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**A COMPARATIVE EVALUATION OF HUMAN RESOURCE DEVELOPMENT
(HRD) PROCESSES AND PRACTICES IN UK AND NIGERIAN RETAIL
SUPERMARKETS**

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A thesis submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements of the University of
Sunderland for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy

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Abstract:

This research explores the link between human resource development (HRD) interventions and leadership competencies in retail supermarkets in Nigeria and the UK, in order to understand better how Nigerian supermarkets can improve their leadership competencies by adopting the appropriate HRD interventions learnt from their UK counterparts. The retail supermarket literature in Africa recognises the inability of indigenous retail supermarkets in the continent to outcompete some foreign entrants in their own local market. The thesis, therefore, starts by reviewing the challenges facing these indigenous retail supermarkets in Nigeria, including the specific competencies they may be lacking in comparison with their foreign rivals. With this established in chapter one, the literature review chapters then explore issues of competency creation, including the theories of learning and HRD, since competency is learnt, and the HRD construct is in the forefront of learning in the organisation. The methodology adopted was a constructivist ontological stance coupled with an interpretivist epistemology. 40 qualitative interviews were conducted and the data analysis method adopted was a thematic analysis, particularly the deductive-inductive strategy, while the method of data reduction was via categorisation, unitisation, and detecting a relationship between the empirical and secondary data collected. A set of core competencies were identified, and of these the key difference in the responses (gathered from the two countries) was 'reflective action taking', and which was a major competence identified in the responses from the UK supermarkets, especially, Tesco. The thesis, therefore, matched the Tesco options programme (which is a leadership development programme in Tesco) with David Kolb's experiential learning theory (ELT), and, both correspond neatly well. The thesis, thus, recommends that the ELT should form a fundamental part of our curriculum design, pedagogy and delivery of HRD related modules in schools, but also should be adopted in leadership development programmes, especially, in developing countries. However, by building on the current debate on the link between HRD, leadership competencies and organisational transformation, this study helps to address the lack of empirical data on HRD in retail supermarkets in developing countries, and suggests ways of improving the competencies of retail supermarket leaders in Nigerian.

DECLARATION

I hereby declare that this thesis is my own work and does not contain any material which has been used before or which has been published without rightly acknowledging the source appropriately.

I also confirm that this thesis has not been submitted for a degree at any other University.

Signed: 

Date: 16/06/2017

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List of Abbreviations

AC = Abstract Conceptualisation

AE = Active Experimentation

AHRD = Academy of Human Resource Development

ALD = Authentic Leadership Development

ALD = Approaches to Leadership Development

ACL = Assessment of Competencies developed at Leadership Development

BLD = Barriers to Leadership Development

BSc = Bachelor of Science

CAL = Critical Action Learning

CE = Concrete Experience

CEO = Chief Executive Officer

CHAT = Cultural-Historical Activity Theory

CHRD = Communities Human Resource Development

CIPD = Chattered Institute for Personnel and Development

CIT = Critical Incident Technique

CP = Challenging the Process

CPD = Continuing Professional Development

CTP = Challenge the Process

DVD = Digital Versatile Disc

ELT = Experiential Learning Theory

ESRC = Economic and Social Research Council

EC = European Commission

EH = Encouraging the Hearth

EOA = Enabling Others to Act

EQF = European Qualification Framework

EU = European Union

FLD = Frequency of the Leadership Development

FCLD = Fundamental Competencies enhanced in Leadership Development

GDP = Gross Domestic Products

GLOBE = Global Leadership and Organizational Behaviour Effectiveness

HPWS = High Performance Work System

HR = Human Resource

HRD = Human Resource Development

HRM = Human Resource Management

ICT = Information and Communication Technologies

IHRD = International Human Resource Development

IKEA = Ingvar Kamprad, Elmtaryd, Agunnaryd

IPD = Institute of Personnel and Development

ISV = Inspiring a Shared Vision

IT = Information Technology

KD = Knowledge Development

KM = Knowledge Management

KPI = Key Performance Indicator

KT = Knowledge Transfer

KTE = knowledge-transfer and exchange

LDP = Leadership Development Programme

L&D = Learning and Development

LO = Learning Organisation

MBA = Master of Business Administration

MD = Management Development

MDG = Millennium Development Goal

MDP = Management Development Programme

MLD = Management Learning and Development

MTW = Model the Way

MW = Modeling the Way

NHRD = National Human Resource Development

NQF = National Qualification Framework

NSTF = National Skills Task Force

OCTAPAC = Openness, Confrontation, Trust, Authenticity, Proaction, Autonomy,
Collaboration

OD = Organisational Development

OE = Organisational effectiveness

OECD = Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development

OL = Organisational Learning

PBL = Problem-based-learning

PD = Personal Development

PhD = Philosophy of Doctorate Degree

PPP = Public-Private Partnership

PM = Performance Management

QCF = Qualifications and Credit Framework

RBV = Resource Based View

RO = Reflective Observation

ROI = Return on Investment

SEM = Structural Equation Model

SHRD = Societies Human Resource Development

SME = Small and Medium-scale Enterprise

SOE = State Owned Enterprise

S-OJT = Structured on-the-job training

SVLD = Strategic Value of the Leadership Development

TBS = Transformative Business Sustainability

TMSLD = Top Management Support for Leadership Development

TWI = Training Within Industry

UAE = United Arab Emirate

UK = United Kingdom

UNDP = United Nations Development Programme

UNESCO = United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation

US = United States

USA = United States of America

VET = Vocational Education and Training

WWII = World War 2

Chapter One

Introduction

1.1: Context and Focus:

This thesis explores the link between HRD interventions and leadership competencies in retail supermarkets in Nigeria and the UK, in order to understand better how Nigerian supermarkets can improve their leadership competencies by adopting the appropriate HRD interventions learnt from their UK counterparts. By linking the HRD practices of supermarkets in developed countries with their leadership competencies, this thesis provides a guidance for retail supermarkets in developing countries who are concerned with transforming their organisations through leadership competencies (Lo, Lau and Lin, 2001). This thesis is also particularly important due to the role of supermarkets in the socio-economic development of any country.

Through job creation and food distribution supermarkets play a vital role in the socio-economic development of any country. For instance, Wal-Mart has over 2.1 million people in the United States alone in its payroll (the world's second largest employer, after the Chinese Army) and with sales contributing more than 2% to USA's GDP (Patel, 2010). Apart from job creation, the real ingenuity of supermarkets lies in their logistics capability to move perishable foods like bananas from a plantation in Honduras to their local shops worldwide (Patel, 2010).

Although supermarkets were viewed traditionally as the wealthy world's shopping place, with the fast rise of supermarkets even in the poorest regions of the world many people have now realised that supermarkets are not only targeting the affluent consumers in the big capital cities (Reardon, et al., 2003). Several studies (see, for example, Francesconi, Heerink and D'Haese, 2010; D'Haese and Van Huylenbroeck, 2005 and Neven et al., 2006) assert a proliferation of supermarkets in many parts of Africa, but the literature on supermarkets in Africa was virtually non-existent until the incursion of some fierce rivals (such as Wal-Mart, SPAR International, and French chains such as Carrefour, Casino and Monoprix) into the African supermarket sector (Jacobs and Versi, 2012). Apart from their incursion into the African supermarket environment, some of these stronger rivals have also introduced some game-changing strategies, such as, Wal-Mart's acquisition of Massmart in South Africa (Jacobs and Versi, 2012). To make the matter worse for these home-grown supermarkets in Africa, the likes of Wal-Mart have also been putting much pressure on their competitors by introducing a price-cut strategy. This has made many retailing analysts such as (Jacobs and Versi, 2012) to suggest that even with their vast advantage of local knowledge and superb familiarity with their local business cultures, African indigenous supermarkets still have to do something remarkable in order to outcompete these global giants.

In an attempt to outcompete these 'global players' (Seth and Randall, 2005, p.6) who have since sensed a very bright retail future in Africa, indigenous supermarkets in Africa have also been adopting several competitive strategies. Such strategies include unprecedented reductions in the prices of their products and the creation of countless varieties of brands of products and convenience (Jacobs and Versi, 2012).

Unfortunately, these aggressive strategies have pushed some local small-scale grocers and butchers out of their businesses, and with their bargaining powers these home-grown supermarkets have also driven some producers/suppliers prices to their barest minimum, hence, forcing some of these small business units out of the market (Jacobs and Versi, 2012). Yet, African indigenous supermarkets are still struggling to compete favourably with these stronger foreign entrants even on their own domestic markets (Jacobs and Versi, 2012).

However, 'supermarket WARS' (Seth and Randall, 2005) is not a new concept in the retail literature, as Seth and Randall (2005) had earlier used this phrase to describe the competitive rivalry between global players like – Wal-mart, Tesco, Carrefour, etc. and which has extended across many countries. But, the question, here, is, how possible is it for home-grown supermarkets in Africa (most of whom have not addressed the issues of survival) to 'be able to compete against rivals who have international scale and learning?' (Seth and Randall, 2005, p.137).

For any competitor to succeed in taking on global players like Wal-Mart, such firms should focus on pricing strategies, differentiation (such as catering, fresh meat, etc.) strategies, niche/targeting, own-label brand, supply chain efficiency, knowledge of local culture, mergers and acquisitions, being ready to learn and copy their techniques (including leadership competencies) (Seth and Randall, 2005, p.137 - 143). Regrettably, comparative studies of supermarkets in various regions of the world had focused on their: market share (Reardon, 2005), retail service qualities (Deb and Lomo-David, 2014), entry strategies (Jacobs and Versi, 2012), retailing environments

(Franz, 2010), and competitive strategies (Jacobs and Versi, 2012). Other comparative studies of supermarkets focus on the: motivations of shoppers who patronise different supermarket sizes (Tessier, et al., 2010), hygiene levels of supermarkets (Duedu, et al., 2014; Hiko, et al., 2015), and the impacts of supermarkets on their communities (Reardon, et al., 2003). Hence, we know nothing about how the HRD interventions of supermarkets in developing countries compare to their counterparts' in developed countries, or how the former can improve their HRD interventions by learning from the latter. This is an important gap in the literature and one of the key justifications for this study.

However, HRD practice is not a new concept in the literature on supermarket competitiveness. For instance, there is e-learning in supermarkets (Major, 2002), training of new technicians (Turpin, 1996), cashiers' training to prevent work-related musculoskeletal disorders (Wasilewski, Mateo and Sidorovsky, 2007), Morrison's training of butchers and bakers (Pollitt, 2011) and Foundation Training Programme for junior staff in Marks & Spencer and Sainsbury's (Pollitt, 2009). HRD practices of supermarkets also focus on developing leadership competencies, such as: the Tesco Retail Foundation Degree (Pollitt, 2010), Sainsbury's Hot House programme (Pollitt, 2010), the military speed leadership development at Wal-Mart (Pollitt, 2013), and the Sainsbury's convenience training on technical and behavioural skills for team leaders and store managers (Pollitt, 2014).

However, Demartis, Matthews and Khilji (2012) argue that an effective application of HRD intervention is a key to nation building and in maximizing organisational

performance, while (Siikaniemi, 2009) concur that all HRD practice in all organisations have one goal in common – to develop competence. Hong and Staehle (2005) has viewed competence as an innovative learning processes with the potential for facilitating organisational and strategic change from three key approaches. First, as ‘a resource’, where a firm aims to develop the needed competence; secondly, as an integration capabilities, and with the key issue being ‘to apply’ ‘what you know and are capable of’; thirdly, not as an already-existing resources, rather as new capabilities produced and assembled through the firm’s activities and practices.

1.2: Gaps in the Literature, the research problem statement and the justification for this study:

Tsui (2004) found that most HRD theories are western-centric, as the major contributors to the HRD literature and constructs are the developed economies, particularly, the North Americans and the Western Europe, and this makes globalisation of businesses to lag behind (p. 491). McLean (2010) who reviewed the literature on indigenous research in HRD also makes similar conclusion, then, argues the need for indigenous theory and practice in HRD in Thailand. McLean (2016) also argues that such gap in the literature is because most HRD scholars are from the UK, USA, Republic of Korea, among a few others, hence, the HRD literature dominates such countries, whereas, due to poor HRD education and a lack of HRD-research-training in developing countries there is a lack of HRD scholars from countries like Nigeria. Yet, such a gap needs to be addressed if we must have a truly global knowledge of how HRD is practiced universally. Similarly, McLean (2016) also decries the over-emphasis (of the HRD literature) on developed country, thus suggests that

for a continued improvement in global HRD, more indigenous research involving countries (such as Nigeria) that are usually ignored in the literature (including developing some measuring instruments for their HRD effectiveness) are needed.

McLean (2016) also suggests that for a rapid development of HRD research, HRD scholars and professionals should increase their focus on cross-cultural or cross-country research, especially the ones that compare HRD practices between a major country (like the UK) and an emerging economy (like Nigeria). McLean (2016) argues that such a research helps our understanding of the uniformity of HRD practices between countries or regions or demographic subsets. Therefore, HRD researchers from developing countries (such as the researcher who is engaged in this PhD study) are challenged to do more work to address this gap (McLean, 2016).

To address these gaps, instead of linking HRD interventions with employees' competence this thesis instead focuses on the link between HRD interventions and leadership competence, and there is a justification for this.

The September 2010 Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) Review Summit ended by noting the rapid growth in the big countries of Asia, especially China and India in increasing global income and in poverty eradication. Whereas the summit decried a lack of effective leadership in the African continent, and which has led to increased poverty in the Sub-Saharan Africa due to stagnation, slow growth, and/or rising inequality, and which according to the summit makes the region not likely to meet most MDGs (Ohirohenuan, 2011). The leaderships' ability to achieve extraordinary

performance from an apparently ordinary combination of circumstances has been argued as a necessity for a successful African development (Ohiorhenuan, 2011). This, therefore, calls for a renewed approach to the study of leadership development in Africa, and particularly the need to re-examine the relationship between business leadership development and a rapid socio-economic transformation of the continent. Different perspectives give us insights into this debate. For example, Mushipe (2013) discusses the importance of leadership in developing African markets and their economies in tune with a diverse global economy, and argues that leadership with a capacity to utilise the myriad of opportunities that exist within the global-economy is needed in Africa. Mushipe (2013) also foresaw the possibilities of making Africa a key player in the global economic transformations. Nevertheless, he argues that this depends solidly on the role of leadership, because it is 'obligatory' upon the leadership of the African continent to possess the necessary qualities as change agents in order to realise rapid economic transformations of the continent for the benefit of the populace (Mushipe, 2013).

Chibuike (2011) also found that the recent economic downturn of African business and development makes this study imperative. Chibuike's study aimed to identify the challenges, constraints and problems militating against entrepreneurship development in Nigeria, and found that incompetent leadership was chief among the constraints. He, therefore, recommends constant leadership training and development of business leaders in Nigeria (ibid).

Abugre and Adebola (2011) also found that the need to remain competitive in today's rapidly changing world of business increases the need for regular leadership training and development in African organisations. Similarly, Ogundele and Hassan (2010) who studied all the methods of developing an entrepreneurial-personality starting from infancy to retirement age, and based on our knowledge of the South-East Asia also contend that the era of reliance on the natural entrepreneurs for socio-economic development is long gone. Hence, they argue for the need to develop indigenous-entrepreneurs by providing them with the essential leadership competence to tackle the challenges facing the 21st century organisation. Yet, researchers have traditionally focused on the technical and managerial features of organisations and have tended to ignore the subject of leadership development. For instance, it has been found that most empirical studies (on leadership) focus on the behavioural dimensions of leadership while paying less attention to several other important dimensions, particularly leadership development (Toor and Ofori, 2008). It is, therefore, suggested that leadership studies need to improve in terms of their methodological approach, levels of analysis, developmental perspective of leadership, and objective measurement of leadership outcomes, as research on the subject (of leadership development) can make a valuable contribution to efforts to enhance the performance of businesses (Toor and Ofori, 2008).

Furthermore, Smith (2006) also argues that leadership development practice could be improved by learning from best practice HRD examples. Yet, the differences in leadership behaviours across cultures may affect the applicability of western leadership development practices to the unique African context. For instance, some scholars (e.g. Den Hartog et al., 1999; Hofstede, 1980, 2001; House et al., 2004)

stress that leadership varies all over the world and that those theories developed in the USA, particularly, may not be applicable to other parts of the world due to cultural differences. Hofstede et al. (2010) also postulate that where people grow up shapes the way they think, feel, and act. Similarly, Posner (2013) surveyed leadership behaviours in Ethiopia, India, Pakistan, and the Philippines and found that, leadership practices varied across these countries. Posner, therefore, suggests that leadership development efforts should be better directed toward building skills common to these different leaders, since multicultural studies show that cultural values can affect leadership ideas, styles, and practices (Posner, 2013). Similarly, Iwowo (2014; 2011) made a postcolonial analysis of contemporary leadership development and leadership education in Nigeria, and found that, in the light of recent criticisms of global management education and other salient questions of knowledge imperialism and ethnocentrism that arise with respect to knowledge creation and representation, that there are questions that are even more pertinent. These include questions of universality and contextual applicability, given the relevant issue of cultural diversity and what many researchers (see, for example, Posner, 2013; Hofstede et al, 2010; Hofstede, 1980, 2001) increasingly suggest is the socially constructed nature of leadership. Her findings indicate the presence of a strong community orientation that is seemingly consistent with the philosophical underpinnings of indigenous community practices in Africa and one that reflects a noticeable degree of contextual dissonance between the mainstream paradigms of leadership and the lived experiential reality of programme participants in the understudied context – in this case Nigeria. Subsequently, Iwowo (2015; 2016) have proposed a model of leadership development that should begin to address this contextual gap; one that, although acknowledging

the conceptual importance of the mainstream, it nonetheless fundamentally accommodates the local knowledge frameworks within which it is deployed.

While drawing on the suggestions of these foregoing scholars to address such recurrent gaps in business leadership development in Nigeria, the current study has chosen the supermarket retail sub-sector, because we know nothing about the capacities of the leadership of supermarkets in Nigeria to make any significant contribution to the socio-economic development of the country. For instance, the key drivers of the Nigerian economy are believed to be the banking sector, mobile telecommunications, agriculture, and the Nollywood industries, and their contributions to the economic development of the country have also been widely acknowledged (see, for example, Aljazeera news, 2014). Similarly, studies on corporate performance of Nigerian quoted firms such as the Nollywood industry (Onyima, 2013), the Banking sector (Haji and Mubaraq, 2012; Okurame and Balogun, 2005), Mobile Telecommunication (Eke, 2010), and the Agriculture sector (Igbanibo, 2010) all argue the capacities of such sectors to contribute to Nigeria's economic development. Hence, we know comparatively little (or perhaps nothing) about how the leadership teams of the Nigerian retail supermarkets learn, and their capacities to implement the knowledge gained to transform their businesses and contribute to the country's MDGs. Yet, the global giant – Walmart has been credited as a major contributor to the USA's economy, particularly, in job creation and GDP (Patel, 2010). Similarly, the successful strategic transformations in the British grocery retail sector which is attributed to leadership teams and learning (Collins and Burt, 2003; Burt, 2000; Clarke, 2000) and as demonstrated particularly in the UK retail giant, TESCO (see, for example, Jones, 2012; Cairns et al., 2010) is among the key drivers of the British economy. This is an

important gap in the literature, and the next section will state how the research aim, research objectives and the research questions will address this gap.

1.3: Research Aim, Research Objectives and Research Questions:

1.3.1: Research Aim:

To explore the link between HRD interventions and leadership competencies in retail supermarkets in Nigeria and the UK, in order to understand better how Nigerian supermarkets can improve their leadership competencies by adopting the appropriate HRD interventions learnt from their UK counterparts.

1.3.2: Research Objectives:

Main Objective:

To understand the effectiveness of the various HRD interventions applied in developing leadership competencies in supermarkets in Nigeria and the UK.

The main objective gives rise to the following objectives:

1. To explore how retail supermarkets in Nigeria and the UK approach their leadership developments, including the specific HRD interventions applied in the process.

2. To compare and contrast the leadership competencies developed during the process.
3. To find out if any lessons can be drawn from the HRD approaches applied in developing leaders of the UK retail supermarkets to help enhance the organisational transformations of their Nigerian counterparts.

1.3.3: Research Questions:

The main Research Question:

What do we know about the effectiveness of the various HRD interventions applied in developing leadership competencies of supermarket leaders in Nigeria and the UK?

The main research question gives rise to the following research questions:

1. What HRD interventions are applied by retail supermarkets in Nigeria and the UK in developing their leaders?
2. How do the competencies of Nigerian retail supermarket leaders compare to their UK counterparts'?
3. What lessons can be drawn from the HRD interventions adopted by the UK retail supermarkets in developing their leadership competencies to help enhance the organisational transformations of their Nigerian counterparts?

1.4: Originality and Contributions to Knowledge:

1.4.1: Contributions to Theory:

The past two decades have witnessed an extension in the traditional focus of the HRD literature. This additional focus on HRD is evidenced in a change in emphasis from individual and organisational learning, now to an examination of how HRD is appreciated and practised in international settings (McGuire, Garavan and Dooley, 2011; Hamlin and Stewart, 2011; Gray, Iles and Watson, 2011; Trehan and Rigg, 2011). This has now led to a renewed focus on fields such as national HRD, international HRD, cross-cultural HRD and comparative HRD (Garavan and Carbery, 2012). Indeed, this thesis contains overlaps between these four areas of study. In other words, this thesis is relevant for both literature reviews and teachings in these four areas of HRD study.

In particular, this study contributes in advancing our understanding of the differences and similarities in NHRD practices between retail supermarkets in Nigeria and the UK, as the extant HRD literature is inadequately nuanced to advance our understandings of HRD practices and approaches in different national contexts. For instance, Wang (2008) had earlier observed that the current national human resource development (NHRD) literature lacks the capacity to advance our understandings of HRD practices and approaches in different national contexts. Sung, Turbin and Ashton (2000), therefore, argue that such a framework (as this thesis) would enhance our understanding of why approaches and provisions for training and development vary

from country to country. Furthermore, with a dearth of research in comparative HRD study involving a Western and non-Western country (Alagaraja and Dooley, 2003), linking HRD interventions of hugely divergent countries (such as the UK and Nigeria) with existing theories can help to validate such existing theories and/or establish new ones.

Although previous comparative HRD studies (such as Wang, 2006; 2008; Sung, Turbin and Ashton, 2000; Ashton, 2002; Ardichvili and Kuchinke, 2002; Benson and Zhu, 2002) that compare national HRD skills formation systems, policies and processes in several countries all emphasise the importance of comparing national HRD approaches, Wang and Swanson (2008) have argued that the number of such comparative HRD studies was still inadequate. McLean and McLean (2001) had extended such calls by calling for country-specific HRD studies because our acquaintance with the US definition and approaches to HRD negates our need for an HRD construct that adheres to socio-cultural issues in learning and development in different cultures. Hence, this study explores the HRD and leadership development issues that are unique to Nigeria and the UK. The implication of this is that by integrating the leadership development practices of the two countries – that have hitherto not been integrated in a single HRD study, it, therefore, responds very well to some studies (such as, Garavan and Carbery, 2012) that propose an advancement of global HRD research.

Furthermore, although the literature has investigated to what extent experiential learning theory (ELT) can be applied in many occupational settings, such as, in the public-private partnership (PPP) (Mouraviev and Kakabadse, 2014), in the

professional and managerial developments of physicians, educators, and social workers (White, 1992), in the professional development of Chartered Quantity Surveyors (Lowe and Skitmore, 2007), none has tested the applicability of the ELT in retail supermarket setting. By testing the applicability of ELT in an uncharted and complex organisational setting such as the retail supermarket, this thesis makes a unique contribution to the debate on the impact of social environment in the learning model.

Moreover, although there is a wealth of descriptive accounts of competencies in the literature, there are no satisfactory explanatory models on the specific learning strategies involved in competency development in simple, complicated and complex learning environments such as the supermarkets. This thesis does not only provide such a model, it also provides a constructivist account of competency development and associated phenomena in retail supermarket setting.

Another unique contribution of this thesis to knowledge is that it helps us to recognise an urgent need to integrate the Tesco Options Programme in forming an enhanced theoretical foundation for an improved approach to both leadership development practices and sustainable human resource development for retail supermarkets. It is also through this unique contribution that this thesis increases the academic community's awareness of the limitations of the current leadership development practices (especially) in developing countries. This thesis, therefore, suggests changes in terms of curriculum design, delivery and pedagogy for an improved and sustainable HRD and leadership development programmes, especially in supermarkets in developing countries.

In synopsis, the originality and uniqueness of this thesis include:

1. It makes unique contributions to 4 distinct areas of the HRD genre – National HRD, International HRD, Cross-cultural HRD and Comparative HRD.
2. It is a pioneering study on the applicability of ELT in a retail supermarket setting, therefore, this thesis makes a unique contribution to the debate on the impact of social environment in the learning model.
3. It offers a satisfactory explanatory model on the specific learning strategies involved in developing specific leadership competencies.
4. This thesis also provides a constructivist account of competency development and associated phenomena (especially) in the retail supermarket setting.
5. This thesis also helps us to recognise the need to integrate the Tesco Options Programme in forming an enhanced theoretical foundation for an improved approach to both leadership development and sustainable HRD, especially in retail supermarkets in developing countries.
6. This thesis increases the academic community's awareness of the limitations of the current leadership development practices (especially) in developing countries, which also
7. Raises some critical questions about the significance of some HRD tools applied in our leadership development programmes, especially, in developing countries.
8. The thesis, also, offers HRD practitioners and leadership development consultants a justification for a transformational shift in thinking and application

of learning methodologies in leadership development practices, especially, in retail supermarket setting.

9. This thesis, therefore, suggests changes that should be made in terms of curriculum design, delivery and pedagogy for an improved and sustainable leadership development programme.
10. Unlike many prior HRD researches that fail to address topics presently worrying HRD practitioners (Berger, Kehrhahn and Summerville, 2004) or due to lack of the researchers' competence to undertake HRD research (Bassi, 1998), or simply due to their failure to appreciate the importance of HRD research (Gilley, 2006), this study explores how HRD theories inform practice, and which will, therefore,
11. Clarify some of the disagreements within the current theorising of critical HRD, hence,
12. Helps us to understand better how the divide between HRD academics and practitioners can be bridged.

1.4.2: Contributions to Practice:

It is certainly evident that there is a relatively small amount of literature on cross-cultural HRD topics, but what is of even more concern is that most of these few publications are just theoretical or conceptual in nature (Garavan and Carbery, 2012). With the empirical nature of this thesis, there are many implications for both the practitioners and scholars of national human resource development (NHRD), international human resource development (IHRD), cross-cultural HRD and comparative HRD research trajectories. Below are some of these implications.

However, this study reminds HRD practitioners that there are some suggestions that even as the increasing globalisation and internationalisation of businesses have brought some form of standardisation in HRD practices across the globe (see, for example, Hansen and Brooks, 1994), that HRD practices are still socially constructed, as culture still influences what constitutes an acceptable practice in a profession (McGuire et al., 2002). Hence, a successful HRD practitioner must acknowledge the importance of national culture and indigenous institutions for a successful HRD outcome.

Conceptual Framework

Rationale behind the Framework:

The aim of this research is 'to explore the link between HRD interventions and leadership competencies in retail supermarkets in Nigeria and the UK, in order to understand better how Nigerian supermarkets can improve their leadership competencies by adopting the appropriate HRD interventions learnt from their UK counterparts'. However, this research-aim is a result of the researcher's awareness of the inability of indigenous retail supermarkets in (his home country) Nigeria to outcompete some foreign entrants in their own local market in Nigeria. Chapter one, therefore, starts by helping us to gain a deeper understanding of the challenges facing these indigenous retail supermarkets in Nigeria, including the specific competencies they may be lacking in comparison with their foreign rivals. With this established in chapter one, the literature review chapters then explore issues of competency creation, including the theories of learning and HRD, since competency is learnt, and the HRD construct is in the forefront of learning in an organisation. Having established how competency is created, the next effort is a justification of an appropriate method of investigation, and which then leads to empirical field work to explore and match the core leadership competencies (including how such competencies are created) in the UK's best retail supermarket against their Nigerian counterparts. In the discussion of findings section, this thesis compares the findings from the empirical field work with the main stream of learning and HRD literature in order to see if there is any relationship between the theory and practice of competency development. Finally, this thesis develops and recommends a step by step process of how this (UK's) best

practice in leadership development can be applied in Nigerian retail supermarket environment.

Overview of the framework

The conceptual framework includes five broad steps, and these steps are described as below:

- **Context and Focus:** This section presents the challenges faced by Nigerian supermarkets in their attempts to compete with their foreign rivals in Nigeria.
- **Subject and Rules:** This presents an overview of the theory of learning in order to appreciate how competency is built, and with a major focus on the environment of learning (including the tools, instruments, objectives and the tasks that make up the theory of learning). This also includes some justifications for an appropriate method of investigation to be adopted in the primary field work.
- **Search for Best Practice:** This stage involves exploring the core leadership competencies of renowned retail supermarket giants in the UK (including the tools and instruments they apply in creating such competencies, as well as the participants that take part in such learning activities). This stage also matches these exemplars against

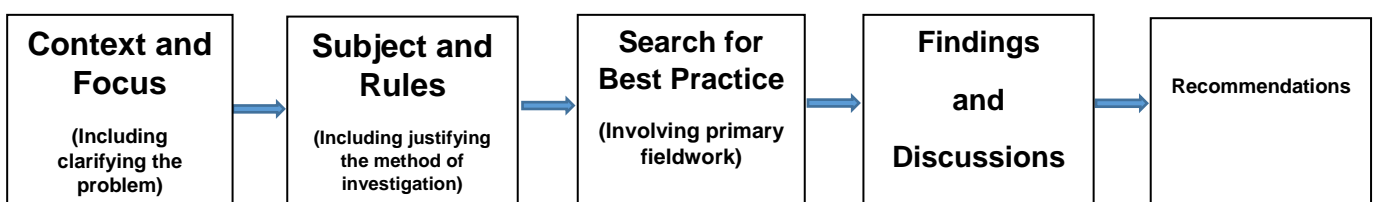
the leadership development activities of some selected retail supermarkets in Nigeria in order to understand how to make the Nigerian supermarkets more competitive.

- **Findings and Discussions:** This stage involves linking the primary data collected with the relevant literature in order to understand better any link between the theory and practice of developing leadership competence.

- **Recommendations:** This presents a step by step process of how the best-practice in leadership development (or HRD for that matter) in the UK retail supermarkets can be applied in their Nigerian counterparts. It also helps us “to understand the effectiveness of the various HRD interventions adopted in developing leadership competence in supermarkets in the UK”.

The interconnections between these steps is shown in figure 2.1, while each of these steps are explored in more detail within the remainder of this thesis.

Figure 2.1: The Conceptual Model:



Chapter Two

Human Resource Development (HRD)

2.1: Introduction:

This chapter discusses human resource development (HRD) theory and practices. First, it explores the traditional drivers of HRD activities in organisations. Secondly, by investigating the route of HRD practices in organisations it presents the different activities that make up the modern HRD practices in organisations. Finally, by focusing on issues of boundary setting, the chapter looks at the various definitions of HRD, its varieties of meanings, the foundational theories that inform the construct and practice of HRD, as well as the scope of the HRD activities.

2.2: The Traditional Drivers of HRD

Based on the earlier theory of strategic HRD, Luoma (2000) deduces and presents three discrete logics – need-driven, opportunity-driven, and capability-driven approaches to HRD. Luoma (2000) also argues that it is pointless to support any of these traditional approaches at the expense of the others, because similar to strategy, the study of strategic HRD itself needs to be approached from a multifaceted dimension. Hence, being stuck in one approach when practicing HRD can lead to a

waste of resources or put differently a neglect of individual capabilities that have the potentials of generating a competitive advantage (Luoma, 2000).

2.2.1: HRD Driven by Needs

A common view of the role of HRD in relation to strategy is to see it as a means to assess and address skills deficiencies in the organisation (Mabey and Salaman, 1995, p. 143). The competencies required in HRD practices should therefore be informed by changes in the business environment. That is, as change could render existing competencies obsolete, then there should always be concerted efforts to regularly review and analyse the training needs and retrain the staff and managers involved, when necessary. For instance, in their study of approaches to training in UK companies, Pettigrew, Hendry and Sparrow (1988) found the significance of using the skills performance gap as a trigger for human resource developmental activities, but they also found that the reaction to this gap varied significantly from firm to firm. For instance, in a fast-changing technological environment such as in the information technology (IT) sector, Torraco and Swanson (1995) found that companies here could respond quickly to technological advancements due to workforce expertise as a critical ingredient of competitiveness. This approach of gap-closing HRD is often argued as a sensible, thoughtful, and sequential progression from the needs assessment stage and through to a point where the actual result is compared against the set learning-objective(s) (Robinson and Robinson, 1990; Wexley, 1991).

Another fundamental trigger of the need-driven HRD is the issue of international career mobility. For instance, before expatriate managers can embark on international assignments they would normally undergo training and development to prepare them for the challenges of the new ways of life in terms of the – traditions, cultures, competence, but also potential language as necessitated by the new business environment (Bullock, Stallybrass and Trombley, 1977; Christaller, 1933; Fisher, 2006; Rosenberg, 2008).

