contains a broader meaning. Firstly it is under the 'hat' of management development which aims to improve managerial work to embrace and deliver business changes through both planned and deliberate formal learning and informal experiential learning. It looks at long-term pay-off rather than short-term results (section 2.1.1). Secondly, China's overseas management training is also characterised by reframing and developing managers' mindsets such as refining and influencing attitude, insights, concepts, and values. It mostly aims to change the whole person and total career with a long-term pay-off (section 2.1.3).

Thirdly, it is difficult to classify the intervention of degree studies. Are they categorised into long-term management training or management education? As discussed in section 2.1.3 education differs from training in various aspects. This may therefore cause confusion prior to training, particularly when there are no clearly defined objectives. The other problem is how to define and clarify 'management training' and/or 'management education' as formal development activities in the context of 'management development'. For instance, it could cause confusion between what the subject matter describes in words and the meaning of it. It is especially crucial for China's overseas management training intervention which involves communications in cross-cultural and language interpretation and is underpinned by the learning environment and transfer environment (Child and Tsai, 2005).

11.1.4 Perceptual Problems about Approaches of China's Overseas Management Training by Different Stakeholders

Similar to the conceptual confusion discussed above, there exists disagreement about the appropriateness of management development methods, and different views about quality of delivery among the major stakeholders. For example the UK training institutions under investigation hold the most positive views about the total quality of training delivery and methods of delivery, particularly for 'instruction' (sections 9.1.1.1 & 9.1.1.2). On the other hand complaints are heard from the interviewed Chinese managers that there is too much theoretical teaching, and not enough work practice in management reality (section 9.1.2.3). The key problem which needs to be addressed here is the difference between: (a) management education in an educational institution, (b) management training for development. The former activity focuses on management knowledge and skills in academic area, whereas the second one places more emphasis on management practices in the form of company visits, work experiences (sections 2.1.3 & 9.1.2.4). The definition of management training appears to be the key reason to result in different perceptions between training institutions and other stakeholders regarding the approaches of training delivery (section 9.1.2.4.2).

The contemporary theory of management development refines management training into two major categories: formal management development process and informal management development process (section 2.1.4). As discussed in section 11.1.1.1 China's overseas management training and development provides evidence to support the above theory. It also relates to Kolb's four-stage learning cycle. The key issue in this respect is how well the training deliverers recognise and meet this need. Moreover, the implication of experiential learning theory is that 'learning' should not be followed by a 'full stop' after training and education, but aims at 'development'. It contains two dimensions: (a) from concrete learning experience to abstract conceptualisation, and (b) from intentional reflection of learning to the extensional experimentation of new learning (section 2.2.1). The latter dimension is a process of transformation of knowledge, which transfers knowledge learnt in management training and education to the managerial reality, and which completes the circle of management development (2.2.1). The current management training and development reveals little or even no involvement of Western training institutions in the phase of knowledge transfer. Therefore, how to make use of external resources beyond the organisation to facilitate post-training management development needs to be explored.

11.1.5 Objectives' Problems of Meeting the Needs of Multi-Levels in Relation to Training Delivery

There is consensus on the previous research that any management development activity should link closely to business strategies and focus on the managerial reality of an organisation (section 2.3.1). It is also argued that management training should address individual needs (section 2.3.2). The analysis of power and interests of stakeholders in China's management development intervention has revealed an imbalance between policy-makers and Chinese managers (section 11.1.1.2). In addition hardly any needs assessment in China's overseas management training intervention has been found either at organisational or individual levels (section 9.1.2.1). Indeed, meeting the 'designed objectives' of management training is more satisfactory than meeting the organisational and individuals' objectives in this research (9.1.3.1). This raises questions of: (a) what the designed objectives written in training protocols agreed by training organisers in China and UK training institutions are based on? (b) to what extent do they link with the organisational and individuals' objectives? Consequently various problems arise such as identifying the resources of training providers, contents and methods of delivery, which in turn affects the effectiveness of learning and teaching (section 2.3.2 & 9.1.2.1).

Moreover the empirical study exposes the fact that training departments and organisers emphasise the factor of training objectives less (section 9.4.1, 9.3.1) than other stakeholders and the respondents from training institutions have little awareness of what the training objectives are (section 9.1.3.2). This could be explained as the major reason for vague objectives of training, which causes the mismatching of the delivery of training and expectations of trainees. The other difficulty is meeting objectives of individual trainees, which affect efficient learning and will be discussed in a later section.

11.2 THE KEY FACTORS AFFECTING CHINESE MANAGERS' LEARNING AND TRANSFER OF NEW LEARNT KNOWLEDGE TO WORK IN A CROSS-CULTURAL SETTING

The aim of the intervention of China's overseas management training is to make managers learn from the West and apply the new learning to the Chinese context. The learning cycle thus takes place in two national cultures, which are far from each other. Furthermore the factors influencing the effectiveness of training and development are characterised as culturally sensitive due to the focus of this research. The discussion of this section mainly includes the factors with cultural identities and it covers research questions 2 (c) and 2 (d).

11.2.1 Factors Affecting Learning Effectiveness

Learning in a foreign language is probably the major barrier in the process of learning and teaching for Chinese managers (section 9 &10), which echoes some other cultural studies on cross-cultural learning (section 4.3.1). Secondly the cultural differences between the host country and home country have multiple effects on learning effectiveness. They are (a) the psychological well-being of Chinese managers due to cultural shock (section 4.2.1 & 9.3.2), (b) conceptual and perceptual differences about managerial operations between the Chinese managers and lecturers and local professionals, (c) different approaches to the methods of learning and teaching, as well as, (d) the applicability of the designed programmes to China's business environment and management system (section 4.3.1 & 10.3.2.2). Previous research suggests that the course design and pedagogical approach in cross-cultural teaching and learning needs to be culturally sensitive (section 4.3.2). Thirdly individuals' learning preferences in a new culture determine their learning attributes such as skills, ability, styles and attitudes (sections 2.2.1 & 4.3.1). In addition it becomes a challenge for Western training institutions to design and deliver training courses for Chinese managers in a group setting without knowing their career backgrounds and individuals' needs before delivery (section 2.2.4 & 9.1.3.2).

Moreover the designation of Chinese managers' learning in overseas management training involves not only theory learning but also various practical activities in the host country such as work experiences, business networking and cultural exchanges with local professionals and communities. This finding supports Kayes' (2002) criticism to Kolb's ELT that it only emphasises personal learning experience. Kayes (2002) suggests including social knowledge and contextual factors into experiential learning, such as political, social, and cultural factors (see section 2.2.1). It also raises the issue of availability of resources in the host country; whether there is a demand from the local organisations and communities; and to what extent the western training institutions are committed to bridging the needs between Chinese managers and the locals. This appears to be a gap in previous studies and needs to be addressed as an issue of management training and development in cross-cultural settings. Last but not least, studying and living in Western countries Chinese managers encounter varieties of difficulties in everyday life such as accommodation, transport, information access, language barriers, and cross-cultural adaptation (sections 4.2 & 9.3.2). The awareness of the Western training providers to these factors is critical to ensure the learning efficiency of Chinese managers', which requires not only academic support but also non-academic facilitations to those students from other cultural backgrounds.

11.2.2 Factors Affecting Transfer of Learning

Literature on training and learning places most emphasis on training design, work environment, individual characteristics, and evaluation criteria (section 2.2.5). The results of this study not only provide evidence to support the previous research but also add new elements. For example it identifies differences of political-social system, and the level of economic development between the West and China (section 2.2.5 & 9.4.1 and 9.4.2). It also specifies cross-cultural factors such as value, concept, and norms which are underpinned by national cultures and organisational cultures of the host and home country respectively (sections 2.2.5, 4.1.1, 4.1.2, 4.1.3, and 9.4.2). The differences in concept and operation of management models and systems are addressed between the West and China in the findings of this study (see section 9.4.2).

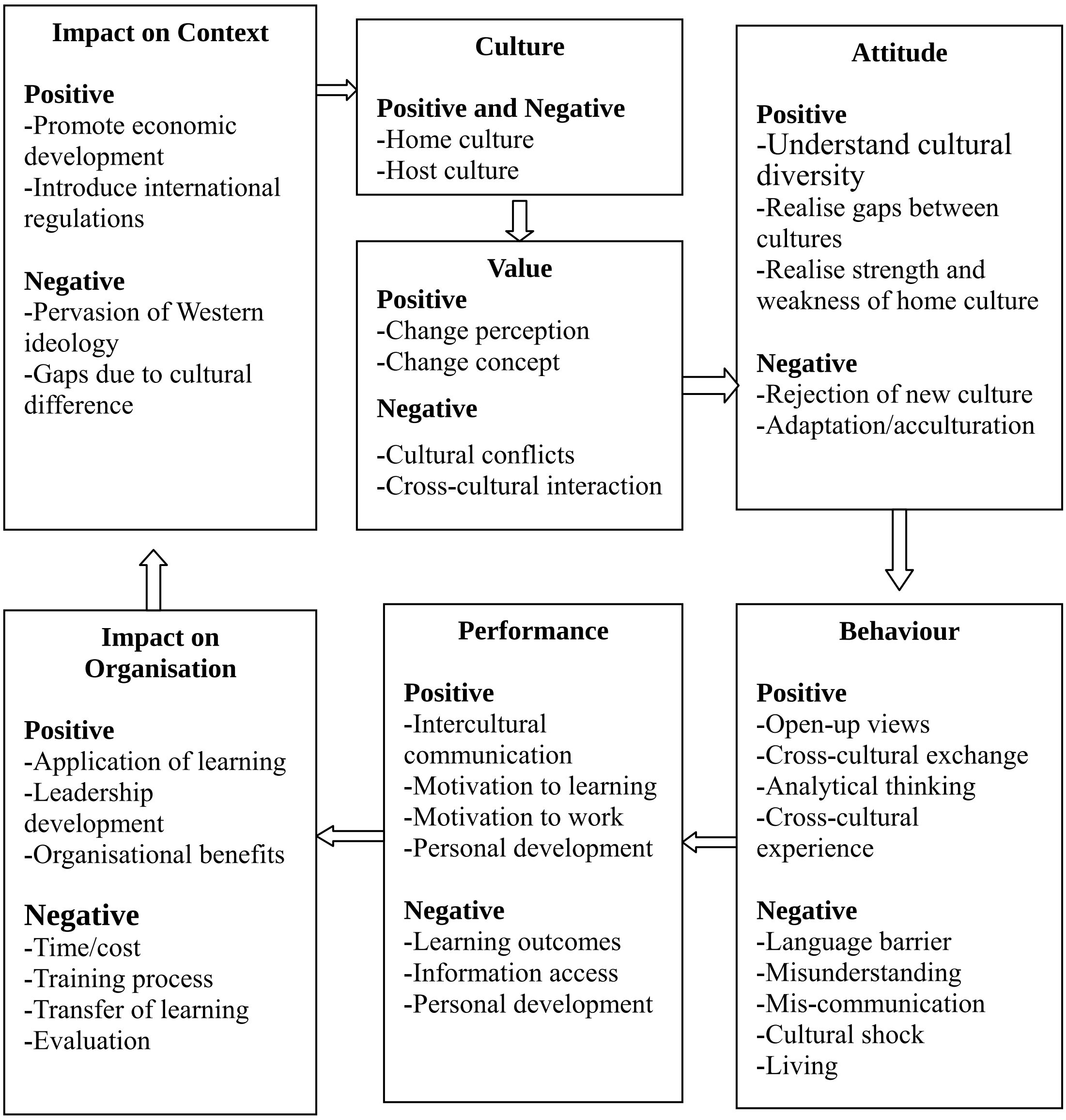
This research has further identified two important elements: post-training facilitation and pre-course preparation, which affect the transfer of learning both directly and indirectly. This has been supported by traditional and recent research on cross-cultural training, which provides evidence of the importance of the critical function of preparing managers to work more effectively in a new culture (sections 4.3.3.1, 4.3.3.2 and 4.3.3.4). These thus enhance the effectiveness of management learning, which in turn increases the extent of learning transfer. The post-training facilitation of Chinese managers is equally important as pre-course preparation which relates to the theory of cross-cultural adjustment and knowledge transfer (sections 4.2.2 & 4.3.2). For instance, the process of knowledge transfer across cultures cannot be free from the social-political, as well as economic and cultural context of countries involved. Helping Chinese managers' application of Western management knowledge contains a broader meaning, re-entry into the Chinese system, retention of their learning, mentoring and coaching. However the current practice of China's overseas management intervention can be critiqued for its inefficiency in areas such as the pre-departure programmes. In addition there is hardly any contribution of UK expertise to the post-training management activities of ex-trainees.

11.2.3 Cultural Interaction in the Process of China's Overseas Management Training and Development

Culture is interpreted by Hofstede and Hofstede (2005) as the 'software' of people's mind containing various elements such as values, thinking, attitudes, feeling, behaviour which are underpinned by the environment in which they exist (section 4.1.1). Hofstede and Hofstede further define culture as the "collective programming of the mind" which distinguishes one group of people from another, and the member of one organisation from another (sections 4.1.2 & 4.1.3). Moreover previous cultural studies have found causal relationships between managerial concepts and culture (section 4.3.2). In the process of overseas management training and development Chinese managers have experienced two-dimensional cultural interactions: (a) home country versus host country, (b) host organisation versus home organisation. Based on Adler's theory of cultural interaction process (section 4.1.1) the development activities of Chinese managers involve cultural interaction with value, attitude, behaviour, performance, impact on organisation and impact on context, which extends Adler's (2002) cultural interaction chain of culture, value, attitude, and behaviour. Moreover the empirical findings of this study have identified 18 elements respectively which impact positively and negatively on the training process in relation to the above-mentioned cultural interaction process.

The positive and negative cultural interaction process is illustrated in Figure 11.2.

Figure 11.2 Cultural Interaction Cycle



Since value reflects the core of an individuals' mind the positive interaction elements change perception and concept accordingly. Secondly, changes take place in attitude with better understanding of cultural diversity, as Chinese managers realise gaps between host culture and home culture as well as recognising the pros and cons of the culture they originate from. Next, their views are opened up while exposed to a new cultural environment under constant cross-cultural exchanges with people from another culture. Critical thinking is then developed. Fourthly, cultural predominance and novelty motivate individuals' enthusiasm for learning and work which could promote managers' career development. Cultural interaction also enhances the intercultural communication skills of individuals through management training activities. As a consequence, trainees' organisations benefit from positive results brought by their managers from learning abroad such as international cooperation, and leadership development with global views. Last but not least, the positive impact is manifested at the national level which stimulates the economic development and China's globalisation such as post-WTO implementation.