Additionally, the need for succession planning and firm growth can spur HRD practitioners to embark on human capital development. For instance, to ensure an internal talent pipeline of store managers, reducing the risk from staff turnover and providing a ready resource for acquisitions and new stores, Sainsbury's Supermarkets Ltd has created a Hothouse development program to give its most promising deputy managers the competence they need to become store managers (Pollitt, 2010).

2.2.2: HRD Driven by Opportunities

HRD was described above as a reaction to skills deficiencies within the organisation through an application of appropriate learning interventions and techniques to serve as catalysts for mental growth in organisations (Luoma, 2000). These interpretations are often linked with organisation leaders in their quest for cultural change amongst their workforce (Mabey and Salaman, 1995, p. 143; see also Burack, 1991). However, the explanations and groupings of the various activities and theories that constitute the opportunity-driven HRD are found in some original works of organisational

development (OD) scholars (e.g. Beer, 1980; French and Bell, 1984). Here, HRD is argued as a central component of the strategic planning process itself as it facilitates the strategic planning process (Buller, 1988; Argyris, 1989). Burgoyne (1988) argues this approach to HRD as one that integrates management development and business planning. In Torraco and Swanson's (1995) view, the opportunity-driven approach to HRD normally equips employees with non-vocational skills in areas such as business process analysis and systems thinking (see, for example, the case study of L.M. Ericsson Corporation as stated in Torraco and Swanson, 1995).

Furthermore, an opportunity to catch up with the intense speed of technological changes has been argued as one of the major triggers of the opportunity-driven HRD. Indeed, the impressive speed with which technology is developing and with it the opportunity to employ new types of learning intervention is widely recognised (Gold, Thorpe and Mumford, 2010; Gold et al., 2010; Wang, 2010). In other words, alongside such technological changes, the personnel who work in these new technological environment should also be equipped with the requisite skills and abilities (Salmon, 2004; Gallagher, 2009). For instance, the development of the competencies needed to work in a virtual environment and an understanding of the different dynamics of the interpersonal interactions when using a discussion board create a different context for HRD interventions (Wootton and Stone, 2010).

However, based on the discussion above, four processes affecting the use of HRD have been identified. (1) That business strategies are converted into human resource developmental needs within the organisation; (2) Organisational/business

developmental needs trigger HRD; (3) HRD utilises the available opportunities as a catalyst for mental growth in the organisation; and (4) HRD interventions expedite the strategic planning process (Luoma, 2000). The implication of this to leadership development in the supermarket retail subsector is that the leadership development activities should be tied with the strategic needs of the businesses. Developmental needs (such as the need for expansion, internationalisation, etc) should act as the triggers for HRD. Moreover, their HRD activities should utilise the opportunities available (such as changes in the competitive landscape or changes in technology); and the need to tackle skill-deficiencies for example, could be the drivers for HRD.

2.2.3: HRD Driven by Capabilities

This third approach to HRD is based on the school of thought that suggests that organisational capabilities (including leadership competences) are sources of competitive advantage. Here, the basic argument is that HRD can serve as a delivery system for organisational capabilities, hence serving as a strategic contributor to organisational performance. This role is discussed further below.

However, since competency development is argued as the main objective of HRD activities, leaders should therefore intensify their attentions to those factors (such as training and development) that enhance workplace competencies (Stalk, Evans and Shulman, 1992; see also Prahalad and Hamel, 1990). To clarify this line of thinking, Stalk, Evans and Shulman (1992) who argue that many business success stories are due to competencies also use the case of Walmart in the US as a justification for their

line of argument. For instance and according to the authors, the famous growth of Walmart in the US discount retail industry is mainly based on a competence that they call cross-docking. Cross-docking is a logistics-system that its success depends largely on a unique form of effective communications between Walmart's distribution centres, their suppliers, and individual stores; an effective transportation system; unique managerial behaviours; and a distinct kind of skills and attitudes of its frontline staff (Stalk, Evans and Shulman, 1992). Furthermore, Honda's successful rise in the global automobile industry has often been attributed to their unique organisational capabilities. In other words, Honda's enduring success is not due to the engine itself, but due to their human resource capabilities in specified areas – such as dealer-management (Luoma, 2000).

Indeed, the reasoning behind the capability-driven approach to HRD, however, does suggest an emerging “critical” approach to the study of the activities and discourses associated with learning and development (such as enhancing organisational capabilities via HRD), and performance management (PM) (Sambrook, 2004: 621; Simmonds and Pedersen, 2006: 125). To extend our understanding of these traditional drivers of HRD, the next section will argue a quest for performance improvement as a driver for HRD practice.

2.2.4: HRD Driven by Performance Improvement:

With HRD now becoming a major tool for learning and development initiatives such as knowledge management (Adhikari, 2010: 316), the main questions emerging are – Are

the traditional HRD structures sufficient to realise the performance management (PM) objectives? Is a traditional HRD structure mostly focusing on training and development enough to address the current PM related issues? If not, how can we organise HRD functions in such situations (Adhikari, 2010: 317)? Some scholars (see, for example, Mabey, Hjalager and Kafjordlange, 2006; Adhikari, 2010: 317; Ulrich, 1998) argue that HRD professionals can help to increase the employees' performance in organisations. This can be achieved in the following ways: (1) By working as both a coach and therapist to ensure employee engagement and commitment (Adhikari, 2010: 317); (2) By providing training for line management in order to achieve high employee morale (Ulrich, 1998); and (3) By equipping top management teams with top quality leadership skills (Mabey, Hjalager and Kafjordlange, 2006). Here HRD professionals have to train the line managers to implement the best practices (in learning and development) that can help to raise strategic capabilities of the employees (Adhikari, 2010: 319). Under this new arrangement, the new role of the HRD practitioner (as foresaw by Buyens, Wouters and Dewettinck, 2001) is to facilitate organisational learning of individuals and teams, and to act as a performance consultant with a key focus on change management. Management's support for employee learning and development could as well become a focal point in performance appraisals (of managers) and management development programmes (Buyens, Wouters and Dewettinck, 2001).

Furthermore, other scholars who have been examining the relationship between HRD and performance management over the past few decades have also found a strong connection between the two. For instance, Nadler (1970) found that HRD activities are designed to produce behavioural change, and which is therefore needed in improving individual and team's performance. For McLagan (1983), through organisational

development interventions and an integrated use of training and development interventions, HRD can improve both individual as well as organisational performance. Swanson (1995) argue that at the heart of HRD is the development and unleashing of human expertise through employees training and development with the purpose of improving organisational performance. Harrison (1992) view HRD as any practice with the potential of developing an individual's and/or teams' work-based skills, their learning abilities and enthusiasm at every level of the organisation, and the purpose of developing such work-based skills is for improving organisational performance. For Galley and Maycunich (2000), through organised interventions HRD facilitates organisational learning and change, and which enhances the performance capacity (of an organisation), therefore, helps the organisation to remain competitive. Armstrong (2001) argue that HRD is focused on the provision of learning and development opportunities which in turn improve individual and teams' performances. Rao (2007) have suggested that with the help of HRD tools, HRD practitioners should engage in creating a learning environment, while Van der Sluis (2007) extends that argument by arguing that such environment should increase organisational competencies in time of globalisation.

HRD has also been linked with high performance work system. An example is Muduli's (2015) study on the relationship between high-performance work system (HPWS) and organisational performance in Indian power sector. The study found that HPWS increases organisational performance through a learning environment that is based on openness, confrontation, trust, authenticity, proaction, autonomy, collaboration and experimentation (OCTAPAC), and an environment which HRD facilitates. Muduli therefore suggests that an effective HRD climate is needed in the

designing and implementation of HPWS as HRD climate is an intermediating variable that enhance the effectiveness of HPWS (Muduli, 2015, p.239).

2.3: The Emergence of HRD:

Attributed to Nadler in the early 1980s (Simmonds and Pedersen, 2006), HRD has witnessed two major contrasting approaches to its development. On the one hand, the Americans are famous for their tenacity for pursuing a performance outcomes paradigm with a focus on enhancing organisational performance through individual employee development (Swanson and Holton, 2001). This 'American-style-HRD' has emerged through organisational systems theory with emphases on coaching, mentoring and leadership development (DeSimone, Werner and Harris, 2002). On the other side of the Atlantic, the British focus on the training and development genre, and with emphasis on the pursuit of a learning and development paradigm (Garavan, Heraty and Barnicle, 1999). This dichotomy was intensified on the one hand, by efforts to explain the place of HRD in the subject of "HRM" (Sofu, 1999), and on the other, by the emergence of strategic HRM and strategic HRD (Walton, 1999). Yet, both the British and the American-style-HRD all have one goal in common – human capital 'development'. This leads us on to exploring the 'D' in HRD.

2.3.1: The 'D' in HRD:

'Development', is, although the major idea behind the concept of HRD, there are many disagreements in the various definitions of the word (Garavan, McGuire and Lee, 2015). Yet, the concept of development has been attracting scholarly interest from a wide range of academic fields – HRD, organisation theory, management studies, adult education and psychology, thus leading to a lack of “consistency in how development is understood, conceptualized, or tested” (Garavan, McGuire and Lee, 2015, p.359).

However, over 80 years ago Levinson (1920-1994) suggested that the idea of development was linked with aspirations, and which he referred to as “the dream,” whereas the duty of development is to describe and achieve such dream (Levinson, 1986, p. 4). Other researchers from a wide range of fields including adult education (Knowles, 1984), organisation theory (Weick and Quinn, 1999), management and organisation studies (Van De Ven and Poole, 1995), and psychology (Jung, 1971) have also proposed various ideas of development, while HRD scholars (such as, Kuchinke, 2014) argue that the concept of development is at the heart of HRD, particularly, in enhancing individual competence and organisational effectiveness. Similarly, in describing personal development in education some HRD scholars such as Edmunds and Richardson (2009) have linked development to adult education, while Lankau and Scandura (2002) have explored the importance of development in their study of mentoring relationships. Van De Ven and Poole (1995) also explored the importance of development in organisational development (OD), while (Mabey, 2013) explored the ideas behind development in the context of leadership development.

To explore the importance of development in HRD practice, the following sections explore the multidimensional and generalizable nature of development across disciplines and contexts.

2.3.1.1: Vocational Education and Training (VET):

One of the common themes that relate to HRD is vocational education and training (VET), which refers to both formal and informal learning processes which directly relate with the workplace competence (Mulder, Weigel and Collins, 2006). Vocational education and training (VET) is a combination of education and training (usually in tertiary institutions) with the aim of equipping people with knowledge, competences, know-hows, and skills required to succeed in particular occupations or more broadly in the labour market (Education International, 2009, pp.3). As VET is situated closely to the market, it does not only act as a hub between general education and the labour market, but it also provides access to skills as well as entry routes into the labour market (Education International, 2009, pp.3). Based on the evidence that vocationally trained workforce (particularly, the tradespersons and technicians) are the key to technical innovation in the workplace, vocational education and training systems have been argued to play a unique role in achieving workplace innovation (Toner, 2010).

However, Swanson and Holton (2009) have argued the role of HRD professionals in vocational education and training to include: the design, implementation and improvement of employee and organisational development initiatives in order to facilitate individual, group and organisational wide changes. Yet, “vocational training

is too subsidized to offer quality, too fragmented to offer scale and too isolated to be of real value as links to either employment opportunities or further education does not exist” (Sharma, 2014, p. 412).

Although Tomé and Goyal (2015, p.587) argue that it is only when a country’s population is educated, in broad terms trained, will the country realise its huge potential, yet, there is also the question of: whether the specific investment in HRD and training are tailored to develop such competence needed by individuals to perform in the labour market (Jackson, 2010). In view of that, the literature has noted that the developed countries have more chances of developing their needed competencies because they have the more advanced schemes and investments in HRD, and this has always reflected in their economic performance (Tomé and Goyal, 2015). This is simply because when a country has much trained people, the level of their skills and competences are high, and which translates in production of more valuable goods and services, which therefore translates to higher income and welfare for its citizens, unlike in a country with a less educated, low skilled and incompetent labour force (World Bank, 2013; UNDP, 2013). O’Neil, (2001) therefore reminds developing economies that it has become imperative for them to work on their HRD strategies in order to ensure a sustained economic growth and development and in order to lunch themselves on the global map.

2.3.1.2: Training and Development:

Viewed as quite different from education, training relates to the process of developing a narrower range of skill and in a short term, in order to improve an individual's performance and productivity in a specific task and in a present job, whereas education is (usually) class-room based theoretical form of learning with the aim of developing a wider sense of reasoning and judgemental skills (O'Toole, 2010). While education connotes more generally to lifelong and life wide learning experiences of the learners, and where each experience can apply to the learner's future careers, training is concerned with the development of specific skills which have immediate application (O'Toole, 2010). Three components of good training have been identified in the literature, to include: first, the actual instructions are provided to the trainee, and these instructions must be understood and readily accepted by the recipient(s). Then where some elements of training is not well understood, it is the responsibility of the trainer in conjunction with the operational management of the organisation that sponsors the training to motivate the trainee to adapt the new method in order to change his/her ways (O'Toole, 2010). Second is that a good training session must be closely followed up by an equally good supervision sessions to ensure that the behavioural changes are achieved, and that the skills are transferred to the work place. Finally, after a good training session, there must be an assessment of the impact of the training and development on the work role and return on investment. One of the notable instruments for evaluating the impact of training and development programmes on return on investment include Kirkpatrick and Kirkpatrick (2006) four level of evaluation of training programmes in organisations.

2.3.1.3: Learning and Development (L&D):

Training was the only approach deemed fit for developing employees' job-related skills, but there has been a recent rise in the use of learning and development activities in the work place as they are usually linked to real world situations than training (O'Toole, 2010). Although learning and development may not usually be related directly to a person's job, they emphasize individual's future career aspiration, hence, unlike training they have more long-term aims (O'Toole, 2010). Learning and development emphasise on soft skills which include - goal setting, communication, performance appraisal and leadership skills, and which are usually developed through activities such as, reflection, observation, shadowing, coaching, and mentoring (Gray and Jones, 2016).

Another term that relates to learning and development is professional development, which describes an organisation's statutory responsibility to encourage staff to meet the academic, personal and professional demands of their jobs by building on their existing strengths in order to maintain their professional membership (O'Toole, 2010). For instance, the CIPD professional membership defines the academic, personal and professional demands which members must meet to maintain their registration.

2.3.1.4: Organisation Development (OD):

Organisational development (OD) refers to planned changes in the "strategy, structure and/or processes of an entire system" (Cummings and Worley, 2009, p. 2) in order to

improve organisational effectiveness (Ellinger and Ellinger, 2013). “In theory, OD is a systematic approach with a key objective being to create an adaptive organisation that achieves excellence by integrating individual desire for growth and development with organisational goals” (Young, et al., 2015, p.128). With a major focus on organisational behaviour, OD first emerged theoretically as part of the human relations movement in the 1950s, and it is based on the idea that, for organisations to be influenced and improved, the way they ought to operate ought to be better understood so it can be measured and adjusted (O’Toole, 2010). Yet, OD has evolved so rapidly to now focus on organisational change, capacity building (especially in teams), and on opening up effective communication channels and processes across the organisation with the sole aim of achieving organisational effectiveness (O’Toole, 2010). A typical OD intervention involves a series of step by step activities which start with problem-identification, consultation and information gathering, initial diagnosis of the problem, shared problem diagnosis, group feedback, joint planning of learning intervention, actual learning and evaluation (Palmer, Dunford and Akin, 2009; Van de Ven and Poole, 1995). OD interventions help to improve – communication, decision making, leadership style, conflict resolution mechanisms, and interpersonal and group processes (O’Toole, 2010). Unlike training and development, OD focuses on changing individuals simultaneously as they work, for an improved organisational performance (Young, et al., 2015). Yet, HRD is the broadest of all of these concepts, as contemporary models of HRD describe it as integrating learning and development, organisation development and career development (O’Toole, 2010).

However, Hurt, Lynham and McLean (2014, p.323) argue that like many other fields of academic study, the HRD literature is dominated with vigorous debates and

controversies regarding the precise make-up of the subject, but one area of the theory that nearly every practitioner or scholar of HRD can agree upon is that HRD is devoted to studying people. This enthusiasm on people is why HRD is essential to organisational development.

Furthermore, Ellinger and Ellinger (2013) argue that organisations can make the most of their OD interventions if organisational members can partner with OD consultants, human resource development professionals, and subject matter experts who have the requisite skills to assess problems and areas that require improvement in an organisation. The stages involved in such a partnership include problem-diagnoses, designing and implementation of the appropriate solutions to address the identified problems, then, evaluating the impact that the developmental process is anticipated to have on organisational members who are co-learners in the process (Ellinger and Ellinger, 2013).

However, earlier works in HRD (see, for example, Tjepkema et al., 2002; McGoldrick, Stewart and Watson, 2002; McLagan, 1983) had proposed a connection between OD and HRD, and such works opined that OD is a constituent component of HRD activities. Yet, Stewart (2005) argues that we should not just draw such a premise by using the relationship between these two concepts as our only proof of a firm connection between HRD and OD. Rather, that we can still establish a more convincing relationship between HRD and OD by locating an element which is at the heart of both OD and HRD activities, and which is learning (Stewart, 2005).

While learning is not only central to both OD and HRD activities but it is also to the learning organisation (LO) model. Yet, a mere occurrence of learning at individual, team and organisational levels is simply not enough (Stewart, 2005) to facilitate OL. Although learning interventions at each of the three (i.e. individual, team and organisational) levels are the precise makeup of HRD, Stewart (2005) still argues that – as a prerequisite to qualify as a learning organisation – learning must be encouraged, treasured and collective and the organisation must constantly meet other requirements of becoming a learning organisation. Such other requirements, according to Senge (1990) is that the knowledge (derived through learning) must be utilised to improve the activities of the organisation constantly. The implication of this theory is that for any form of leadership competence to be relatable in each of these case study supermarkets, their HRD (and leadership development) programmes must be tailored to achieve their strategic objectives.

However, Ellinger and Ellinger (2013) have found that OD is not just about learning at organisational, team and individual levels, but that OD embraces the idea of transfer of the requisite knowledge and skills learnt, and which are needed to facilitate the needed changes. Yet, empirical studies (such as, Cottrill, 2010; Fawcett et al., 2010; and Sweeney, 2013a, b) have found that managers with the requisite leadership competencies needed to champion major changes are still relatively rare. Besides, given the pace and scale of organisational changes, Cummings and Worley (2009), therefore, argue the need for HRD practitioners to continuously improve their OD skills since they play a key role in managing and sustaining organisational changes. For this to be achieved, Tomé and Goyal (2015) assert the importance of having a clear understanding of and a clear idea of the key structures of HRD in order to help us

suggest policy measures on human resource development (Tomé and Goyal, 2015, p.587) in order to improve the effectiveness of HRD practices.

Furthermore, the literature also links effective HRD interventions, employees' competence and organisational effectiveness. For instance, the result of Potnuru and Sahoo's (2016, p.345) study shows that the selected HRD interventions (of participating firms) have an impact on building the requisite competencies of employees, and which in turn is instrumental in improving organisational effectiveness. Still, although the literature argues the relationship between various HRD interventions and employees' competencies, especially with key focus on employee innovation and organisational performance (see, for example, Kabanoff and Brown, 2008; Song, Nason and Di-Benedetoo, 2008), none has examined the impact of specific competence on organisational effectiveness (OE) (Potnuru and Sahoo, 2016, p.346).

2.4: Definitions, Meanings, Foundations and Scope of HRD:

Due to the differences in our “understandings, meanings and usages of the words – “development ” and “human resource” (Hamlin and Stewart, 2011, p. 201) some scholars (see, for example, Stewart and Gold, 2011; Hamlin and Stewart, 2011; McGoldrick, Stewart and Watson, 2001; 2002; Garavan, et al., 2007) have noted that HRD has no generally accepted meaning and/or definition. Yet, a number of scholars (e.g. McLagan and Suhadolink, 1989) have identified its essential elements to comprise organisation development, training and development, and career development. Swanson and Holton (2001: 4) have also defined HRD as “a process for developing and unleashing human expertise through organisation development and

personnel training and development for the purpose of improving performance". In organisational theory, HRD is defined as:

"the organizing term for discussion and analysis of workplace learning" (Gibb, 2008, p. 4), or, as: *"a process of developing and unleashing human expertise through organization development and personnel training and development for the purpose of improving performance"* (Swanson and Holton, 2008, p. 8).

HRD has also been considered to consist of the following four interconnected functions:

- (1) Organisation development;
- (2) Career development;
- (3) Training and development; and
- (4) Performance improvement (Tomé and Goyal, 2015, p.587; McGuire and Cseh, 2006; Wang and McLean, 2007; Abdullah, 2009).

HRD has also been viewed as a concept associated with human resource management, and, by this association, it is one component of the broader concept of management (Sambrook, 2004: 611).

Although it is widely believed that the field of HRD has continued to grow till date (Short, 2016), scholars (such as McGuire and Cseh, 2006: 653) still argue that a strong foundation is required for the future development of the field. In view of that, there has been a prolonged consensus on what disciplines and theories should contribute to this

foundation (McGuire and Cseh, 2006: 653), and the works of early scholars of HRD in the 1970s through to 1990s lay such foundations for the practice, further research and theory-building in HRD. For instance, a study of the design, delivery, and evaluation of career development programs and processes in organisations by Gutteridge and Otte (1983a; 1983b) and Otte and Hutcheson (1992) found that career development is an essential part of HRD. Yet, some critics (for example, Schied, Carter and Howell, 2001; Bierema, 2000) argue that HRD has negative implications of inhumane capitalism and a cult of productivity.

Furthermore, Jacobs (1990) who introduced the structured on-the-job training (S-OJT) and formal learning in the work setting to the HRD literature also explored the underlying nature of HRD. Up until that time, most corporate training programs had occurred only in company classroom settings, while any on the job training was only principally informal in nature (Short, 2016). Although it is expressed as being planned both in its design and delivery (Short, 2016), S-OJT occurs in the real work setting, hence, making it a mixture of unprecedented features that were never considered since the Training Within Industry (TWI) initiative during World War II (WWII) (see Torraco, 2016). Yet, S-OJT has not received sufficient attention in the training and development literature, up to the point that most authors have been advising managers to depend more on the classroom-based training, as such training activities are more likely to be controlled by the trainer (Short, 2016, p.484).

Additionally, Jacobs (1988a, 1988b; 1989; 1990) who was largely responsible for commencing the debate about the theoretical boundaries of HRD also strongly proposed that systems theory is at the core of HRD theoretical foundation. More

recently, authors (such as, McGoldrick, Stewart and Watson, 2002) who contribute to the debate on the theoretical boundaries of HRD also link HRD to a wide range of academic disciplines, such as economics, sociology, psychology, strategic management, leadership and human resource management (ibid). Moreover, as a field of study, HRD is rooted in three theoretical foundations, which are economic, psychological, and systems theories (Yang, 2004: 142). Chalofsky (2004) also views HRD as a field with an interdisciplinary foundation. Even as the identification of its disciplinary foundation, according to McGuire and Cseh (2006) has, however, proved problematic, McGuire and Cseh still surmised that HRD is rooted within adult learning, systems theory and psychology (McGuire and Cseh, 2006: 664). For Brooks and Nafukho (2006), change (including the rate of change and HRD's readiness to respond effectively), learning and performance are three important components that explain HRD. Although McGuire and Cseh (2006) have noted that issues of definition and boundary-setting have preoccupied the field of HRD, a number of scholars still argue that, "HRD is a combination of structured and unstructured learning and performance based activities which develop individual and organisational competency, capability and capacity to cope with and successfully manage change" (Simmonds and Pedersen, 2006: 123).

Other earlier scholars of HRD who have influenced our understanding of the field are Marsick and Watkins (1990) who co-developed the theory of informal and incidental learning in the workplace. Their shared interest in the influence of group and organisational learning and development, and in organisational performance led to their alliance on shaping the Learning Organisation (Watkins and Marsick, 1993), and in developing the dimensions of the learning organisation questionnaire (DLOQ)

(Watkins and Marsick, 1997). Watkins and Marsick's major focus is also on the link between HRD, innovation and change (see, Watkins and Marsick, 1993; 1996; 1997). Others include Darlene F. Russ-Eft whose is interested in identifying the usefulness of training methods and in evaluating the effectiveness of training initiatives (see, Russ-Eft, et al., 2014; Sleezer, Russ-Eft, and Gupta, 2014).

Furthermore, there is also Gary N. McLean, a Canadian born in Ontario, and whose research and publications touch on various aspects of HRD but with a key interest in organisational development (OD). McLean is also a key proponent of a greater indigenization of research in HRD, while he also recognises a wide range of prevailing worldviews. For instance, he argued the impact of HRD on communities (CHRD), families, non-government organisations, nations (NHRD), and societies (SHRD) (see, McLean, 1998; McLean and McLean, 2001). Following his recognition of diverse world views, Gary N. McLean also supported the idea of indigenization of research in HRD (Short, 2016).

In addition, Stewart (2005) links HRD practice and the concept of the learning organisation (LO) and argues that most values inherent in the LO constructs are expected to be realised through HRD research (such as this thesis) than through the LO models. Stewart (2005) also found that the models of HRD and the learning organisation (LO) are identical, yet both concepts have not only raised some debates, but have also failed to reach an accord in their practices. Stewart (2005) also argues that both the HRD and the LO concepts have the potentials of having positive effects on human resources in the organisation, hence suggests that researchers using these concepts should always remember this promise. Stewart (2005) who also examined

the relationship between organisational learning and knowledge management has also observed that both concepts are not just emergent themes in the literature (see for example, Sharma, 2003) but also argues that both concepts have perfect relationships with both the LO and HRD (Stewart, 2005). Stewart (2005), therefore, warns that researchers and writers should neither be attached to one of the acronyms (i.e. OL, LO, HRD and KM) at the expense of the others nor let their strong attachments to either of the concepts get in the way of realising the potential of having positive effects on human resources in organisations.

However, in drawing some conclusions on the theoretical boundaries of HRD, Stewart (2005) argues that given the quality and quantity of published works in the field, and coupled with the rich varieties on its perspectives which challenges conventional theories (and as adopted in various research), that HRD is, indeed, healthy. Finally, Stewart argues that HRD research (such as this thesis) has the potential to lead essentially in changing the nature of work, management and organisations (Stewart, 2005).

2.5: Chapter Summary:

This chapter has discussed human resource development (HRD) theory and practices. First, it explored the traditional drivers of HRD activities in organisations, and found that HRD is driven by – need, opportunities, capabilities and performance management. Secondly, it investigated the route of HRD practices in organisations and presented the various activities that make up the modern HRD practices in

organisations. These include, but are never limited to – vocational education and training (VET), training and development, learning and development, and organisational development (OD). Finally, by focusing on issues of boundary setting, the chapter looked at the various definitions of HRD, its varieties of meanings, the foundational theories that inform the construct and practice of HRD, as well as the scope of the HRD activities, and found that HRD mainly comprise of – organisation development (OD); Career development; Training and development; and Performance improvement.

Chapter Three

Learning and Human Resource Development

3.1: Introduction:

This chapter explores learning (particularly) in the context of an organisation. First, it explores the meaning of learning. Secondly, it examines the various learner characteristics in an organisation. Then it explores the theories of organisational learning and the learning organisation, while it also looks at the various types of learning in an organisation. The chapter also explores the meaning of excellence in learning, then it links excellence in learning with leadership development. Finally, this chapter explores the role of the HRD practitioner as a facilitator of learning in an organisation.

3.2: The meaning of Learning

As a concept, learning has developed considerably in terms of its meaning. In its traditional form, it is the acquisition of competencies which are developed through work experiences (Garavan et al., 2002). In practice, learning in organisations is argued to focus less on information gathering and places greater focus on the development of novel cognitive processes in conjunction with skill acquisition (Garavan et al., 2002). However, to facilitate the development of such novel cognitive processes it is important

that we understand the learner characteristics in order to design an appropriate learning programme to suit each individual learner's style of learning. The next section discusses the varieties of learner characteristics.

3.3: Learner Characteristics:

3.3.1: Andragogical versus Pedagogical Learners:

Much of the research on learner characteristics focus on students in a formal educational environment (Jeffrey, Hide and Legg, 2010). This is the pedagogical model (Knowles, 1980). However, one of the major problems with the pedagogical model is that the idea behind the model was based on skill-acquisition and knowledge-transmission (which though had stood the taste of time for teaching adolescents), but with adult learners (such as leaders of supermarkets) pedagogical model could be unsatisfactory to the recipients (Knowles, 1980). This is because compared to adolescents, adults prefer a different approach to learning and which Knowles (1983) recognised and tried to address this issue in the 1980s. Since then, his promotion of the concept of "andragogy" (the teaching of adults) has become the foundation of much current research in the area of adult learning (Jeffrey, Hide and Legg, 2010). Knowles' (1980) four underpinning assumptions of andragogical learning are that, as people mature, (a) their self-perception changes from a dependent-personality to self-directedness; (b) they amass an increasing pile of knowledge that serves as a wealth of resource for facilitating new learning, (c) their enthusiasm to learn becomes progressively a result of developmental responsibilities instead of academic-pressure. Hence, (d) they become more of problem-based learners instead of subject-based

learners, consequently, they would want to apply their acquired knowledge now, instead of in the future (Knowles, 1973, 1980; Darkenwald and Merriam, 1982; Davenport, 1987).

However, this debate on andragogical versus pedagogical learning has been extended into the leadership development context. This is important because much conventional leadership development practice involves a limited range of pedagogies with lectures, cases and projects and increasingly the use of IT (European Forum for Management Development, 2004). Hence, in delivering an outcomes-based approach to leadership education combined with providing “feel” for the life world, values and ways of doing things of the leader, the greatest challenge is the choice of pedagogy (Gibb, 2011). On the other hand, developing an andragogical relationship has been argued as an important approach to leadership development. For instance, the relationship between a mentor and a learner-manager is more andragogical (i.e. more adult, mature and pragmatic), especially when the mentor and the learner-manager see themselves as comparatively equal partners, and each person with his/her own important sets of experiences and ideas to contribute to the learning process (Badley, 2014). Contribution – not participation – is needed in management/leadership education (Jeffrey, Hide and Legg, 2010; Knowles, 1990; Moller *et al.*, 2005). Being allowed to contribute to their learning and development sessions allows the managers/leaders to become independent thinkers (Van der Colff, 2004) who utilise their own important sets of experiences and ideas to contribute to the organisational learning process (Badley, 2014). Van der Colff (2004) adds that one of the central values of management education is the development of such independent-thinkers with an ability to critically analyse situations.

Furthermore, Allman (1983) provides a more theoretical framework for an andragogical approach (to leadership development) using Riegel's (1973) theory of "dialectical" reasoning. Briefly, the framework asserts that adults' thinking processes are qualitatively different from those of adolescents', as Allman (1983) was able to demonstrate that the nature of a fully mature adult thinking (cognition) is different from that of an adolescent. Such differences (in their thinking processes) have important implications for adult teaching (Jeffrey, Hide and Legg, 2010), including leadership development. For example, adults have a strong need to work on relevant, real-world problems which would normally have immediate application (Jeffrey, Hide and Legg, 2010). This theoretical framework should therefore serve as a guide for L&D instructors and facilitators in designing and delivering their learning materials appropriately to suite the learner characteristics of the recipients.

However, understanding how such differences in learner characteristics might be exploited to improve the quality of learning (in organisations) has been the subject of research known variously as learning styles, forms of learning, approaches to learning or individual differences (Jeffrey, Hide and Legg, 2010) in organisational learning. This leads us to discussions on organisational learning.

3.4: Organisational Learning

Organisational learning is a practice in which organisational members identify a problem or abnormality, create new knowledge and apply the knowledge for the purpose of solving the problem (Argyris and Schön, 1978). It also entails new insights

and modified behaviour (Sisaye and Birnberg, 2010). Argyris and Schön (1978, 1996) have linked organisational learning to the acquisition of new knowledge. The main argument here is that problems or abnormalities are identified and fixed otherwise an organisation stops existing (Argyris and Schön, 1978). Organisational learning is a source of competitive advantage as it helps organisations to respond to changes in their environments by adopting innovations that help to improve their performance (Sisaye and Birnberg, 2010). This is why the increasing scholarly interest on ways of improving the ability of workers to learn at their places of work (IPD, 2000; Kirby et al., 2003). Yet, Ford (2006: 572) has argued that leaders may have difficulty finding time to devote to learning during their working days or they may not be motivated to do so.

Although the significance of the workplace as a site conducive for learning and the value of the learning that arise from daily work practices have been emphasised for decades (see, for example, Prahalad and Hamel, 1990), there is a growing recognition that the training methods in most organisations are not keeping pace with the rate of changes triggered by globalisation and technology (Casey, 2005). Hence, resulting in greater demand being placed on organisations to introduce novel approaches to training (Jones, 2001; Garavan et al., 2002). Similarly, there have been calls for “continuous learning in the workplace rather than periodic training” (Institute of Management, 1994, p. 37).

However, the influence of both formal (i.e. intentionally constructed) work based learning and informal (i.e. unplanned, unintentional or experiential) work based learning in the organisational learning literature have been widely acknowledged (IPD, 2000). Formal workplace learning covers structured learning activities such as work

based distance learning programmes (such as the Tesco options programme, Sainsbury's Hothouse programme, etc.), whereas informal workplace learning includes activities such as team development, action learning, knowledge sharing and knowledge management (Beattie, 2006). Cheetham and Chivers (2000) argue that – while formal learning and informal learning are essential strategies for developing professional competence – informal learning seems to be the more significant element in workplace learning.

Having acknowledged the workplace as an accepted place for learning, this comes with it an increasing appreciation of its resultant developmental responsibilities for the line managers (Marsick and Watkins, 1997; Beattie, 2006). This is because of the strategic influence that the competence and commitment of the line managers have on the delivery and effectiveness of workplace learning.

Indeed, it has been argued that the “commitment, enthusiasm and skill of managers’ are critical to the uptake of informal learning” (NSTF, 2000, p. 42). With appropriate support from the organisation, managers have the capacity of facilitating workplace learning by way of designing of the learning curriculum, providing the learning instruments and developing and maintaining an environment that is conducive for learning (Marsick and Watkins, 1997). The effectiveness (which is determined by a number of factors such as, the level of skills, knowledge, culture and personality) of the line managers has also been argued as exerting key influence on the planning, implementation and effectiveness of workplace learning (IPD, 1995; Thomson et al., 2001; Reynolds, Caley and Mason, 2002).

Furthermore, the notion of learning in practice is not new (in the literature) as it is echoed in work-based studies emphasizing adult learning through action, experience and reflection (e.g. Schön, 1983; Wenger, 1998; Raelin, 1998). As Schulz (2005) argues, in the complex industrial work environments of today, learning in practice cannot solely draw on the models that take natural learning processes as an explanatory principle, such as Legitimate Peripheral Participation (Lave and Wenger, 1991) does. Yet, the problem – still remains – how can we acquire those models that are deliberately designed to enhance learning at workplaces, but that are still close enough to the operational realities of work (Walter, 2012). The solution proposed by scholars such as Schulz (2005) is a process simulation model designed to enhance learning as practising and reflecting. Yet, there is lack for time, opportunity and support for leaders to reflect on their learning, and to make meanings out of them in order to build new knowledge (Fourie, 2013). There are also criticisms on the overload of information, poor assemblage and management of information, poor IT services and lack of access to the correct information (Fourie, 2013). There have also been suggestions for improved innovative ways of organising and implementing online learning with regards to proper training of online-learners, and creating a fulfilled learning environment. Such learning environment should be fun, stimulating and inspiring so that the learners enjoy their experiences and feel comfortable within the supportive learning environment; hence, they will feel happy and eager to learn (Dempsey, 2011; Theimer, 2012; Walter, 2012). Given the foregoing debate on learning models, one important question that remains, therefore, is – what learning model is appropriate for developing leadership competencies of the Nigerian retail supermarkets?

As well, Hasse (2001) argues that creativity in actions cannot be confined to an individual alone; hence, organisations have been challenged to facilitate the development of creative potentials of their entire workforce through continuous learning. Lapkin, Swain and Psyllakis (2010) emphasise the influence of language in shaping higher order mental processes, which they referred to as “linguaging”. Anderson and Gold (2009) argue that identity formation is central to individual and organisational development; this includes paying attention to existing concerns and issues of interests such as, prevailing competences and appreciating the skillsets of the workforce in order to facilitate solutions to the challenges that the learners are facing. Scholars have also suggested that organisations can make the most of their learning by drawing from Vygotsky’s idea of Zone of Proximal Development. For instance, Bassot (2012) and Belavsky (2006) have stressed the need for the consideration of multiple-intelligences when utilising the theories of Vygotsky (1978). Belavsky (2006) advocates that Vygotsky’s (1978) idea of capitalising on the Zone of Proximal Development can be accomplished by exploiting Gardner’s theory of developing multiple intelligences. Cheyne and Tarulli (1999) had advanced such call by arguing for an extensive socio-cultural consideration when applying the Zone of Proximal Development by concentrating on three key issues: dialogue, uniqueness and language as factors for socialisation and socio-cultural changes.

Doolittle (1997) also debates the integration of Vygotsky’s (1978) theory of the Zone of Proximal Development but with the learning style of cooperative-learning, whereas Dunphy and Williamson’s (2004) look at Vygotsky’s (1978) theory from the viewpoint of developing expertise. Even the use of a “Graffiti Wall” has been connected with the Zones of Proximal Development (Franco, 2010). Hrastinski and Stenbom (2013)

propose some recommendations on the use of ICT in online coaching, while in their discussion of a project in a virtual learning community Gan and Zhu (2007) applied the use of Zone of Proximal Development in order to enhance the creation of knowledge and communal wisdom. Gutierrez (2008) introduces the concept of the Third Space as a specific type of Zone of Proximal Development. Third Space was also a focal point in Kuhlthau, Maniotes and Caspari (2007) work and in connection with Zones of Intervention and information seeking. Similarly, Jones, Rua and Carter (1998) evaluated the rate of change between science pedagogy and science teachers' knowledge of science owing to their attendance at a particular constructivist-based graduate science methods course. The authors found that inside the Zone of Proximal Development that a blend of teachers, students, instructors, peers and readings influence the development of pedagogical content and knowledge (Jones, Rua and Carter, 1998). Using the Danish social networking siteMingler.dk for peer-to-peer learning and development as an example, Ryberg and Christiansen (2008) argue ways of conceptualising and analysing learning and development in such online community structures. To show examples of inter-activity connections Virkkunen and Schaupp (2011) used the on-going societal transformation that has been triggered by ICT challenges. Inter-activity connections is an online educational process that offers students and teachers opportunities to rely on each other while accessing knowledge sources and sharing their information in order to expand their scope of knowledge. While Gillen (2000) argues the significance of the work of Vygotsky, Gredler (2012) notes the barriers to a proper application of Vygotsky's (1978) work to include the absence of correct interpretations of his whole theory for several years and the unavailability of vital information in standard discussions of Vygotsky's (1978) theory.

As mentioned earlier, Kuhlthau's (2007) idea of Zones of Intervention is built on Vygotsky's (1978) concept of Zone of Proximal Development, which enhances an understanding of the intervention in the constructive processes of another person (Kuhlthau, 2007, p. 36) (i.e. constructivism and specifically social constructivism). In its simplest term, the idea of Zone of Proximal Development is to utilise the support of peers and professionals to move from where you are to where you can be. Lapkin, Swain and Psyllakis (2010) link the Zone of Proximal Development with an on-going cognitive/affective activity wherein learning and development happen as a result of participants' interactions, and where a positive content of their interactions can afford numerous opportunities for Zones of Proximal Development to materialise (Lapkin, Swain and Psyllakis, 2010).

However, some sections of the organisational learning literature also emphasise the interactions amongst workers for the purpose of knowledge creation, knowledge translation and knowledge transmission. Though the knowledge transfer (KT) literature tends to focus on the explicit components of knowledge (Ward et al., 2012) such as codified guidelines or published papers, such literature tend to neglect the fact that both tacit and explicit components are necessary for knowledge to be relevant. By focusing on the interactive and dialogical creation of knowledge, the impacts of the tacit and explicit knowledge theories on organisational learning can enrich knowledge translation efforts with a comprehensive understanding of the knowledge transmission processes through interpersonal networks, e.g. linkage and exchange (Lomas, 2000).

In the context of knowledge translation, it is important to consider the types of learning involved in creating the desired leadership competence both at an individual and

organisational level as well as to consider which individuals are best placed to facilitate the necessary learning (Oborn, Barrett and Racko, 2013). Furthermore, by concentrating on the cognitive and technical elements of knowledge development Nonaka's (1994) theory develops Polanyi's (1968) idea of tacit knowledge into a more applied direction (Nonaka, 1994, p. 16). Similarly, in order to blend the epistemological aspects of knowledge creation and knowledge transfer, Nonaka (1994) advances a knowledge curved model and argues that learning can arise from the conversion of explicit (easily written down and transmitted) and tacit (implicit and difficult to transfer) knowledge. Nonaka (1994) has also distinguished four stages of knowledge. These include socialisation (the process of knowledge creation through collective experience), combination (the process of creating explicit knowledge from explicit knowledge, i.e. by re-categorizing, re-contextualizing etc), and externalisation (the transformation of explicit knowledge into tacit) and internalisation (the transformation of tacit knowledge into explicit knowledge, reminiscent of the traditional idea of "learning"). Discussing Nonaka's (1994) four processes Oborn, Barrett and Racko (2013) argue that such ingenuity can offer the basis for evaluating which aspects of learning are being facilitated and identifying where gaps still remain (Oborn, Barrett and Racko, 2013: 423).

Another key factor that is at the heart of both knowledge creation and knowledge transmission in a learning organisation is leadership. For instance, leadership tacit knowledge is crucial for knowledge creation and knowledge sharing and for creating and sustaining effective corporate culture and managerial mind sets that promote knowledge flow throughout the organisation (Politis, 2002). Yet, leadership could either make or mar knowledge building in team. This is because the ability of a team

to build and utilise knowledge to enhance performance depend largely on the efficacy of its leadership (Politis, 2002). It is therefore suggested that leaders need to acquire/build tacit knowledge through interactive process, apply the new knowledge through action and evaluate the outcome through reflection (Janson and McQueen, 2007).

Also at the heart of the organisational learning literature is the need to encourage and support the transfer of knowledge (Argote, 1999). Although the difficulty of attaining this in practice has also been widely recognised (see, for example, Nonaka, 1994; Powell, Koput and Smith-Doerr, 1996). Such failure of knowledge transfer efforts has also been linked to the failure of organisations to learn from best practices (Argote, Beckman and Epple, 1990) and which is probably why the theory of the learning organisation is difficult to achieve in practice. This leads us on to discussions on the learning organisation as a theory.

3.5: The Learning Organisation:

The concept of the learning organisation suggests that, “while individuals may learn themselves, unless this learning is shared and acted on, and unless the organisation as a whole can change, then there is no learning organisation” (Sambrook and Stewart, 2000: 210 - 211). As a theory, the learning organisation was popularised by the writings of Senge (1990) and Peters and Waterman (1987) who linked learning with excellence. Sambrook and Stewart (2000) have also argued that linking learning with excellence is a concept that is much appreciated by organisations as it helps them

to secure competitive advantage (especially) in an uncertain business environment. This, according to Sambrook and Stewart (2000: 210) “allows organisations to move beyond survival to sustainable success”.

In learning organisations, learning can be facilitated by practices that encourage job rotations (Almeida and Kogut, 1999), training and observation (Nonaka, 1994), and interactions with customers (Oborn, Barrett and Racko, 2013). Studies (such as, Oborn, Barrett and Racko, 2013) have also established that via routine practices and processes, members of the organisation are encouraged to facilitate learning across the interconnected systems. Particular emphasis is on the “double loop” learning, hence learning “how to learn” (Argyris and Schön, 1978). Yet, there has been minimal effort to blend the key ideas of organisational learning into the knowledge translation context (Oborn, Barrett and Racko, 2013).

3.5.1: Excellence in Learning

To distinguish an excellent learner from a mediocre learner, it is important that we differentiate excellence from mediocrity. Mediocrity refers to something that is considered to be average or merely sufficient, whereas excellence refers to distinction or brilliance. In the context of the learning organisation, excellence in learning is the central aim in organisational learning and it refers to high performance in learning. An excellent learner must therefore be able to learn knowledge for themselves; retain the knowledge in the future; recognize and create relations between new and old knowledge; create new and novel knowledge; relate acquired knowledge in solving problems; adapt prevailing knowledge to the demands of new, unfamiliar problems;

communicate their knowledge to others; and be motivated to know more (Robotham, 2003).

To develop excellent learners, it is essential that the learning objectives set by an organisation are quite beyond minimum competence (Robotham, 2003). To develop excellent learners, organisations must develop and implement learning programmes (with curriculums) that reflect the specific skills that are related to the organisational learning objectives. Secondly, the learners must be made aware of their roles in the learning process (Robotham, 2003). The organisation must also provide an enabling environment that is supportive of learning.

Although some scholars (such as, Schein, 1972; Argyris, 1976; and Argyris and Schon, 1978) had earlier established a firm interconnectedness between leadership and learning, but in order to establish a clear link between excellence in learning and leadership development practices of these case study supermarkets, the following important questions need to be addressed:

- (1) Are the approaches to learning in these case study supermarkets supporting or opposing their learning performance?
- (2) What other aspects, besides their approaches to learning, can influence the outcomes of their learning?
- (3) What elements differentiate excellent learners from ordinary ones in these supermarkets? (Marques, 2007).

An attempt to address these three crucial questions is provided below.

Are their approaches to learning supporting or opposing their learning performance?

To address the above question we first review Knowles et al. (1998: 11) definition of learning, which is, “the act or process by which behavioural change, knowledge, skills, and attitudes are acquired”. Furthermore, Knowles et al. (1998: 60) define andragogy as “any intentional and professionally guided activity that aims at a change in adult persons”. The authors therefore link the theories of adult learning and andragogy and utilised assumptions such as ‘the need to know’ (p. 64); ‘the learners’ self-concept’ (p. 65); ‘the role of the learners’ experiences’ (p. 66); ‘the readiness to learn, orientation to learning and motivation to learn’ (p. 67) to relate to excellence in adult learning. In the context of these case study supermarkets, in order to achieve excellence in their leadership development, the individual leaders must appreciate who they are, based on their conducts, competencies and personalities. To possess the personalities of adult learners, they must have moved from dependent personalities to self-directed learners. Furthermore, they must have the enthusiasm to learn and encourage their subordinates to learn and grow as well. Moreover, they must also be able to utilize their experiences to facilitate and enhance their organisation’s learning process.

What other aspects, besides their approaches to learning, can influence the outcomes of their learning?

Mertesdorf (1990: 1) categorises the barriers to learning as “dispositional, institutional, and situational”. Mertesdorf (1990: 1) then views institutional barriers as products of “institutional practices and policies”. In the context of these case study supermarkets, institutional barriers could include poor HRD policies and practices, lack of support for learning from top management and staff, lack of time, unsupportive learning environment. Situational barriers according to Mertesdorf (1990) are products of the adult learners’ current state of affairs. For instance, relevant questions to consider here is – what is the adult learners current stress level? What is their physical, emotional and psychological states like? Has the adult learner recently experienced any changes, loss or bereavement in his/her life? Have they recently been victims of abuse (sexual, physical, hate crime, etc.)?

Mertesdorf (1990: 1 - 2) argues that dispositional barriers are created by “psychological struggles with attitudes and perceptions about oneself as a learner”. Dispositional barriers reflect the adult learner’s previous negative experiences with learning, hence, they are more dominant barriers to learning than institutional and situational. For instance, when leaders could not attend leadership development sessions in the past due to some circumstances beyond their control, their consequent performance and motivation to learn could suffer, unless they receive adequate support and facilitation toward self-directed learning (Ismail, 2005).

What elements differentiate excellent learners from ordinary ones?

Marques (2007) argues that the distinguishing factor between the excellence of one learner and the mediocrity of another is not necessarily dependent on the differences

in their levels of intelligence but could at times depend on other factors, such as the individual learner's investments in the learning process. In the context of the case study supermarkets, what are the individual leaders' investment (in terms of time, commitment, etc.) in their learning and development? Are they willing and able to set both short term and long term learning goals? Are they motivated to contact their instructors outside their normal learning sessions, if required (Warner, 2005)? Are they just learning for the sake of learning (Marques, 2007) or are they ready to form opinion groups with like-minded learners for immediate improvement in certain areas that they may not be very good at? Frymier (2005, p. 197) refer to this style of learning as socio-communicative. This involves both some elements of assertiveness and responsiveness in an individual's learning style. Assertiveness and responsiveness in learning describe social learning situations wherein an individual tends to respond to, associate, and familiarise with another in the process of learning" (Frymier, 2005: 197). Assertiveness and responsiveness in adult learning, therefore, link excellence in learning to communities of practice.

Drawing from the above discussions, the distinguishing factors between excellence and mediocrity in leadership development of these case study supermarkets are simply – the leaders' inclination to learn, followed by their readiness to absorb and respond to the learning themes presented.

However, to extend our understanding of the learning organisation, the next section discusses the various types of learning in an organisation.

3.6: Types of Learning in an Organisation

3.6.1: Individual Learning

The theory of individual learning has not just emerged as a dominant concept for debate in the field of organisational learning but it has also created the “contradiction between the espoused theory and theory in use of learning” (Bokeno, 2003, p. 604). While the mainstream of the existing literature is engrossed in learning at the organisational level, there is also an appreciation of the influence of individual interactions and individual behaviours as the prerequisites for organisational learning (Senge, 1990; Marquadt and Reynolds, 1994; Turner, Mavin and Minocha, 2006). Yet, there is a dearth of empirical evidence to underpin many of the theoretical assumptions of individual learning (Burnes, Cooper and West, 2003). Similarly, there is also a lack of empirically evidence to support the importance of people as facilitators of learning and their roles as barriers to individual learning in organisations (Turner, Mavin and Minocha, 2006).

Explaining individual learning, the rational view of organisational learning involves two lines of thinking. The first line of thinking is that similar to humans, organisations are presumed to have the capacity to learn. Along this line of thinking the learning organisation is viewed as having the same model for action as the individual learners that compose of it. However, this school of thought has failed to differentiate the human context in the learning process from the organisational context (Chiva and Alegre, 2005), and, as such, critics of this approach argue that the organisation is not human and, therefore, human attributes such as “learning” and “thought” cannot be assigned to organisations (Easterby-Smith, Crossan and Nicolini, 2000, p. 785).

The second line of thinking argues that organisational learning is individual learning in an organisational context (Bhatt, 2000, 2002). While the role of an organisational culture is to create and nurture a craving to learn in the members of the organisation, this school of thought argue that organisational learning is bigger than the sum of individual learning of members within the organisation. Yet, Argyris and Schön (1978) argue that without individual learning, there can be no organisational learning. Argyris (1999, p. 7) argues that individuals are the only proper subjects of learning and that – if organisational learning means anything – it means learning on the part of individuals who happen to function in an organisational setting. Senge (1990) argues that organisations can only learn if the individuals are learning, yet, individual learning does not assure organisational learning – though it is a precondition for it.

Dodgson (1993) describes the individual as the principal learning unit that undertake learning in manners that facilitate organisational transformations. For Czegledy (1996) since it is the individuals that learn and not the organisations, hence it is better to say – learning in organisations instead of the learning organisation. As a researcher, the author of this thesis subscribes to the view of Argyris (1999) who argue that an organisational learning theory must consist of the relationships and communications between individuals and those of higher-level units such as departments, divisions and leadership teams.

However, Argyris (1999) found that organisational members seldom encourage individual learning and where at all it is encouraged that it is normally done within the limits of an individual's task. So, in the context of this thesis, if learning is at all

encouraged in the case study supermarkets, this thesis is (mainly) looking at it within the scope of the individual leader's job role. Yet, Garavan (1997) argue that when individuals are confined and restricted within the parameters of their roles they show specific features of single loop learning, i.e. they fail to query basic rules. Such failure to challenge the existing rules allows management to keep controlling via firm rules and preset procedures (Edmonstone, 1990). Senge (1990) therefore compares this learning style with his delineation of “adaptive” learning where learners develop capabilities to cope with learning challenges via continuous improvements and adjustments. For Bateson (1972) another problem with this level of learning is that even as leaders may be aware that their actions are not attaining their learning objectives they may still not adjust their actions to improve result. Hence, this approach adds little or nothing to the organisation’s knowledge base since every actions and results remain unchanged (Turner, Mavin and Minocha, 2006).

Other critiques of the approaches to individual learning, include Yeo (2002) and Gherardi (2003) who assert some types, methods and problems encountered in the development of the field of individual learning. Similarly, Bateson (1972) describes the different levels of learning by individuals in an organisation and key among them is what the author calls a “not learning” level in organisations. “Not learning” in organisations manifest once individuals are confined and fail to receive feedback on their learning and developments, hence they lack novel information (Turner, Mavin and Minocha, 2006). Such situations of “not learning” in organisations, therefore becomes a barrier to organisational learning (Turner, Mavin and Minocha, 2006).

Another common phrase that often describes the role of the various participants in an organisational learning environment is the “thinker” and “doer” relationships (Dixon, 1998). Here, learning can be organised (by the thinkers) to meet the training needs of the “doers” and as a response to an organisation's quest to make the workers perform their tasks correctly under a controlled (bureaucratic) system of organisation (Turner, Mavin and Minocha, 2006). In the context of this thesis, the “thinkers” are the leaders/managers of the supermarkets while the employees are the “doers”. Here, the role of the manager is essential as they challenge the status quo and critically evaluate the basic assumptions and success formula, hence enabling the learning contexts and encouraging individual risk takings and resultant learning (Turner, Mavin and Minocha, 2006; Swieringa and Wierdsma, 1992). Managers also facilitate generative learning by encouraging the creation of novel perspectives, possibilities and alternatives (Senge, 1990), hence, generating opportunities for organisational development and transformations for the learning organisation (Bateson, 1972). This is because by allowing individuals to challenge the basic assumptions it allows them more opportunities to learn novel approaches (Turner, Mavin and Minocha, 2006). Yet, learning in the supermarket context can also be organised to meet the learning needs of the “thinkers” (i.e. the leaders of the supermarkets), and which is where this thesis leans towards.

However, this research draws directly on the earlier works that lay the foundations for the theoretical constructs of individual learning, and with a view to matching these “theories in use” with empirical results. Theories by Kolb (1984), Kolb and Fry (1975), Bateson (1972), Argyris and Schön (1978), Senge (1990), Swieringa and Wierdsma (1992) and many more are synthesized in relation to leadership development in the

case study supermarkets in Nigeria and the United Kingdom. And, this thesis argues in subsequent sections that due to individual differences in humans, that people have different learning styles. Various scholars have also defined learning styles from different perspectives and in relation to individual learners in organisations. For instance, learning style is an identified method according to which a person approaches learning (Campbell, Campbell and Dickinson, 1996). It is also a method through which an individual assimilates new knowledge (Dunn et al., 1981); the method by which an individual keeps new information or novel skills (Kolb, 1984); or the tendency to processes information in a particular way or a combination of ways of information processing by a person (Zapalska and Brozik, 2006).

Learning styles, ways of perception, information processing and problem solving strategies have also been linked with different occupational groups or professional settings (Messick, 1976). For instance, Biberman and Buchanan (1986) found that the learning styles of majors in accounting and economics/finance vary from majors in marketing and management. Dunn et al. (1981, 1989), therefore, argue that the performance of college students could be enhanced by providing instructional materials that suit individual student's learning style. This therefore leaves us with an important question, and which is – does the learning style of leaders of supermarkets (in Nigeria and the UK) suit their learning needs and occupational setting.

However, scholars have been advocating the design of instructional materials to suit the learning needs of learners in different occupational settings (such as the supermarket leadership) and in various learning environments (such as the retail supermarkets) (Peter, Bacon and Dastbaz, 2010). Therefore, many learning styles

have been developed to allow learners to be categorised into a specific learner type (Peter, Bacon and Dastbaz, 2010). These learner types and schools of thought can then be used to provide the learner with suitable learning material thus possibly enhancing their overall potential for learning (Peter, Bacon and Dastbaz, 2010). For instance, three main schools of thought have had a large impact on learning and instructional design, and these are Behaviourism, Cognitivism and Constructivism. The Behaviourism approach (Skinner, 1974; Watson, 1930) is one that sees the mind as a “black box” that responds to a stimulus. The Cognitivism approach deals with the information processing habits of the learner and that the “black box” should be opened and understood (Peter, Bacon and Dastbaz, 2010). In the Constructivism approach (see, for example, Dewey, 1966; Montessori, 1965; Piaget, 1973) the learners interact with the environment and then construct their own knowledge based on that interaction (Peter, Bacon and Dastbaz, 2010).

3.6.2: Communities of Practice:

Another essential contribution of the learning theorists is their view of the knowledge construction process as fundamentally a social process. Key among such unique theories is the situated learning theory which emphasises the influence of communities of practice in learning (Brown, Collins and Duguid, 1989; Lave and Wenger, 1991; Wenger, 1998). Communities of practice is a group of workmates who form an informal social group for the purpose of knowledge exchange with each other.

Non-members of a group or people who are unfamiliar with a work group are likely going to misunderstand the occupational jargons (used within the group) or will ascribe different meanings to certain issues (Barrett and Oborn, 2010; Wenger, 1998). The increasing specialisation within a certain professional community (for instance, in the retail supermarket context) compounds and multiplies the boundaries between professional groups (Oborn and Dawson, 2010a). Consequently, there has been much explanation of the “stickiness” of knowledge (Szulanski, 2000), in that it “sticks” within a social community. Szulanski (2000) distinguishes between four types of “stickiness”: initiation stickiness, which is associated with the difficulties (for example that relates to politics or competing priorities) experienced prior to the decision to transfer the knowledge/skills learnt. Implementation stickiness, which is the difficulties experienced between the decision to transfer and the commencement of the actual use of the knowledge/skills learnt. “Ramp-up” stickiness, which refers to some unexpected problems experienced from the beginning of the actual use until satisfactory performance is obtained, and integration stickiness, which relates to the difficulties experienced after satisfactory performance is achieved, such as routinisation. In a supermarket context, these different aspects of knowledge stickiness could affect different types of decision-making. For example, the initiation stickiness will often be related to store level decisions about whether the knowledge (learnt) represents a form of best practice or relevant evidence. However, “ramp up” stickiness will essentially involve managers who need to reorganise workflow around new systems to ensure that satisfactory performance is obtained, and integration stickiness relates to top managers’ anxiety whether the new set of skills learnt will continue to be compatible with the existing organisational strategy. Implementation stickiness is the refusal by regional managers or the supervisors to grant store

managers permission to try new and novel ways of doing things in terms of applying new skills learnt.

Another important concept to note in communities of practice is the notion of boundaries and boundary practices (Wenger, 1998). As elaborated by Wenger (1998), learning a practice (and the boundaries entailed around such practice) involves more than acquiring information and skills, but also achieving an identity, ascribing meaning to systems and participating in a wider community, as one cannot become a store manager by reading many books, but needs to learn to think and act like a store manager. This could be done by visiting other store managers in their communities in order to think and behave like a store manager. The importance of communities in developing values, meaning and tacit integration (Oborn and Dawson, 2010b) climaxes the difficulty in knowledge construction processes in such a communal clarification of knowledge across groups (Mykhalovskiy and Weir, 2004) including socialisation as professionals and the protection of jurisdictional boundaries of practice (Oborn, Barrett and Racko, 2013). This stream of research challenges the largely objective view of knowledge which predominates in KT research (e.g. Straus et al., 2011; Ward et al., 2012) and highlights how knowing is fundamentally intertwined with practice (Nicolini, 2011). Evidence derived from research, therefore, forms only a portion of the knowledge that influences practice (Gabbay and Le May, 2011).

Furthermore, the challenge of working across knowledge boundaries in communities of practice goes beyond a need to bridge semantic meaning (Carlile, 2002). Wenger (1998) suggests that the “bridges” across those boundaries can be of three types: people acting as “brokers” between communities; artefacts (things, tools, terms,

representations, etc.) which Star and Griesemer (1989) refer to as “boundary objects”; and various forms of communications between people from diverse communities of practice.

Knowledge brokers are individuals positioned in such a way that they have access to two (or more) discrete knowledge communities enabling them to exchange relevant knowledge across the network of individuals (Burt, 1992). This enables them to absorb knowledge across otherwise unconnected communities or organisational units. Boundary objects are entities flexible enough to accommodate different uses, perspectives and priorities, but stable enough to retain recognisable continuity between different groups using them (Oborn, Barrett and Racko, 2013). An example would be blueprints, which have different meanings and usages for engineers, architects and clients. However, not all things chosen to serve as boundary objects do actually achieve such planned purpose (Levina and Vaast, 2005). The implication is that it is necessary to assess how certain objects are actually utilised in practice within various boundaries. In a study of team of software developers, Barrett and Oborn (2010) observed that objects that facilitated teamwork at an early stage of the joint process may become an obstacle and barrier to knowledge exchange at later stages of the project. Their findings also show how the boundary object facilitated the knowledge exchange of one community thus unfairly empowering one community to contribute and share knowledge at the expense of the other. This alienates some individuals or groups from participating in knowledge sharing or challenging the practices of the communities (Oborn and Dawson, 2010b). These findings underpin the earlier works that focus on the significance of studying objects that enable knowledge sharing as well as their growing influence on practice. For instance, Swan

et al. (2007) examine how objects and brokers facilitate interaction between professional groups and found that as knowledge boundaries generate resistance (or enthusiasm) and are susceptible to power dynamics, this highlights the need for knowledge integration as well as transfer across boundaries. In this process, there is an important role for brokers in the integration of boundary objects – as well as their interpretation and transmission of their meanings, e.g. definitions of knowledge and research problems.

The influence of the interaction among members of these communities have been argued as essential ingredients for mediating and forming common values, understandings and practices within the community (Tynjälä and Häkkinen, 2005). Such mutual communication and understanding can be enhanced if these communities operate as a network. This leads us on to a discussion on learning in networked communities.

3.6.2.1: Learning in a networked community

The idea that learning takes place across networked learning communities and with the aid of information technologies is central to connectivism. Connectivism is a theoretical framework for understanding learning, and it emphasizes the importance of networked information resources throughout the processes of learning (Dunaway, 2011). Connectivism acknowledges the role of information technology in the processes of accessing information from multiple sources and the development of skills for evaluating connections between different information sources in a dynamic information network (Dunaway, 2011). The connectivist model emphasises that

learning occurs when learners make linkages between knowledge that originates from their individual learning networks, which comprises several information sources and technologies (Dunaway, 2011).

Siemens (2004) argues the fundamental rules of connectivism to include:

- . Learning is a practice of linking specific fragments or information sources.
- . When such specific fragments and information sources consist of online resources then learning and technology are inseparably linked.
- . Learning and resultant knowledge are derived from a variety of views.
- . The ability to recognise the links between several viewpoints, beliefs and theories is at the heart of learning.
- . The development and maintenance of connections is essential in order to enable continuous learning.
- . The ability to assess the value of an information before engaging with such information is a requisite skill that needs to be developed before engaging in connectivism.
- . Assessing the value of a particular information is a representation of a learning process (Siemens, 2004).

Siemens (2009) also suggests that connectivism provides a theoretical framework for exploring questions such as:

- . How are connections formed?
- . What does a particular constellation of connections represent?
- . How important is technology in enabling connections?

- . What is transferred during an interaction between two, three, or more learners?
 - . What would learning look like if we developed it from the worldview of connections?
- (Siemens, 2009).

Another point that is typical of communities of practice is problem orientation in learning, because individuals in a specific professional community (such as in the supermarkets) could identify a problem that is of critical peculiarity to them and identify learning objectives and approaches to tackling the problem. This leads us on to discussions on problem-based learning.

3.6.3: Problem based learning (PBL):

PBL is a process through which individuals identify a problem that is of critical relevance to them, identify learning objectives to tackle this problem and explore different means of understanding and solving the problem through self-directed inquiry and dialogue (Yeo and Gold, 2010; Boud and Feletti, 1991; Dochy et al., 2003). Adult learners have comparatively more experience about work and life related problems, hence, problem based approaches are often the ideal approach to adopt in adult learning scenarios (Yeo and Gold, 2010). For example, Revans (1982, 1985) argued a learning model of action learning as a process that begins with generating problem-related-questions and a resultant hypothesis and experimentation, then proof and analysis. The impression here is that the learning process is often triggered by a real-life problem of importance to an adult learner. A related approach to problem based learning is project based learning (e.g. Helle, Tynjälä and Olkinuora, 2005; Olesen and Jensen, 1999). Jäntti (2003) presents a model that combines PBL and project work.

Similarly, findings derived from interviews of two trainers and eighteen senior managers in Singapore by Yeo (2007) show that majority of the respondents believed that PBL is an effective approach for both personal and professional development of the leader.

Both problem based learning (PBL) and problem based leadership are based on the conviction that the most effective form of learning is where knowledge is created for a specific purpose (Yeo, 2007). In other words, PBL is learning that is tailored to suit specific pre-set objective(s) – as against conventional spoon-feeding rote-learning that is instructive and trainer-designed (Walker, Bridges and Chan, 1996). Due to the rigour that is involved in PBL, it could be argued that PBL encourages generative and adaptive learning, and which are often characterised by both team, as well as independent learning (Senge, 1990). In view of that, the distinctive phases of learning that are apparent in PBL can be clarified by using the single-loop (adaptive) and double-loop (generative) learning frameworks (Yeo, 2007). These two learning loops symbolise the reflective style of learning because they are related to the cognitive processes of individuals who engage in learning activities (Argyris and Schön, 1978). One of the significant features of the PBL is that it utilises a practical problem to stimulate successions of learning experiences (Yeo, 2007). This process encourages learning from a real-life experience wherein participants critically reflect on prevailing problems to untie the different sides of the problem under investigation (Yeo, 2007).

Indeed, due to the uniqueness of the human reasoning processes, PBL is essential for a successful intellectual development as it is designed to facilitate human

inventions, productions and evaluations of actions and their alternatives, which consequently produces learning. As the essential features of PBL, thinking and acting are therefore dependent on causal reasoning (Yeo, 2007). For Argyris (1993), a fundamental condition for facilitating the switch from thought to action is the encouragement of rigorous causal reasoning that engage participants in daily activities. Causal reasoning is a philosophical reasoning that is based on the axiom that when we are able to establish the relationships between the cause and the effect of an event then we can possibly alter the environment to prevent future occurrence of a similar unwanted event in the future. Consequently, the evaluation of such cause and effect relationships in the reasoning process allows participants to continuously challenge demanding problems (Yeo, 2007) and to experience PBL as an action science, which is about the understanding and production of action (Argyris and Schön, 1996).