Similar to the positive cultural interaction the negative cultural interaction elements function in a similar process as illustrated in Figure 11.2. Firstly, cross-cultural interaction and cultural conflicts between Chinese managers and local people such as lecturers, students and community can bring confusion of values. It then could lead to the attitude change of trainees which causes difficulty of acculturation and even rejection of the new culture. Thirdly, misunderstanding, mis-communication, cultural shock and problems in daily living occur, which in turn result in inefficiency of learning and teaching, information access, as well as a negative influence on the personal development of Chinese managers. Consequently, this negatively impacts on trainees' organisation in terms of complexity of the training process, increased costs and time, transfer of learning and evaluation. Lastly, Chinese managers can over-estimate cultural differences and react passively. It makes the pervasion of Western ideology possible which may be regarded as unhealthy by the Chinese government.

11.3 DEVELOPMENT OF KOLB'S EXPERIENTIAL LEARNING THEORY IN THE LIGHT OF CROSS-CULTURAL MANAGEMENT LEARNING AND DEVELOPMENT

Increasing criticism of Kolb's experiential learning theory have required researchers and practitioners to rethink its validity and applicability to contemporary management learning in various contexts. Kolb and *et al* (2001) appeal for contributions to empirical testing of the theoretical propositions of integrated learning. This section develops a critical discussion of Kolb's experiential learning theory (1984) by providing empirical evidence of Chinese managers' learning in the West and transformation of Western management theory and practices to Chinese organisations and environment. Section

11.3.1 conducts critiques of Kolb's ELT from the perspective of modern management development theory whilst section 11.3.2 argues from a cross-cultural viewpoint. It sheds light on the development of Kolb's theory of experiential learning in management training and development, extending the learning cycle of management learning and development and refining the cultural elements in the process of learning and development.

11.3.1 Evaluation of Experiential Learning Theory in Relation to Management Learning in the Process of Management Training and Development

In previous chapters (section 2.1 & 2.2.3) learning has been defined as the core of any management development activities such as management training and education. Many authors (Vince, 1998; Holman, et al., 1997; and Kayes, 2002) have argued that Kolb's experiential learning model serves as the most influential theoretical basis for management learning in the area of management education, training and development. However it is questionable whether Kolb's ELT, developed 20 years ago, is still related to the management environment and reality (Reynolds, 1999; Holman *et al.*, 1997; Dehler, et al., and Vince, 1998). This research attempts to reconceptualise the nature and characteristics of experiential learning in relation to management training and development by critically reviewing Kolb's experiential learning theory in the following four categories.

11.3.1.1 Contextualisation of management learning *v.s.* Individual-focused learning process

Kolb's ELT provides a fundamental understanding of the individual learning process from the perspective of experiential learning. His contribution to management learning is to integrate four types of management learning into one process: action-driven, cognition, reflection, and experience which are considered as the basic approaches of management learning (Kayes, 2002). However the focus on individual learning and self-assessment of Kolb's ELT has attracted more criticism in recent years. Kayes (2002:146) argues that 'experience no longer maintains a privileged category inaccessible from the social world', but 'relies on the context of existing social knowledge'. The limitation is that the society and environment defined by Kolb (1984) is in the context of individual perspectives or in the 'learning and teaching' setting.

Another problem of Kolb's experiential model is the fact of separating individual learning process and the interference of the learning environment. In a real world management learning cannot be regarded as an individual activity, but a process constantly interacting with its context. For example the findings of this study have demonstrated that learning environment, socio-political and cultural factors are well recognised by Chinese managers in the learning process (section 9.1.1.2 & 9.3.2).

11.3.1.2 Multiple levels of learning *v.s.* consciousness of learning

Kolb's ELT (1984:146-151) stresses the role of consciousness in the process of learning and development, but neglects the occurring of unconscious experiences in management learning. Vince (1998) argues from psychological principle that experience is not always a conscious action. Consciousness explained by Kolb relates to a structural learning model. The empirical findings of this research in section 9.1.1.2 & 10.3.2 show a different picture of learning feature in which learning can be attained through other forms rather than conscious and structured learning activity. In other words transformation of management knowledge is achieved not only by means of a conscious learning process but also via accidental or unconscious experience of individuals. For example, Chinese managers' conceptualisation of Western way of thinking and doing is also derived from daily interaction with the locals and perhaps instinct observations. Ignoring unconscious experience in management learning and development is critically flawed. This finding also adds value to the argument of incorporation of formal and informal management development approaches in the theory of management development (section 2.1.4).

11.3.1.3 Diversity of factors affecting learning *v.s.* limited account of factors

Kayes (2002) argues that a broader conceptualisation of experiential learning theory is needed to facilitate a diversity system of management learning. The factors affecting learning identified in this research agree with some of the criticism that Kolb's ELT plays too much attention on individual learning cycle, but neglects the relationship between individual learning and other elements existing in the learning process (Kayes, 2005, Holman *et al.*, 1997, Vince, 1998). For example, language, culture and communication have been found to be key factors affecting the effectiveness of management learning in this research (see section 9.1, 10. 3.2 and 11.2.1). It is suggested by some authors (Vince, 1998; Kayes, 2002) that experiential learning focus on linguistic processes, dialogue and conversation that mediate the interaction between individuals and social knowledge in the direct experience of management learning. Vince (1998) also points out that emotional elements like fear, anxiety, and doubt can influence individuals usually at the beginning of a learning process, which is supported by the findings of this study (see section 9.3.1, 9.3.2, and 10.3). The implications of emerging factors in relation to Chinese managers' learning in the West suggest the complexity and diversity of management learning and the need to place greater emphasis on studying multiple factors impacting on learning rather than being constrained by previous work.

11.3.1.4 Inclusion of theory of transfer *v.s.* learning in a narrower frame

It seems that experiential learning theory largely rests on the four-elements cycle (Kolb 1984:21-25; Kayes, 2002:139). Despite the criticism on Kolb's ELT cyclical process comprising four distinct and sequential stages the learning cycle has influenced both researchers and practitioners in various applications. This research questions the theoretical flaw of the fourth stage of learning: active experimentation. Kolb has grounded his experiential theory strongly on the process of knowledge transformation (Kolb, 1984: 40-43). He emphasises explaining the nature of knowledge and acquisition of knowledge through individuals' direct experience. However there is a lack of elaboration of the process of knowledge transfer and the context underpinning the process. This research contributes to experiential theory by integrating transfer of learning into management learning and development (see section 2.2.5 & 4.3.2). The findings provide evidence that the effectiveness of Chinese managers' learning is not only influenced by their experience in host country but also affected by the activities of applying learning to their organisations (see section 9.4.2). It is a constant process of interaction of individuals with the environment of the host country and the home country. This research therefore shows that there is a need to incorporate the theory of training transfer into the experiential learning theory as well as to study the factors affecting positive transfer of learning in cross-cultural conditions.

11.3.2 Analysing Management Learning Process from the Perspectives of Chinese Managers' Training and Development across Paradigms of China and West

As discussed in section 2.2.1 Kolb's experiential learning theory has laid a basic foundation for understanding the nature of management learning. However the development of the management world is exhibiting more complex characteristics than those of 20 years ago when Kolb's ELT was established. For example business activities are becoming more global, so the management mode needs to adapt to the dynamism of organisational operation (Mintzberg, 2004). This requires new competence of managers to handle complicated managerial work which challenges existing approaches to management development (Mintzberg and Gosling, 2002). It has been elaborated in section 11.1.2 that sending Chinese managers to the West to learning is one of the useful methods for management development to embrace business changes. Chinese managers' learning in overseas management training and development has been characterised by the uniqueness of cross-cultural interaction between host country and home country. It impacts on the learning and development process which in turn provides new meaning to experiential learning theory in the context of management training and development.

11.3.2.1 Cultural interaction in Chinese managers' cross-cultural learning experience

There is an increasing awareness of the relations between culture and pedagogical issues, educational paradigm shifts, management concepts, and knowledge transfer (see section 4.3.1 & 4.3.2). However there is a paucity of studies of how culture impacts on individuals' learning experience. The empirical findings of this research illustrate positive and negative interactive cycle of culture in relation to value, attitude, behaviour, performance, impact on organisation, and impact on context (see section 10.3). As discussed in section 11.2 cross-cultural interaction impacts on the management learning and development process which acts as catalyst for changing the mindset of Chinese managers. As shown in Figure 11.3 there exist two interfaces of cultural interaction: knowledge acquisition and application of new learning. In interface 1 the learning process is influenced by confrontation between Chinese cultural dimensions and Western cultural dimensions (see section 11.2.1). They could be represented in forms of learning and teaching, managerial activities, interaction with locals, and daily life (see section 9.3). Another interface remains in the process of transfer of learning which is demonstrated by negotiation of organisational environment, China/Western context, societies and peer groups (see section 9.4). It means that either knowledge attaining or application of Chinese managers is cultural sensitive. However Kolb's ELT does not address the cultural impact on management learning in his experiential learning cycle.

11.3.2.2 Paradigm shift of Chinese managers in cross-cultural learning and development

Mintzberg (2002) argues that modern management education needs to let managers 'reflect thoughtfully on their experience'. He suggests the importance of constructing managers' mindset in management learning between reflection and action. Looking at the learning and development process of Chinese managers it involves two phases of paradigm shifts of their mindset (see Figure 11.3). Chinese managers possess their own epistemology in terms of management knowledge which derives from their managerial practices and experiences in the past. The learning process of Chinese managers covers two phases with dual paradigm shifts of their mindsets. In the phase of training in the Western countries new knowledge is created through experience, reflection and comparison of previous experiences and new observation, synthesis and abstract conceptualisation (see section 10.3). The first paradigm change in the mindset of managers is thus delivered. The second paradigm shift of mindset occurs during the training transfer phase while managers try to use their new learning to workplace. This involves active experimentation, reflection of new leaning and reflective observation of management reality, and abstract conceptualisation. It leads to the creation of new knowledge which combines Western and Chinese management philosophy. The analysis of Chinese managers' learning process thus demonstrates a new pattern of learning which exhibits seven steps of learning (see Figure 11.4) rather than four stages learning cycle suggested by Kolb (1984). It is obvious that cultural interaction plays important role in paradigm shift of Chinese managers' mindset. It also provides guideline for evaluating the effectiveness of management learning and development which underpins the evaluation framework for management training and development in cross-cultural condition discussed in next section.

Figure 11.3 Paradigm Shifts of Chinese Managers Mindset and Experiential Learning Process

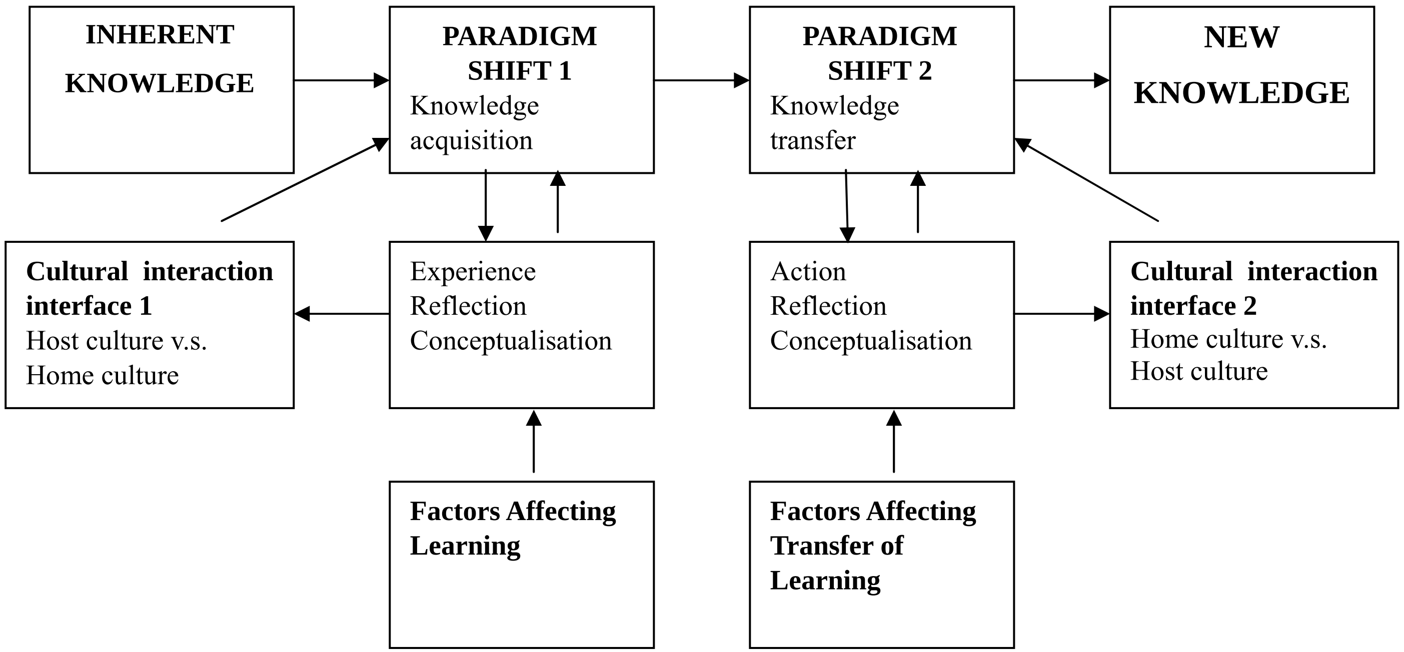
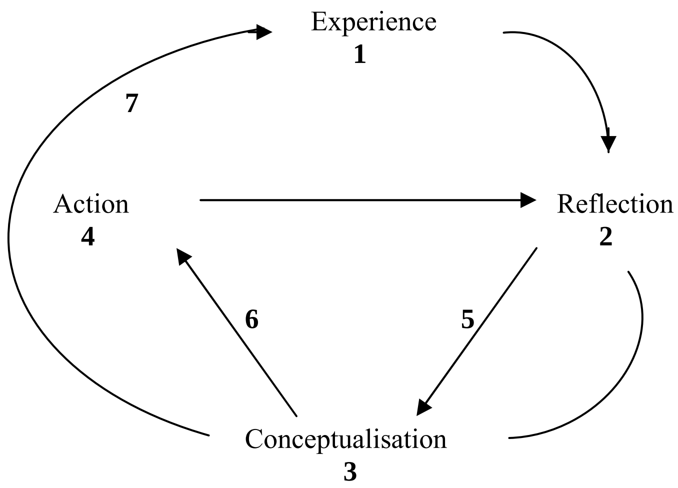


Figure 11.4 Learning Process of Chinese Managers in Overseas Management Training and Development



11.3.3 Implications for the Development of Kolb's ELT in the Context of Management Training and Development in Cross-cultural Condition

Critical analysis of Kolb's ELT as well as the cross-cultural learning process of Chinese managers provides arguments that Kolb's ELT does not fit into all approaches of management learning and should be modified to adapt to different situations. From the perspectives of Chinese management training and development in cross-cultural context the following issues need to be taken into consideration for the development of Kolb's ELT.

Firstly, the learning and development process does not necessarily operate in the mode of four stages cycle with two dialectical dimensions. The reality of management learning especially in cross-cultural settings is far too complicated to be explained by two functional dimensions through concrete experience to abstract conceptualisation, as well as intentional reflection to extensional action (Kolb, 1984). It needs creative views to examine the nature and process of learning and development rather than being constrained by the four-stage cycle learning.

Secondly, the structure of knowledge is found to be culturally rich, interacting with managers, knowledge deliverers and receivers, and the environment where learning activities exist. The transformation of knowledge involves a paradigm shift of individuals and is affected by both home and host culture. This provides a new perspective for experiential learning theory by shifting away from the focus of the four elements cycle and emphasising the relationship of experiential learning and mindset change of individuals during the transformation of knowledge.

Thirdly, the argument of integrating theory of training transfer has set up a direction for experiential learning theory in the area of management training and development. In other words experiential learning theory should not only study individual characteristics, and learning issues such as contents of learning, and methods of teaching, but also the post-training context such as social, political system, economic mode, organisational operations, and humanity.

Last but not least, the suggestion of accountability for multiple factors, and cultural interaction elements in the cross-cultural learning and development process overcome the limitations of decontextualisation of Kolb's ELT. For instance, studying the factors affecting learning and transfer should be included in experiential learning theory to enable exploration and identification of these factors and enhance the effectiveness of management learning.

11.4 A STAKEHOLDER APPROACH TO THE EVALUATION OF MANAGEMENT TRAINING AND DEVELOPMENT IN CROSS-CULTURAL CONTEXT

The phenomenological investigation of the intervention of China's overseas training for management development has demonstrated the diversities of perspectives of the major stakeholders involved in this process. Training evaluation has historically not been regarded as an easy task. From Kirkpatrick's classical evaluation model to the latest development of training evaluation the contribution of researchers and practitioners to the theory of evaluation has been massive (section 3.2). As agreed by some authors (Easterby-Smith, 1994; Bramley, 1996b; McClelland, 1994) evaluation is a comprehensive process which integrates with other systems (section 3.3). In addition there is no 'universal model' for all types of training (Lewis, 1996; Phillips, 2003; Hamblin, 1974). Therefore the strategy and approach of evaluating a particular training intervention needs to be studied (Tannenbaum and Woods, 1992) (section 3.3).

11.4.1 Characteristics and Problems of China's Overseas Management Training and Evaluation

Firstly, the current evaluation system appears to have a methodological weakness. China's overseas management training is an initiative of Chinese government departments which is jointly sponsored by government funding and organisational budget. The current evaluation activities are carried out mostly by training departments and organisers in China. In addition the Western training providers implement evaluation by assessing the learning outcomes of Chinese managers. Chinese managers and their organisations are perceived as hardly participating in training evaluation (section 10.1.1.3). However the fundamental purpose of evaluating training is for the sponsors to ascertain the value and worth of a particular training intervention, for example whether trainees achieve their learning and whether training has brought any positive impacts to the trainees' organisations and environment (sections 3.1.1 & 3.1.2). The findings of the research question 3 (e) and (f) show little sign of the joint effort of judgment in training effectiveness by the major stakeholders, particularly the Chinese managers and their organisations (section 10.1 & 10.2). This therefore challenges the appropriateness of the current evaluation approach as well as the validity and reliability of the evaluation results.

A second characteristic of China's overseas management training and evaluation is the role differences of the major stakeholders involved in training evaluation, which in turn determines the different objectives for training evaluation. For example, as the initiator and organisers the training departments and training organisations are more focused on the adjustment of the training function and continuity of overseas management activities, whereas the training institutions emphasise whether the management training courses have achieved the desired objectives and the quality of the programme delivery. Furthermore individual stakeholders' different purposes of training evaluation obviously lead to diversity of evaluation criteria and different approaches to evaluation. This raises the question of how to integrate a fragmentary evaluation process into one system and to standardise evaluation criteria by aligning with specific objectives.

The next characteristic is the necessity for multilateral data gathering and transformation among the various parties in order to obtain useful information and assess the value of training in the light of that information (section 3.1.1). For the purpose of maintaining the quality of learning and transfer of knowledge a dynamic information flow is required between the major stakeholders. However in reality unilateral data collection has proven to be the key problem in the process of training and evaluation. For example the training organiser relies mostly on post training reports whilst the training institution can only obtain information in the learning phase (section 10.2.1 & 10.2.2). Evaluation is thus based on segmented information and reveals single-faceted results at a particular time and space (section 10.2.2 & 10.2.1.2). The whole picture is hardly being reflected which reduces the validity of evaluation by any individual party. In addition this makes improvement of programmes impossible, which is regarded by both researchers and practitioners (Bramley, 1996a; Brown and Gerhardt, 2002; Easterby-Smith, 1994; Weston *et al*., 1995) as one of the major purposes of training evaluation (section 3.1.2).

A fourth characteristic is that the impact of management training usually takes longer to show and it is difficult to measure the extent of that impact (section 2.3.3 & 3.2.5 and 3.2.6). For instance it is found that the changes of Chinese managers in behaviour and performance are observed at least 6 months and 12 months after training respectively (section 9.2.1.2). In addition the achievements derived from training, which are perceived by various stakeholders, are mostly intangible and hardly measurable quantitatively (section 9.2.2). This therefore challenges the methods of evaluation that meet the requirements of the major stakeholders in terms of their objectives in training and evaluation as well as the feasibility of implementing evaluation.

11.4.2 Stakeholder-Based Training Evaluation: A Plausible Approach to China's Overseas Management Training

Apart from the complexity and problems identified in the latter section there is a consensus, found in this empirical study, of the necessity of evaluation by all stakeholders (section 10.1.1.3). This echoes previous studies' findings that evaluation of training is one part of the training process (section 3.1.2). It also needs the contribution of various parties involved in the process in order to provide rich and precise information for a relatively objective judgement of the value and worth of a particular training intervention. Moreover evaluating training for management development can never be isolated from other related activities as well as from the underpinning environment. The evaluation of China's overseas management training therefore requires the participation of the key stakeholders from different perspectives and different cultural backgrounds.

Out of a variety of approaches stakeholder-based evaluation has stood out for its specific features that meet the requirements of the evaluation of China's overseas management training. Firstly it leads to a "mutual accountability and responsibility" of all stakeholders involved in the process (Nickols, 2005). This stimulates the proactive and cooperative attitude of stakeholders in the process of training and evaluation. Secondly, it maximises the information source from different perspectives by inviting every single opinion as well as offering balanced views rather than being based on one stakeholder such as trainees or trainers (Nickols, 2005). It thus increases the reliability of data collection which in turn enhances the validity of evaluation results.

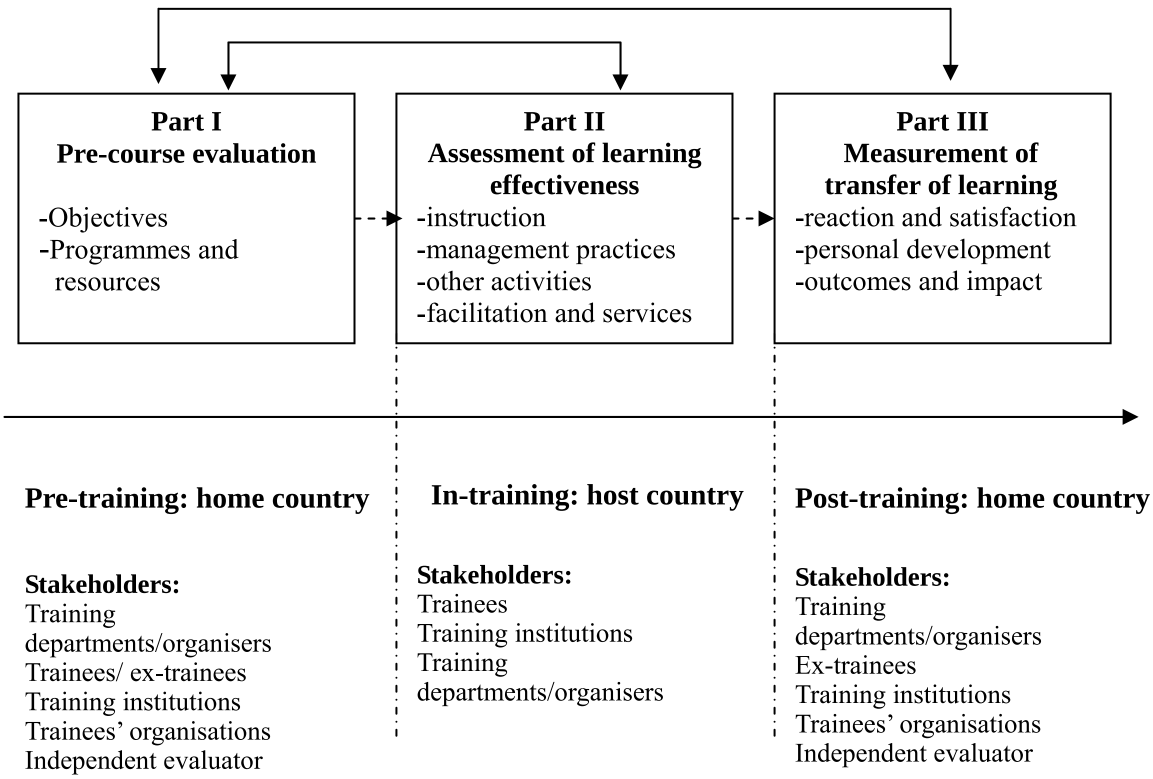
Thirdly, it shifts the focus from results or outcomes only to include the training design before implementation. This could involve pre-course measures, if necessary, which enhance the appropriateness of programmes and methods of delivery. Fourthly, a stakeholder approach looks at evaluation as a socio-cultural activity incorporating micro-and macro-processes. It is also resource-dependent which combines the programme contents, results and context. Last but not least, stakeholder evaluation focuses on customers' benefits from training intervention and it accommodates both qualitative and quantitative evaluation methods (Nickols, 2005; Vartiainen, 2003).

11.4.3 A Framework of Training Evaluation for Management Training and Development in a Cross-Cultural Context

11.4.3.1 Display of the evaluation framework

In the light of the stakeholder approach a systematic and modular evaluation framework is developed which consists of three parts. They are interlinked with one another but remain independent in operation (see Figure 11.5). The principles are detailed below.

Figure 11.5 A Systematic and Modular Framework of Training Evaluation for Management Development in Cross-cultural Context



Part I Pre-course evaluation contains two elements: (a) objectives and, (b) programmes and resources. **Objectives** refer to the setting up and defining the specific targets to be achieved through a particular training programme based on training needs assessment in different organisational and regional levels. For example, they could include provincial talent development strategy, business plan of an organisation, and personal career development objectives. **Programmes and resources** relates to the validation of the courses to be delivered and the assessment of the resources available to assure quality instruction and other management activities. They usually include subject matter, contents, pedagogical issues as well as the context of host country. The purpose of pre-course evaluation is not only assessing these elements separately but also making judgements by linking them, for example to evaluate whether the programmes designed could best support the fulfilment of the objectives. Formative evaluation method is used with the participation of the major stakeholders: training institutions, training departments/organisers, trainees, ex-trainees, and trainees' organisations. In addition an independent evaluator is invited. Evaluation is suggested to take place in the home country and documents of training and evaluation are profiled with a copy to individual stakeholders.

Part II Assessment of learning effectiveness emphasises the evaluation of learning in the host country. It includes the criteria of training delivery, management activities related to training subject, other activities to facilitate best learning and non academic support to trainees such as accommodation. The purpose of evaluation in learning is to measure whether the learning has achieved the objectives defined in Part I. A summative approach is recommended by using both quantitative and qualitative methods accordingly, such as questionnaire survey, informal comments, observations and focus groups. Intermediate and end course assessment are suggested if possible to allow on-time adjustment. The evaluation is mainly carried out in the host country with involvement of trainees and training institutions. However the feedback of evaluation results is given to other relevant stakeholders such as training departments/organisers, trainees' organisations and independent evaluator.

Part III Measurement of transfer of learning involves evaluation in the home country when ex-trainees return to their organisation. A typical summative evaluation is included which studies the results of training intervention. It is composed of three elements: (a) reaction and satisfaction, (b) personal development, and (c) outcomes and impact. Firstly, **reaction and satisfaction** measures the perceptions of the major stakeholders to the training activities and the extent of their satisfaction. Secondly, **personal development** is to measure ex-trainees' changes in attitudes, concepts, behaviour, and performance. It also includes follow-up evaluation of individuals' career development. Thirdly, the **outcomes and impact** are measured in criteria of benefits on talent, economics, social development and openness as well as the impact on organisations and context. A mixed methods approach is suggested which is similar to Part II. For example, questionnaire survey with pre-determined instruments can be used to measure **reaction and satisfaction**, whereas qualitative methods can be used to evaluate outcomes and impacts by incorporating performance appraisal and assessment of an organisation. Evaluation takes place in the home country with the involvement of the major stakeholders mentioned-above and possibly including more relevant parties such as stakeholders of any initiatives to which ex-trainees contribute.