However, PBL has since taken an increasing prominence in human resource development, particularly in leadership training with curricula directed at independent and team learning (Bridges and Hallinger, 1995). Deemed as necessary enablers in leadership development, these PBL characteristics (such as guided action, definition of problem, open communication, reflection, utilisation of resources, knowledge sharing and investigation) attest to the cognitive and behavioural aspects of whole-person learning (Yeo, 2007). The potential to develop an understanding of a problem through PBL is greater when the learner focuses not only on developing cognitive-awareness (meta-cognition) but also on engaging individuals in the learning process in order to facilitate knowledge-sharing, mutual investigation and guided-action (Heron, 1993).

Furthermore, PBL is based on the assumption that learning would ultimately lead to development stages, such as new skills and knowledge that would be applied in the realm of practice (Weiss, 1979). Yet, it is not easy to transfer knowledge from research to practice. To argue the difficulty of transferring knowledge from research to practice, for instance, it took 200 years from the period that witnessed a strong conviction that a cure for scurvy had been found till the period that the actual cure was espoused by the British navy (Oborn, Barrett and Racko, 2013). Hence, this inert view of knowledge transfer has always been disputed (Oborn, Barrett and Racko, 2013). Although the early theories of knowledge transfer emphasised the various types of relationships between research and practice, they ignored the influence of normative differences in knowledge flow (Oborn, Barrett and Racko, 2013). Furthermore, these initial knowledge-driven and problem-solving theories minimised the interactions between research and practice to a one-way linear knowledge transmission model that is based on an asymmetrical power relations between researchers and decision-makers (Oborn, Barrett and Racko, 2013). Subsequent researches proposed a two-community model to highlight cultural differences among academics and practitioners, which was seen to be a major constraint to knowledge transfer or exchange (Oborn, Barrett and Racko, 2013). While these models emphasised that the cultural differences between professional in distinct domains (such as supermarkets leaders in Nigeria and the UK) can impede the process of knowledge exchange between these two worlds of work, the models did little to bridge the KT gap between research and practice (Jacobson, Butterill and Goering, 2003).

Indeed, several theories and models emphasize the challenges in knowledge translation from research to practice. For example, the early theorisations of the knowledge-practice gap which often utilised the term “research utilisation” (Weiss, 1979) – a terminology that is famous in the US (McKibbin et al., 2010). Then there are also the early knowledge-driven and problem-solving models which also argue the KT process as a linear, one directional and passive flow of information from research to practice or vice versa (Weiss, 1979). However, new perspectives and set of models that highlight the significance of the interactions between the research and practice communities have also appeared (Lomas, 2000; Graham et al., 2006). These new perspectives argue for novel research findings to be made significant, since research findings are frequently perceived as square pegs that are regularly forced into round holes (Freeman and Sweeney, 2001). However, instead of arguing knowledge flow as a one way linear process during which decision makers search for and utilise knowledge to inform their practice, researchers and those responsible for knowledge creation should be encouraged to bridge the theory-practice gap. This should be done by focusing more on the interactions and collaborations between researchers and practitioners and emphasising a two-way style of knowledge flow instead of the traditional one-way diffusion (Oborn, Barrett and Racko, 2013). The theoretical focus is a shift to the practice of interaction and collaboration. For example, Mitton et al. (2009) suggested that findings from surveys of leaders with successful track record are significant elements for a successful “knowledge-transfer and exchange” (KTE) between researchers and leadership practitioners. And, this is exactly why this type of research (undertaken by this researcher doing this PhD) is useful.

Other works have also recognised that building enduring relationships between researchers and practitioners are essential factors in facilitating knowledge exchange activities. For instance, in their study of the Canadian Health Service Research Foundation Oborn, Barrett and Racko (2013) found that another term – “knowledge linkage and exchange” – has been developed and applied as a model. This term advocates that the creation and utilisation of knowledge is recurrent; and that at the various stages of the process there should be concerted efforts made to link knowledge to its prospective users. The linkage and exchange of knowledge could be argued as the researchers’ effort in taking the knowledge to the communities of practitioners and decision makers who actually initiated such linkage and exchange process (Oborn, Barrett and Racko, 2013). Baumbusch et al. (2008) advanced a “collaborative model” of knowledge translation through which the connections between the various communities (of interest groups) are recognised. Baumbusch and colleagues argue knowledge translation as a collaborative, conversational meeting between researchers and practitioners wherein these professionals are made to scrutinise each other’s work and its implications, thus ascertain what could be done differently with the aid of empirical-based knowledge. As argued by Harvey et al. (2011), the collaborative model of knowledge translation outlines the concept of mutual benefit and respect for each other’s knowledge as an essential element for a successful knowledge translation process. In clarifying the idea of the reciprocity that is involved in the process, Baumbusch et al. (2008) argue that the joint negotiations arise before meanings are ascribed to concepts. Yet, the caveats of failing to institute mutual meanings could result in (usually long) debates over meanings. However, an appreciation of how knowledge is generated and validated was missing in Baumbusch et al. (2008) analysis.

To provide a more nuanced understanding of knowledge translation in retail supermarket research, this thesis reviews Oborn, Barrett and Racko (2013) research that focused on three overlapping themes – knowledge boundaries, organisational learning and absorptive capacity. However, the literature on knowledge boundaries which focuses on three themes – the nature of boundaries, the stickiness of knowledge that prevents its movement, and the role of boundary objects in facilitating this process (Oborn, Barrett and Racko, 2013) have also been reviewed.

Equally important to note is that organisational learning conceptualises the need for organisational wide systems to facilitate the learning processes; it also draws on a more expansive view of knowledge that incorporates tacit and explicit components of knowledge and how these might be converted from one to the other (Oborn, Barrett and Racko, 2013). Finally, at a more strategic level is the absorptive capacity (Cohen and Levinthal, 1990) literature which focuses (at the firm level) on the significance of developing organisational competencies that enable the identification, absorption and application of innovative approaches to facilitate performance improvement.

Problem based learning (PBL) has also been linked to problem based leadership. For instance, Yeo and Gold (2010) defined problem based leadership as a management model that is based on the principles of PBL which is commonly employed as an educational vehicle through which people get to try the roles and skills they require in order to contribute at higher levels. This learning methodology seeks to promote reflective action taking (Yeo and Gold, 2010). Reflective action-taking is a variant of critical action learning (CAL) (Trehan and Pedler, 2010) which takes particular

emphasis on the thoughtful process appropriate to the complex situations, problems and ethical dilemmas found in social working environments (Hillman, 2012). This leads us to discussions on reflective action-taking as a strategy to learning and development.

3.7: David A Kolb's Experiential Learning Theory (ELT):

Various forms of learning have been noted in the literature. For instance, the World Bank (2003) has distinguished between three types of learning and knowledge flow – formal learning (acquired through Universities, schools and training institutions); non-formal learning (acquired through structured on-the-job training); and informal learning (i.e. skills learnt within the family or community and passed on from one generation to another). Oyelaran-Oyeyinka (2004) has also identified two types of learning – formal and experiential (i.e. non-formal) learning.

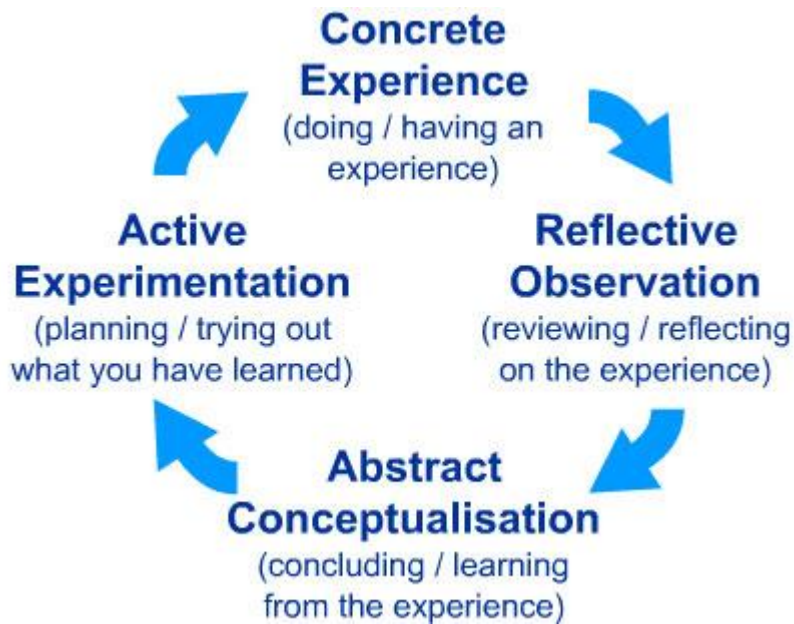
Published in 1984, David Kolb's learning styles model is the foundation for his learning style inventory. Kolb argue that learning is attained through abstract concepts that can be applied adaptably in a range of situations (McLeod, 2013). In Kolb's theory, new experience is the stimulus for formation of new knowledge, therefore, he argued that, "learning is the process whereby knowledge is created through the transformation of experience" (Kolb, 1984, p. 38). In other words, "Knowledge results from the combination of grasping and transforming experience" (Kolb 1984, p. 41).

Experiential learning is an important component of human capital, and which often takes the form of learning by doing, and where, for instance, in a traditional

craftsmanship an apprentice learns by practicing. To a very large extent, organisational productivity relies mainly on workers tacit knowledge which is acquired mainly through experiential learning.

As Earley (2009) argues, aspiring leaders often point toward experiences working alongside other leaders as the only most powerful learning experience in their (leadership) development. Similarly, the participants in Johnson and Campbell-Stephens (2013) study identified key moments along their career path where they were given opportunities to practice leadership before they were appointed as leaders. The “interviewees noted that opportunities that ‘put you in the seat of the head’ are critical in order to provide real-life leadership experiences as well as build confidence and the motivation to pursue headship” (Johnson and Campbell-Stephens, 2013, p.34).

Fig 3.1: The Experiential Learning Cycle

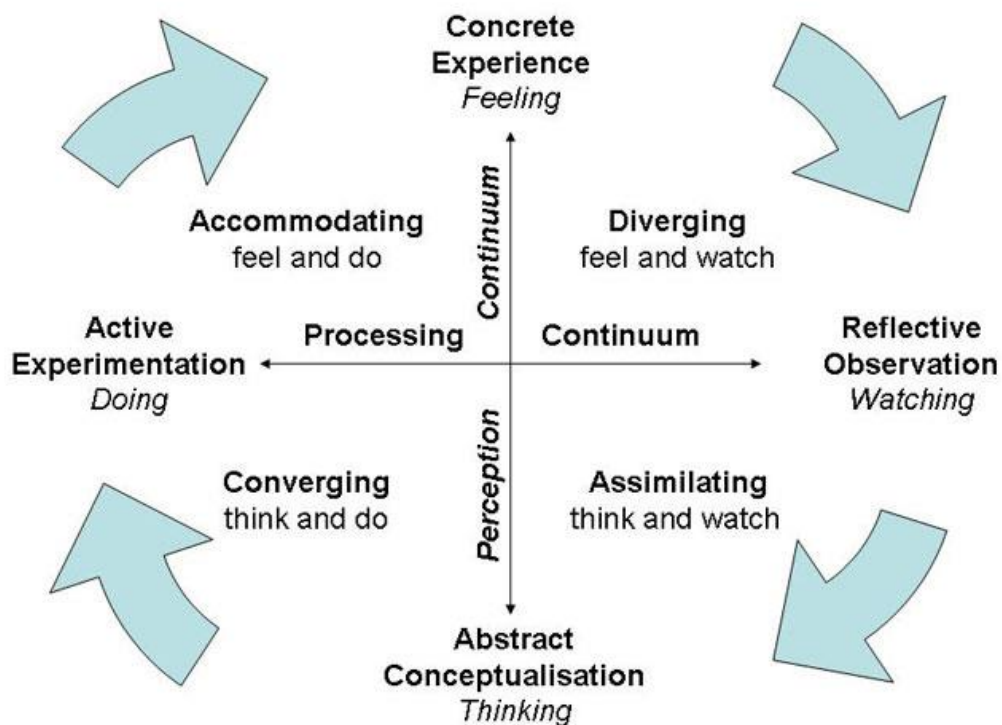


Source: McLeod, S. A. (2013), “Kolb - Learning Styles”, Retrieved from www.simplypsychology.org/learning-kolb.html

Based on Kolb’s experiential learning style, which is typically represented by a four-stage learning cycle (Fig 3.1), effective learning can only occur when a learner has progressed successfully through the four-stage cycle. This is because no single stage is singlehandedly an effective way of learning (McLeod, 2013), also because in Kolb’s (1974) view, learning is seen as a combined process where each stage is not just mutually supportive of, but also feeds into the next. Yet, a learner can enter the cycle at any stage, provided the cycle is followed through meticulously, and in a coherent sequence and completed in a sequential order (Kolb, 1984; Kolb and Fry, 1975; Smith, 2010). These stages are: (1) When a learner will have a concrete experience, then (2) observe and reflect on that experience which then leads to (3) the creation of abstract ideas (through analysis) and generalisations (through conclusions) which are,

therefore, (4) utilised in testing the idea in future situations, thereby resulting in new knowledge/experiences (McLeod, 2013).

Fig 3.2: Kolb's Learning Styles



Source: McLeod, S. A. (2013), "Kolb - Learning Styles", Retrieved from www.simplypsychology.org/learning-kolb.html

Based on his four-stage learning cycle, four distinct learning styles (Fig 3.2) have emerged from Kolb's (1974) learning theory, because Kolb had earlier argued that different people have different preferences in terms of their approaches to learning. Kolb also argues that various factors – such as – educational experiences, an individual's cognitive structure, or social environment could influence an individual's preferred learning style (Kolb, 2014; Kolb and Kolb, 2005).

However, whatever a person's preferred learning style is, the learning preference is a product of two distinct variables – the Processing Continuum (which is on the X axis, and it depicts how we approach tasks) and the Perception Continuum (which is on the y axis, and represents how we respond to emotions, and think or feel about emotions) (McLeod, 2013). As Kolb held, we cannot accomplish both variables on a single axis at the same time (e.g. think and feel), he, therefore, represents both variables on the opposite ends of a continuum (see, Fig 3.2 above). However, it is often easier to construct Kolb's learning styles on a two-by-two matrix diagram (table 3.1), which also helps to highlight a combination of two preferred learning styles in relation to Kolb's four terminologies for learning styles – diverging, assimilating, converging and accommodating.

Table 3.1: Kolb's Learning Style Matrix

	Doing (Active Experimentation - AE)	Watching (Reflective Observation - RO)
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Feeling (Concrete Experience - CE)	Accommodating (CE/AE)	Diverging (CE/RO)
Thinking (Abstract Conceptualization - AC)	Converging (AC/AE)	Assimilating (AC/RO)

Source: McLeod, S. A. (2013), "Kolb - Learning Styles", Retrieved from www.simplypsychology.org/learning-kolb.html

Learning Styles Descriptions

Appreciating your own and another person's preferred learning style helps to ensure that learning is tailored to suit your preferred styles, yet, each person is stimulated by all types of learning style, (at least) to certain extent (McLeod, 2013).

However, below are brief explanations on the four learning styles by Kolb:

Diverging (feeling and watching - CE/RO)

Kolb argue that people who fall within this category are able to perceive things from various perspectives. Since they are sensitive, they prefer to watch instead of do, because they prefer to gather adequate information before they can solve problems.

These people are good at generating ideas, brainstorming, they are good team players, good listeners, love receiving individual feedbacks, and have wide cultural interests (Kolb and Kolb, 2005).

Assimilating (watching and thinking - AC/RO)

For people with an assimilating learning preference, they tend to be concise and logical in their approach. They prefer ideas and concepts to people. They also need clear explanations instead of practical opportunities, hence, they are good at understanding wide-range of information and organising them in a clear coherent format. Because these people are more interested in logical and sound theories, therefore, they prefer lectures, readings, explorations, and spending time to think through things. Not surprisingly, they excel in information and science careers (Smith, 2010).

Converging (doing and thinking - AC/AE)

These people are very good at providing practical solutions to problems. Therefore, they have a preference for technical tasks, rather than interpersonal issues or people. Little wonder that they prefer to work with practical applications, and to experiment with new ideas, as well as to simulate (McLeod, 2013).

Accommodating (doing and feeling - CE/AE)

These people are practical and energetic, and they prefer intuition to logic. They also prefer to take practical and experimental approaches to problems while relying on other people's analysis. Yet, they are attracted to new challenges and experiences, and they also love to carry out plans (Kolb and Kolb, 2010).

3.8: The Role of HRD as a facilitator of learning in the organisation:

Coetzer (2007) and Sambrook and Stewart (2000) have noted a new changing view of learning. The scholars found that employees have come to realise that their workmates and observational processes were central to their learning. Therefore, a prominent feature of the practice and applied HRD literature is a new role for HRD as a set of organisational activities aimed at facilitating learning in organisations (McCarthy, Garavan and O'Toole, 2003). HRD is also more often considered an essential intervention to facilitate and support the organisational training and development activities and contribute to organisational learning processes (McCarthy, Garavan and O'Toole, 2003: 58).

Blackman and Lee-Kelley (2006: 628 - 629) also argue that, if "properly structured and thoughtfully implemented, HRD can be a positive driver for organisational learning", but "how HRD is undertaken needs to be carefully considered, since some HRD implementation schemes may actively prevent the acquisition of new knowledge and begin to close the organisational system, thereby developing stagnation". For instance, when applying western organisational development (OD) techniques to non-western contexts, change leaders and OD practitioners are urged to thoroughly

understand the culture in which such OD techniques are to be applied and the culture where the OD interventions were originated (Jaeger, 1986). This view has also been sufficiently highlighted by Wang (2010) who explored a successful case of a Chinese state-owned enterprise (SOE) as it applied Western OD approaches, and found that organisational leaders and HRD practitioners can promote learning by designing OD and cultural awareness training programs, as well as actively seeking assistance from OD experts (Wang, 2010: 65). Wang's (2010) study (p.65) also has implications for cross-cultural knowledge transfer. Wang affirms that, "not only confirming that the "hard" or explicit management elements (e.g. budgetary procedures) could be applied across cultures, but the findings also suggested that the "soft" or tacit management elements (e.g. HRM systems), could also be transferred if done properly" (Wang, 2010: 65).

Furthermore, the growing awareness of the need to foster learning at and through work also has far-reaching consequences for HRD practitioners who are expected to manage the workplace as a place fit for learning (Coetzer, 2007: 417; Sambrook and Stewart, 2000: 210), for instance, by fostering a learning climate, and by coaching employees (Sambrook and Stewart, 2000: 210). This, therefore, considerably affects the role and tasks of the HRD professionals who are involved in organising learning activities for the organisation. Their role changes from that of "trainer" to "performance consultant" or "learning specialist". Finally, this shift impacts on employees, who are now expected to take greater responsibility for their own learning (Sambrook and Stewart, 2000: 210).

Wootton and Stone (2010: 840) have also argued that “the role of HRD has never had more importance as they are at the forefront of delivering skill training to employees”. For Ford (2006: 571), “the capability and commitment of managers and key workers to workplace learning has been identified as an important factor in its provision and effectiveness”. Such capabilities and commitment are influenced by factors such as: the organisational culture, managers’ skills, knowledge and attitude, and whether they have received appropriate development (Reynolds, Caley and Mason, 2002; and Thomson et al., 2001). This is where the role of the HRD practitioners becomes most valued as they are the organisers and facilitators of learning and development. Apart from the HRD practitioners’ commitment, also required is the commitment of other managers/learners who are required to help foster their own continuous learning. Yet, managers in the sample of firms studied by Coetzer (2007: 431) “do not seem to be fostering continuous learning”. Coetzer also found that “Employee learning appears to be concentrated in the early years of employment at the firm”, as “once employees become productive the emphasis on learning seems to diminish” (Coetzer, 2007: 431). These findings could also be as a result of increased workload of the employees as their tenure in the organisation progresses, or perhaps due to some organisations who emphasize induction and orientation at the expense of continuous training and development to up-skill the workforce. Based on the findings Coetzer (2007: 431), therefore, concluded that, “overall, employees who have spent longer years in service ranked the conditions in their work environments and their supervisors’ support for learning very low in comparison to the views of other groups in the study. Additionally, the employees with longer tenures and older employees seemed relatively less satisfied with their workplace learning experiences.” He also concluded that, “thus, managers in small firms may need practical help in managing the learning of diverse

groups of employees, and in understanding the potential differences in employee learning processes” (Coetzer, 2007: 431).

As the focus seems to have shifted away from the organisation of learning (through formal systems, structures and programmes, for example) to learning itself, from an organisational perspective, this interest in learning suggests an increased focus on HRD and a changing role for HRD practitioners. In the UK, Kenney and Reid (1988), for example, noted a transition from a focus on standardised training programmes to an emphasis on the learning process; and to self-directed and self-managed learning (Sambrook and Stewart, 2000: 211). Here, instead of assuming a more direct involvement in training, HRD professionals are challenged to create more opportunities for learning and development and to support and encourage the managers and employees to be responsible for their own learning and development (Sambrook and Stewart, 2000). Sambrook and Stewart also found that a number of factors influence life-long learning. Some of these factors identified include the organisational culture, the organisation of work, availability of HRD resources (including funding for training), and the attitude of organisational stakeholders (such as the top management, HRD professionals, employees). Similarly, Gallagher (2009) has observed the importance of providing ample time for participants to familiarise themselves with modern learning methods/approaches. He makes a case for organising such learning approaches into phases and stages to help raise the level of discussion. Drawing from this, Wootton and Stone (2010) argue that the role of HRD facilitators also needs consideration, because as the participants develop their competencies with modern learning techniques, as the learning facilitators, HRD practitioners should also respond in appropriate ways. That is, by improving their own

capacity to utilise modern learning methods so they can provide the enabling guidance and supportive learning environment that each participant need to grow. Similarly, based on their studies involving four UK organisations and 28 organisations at European level, Sambrook and Stewart (2000) found that an increasing concern of the HRD professionals is how to improve the learning environment.

Furthermore, to foster the development of a learning culture within an organisation, the changing role of the HRD professionals is to become the supporters and role models of learning, and to ensure that learning becomes an everyday and continuous process in the organisation instead of being limited to attendance to formal training sessions. The role of the line managers have also been identified as very crucial for continuous learning and development as they are expected to collaborate with the HRD professionals in fostering learning. Some factors have also been identified as barriers to learning in the organisations studied. These barriers include: (1) inadequate HRD resources, (2) an organisational culture that is embedded in training instead of learning, (3) increasing workload, and (4) lack of managerial skills (Sambrook and Stewart, 2000). Similarly, Ellinger and Cseh (2007) have argued such inhibiting factors to learning and development to include: (1) lack of commitment from managers/leaders, (2) inhibitors arising from the organisational structure, (3) lack of time, (4) increasing speed of change, and (5) negative attitudes of organisational stakeholders (including top management, HRD practitioners, line-managers, workers). Ellinger and Cseh (2007) also found that lack of commitment from managers and leaders are evident in two ways – managers and supervisors who don't support learning facilitators; and managers and supervisors who won't just let their subordinates learn and develop.

To overcome these barriers, five key strategies have been identified. These include: (1) an improved HRD professionalism, (2) development of shared responsibility for HRD, (3) improved communication, (4) improved management of the work-load, and (5) appreciating all types of learning and integrating them in the organisational learning process (Sambrook and Stewart, 2000). For Ellinger and Cseh (2007) the best way for managers and leaders to show their commitment to learning and development is through: (1) walking the walk (that is, by showing role model of learning and development by example); and (2) talking the talk (that is, by giving encouragement and support to reinforce the development of others).

Van der Colff (2004) has argued that the pace of change within the global economy as a whole suggests that leaders become more flexible and progressive in their leadership styles, including developing entrepreneurial and innovation skills, and valuing the diverse perspectives and talent of each person. The leader of the future has to learn to assist people of divergent values, beliefs and backgrounds and to weave all employees' efforts into ultimately benefiting each individual and the organisation as a whole. With this new wave of challenges and responsibilities for the leader of the future comes an increasing responsibility for the HRD practitioner, since what leaders must be able to do in future should inform the design and delivery of leadership development programmes (Van der Colff, 2004). Hence, learning instructors and HRD practitioners need to make sure that what they say is relevant, practical and focused on what leaders must be able to do when they return to their jobs.

3.9: Chapter Summary:

This chapter has explored learning (particularly) in the context of an organisation. First, it examined the meaning of learning. Secondly, it examined the various learner characteristics in an organisation. Then it explored the theories of organisational learning and the learning organisation, respectively. It also looked at the various types of learning in an organisation. The chapter also explored the meaning of excellence in learning, then it established a link between excellence in learning and leadership development. Finally, this chapter also explored the role of the HRD practitioner as a facilitator of learning in organisation.

Chapter 4

Developing Leadership Competences:

4.1: introduction:

This chapter reviews both leadership development and the competence literature. First, the chapter explores the links between leadership development and management development. Secondly, the chapter links competence development with specific HRD interventions, then it explores the links between leadership development and competence development. Then, the chapter also evaluates the effectiveness of leadership competence in organisational transformations. Finally, this chapter concludes by examining the role of leadership competence in the retail sector.

4.2: The Nature of Leadership Development:

As a concept, the word – development – has a variety of meanings, and which raises additional questions when we think about the meaning of leadership development. However, to help our understanding about the word ‘development’, the literature has distinguished between learning and development, and education and training. For instance, Mumford (1997) argues that while training and education tends to focus on inputs, learning and development tend to focus on outputs/results. Stewart (1999) extended this idea when he argued that as inputs for achieving human development,

education and training, are, therefore, inputs that contribute to the management development process.

4.3: The ‘Many-faces’ of Management Development:

Management development is the structured process by which managers improve their competencies, skills and knowledge, through formal or informal learning methods, and which enhances both individual and organisational performance (CIPD, 2016). The much divergent nature and characteristics of the term – ‘management’ – adds to the difficulty faced by HRD and L&D professionals who are responsible for designing and implementing an effective learning and development programme for managers (CIPD, 2016). Yet, an effective development of managers has been gaining more recognition as a key strategy for improving organisational performance (Marchington and Wilkinson, 2003). Yet, there has been a growing criticism over the approaches to management development adopted in many organisations (Stewart, 1999). This leads to three key questions. First, should management development be done? Secondly, how is management development done? Finally, how could it be done? (Stewart, 1999, p.219).

The complexity of management development arises from the fact that it has no singular or definitive meaning, as the meaning could vary depending on the perspectives of the writers (see, for example, Storey, 1989; Harrison, 1997; Lees, 1992; and Mabey and Salaman, 1995). Due to the complex and problematic nature of

management development, and to aid our understanding of the concept, Stewart (1999) has summarized the agenda of management development, as below:

Table 4.1: Management Development Agendas:

Type	Description
Functional Performance	Focuses on knowledge, skills and attitudes of individual managers. Assumes unproblematic link between MD and performance.
Political Performance	Focuses on reinforcing and propagating skills and attitude valued by top managers. Assumes top managers are correct in their diagnosis and prescription.
Compensation	MD is seen as part of the reward system for managers. Assumes development is motivational and encourages commitment.
Psychic defence	MD provides a 'safety value' for managerial anxieties. Assumes competitive careers and associated anxieties.

However, given the aim of this research, this thesis assumes the first type of management development perspective prescribed in the table above, because the thesis seeks to improve organisational performance of the supermarkets understudied in Nigeria, through their leadership development practices.

4.3.1: Coaching and Management Development:

Though there are many approaches to management development, one of the most recognized approaches which is vital for both HRD professional competence (CIPD, 2008) and for managerial competency development, is 'Coaching' (Mavor, Sadler-Smith and Gray, 2010). Coaching has been identified as one of the nine areas of capability deemed essential for workplace learning and performance improvement by the American Society for Training and Development (ASTD), and as one of the key topics in professional learning of talent development professionals by the CIPD (Mavor, Sadler-Smith and Gray, 2010).

4.3.2: Managerial coaching

The idea of managers serving as coaches has been recognised as one of the dominant approaches in employee development intervention (Ellinger, Beattie and Hamlin, 2010). Managerial coaching takes the form of a manager or supervisor who passes specific behaviours that enable his/her employees (or coachees) to learn and develop, thus serving as a facilitator of learning or coach to his/her respective employees (Ellinger, Beattie and Hamlin, 2010). Studies (such as, Ellinger et al., 2008; Ellinger, Keller and Bas, 2010) have demonstrated the positive influence of managerial coaching on both employee and organisational performance, while Kim et al. (2013) has stressed the essential value of managerial coaching as a management development intervention. Hamlin, Ellinger and Beattie (2006, p. 328) also argue that

coaching is at the “heart of managerial and leadership effectiveness”. Yet, the HRD literature has identified both the effectiveness and ineffectiveness in the behaviours of managers who serve as coaches (Beattie, 2002, 2006).

Although managers interviewed by Fawcett et al. (2010) re-echoed the need for coaching as a management development approach, they also decried the fact that most organisations are not nurturing effective managerial coaching capabilities, while just a few managers within their organisations have the requisite coaching skills (p. 27). Ellinger and Ellinger (2013) also agree with Fawcett et al (2010) study that there is a lack of effective managerial coaches. For Ellinger (2013) various challenges mitigate against an effective development of managerial coaches. These include: insufficient training, poor reward system, lack of time (Ellinger, 2013). Yet, Hutchinson and Purcell (2007) have identified a number of ways for improving the effectiveness of managerial coaching. These include: allowing HRD professionals (who have expertise in areas of coaching), to oversee the design, development, and implementation of coaching training programs for managers, and also to foster a learning environment that is conducive to managerial coaching (Hutchinson and Purcell, 2007).

4.3.3: Executive coaching

There has been a growing interest in executive coaching in the literature and Ellinger and Ellinger (2013) also argue executive coaching as becoming an increasingly prevalent skill-development intervention. Kilburg (2000, p. 65) defines executive coaching as “a helping relationship formed between a client who has managerial

authority and responsibility in an organization and a consultant who uses a wide variety of behavioural techniques and methods to assist the client to achieve a mutually identified set of goals to improve his or her professional performance and personal satisfaction and consequently to improve the effectiveness of the client's organisation within a formally defined coaching agreement". Stokes and Jolly (2010) argue that executive coaching facilitates executive's self-awareness, thereby enhancing their effectiveness as leaders. A large body of empirical study, such as Baron and Morin (2009) have linked executive coaching with individual performance, organisational commitment, self-efficacy, conflict resolution and leadership.

4.4: Linking Management Development with Leadership Development:

Although the term 'leadership' is often used almost interchangeably with 'management', leadership only reflects some aspects of the managers' role, and not the formal role of a manager (CIPD, 2016). Since leadership is a term used in a variety of different ways, and leaders also come in a variety of forms and can operate at various level, hence the ability to identify and develop leaders can be challenging (CIPD, 2016). Yet, it is important that organisations invest in creating the kind of learning environments that facilitate leadership development, particularly, since all managers, including first-line supervisors, need at some level to demonstrate leadership qualities (CIPD, 2016). This means, therefore, that leadership competence is essential for a successful managerial career.

However, before proposing a definition of leadership development, it is important to offer a meaning of leadership. Northouse (2007: 3) has pointed out four essential elements that are fundamental for leadership to occur. These include: “(a) process, (b) influence, (c) a group context, and (d) goal attainment”. Using these components the author defined leadership as “a process whereby an individual influences a group of individuals to achieve a common goal” and as such, advocated that leaders are individuals who engage in the practice of leadership (Northouse, 2007: 3). Although “leadership styles could vary, leadership is a social process to engage colleagues, individually and in teams, to face challenges, and then work together to advance mission-aligned goals” (Swensen, et al., 2016, p.550). Leadership development involves a “whole” system, unique to each organization’s culture, strategies, processes and people” (Swensen, et al., 2016, p.550; CIPD, 2016). Due to lack of consensus on appropriate leadership behaviour (CIPD, 2016), it raises the questions as to whether leaders can be developed and what leadership competencies should be targeted, and more importantly, how can organisations bring out such competencies among their managers? (CIPD, 2016).

However, the recent investments in management learning and development (MLD) are part of an enduring search in most sectors for any link between management development and effective organisational performance (McGurk, 2010). Indeed, the old style method of managerial training is based on a rational structure wherein organisational strategy is converted into suitable individual activities at the relevant managerial levels (Salaman, 2004, p. 70). Such structure calls for managers to acquire the requisite competencies and knowledge to empower them to advance their business strategies by planning and controlling the resources required to implement

them (McGurk, 2010). The demand of this model (of translating organisational strategy to individual managers) clarifies largely the tenacity of the competency-based approach (Burgoyne, 1993; Horton, 2002). It is also generally accepted that every manager (regardless of his/her level in the organisation) requires “leadership” competencies in order to communicate objectives effectively to staff and to motivate staff to achieve organisational objectives (McGurk, 2010). Hence, in spite of the various criticisms of the competency approach (such as reductionism and the oversimplification of theories), leadership competency frameworks are still prevalent in most large organisations, and epitomise efforts to organise the requisite leadership skills and knowledge at different levels of the organisation for successful organisational transformation (Bolden and Gosling, 2004). Yet, there is still an enduring debate on how to measure a leader’s competence on a job? For instance, Stewart and Hamlin (1994) have argued that – from an interactionist perspective – an assessment of a leader’s performance in a specific social context (in this case, the supermarket) can only be understood with respect to the specific context of that specific occupation. The focal point of their argument is that what constitutes (and how to measure) a leadership competent performance is organisational, or even job-specific, yet could still vary within the same organisation as different leaders occupy the same leadership position (Stewart and Hamlin, 1994). The scholars conclude, therefore, that since leadership tasks are not generic across all occupation, national standards for leadership competence should not be used as a yardstick for measuring leadership-performance across all occupational groups. This is due to the occupational uniqueness of each profession. Yet, such national standards could still be regarded as a predictor of competence in a particular leadership role (Stewart and Hamlin, 1994).