11.4.3.2 Distinguishing features of this evaluation framework and the advantages

Compared with previous models and frameworks of training evaluation this newly developed framework has the following major features. The first feature is to integrate the process of training evaluation with the training intervention and management development process. This maintains the unity of the above-mentioned three processes, which operate in one compatible system, so that evaluation does not deviate from its objectives in the whole process, which is the case in the current operation (section 10.1.2 & 9.1.3.2). A second feature is to include pre-course evaluation. This helps to avoid the confusion in objectives of training, inappropriateness of programmes and delivery, which are found as one of the major problems in the study (section 9.1 & 9.2). This lays a solid foundation for training in host country and increases the learning effectiveness, which in turn promotes the efficiency of positive transfer of new learning. Thirdly, it involves the major stakeholders' participation in the evaluation. It addresses the major issue occurring in the results that the stakeholders hold different opinions about evaluation such as criteria, purpose, and approaches by inviting all-round comments and provides rich information from different perspectives. Fourthly, it refines the training results evaluation into personal development and outcomes at organisational and contextual level. The emphasis of the changes of managers (ex-trainees) and their development curve relates evaluation to the management development system which in turn provides references for making management development policies and strategies as well as for future training programmes. Moreover, this framework takes consideration of cross-cultural impact on Chinese managers' learning and development (see section 11.3.2). It allows evaluation focuse not only on the outcomes of an organisational setting but also the macro context of societies in which the learning and transfer process takes place underpinned by both host and home cultures.

Lastly, in terms of methodology this evaluation framework combines various methods: summative and formative, quantitative and qualitative. This maximises the utilisations of different evaluation approaches in order to best suit its operations which in turn increases the reliability and validity of training evaluation. Taking Part II for example, the assessment of 'reaction and satisfaction' could adopt quantitative evaluation, e.g., questionnaire survey with pre-determined instruments, whilst the qualitative method is recommended to assess the 'context', such as focus groups, and interviews. As far as the assessment of ‘organisational benefit’ is concerned both quantitative and qualitative methods could be considered such as return on investment (ROI), performance-based assessment, and observation. However the suggested approaches and methods are only for reference, which could be adjusted to suit a particular purpose and practice of training and evaluation.

11.5 SUMMARY OF CHAPTER 11

This chapter conducts a discussion by reviewing the arguments of previous studies and the empirical findings of this research in the area of management training and development, and training evaluation, in accordance with the objectives of this research. The intervention of China’s overseas management training under study is analysed from two angles: (a) the effectiveness of training in terms of Chinese managers’ learning and transfer of learning, (b) how to evaluate the effectiveness of training. The nature of China’s overseas management training is mainly determined by the goal of management development of the Chinese government and its policy-makers at different institutional levels. In addition the training organisers who are entrusted by the government departments play an important role in the training process. The next important stakeholder is the Western training provider. It is also influenced by the trainees and their organisations to a certain degree. The above-mentioned stakeholders constitute a matrix with unbalanced power and different interests in the training process, which leads to different perspectives on training and evaluation.

The initiation of overseas management training is regarded as an effective way to develop Chinese managers in Western management reality, which in turn promotes the modernisation of China at different managerial levels. The outcomes of overseas training have been recognised in areas of talent, economic, social, and openness by the stakeholders in China. However the different roles and responsibilities of stakeholders leads to different notions and opinions on the functioning of management training and development, as well as the perceived results. Moreover China’s overseas management training has several unique characterises, which might be problematic in practice and need to be paid attention to.

First is its intangible and long-term effect, which aims at developing managers’ concept, mindsets and can hardly be shown in short term. Secondly, it is hard to separate formal and structured training from informal management development activities, which are usually reflected in the daily managerial reality. Next is the continuity of management learning after the formal training, which completes Kolb' s experiential learning cycle from concrete learning to active experimentation. Therefore any attempt to isolate training intervention is flawed and post-training activities are of the same importance of the training itself. Fourthly, some typical issues in relation to Chinese managers' learning and transfer of knowledge have been elaborated, which raises the awareness of the cross-cultural impact on management training and development. Pre-course training thus becomes extremely important to prepare managers to learn in a new culture. Lastly, multi-dimensional training objectives challenge the major stakeholders as well as the management of training intervention.

Further to the above discussion the attributes of evaluation of China's overseas management training are analysed. Different purposes of evaluation of stakeholders have been identified, together with the uneven participation of stakeholders in evaluation practices. In addition more features are found such as dynamic data collection in time and space, and difficulties in measuring intangible results. These give rise to the complexity and diversity of evaluation criteria and methods. Nevertheless a stakeholder approach is proposed to meet the needs of evaluating China's overseas management training. This evaluation framework is composed of three parts which include pre-course evaluation, assessment of learning effectiveness, and measures on outcomes and impact. The specific features of this framework are its systematic integration of multiple information from the different stakeholders' perspectives, versatile evaluation methods for both tangible and intangible measurement, and independent modular design for evaluation in three procedural phases of training and development.

CHAPTER 12
CONCLUSIONS, LIMITATIONS AND FUTURE RESEARCH

12.0 PREAMBLE

This thesis is intended to gain insights into the intervention of China's overseas management training: an initiative by the Chinese government to develop the middle and senior managers of different organisational sectors in order to meet the needs of managerial changes in the era of China's economic and political reform and globalisation. Chapter 12 concludes this study and recommends future research directions. This chapter consists of four sections. The first section (section 12.1) examines how the designed research aim and objectives have been met. It provides a summary of key findings in relation to each objective and the implications for management training, development and evaluation are also discussed. Contributions of this study to the research are reviewed in section 12.2. Section 12.3 addresses the limitations of this study and recommends the areas of future research. Finally section 12.4 concludes this thesis.

12.1 ACHIEVEMENT OF THE RESEARCH AIM AND OBJECTIVES

12.1.1 Appropriateness of Research Procedures in Meeting the Objectives

The overall aim of this research is to investigate the effectiveness of overseas management training and to develop an evaluation framework for China's management training and development in cross-cultural settings. Following this four key objectives are established which are defined at the beginning of this study. Each of the objectives has been met. Firstly, a comprehensive review of literature covers multi-disciplinary subjects in this research. They include management development, training evaluation, and cross-cultural study, which provide a sound theoretical framework to study the issue of this research. In addition a broad examination of previous studies in the above-mentioned three areas has shown gaps, particularly in management training across-countries and the method of evaluation.

Secondly, the mixed methods methodology adopted facilitates the complexity of the subject and process in this research. The sequential and concurrent mixed methods approach provides the best methodological solution for fulfilling the research objectives.

Pre-determined instruments collect primarily quantitative data, which verifies the findings of other studies, whereas open-ended questions, semi-structured interviews and focus groups gather primarily qualitative data, which are able to explore new themes and generates theory. Therefore the interaction of deduction and induction is an on-going process in this piece of research. Moreover this research adopts a question-guided approach which enables examination of the same research questions by using different methods. A mixed methods analysis suitable for processing the responses is used for the tabulation of each question. This allows cross-validation not only of data sources but also analytical methods, which in turn enhances the credibility of the findings.

Thirdly, the empirical findings are closely related to the research objectives by means of answering the research questions developed under each objective. Seven research questions are developed in relation to the four objectives respectively. The key findings with respect to the objectives will be presented in next section.

12.1.2 Summary of Key Findings in Relation to the Objectives of This Study

Nine key findings are revealed from survey, interviews and focus groups as below. They are summarised under the headings of the four objectives of this research.

(1) The major stakeholders under investigation perceive the results of training intervention differently. UK training institutions are most positive about training delivery and place emphasis on classroom teaching, whilst the other stakeholders (Chinese parties) tend to be critical and emphasise management practices, cultural exchange and other activities in the host country. The other difference is that the respondents from Chinese parties consider non-academic support such as accommodation, facilities and services influence learning effectiveness, whereas the UK participants value the importance of these factors less. However there are common views that experiences in the host country add value to Chinese managers' learning.

(2) There are perceived and observed changes in the behaviour and performance of Chinese managers after overseas training, those mostly refer to changing perceptions and concepts, and new ways of dealing with managerial problems. The impacts are multi-faceted covering individuals, organisations, society and context. Training

departments, organisers and Chinese managers hold more positive views of the results of training while ex-trainees' supervisors perceive them both positively and negatively. However the respondents from Chinese parties regard Western management theories as needing to be modified to adapt to Chinese organisations and context.

(3) The major problems perceived by the stakeholders are as follows: (a) Objectives of training are vague and disparate, particularly in relation to the objectives of trainees and their organisations. There is a lack of training needs assessment. (b) Delivery has been found to be problematic particularly in programme design, contents, methods, and organisation of management and other activities. (c) It is perceived by Chinese managers that inappropriate courses negatively influence transfer of learning. (d) Pre-course preparation is perceived to be crucial to increase learning efficiency, but it appears to be poorly designed and delivered. In addition the post-training facilitation is found to be weak, particularly the effort from training institutions.

(4) Seventeen factors have been identified which affect effective learning. Nine of them are cross-validated by multiple methods and classified as the key factors; they are language, delivery, programme design, culture, communication, objectives/needs, pre-training preparation, individual, and living. There are eight sub-factors: facilitation/services, practice/on-site visits, group, time/budget, context/background, assessment/evaluation, concept, and management.

(5) Nineteen factors have been identified which affect the effectiveness of transfer of learning. Eleven factors are induced from cross-validation of multiple methods as key factors. They are environment, system, organisational climate, development process, objectives/needs, trainees' characteristics, cultural differences, knowledge transferability, practice, training design, and support of local government. The other eight factors are classified as sub-factors; they are time/budget, management, post-training facilitation, evaluation criteria/methods, learning outcomes, pre-course preparation, quality of delivery, and policy and strategy of management development.

(6) Individual stakeholders are found to prioritise the factors affecting learning and transfer of learning differently. Typical examples are that (a) Chinese managers are more aware of culture, practices, and post-training facilitation; (b) Training departments and organisers are more focused on context/backgrounds, programme design, delivery and time/budget; (c) UK training institutions emphasise the factors of objectives/needs, and pre-course preparation; (d) ex-trainees' supervisors have more cognition of

objectives/needs, knowledge transferability, management style, and evaluation. However there is consensus about some of the factors such as language, and communication.

(7) There is a consensus about the importance of training evaluation among the surveyed stakeholders. However differences are recognised between the groups about the purposes and approaches of evaluation. The criteria and methods of evaluation are identified in respect to the position of individual stakeholders which provide a reference of the development of evaluation framework.

(8) The major problems identified for evaluation practices are inefficiency of information exchange, unclear responsibility of training evaluation of the major stakeholders, barriers of time and space of data collection, diversity of evaluation criteria and methods used by individual stakeholders.

(9) Culture impacts on the whole process of training. Eighteen positive and negative cultural interaction elements are identified respectively. They are classified into six categories: value, attitudes, behaviour, performance, impact on organisation, and impact on context. These elements are underpinned by home culture and host culture and interacting one another to form a cycle. This finding not only provides evidence to Adler’s cultural interaction cycle but also adds new content to it.

12.1.3 Implications of the Key Findings

Specific features of the intervention of China’s overseas management training and the attributes of individual stakeholders involved determine the different views about the effectiveness of training and evaluation from the different groups. Firstly each party’s stake in the training process and their aims are the key drivers for their different perceptions of the quality of training. Secondly, the objectives of training at different levels vary and are not clearly stated. This thus results in the gaps of delivery and expectations of Chinese managers. Moreover the UK training institutions are less likely to get a whole picture of development needs underpinning the training objectives.

Unclear objectives also influence the quality of programme design and implementation of training which is reflected in the subject matter, contents, methods of delivery and organisation of activities. The training providers are challenged by the special demands of delivery to Chinese managers compared with their normal training and educational activities. Moreover the Chinese managers not only seek academic support but also need facilitation in daily living. Pre-course preparation in this particular case is necessary for both students and lecturers and staff of training institutions to ensure effective teaching and learning. The emerging of factors affecting learning and transfer support the findings of different perceptions of training effectiveness by different stakeholder groups. In addition some factors echo the key problems explored in the training process, such as objectives/needs, quality of delivery, inappropriateness of programmes, language barriers, and the differences of cultural context between home country and host country.

The impact on changes to Chinese managers are most recognised in their mindsets, which represent long-term and intangible results. Their performance improvement not only benefits their own organisations but also impacts on the environment in which the organisation exists. The outcomes of overseas training have significance for developing middle and senior management to ensure China's stable growth, and increase the pace of China's globalisation in the post-WTO membership. They are characterised by political, economic, and social meanings. In addition the development of Chinese managers is culturally sensitive and involves the collision of Chinese culture and Western culture. The cross-cultural impact can be both positive and negative for learning and application.

The evaluation practice of China's overseas management training is both complicated and difficult. One feature of overseas training is the involvement of various stakeholders with very different objectives and approaches to evaluation, which is underpinned by their roles and perceptions to evaluation. The gaps of time and space, barrier of information flows, and diversity of cultural backgrounds across countries add difficulties to evaluating training effectiveness. There is no single model available to evaluate such training interventions and a new framework needs to be developed. However the investigation of different approaches of training evaluation by individual stakeholders has set up a reference and baseline for the standardisation of evaluation criteria and methods such as purposes, criteria and methods of evaluation. Nevertheless several factors need to be considered to tailor the evaluation of a new model, for example how to choose the criteria, how to integrate data collected from different sources and at different time, and how to analyse hard and soft data.

12.2 CONTRIBUTIONS TO RESEARCH

This research makes significant and general contributions to a number of knowledge areas, including research methodology, theory of management development, studies on management learning and knowledge transfer in cross-cultural condition. Table 12.1 provides an overview of these contributions.

Table 12.1 An Overview of Contribution to Research

Significant Contribution	General Contribution
Theoretical	
Development of an evaluation framework for management training and development in cross-cultural context	
Methodological	
Application of mixed methods research in cross-cultural research	
Empirical and theoretical	
Cross-cultural learning and identification of factors affecting learning	Development of Kolb’s experiential learning theory in context of management training and development across cultures
Knowledge transfer across cultures and identification of factors affecting transfer of learning	Expansion of cultural interaction elements and cross-cultural studies

12.2.1 Significant Contributions

12.2.1.1 Development of an evaluation framework for management training and development

This research contributes to evaluation theory by combining two principles into one study: training effectiveness and training evaluation, which provides both overall (macro) and insight views (micro) of China’s overseas management training intervention. Based on the comprehensive analysis a stakeholder approach is adopted to develop an evaluation framework. This framework has adopted a stakeholder approach which enables integration of multiple data from various stakeholders involved. The evaluation system is composed of three independent parts incorporated with the training and development process. It has the advantages of no constraint of time and barrier of different cultures, and versatile methods to measure both tangible and intangible results. This provides a theoretical framework for tailoring evaluation models for particular management training and development interventions in cross-cultural context.