In the light of these enduring debates on the relationships between HRD, leadership competence and organisational performance, it therefore becomes crucial to critically evaluate the link between leadership development strategies and organisational performance. This will help to confirm empirically that investment in leadership development does have positive effects on business competitiveness and organisational transformation. This study, therefore, extends the HRD and leadership development literature to understand better the effects of effective learning and development of leaders on organisational transformational change.

However, leadership development is important to both HRD practitioners and HRD scholars, as Joo and Nimon (2014) have suggested that HRD practitioners should design leadership development programs in a rigorous way that should focus on those competencies that expedite organisational transformation. Dimitrov (2015) also argue that this could be achieved by providing the organisational circumstances in which leadership competencies can be nurtured. Yet, today's world of work requires a new type of leadership development (Clerkin and Ruderman, 2016). Leaders must be focused, adaptable, and resilient in order to be effective amid the increasingly distracting and chaotic world of work (Clerkin and Ruderman, 2016, p.161). Other scholars (such as, Mehrabani and Mohamad, 2015; Lynham and Chermack, 2006) also argue that since the challenges facing organisations have increased since the new millennium, therefore, leadership styles must change as the old ways of leading might no longer be suitable. The extant leadership development methods need to incorporate leader well-being and a focus on intrapersonal leadership competencies which are needed for leaders to be adequately prepared to tackle today's stressful

work world (Clerkin and Ruderman, 2016, p.161). Yet, there is a lack of research on how such a leadership development program with such a set of leadership activities can result in the desired outcomes (i.e. in terms of competencies) and therefore, there is a need for more studies in this area (Mehrabani and Mohamad, 2015, p. 822; Russon and Reinelt, 2004). Therefore, this empirical examination of the link between HRD interventions and leadership competence serves as a wakeup call (especially) for Africa where leadership development studies are currently lacking.

4.5: Informal approaches to Leadership Development?

There is a large body of literature on formal approaches to leadership and management development. For instance, the three key approaches to management and leadership development programme as embraced by the managers in O'Connor, Mangan and Cullen's (2006) survey include: (1) learning personal-skills; (2) attendance at conferences/seminars; and (3) management development programmes (MDPs) (O'Connor, Mangan and Cullen, 2006), but there is a lack of literature on informal approaches to leadership development. This next sub-sections therefore review literature on some of the well-known informal approaches to leadership development.

4.5.1: Prototyping

The prototyping theory (Hogg and Terry 2000; Hogg 2001) holds that we learn suitable behaviours by exhibiting conducts that are synonymous to an exemplar's. Hogg and Terry (2000, p.123) therefore argue that "through such a process, we develop a

'prototype' of the kinds of behaviour that will be regarded as acceptable and constructive within our group". Such conducts are grouped under "normative behaviour, stereotyping, ethnocentrism, positive in-group attitudes and cohesion, cooperation and altruism, emotional contagion and empathy, collective behaviour, shared norms and mutual influence" (Hogg and Terry 2000, p.123).

Hogg (2001, pp.187-188) argue that prototypes are "often stored in memory to be 'called forth' by social categorisation in a particular context to guide perception, self-conception and action". Such models of behaviour are often adapted to suit the perceived environmental circumstance.

However, the negative impacts of prototypical behaviours on leadership development are arguable. For instance, prototypical behaviour may result in groupthink or mental retardation among a team of leaders (Grint, 2007). This is because their learning will no longer be focused on transformational changes, rather will be directed towards perpetuating the prevailing standards or status quo. This endangers novelty and creativity in organisations. However, one of the strategies for challenging such status quo is a change in our approach to leadership development (Jones, 2011). Yet, in the context of retail supermarkets with a team of leaders, the chances of a single leader challenging such status quo appears quite slim as a key feature of a strongly prototypical group is that they rebuke whoever that challenges the status quo (Jones, 2011).

Furthermore, Kempster (2009) suggests that leaders should learn and develop through engagement with distinguished leaders within the same or similar

occupational contexts. Similarly, Cook (2006: 50-51) also observed that, in essence, however, the most effective organisational learning often occurs where there is a culture of leaders learning from their colleagues by allowing yourself the opportunity to benchmark against like-minded leaders. Bandura (1977, 1986) has earlier established the importance of observed or vicarious learning as one of the key cognitive capabilities of individuals. Bandura (1986) also posits that observational learning lays down the fundamental building blocks of knowledge and which is refined through enactment relevant to particular contexts.

Furthermore, Longenecker and Fink (2006) have suggested three critical sets of behaviours or activities that must take place in order to foster successful continuous development of organisational executives through prototypical learning. First, the executive must seek out new information. Top management are required to devote more of their time to reading important publications and attending both formal and informal developmental sessions at professional trade associations and chambers of commerce, and to do more environmental scanning to discover best practices. Second, top executives must recognise the value of making out some time for thinking and self-reflection and placing themselves in situations where vicarious learning could occur. They can accomplish this by mixing with other top executives and having high-performers in important positions around them. Coaching and mentoring others also provide opportunities for leaders to re-examine their own behaviours and leadership techniques. These function as instruments for assessing if they are off track (Longenecker and Fink, 2006).

Prototypical learning, is, indeed, essential in leadership development programmes as it helps participants to normally have a range of preconceived leadership prototypes in their minds (Ford, Harding and Learmonth, 2008) before entering the programmes. Such prototypical views on leadership styles/qualities could therefore influence the participants' view on what constitutes effective learning outcome (Jones, 2011). Yet, the extant leadership development programmes are inadequately nuanced to address effective leadership prototypes through a blend of theories and practice (Jones, 2011). It is, therefore, supposed that organisers of leadership development programmes should be reflecting on leadership prototypes and be bringing the best practices to the surface.

4.5.2: Personal Reflection:

For Stogdill (1974, p.259) “there are almost as many definitions of leadership development as there are persons who have attempted to define the concept”. To extend this argument, (Potter, 2015, p.337) adds that, “there are almost as many leadership development approaches as there are definitions of leadership development”, but there is a common theme that runs through most of the approaches, that is reflection.

However, based on a reflective model that draws on both “critical reflection” (Reynolds, 1998) and “The Park” (Moon, 1999), Stewart, Keegan and Stevens (2008) argue a move from description to critical evaluation and advance the three elements that make up their theory of “reflection on reflection” (ibid: 349). These include the reflective component which, in the words of Moon (1999: 2), is the “the line of thinking that entails

scrutinising an issue over and over again...in the minds of the learners”, i.e. in this case, the leaders. The second element involves a comparative evaluation of personal practice, theoretical models and empirical findings. This offers an opportunity for the self-reflector (i.e. the leader) to evaluate critically his/her own development. The third constituent necessitates achieving the learning outcomes (in leadership development programmes) through the learning intervention, which, therefore, results in action and change.

4.5.3: Storytelling in Leadership Development:

For Gabriel (1991a), stories are inventive fact-filled narratives of events which organisations are claiming as having occurred. Organisational stories represent reality and meanings for the teller and the audience, but also represent fulfilled wishes of various stakeholders (including leadership) in an organisation (Jones, 2011). They represent, “indeed what for the remaining workers (remains) a wish or fantasy” (Gabriel 1991b, p.861). Such stories receive the admiration of the audience as they represent the most admired principles that are most treasured by a particular segment of a workforce, such as upcoming leaders.

Indeed, “storytelling” not only benefits those listening, but also the storytellers themselves (Jones, 2011), because, sharing an experience can be quite liberating, particularly for those at the top who can find leadership a lonely precipice. But it really works for those who are keen to learn as using a familiar situation to exemplify a point not only underpins leadership theories, but can also provide credibility in a relationship between the storyteller and the audience. Furthermore, by making themselves

available and connecting with staff (through storytelling), leaders can help to break the barrier of being perceived as distant, unapproachable and ignorant of the difficulties facing front line staff and middle management. Leaders have therefore been encouraged to tell stories about their challenges and experiences encountered on their journey through the company and as leaders (Harris and Barnes, 2006a, b). However, Jones (2011) also argues that authentic leadership is saturated with storytelling influence. Indeed, for many people the theoretical strength of the authentic leadership concept is summarised with the hero's journey (Campbell 1993). Therefore, authentic leaders can also enhance the benefit of storytelling by being able to reflect on personal experiences relative to the company, meaning they are able to offer an insight into leadership that an external consultant or trainer perhaps could not (Harris and Barnes, 2006a). Stories, are, therefore, at the heart of authentic leadership development theory (Jones, 2011). Stories, indeed provide an influential basis for testing and analysing some personally held visions on authentic leadership (Jones, 2011).

Moreover, other scholars (such as Hill et al., 2003; Reamy, 2002) also believe that storytelling (either through one to one interaction or through movie characters) help to shape the mind sets of upcoming leaders. Through one to one interaction or through movie characters storytelling could focus on disclosing a difficult experience. And, disclosing a difficulty can make a leader seem more human, and by making oneself vulnerable in this way it can really help to build a personal bond with the employees (Harris and Barnes, 2006a). Yet, stories are not always accepted uncritically just because they are articulated and communicated as stories, rather they still remain part of negotiable acceptable and unacceptable expressions about the leadership of an organisation (Jones, 2011). In actual fact, storytelling represents a more complex

contract between the teller and listener, where a listener is prepared to suspend normal critical faculties to an extent, provided the narrative “makes sense (verisimilitude) and yields pleasure” (Gabriel 2008, p.161).

4.6: Leadership Studies in Nigeria, Africa and the United Kingdom

4.6.1: Formal approaches to Leadership Development in UK Grocery Retail Sector

One fundamental challenge facing many UK supermarket giants is the demand to open stores faster than they could produce qualified managers, leading them to launching leadership academies to develop high-potential leadership talents. This section reviews leadership development programmes in selected UK grocery retail giants.

Introduced by Walmart in 2009, the Walmart’s leadership academy is an experimental measure that is hoped to become Walmart’s enduring centre of excellence for developing hastened leadership competencies for its managers (Pollitt, 2013). Store managers at Walmart which has 10,000 outlets in 27 countries at first began their careers at a cash register and worked their way up. But Walmart incidentally recognised that it needed to meet the rising demand for leaders so it developed fast-tracking leadership training programmes to accelerate their readiness (Pollitt, 2013). With leadership development courses customized to suit the Walmart’s day-to-day needs, the Walmart’s leadership academy has significant impact and bearing than

generic management training programmes (Pollitt, 2013). Similarly, Asda has joined forces with Middlesex University to launch two honours degrees for its staff in either distribution or retail operations (Pollitt, 2014). The “programme is designed to help talented Asda employees to get the best of both worlds – great work experience and a university degree”, hence, helping to create a pool of home grown talents – the future leaders of Asda (Pollitt, 2014: 21). Similar to Asda, Morrisons has launched a degree in management and business by teaming up with the University of Bradford in a sponsored degree program that will allow students to work, earn and learn while studying toward BSc (honours) in management and business. This tailor-made course is designed to unlock participants’ potential and prepare them for a management career (Pollitt, 2014).

Another example of leadership development in the UK grocery retail sector is the Tesco and Manchester Metropolitan University programme. Tesco has teamed up with Manchester Metropolitan University on a retail foundation degree (Pollitt, 2014). Tesco developed the degree with the aim of meeting workforce development needs and creating a flexible higher education qualification for the retail industry that would also offer retail employees enhanced career progression (Pollitt, 2014). Similarly, to ensure there is an internal talent pipeline of store managers, reducing the risk from staff turnover and providing a ready resource for acquisitions and new stores, Sainsbury's Supermarkets Ltd has created a Hothouse development programme to give its most promising deputy managers the skills they need to become store managers (Pollitt, 2010). The six-month Hothouse programme was designed by retail training in consultation with the senior HR partner in the company's northern pilot zone (Pollitt,

2010). Delivered by senior retail teams and internal subject experts, it encourages participants to work and learn as a group and so build a support network (Pollitt, 2010).

Finally, one of the UK's leading local supermarkets – Somerfield – required a pool of managers who could be trained to suit the company's own business culture, hence, after considering using a business college, Somerfield decided to design its own training programme (Pollitt, 2006). However, the performance of the programme is assessed through: quarterly evaluation to identify if the required behaviour and knowledge changes were taking place (in the participants); daily appraisals for delegates to share information on challenges and successes; and an end-of-year project assessment panel to track the application of learning using positive and negative indicators to support the scoring system (Pollitt, 2006).

Such leadership academies, indeed, help to ensure that these supermarkets possess a trained and available pool of talented leaders who are promotable to support the firm's ambitious growth agenda (Pollitt, 2014, 2013, 2010, 2006).

4.6.2: An Overview of Leadership Studies in Nigeria and Africa:

As several scholars (such as, Stewart, 2005; Hamlin and Stewart, 2011; McLean and McLean, 2001) have noted the impact of socio-cultural factors on leadership development practices across the globe, this section, therefore, examines the

leadership development literature in Nigerian in order to establish the impact of culture on the leadership development practices in Nigeria.

Drawing on the principle of social identity theory and cultural uniqueness, Iguisi (2009) argues that the African society should develop and shape its own unique cultural values and social identity to guide leadership development and leadership decision making in African organisations. Although the study still acknowledged that, further to the influence of increased globalisation, this can be hard to realise because Western management concepts would continue to exert influence on African Management systems. Yet, based on the growing social and economic challenges now facing African organisations, the study argues further that leadership techniques, skills and behaviours practiced in different cultures and organisations can be brought together in a positive synergistic blend. Such a blend of diverse leadership techniques, skills and behaviours is particularly relevant in today's increasingly globalised business world, where countries' economies are interrelated (Lituchy et al., 2013). Iguisi (2009) also argues that a blend of such carefully selected Western and traditional-African values and practices into new hybrid (leadership) practices will provide a competitive edge in a culturally dynamic business environment (Iguisi, 2009).

Similarly, Lituchy et al. (2013) have argued the need for a greater understanding of leadership in developing countries. In their study on the influence of culture on leadership and motivation in Africa, the authors argue that leaders need to consider cultural values and preferences before developing motivational schemes for the African workers (Lituchy et al., 2013). Their study backs the study by James (2008)

that successful African leadership and leadership development need to take account of local cultural values. Similarly, Turnbull (2011) conducted in-depth interviews with 45 leaders from indigenous and non-Western cultures to ascertain how their leadership identities, values and behaviours have been influenced by their societies and cultures, and the study concludes that: leadership theories that inform business education have largely been rooted in Western conceptions of leadership. Also, Iwowo's (2011; 2014) argues that the extant leadership development literature is insufficient to address the peculiarities of leadership development in Nigerian organisations. Hence, she, therefore, calls for a country-specific, or put differently, culture-specific approach to leadership development studies in Nigeria. Turnbull, also proposes the type of research that will seek to explore and draw from leadership wisdoms originating from non-Western countries, and which are needed to transform global business education, especially, as the Western business school education model has become obsolete (Turnbull, 2011). This study, is, thus, set to address such a contextual gap by providing the requisite cosmopolitan leadership mind-set that could inform a future business school curricula that would challenge its orthodoxy and provide a more sustainable response to the crisis of our planet (McDermott, Kidney and Flood, 2011; Turnbull, 2011).

4.7: Measuring the Effectiveness of Leadership Development Programmes:

There are a wide range of models that assess the effectiveness of leadership development activities. Some of them include Kirkpatrick's (1967) standard evaluative model, which evaluates the effectiveness of training at the four various levels. These

levels are: (1) the reaction of the trainees, (2) an evaluation of the effectiveness of learning through a follow-up focus group or structured questionnaire, (3) the impact of the learning on consequent performances of the participants, usually analysed during performance appraisals. Finally, (4) the enduring influence of the learning on business performance, usually established by customers' feedback, observable behavioural changes, and employee productivities. For Bee and Bee (1994), there are countless approaches for measuring the value of training programmes. Bee and Bee (1994) argue that the stakeholders must answer two vital questions. (1) How cost-effective was the method of delivery of the training? (2) How do the benefits of the training approach compare to its costs?

For Mabey (2002) three central queries must be dealt with when evaluating the effectiveness of any leadership development approach. These include (1) Key variables such as the size of the business, the sector in which it exists, (2) The role of organisational cultures (such as HRD approaches) on planning and implementation of training and development activities. Finally, (3) there is the need to consider both quantitative/tangible benefits (such as sales records) and qualitative/intangible benefits (such as improved leadership competencies) when evaluating the effectiveness of leadership development programmes (Mabey, 2002). Similarly, Hopkins, O'Neil and Stoller (2015) also found that the effectiveness of any leadership development approach lies on the ability of the programme to develop the desired leadership competence (Hopkins, O'Neil and Stoller, 2015). This leads us to discussion on the link between leadership development, competence creation and organisational performance.

4.8: Competency – Definitions, Meanings and Scope:

Competencies are a combination of skills, knowledge and behaviours which are important for organisational success, individual performance and career development (Asogwa, 2014). Esposito, Freda and Bosco (2015, p. 701) define competence as, “a person’s skills, knowledge and abilities...” such as, judgmental ability, “the ability to complete a certain task and the ability to understand when, where and how to arrange and move resources”. In a more complex view of the subject, Rodolfa et al., (2005) argue that competence is not just a possession of such abilities, skills and knowledge, but their mixture must be well-balanced. Competency has also been viewed as a fundamental characteristic which distinguishes a superior from an ordinary performer (Boyatzis, 1982). To be suitable for practical utility, competence must be applied in a way that the outcome can be reliably measured and linked to some benchmarks as established by the client organisation (Ryan, Spencer and Bernhard, 2012). Yet, Brockmann, Clarke and Winch (2009) argue that a complex use of the term ‘competence’ has resulted in a situation where the possibilities for misunderstanding the meaning of the term “competence” is considerable. Coles and Oates (2004) also argue that to overcome a misunderstanding of the meaning of competence, the differences in the various occupational practices that require the application of competence must be understood. Therefore, much detailed work needs to be done in the study of job-related competencies (Brockmann, Clarke and Winch, 2009), especially in the retail supermarket sector which currently lacks empirical data on the requisite competencies required by supermarket leaders.

Furthermore, in Europe, the European Commission (EC) defines “competence” as: “the proven ability to use knowledge, skills and personal, social and/or methodological abilities, in work or study situations and in professional and personal development”. Yet, it is even more challenging to work out a common understanding of the meaning of competence across the European Union (EU) member states, especially, given the requirement that “where appropriate each EU member state should relate its own national qualification system to the European Qualification Framework (EQF) by developing its own national qualification framework in accordance with national legislation and practice” (Brockmann, Clarke and Winch, 2009, p.789). However, since competence, in the EQF context is referred to in terms of autonomy and responsibility (EC, 2008), arguably, this also links to the Germans’ conception of competence.

Competence in the German context is known as *berufliche Handlungsfa*” higkeit, which refers to the ability or capacity of an individual to perform within the labour process of a defined Beruf or occupation (Brockmann, Clarke and Winch, 2009, p.789). Occupational capacity, in the context of the Germans means that competence is an element that is fused within the scope of activities incorporated within an occupation (Brockmann, Clarke and Winch, 2009, p.789). However, this idea of occupational capacity is an uncommon concept in the English national qualification framework (NQF) (now Qualifications and Credit Framework (QCF)), where there is no clear linkages between various qualifications and clearly defined occupations in the sense of Beruf (Brockmann, Clarke and Winch, 2009, p.789). The English framework for understanding competence is not based on occupational capacities, but, on skills, work activities and on work itself (Brockmann, Clarke and Winch, 2009, p.789).

Having seen the two concepts of competence built into the EQF, each EU country also has its own specific definition of as well as its own understanding of the term competence. That is, on one end of the continuum is the Anglo-Saxon view, and which is closely associated with skills, and, at the other, the German notion of berufliche Handlungsfa" higkeit (Brockmann, Clarke and Winch, 2009, p.797). Yet, a key to understanding the meaning of competence is from the viewpoint of occupational capacity, which focuses on what a person is capable of doing within a generally-defined occupational arena, instead of on the job requirements (Brockmann, Clarke and Winch, 2009, p.797).

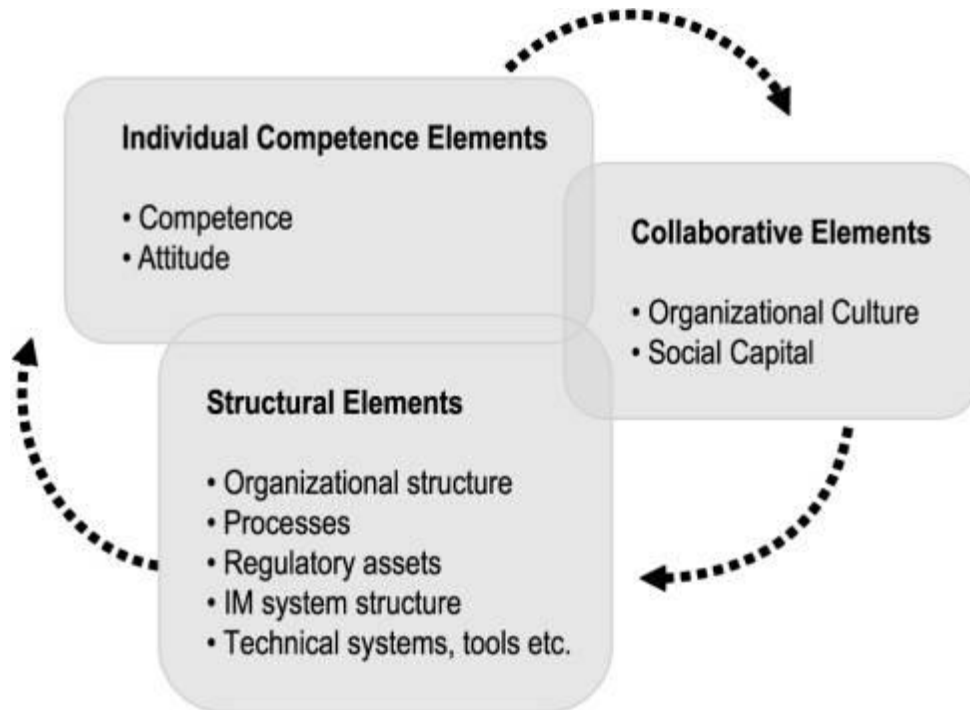
However, research in competency development has been on the increase over the past 20 years leading to an increase in contradictory interpretations and applications of competency development (Watkins and Cseh, 2009; Cseh, Davis and Khilji, 2013; Osland and Bird, 2008). For instance, scholars (such as, Thomas and Inkson, 2003; Peterson, 2004) have argued that competencies have cultural validity. Accordingly, AlMazrouei and Zacca (2015) examined the leadership competencies of expatriate managers working in the United Arab Emirates (UAE) and found that while in their leadership positions in the UAE these managers have developed sets of competencies that are unique from those needed in their home countries. These new competencies developed include "communication ability, team building qualities and ability to handle local nationals" which were found to be relevant for their operations in the broader gulf region (p. 404).

4.9: Competence and the HRD Function:

Siikaniemi (2009) had earlier distinguished between the functions of HRD and HRM as distinct roles in larger organisations, particularly in relation to how competencies are developed and utilized in organisations during organisational changes. The author argues that the functions of HRD usually care for employees and organisational development, whereas HRM function is concerned with innovative ways of ensuring that the supply of skilled workforce match their demand, as well as ensuring individual and organisational wellbeing. The author also found that competences are usually assessed and discussed among HRD professionals and thus competences are associated with the HRD domain of an organization, and not the HRM (Siikaniemi, 2009). Similarly, Laakso-Manninen and Viitala (2007) have linked competence management and HRD practices. The authors argue that competence management is an act of nurturing and developing an organisation's competencies at all levels, by defining, planning, developing and evaluating competencies in order to provide a sense of direction for HRD practices (Laakso-Manninen and Viitala, 2007). As a "prerequisite for ensuring that individuals take the responsibility of their own development, employability and employment" (Siikaniemi, 2009, p. 405) argue that issues of competences should be "integrated to learning and change management".

However, competency has also been evaluated in terms of its organisational utility. For instance, the highpoints of the organisational functionality framework as suggested by Hilde'n (2004) is that while an organisation can be examined through any of its sub-systems, an organisation, is, eventually, an arrangement of human competence. The organisational functionality framework which was modified (by Siikaniemi, 2009) from Hilde'n (2004) is a combination of individual competence elements, collaborative

elements and structural elements (Siikaniemi, 2009, p.403). The framework is portrayed below:



Source: Modified from Hildén (2004, p. 121)

4.9.1: Individual Competence Perspective:

In terms of individual competence, Hong and Staøhle (2005) have argued the three main methods of competency development in relation to their conceptual evolution. First, as a resource approach the fundamental goal is to acquire the needed competences. In the second approach the crucial issue is how “to apply” instead of “to obtain” the competences in organisational routines and practices. This second approach can be referred to as ‘competence as integration capabilities’, and it differs from the first approach because its emphasis is on “what you know and are capable of” applying, rather than “what you have”. The third approach views competence as

'not already established resources', rather as being produced and shaped through organisational practices. Therefore, the fundamental issue is to create new competences but also shape it through organisational practices (Hong and Sta°hle, 2005).

4.9.2: Collaborative perspective:

Virkkunen (2002) had noted that competence is becoming more rigorous as its creation, application and ownership have now moved away from individual employees and work-communities to a focus on producing and applying competencies in organisations and in networks of organisations. In the organisational functionality framework the collaborative components include organisational culture (including how employees are treated and valued in their organisations and how they develop) and social capital (Hilde´n, 2004).

4.9.3: Structural perspective:

As a part of its strategic renewal process, a regular restructuring of an organisation is needed. Such restructuring process helps to keep an organisation reactive to environmental changes (Miles and Snow, 1978), thus helping it to remain competitive (Siikaniemi, 2009, p.405). Such restructuring process could take various forms, such as a reorganisation of the people and their jobs (Siikaniemi, 2009, p.405). Yet, during such reorganisation process, while continuously reviewing and updating the workforce competencies there is also the need to ensure a steady fit between the people and

their job demands. This strategy not only make the employees to become more valuable to their present organisation, but it also makes them employable should they decide to leave the organisation in the future.

4.10: Employee competencies:

Boyatzis (1982, p. 21) defines competency as an underlying characteristic of a person, which could be a motive, trait, skill, or a body of knowledge which he or she uses. Turner and Crawford (1994) have categorised competencies into two groups: employee (personal) and organisation (corporate). For Potnuru and Sahoo (2016) employee competencies are those qualities, such as skills, abilities and knowledge that employees acquire, and which differentiate them from mediocre. Organisational competencies are individual capabilities which are rooted in organisational system and structures, therefore, they are likely to remain within the organisation, even when an employee leaves the organisation (Potnuru and Sahoo, 2016, p.347). Naquin and Holton (2006) have argued the importance of a number of competencies which are essential for improving organisational performance and effectiveness, while Hellriegel and Slocum (2011, p. 8) have identified seven key competencies that influence employees' behaviour, teams' behaviour and organisational effectiveness. These include: employee's ethical competency; self-competency; diversity competencies; across cultures competency; communication competency; team competency; and change management competency.

4.10.1: HRD interventions and employee competencies:

Sung and Choi (2014) have suggested the need for effective HRD interventions in order to boost employees competencies and which in turn helps employees to meet their performance expectations. For Kehoe and Wright (2013) HRD interventions are necessary factors for attaining the desired levels of employees' competencies, and which in turn improves organisational functioning. Haslinda (2009) believes that HRD interventions develop employees' on-the-job capabilities, productivity and efficiency which result in improved quality of goods and services. Similarly, Yuvaraj and Mulugeta (2013) argue that through management development interventions, training, career development, and performance appraisal that HRD interventions constantly improve employees' capability and organisational performance in the selected organisations studied in a cement manufacturing industry.

Furthermore, HRD interventions are crucial for achieving an overall success of an organisation (Werner and DeSimone, 2006, p. 26), because developing employees through HRD helps to stimulate positive behaviour in them, and which in turn increases both employee performance and organisational productivity (Clardy, 2008). Swanson and Holton (2009, p. 340) had foresaw an increasing demand for effective HRD interventions in order to improve employees competence, and which in turn enhances organisational efficiency. For Katou (2009) the principal role of HRD is to influence organisational performance by improving employees' commitment, their knowledge, skills and attitudes (KSAs). Similarly, Shih, Chiang and Hsu (2006) argue that effective HRD interventions generate potential returns on investment by way of improved employees' performance and increased productivity. Therefore, HRD intervention is a vehicle for stimulating employees' positive behaviour, competence, commitment, knowledge, performance, productivity and ultimately increases ROI.

4.10.1.1: Training and employee competencies

Training, according to Evans and Davis, (2005, p. 760) is the “extensiveness of formalized programs to develop knowledge, skills and abilities”. Zumrah, Boyle and Fein (2013) argue that employees’ participation in training is to enable them apply the newly learnt skills, competencies, abilities, knowledge and attitude in their everyday work in order to perform better at their jobs. Training has also been argued as one of the key HRD interventions that enable organisations to adapt in rapidly fluctuating global economic environment, therefore, organisations have to be constantly developing their employees’ competences (through training) to suit the new business environments (Potnuru and Sahoo, 2016, p.350).

Training has also been linked with traditional talent development, where process training is particularly effective at imparting technical competencies (Garavan, Carbery and Rock, 2012). Apart from its relevance in knowledge creation and skills development, Hassi and Storti (2011) also argue that training provides an opportunity for socialization and for establishing positive workplace-relations among participants.

4.10.1.2: Career development and employee competencies:

Niles and Bowsbey’s (2002, p. 15) idea of career development is as a process that involves an individual’s career configuration, through enhanced decision-making style and integration of life roles, self-concepts and value expression. Gilley, Egglund and Gilley (2009, p. 94) argue that career development interventions help to build a

partnership between employees and their organisation, because by improving employees' knowledge, skills, abilities and individual competencies, it facilitates organisational effectiveness (OE) (Gilley, Egglund and Gilley, 2009, p. 94). Similarly, McGraw (2014) has stressed that an effective implementation of individual career development processes considerably enhances employee's competency, and which improves individual performance. Famous scholars (such as, Sullivan *et al.*, 2003; and McDonald and Hite, 2005) have also recommended that implementing a broader definition of an individual's career success could reduce employee's dissatisfaction, hence, enhances employee's positive attitude towards their organisation. Hence, the common view in the literature is that "career development efforts enhance employee competencies" (Potnuru and Sahoo, 2016, p.350).

4.10.1.3: Performance management and employee competencies:

Kinicki *et al.*'s (2013) view of performance management is as a system for improving individual and organisational performance through as a set of processes and managerial behaviour planned to describe, encourage, measure and develop the performance of the employees to an expected level. Cardy and Leonard (2011, p. 3) view performance management as an essential component of individual performance and organisational effectiveness (OE). Prominent scholars in talent management (such as, Berger and Berger, 2011, p. 47) have also suggested that an effective performance management system helps an organisation to effectively assess individual performance and develop them by creating sets of competencies that are of value to the organisation. Empirical data also stress the significant influence of an integrated HRD intervention and performance management policies on employee

competencies, attitude and commitment (Caldwell, Chatman and O'Reilly, 1990; Kinicki, Carson and Bohlander, 1992), and which in turn influence organisational performance (Ostroff, 1992).

4.10.1.4: Employee competencies and organisational effectiveness (OE):

For an organisation to be effective, employee competence has to align with the changing business environment (Potnuru and Sahoo, 2016). Similarly, Lawler and Ledford (1997) have found that suitable employee's competence is a key factor for successful change. Cartwright and Baron (2002) also purport that the realisation of a planned strategic objective depends largely on employees' competencies, commitment, coordination, communication, and cohesion. Furthermore, Nilsson and Ellstrom (2012) had earlier argued the important link between effective HRD intervention and organisational effectiveness. The authors argue that instituting an effective HRD strategy in an organisation creates an opportunity for employees to improve their competencies, and which in turn contributes to organisational effectiveness (Nilsson and Ellstrom, 2012). Most recently, Potnuru and Sahoo (2016) have suggested that effective selection of the appropriate candidate should be augmented with the development of the requisite competencies in line with the strategic objectives of an organisation. Other scholars (see, for instance, Tarique and Schuler, 2010; Collings and Mellahi, 2009; and Lewis and Heckman, 2006) had earlier suggested that effective recruitment and selection should be supplemented by competence development as a necessary step to building the core competence that the organisation value, but also to improve employee's performance and organisational productivity.

4.11: Leadership Competency Framework – Definitions, Meanings and Scope

Beechler and Javidan (2007: 138) examined the leadership competencies essential for companies operating world-wide and they found that, “the list of effective global leadership competencies are practically endless, to the point in which they become useless”. To make such a (“useless”) list useful, they assert the following as core leadership competencies that every effective leader must possess. These three critical competencies essential for global leadership include:

- . Intellectual capital;
- . Psychological capital; and
- . Social capital.