12.2.1.2 Identification of factors affecting learning in a cross-cultural environment

Management training and development is becoming a key subject in academic research and there are a number of literature sources on local management training and education, such as MBA courses, short management training courses (Winterton and Winterton, 1997; Willmott, 1994; Thomson *et al*., 2001; Mabey, 2002; Longenecker and Laurence, 2005; Mabey and Thomson, 2000). However there is still a lack of empirical studies of management training and development in cross-cultural conditions, and virtually no research into Chinese managers studying in the West. In order to enhance the effectiveness of cross-cultural learning it is valuable to explore the factors influencing managers' learning in another culture (Ledwith and Seymour, 2001; Thomas, 1996; Yamazaki and Kayes, 2004). This research has demonstrated seventeen factors which affect Chinese managers' learning in a formal management training and different cultural environment. This makes a contribution to cross-cultural learning as well as cross-cultural training for management development.

12.2.1.3 Knowledge transfer across cultures and identification of factors affecting transfer of learning

There are an increasing number of studies on transfer of knowledge of Western management theory or models to non-Western settings (Burke and Baldwin, 1999; Ford and Weissbein, 1997; Noe, 2000). The previous empirical studies are almost all based on knowledge transfer through Western expatriates working in China either via business operations or via education or training (Baldwin and Ford, 1988; Bedward *et al*., 2003; Berrell *et al*., 2001; Newell, 1999; Iles *et al*., 2004). In addition the previous work rarely show how training results impact beyond the organisational level (Xiao, 1996; Salas and Cannon-Bowers, 2001; Thomson et al., 2001; Winterton and Winterton, 1997). This research is unique for its focus on the transfer process of Chinese managers' bringing their learning in Western countries to the workplace and the impacts on China's context. The exploration of the factors affecting transfer of learning has added new contents and meaning to the work in this area (see Table 2.2 and Table 9.21). For example it adds category 'context' which includes two factors: environment and system. The former defines 'software' factors such as differences of contexts, resources and needs between home and host country, different perceptions of peoples constrained by cultures and traditions. The latter one involves 'hard' factors such as differences of political, social, and legislation system, and mechanism of management development between China and West. Under the category of 'training design', the factor 'knowledge transferability' of Western theory to Chinese organisations and environment is identified. This raises the issue of suitability of designed programmes and applicability of delivered knowledge to the Chinese context and organisers.

12.2.1.4 Application of mixed methods methodology in cross-cultural research

In the last ten years mixed methods have attracted increasing attention in methodological research for the advantage of combining quantitative and qualitative methods (Creswell *et al*., 2003; Greene and Caracelli, 2003; Hunter and Brewer, 2003; Tashakkori and Teddlie, 1998; Morse, 2003). However there remain programmatic problems for the complexity of organising and analysing data derived from two different paradigms (Tashakkori, 2003; Teddlie and Tashakkori, 2003; Maxcy, 2003). This study has provided a successful case of using mixed methods approach in cross-cultural research. Firstly it triangulates data sources across cultures by targeting five sample groups involving two distant cultural backgrounds: Anglo-Saxon and Chinese. Secondly, the surveys, semi-structured interviews and focus groups interviews are carried out both in China and the UK to investigate Chinese management training in Western countries. Thirdly, sequential and concurrent mixed methods strategy is employed to address the same research questions by triangulation of multi-methods as mentioned above.

12.2.2 General Contributions

12.2.2.1 Expansion of cultural interaction elements and cross-cultural studies

The findings of cultural impact (both positive and negative) on the process of management training in a cross-cultural condition fills the gap between management development and cross-cultural studies. Firstly it provides an insight into how culture can influence Chinese managers' learning and development in cross-cultural settings both positively and negatively. Secondly the identification of cultural interaction elements adds new categories to Adler's model by presenting a cultural interaction cycle of culture, value, attitudes, behaviour, performance, impact on organisation, and impact on context.

12.2.2.2 Development of Kolb's experiential learning theory in the context of management training and development across cultures

This research provides a focused review of the latest theories of management development and development approaches. Kolb's experiential learning theory (ELT) is effectively (organically) integrated into the study. This research contributes to experiential learning theory by critically examining Kolb's ELT from the perspectives of Chinese managers' learning experiences in the West and the transfer of their learning to Chinese organisations. The empirical findings challenge the applicability of Kolb's ELT (1984) for China's management learning and development activities. It argues that learning process of Chinese managers is a complicated, contextual rich system in which the learning is underpinned by various factors. Managers learn not only via planned and structured courses but also through cross-cultural experiences which include conscious and unconscious learning activities. This study suggests shifting away from Kolb's four stages of learning cycle towards looking at the management learning process from a holistic perspective by emphasising managers' mindset changes, cultural interactions, accounting for related factors, and incorporating theory of knowledge transfer. This research also contributes to contemporary management development theory (Mumford, 1997; Thomson *et al*., 2001) by providing empirical evidence for the relationship of formal management development activities and accidental learning.

12.3 LIMITATIONS OF THIS RESEARCH AND RECOMMENDATONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

No research can claim to be perfect. There usually exist at least some limitations which stimulate the on-going exploration of researchers of either natural or social science. In spite of careful planning and deliberate design this study has some limitations. Section 12.4.1 will focus critiques of the research while Section 12.4.2 looks to the future research.

12.3.1 Critical Review of This Research

12.3.1.1 Sample size and sampling stratification of homogenous group

Triangulation of sampling is one of the features of this research. The invitation of the major stakeholders involved in training intervention provides all round perspectives to the subjects under investigation. Nevertheless there remain limitations in sampling size and stratification which are detailed as follows. First is the constrained sample size of trainees and ex-trainees. As discussed in section 5.6.1.1 this is a UK focused study, with 70% of sampled Chinese managers taking training in the UK. The total samples are relatively small comparing with the total number of people who take overseas training between 2000~2004. Since the majority of the sampled population studies in the UK no comparison test could be carried out to assess the impact of variables of host countries.

Secondly, the sampled Chinese managers are divided into two groups: trainees and ex-trainees. The former samples are those who were studying in the UK in 2004 while the later ones did their training in the Western countries including UK during 2000-2003. It is possible that differences are influenced by host countries. However since all trainees did their trainings in the UK and not all ex-trainees studies in the UK there were unequal stratified samples of trainees and ex-trainees to conduct meaningful statistic analysis. It is thus impossible to identify whether the differences of variables are caused by the differences between trainees and ex-trainees or because of the differences of host countries where the training took place.

12.3.1.2 Timing of questionnaire survey and semi-structured interviews

This research was designed to conduct questionnaire survey and semi-structured interviews at the same time as the preliminary analysis. This was mainly because of the limited time span for this research project which covers two distant survey sites of different nations. However the concurrent survey strategy and analysis makes it impossible to carry out a follow up interviews after questionnaire survey in order to explore particular interesting findings that emerged from the questionnaire survey.

12.3.1.3 Integration of quantitative and qualitative data

One of the main characteristics of this research is the use of quantitative and qualitative information to study the same research questions. Like other mixed methods research the integration of the findings from these two data sources has same deficiencies (Teddlie and Tashakkori, 2003; Maxcy, 2003; Hunter and Brewer, 2003; Creswell *et al*., 2003; Morse, 1991). In the case of this study concurrent triangulation of quantitative and qualitative data is employed. These two types of data are analysed separately taking different approaches. The intention of this research is to bring them together to answer one particular research question. The advantage is cross validation of qualitative and quantitative data and ability for supplementing each other. However, as suggested by Creswell *et al*. (2003) it is not always possible to compare two sets of data and make satisfactory explanations of the differences between the findings of quantitative and qualitative data analysis. This occasionally could influence the interpretation of the findings.

12.3.2 Direction for Further Research

There is a paucity of studies on the evaluation of management training across countries. This research intends to provide comprehensive insights into the subjects under study, and the empirical findings, as well as the methodology of the research, have made significant contributions to the knowledge both in academic and practical domains. Based upon this study future research could take several directions in the areas of management development, training evaluation and cross-cultural studies. This section gives recommendations for future studies, which partially arise from the limitations discussed above.

12.3.2.1 Focus on individual characteristics of the key stakeholders

This research correlated stakeholder groups and their perceptions of training effectiveness. However more variables would usefully be measured, for instance, (a) causal links between learning effectiveness and individuals' previous overseas experiences; (b) intercorrelations between qualifications of training managers and training outcomes; (c) correlations between learning results and the quality of lecturers; (d) whether different host countries apply influences on trainees' learning and knowledge transfer; and how individuals learning styles influence the training outcomes. Moreover longitudinal studies would enable observation of the complete learning process of the same group. This would help to clarify the test results on trainees and ex-trainees, which has been shown as one of the limitations in section 12.4.1.1.

12.3.2.2 Sample size and stratification

In order to meet the objectives of this research the empirical study focuses on five groups which constitute the key stakeholders. However more stakeholders could be involved to suit a specific research purpose and the sample size needs to be designed accordingly. For example more stakeholders in the ex-trainees' organisations could be included in addition to ex-trainees' supervisors to enable focused studies on the transfer of management training, such as top management team, colleagues, subordinators, and their clients. In the case of managerial practices and business exchanges the sampling could be extended to the local organisations of host countries apart from the educational institutions and training organisations. This allows investigation of the viewpoint of managers in Western countries about Chinese managers' learning and whether there are any perceived benefits to local organisations via working with Chinese managers.

12.3.2.3 Case studies and test of evaluation framework

As discussed in section 3.3 there is no universal model to evaluate training programmes. The approaches of assessing the training effectiveness are constrained by many factors, such as purpose of training, and organisational context. Therefore evaluation needs to be specially designed to suit a particular training intervention. The evaluation framework provided here (see section 11.3.3) is based on existing training evaluation models, contemporary theory of management development, and empirical studies of China's overseas management training and development. Case studies are recommended to test the evaluation framework and develop new models for specific management training and development, particularly in cross-cultural settings.

12.3.2.4 Test of factors affecting learning (FAL) and factors affecting transfer of learning (FAT)

One of the major contributions to the theories of management development, learning, transfer of knowledge, and training evaluation is the findings of factors affecting learning (17 items) and transfer of learning in a cross-cultural settings (19 items). Further studies are recommended to test those identified factors in the case of management training. These factors can also be used as test measurement in other situations for example, studies on international students, and knowledge transfer across countries. This could lead to the generalisation of variables of factors affecting learning and factors affecting transfer of learning in other cross-cultural situations. Moreover it would contribute to the best practices of stakeholders in international education and training by validating relevant factors and providing pre-and-post-facilitations in addition to delivery and on-course support.

12.3.2.5 Extended studies on management training and development across cultures

The UK focused nature of this research brings some limitations (see section 12.4.1.1). It is thus recommended to carry out further studies on China's management training in other Western countries with an Anglo-Saxon culture. This could provide further testament to the results. In addition studies could extend to countries outside the Anglo-Saxon cultural region, which would enable the comparison of findings and explore whether there are any differences of Chinese managers' training in different cultural regions. The extended studies could add value to management training and development across-cultures and lead to further research on more management training and development in between two different cultures, for instance, Indian managers studying in Canada or American managers taking training in China. This would have practical implications for international management development in the globalisation.

12.4 CONCLUSIONS

The aim and objectives of this research have been successfully met through empirical studies. These are underpinned by theories of management development, training evaluation and cross-cultural management. The research strategy uses mixed methods which combine both quantitative and qualitative data to study the same research questions, which in turn achieve the purpose of this research by optimising and organising the empirical data sources. The credibility and validity of the results is greatly enhanced by means of triangulating methods and cross-tabulating data. This thesis provides a holistic evaluation of China's overseas training for management development and contributes to knowledge in three areas: theories, methods and empirical findings.

A critical analysis provides insights into the intervention of Chinese managers' training in the Western countries, particularly in the UK. Special characteristics are exhibited by the involvement of the various key stakeholders in the training process; they are training departments and training organisers in China, UK (Western) training institutions, Chinese managers and their organisations. The findings have revealed divergent opinions about the effectiveness of training and evaluation from the individual stakeholders. There also remain problems in the power and interests of the key stakeholders with relation to their roles and responsibilities in the process of training. These features reveal the complexity of China's overseas management training, necessitating involvement of the major stakeholders in evaluation. Moreover it is found out that the objectives of the training differ at different levels and the recognition of these objectives varies between stakeholders.

The effectiveness of training of Chinese managers needs to be viewed not only in relation to theory instruction but also to business practices, cultural exchanges, and other services in the host country. There are perceived and observed changes of Chinese managers in behaviour and performance after overseas training, which demonstrate a mostly positive impact on the organisations and regions of Chinese managers. These are the benefits in the cultivation of managerial personnel, China's economic and social development, as well as the openness of China and Chinese people to the outside of the world.

The implications of this are multi-faceted. Firstly it provides foundation for the development of an evaluation framework for management training and development in cross-cultural context. Secondly it shows that the learning and development process of Chinese managers covers both host country and home country. Thirdly, it provides evidence to support modern management development theory of the combination of formal management development and informal management development activities.

Moreover the identification of the key factors affecting learning and transfer of learning has relevance both for academic research and the practices of management training and education. For example it adds value to pre-course preparation and post-training facilitation in management training and development across countries by providing the key elements which influence the effectiveness of learning and application. This contributes to the theory of cross-cultural training (CCR). In addition the findings of positive and negative cultural interaction elements and process have added to Adler's cultural interaction chain in a management learning and development context.

On the basis of an extensive review of previous training evaluation models, critical analysis of the process of China's overseas management training and development as well as the current evaluation practices the stakeholder evaluation strategy has been applied to establish an evaluation framework for management training in a cross-cultural context. This framework consists of three phases: pre-course evaluation, assessment of learning effectiveness, and measurement of transfer of learning. One advantage of this design is the integration of management training, development and evaluation in one system. Next is the possibility to collect feedback from each stakeholder at different phases of training and development and integrate the information in one system. Thirdly is the orientation to the objectives of evaluation by individual stakeholders. Lastly the combination of various methods of evaluation enhances the efficiency and validity of evaluation results.

However like other studies this research has some limitations. As a consequence, this research sets up new directions for future research for academia and practitioners in the area of management development, training evaluation and cross-cultural management.

APPENDICES

Appendix 1.1

A List of Questions of Focus Group Interviews

1. What do you think of China’s overseas management training?
2. From your perspective were the objectives of training achieved?
3. What do you think of the result of China’s overseas management training?
4. To your experience what are the main factors which influence the training effectiveness?
5. What are the difficulties you have come across in organising/ delivering/ participating overseas management training?
6. To your knowledge how do you (your organisation) evaluate China’s overseas management training intervention?
7. Do you have any suggestions about how to evaluate management training effectively in cross-cultural condition if you evaluate training?
8. Do you have any additional comments which were not covered in the previous discussion?