Intellectual capital represents an understanding and knowledge of global business, cognitive ability and cultural shrewdness of the leader. Psychological capital represents a positive psychological-profile (which include, resilience, optimism, self-confidence and self-efficacy), internationalism (example, sensitivity, openness, flexibility and respect for other cultures) and a craving for cross-cultural meetings of the leader with stakeholders. There are three types of social capital – structural, relational and cognitive, and they all mirror a leader’s involvement in social networks, the type of relationships sustained in those networks and the shared values derived from them (Beechler and Javidan, 2007: 138).

Kouzes and Posner's (1987) have recognized five main leadership competencies that typify successful leaders.

These competencies include:

- Challenging the Process (CP): A leader should be in a continuous search for challenging opportunities, questioning the status quo, testing alternatives, and taking risks where appropriate.
- Inspiring a Shared Vision (ISV): A leaders should be visualizing a stimulating future and soliciting others to pursue such vision.
- Enabling Others to Act (EOA): A leader should be able to foster teamwork and cooperation, and empower and strengthen followers to pool resources.
- Modeling the Way (MW): A leader should be constantly practicing his/her embraced principles, setting the example, and planning small wins.
- Encouraging the Hearth (EH): A leader should normally give positive feedback, recognize individual contributions, and celebrate team achievements (Kouzes and Posner, 1987).

However, effective leadership competence is important for successful organisational performance (Hopkins, O'Neil and Stoller, 2015; Bryson, Ackermann and Eden, 2007). Effective leadership competence has also been the focal point of much research in high performing organisations (Fulmer, Gibbs and Goldsmith, 2000). Examining the characteristics of effective leadership competence has attracted enormous attention in the leadership literature. For instance, a wide range of skills, a set of balanced behaviours and core competencies are often linked with effective leadership-performance (Shipper and Davy, 2002; Kim and Yukl, 1995; Boyatzis, 1982). Similarly,

Melamed (1995) contends that leaders “should have social skills that facilitate interaction and rapport with others, confidence to stand behind their decision, and a mixture of toughness, dominance, and assertiveness to negotiate, establish, and gain approval for their own suggestions and decisions” (Melamed, 1995, p. 39). Yet, what counts as effective leadership competence is industry-specific, or even organisational-specific. For instance, in their study of the distinguishing competencies of effective physician leaders, Hopkins, O’Neil and Stoller (2015: 565) found that “changing organisational and environmental dynamics present unique challenges to leaders in” any given field. Aitken and von Treuer (2014) also concur that industry-specific and technical competencies do exist. Therefore, further empirical research and practical recommendations on effective leadership competences are needed in various industries, especially, in the retail supermarket sub-sector which is relatively an uncharted area of research in the leadership literature.

Scholars have also found that the academic field of study can influence leadership behaviours. For instance, by using the structural equation model (SEM) (Quintana, Ruiz and Vila, 2014) surveyed graduates who transited from higher education to the labour market and unveiled three scopes of leadership behaviours in the professional workplace: tasks, relations and change. The authors also found that “leadership competence and leadership behaviour at work is a combination of two elements: the competency accumulated through professional experience and the competency profile of individuals a result of higher education” (p. 514). Since the academic discipline has an influence on competency development, therefore, majors in human resource management (HRM) will possess different sets of leadership competence from their counterparts from the engineering departments. Yet, a new pattern of thinking and

characterising leadership competencies have emerged and which criticises the mainstream literature in leadership competencies. This new pattern of thinking and characterising leadership competencies contradicts the personal characteristics of those occupying leadership positions as claimed in the main stream literature. For instance, research into the “dark side” (Hogan, Curphy and Hogan, 1994) persuades successful “organisations to focus not only on identifying the presence of certain positive characteristics of those in a leadership role, but equally importantly is to ensure the absence of “dark side” traits, particularly those that alienate other colleagues (most importantly, subordinates), and the inability to build and to support a team” (Alban-Metcalfe and Alimo-Metcalfe, 2013, p. 57).

4.12: Leadership Competence, Transformational Leadership Framework and Organisational Performance

As suggested by Kouzes and Posner (2012), there are five practices of standard leadership framework that typifies the transformational leadership framework, and which every leader must adopt in order to attain extraordinary results. These five practices are defined in the following way (Kouzes and Posner, 2012, p. 36): (1) Model the Way (MTW): Transformational leaders clarify organisational values, seek followers’ opinion, uphold shared values, align actions with shared values, and lead by examples. (2) Inspire a Shared Vision (ISV): Transformational leaders foresee the future by visualizing exciting and profitable possibilities, and soliciting followers to support the interesting and shared ambitions. (3) Challenge the Process (CTP): Transformational leaders seek and maximize opportunities by utilizing the

resourcefulness of the group to improve in innovative ways; and assessing alternatives, taking risks, continually creating small wins and being able to learn from every experience. (4) Enable Others to Act (EOA): Transformational leaders promote teamwork by building trust and enabling relationships; and strengthening others by cumulative self-determination and increasing competence. (5) Encourage the Heart (ETH): Transformational leaders recognize teams' contributions by showing appreciation for individual excellence; and celebrating the successes in a spirit of community. Kouzes and Posner (2012) also argue that each of these five leadership practices (and their associated behaviors) have a positive relationship with individual and organisational performance. For instance, Posner (2010) found that these five practices have significant relationships with leadership outcomes – such as – leader's credibility, productivity, employee retention, and employee morale. Similarly, Roi (2006) studied employees of 94 large firms to determine the frequency that senior leaders engage in the five practices, and found a variation in the net income growth of the understudied firms due to variations in their executive's engagement with the five practices. For instance, there was an 841% income growth in firms where employees reported that their executives 'strongly engaged' in the five practices and 49% were executive were reported as 'weakly engaged' with the five practices. There were also sharp contrast in their stock prices to reflect the importance of the five practices. For instance, stock prices during the same period were three times higher in firms led by the 'strongly engaged' executives in comparison with the 'weakly engaged' ones. It also affirms a link between the transformational leadership approach and attainment of sustainable development. Dartey-Baah (2014) study also affirms a link between effective leadership approaches like the transformational leadership approach and the attainment of sustainable development in Africa. Dartey-Baah, therefore, recommends

that African leaders should resort to effective leadership styles, with a great focus on the transformational (leadership) style, as it creates sustainable development for the African populace (Dartey-Baah, 2014).

4.13: Leadership Competence and sustainable development of Africa:

In recent years, Africa has been increasingly demonstrating a remarkable potential for economic growth through a range of vital economic activities that spread across its countries and industries. The continent has also been generating signs of productivity, firm growth, and economic growth, access to capital, skills, technology, knowledge, market, employment and income for families, and which have lifted many African families out of poverty (Zhihua Zeng, 2008). Throughout the continent, there are also signs that it has been able to tap into the global knowledge, stock of technology and efficiency in order to create the needed competitive advantage. Yet, Africa still faces serious challenges, as there are lack of effective leadership in the continent (Zhihua Zeng, 2008). For instance, Dartey-Baah (2014) examined the link between effective leadership and sustainable development in Africa and the study revealed a great disparity between the leadership situation in the African continent and the attainment of sustainable development of the continent.

Furthermore, although most business leaders recognise the shared wisdom, creativity, skills, experience and enthusiasm of their workforce as the key asset for organisational performance (Suraj and Bontis, 2012; Itami, 1987), the literature still recognizes that leadership competence is strategic for successful business operation. For instance, in

his study of project leaders in the Nigerian banking industry, Idoro (2009, p.264) found that the performance of a team is judged by the performance of the leader, because “performances of project leaders have significant influence on the performance of other project team members”. Idoro, therefore, suggests that weaknesses in leadership competence and leadership practice must be identified and addressed in order to trigger changes that will achieve the goals of an enterprise (Idoro, 2009, p.264). Yet, despite the great potentials in Nigeria (Agbaje, 2014), the bane of the socio-economic underdevelopment in the country is lack of effective business leadership (see, for example, Agbaje, 2014; Fabura, 1985). Agbaje, therefore suggest that, until the country develops its business leaders any attempt towards economic transformation in Nigeria is a mere waste of resources because effective business leadership is a critical conditions for national development (Agbaje, 2014).

4.14: What is the cross-cultural effectiveness of Leadership Competencies?

Hofstede (1980) states that culture is a “collective programming of the mind that distinguishes the members of one group or category of people from another.” Hughes, Ginnett and Curphy (1999) view culture as those learnt behaviours that characterize the way of life of a group of people.

However, several culture theories have been applied to explain the role of culture in successful business operation. Famous among such theories include the House, et al., (1999) GLOBE research program which provides a comprehensive interpretation of culture as collective motives, beliefs, values identities and understanding of

significant events as a result of the group's common experiences which are passed from generation to generation. Many cross-cultural studies (such as, Hofstede, 2001; House & Aditya, 1997) also suggest that culture can influence leadership concepts, styles, and practices. Similarly, House, et al. (1999) suggest that stakeholders' expectations from leaders, leadership competencies, leadership values and principles, and leadership authorities could vary significantly from country to country due to cultural diversities. For instance, in some cultures, it might demand that a leader must take firm and decisive actions in order to influence the followers to comply or to be seen as an effective leader, whereas in others it might demand democratic and consultative approach to be seen as an effective leader. Similarly, due to the high importance they attached to work, the high level of group orientation, high respect for authority, and high sense of compliance in collectivistic cultures (Posner, 2013), Jung, Bass, and Sosik (1995) argue that transformational leadership develops more easily and is more operational in collectivistic cultures, unlike in individualistic cultures. For Den Hartog, et al. (1999), due to the high acceptance of power-inequality in high power distance societies, there is less resistance towards authoritarian leadership in such societies. Furthermore, Smith, Peterson, and Misumi (1994) purport that leaders in high power distance societies would normally utilize rules and procedures more than their counterparts in low power distance societies.

Moreover, Shah (2010) also argue that leadership concepts, theories, and practices evolve in context, but they are informed by culture and belief systems. Cultural variations, to a large extent, determine the effectiveness of leadership behaviours, as what counts as effective leadership varies considerably from one culture to another and by regions of the world (Moriba and Edwards, 2009, p.81). Yet, due to

globalization there has been a long search for leadership competencies that are universally significant and effective across various cultures and environments (Posner, 2013, p.573). For instance, Posner (2013) examined the impact of national culture on both leadership behaviours and leadership effectiveness among healthcare leaders in Ethiopia, India, Pakistan, and the Philippines, and found that leadership practices varied across countries but within these countries leadership impact was the same. That is, the more regularly leaders used these leadership practices in each of these countries, the more effective they were viewed by their citizens, and the more favorable were these leaders' workplace attitudes. Posner (2013), therefore, suggests that universal leadership competences should be identified for effective leadership practice across cultural boundaries, such that, leadership development efforts can be better directed toward building such (universal) competencies rather than targeting differences within national boundaries (Posner, 2013, p.573). Earlier studies (such as, Ergeneli, Gohar and Temirbekova, 1997, p.704) had also suggested that leaders "need universally valid leadership" competencies "that transcend cultures".

4.15: Leadership Competence and the Retail Sector:

"Although retail supermarkets within developed and developing countries may face different challenges" (Kumar, 2008, p. 192), a few major retail chains have found ways to increase both earnings and sales (Werner, McDermott and Rotz, 2004 p. 10) especially, during recessions – and this raises the question – what are these 'smart' retailers doing differently from their rivals? With reference to numerous case examples

across a range of countries, this section illustrates the importance of leadership competence for a successful retail business.

Businesses experience hard times during recession and the retail sector suffers the most (Werner, McDermott and Rotz, 2004 p.10), yet the case studies presented in this section are proofs that with effective leadership a business can be successful even in hard times. For instance, Siebers (2012) identified six important factors that influence successful retail expansion of foreign retailers in China in their first ten years, and leadership competence was among the key factors identified. Hingley, Lindgreen and Chen (2009) also investigated the development of the Chinese grocery retail market and found that state-owned local retailers in China appear less competitive (against the international rivals) due to poor leadership of the state-owned local retailers.

In South Africa, De Bruyn and Freathy (2011) explored the strategic positioning of the retail giant – Boardmans – in the post-apartheid era. The authors found that Boardmans though had struggled initially to cope in the post-apartheid period, causing the firm to even lose touch with its customer base, but through a holistic leadership approach that brought about change in the whole of the business the company's position was restored.

Arnold (2002) explored the lessons learned from the world's best retailers – Ahold, Benetton, Carrefour, Home Depot, IKEA and Wal-Mart – and the findings reflect several common characteristics: inspirational leadership, a motivational organisational culture, innovativeness, adaptability and consumer and community relevant

behaviours. Similarly, Colla (2003) examined the determining factors for success or failure of the discount retailers (such as Aldi and Lidl) on the international scene, and a number of key success factors were identified, which include leadership competence.

Cairns, et al., (2010) explored the role of leadership in divestment decision making during corporate restructuring phases of retail organisations, and their key finding is that effective leadership is critical for successful divestment and restructuring both at home and abroad. For Werner, McDermott and Rotz (2004 p. 10), “research and client experience indicate that to excel in today’s highly saturated retail markets, companies need to abandon geographic expansionism and initiate new leadership strategies based on profit-driven product selection and customer targeting”. Similarly, Jones, et al., (2014) examined the reasons for failure in retail international expansions. The scholars found that a successful retail internationalization can be enhanced during “the training and also selection” of the expatriate managers by emphasizing on “reflective sub-dimensions of – Ability, Adaptability, Ambassadorship, and Awareness (Self), which we refer to as the Four A's of the “Universal Leadership” model (Jones, et al., 2014, p. 240).

Jing, Avery and Bergsteiner (2011) examined the relationship between organisational climate and performance in small businesses. Their findings show that effective leadership competence is needed to “create warm and supportive organisational climates to enhance business performance, employee job satisfaction and organisational commitment, and increase employee tenure” (p. 224). Similarly,

leadership competence has also been identified as one of the key success factors in entrepreneurial undertakings by female entrepreneurs. For instance, Bodolica and Spraggon (2015) examined two female expatriate business-owners who jointly formed a successful enterprise in the United Arab Emirates (UAE) and with a view to uncover the secrets behind their success in such a patriarchal cultural setting. The authors found leadership competence and personality characteristics as their success factors.

Selvarajah and Masli (2011) also studied successful ethnic entrepreneurial business clusters in Melbourne, Australia and a key feature identified in these enterprises was effective leadership competence. Leadership competence has also been identified as a success factor for a successful application of the TBS model. For instance, the four in-depth case studies that spanned over six years in different countries and industries by Wagner and Svensson (2014, p. 340) concluded by noting that the transformative business sustainability (TBS) model emphasizes the significance of commitment to a primary vision through competent leadership with the capacity to assign areas of strategic priority that reacts to both current and future environmental and social needs. Similarly, Loo and Hackley (2013) who explored the success factors behind four globally recognized fashion brands in Malaysian also found that these firms achieved their international success through a combination of factors, among which is effective leadership competence.

Chapman and Templar (2006) examined the contextual issues surrounding retail shrinkage in Europe's grocery retail sector, with a view to offering recommendations, and the authors recommend that effective shrinkage management requires effective

leadership competence in order to measure and address the matters identified. Bianchi (2014, p. 54) utilized the resource-based view theory of the firm as a theoretical foundation to examine the internationalization process of three Chilean retail companies that have transformed into successful global players. The findings suggest that specific capabilities and resources (including leadership competence) are essential for successful internationalization of firms in emerging market to improve and launch themselves into foreign markets.

The study by Arendt, Paez and Strohbehn (2013) aimed to address the following question - "What would make (supermarket) managers more effective in their role of assuring that safe food handling practices are followed in the workplace?" The authors found that effective leadership training with a focus on role identification and food safety handling is needed in order to enhance their operations.

4.16: Chapter Summary:

Based on the review of leadership development and competence literature, this chapter argues that all managers and leaders need leadership competence to run their organisations successfully. The literature also links competence development with specific HRD interventions, and argues that a competent leader is, the leader who is capable of excelling in his/her functions in a generally-defined occupational arena. Finally, this chapter concludes by arguing that leadership competence is crucial in numerous operations of the retailing sector.

4.17: Conclusion of Literature Review:

Chapter two reviewed HRD literature and argued that for a better understanding of the concept, HRD should best be explained as an integral part of HRM (Siikaniemi, 2009; Sofo, 1999). Although there are no generally accepted definitions of HRD, but several scholars (e.g. McLagan and Suhadolink, 1989) have identified its essential elements to include, organisation development, training and development, and career development. Swanson and Holton (2001: 4) also defines HRD as “a process for developing and unleashing human expertise through organisation development and personnel training and development for the purpose of improving performance”. One of the important views of HRD is also as a process that focuses on both individual and organisational outcomes based on learning, for performance improvement (Swanson and Holton, 2001). Indeed, via HRD an organisation creates an environment for meaningful social relationships through learning programmes that gear towards individual development, group/team development, career development and organisational learning and development (Brooks and Nafukho, 2006).

The third chapter linked the HRD literature with dominant studies in organisational learning and development (Gherardi, Nicolini and Odella, 1998; Elkjaer, 2001; O’rtenblad, 2002), and suggests a move from a conventional pedagogy to more interactive learning sessions in which participants learn (in groups) and transfer back the skills to improve the course of their organisations (Tyler, 2004; Antonacopoulou and Bento, 2004). A successful leadership development practice depends on the learning mechanics adopted, therefore, barriers to the transfer of learning must be

overcome (Hotho and Dowling, 2010). The chapter also argues that HRD is a facilitator of learning in the organisation.

Chapter four reviewed relevant literature on competency and argues that leadership competence is central to organisational success. The chapter started with an overview and meaning of competence, first, from organisational competence, and then to employee competence. Chapter four also reviewed relevant literature on leadership competence framework and the application of leadership competence and the impact (it has) on organisational transformation from a number of differing viewpoints, particularly, from the retail sector. It also argued the role of HRD in developing organisational competence. The chapter also identifies the gaps in the leadership competency literature as the failure to identify specific leadership competencies (that are of value to various industries) and to link such competencies with the specific HRD interventions that are applied in developing such competencies. Indeed, this gap is needed to be filled in order to ensure that HRD interventions are tailored to develop those requisite competencies that organisations value. This is an important gap in the literature, as well as where the novelty of this thesis lies.

Chapter Five

Research Methodology

5.1: Introduction:

This chapter discusses the methodology involved in gathering and analyzing the data included in this thesis. 5.2 discusses the philosophical assumptions that influenced the research approach and strategy adopted, while 5.3 discusses the methods for collecting and analyzing the primary data. 5.4 justifies the application of the social constructionism theory on this thesis, while 5.5 focuses on the research design and the justifications for combining a cross-sectional and comparative designs. 5.6 argues the sampling method adopted and the justifications for selecting the research participants. 5.7 discusses the challenges met in the process of collecting the primary data, while 5.8 discusses the perceived flaws with the primary data collected. 5.9 discusses the ethical considerations involved in this thesis and justifies how the thesis has fully abided by both the University of Sunderland's ethical guidelines for a PhD research study and the Economic and Social Research Council (ESRC, 2010) guidelines for conducting research. 5.10 presents the themes for comparing the HRD interventions and leadership competencies in the UK and Nigerian retail supermarkets studied.

5.2: Philosophical assumptions:

Bryman (2004b) argues that the purpose of a discussion of methodology is to link theoretical knowledge with appropriate research methods in order to sufficiently evaluate the theory in question. This means that a good discussion of the methodology should influence significantly the research approach and strategy to be adopted (Bryman, 2004b). At doctoral level, a discussion of methodology requires not just a critical thinking process, but also some originality in designing the research (Trafford and Leshem, 2008). However, the first key decision should be the selection of the paradigm, and some scholars (see, for example, Guba and Lincoln, 1994; Robson, 2011; King and Horrocks, 2010; and Gray, 2009) argue that a researcher should not embark on a research journey without having a clear understanding of and justification for the paradigm that informs and guides the study. A paradigm is a 'set of beliefs that guide action' (Denzin and Lincoln, 2005: p. 183; Gray, 2009), yet the term can lead to confusion because of its 'multiple meanings' (Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2012; Saunders and Lewis, 2012) and 'lack of a shared methodology' (Brand 2009: p. 429). Holliday (2002) refers to two major 'paradigms' in research: qualitative (interpretivism) and quantitative (positivism). Crotty (1998, p. 15) has also observed that the divisions between interpretivism and positivism is usually argued as one between qualitative and quantitative research. The positivist would adopt a deductive research approach, in which a theory and hypothesis are developed then the research strategy is designed for testing the hypothesis, whereas an interpretivist adopt an inductive research approach which involves first collecting data then developing theory as a product of the data analysis (Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2012). Positivism involves a set of beliefs that epitomise reality as existing outside the social actors who are concerned with its existence. Positivism also argue that conventional knowledge are visible only

from observable data (Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2012). Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill (2012) also describe interpretivism as constituting a set of beliefs that portray reality as being created by the perceptions and beliefs of social actors. However, the next section discusses and justifies the rationale for choosing an interpretivist (i.e. qualitative) research method for this thesis.

5.3: Methodology:

This section, first, explores more generally, specific qualitative methodologies and their suitability for leadership development research.

5.3.1: Specific qualitative research methods and their applications to leadership development studies

5.3.1.1: Qualitative research interviews

Argued as probably the most widely recognised research method in leadership studies (Jones, 2011) the qualitative research interview allows the research process to be controlled as much as possible by the participant instead of the traditional repetition of questions in quantitative research questionnaires (Jones, 2011). Hence, this therefore provides an opportunity for the researcher to view the phenomenon being deliberated from the perspective of the participant (King 2006, p.11). Yet, there are warnings in the literature against the dangers of adopting closed questions, multiple questions that are integrated into one, and leading questions (King 2006). However, being aware of

such dangers the researcher avoided such types of question as they could either confuse or influence the participants (Jones, 2011). Yet, the qualitative interview is fundamental in leadership development studies because it affords the researcher the flexibility to experiment with and to adjust the styles of questioning while covering an extensive range of issues concerning leadership development (King 2006, p.21).

Additionally, when adopted within a more general methodology such as ethnography, which allows the interviewee to respond more effectively, qualitative interviews can serve as a powerful tool for an in-depth exploration of issues. Yet, King (2006) argues that a major drawback of this method is that it takes longer time (in comparison to the quantitative questionnaire method) to undertake an interview session and analyse the data. Likewise, having a good knowledge of how to conduct a qualitative interview in itself could pose a challenge to a researcher who might not acknowledge that it still demands careful deliberation, planning and reflection (King 1999, p.14), whereas Jones (2011) states that such concerns are insignificant during the 3 - 4 years devoted to a full-time PhD research study. Furthermore, King (2006) has warned against the possible overload of qualitative data, but Jones (2011) is of the view that such challenges could be overcome by good thematic work.

5.3.1.2: The Critical incident technique:

Although originally developed as a positivist psychological tool by Flanagan (1954), the Critical Incident Technique (CIT) is closely related to qualitative interviews (Jones, 2011). Especially, since its reinterpretation through a phenomenological viewpoint, it is now used to “identify the context of emotionally laden critical events, from which

experiential learning takes place” (Chell 2006, p.45). Chell (2006) also goes further to argue that in the initial days of the CIT emphasis was on the significance of the skilled external observer, who interprets sections via the lens of a specific set of predefined codes. Yet, such phenomenological CIT would only attempt to express the views of the research participants, transmitting their views as the constituents of valuable learning experience (Jones, 2011). However, cases of multi-site interviews (such as this research study) is common within CIT, especially with this researcher’s ability to produce wider conclusions as a result (Jones, 2011). Hence, CIT was applied in this research and the **‘critical incidents’** that the author was after were when leadership competencies had positive influence on organisational performance, and which (and how) HRD interventions were systematically applied in developing such competencies. Participants were, therefore, asked to concentrate on what happened, why they happened and how they dealt with such incidents (Jones, 2011).

5.3.1.3: Ethnomethodology

Ethnomethodology varies from typical observation because it does not seek to understand the leadership development event itself, rather the fundamental beliefs that herald and follow the event and how individuals convey meanings to a researcher’s findings (Sharrock and Anderson 1986). In the context of this study, for ethnomethodology to be successful it has been applied to emphasise the everyday routine leadership experiences (Sharrock and Anderson 1986) because the main aim of ethnomethodology is the problematisation of everyday activity. Ethnomethodology, therefore, has the capacity to clarify the value-based thinking and activities of leaders in their mundane practices by analysing their views on their learning and development,

in relation to their actual behaviours (Jones, 2011). The very activities that this thesis seeks to clarify are those activities that take place within ordinary settings (such as within supermarkets in Nigeria and the UK). As such, ethnomethodology, has, therefore, helped with clarifying those 'indexicals' that exist in daily conversations involving the participants of this study. Indexicals could be defined as those linguistic vessels that convey implicit meanings and expressions "which depend for their sense upon the circumstances of their production, of who said them, when, where, in relation to what" (Sharrock and Anderson 1986, p.42). They are "expressions whose sense cannot be decided by an auditor without necessarily knowing or assuming the biography and the purposes of the user of the expression, the circumstances of the utterances, the previous course of the conversation, or the particular relationship of actual or potential interaction that exists between the expresser and the auditor" (Garfinkel 2010, p.5). For the co-participant (in this case, the researcher) in such conversation to understand what the narrator is referring to, there must be a shared system of understanding between the listener and speaker (and, in the context of this research the researcher shares similar cultural background with the interviewees in Nigeria). However, the author has also lived in the UK for over 6 years before conducting this primary data collection so he is also familiar with the mind-set of supermarket leaders in the UK.

5.3.2: Clarification for selecting The Inductive and Deductive Approach for The Thematic Analysis:

For Hyde (2000, p.82) both quantitative and qualitative researchers demonstrate deductive and inductive processes in their research, yet they fail to recognise

these processes. However, since in most occasions, theory developed from qualitative research will remain untested, therefore, Hyde (2000) argues that through 'pattern matching', the application of formal deductive procedures in a qualitative research is an important step for not only confirming the quality of the findings of a qualitative research but also for putting such theories to test.

Fereday and Muir-Cochrane (2006) argue that in a doctoral study a hybrid process of deductive and inductive thematic analysis is appropriate for interpreting the raw data in a phenomenology study. However, *phenomenology* is the philosophical method of enquiry that focuses on the investigation of consciousness and a direct experience from the first-person point of view (Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2012). Therefore, from a *phenomenological perspective*, this thesis investigates leadership development via a first-person point of view of the participants' direct experience of the competencies they developed and their consciousness of how they have utilized such competencies at work, hence the use of deductive-inductive approach is appropriate for this thesis.

Through a staged process of data coding and identification of themes, the deductive-inductive process shows how analysis of raw data from interview transcripts progresses to the identification of central themes that capture the phenomenon being investigated (Fereday and Muir-Cochrane, 2006). Fereday and Muir-Cochrane (2006) also describe the deductive-inductive approach as a methodological approach that draws its strengths from an integrated data-driven codes with theory-driven ones based on the tenets of social phenomenology.

From Schutz's views, social phenomenology is an interpretive and descriptive idea of social action as an examination of subjective experience within the taken-for-granted, "common-sense" world of the daily lives of research participants. In Schutz's (1967) theory social phenomenology is based on the idea that in their daily lives people living in the world would normally assign different meanings to the same situation and then they make their judgments based on their socially-constructed points of view. However, this thesis explores the (UK and Nigerian) participants' subjective understanding and interpretation of the competencies they developed during their engagement in leadership development activities, and any taken-for-granted circumstances where they have applied such competencies in their daily routines as leaders of supermarket and their common sense explanation of the impact (of such competencies) on their organisations. During such interpretation, of paramount significance to the researcher is to safeguard such subjective views (of the participants) instead of replacing them with the researcher's own fictional and non-existent constructs. Therefore, Schutz (1967) suggested a method for studying such social action, and which involves two senses of verstehen (interpretive understanding). The first point to understand is the manner/practice by which people understand and interpret the phenomena inside their daily world. This point is what this thesis has shown through verbatim transcription and tabular presentations of the participants' points of view. The second point to understand (according to Schutz, 1967) is how to generate "ideal types" through which the phenomenon under investigation can be interpreted. Regarding this second point the thesis relates the participants' points of view with some HRD-factors based on a priori template of codes formed from an extensive review of the literature. Therefore, in this thesis, the method of thematic

analysis applied is a hybrid of the data-driven inductive approach of Boyatzis (1998); Schutz, (1967) and to attain the second level of interpretive understanding Crabtree and Miller (1999); Schutz, (1967) and Naismith (2007) approaches of deductive reasoning which are based on a priori template of codes were also applied.

5.3.2.1: Deductive-Inductive approach, Reliability and Validity in a Doctoral Research.

5.3.2.1.1: Reliability of the data:

In order to demonstrate reliability in an interpretive research Koch (1994) argues that it demands a thorough evidence throughout the research process, while Schutz (1973), Horsfall, Byrne-Armstrong, and Higgs (2001) are of the view that through in-depth planning, careful attention to the phenomenon under investigation and creativity in the application of methods the rigour in qualitative research ensures logical consistency. For Aroni et al., (1999) to ensure such consistency, such rigour must demonstrate integrity and competence, while Higgs (2001) and Rice and Ezzy (1999) are of the view that the theoretical rigour involved in qualitative research must not only demonstrate sound reasoning and argument, but that the choice of methods applied must also be appropriate for the problem being investigated. Therefore, to ensure that the deductive-inductive approach produces such reliable data, Schutz (1973, pp. 43-44) has proposed three essential posits to be followed during the research process.

- **The assumption of logical consistency:** Here, the researcher must ensure that there is an utmost level of clarity and logic in both the formulation and application of both the research method and the conceptual framework applied. Here, the researcher involved in this PhD study has shown a justification for the research method selected, and the conceptual framework applied demonstrates a logical consistency in the formulation and organisation of ideas.

- **The postulate of subjective interpretation:** The model must be grounded in the subjective meaning the action had for the “actor.” To ensure that this thesis meets this postulate, based on the principle of ownership and transparency of data, the researcher ensured that the transcribed data sets were all sent back to the participants for them to validate the data and ensure they are true representations and interpretations of their responses before submitting the thesis to be examined. This Schutz’s second postulate of subjective interpretation conforms to Horsfall, Byrne-Armstrong and Higgs, 2001; Leininger (1994) theory of preserving the participant’s subjective point of view and acknowledging the context within which the phenomenon was studied.

- **The postulate of adequacy:** The model must be recognizable and understood by the “actors” within everyday life (Schutz, 1973, pp. 43-44). That is, there must be consistency between the researcher’s constructs and typifications and those found in common-sense experience. Through the thematic analysis and the interpretation of the empirical data collected, with the aid of pattern matching, the researcher involved in this PhD research study has developed a model based on the subjective meaning he gleaned from the data patterns. Such interpretive rigor requires the researcher to utilise quotations from the empirical data to demonstrate clearly how the data has been interpreted and how the findings/results were arrived at (Rice & Ezzy, 1999). Finally,

the researcher therefore utilised expert checks to ensure that his methodology adopted, his constructs and his typification of data are all consistent with those found in academic literature.

- Pattern matching helps to establish a model by identifying the data that occurred most frequently in the data set, hence, a model is formed based on the group of data that occur at least 5 times in the frequency table (Naismith, 2007: 142). This measure also helps to ensure that the interpretation of the data collected yields a valid and reliable result (Hyde, 2000).
- Also, when the data collection occurs in the natural environment of the subjects of the study, this reduces the threats from ecological factors, hence improves both the validity and reliability of the findings (Malallah, 2010). In this research study, each of the interviews took place within the respective supermarket studied.
- Dependability, which is similar to reliability, is also established by using the same data collection method for all interviewees (Malallah, 2010). The researcher asked the same lead questions to every participant, and all interviews were recorded. This approach does not only help to minimize the interviewer's influence on the interviewees' responses, but also helps to ensure consistency in the data collection strategy, hence reliability of the findings (Malallah, 2010).
- Also, reliability and trustworthiness was established through a prolonged engagement with the interviewees (Malallah, 2010).

5.3.2.1.2: Validity of the data:

- The first step in ensuring that the data to be collected will be valid is through the pilot testing of the interview questions. This ensured that the interview questions will be comprehensible to the participants before launching a full scale empirical field work.
- Such a step-by-step process of analysis (as outlined in this section) demonstrates a high degree of transparency of how the researcher ensured that his subjective interpretation did not destroy the participants' subjective points of view (Horsfall, Byrne-Armstrong and Higgs, 2001; Leininger, 1994). Such interpretive rigour has helped the researcher to demonstrate clearly how the participants' reflections, conveyed in their own words, strengthen the face validity and credibility of the research (Patton, 2002).
- Another step that has reassured that there is validity of the data collected was through the practice of ownership and transparency of data. This involved giving all the participants a copy of the interview transcript via email for them to verify and approve its contents before the thesis was submitted. This ensured that the data interpretation remains directly linked to the words/views of the participants.
- Thirdly, the synthesis of the data-driven inductive approach of Boyatzis (1998) and the deductive via a priori template of codes approach outlined by Crabtree and Miller (1999) as applied in the analysis and interpretation of the data helps to ensure that the developing themes were grounded in the original data collected (Fereday and Muir-Cochrane, 2006). This also helps to ensure the validity of the result.