Note: The questions asked for different stakeholders are worded differently. However the meaning is more or less the same.

Appendix 1.2

A List of Questions of Focus Group Interviews (Chinese version)

境外管理培训专题座谈会提纲

1. 对境外管理培训的看法如何？
2. 境外培训是否达到预期的目标？
3. 境外培训的效果如何？
4. 影响境外培训效果的主要因素？
5. 对如何提高境外管理培训的效果有何建议？
6. 境外管理培训的评估实施情况如何，通常采用何种方式？
7. 您对境外管理培训的效果评估有何建议？
8. 您对本次座谈会有何补充意见？

注：以上问题针对不同的调查对象略有不同，但主题内容一致。

Appendix 2.1

Questionnaire Survey for China's Overseas Management Training and Development Programme
(Standard Questionnaire)

Date of completing this form: …………………

Part one: Background information

1. Your country: .... province: ……….. city/town: …………

2. Your organisation's sector:
☐ government department ☐ non-profit organisation
☐ education ☐ research institute
☐ enterprise (please specify type, number of employees):
☐ consultancy/ training organisation
☐ others (Please specify) :

3. Your role:
☐ Administrator/officer ☐ Training manager ☐ Project manager
☐ Shop floor manager ☐ Technical person ☐ Middle manager
☐ Senior manager ☐ Chief executive/director
☐ Lecturer/professor
☐ Others (please specify):

4. Your age (compulsory for trainees):
☐ under 25 ☐ 26-30 ☐31-35 ☐36-40 ☐40-45
☐ 46-50 ☐ 51-55 ☐56-60 ☐61+

5. Your gender: ☐ male ☐ female

6. Your educational background:
Subject area:
☐ Professional ☐ Linguistic/Literature
☐ Business management/ Economics ☐ HR management
☐ Others (Please specify):
Degree:
☐ Doctorate ☐ Master ☐ Bachelor ☐ Diploma/Certificate

7. Methods of training
☐ classroom lectures ☐ on-site visits to local organisations
☐ work experience ☐ seminars

8. Types of training
☐ Group training
☐ <1 month ☐1-3 months ☐3-6 months ☐7 months-1 year ☐ >1 year
☐Individual training (visiting scholar, taught course, research)
☐ <1 month ☐1-3 months ☐4-6 months ☐7 months-1 year ☐ >1 year

9. What types of programme does your institution/organisation provide?
   (1) General management education:
   ☐ MBA ☐ Other degree ☐ Diploma ☐ Certificate
   (2) Specified management courses:
   ☐ Business management ☐ Public administration
   ☐ Human resource management ☐ Social development ☐ Economics
   (3) Special technology/skills
   ☐ Science and technology ☐ Finance/banking ☐ Tax
   ☐ Law ☐ Industry ☐ Agriculture ☐ Language training
   (4) Others (please specify):

Items 10-13 are for training managers in China

10. How many years have your department/organisation organized/delivered overseas training for Chinese managers?
    ☐ 0-1 year ☐ 2-5 years ☐ 6-10 years ☐11-15 years
    ☐ 16-20 years ☐ 21-25 years ☐ 26 years+

11. How long have you been involved in overseas management training projects?
    ☐ 0-1 year ☐ 2-5 years ☐ 6-10 years ☐11-15 years
    ☐ 16-20 years ☐ 21-25 years ☐ 26 years+

12. Have you ever received any training relevant to your job as a training manager?
    ☐ Yes ☐ No
    If 'yes', please specify when, where and what type of training you received?

13. Do you feel that training is necessary for you to do a better job?
    ☐ Yes ☐ No
    Please comment:

Items 14-17 are for training institutions/organisations (training manager and lecturer)

14. How many years has your institution/organisation delivered training for Chinese managers?
    ☐ 0-1 year ☐ 2-5 years ☐ 6-10 years ☐11-15 years
    ☐ 16-20 years ☐ 21-25 years ☐ 26 years+

15. How long have you been involved with Chinese managers overseas training projects?
    ☐ 0-1 year ☐ 2-5 years ☐ 6-10 years ☐11-15 years
    ☐ 16-20 years ☐ 21-25 years ☐ 26 years+

16. Do you think some knowledge about China helps you to provide better service/training for Chinese managers?

    ☐ Yes ☐ No
    If 'yes', please specify what are they:

17. How can you acquire the knowledge in order to do a better job?
    ☐ formal training ☐ learn by yourself ☐ both

Would you give any comments: ……………………………………………………………..

Items 18-22 are for trainees and ex-trainees

18. Start and finish date of your training (date/month/year)
    start………………………….. finish…………………………………

19. Training country:
☐ UK ☐ America ☐ Germany ☐ Canada
☐ Others (please specify):

20. Training institution:
☐ University/College ☐ Consultancy/training service
☐ Research institute ☐ Enterprise
☐ Others (please specify):

21. Your English language level:
English test …………………. (BFT/TOFEL/IELTS/GRE), Or
☐ Fluent ☐ Good ☐ Average ☐ Little ☐None

22. What was the language used in training?
☐ Foreign language ☐ Chinese (through translation)

Part two: Training and evaluation

1. Please indicate who chose the training topic and designs the delivery (including contents, methods) for China's overseas management training and development (MTD) programmes? (You may choose more than one unit.)

Units	**Subject matter** (✓)	**Delivery content/method** (✓)
Training department in China		
Training organiser in China		
Trainees' organisation		
Training institution abroad		
Trainees		
Don't know		
Others (please specify):		

2. Do you feel that there were clear objectives for China's overseas MTD programmes?
☐ Yes ☐ No

If 'yes', who decides the objectives and what are the training objectives based on?
(You may tick more than one 'unit' and 'item'.)

Decision made by	✓	**Based on**	✓
Training department in China		China's National five-year plan	
Training organiser		Local government development strategy	
Trainees' organisation		HR development strategy of an organisation	
Training institutions		Job requirement	
Trainees		Individual needs	
Don't know		Don't know	
Others (please specify):		Others (please specify):	

3. Please state who is responsible for trainees' selection, methods and criteria by ticking the box and give details. (You may make more than one choice.)

Trainees' selection	✓	**Methods**	✓
Training department in China		Personal application	
Training organiser in China		Nomination of trainees' department chief	
Trainees' organisation		Nomination of HR department of trainees' organisation	
Training institution abroad		Nomination of general manager of trainees' organisation	
Trainees		Job requirement	
Don't know		Development needs	
Others (please specify):		Don't know	
		Others (please specify)	

Criteria	✓	**Please specify**
Age		
Foreign language level		
Seniority		
Education background		
Don't know		
Others		

4. Please indicate below who does and who should evaluate training?
(You may tick more than one 'unit')

Units	**Who evaluates (✓)**	**Do not know (✓)**	**Who should evaluate(✓)**
Training department in China			
Training organizer			
Training institutions			
Trainees			
Trainees organisation			
Independent evaluator			
Others (please specify):			

5. Please read the scale and answer the following questions by circling the relevant number 1~5 according to your experiences and knowledge about the evaluation of training or tick 'do not know' if you are not clear of the real situation.

1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
Never	**Seldom**	**Sometimes**	**Often**	**Always**

For example:

Methods	Use in practice	Do not know	Suggested
Pre-or-post-training questionnaires	1 2 3 4 5		1 2 3 4 5
Pre-or-post-training tests	1 2 3 4 5	✓	1 2 3 4 5
Informal collection of comments	1 2 3 4 5		1 2 3 4 5

(1) Please indicate how often are the following methods used in practise to evaluate training programmes and what would you recommend?

Methods	Use in practice	Do not know	Recommend
Pre-or-post-training questionnaires	1 2 3 4 5		1 2 3 4 5
Pre-or-post-training tests	1 2 3 4 5		1 2 3 4 5
Informal collection of comments	1 2 3 4 5		1 2 3 4 5
Evaluation form filled by instructors	1 2 3 4 5		1 2 3 4 5
Pre-evaluation on instruction	1 2 3 4 5		1 2 3 4 5
Post training report by group	1 2 3 4 5		1 2 3 4 5
Self-report by trainees	1 2 3 4 5		1 2 3 4 5
Intermediate evaluation	1 2 3 4 5		1 2 3 4 5
Follow up survey	1 2 3 4 5		1 2 3 4 5
Use of performance appraisal	1 2 3 4 5		1 2 3 4 5
Use of business records	1 2 3 4 5		1 2 3 4 5
Comparison with group of people who did not take training	1 2 3 4 5		1 2 3 4 5
Others (please specify):	1 2 3 4 5		1 2 3 4 5
	1 2 3 4 5		1 2 3 4 5

(2) Please indicate how evaluation is conducted and what you would recommend?

How evaluation is based on	Use in practice	Do not know	Recommend
Reaction of trainees	1 2 3 4 5		1 2 3 4 5
Changes in knowledge and skills possessed by trainees	1 2 3 4 5		1 2 3 4 5
Changes in attitudes possessed by trainees	1 2 3 4 5		1 2 3 4 5
Changes of trainees in performance on the job	1 2 3 4 5		1 2 3 4 5
Changes in trainees' organisation relevant to training	1 2 3 4 5		1 2 3 4 5
Meeting of organisational objectives	1 2 3 4 5		1 2 3 4 5
Meeting of trainees' objectives	1 2 3 4 5		1 2 3 4 5
How well the programmes were designed	1 2 3 4 5		1 2 3 4 5

Financial return of the programme	1 2 3 4 5		1 2 3 4 5
Extent of the applicability of programmes	1 2 3 4 5		1 2 3 4 5
Extent of continued demand for the programmes	1 2 3 4 5		1 2 3 4 5
Comments to the trainees from their supervisors, manager, subordinates, and colleagues	1 2 3 4 5		1 2 3 4 5
Other factors not included above (please specify):	1 2 3 4 5		1 2 3 4 5
	1 2 3 4 5		1 2 3 4 5

6. Please read the scale and answer the following questions by circling the relevant number 1~5.

1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
Very important	**Important**	**Neutral**	**Less important**	**Not important**

(1) Please rank by importance the reasons which evaluation is to be conducted?

1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
Very important	**Important**	**Neutral**	**Less important**	**Not important**

Reasons for evaluation	**Rank**
To justify the existence of the training function	1 2 3 4 5
To determine a programme achieved its objectives	1 2 3 4 5
To determine the appropriateness of a programme	1 2 3 4 5
To determine the return on investment of training	1 2 3 4 5
To find out where improvement is required	1 2 3 4 5
To assist marketing for future programmes	1 2 3 4 5
To identify the strengths and weaknesses in the HRD process in which training facilitates	1 2 3 4 5
To test the clarity and validity of instruction (including contents subject matter, tests, exercises, questions, activities)	1 2 3 4 5
To establish management development requirement	1 2 3 4 5
To determine promotion	1 2 3 4 5
To determine the service quality of training providers	1 2 3 4 5
Any other reasons, please specify:	1 2 3 4 5
	1 2 3 4 5

(2) Please indicate which of the following reasons are important for not evaluating training programmes?

Reasons for not evaluating	**Rank**
Unclear objectives	1 2 3 4 5
It is not clear who’s responsible for evaluation	1 2 3 4 5
It is not required as part of training application and approval	1 2 3 4 5

Client organisation does not require for evaluation	1	2	3	4	5
The importance of evaluation is not clearly identified	1	2	3	4	5
I think it's not necessary at present	1	2	3	4	5
It's difficult to evaluate management training	1	2	3	4	5
Inability to secure necessary cooperation With trainees' organisations	1	2	3	4	5
With training institutions	1	2	3	4	5
With trainees and ex-trainees	1	2	3	4	5
Lack of adequate evaluation criteria, methods	1	2	3	4	5
Lack of expertise and skills for evaluation	1	2	3	4	5
Lack of time	1	2	3	4	5
Lack of money	1	2	3	4	5
Lack of staff	1	2	3	4	5
Any other reasons, please specify:	1	2	3	4	5

7. To your knowledge has evaluation of training programmes been included in China's overseas management training and developing process?

☐ Yes ☐ No ☐ Don't know

Do you think it should be included in as part of the process?

☐ Yes ☐ No ☐ Don't know

8. Please give your opinion on the following aspects.

(1) Is evaluation of international management training programmes easier than those of the local management training programmes?

☐ Yes ☐ No

Part three: Your perceived training effectiveness

1. Please respond to the following questions by circling the appropriate rating.

Overall, the quality of the service provided by you/your institution/organisation is:

(1) In terms of instruction:

1	2	3	4	5
Excellent	Very good	Good	Fair	Poor

(2) In terms of on-site visiting:

1	2	3	4	5
Excellent	Very good	Good	Fair	Poor

(3) In terms of business discussion and cultural exchange:

1	2	3	4	5
Excellent	Very good	Good	Fair	Poor

(4) In terms of other services (i.e., accommodation, travel, language support):

1	2	3	4	5
Excellent	Very good	Good	Fair	Poor

2. Please answer the following questions by marking the approximate percentage on the scale.

Items (1) and (2) are for training institutions (training manager and lecturer)

(1) In general to what extent do you/your institution/organisation understand the training objectives of the trainees' prior to their arrival?

100% 80% 60% 40% 20% 0%
Fully understood Not at all

(2) In general to what extent do you/your institution/organisation understand the service needs of the trainees' organisations?

100% 80% 60% 40% 20% 0%
Fully understood Not at all

Items (3) and (4) are for trainees and e-trainees

(1) How clear were you about the objectives of your training programmes before you started the training abroad?

100% 80% 60% 40% 20% 0%
Fully understood Not at all

(2) How much did you know about the contents of training before you started the training abroad?

100% 80% 60% 40% 20% 0%
Fully understood Not at all

3. Did you provide/receive pre-course instruction or briefing?

☐ Yes ☐ No

If 'yes', what are the main contents in pre-training instruction?

……………………………………………………………………………………
……………………………………………………………………………………

4. Please respond to the following questions by circling the appropriate rating.

(1) Overall the courses were consistent _with designed objectives:_

1 2 3 4 5 6 7
strongly agree → disagree

(2) Overall the courses were consistent _with client organisational needs and objectives:_

1 2 3 4 5 6 7
strongly agree → disagree

(3) Overall the courses were consistent _with individual needs and objectives:_

1 2 3 4 5 6 7
strongly agree → disagree

(4) The trainees' learning is limited because of the barrier of foreign language and cultural differences.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7
strongly agree → disagree

(5) Cross-cultural training and language support helps Chinese managers learn effectively.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

strongly agree → disagree

(6) Overall, the delivery methods were appropriate to meet course objectives.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

strongly agree → disagree

(6) Most of the courses should be modified to ensure a better application to the client organisation.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

strongly agree → disagree

(8) There are gaps between learning in training and transfer to workplace.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

strongly agree → disagree

(9) The travel arrangement, accommodation and other services may affect the overall effectiveness of the training.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

strongly agree → disagree

(10) Learning theory, on-site visiting and business discuss and exchange are the three important factors for evaluation of training.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

strongly agree → disagree

(11) Effective evaluation of the training programmes could improve the quality of China's overseas management training and development programmes.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

strongly agree → disagree

(12) and (13) are for for trainees and ex-trainees only

(12) Learning abroad opened my view and changed my perception.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

strongly agree → disagree

(13) I am satisfied with my assignment achievements after receiving training abroad.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

strongly agree → disagree

5. Please give your comments on the following subjects.

(1) Please name the three most important factors which may affect the learning of Chinese managers under cross-cultural conditions.

(2) What are the three important factors affecting the application of learning abroad to your work (lecturers and staff in training institution/organisaton do not need to answer this question) ?

(3) How do you think the cross-cultural impact could affect the effectiveness of China's overseas management training and development?

Positive influence Negative influence

(4) Do you have any comments to add which has not been addressed in this questionnaire?

Appendix 2.2

Questionnaire Survey for China’s Overseas Management Training and Development Programme

Standard Questionnaire (Chinese version)

境外培训问卷调查

填表日期：　　年　　月　　日

一、 基本情况

1．您所在的省/市：……………………………………………………………...

2．所在单位 类别:

政府部门 □　事业单位 □　院校 □　研究所 □

企业 □ （请说明企业性质，类别，员工数，如：民营/制造业/1000 人）:

咨询/培训机构 □　其他 □（请说明）:

3．职位/职务：

行政管理人员 □　培训经理 □　项目经理 □　车间主任 □

技术人员 □　中层干部 □　高层领导 □　总裁/总经理/董事长 □

讲师 /教授 □　其他 □ （请说明）:

4． 年龄：　25 岁以下 □　26-30 □　31-35 □　36-40 □

41-45 □　46-50 □　51-55 □　56-60 □　65+ □

5． 性别：　男 □　女 □

6． 教育背景：

科学/ 工程专业技术 □　语言/文学 □　经济/工商管理 □

人力资源管理 □　其他 □ （请说明）:

学位： 博士□　硕士□　学士□　文凭/专业证书□

7． 培训方式：课堂教学 □　实地考察 □　工作实践 □　讲座 □

8. 培训类形： 团组 □ 个别 □

9. 培训时间： ＜1 月 □ 1-3 月 □ 4-6 月 □
7 个月-1 年 □ 1 年以上 □

10. 请说明培训的种类和内容：
（1）学历/文凭： 工商管理硕士 □ 其它学位 □ 专业证书/文凭 □
（2）专业管理课程：工商管理 □ 公共管理 □ 人力资源管理 □
社会发展 □ 经济 □
（3）专业知识/技能:科学技术 □ 金融/财务 □ 税务 □
法律 □ 工业 □ 农业 □ 语言 □
（4）其他 □ （请说明）：……………………………………………………………

11-14 项培训机构工作人员填写

11．您单位组织境外培训有多少年了？
0-1 年 □ 2-5 年 □ 6-10 年 □ 11-15 年 □
16-20 年 □ 21-25 年 □ 26 年以上 □

12．您从事境外培训有多少年了？
0-1 年 □ 2-5 年 □ 6-10 年 □ 11-15 年 □
16-20 年 □ 21-25 年 □ 26 年以上 □

13．您是否接受过与本工作相关的业务培训?
是 □ 否 □
如选择‘是’, 请说明何时何地接受的何种培训:
……………………………………………………………………………………………
……………………………………………………………………………………………

14． 相关的业务培训是否有助于您提高工作水平?
是 □ 否 □
请说明:………………………………………………………………………………...
……………………………………………………………………………………………

15-19 项接受培训和接受过培训的人员填写

15. 培训起止时间（年/月/日）：……………………………………………………

16．培训国： 英国 □ 美国 □ 德国 □ 加拿大 □

其它 □ （请说明）：…………………………………………

17. 培训单位：院校 □ 咨询/培训机构 □ 研究所 □

企业 □ 其他 □（请说明）：

18．您的外语程度：考试成绩________________(如 TOFLE 600 分、BFT130 分)

或 熟练 □ 较好 □ 一般 □ 较差□ 差 □

19. 您在培训过程中的学习语言：直接使用外语 □ 通过翻译 □

二、境外培训和评估

1. 谁负责培训课题的选择和课程设计(包括授课内容、教学方式)?

单位	**培训课题(✓)**	**课程设计(✓)**
境外培训管理部门		
组团单位		
学员派出单位		
境外培训机构		
学员		
不清楚		
其它:		

2. 总体来说，培训项目的目的、目标是否明确？

是 □ 否 □

如选择‘是’, 谁负责培训项目的目的、目标的制定以及制定的依据是什么？

制定单位	✓	**制定的依据**	✓
境外培训管理部门 (部,省,市)		国家五年计划	
组团单位		地方政府发展战略规划	
学员派出单位		企业人力资源发展战略	
境外培训机构		工作需要	
学员		学员(个人)需求	
不清楚		不确定	
其它:		其它：	

3. 请打勾选择并说明谁负责选择学员、选拔方式、及标准？

选拔单位	✓	选拔方式	✓	选拔标准	✓	请说明
境外培训管理部门		学员部门负责人推荐		外语水平：		
组团单位		个人申请		年龄：		
学员派出单位		学员单位人事部推荐		职务(级)：		
境外培训机构		学员单位总经理推荐		职称：		
学员		工作需要		学历：		
不清楚		干部培养		其它:		
其它:		其它：				

4. 据您所知下列哪些单位负责培训评估工作，您认为哪些单位应当负责这项工作，可以多项选择。如对实际情况不了解，请在‘不清楚’一栏打勾。

单位	目前负责培训评估工作(✓)	不清楚(✓)	应当负责培训评估工作(✓)
国内培训管理部门			
组团单位			
境外培训机构			
学员			
学员派出单位			
独立评估机构			
其它：			

5. 根据目前工作现状和您对这项工作的认识，请按以下标准，对下列项目作出相应选择。

1：实际**从未**使用，或建议**不要使用**；　**2**：实际**很少**使用，或建议**尽量少用**；

3：实际**有时**使用，或建议**有时使用**；　**4**：实际**经常**使用，或建议**经常使用**；

5：实际**总是**使用，或建议**必须使用**；　**注**：**‘不清楚’**表示对实际使用情况不了解。 .

例如：

评估方式	实际使用	不清楚	建议使用
培训前/后问卷调查	1 2 3 4 5		1 2 3 4 5
培训前/后测试	1 2 3 4 5	✓	1 2 3 4 5
培训方评估表	1 2 3 4 5		1 2 3 4 5

（1） 请给出下列**评估方式**的实际使用频率和建议使用频率。如对实际使用情况不了解，请在**‘不清楚’**一栏打勾。

评估方式	实际使用	不清楚	建议使用
培训前/后问卷调查	1 2 3 4 5		1 2 3 4 5
培训前/后测试	1 2 3 4 5		1 2 3 4 5
培训方评估表	1 2 3 4 5		1 2 3 4 5
团组培训总结	1 2 3 4 5		1 2 3 4 5
学员个人总结	1 2 3 4 5		1 2 3 4 5
培训中期评估	1 2 3 4 5		1 2 3 4 5
跟踪调查	1 2 3 4 5		1 2 3 4 5
结合个人业绩评估	1 2 3 4 5		1 2 3 4 5
结合单位效益评估	1 2 3 4 5		1 2 3 4 5
与未培训对比组比较	1 2 3 4 5		1 2 3 4 5
非正式意见收集	1 2 3 4 5		1 2 3 4 5
教学方案/内容提前评估	1 2 3 4 5		1 2 3 4 5
其它：	1 2 3 4 5		1 2 3 4 5
	1 2 3 4 5		1 2 3 4 5

（2） 请给出下列**评估指标**的实际使用频率和建议使用频率。如对实际使用情况不了解，请在**‘不清楚’**一栏打勾。

1：实际从未使用，或建议不要使用； **2**：实际很少使用，或建议尽量少用；

3：实际有时使用，或建议有时使用； **4**：实际经常使用，或建议经常使用；

5：实际总是使用，或建议必须使用； **注：‘不清楚’**表示对实际使用情况不了解。

评价培训效果的指标	实际使用	不清楚	建议使用
学员满意程度	1 2 3 4 5		1 2 3 4 5
学员获得新知识、新技能的程度	1 2 3 4 5		1 2 3 4 5
学员态度/观念的转变程度	1 2 3 4 5		1 2 3 4 5
学员工作表现的变化	1 2 3 4 5		1 2 3 4 5
由于培训带来得企业变化	1 2 3 4 5		1 2 3 4 5
满足企业的目标	1 2 3 4 5		1 2 3 4 5
满足学员的目标	1 2 3 4 5		1 2 3 4 5
培训计划/方案的质量	1 2 3 4 5		1 2 3 4 5

培训投入回报	1　2　3　4　5		1　2　3　4　5
培训课程的实际应用程度	1　2　3　4　5		1　2　3　4　5
培训课程的重复需求程度	1　2　3　4　5		1　2　3　4　5
学员领导、同事、下级的反映	1　2　3　4　5		1　2　3　4　5
其它因素：	1　2　3　4　5		1　2　3　4　5

6.根据目前工作现状和您对这项工作的认识，请按以下标准，对下列项目进行排序。

1：非常重要　　**2**：重要　　**3**：一般　　**4**：不太重要　　**5**：不重要

（1）请对下列培训评估的原因给出您的看法。

1：非常重要　　**2**：重要　　**3**：一般　　**4**：不太重要　　**5**：不重要

评价培训效果的原因	**重要性**
体现培训工作的重要性	1　2　3　4　5
确定培训是否达到预期目标	1　2　3　4　5
判断培训课程是否恰当	1　2　3　4　5
确定培训的投入回报	1　2　3　4　5
找出培训课程需改进的方面	1　2　3　4　5
为今后的培训制定方针	1　2　3　4　5
分析培训为之配套服务的人力资源开发的优势和存在问题	1　2　3　4　5
检验课程的明确性和有效性（如内容，课题，测试，练习，活动，问题）	1　2　3　4　5
确定学员学习收获如何	1　2　3　4　5
确定学员态度 / 观念转变程度	1　2　3　4　5
确定学员知识、技能的获取程度	1　2　3　4　5
确定学习成果在实际工作中的应用程度	1　2　3　4　5
制定领导/干部培养细则	1　2　3　4　5
职务提拔的依据	1　2　3　4　5
检查境外培训机构的服务质量	1　2　3　4　5
其它原因：	1　2　3　4　5
	1　2　3　4　5

（2）请对下列不进行培训评估的原因给出您的看法。

1：非常重要；　　**2**：重要；　　**3**：一般；　　**4**：不太重要；　　**5**：不重要。

不评价培训效果的原因	重要性
由于培训目标不明确无法评估	1 2 3 4 5
不清楚谁负责评估	1 2 3 4 5
评估与否不作为培训项目申报、审批要求	1 2 3 4 5
派出单位未要求评估	1 2 3 4 5
培训评估的重要性不明确	1 2 3 4 5
我认为目前没有必要进行培训评估	1 2 3 4 5
评估管理类培训很困难	1 2 3 4 5
不能得到学员单位的配合：	1 2 3 4 5
不能得到境外培训机构的配合	1 2 3 4 5
不能得到学员的配合	1 2 3 4 5
缺乏评估标准和方法	1 2 3 4 5
缺乏评估技术和专门人才	1 2 3 4 5
缺少时间	1 2 3 4 5
缺乏资金	1 2 3 4 5
缺乏人手	1 2 3 4 5
其它原因：	1 2 3 4 5
	1 2 3 4 5

7.据您所知境外培训项目的评估是否已列为境外培训工作的一部分？

是 □ 否 □

您认为是否应将培训评估列为境外培训工作的一部分?

是 □ 否 □

8. 评估境外培训项目与评估国内培训项目相比，是容易还是更难？

容易 □ 更难 □

三、 培训效果的评价

1． 您认为境外培训机构的下列各项服务质量如何？（请圈出相应等级）

（1）教学活动：

1	2	3	4	5
非常满意	满意	一般	不满意	很不满意

（2）参观考察：

1 2 3 4 5

非常满意　　满意　　一般　　不满意　　很不满意

（3）交流洽谈：

1　　2　　3　　4　　5

非常满意　　满意　　一般　　不满意　　很不满意

（4）其它服务(食宿交通安排,语言支持等辅助设施)：

1　　2　　3　　4　　5

非常满意　　满意　　一般　　不满意　　很不满意

2．请就以下问题圈出相应的百分数。

（1）　出国**培训前**您对培训课程的**目的**清楚程度如何？

100%	80%	60%	40%	20%	0%

非常清楚　　　　不清楚

（2）　出国**培训前**您对培训课程**内容**的清楚程度如何？

100%	80%	60%	40%	20%	0%

非常清楚　　　　不清楚

3. 您是否提供/接受预培训或行前指导？

是 □　　　　否 □

如选择‘是’，请说明预培训内容：

………………………………………………………………………………………..…….