- Validity of the study was also strengthened by the use of purposeful sampling, but also by a thick description of the results produced via the content analysis and the triangulation of data from multiple interviewees (Malallah, 2010).
- Also, by examining to ensure there is a strong relationship between the empirical data and the theoretical constructs, expert check also helps to establish construct validity of the findings (Malallah, 2010).

5.3.2.2: Thematic Analysis and Interpretation of Data:

Thematic analysis has been argued as the best way of organising and analysing interview data (Albawardy, 2010; Jassel, 2012; Miles and Huberman, 1994), and the analysis of interview data for leadership development studies is appropriate with the use of the content analysis method of iterative thematic analysis (Malallah, 2010: 204). In thematic analysis, the researcher focuses on what is said rather than on how it is said (Bryman, 2008). Accordingly, this researcher spent four hours during the nights listening repeatedly (for at least three times per transcript) to each of the interview transcripts for a period of three months to make sure he understood what each participant said (Bryman, 2008). The benefit of listening to each interview transcript a multiple number of times is to ensure that no vital information is misunderstood or being left out (Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2012).

5.3.2.3: Data Coding, Entry, Analysis and Interpretation:

As the participants were asked the same set of questions, in some cases, the data collected from different interview venues were a bit similar in nature. However, as the

researcher is highly skilled in the management of large amount of qualitative data, manual handling of data was applied to make data management more effective and convenient, but also to make the researcher have a feel of the primary data collected. This therefore required a planned analysis, reduction and interpretation of the data. Data reduction with the aid of themes or categories that focus on the important data helps to reduce the data quantity without losing the quality and meaning of any important information (Albawardy, 2010). Data reduction with the aid of themes also helps to determine when a new theme emerges from the data or when to merge two or more existing themes (Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2012), and this has been implemented in phases (Naismith, 2007).

Phase 1: Verbatim transcription and tabular presentations:

The use of three stage method of – data display, data reduction and verification/conclusion has been suggested (by Albawardy, 2010; Humphrey and Lee, 2004; Punch, 2005; Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2012) as the best way for analysing a large volume of raw interview data. The first phase involved verbatim transcription and tabular presentations of the respondents' answers to the interview questions. This transcription and tabular presentation of the data was also carried out according to the themes.

Phase 2: Division, Coding and Categorisations

Due to the large number of interviews conducted and the detailed data collected, the second phase involved dividing the data into chunks, coding and assigning them to

categories. The role and significance of data coding in this study is to facilitate a richer understanding of the issues under investigation (Blismas and Dainty, 2003). The coding process involved sorting of the data obtained from the interviews using repeated examinations of the data based on a three-stage coding process intended to identify the themes and patterns contained in the data (Ezzy, 2002, p. 86).

The first stage of the three-stage coding process involved open coding of the data in order to find the central themes, which were at the heart of the discussions during the interviews. The second stage of axial coding focused on establishing the common patterns that runs through the themes identified during the open coding process. However, a pattern is considered strong enough if five or more interviewees mentioned or referred to the same concepts in the recorded interview data (Naismith, 2007), hence serving as the unit of analysis for the axial coding process (Naismith, 2007). The third stage of the three-stage coding process utilised descriptive coding to present the themes and their patterns in the context of the interview questions that were asked and how they relate to specific research questions of this study (Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2012).

Based on some common patterns that run through the themes as identified during the coding process, the data were assign to categories. These categories/factors are linked to the themes, and were extracted from the literature review in Chapters 2, 3 and 4. These themes/comparators have not only provided the basis for comparing HRD interventions and leadership competencies within these case study supermarkets (Dey, 1993) but they were, however, developed to suit the research objectives and research questions. Hence, the themes have provided the

parameters for developing the interview questions (Braun and Clarke, 2006). The interview questions are broad enough to capture a rich investigation of the understudied issue (i.e. the link between HRD interventions, leadership competence and organisational transformation) but also specific enough to reflect the themes (Braun and Clarke, 2006). Gibson and Brown (2009) have also suggested that mapping data analysis into research questions helps to produce a very clear narrative during data analysis and discussion of results.

Phase 3: Analysis and Interpretation:

Data analysis and evaluation of qualitative interview data could be enhanced by the use of methods such as charts, matrices, tables, and networks in order to interpret and compare between participants' responses and to identify any relationships between them in order to draw a meaning from the data collected (Albawardy, 2010; Robson, 2011; Punch, 2005; Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2012). Albawardy (2010) and Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill (2012) also suggested using represented frequency and density tables for displaying one theme at a time. Accordingly, this third phase which is the final analysis and interpretation involved the application of frequency tables to show the total for each group of data in relation to each factor/category. This third phase also involved arranging the frequencies in descending order to show how strongly they feel, that is, in terms of their rates of occurrences. A model, is, therefore, developed based on how strongly the data feel. A model chooses the group of data that occur at least 5 times in the frequency table. This ensured "that data sources were not separated from interpretation/model" (Naismith, 2007: 142) in order to ensure a logical discourse analysis.

5.3.3: Checking and Validation of Data:

Lincoln and Guba (1985) suggested using research teams in a qualitative research study in order to enhance validity and reliability. Here, this researcher has three experienced researchers as his team of supervisors, and who constantly checked the work and provided constructive feedback at each stage of the research.

Apart from using the supervision team to check the correctness of the work, a researcher must also regularly review the work, including the themes and their sources in the data-set. Lynch (2003) suggests that a researcher needs to closely revisit the data to determine any close relationships (existing between the data) which might have been missed out or any relevant information that might have been ignored during the data verification and analysis. This is an important practice as doing so could open up further analysis and interrogation of the interview transcripts and a resultant merging of some themes or amendments of the literature review section so it will truly align with the rest of the thesis (Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2012). For instance, during the review and interrogation of the themes, the researcher identified a new sub-theme (experiential learning) in the interview data, and as a result of that the literature review section was amended to integrate discussions around this new theme – experiential learning.

However, having displayed, reduced and analysed the data in an organised way the final analytical step for a researcher to take will then be to make decisions about “what things mean” (Miles and Huberman, 1994, p. 10-11) by articulating conclusions and

establishing proofs (Albawardy, 2010), and this leads us on to discussions on discourse analysis.

5.3.4: Discourse Analysis:

Wodak (2008, p.2) argues that discourse analysis “provides a general framework to problem-oriented social research. It allows the integration of different dimensions of inter-disciplinarity and multiple perspectives on the object investigated”. In the context of this thesis the object being investigated is the relationship between leadership competence, HRD interventions and organisational transformation. And, each primary data item is considered as a semiotic entity, embedded in an immediate, text-internal co-text and an inter-textual and socio-political context (Wodak, 2008). Analysis has, therefore, taken into account the inter-textual and inter-discursive relationships between utterances, texts, genres and discourses, as well as the extra-linguistic social/sociological variables that relate to HRD interventions in the organisations (Wodak, 2008).

For Jones (2011), discourse analysis studies both the broader socio-political discourses and how these discourses become embedded in talk and text. This method is not, therefore, merely an analysis of the immediate text of an interview, nor a broader sociological exploration of a meta-discourse. Rather, it is a study of the interplay between grand discourse and the everyday deployment of such narratives in the workplace or other social settings (Jones, 2011). Here, a text is not viewed as an accidental, natural form of communication, signalling an independent, unitary reality

of workplace interaction. Rather, it is viewed as a negotiated series of spoken and written conventions, developed and established over time by colleagues interacting on a daily basis (Koller, 2008). A text can be identified through a range of “grammatical rules and dependencies” (Wodak 2008, p.8) which are worked at in order to produce seeming cohesion and a series of working norms for the subjects concerned (Jones, 2011). Texts are enacted, states Wodak (2008, p.8), through a number of linguistic strategies. Certain words, phrases and grammatical patterns may be produced over and over, with recurrence contributing to tacit organisational understanding. Anaphora “directs attention to what has previously been said or read”, while cataphora “points to what is to come” (Jones, 2011). Both are linguistic short-hands developed over time through the practices of work (Wodak, 2008). Ellipsis concerns what is not said and has connections to an ethno-methodological approach (Jones, 2011). Understanding may be developed between individuals (i.e. the researcher and participants) according to verbal or physical shortcuts (Wodak, 2008).

Likewise, it may not be necessary for people to convey their meaning explicitly at all. Rather, meaning and context will be assumed by others according to a regime of social norms (Koller, 2008). Conjunctions will point to “connections between events and situations”, relatively impenetrable perhaps to those outside of the context without a broader understanding of organisational practices. Emphasis may be placed on the genre of text used at any one time (Koller, 2008).

Fairclough (1995) believes that textual analysis may provide a refreshing antidote to what he views as overly rigid social structural research, as “texts provide evidence of

ongoing processes such as the redefinition of social relationships between professionals and publics, the reconstitution of social identities and forms of self, or the reconstitution of knowledge and ideology” (Fairclough 1995, p.209). Texts will thus reproduce the social world and contribute to shaping it (Fairclough 1992, p.65).

5.4: Social constructionism and its application in this thesis:

Developed by Mannheim (1936), social constructionism theory is a body of knowledge that argues that what an individual knows about the world around her/him is predominantly an outcome of the social interaction between diverse and complex social forces in an environment in which the individual is also a part of (Scott, 2015). Hofstede et al. (2010) also postulate that where people grow up shapes the way they think, feel, and act. It also means that what counts as appropriate HRD intervention or leadership development (or leadership competence for that matter) is influenced by societal forces in the environment in which the research participants dwell (Patton, McIlveen and Schultheiss, 2012). Similarly, Posner (2013) surveyed leadership behaviours in Ethiopia, India, Pakistan, and the Philippines and found that, leadership practices varied across countries. Posner, therefore, suggest that leadership development efforts should be better directed toward building skills common to these different leaders, since multicultural studies show that cultural values can affect leadership ideas, styles, mind-sets and practices (Posner, 2013). Applied within studies in culture, sociology and in business, a researcher’s role in social constructionism is to deconstruct her/his socially created life experiences, in order to understand the world around her/him (Patton, McIlveen and Schultheiss, 2012). In the

context of this thesis, this researcher has applied his life experiences (as a born and bred in Nigeria and a UK resident for the past 8 years) to better understand the leadership competences developed by leaders in the UK and Nigerian retail supermarkets studied.

5.5: Research Design:

Following the discussions above, the research design adopted in this thesis is a combination of a cross-sectional design and a comparative design.

- Cross-sectional design is most appropriate in social sciences when studying a cross-section of population for studies aimed at examining the prevalence of a phenomenon, situation, problem, attitude or issue (Kumar, 2005). Here, cross-sectional design has proven very effective at data capture in a range of different locations of supermarkets in Nigeria and the UK, either where leadership could be developed, or where it could be practiced, or both concurrently.
- Comparative design compares how effective two or more interventions which have different theoretical and historical backgrounds are (Weiner, et al., 2003). In the context of this research, this reflects a comparison of the leadership development and HRD interventions of these cross-sections of supermarkets understudied in a range of the different locations (i.e. in Nigerian and the UK).

5.6: Sampling and Selection of Organisational Participants:

NON PROBABILITY SAMPLING:

This study adopts the non-probability sampling method. However, due to time constraints, financial constraints and lack of personnel, the collection of data from large samples could be unmanageable and problematic (De Beuckelaer and Wagner, 2012). Previous scholars (see, for example, Browne, 2005; Atkinson and Flint, 2001; Van Meter, 1990; Marpsat and Razafindratsima, 2010; Johnston and Sabin, 2010; Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2012) have made detailed study of these problems that mitigate the collection of data from large samples. These scholars have also provided a convenient technique for data gathering from a large number of research participants, hence, the emergence of non-probability sampling. And, the research question(s), objectives and choice of research strategy may dictate non-probability sampling' (Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2012; Saunders and Lewis, 2012), and of these the most commonly used sampling technique is purposive (Robson, 2011; Gray, 2009; Miles and Huberman 1994). Also, a purely *ad hoc*, opportunistic sampling strategy is not appropriate in qualitative research, rather, as in this case, the sample should relate in some systematic manner to the phenomena that this thesis seeks to examine (Robson, 2011; Gray, 2009; Mason, 1996; May, 2002).

Unlike in probability sampling, non-probability sampling does not grant all the subjects an equal chance of being randomly selected, rather, the subjects, here, are selected based on some criteria such as convenience or of purposive decision of the researcher. Hence, one of the chief weaknesses of non-probability sampling is that – as the sampling may not bear a true representation of the entire population – the result of the sampling cannot be used for an effective generalisation of the population (N)

regarding the phenomenon under investigation (Baltar and Brunet, 2012; Salganik and Heckathorn, 2004). Witte, Amoroso and Howard (2000), therefore, suggest that matching the empirical data with existing comparable demographic data can improve the credibility and reliability of the data in terms of the effective representativeness of the sample. Indeed, the main disadvantages associated with non-probability sampling are also that there are particular biases associated with the collection of data. These include sample bias, sampling error and response bias (Baltar and Brunet, 2012). Selection bias is higher when there are more individual participants with enormous networks and very strong connections (Baltar and Brunet, 2012). However, Wong (2008, p. 4) argues that “matching purposive samples and the population characteristics using uncorrelated properties can minimize selection bias”.

Non-probability sampling could be divided into two broad categories – accidental or purposive sampling.

Convenience or Accidental Sampling:

This method of sampling means choosing respondents simply because they are much easier and cheaper for the researcher to access, for instance, a college teacher using his students as respondents to undertake research. Obviously, the drawback of using convenience sampling is that there are no convictions that the sample selected is a true representative of the entire population that the researcher would be generalising to (Salganik and Heckathorn, 2004). However, accidental sampling does not apply to this thesis.

Purposive Sampling:

Most non-probability sampling is purposive because researchers more often than not approach sampling with preconceived target participants in mind or distinct group(s) that the researcher is seeking (Wong, 2008), (such as, the best performing British supermarkets; international supermarkets in Nigeria, etc.). Purposive sampling has also been further subdivided into the following categories. Yet, in all these subdivisions, one thing the researcher knows is that he/she is sampling with a purpose. These categories include:

- **Modal Instance Sampling:** The word modal, here, stems from the statistics word – mode, which is the rate or frequency of occurrence of a value/variable in a distribution (Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2012). Modal instance sampling has been used to present the empirical result of this thesis.
- **Expert Sampling:** This type of sampling entails the selection of knowledgeable participants in a specified area of study, usually done under the umbrella of a “panel of experts” (De Beuckelaer and Wagner, 2012). There are two main reasons for adopting this type of sampling strategy. The first is when the participants are known to have specific knowledge about the area of study. Then, to help also to clarify the validity and appropriateness of an earlier instrument used (De Beuckelaer and Wagner, 2012). In this thesis, the researcher adopted expert sampling twice. At first, it was used during the pilot study of leaders (from Nigerian and UK supermarkets) to confirm that the interview questions were comprehensible. Then expert sampling was also adopted later on, and that was when five experts (in the leadership

development area of study) were selected and asked to check the appropriateness and validity of the modal instance sampling that was used in the data analysis section. Yet, the researcher is aware that the experts' advice could not be 100% right (Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2012).

- **Snowball Sampling:** In this type of sampling, the researcher first identifies a participant that meets the criteria for participating in the study, and then tells this participant to recommend others who meet the same criteria (Browne, 2005). Atkinson and Flint (2001: 1) argue that, here, one subject gives the researcher the name of another subject, who in turn provides the name of a third, and so on. This method has been argued as an unlikely representative of the actual population of study. Yet, at times it is arguably the best strategy to adopt, for instance, when studying a population that could be hardly reachable (such as, homeless people) or hardly accessible (such as, the leaders of supermarkets), in other words, the “hard-to-reach” populations (Baltar and Brunet, 2012; Atkinson and Flint, 2001). Hence, the main advantage of this approach is that, by identifying the individuals with ‘access-barriers’, it increases the physical size and scope of the sample (Baltar and Brunet, 2012). The researcher used an influential supermarket leader in Nigeria and another in the UK to reach out to the other willing participants.

When to Use Non-Probability Sampling:

There are specific circumstances that could necessitate the adoption of non-probability sampling. Such circumstances include:

- When establishing that a particular feature or characteristics occur in a population (Baltar and Brunet, 2012; Salganik and Heckathorn, 2004). In this research, the researcher wants to prove that there could be 'country-specific' approaches to HRD and leadership development in the UK and Nigerian retail supermarkets, and which can produce a desired leadership competence for successful supermarket operation.
- When the researcher aims to carry out an exploratory, pilot and qualitative study (Baltar and Brunet, 2012). And, this research is purely qualitative in nature, and a pilot study was undertaken to test the validity and reliability of the research instrument, whereas the primary research is empirical, exploratory and probing.
- Non-probability sampling is also useful when it is impossible to randomise (Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2012) (i.e. in a large population like the Nigerian and UK supermarkets).
- Non-probability sampling is also adopted when the research is not aimed to generalise the results pertaining to the entire population (Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2012). This study also meets this criterion, because the researcher is not aiming at generalising the results to represent leadership development in the entire population of Nigerian or British supermarkets, because factors (such as, size, for example) can influence leadership development activities or outcomes in different supermarkets.
- Non-probability sampling is also useful when the researcher is constrained by dearth of budget, time and workforce (Baltar and Brunet, 2012). In this study, from the

outset budget has been a major constraint of the researcher, because the researcher is a self-funded international student who has to pay full international tuition fees, and with 'only' a maximum of 20 hours of work per week.

- Non-probability sampling is also recommended when there are hopes that after the initial study, that subsequent studies could follow and which would then use randomised, probability sampling (Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2012). The researcher has, in fact, recommended that subsequent research should be done in leadership development (especially in Africa) using randomised, probability sampling.

Selection of Organisational Participants:

There are three main ethnic sets in Nigeria – namely, the Igbo people who occupy largely the South-eastern Nigeria, the Yoruba people who occupy largely the South-western Nigeria, and the Islamic Hausa-Fulani people who occupy largely the Northern Nigeria. Yet, the (Nigerian) sample involves just a cross-section of selected supermarkets in Lagos only, and there are two basic reasons for this decision:

1. For ethical reasons and in keeping with the need to avoid any form of harm to research participants in all instances (ESRC 2010, p.3), this study avoided sampling any retail supermarket that is located in the Northern Nigeria. Indeed, for safety reasons, at the time of the primary data collection, it wouldn't have been sensible to include the Northern region in the sample as the region was under frequent terrorist attacks by the Islamic Boko Haram sect in Nigeria.

2. This research is about how leadership competence can lead to organisational transformations and consequently help Nigeria achieve its millennium development goals (MDGs) (see the section on justification for this study). Indeed, with Lagos state being the economic hub of Nigeria, but also where the largest supermarkets and shopping plazas in the Sub-Saharan Africa are situated, this makes Lagos state very strategic for this study.

Therefore, 9 indigenous supermarkets were selected from Lagos state, and 30 leaders drawn from these supermarkets were interviewed, while 10 leaders were interviewed from the 2 British supermarkets (specifically, Tesco and Sainsbury's) sampled. That is, there were a total of 40 qualitative interviews in this study.

However, although guidelines for determining non-probabilistic sample (purposive sampling) sizes are virtually non-existent (Guest, Bunce and Johnson, 2006), but there are some studies that do provide guidelines for actual sample sizes (i.e. regarding the number of interviewees), though differing in opinions. 'For many research projects eight respondents will be perfectly sufficient' (McCracken, 1988: 17), whereas Bertaux (1981) argued that 15 is the smallest acceptable sample size in a qualitative research. Morse (1994) recommended at least six participants for phenomenological studies. Creswell (1998) recommended between five and twenty-five interviews for a phenomenological study and Kuzel (1992) recommended six to eight interviews for a homogeneous sample. Therefore, the sample size of this research (i.e. 40 interviewees) meets the various guidelines proposed by different authors.

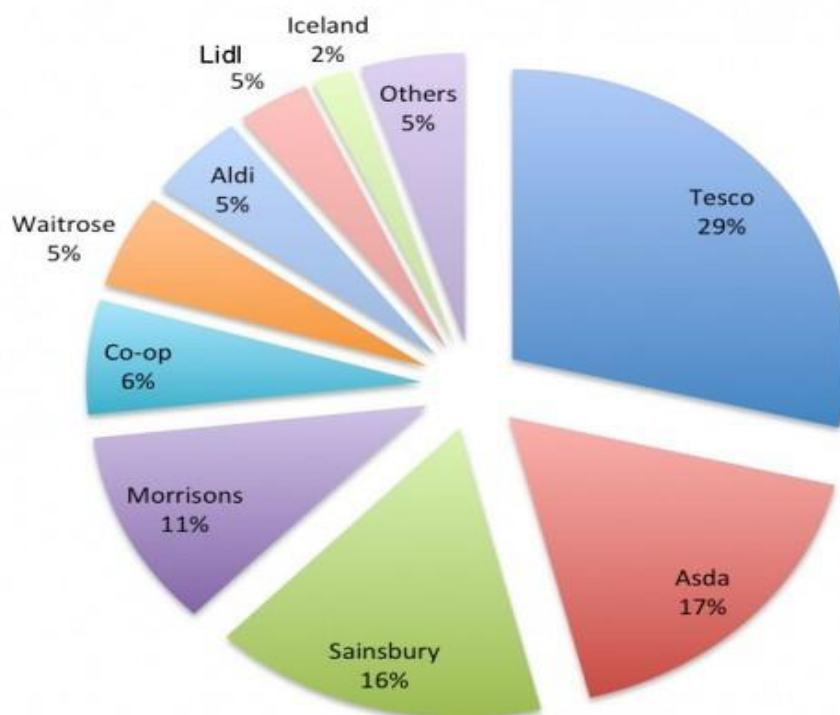
Justification for Selecting the UK Retail Supermarkets:

It should be recalled that this research aims – ‘to explore the link between HRD interventions and leadership competencies in retail supermarkets in Nigeria and the UK in order to understand better how Nigerian supermarkets can improve their leadership competencies by adopting the appropriate HRD interventions learnt from their UK counterparts’. Therefore, such benchmark for improving the leadership competencies of the Nigerian supermarkets should be the ‘best practice’ in leadership development practices (or HRD for that matter) of their UK counterparts. This means that the data collection from the UK should focus on the ‘BIG Four’ (that is, Tesco, Asda, Sainsbury’s and Morrison’s) supermarkets, but as mentioned in the previous sections of this thesis the primary data from the UK was rather sourced from just two UK retail supermarkets only. This section, therefore, justifies the selection of Tesco and Sainsbury’s retail supermarket as the samples of the UK retail supermarkets studied.

Established in North London in 1929 and currently operating in more than 12 countries the world over, Tesco is the world’s third largest supermarket group (Winterman, 2013). Even many years after its establishment no one foresaw Tesco as a major British retailer, let alone an international competitor of significance, but today everything that Tesco touches seems to turn to Gold (Seth and Randall, 2005). Tesco is renowned for having a remarkable capacity to survive difficult periods, and most of such periods were during the 1960s and 70s, yet it was able to fight its way through to become a significant competitor in the UK retail sector by the end of 1980s (Seth and Randall, 2005). Following such rise to stardom, Tesco has continued to enjoy stable growth in volume of sales, profitability and market share such that in terms of the

market share between the UK's 'BIG four' supermarkets (Tesco, Asda, Sainsbury's and Morrison's) Tesco has remained the leading supermarket in the UK. For instance, even with the sudden rise of the popular German supermarkets (Aldi and Lidl) which has changed the shape of the competition, Tesco is still the supermarket leader in the UK (Kantar Worldwide, 2014). Even with the recession Tesco just recorded its best UK sales figures for 7 years with a 30% rise in full-year operating profits to £1.28 billion for the year 2016/17, and which according to Tesco's CEO is ahead of where they were expected to be by now. The supermarket's operating profits jumped from £985 million the previous year to breach a billion pounds. Group sales increased by 4.3% to £49.9 billion, while like-for-like sales has risen by 0.9%. Sales have been increasing 0.9% year on year for the past 7 years. Tesco's debt are down by 27% as £1.9bn were repaid last year (ITV News, 12/04/2017).

UK Supermarket Market Share



www.economicshelp.org | Source Kantar Worldwide 2014

However, Tesco is not only a national giant, but it has also propelled itself to international limelight, especially given its ability to take on global giants like Walmart/Asda, Carrefour, etc. For instance, there is the 'supermarket WARS' which Seth and Randall (2005) had used to describe the competitive rivalry between global players like – Walmart, Tesco, Carrefour, etc. and which has extended across many countries. This, therefore, makes the selection of Tesco very crucial for this study as Jacobs and Versi's (2012) findings indicate that what Nigerian supermarkets need (in order to compete with Asda) is to learn the ability to take on global giants like Asda.

However, although Tesco, eventually, is the focal point of the UK aspect of this study, the author had planned to sample the whole of 'the UK's BIG four', but both Asda and Morrison's refused the researcher's request (including letters from the University of Sunderland) to include their supermarkets in this study, therefore only Sainsbury's could be added to the sample.

Established in 1869 by John James Sainsbury and his wife with a shop in Drury Lane, London, Sainsbury's became the UK's largest grocery retailer in 1922. Even though the heydays of Sainsbury's has gone as it has now lost all its global presence which it had enjoyed in the 1980s, this early adopter of self-service retailing in the UK still maintains its store efficiency and its huge UK revenues still place Sainsbury's among the top 20 retailers in the world (Seth and Randall, 2005). Hence, Sainsbury's and Tesco were selected for this study.

5.7: Challenges in Collecting the Primary Data

During the primary fieldwork the researcher faced two key challenges – difficulty in accessing the participating organisations and difficulty in accessing the individual respondents. Initially, the gatekeepers and the respondents were unconvinced about the potential benefits of this research to their organisations. They also expressed concerns about the likelihood of certain information they could provide being used against them (especially) by their competitors. Other reasons given by some people for their non-participation was that they were too busy to grant even a 5 minutes interview, let alone up to an hour. Even several telephone calls made by the researcher and official letters written (with the University of Sunderland's letter headed papers) could not help this situation. Instead, some of the leaders in some of the supermarkets contacted told the researcher that he did not need to interview them, instead, that he needed to interview their HR managers, given that the focus of the research was on learning and development, therefore (according to them) the HR managers would provide more reliable and valid responses to such interview questions.

However, to overcome these challenges the researcher had to utilize the snowballing method of sampling. First, the researcher had to access and convince two participants (one in a Nigerian supermarket and another in a UK retail supermarket, respectively) who met the criteria for participating in this research. Accessing these initial contacts were made possible by two factors. The first of which is – being born and bred in Nigeria. Then, being a University lecturer in the UK prior to pursuing this PhD study. For instance, the researcher knew an owner of one of the major retail supermarkets in Lagos, Nigeria, and where this study was situated. Also, being a lecturer in various UK

Universities, the researcher had one of his Executive MBA students as a manager in one of the big 4 supermarkets in the UK. These initial 2 contacts had to communicate and convince other interested participants before they can participate in this research, but that was after the researcher had convinced the 2 that no information provided (by anyone) will be used against them in any way, as the research is strictly for academic purpose only. They therefore helped to contact and convince other interested participants before the researcher had to approach these other participants for interviews.

5.8: Limitations of the Primary Data Collected

One of the weakness of this research is that the primary data collection only targeted the leaders and not their followers. Yet, the validity of the findings could have been stronger if the responses of these leaders were compared with their followers' perception of their leadership competences. However, as these supermarkets were quite busy during the time of the interview they could not allow the researcher to interview both their leaders and the followers. Instead, they gave the researcher an option of interviewing either the leaders or their followers, but as this study is about leadership competencies the researcher chose to interview the leaders instead of their followers.

5.9: Ethical considerations

“Ethics concern the morality of human conduct. In relation to social research, it refers to the moral deliberation, choice and accountability on the part of researchers throughout the research process” (Mauthner, 2002: 16).

Implied within a study based on the observation of human interaction is a need for a high regard to a robust ethical framework, and the Economic and Social Research Council (2010) has produced detailed guidelines for what it considers to be ethical research. The following points are considered to constitute the heart of such guidance:

1. Research should be designed, reviewed and undertaken to ensure integrity, quality and transparency.
2. Research staff and participants must normally be informed fully about the purpose, methods and intended possible uses of the research, what their participation in the research entails and what risks, if any, are involved.
3. The confidentiality of information supplied by research participants and the anonymity of respondents must be respected.
4. Research participants must take part voluntarily, free from any coercion.
5. Harm to research participants must be avoided in all instances.
6. The independence of research must be clear, and any conflicts of interest or partiality must be explicit (ESRC 2010, p.3).

In relation to the first of these points, the researcher’s supervisors have reviewed the research design frequently. In addition, participants were aware of the nature of the research and full briefings provided not simply for the protagonists but those they worked with (Jones, 2011).

To ensure overall integrity, quality and trustworthiness, this research has therefore, been following the guidelines and procedures of the University of Sunderland's Ethics in Research Policy. However, there are two ethical issues in particular that needed highlighting before the primary research began:

- i) The data provided by the participants may be of a sensitive nature by virtue of the fact it is pertaining to company strategy and competitive advantage. Therefore, the raw data must not get into the public domain;
- ii) A further potential ethical issue, particularly given the scepticism in the literature about the credibility of the HR function in relation to strategy (see, for example, in Tzafrir, 2006; Hernaus, Bach and Vukšić, 2012), could lead to damage the image or reputation of the supermarket(s).

The researcher has therefore, taken the following remedial steps to address the above concerns:

- i) All data has been stored securely, either electronically in computer or in hard copy version in a locked drawer. Furthermore, to ensure that confidentiality is maintained throughout the handling of the data, all the primary data collected were made available only to the researcher and his supervisors. That is, no individual interviewee was allowed to see any response from other participants;
- ii) There has been a balanced and fair reporting of the challenges faced by the respective parties interviewed, as well as the masking of individual and associated organisational identities. To ensure that anonymity was maintained, the names of any participating organisations that were mentioned have only been mentioned because such organisation requested the researcher to do so because they want to share

certain information (with the reading public). Yet, the researcher ensured that the names of every individual participant was concealed. This was done by coding to safeguard both the names of the organisations and the participants.

To summarise the above ethical considerations, the researcher has taken the following actions to ensure the overall ethical considerations in this research:

□ *Informed consent*: All participants were fully aware of the purpose and nature of the research, and they were asked to indicate their willingness to participate by signing an informed consent letter.

□ *Participation*: It has been explained to all participants that they will be under no pressure to participate and could request to stop the interview and leave at any point.

□ *Confidentiality and Anonymity*: While it is recognised that the findings of this study will be a matter of public record, no names and identity of respondents will be publicly available. Besides, all supermarkets were named (where necessary) because the respondents have chosen to allow their organisations' names to be unmasked in those instances.

□ *Ownership and transparency of data*: All participants were given a copy of the interview transcript via email, to verify and approve its contents. They were also provided with the interview guide before the commencement of the interview to highlight if there were any questions that they may not like to respond to.

In synopsis, the researcher has dealt with all the ethical issues concerning data collection and analysis. For instance, the whole research process is set up on maximum honesty. The researcher also ensured that none of the research participants was exposed to any harm or danger during the data collection. For instance, as the primary data collection in Nigeria took place in the month of January, 2015 and that

was when the activities of the dreaded Boko Haram terrorist group were intensified in the Northern part of Nigeria, the primary data collection, therefore, took place in Lagos state which is in the South-Western part of the country which is safe. In addition, commercially sensitive data were avoided completely, coupled with the fact that the researcher has taken absolute measures in anonymising all the respondents and their organisations via coding of their names as well as those of their organisations. The interview transcripts have also been stored in a very safe place, and with a view to completely destroying them once the researcher has successfully defended this thesis via *viva voce*. In addition to these, the participants were all granted permission to withdraw from the interview if and whenever they choose to.

5.10: The comparators:

For comparing HRD interventions and leadership competencies in the UK and Nigerian retail supermarkets, below is the list of the comparators for this study.

Theme 1: Approaches to Leadership Development (ALD)

This theme seeks to find out the learning method applied during leadership development activities of these case study supermarkets.

Theme 2: Fundamental competencies enhanced in Leadership Development programmes (FCLD)

This theme investigates the key leadership competencies that were attempted to be realised by applying the learning method in theme 1.

Theme 3: Assessment of the competencies developed at Leadership Development Programme (ACLD)

This theme seeks to assess the degrees of success of the learning methods applied in theme 1.

Theme 4: Strategic Value of the Leadership Development activities (SVLD)

This theme is a further exploration of whether the learning intervention in theme 1 resulted in transformational change within these organisations, or if the core competencies developed have the capacity of helping the firm win the competition.

Theme 5: Frequency of the Leadership Development activities (FLD)

Theme five seeks to explore the rate that the learning intervention in theme 1 occurs.

Theme 6: Leaders' collaboration with staff in planning and implementing learning and development.

Theme six examines whether these supermarkets integrate strategic orientation, that is, the development of key staff in order to facilitate the implementation of their strategic plans.


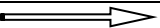
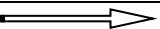
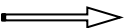

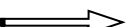
Theme 7: Top Management Support for Leadership Development (TMSLD)

Theme seven explores whether the top managements support or inhibit learning and development in these organisations, and the level of support (if any) from the top management towards their HRD activities.

Theme 8: Barriers to Leadership Development (BLD)

Apart from top management acting as potential barriers to learning, theme eight seeks to examine other potential inhibitors to learning and leadership development in these supermarkets.