4．就以下问题分别圈出相应等级。

(1) 总体而言，培训课程能达到预定的设计目标。

1	2	3	4	5	6	7

完全同意 → 不同意

(2)　总体而言，培训课程能满足学员单位的目标和需求。

1	2	3	4	5	6	7

完全同意 → 不同意

(3)　总体而言，培训课程能满足**学员**目标和需求。

1	2	3	4	5	6	7

完全同意 → 不同意

（4）由于语言障碍和文化差异，学员学习效果受到限制。

1	2	3	4	5	6	7

完全同意 → 不同意

（5）跨文化培训*和语言支持有助于学员的有效学习。

1	2	3	4	5	6	7

完全同意 → 不同意

*培训前或培训期间向学员介绍培训过的文化、风俗习惯等背景知识。

（6）总体而言，培训方式（手段）与培训目标相适应。

1	2	3	4	5	6	7

完全同意 → 不同意

（7）大部分课程必须作相应修改，以便更好的应用到实际工作中。

1	2	3	4	5	6	7

完全同意 → 不同意

（8）培训中的学习和实际应用有差距。

1	2	3	4	5	6	7

完全同意 → 不同意

（9）旅行，食宿安排和其它服务会影响整体培训效果。

1	2	3	4	5	6	7

完全同意 → 不同意

（10）理论学习、实地考察和交流洽谈是衡量培训效果的三个重要因素。

1　2　3　4　5　6　7

完全同意　→　不同意

（11）有效评估培训课程能改善境外培训质量。

1　2　3　4　5　6　7

完全同意　→　不同意

（12）境外学习开拓了视野，改变了我的观念。

(正在接受境外培训和已经接受过境外培训的人员回答)

1　2　3　4　5　6　7

完全同意　→　不同意

（13）接受过境外培训，我对工作业绩较满意。

(正在接受境外培训和已经接受过境外培训的人员回答)

1　2　3　4　5　6　7

完全同意　→　不同意

5．请就以下问题谈谈您的看法：

（1）请列出境外培训过程中影响您 (学员)学习效果的主要因素。

（2）请列出影响您 (学员)将培训中所学到的知识等应用到实际工作中的主要因素。

（3）您认为文化差异对境外培训的影响有哪些？

有利因素：

不利因素：

6．就问卷中未涉及内容，您有何补充说明？

谢谢您的耐心合作，祝工作顺利！

Appendix 3.1

Questionnaire Survey for
China's Overseas Management Training and Development Project
(for Ex-trainees' Supervisors)

Part one: Background information

1. Your province
2. Your organisation's sector
   ☐ Government department ☐ Non-profit organisation
   ☐ Education/research institute ☐ Enterprise
   ☐ Others
3. Your role:
   ☐ Middle manager ☐ Senior manager
   ☐ Chief executive/director ☐ Others (please specify)
4. When did your subordinator take overseas training?
   (give start and finish date)
5. Which country did your subordinator take overseas training

6. Do you know who delivered the training?
   ☐ University/college ☐ Training organisation
   ☐ Don't know
7. What was the course subject and who choose it?

8. Is the chosen subject consistent with your organisational needs?
   ☐ Yes ☐ No ☐ Not clear
9. Who involved in trainee's selecting? Please specify the selection methods and criteria if you know?

Part two: Training effectiveness

1. Have you observed any change in behaviour of your subordinator after his/her training?
   ☐ Yes ☐ No ☐ Not clear

If yes, did these change occur:
   ☐ Immediately ☐ within 6 month ☐ within 1year ☐ after 1 year

2. Do you think there is any performance change of your subordinator after his/her training?

☐ Yes ☐ No ☐ Not clear

If yes, did these change occur:

☐ Immediately ☐ within 6 month ☐ within 1year ☐ after 1 year

3. What impact has the changes in behaviour and performance brought to your organisation?

☐ Positive ☐ Negative ☐ Both

4. Has the manager brought any new ideas from his/her training abroad which is recognised as positive for the organisation?

☐ Yes ☐ No

5. Have these ideas been adopted by your organisation?

☐ Yes ☐ No ☐ Partial

6. Do you think effective evaluation on overseas training is crucial and should be included as one part of the management development process?

☐ Yes ☐ No

7. Do you have any suggestions on how to improve the overseas management training and development?

Part three: Training evaluation

1. To your knowledge has evaluation of training been included in China's overseas training and development?

☐ Yes ☐ No ☐ Don't know

2. Do you think effective evaluation on overseas training is crucial and should be included as one part of the management development process?

☐ Yes ☐ No ☐ Don't know

3. To your knowledge whol evaluates overseas management training and who you think should do it?

4. Do you think evaluation of international management training programmes is easier than those of local management training programmes?

☐ Yes ☐ No ☐ Don't know

5. Do you have any suggestions about how to evaluate overseas management training effectively?

6. Please give your comments about the issue not mentioned in this questionnaire.

Appendix 3.2

Questionnaire Survey for
China's Overseas Management Training and Development Project
(for Ex-trainees' Supervisors) (Chinese version)

境外管理培训项目问卷调查

（学员单位直接领导）

填表日期：　　年　　月　　日

一、基本情况

1. 您所在的省/市：…………………………………………………………………...

2. 所在单位 类别:

政府部门 □　　事业单位 □　　院校/研究所□

企业 □ （请说明企业性质，类别，员工数，如：民营/制造业/1000 人)：

其他 □（请说明)：

3. 职位/职务：

中层干部 □　　高层领导□　　总裁/总经理/董事长 □

其他 □ （请说明)：

4. 您下属培训起止时间（年/月/日)：……………………………………………

5. 您的下属接受境外培训所在地：

6. 培训单位：院校 □　　咨询/培训机构 □　　研究所 □

企业 □　　其它 □

7. 培训主题内容是什么？ 培训内容如何确定？

8．培训主题内容是否符合您单位的需要？

是 □　　否 □　　不清楚 □

9．谁负责选拔参加培训人员？请说明选拔方式及标准。

二、培训效果评价

1. 据您观察，您的下属接受培训后工作表现有否变化？

是 □ 否 □ 不清楚 □

变化出现：

立刻 □ 6个月内 □ 一年内 □ 一年以上 □

2. 据您观察，您的下属接受培训后工作业绩有否改变？

立刻 □ 6个月内 □ 一年内 □ 一年以上 □

3. 以上变化对您单位有何影响？

积极 □ 负面 □ 两者兼有 □

4. 您的下属接受培训后，工作是否有积极意义的创新？

是 □ 否 □

5. 这些（第4项）创新或建议有否被单位采纳？

是 □ 否 □ 部分被采纳 □

6. 您认为影响学员将培训中所学到的知识应用到实际工作中的主要因素有哪些？

7. 您对提高境外管理培训效果有何建议？

三、培训评估

1．据您所知，境外培训项目的评估是否已列为境外培训工作的一部分？

是 □ 否 □ 不清楚 □

2．您是否认为有效评估是境外管理培训重要环节，应当将培训效果评估列为境外培训工作的一部分？

是 □ 否 □

3．据您所知，谁负责境外管理培训的评估工作？您认为由谁负责境外管理培训的评估较为合理？

4．您是否认为，评估境外管理培训项目比评估国内培训项目容易？

是 □ 否 □ 不清楚 □

5.您对有效评估境外管理培训有何建议？

6.就问卷中未涉及内容，您有何补充？

Appendix 4.1

Questions of Semi-structured Interviews for Overseas Management Training

(for trainees & ex-trainees)

1. Date of interview: 2. Interviewee: 3. Job title:
4. Porvince/city: 5. Organistaion: 6. Duration of the interview

1. Training effectiveness

(1)What have you learnt in overseas management training?

(2)How do you think that training abroad influence your career development? Please give examples. (for ex-trainees only)

(3)What do you think the key factors affecting your learning effectively in overseas management training?

(4)What do you think the key factors which affect the application of your learning to work place?

(5)What are the difficulties you have come across in participating training?

2. Training evaluation

(1)What do you think of the necessity and possibility of evaluating overseas training?

(2)To your experience whether and how evaluation was implemented for the training intervention you participated?

(3)Do you have any suggestions on how to evaluate training programmes effectively?

3. Cross-cultural impact?

(1)How do you think the cross-cultural impact could affect the training effectiveness in a positive way? Any example?

(2)How do you think the cross-cultural impact could affect the training effectiveness in a negative way? Any example?

Appendix 4.2

Questions of Semi-structured Interviews for Overseas Management Training

(for trainees and ex-trainees)

(Chinese version)

学员访谈提纲（含新学员和老学员）

学员姓名 ________________ 所在省/市 ________________

单位名称 ________________ 单位性质 ________________

本人职务 ________________ 访谈时间 ________________

1、 培训效果

(1) 您通过境外培训，有哪些收获（学到什么）？

(2) 您认为出国培训对您的事业发展有何影响？请举例说明？

(3) 您认为影响境外培训学习效果的主要因素是什么？

(4) 您认为影响您将培训中所学到的知识应用到实际工作中的主要因素是什么？

(5) 您在参加境外培训过程中遇到过哪些问题？

2、 培训评估

(1) 您认为是否有必要对境外培训效果进行评估，可操作性如何？

(2) 您对有效评估境外培训效果有何建议？

(3) 您所参加的境外培训有否进行过培训效果评估，采用何种方式？

3、 文化差异的影响

(1) 您认为文化差异对境外培训有哪些正面影响？请举例说明。

(2) 您认为文化差异对境外培训有哪些负面影响？请举例说明。

Appendix 5.1

Questions of Semi-structured Interviews for China's Overseas Management Training (for China's training managers and officials)

1. Date of interview: 2. Interviewee: 3. Job title:
4. Porvince/city: 5. Organistaion: 6. Duration of the interview

1. Training effectiveness
   (1) What do you think of the result of overseas management training?
   (2) What are the major problems have you come across in organising overseas management training?
   (3) What are the factors affecting Chinese managers' learning from training?
   (4) What are the factors affecting the application of learning from training?

2. Training evaluation
   (1) What do you think of the necessity and possibility of evaluating overseas training?
   (2) How do you (does your organisation) evaluate training? Any difficulties?
   (3) Do you have any suggestions on how to evaluate management training in cross-culture condition effectively?

3. Cross-cultural impact?
   (1) How do you think the cross-cultural impact could affect the training effectiveness in a positive way? Any example?
   (2) How do you think the cross-cultural impact could affect the training effectiveness in a negative way? Any example?

Appendix 5.2

Questions of Semi-structured Interviews for Overseas Management Training

(for Chinese Training Managers and Officials)

(Chinese version)

境外培训管理人员访谈提纲

姓　　名 ________________	所在省/市 ________________
单位名称 ________________	单位性质 ________________
本人职务 ________________	访谈时间 ________________

1、　培训效果

⑴ 您认为境外管理培训的意义、效果如何？

⑵ 您在组织境外培训过程中，遇到过哪些难题？

⑶ 请列出境外培训过程中影响（学员）学习效果的主要因素。

⑷ 请列出影响（学员）将培训中所学到的知识等应用到实际工作中的主要因素。

2、　培训评估

⑴ 您认为对境外管理培训效果评估的必要性和可操作性如何？

⑵ 据您所知，目前境外管理培训的评估实施情况怎样，主要有哪些问题？

⑶ 请就境外培训项目的评估提出建议。

3、 文化差异的影响

⑴ 您认为文化差异对境外培训有哪些有利因素，请举例说明。

⑵ 您认为文化差异对境外培训有哪些不利因素，请举例说明。

Appendix 6.1

Questions of Semi-structured Interviews for Overseas Management Training

(for ex-trainees' supervisors)

1.Date of interview: 2. Interviewee: 3. Job title:
4.Porvince/city: 5. Organistaion: 6. Duration of the interview

1. Training effectiveness
   (1) Have you observed any change in behaviour of your subordinator after his/her training? What are they? Will you give examples?
   (2) Do you think there is any performance change of your subordinator after his/her training? What are they? Will you give examples?
   (3) What impact has these changes in behaviour and performance brought to your organisation?
   (4) What is your opinion about "transferring Western management to Chinese organisations"?
   (5) What do you think of the important factors affecting the positive transfer of managers' learning from abroad to work place?

2. Training evaluation
   (1) What do you think of the necessity and possibility of evaluating overseas training?
   (2) Do you know whether and how does your organisation evaluate the results of overseas training?
   (3) Do you have any suggestions on how to evaluate management training in cross-culture condition effectively?

Appendix 6.2

Questions of Semi-structured Interviews for Overseas Management Training

(for ex-trainees' supervisors)

(Chinese version)

学员单位领导访谈提纲

受访人姓名 ______________ 所在省/市 ________________

单位名称 ______________ 单位性质 ________________

本人职务 ______________ 访谈时间 ________________

1、 培训效果

⑴据您观察，您的下属培训后个人表现是否有所改变，能否举例说明在哪些方面有所变化？

⑵据您观察，您的下属培训后的工作业绩是否有所改变？能否举例说明，在哪些方面有所变化？

⑶以上所述的变化对贵单位有什么影响？

⑷您对“洋为中用”有何见解？

⑸您认为影响学员将国外学到的知识运用到实际工作中的主要固素有哪些？

2、 培训效果评价

⑴您认为是否有必要对境外培训效果进行评估，它的可操作性如何？

⑵据您所知，贵单位有否、并采取那些方法对境外培训效果进行评估？

⑶您对有效评估境外管理培训有何建议？

Appendix 7

Questions of Semi-structured Interviews for Overseas Management Training

(for UK training institution)

1. Date of interview: 2. Interviewee: 3. Job title:
4. Porvince/city 5. Organistaion: 6. Duration of the interview

1. Training effectiveness

   (1)What are the factors affecting Chinese managers' learning?

   (2)What are the difficulties you have come across while delivering training programmes for Chinese managers?

   (3)What do you think of the training intervention of China's overseas management training and development?

2. Training evaluation

   (1)What do you think of the necessity and possibility to evaluate the effectiveness of Chinese management training intervention?

   (2)How do you (does your institution) evaluate training? Any difficulties?

   (3)Do you have any suggestions on how to evaluate management training effectively in cross-culture condition?

3. Cross-cultural impact?

   (1)How do you think the cross-cultural impact could affect the training effectiveness in a positive way? Any example?

   (2)How do you think the cross-cultural impact could affect the training effectiveness in a negatives way? Any example?

Appendix 8

A List of Criteria and Methods of Training Evaluation for China's Overseas Management Development Identified in This Study

No.	Criterions of Training Evaluation	Methods of Training Evaluation
1	Reaction of trainees	Pre-and-post-training questionnaire
2	Changes in knowledge and skills possessed by trainees	Pre-and-post training tests
3	Changes in attitudes possessed by trainees	Informal collection of comments by trainees
4	Changes of trainees in performance on the job	Evaluation form filled by instructors
5	Changes in trainees' organisation relevant to training	Pre-evaluation on instruction
6	Meeting trainees' objectives	Post training report by group
7	Meeting objectives of trainees' organisation	Self-report by trainees
8	How well the programmes were designed	Intermediate evaluation
9	Extent of the applicability of programmes	Follow up survey
10	Financial return of the programme	Use of performance appraisal
11	Extent of the continued demands for the programme	Use of business records
12	Comments to the trainees from their colleagues	Comparison with group of people who did not take training
13	*Changes in concepts possessed by trainees	*Focus group meetings
14	*Results beyond organisational level	*Integration of talent development policy and strategy

Note: 1-12 items tested in questionnaire surveys
* Items identified in interviews

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