Table 5.1: Methodological framework of this research

Ontology 	Genuine Accounts of Leadership Developments in Nigerian and the UK Supermarkets
Epistemology 	Social constructivism and Social constructionism
Methodology 	Discourse analysis
Method (data gathering) 	Qualitative interviews
Method (data analysis) 	Template Analysis (Content Analysis)
Research Design 	Cross-sectional design; Comparative design

5.11: Chapter Summary:

This chapter has discussed the methodology involved in gathering and analyzing the data in this thesis. 5.2 discussed the philosophical assumptions that influence the research approach and strategy adopted in this thesis, including a justification for adopting an interpretivist (inductive research) approach. 5.3 provided a detailed analysis and justification for using the thematic analysis (of the deductive-inductive approach), including a justification for each step involved in the process of analyzing the primary data in this thesis. 5.4 discussed the social constructionism theory and a justification for its application in this thesis. 5.5 focused on the research design and justifications for combining cross-sectional and comparative designs in this thesis. 5.6 justified the adoption of a non-probability sampling for sampling and selecting the research participants. 5.7 discussed the administrative and commercial challenges encountered in the process of collecting the primary data and how these were overcome, while 5.8 discussed the perceived weaknesses with the primary data collected. 5.9 discussed the ethical considerations involved in this thesis and justified how this thesis has fully adhered to both the University of Sunderland's research ethics norms for a PhD research and the Economic and Social Research Council (ESRC, 2010) guidelines for conducting research. Drawing from the literature review section, 5.10 presented the themes for comparing the HRD interventions adopted and the leadership competencies developed in these UK and Nigerian retail supermarkets studied.

Chapter Six

Data Analysis and Findings

6.1: Introduction

This chapter presents and analyses the empirical data gathered through the primary field work. In particular, this section starts by presenting the results on how the 40 participants perceive their individual developments, the competencies acquired and how these competencies have impacted on their organisational transformations. It also seeks to identify which approach to learning (or HRD for that matter) has the most significant and positive impact on organisational transformation. Hence, this study extends the HRD and leadership literature to understand better the effectiveness of learning and development of leaders in organisational transformational change. However, the data analysis strategy employed is a deductive-inductive one and the method of data reduction is based on categorisation, unitisation, and on detecting a relationship from the empirical and secondary data that were collected. And, with the data, the researcher is poised to address the following research questions:

1. What HRD interventions are applied by retail supermarkets in Nigeria and the UK in developing their leaders?
2. How do the competencies of Nigerian retail supermarket leaders compare to their UK counterparts'?
3. What lessons can be drawn from the HRD interventions adopted by the UK retail supermarkets in developing their leadership competencies to help enhance organisational transformations of their Nigerian counterparts?

In synopsis, this comparison (of HRD approaches of these supermarkets) is based on the following key themes of this research:

Theme 1: Approaches to Leadership Development (ALD)

Theme 2: Fundamental Competencies enhanced in Leadership Development programmes (FCLD)

Theme 3: Assessment of the Competencies developed at Leadership Development programmes (ACLD)

Theme 4: Strategic Value of the Leadership Development activities (SVLD)

Theme 5: Frequency of the Leadership Development activities (FLD)

Theme 6: Leaders' collaboration with staff in planning and implementing learning and development.

Theme 7: Top Management Support for Leadership Development (TMSLD)

Theme 8: Barriers to Leadership Development (BLD)

However, the respondents and their organisations have been masked in order that their identities may not be revealed. And, where however, three branches of the same supermarket were all surveyed, these three branches will be coded with alphabets a, b, and c, respectively. For instance, the first manager interviewed in the first Nigerian supermarket studied and who is a male is coded as M01, NS01, M. The second manager interviewed in the third branch of the ninth Nigerian supermarket studied and who is a male is coded as: M02, NS09c, M. While first manager interviewed in the 8th

branch of the first British supermarket studied and who is a female is coded as: M01, BS01h, F.

6.2: Findings

Theme: Approaches to Leadership Development (ALD)

Relevant interview question: What event or circumstance do you think has caused the difference in your leadership skills?

Table 6.1a: The table below presents responses to the above question by leaders of Nigerian supermarkets

Participants	Approaches to Leadership Development (ALD)
M01, NS01, M	The participant said he develops on the job, and while training his subordinates that he improves himself as well.
M01, NS02, M	The participant said he boosts his leadership skills through everyday experience in business transactions and attendance to workshops and seminars which he attends twice a year.
M02, NS02, M	The participant said he develops his leadership skills partly through every day on the job responsibilities and mainly through religious trainings and seminars / workshops at the church which are tied around personal and professional development.
M03, NS02, M	The participant said he learns on the job, through the internet (i.e. Connectivism) and also goes to the company's board of directors for dialogue and knowledge, but that the most significant of the three to

	his development as a leader is the meeting with the board of directors.
M01, NS03, M	The participant said he develops partly through on the job learning and mainly by visiting similar stores to interact with colleagues (that is, Communities of practice), and which he does twice every month.
M01, NS04, M	The participant said he develops through technology (i.e. Connectivism). He also said he develops through monthly in-house training and periodic meetings with colleagues and subordinates within the store. He also argues that by delegating some of his functions to his subordinates that he frees up himself to concentrate on his personal development.
M02, NS04, M	The participant said he develops mainly on the job, and partly through academic modules taught in the University, where he is a current student of Business Management.
M03, NS04, F	She said working with minimal supervision or no supervision (especially on challenging tasks) has been the main cause of her quick development on the job. She also admitted being developed through taught modules in the University, as she is a current student in the University.
M01, NS05, F	The participant said that the academic knowledge gained from modules taught while she studied in the University, experiences gained on the job (because she has been opportune to have much responsibilities and authorities delegated to her by her superior) and knowledge gained from mentoring and coaching by her superior have helped her development as a leader. The participant also said

	she visits similar stores to learn from them (i.e. Communities of practice).
M01, NS06, M	The participant said his regular use of IT (i.e. Connectivism) has been very responsible for his rapid development as a leader.
M02, NS06, M	The participant said he develops via on the job learning.
M03, NS06, M	The participant said he develops partly on the job, and mainly by attendance to trainings and workshops (at times overseas trainings).
M01, NS07, F	The participant said her attendance to trainings and workshops have been helpful for her development as a leader.
M01, NS08, M	The participants said he learns from a South African owned supermarket in Nigeria (i.e. Shoprite). He said he purposely sites his business headquarters close to Shoprite supermarket, and a situation which provides him an opportunity to make regular visits to Shoprite to interact with the managers of Shoprite and see how things are done there (i.e. prototypical learning).
M01, NS09a, M	The participant said he develops through on the job experiences. He also said he has particularly learnt much through accidental or opportunistic events that happen at the work place.
M02, NS09a, M	The participant said he develops through discussions with his subordinates before arriving at critical decisions in business. He argues that he likes listening very well to diverse opinions before

	filtering the opinions to make informed and rational decisions. He also said his leadership abilities have been developing with his age.
M03, NS09a, M	The participant said he develops on the job, particularly, through communication and delegation (i.e. delegating to his subordinates) at work.
M04, NS09a, M	The participant said he develops himself by attending formal training sessions (sometime self-funded sessions).
M01, NS09b, M	The participant said the rapid changes in business environment at the operations level (i.e. on the job) has helped him develop quicker as a leader. He also said he learns much from his subordinates as well.
M02, NS09b, M	The participant said the challenges faced in the business environment (including the magnitude of the task) have helped him develop quicker as a leader.
M03, NS09b, M	The participant said that on the job learning and attendance to trainings and workshops have all helped his development as a leader.
M04, NS09b, F	The participant said she develops herself on the job.
M05, NS09b, F	The participant said that attendant to structured off-the-job-trainings and leadership developmental events have been very instrumental for her development as a leader.

M01, NS09c, M	The participant said he learns and develops through the internet (i.e. connectivism) as well as by attendance to formal training sessions.
M02, NS09c, M	The participant said that on-the-job trainings (by senior colleagues) and structured off-the-job trainings have all helped him to develop as a leader. But that he supplements the trainings with lessons and cases from training manuals.
M03, NS09c, M	The participant said he learns by benchmarking what he do as a leader against what is done by leaders elsewhere. He also said he attends trainings, workshops and seminars.
M04, NS09c, F	The participant said she develops through on the job experiences, particularly, that she has learnt much through accidental or opportunistic events that occur on the job.
M05, NS09c, F	The participant said she develops through on the job experiences.
M06, NS09c, M	The participants said he develops through on the job learning (including learning from his subordinates) and developmental experiences (which include, going out to learn from similar stores, but from stores whose activities are in line with their company's policy) and attendance to class-room-based trainings, workshops and seminars (including some that he attends overseas, but sponsored by the company).

M07, NS09c, M	The participant said that working in a very fast pace business environment has been very instrumental for his development as a leader. That is, he develops on the job.
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Situated learning in real work (Dixon, 1993; Institute of Management, 1994) is the most prevalent approach to developing leaders of indigenous supermarkets in Nigeria. Twenty-two out of the thirty leaders interviewed admit to have either partly or wholly developed through on the job experiences. Eleven out of the thirty said they have developed through personal skills training, conferences / seminars, and MDPs (O'Connor, Mangan and Cullen, 2006). In addition, another three said they develop through taught modules (that are tied around leadership development) in the University, and a condition which also goes to buttress the significance of management development programmes (MDPs) (O'Connor, Mangan and Cullen, 2006) as a leadership development approach. Four persons said they develop through connectivism (Dunaway, 2011; Siemens, 2004). However, two persons each said they develop through communities of practice and executive coaching, whereas one person said he develops through prototypical learning.

Theme: Approaches to Leadership Development (ALD)

Table 6.1b: The table below presents approaches to leadership development in Nigerian supermarkets.

	Factors
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F1	Situated learning in real work and in community (Dixon, 1993; Institute of Management, 1994)
F2	Role-playing as a pedagogy technique (Olusegun, 2004)
F3	Executive coaching (<u>Hagemann</u> and <u>Stroope</u> , 2013; Stokes and Jolly, 2010; Baron and Morin, 2009; Ellinger and Ellinger, 2013)
F4	Learning from best practice HRD examples (Adebanjo, Abbas, and Mann, 2010; Moriarty, 2011, Smith, 2006)
F5	Could vary internationally as it's influenced by culture and societal variables (McLean, Bartlett and Cho, 2003; Posner, 2013; Hofstede et al, 2010; Hofstede, 1980, 2001; Iwowo, 2011; Den Hartog et al., 1999; House et al., 2004).
F6	Andragogical (Badley, 2014; Jeffrey, Hide and Legg, 2010; Knowles, 1990; Moller <i>et al.</i> , 2005; Van der Colff, 2004)
F7	Double-loop learning (Sisaye and Birnberg, 2010)
F8	Communities of practice (Argyris, 1999; Brown, Collins and Duguid, 1989; Lave and Wenger, 1991; Wenger, 1998; Barrett and Oborn, 2010; Oborn and Dawson, 2010a; Oborn, Barrett and Racko, 2013)
F9	Connectivism (Dunaway, 2011; Siemens, 2004)
F10	Zone of Proximal Development (Lapkin, Swain and Psyllakis, 2010; Kuhlthau, 2007)
F11	Personal skills training; conferences/seminars; and MDPs (O'Connor, Mangan and Cullen, 2006)
F12	Prototyping (Hogg and Terry 2000; Hogg 2001; Jones, 2011; Grint 2005b; 2007 and 2009; Kempster, 2009; Cook, 2006; Bandura, 1977, 1986)

F13	Personal reflection (Schoön, 1983, 1987; Kolb, 1984; Jones, 2011; Whyte, 1994 and 2009; Jaworski, 1998; Campbell, 1993; Cammock, 2003)
F14	Storytelling (Campbell, 1993; Jones, 2011; Harris and Barnes, 2006a; Archer, 1995; Porpora, 1989; Gabriel, 1991b; 2008)
F15	Leadership academies (Pollitt, 2014, 2013, 2010, 2006)

Frequencies:

F1	F2	F3	F4	F5	F6	F7	F8	F9	F10	F11	F12	F13	F14	F15
22	0	2	0	0	0	0	2	4	0	14	1	0	0	0

How strongly they feel:

F1	F11	F9	F3	F8	F12
22	14	4	2	2	1

Model:

Approaches to Leadership Development (ALD) = F(F1,F11)
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Theme: Approaches to Leadership Development (ALD)

Table 6.2a: The table below presents responses to the below question by leaders of British supermarkets.

Relevant interview question: What event or circumstance do you think has caused the difference in your leadership skills?

Participants	Approaches to Leadership Development (ALD)
M01, BS01a, M	The participant said he develops through attendance at trainings and workshops. Also, he said he develops through leadership and mentoring module taught at the University, where he is a current student.
M01, BS01b, F	The participant said she develops through attendance at trainings and workshops events organized by the company, and which normally hold at organized and designated training and development centers.
M01, BS01c, M	The participant said he essentially learns on the job and through personal coaching and mentoring by his senior manager who comes around every 2 or 3 weeks to teach him some people management skills. He also said they have a support network of managers who contribute their wide range of experiences to the group's learning (i.e. learning in networked communities).
M01, BS01d, M	The participant said he identifies his leadership skills and capabilities and then helps to develop himself and drive his capabilities though internet learning (i.e. Connectivism).
M01, BS01e, M	The participant said he develops through attendance at courses that help to put him through what he needs to know as a leader, and then periodically he attends refresher courses as well to update his skills and knowledge.

M01, BS01f, M	The participant said he develops through attendance to formal trainings and workshops.
M01, BS01g, F	The participant said she's been developing on the job as well as through a degree course she attended at the University and which was sponsored by the company. She also visits similar stores to interact with senior colleagues (that is communities of practice), which she does once in every three months.
M01, BS01h, F	The participant said she develops through on the job learning, formal trainings and extra trainings to make her develop additional skills (i.e. up-skilling).
M01, BS02, M	The participant said he develops by attending courses either for self-development or mandatory courses.
M02, BS02, M	The participant said by delegating some of his responsibilities and authorities to subordinates it allows him some time to focus on his own personal development, and that he develops himself through extra trainings (such as courses and use of the internet) to make him develop additional skills (i.e. up-skilling).

Unlike the indigenous Nigerian supermarkets who adopt (mostly) on-the-job learning to develop their leaders, the case is the opposite with their British counterparts. For instance, seven out of ten leaders in British supermarkets interviewed said they attend Personal skills training, conferences / seminars, and MDPs (O'Connor, Mangan and

Cullen, 2006) for pursuing their developments, while three out of the ten said they develop through on the job learning (Dixon, 1993; Institute of Management, 1994).

Theme: Approaches to Leadership Development (ALD)

Table 6.2b: The table below presents approaches to leadership development in the British supermarkets studied.

	Factors
F1	Situated learning in real work and in community (Dixon, 1993; Institute of Management, 1994)
F2	Role-playing as a pedagogy technique (Olusegun, 2004)
F3	Executive coaching (Hagemann and Stroope, 2013; Stokes and Jolly, 2010; Baron and Morin, 2009; Ellinger and Ellinger, 2013)
F4	Learning from best practice HRD examples (Adebanjo, Abbas, and Mann, 2010; Moriarty, 2011, Smith, 2006)
F5	Could vary internationally as it's influenced by culture and societal variables (McLean, Bartlett and Cho, 2003; Posner, 2013; Hofstede et al, 2010; Hofstede, 1980, 2001; Iwowo, 2011; Den Hartog et al., 1999; House et al., 2004).
F6	Andragogical (Badley, 2014; Jeffrey, Hide and Legg, 2010; Knowles, 1990; Moller <i>et al.</i> , 2005; Van der Colff, 2004)
F7	Double-loop learning (Sisaye and Birnberg, 2010)
F8	Communities of practice (Argyris, 1999; Brown, Collins and Duguid, 1989; Lave and Wenger, 1991; Wenger, 1998; Barrett and Oborn, 2010; Oborn and Dawson, 2010a; Oborn, Barrett and Racko, 2013)

F9	Connectivism (Dunaway, 2011; Siemens, 2004)
F10	Zone of Proximal Development (Lapkin, Swain and Psyllakis, 2010; Kuhlthau, 2007)
F11	Personal skills training; conferences/seminars; and MDPs (O'Connor, Mangan and Cullen, 2006)
F12	Prototyping (Hogg and Terry 2000; Hogg 2001; Jones, 2011; Grint 2005b; 2007 and 2009; Kempster, 2009; Cook, 2006; Bandura, 1977, 1986)
F13	Personal reflection (Schoen, 1983, 1987; Kolb, 1984; Jones, 2011; Whyte, 1994 and 2009; Jaworski, 1998; Campbell, 1993; Cammock, 2003)
F14	Storytelling (Campbell, 1993; Jones, 2011; Harris and Barnes, 2006a; Archer, 1995; Porpora, 1989; Gabriel, 1991b; 2008)
F15	Leadership academies (Pollitt, 2014, 2013, 2010, 2006)

Frequencies:

F1	F2	F3	F4	F5	F6	F7	F8	F9	F10	F11	F12	F13	F14	F15
3	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	7	0	0	0	0

How strongly they feel:

F11	F1
7	3

Model:

Approaches to Leadership Development (ALD) = F(F11)

Theme: Fundamental Competencies enhanced in Leadership Development programmes (FCLD)

Table 6.3a: The table below presents responses to the below question by leaders of Nigerian supermarkets.

Relevant interview question: How important do you think that this event or circumstance has been in your development as a leader?

Participants	Fundamental Competencies enhanced in Leadership Development programmes (FCLD)
M01, NS01, M	The participant said he has been gaining abundant on the job knowledge and experiences and transferable skills. The participant also said that such new skills and abilities help him in creating vision, leading his teams, and driving for results.
M01, NS02, M	The participant said he has gained much knowledge that has helped his ability to lead his team successfully.
M02, NS02, M	The participant said he has gained tremendous knowledge in areas such as team leading, sales forecasting.

M03, NS02, M	The participant said he has learnt how to create visions, lead his teams, drive for results, and manage the performance of the business.
M01, NS03, M	The participant said by visiting similar stores and exchanging ideas with his colleagues that he learns new and cognitive processes which help his reflective action-taking.
M01, NS04, M	The participant said his relationships with customers and subordinates have improved following the in-house trainings and periodic meetings with colleagues.
M02, NS04, M	The participant said his academic training he gains from taught modules in the University has taught him better ways of managing people and leading teams.
M03, NS04, F	The participant said being granted autonomy on her job has helped her to develop the ability to drive for results, even while working under pressure.
M01, NS05, F	The participant said she has improved her communication skills, her confidence while talking to people and her interpersonal relationships with customers and clients.
M01, NS06, M	The participant said the internet has taught him how to check some irregularities in business, loopholes in business, and to check the stock levels and in balancing of account.
M02, NS06, M	The participant said his on the job experiences have taught him how to lead his team better and manage their performances.

M03, NS06, M	The participant said he has learnt how to be creative, how to lead his teams, and how to drive for results.
M01, NS07, F	The participant said her learning has really generated a lot of positive results and differences in her subordinates as she is their role model.
M01, NS08, M	The participant said that prototypical learning has helped him to think quicker and improve his ability to create visions, unlike before.
M01, NS09a, M	The participant who is an admin manager of the branch said he has sharpened his leadership skills in the areas of risks takings and decision makings, unlike what they used to be.
M02, NS09a, M	The participant said he has learnt how to be considerate of the views of his subordinates and how to 'filter' information before taking certain decisions at work, unlike before.
M03, NS09a, M	The participant said he has improved his delegation and communication skills.
M04, NS09a, M	The participant who is also a sales manager for the branch said the formal training sessions that he attends have improved his interpersonal relationships with the customers and colleagues.
M01, NS09b, M	The participant said by developing his subordinates that he develops his abilities of creating vision and leading his teams.

M02, NS09b, M	As the sales manager of the branch, the participant said that the challenging work environment has helped to develop his skills for managing more staff and meeting achievable sales target.
M03, NS09b, M	The participant said the trainings and on-the-job experiences have all been very effective for his developing novel cognitive processes as a leader.
M04, NS09b, F	As a sales manager, the participant said she has developed interpersonal relationships skills and learnt how to lead her team more effectively.
M05, NS09b, F	The participant who is one of the sales managers of the branch said she has improved her interpersonal relationships with the customers and colleagues, in spite of their personality differences.
M01, NS09c, M	The participant said he has learnt how to motivate and satisfy his staff.
M02, NS09c, M	As a designate branch manager to head a bigger branch to be opened soon, the participant said he has learnt how to merchandize the groceries (including non-food and food merchandizing), he has also been trained on receiving, has learnt HRM skills and is currently working on stock-room management in Shoprite.
M03, NS09c, M	The participant said he has learnt time-management skills, and how to manage his own performance and those of his teams to drive for results.

M04, NS09c, F	The participant said she has improved her interpersonal relationships with her staff and customers and her ability to lead her team more effectively.
M05, NS09c, F	The participant said that 'today' she has learnt how to make herself approachable as a leader, unlike before. She said originally she was too strict and an autocratic leader, but following her leadership learning and development that she is now approachable.
M06, NS09c, M	The participant who is the branch manager of the headquarters of the organisation in Nigeria said his learning and developments have been influencing his subordinates' behaviours because they see him as their role model.
M07, NS09c, M	The participant said his subsequent self-appraisals tells him that he has acquired the resultant managerial capabilities that he needs to operate successfully as a manager in a big retail supermarket like theirs.

Team leading, performance management skills, maintaining good interpersonal relationships, creating visions (Hagemann and Stroope, 2013), innovative reasoning (Garavan et al., 2002) and reflective action taking (Yeo and Gold, 2010) are the fundamental competencies developed in leadership development programmes in Nigerian supermarkets. Thirteen out of the thirty participants said they've developed their team-leading skills. Eight persons each said they have improved their abilities to manage their teams' performances and maintain interpersonal relationships with people, while five persons each said they've improved their abilities to create visions, to undertake new or novel cognitive processes and to take reflective actions.

Theme: Fundamental Competencies enhanced in Leadership Development programmes (FCLD)

Table 6.3b: The table below presents the Fundamental Competencies enhanced in Leadership Development programmes in Nigerian supermarkets.

	Factors
F1	Creating vision (Hagemann and Stroope, 2013; Kouzes and Posner, 1987)
F2	Leading teams (Hagemann and Stroope, 2013; Kouzes and Posner, 1987)
F3	Driving for results (Hagemann and Stroope, 2013; Kouzes and Posner, 1987)
F4	Managing performance (Hagemann and Stroope, 2013; Kouzes and Posner, 1987)
F5	New or novel cognitive processes (Garavan et al., 2002)
F6	Reflective action-taking (Yeo and Gold, 2010; Kolb, 1984; McLeod, 2013)
F7	Maintaining good interpersonal relationships (Hagemann and Stroope, 2013; Kouzes and Posner, 1987)

Frequencies:

F1	F2	F3	F4	F5	F6	F7
5	13	1	8	5	5	8

How strongly they feel:

F2	F4	F7	F1	F5	F6	F3
13	8	8	5	5	5	1

Model:

Fundamental Competencies enhanced in Leadership Development programmes (FCLD) = F(F2,F4,F7,F1,F5,F6)

Theme: Fundamental Competencies enhanced in Leadership Development programmes (FCLD)

Table 6.4a: The table below presents responses to the below question by leaders of British supermarkets.

Relevant interview question: How important do you think that this event or circumstance has been in your development as a leader?

Participants	Fundamental Competencies enhanced in Leadership Development programmes (FCLD)
M01, BS01a, M	The participant said attending formal trainings and workshops and taught modules at the University has made him to think about things a lot more differently. He said he now thinks deeper before taking actions.
M01, BS01b, F	The participant said she has learnt critical skills in leadership, such as, collaboration skills and empathy skills. She also said she has learnt the requirements to move the business forward in the current

	climate, and which she said is through reflective action taking and novel ideas which leads her team to success.
M01, BS01c, M	The participant said he has learnt how to lead his team and move the business forward.
M01, BS01d, M	He said he has been identifying his team members' individual leadership skills and driving their capabilities. He also said he now thinks deeper to reflective on past lessons before taking actions.
M01, BS01e, M	The participant said he has learnt how to lead his team more effectively by reflecting on their past performances and reflecting on the events surrounding their entire business environment as a whole in order for the team to learn lessons where needed.
M01, BS01f, M	The participant said he has learnt how to identify change, and has learnt that every new shop or environment he goes requires a different leadership style. He therefore said he has learnt that he needs to adapt to such different business environments through deeper thinking and reflective actions in order to move the business forward.
M01, BS01g, F	The participant said she has learnt how to involve her staff in both her decision makings and action takings. The participant also said she has learnt how to manage her performance and those of her teams and drive for result. She also said she now thinks deeper and reflects on past experiences before taking actions.
M01, BS01h, F	The participant said she has learnt how to confront the changes in the company's policies with new learning. She also said she learns

	by reflecting on previous activities and events in order to know where and how to improve.
M01, BS02, M	The participant said he has recognized that the market right now is very difficult, as shoppers are making very cute choices regarding their shopping. He said he has learnt that shoppers have become very sensitive about where, when and what they shop unlike in five years ago.
M02, BS02, M	The participant said he has learnt how to delegate some of his responsibilities and authorities to his subordinates. He also argues that when he delegates his authorities and responsibilities to his subordinates that it creates time for him to upskill himself.

Reflective action-taking (Yeo and Gold, 2010) and team-leading skills (Hagemann and Stroope, 2013) are the main competencies developed in leadership development programmes in British supermarkets studied. Eight out of ten participants admitted to have developed their reflective action-taking skills, seven interviewees said they have improved their team-leading skills following their engagements in leadership development programmes, while one person said she has learnt how to manage her team's performance better.

Theme: Fundamental Competencies enhanced in Leadership Development programmes (FCLD)

Table 6.4b: The table below presents fundamental competencies enhanced in Leadership Development programmes (FCLD) in British supermarkets studied.

	Factors
F1	Creating vision (Hagemann and Stroope, 2013; Kouzes and Posner, 1987)
F2	Leading teams (Hagemann and Stroope, 2013; Kouzes and Posner, 1987)
F3	Driving for results (Hagemann and Stroope, 2013; Kouzes and Posner, 1987)
F4	Managing performance (Hagemann and Stroope, 2013; Kouzes and Posner, 1987)
F5	New or novel cognitive processes (Garavan et al., 2002)
F6	Reflective action-taking (Yeo and Gold, 2010; Kolb, 1984; McLeod, 2013)
F7	Maintaining good interpersonal relationships (Hagemann and Stroope, 2013; Kouzes and Posner, 1987)

Frequencies:

F1	F2	F3	F4	F5	F6	F7
0	7	0	1	0	8	0

How strongly they feel:

F6	F2	F4
8	7	1

Model:

Fundamental Competencies enhanced in Leadership Development programmes
(FCLD) = F(F6, F2)

Theme: Assessment of the Competencies developed at Leadership Development Programme (ACLD)

Table 6.5a: The table below presents responses to the below question by leaders of Nigerian supermarkets.

Relevant interview question: How important do you think that this event or circumstance has been in your development as a leader?

Participants	Assessment of Competencies developed at Leadership Development Programme (ACLD)
M01, NS01, M	The participant said he has developed some skills which have long-term impact on the business.
M01, NS02, M	The participant said he has developed some skills which are transferable to the business.
M02, NS02, M	The participant said the on the job learning and religious trainings at the church have had immense impact on his ability to face his challenges and responsibilities at work.

M03, NS02, M	The participant said the company's success story, improvements in his turnover and feedback from customers and clients tells him he's been doing better with his leadership skills.
M01, NS03, M	The participant said the knowledge gained from interaction with like-minded colleagues helps to improve his leadership skills and his ability to manage his own business better.
M01, NS04, M	The participant said there has been tremendous improvement on the performance of the business following the in-house trainings and periodic meetings he attends.
M02, NS04, M	The participant said the skills learnt from academic modules taught in the University has made him to realize that individual differences in people demands that a leader should have different expectations from different people.
M03, NS04, F	The participant said as a consequence of being granted an autonomy on her job that she has now developed the resultant managerial capabilities that she needs as an admin officer.
M01, NS05, F	The participant said following the leadership learning and development she has been having that the improvements in her communication skills, self-confidence and her interpersonal relationships have made people to be impressed with her now, unlike before.
M01, NS06, M	The participant said that learning from the internet has helped to enhance his resultant managerial capabilities, and which have long-term impact on their business.

M02, NS06, M	The participant said he has improved his communications and his interpersonal relationships both with his team and with clients as well.
M03, NS06, M	The participant said he has learnt how to ask questions and get experience from others (i.e. including from his subordinates).
M01, NS07, F	The participant who said she has become a role model to her subordinates as they've been observing her do things differently, also said she has been observing that her subordinates have now been approaching their own tasks differently as well.
M01, NS08, M	The participant said he has improved his resultant managerial capabilities which have long-term impact on his business.
M01, NS09a, M	The participant said the accidental and opportunistic events at work have exposed him to novel cognitive processes which have helped to develop his resultant managerial capabilities.
M02, NS09a, M	The participant said he has been gaining more respect from his subordinates following his newly found skills. He also said his subordinates feel more important and recognized while working with him now, unlike before.
M03, NS09a, M	The participant said he has achieved resultant managerial capabilities (in areas such as team-leading and communication) which have long-term impact on the business.
M04, NS09a, M	The participant said he has learnt how to improve his customers' satisfaction.

M01, NS09b, M	The participant's reaction shows that by working with and through his subordinates that he has developed the resultant managerial capabilities that he needs as a branch manager.
M02, NS09b, M	The participant said he now understands the organisational dynamics and the strategic perspective of the organisation. He also said the challenging work environment he works has helped him to now have a different and broader view of leadership.
M03, NS09b, M	The participant's reaction shows that the extra trainings that he receives as a manager and the regular on-the-job experiences are having long-term impact on his performance on the business.
M04, NS09b, F	The participant said she has learnt how to be considerate to the views of her subordinates at work.
M05, NS09b, F	The participant said she has learnt how to lead her team more effectively, to drive for results.
M01, NS09c, M	The participant said that motivating and satisfying his staff makes them drive for results and which makes him achieve his personal satisfaction.
M02, NS09c, M	The participant's reaction reveals he is now more time-conscious than ever before. He also said he has widened his scope in local and international retailing.
M03, NS09c, M	The participant said he has learnt to be proactive and to drive for higher performance.

M04, NS09c, F	The participant said her subordinates can now share their views with her freely without fear of being reprimanded, unlike what it used to be.
M05, NS09c, F	The participant said her leadership learning and development experience has taught her to rediscover some aspects of her personal life (such as her temperament) and to work on it.
M06, NS09c, M	The participant said his trainings and developments have been impacting on his subordinates so much, because his subordinates have been watching and observing him do things differently following the trainings and developments that he receives. He said such observations and experiences have resulted in his subordinates approaching their tasks differently.
M07, NS09c, M	The participant said that following the on-the-job experiences that he has received, that he has achieved personal satisfaction, skill-growth, knowledge and insights.

The fundamental competencies developed by leaders of Nigerian supermarkets manifest through the leaders' reaction, subsequent performance appraisal, and Long-term impact on their businesses (Kirkpatrick, 1967, 1971), and through intra-organisational features (e.g. HRD strategies), and resultant managerial capabilities (Mabey, 2002). For instance, all the thirty participants said they have developed some competencies following their engagement in leadership development programmes. While twenty-two leaders said they have witnessed improvements in their managerial capabilities, twenty-one out of the thirty said they have witnessed improved

performances (either on their individual performances or on those of their subordinates whom they have trained) in their work places following their engagement in leadership development activities. And, five out of the thirty participants said such improvements are having long-term impacts on their businesses.

Theme: Assessment of the Competencies developed at Leadership Development Programme (ACLD)

Table 6.5b: The table below presents the ways for assessing the competencies developed at Leadership Development Programme in Nigerian supermarkets

	Factors
F1	The trainees' reaction (Kirkpatrick, 1967, 1971)
F2	Follow-up questionnaire or focus group (Kirkpatrick, 1967, 1971)
F3	Subsequent performance appraisal (Kirkpatrick, 1967, 1971)
F4	Long-term impact on business (Kirkpatrick, 1967, 1971)
F5	Benefits versus cost (Bee and Bee, 1994)
F6	Contextualisation (depending on sector, size etc.) (Mabey, 2002)
F7	Intra-organisational features (e.g. HRD strategies) (Mabey, 2002)
F8	Resultant managerial capabilities (Mabey, 2002)

Frequencies:

F1	F2	F3	F4	F5	F6	F7	F8
30	0	21	5	0	0	0	22

How strongly they feel:

F1	F8	F3	F4
30	22	21	5

Model:

Assessment of Competencies developed at Leadership Development Programme (ACLD) = F(F1, F8, F3, F4)

Theme: Assessment of the Competencies developed at Leadership Development Programme (ACLD)

Table 6.6a: The table below presents responses to the below question by leaders of British supermarkets.

Relevant interview question: How important do you think that this event or circumstance has been in your development as a leader?

Participants	Assessment of Competencies developed at Leadership Development Programme (ACLD)
M01, BS01a, M	The participant said following the training and development he has been receiving, that where his jobs are task oriented, that he makes sure his stores are up to the standard and everything are at their right places.

M01, BS01b, F	She said the skills she has acquired makes her look at herself and her own leadership skills and styles and go back and ask herself, 'what are my doing that can move this business forward, are my carrying the team along with me to be able to do that with me?'
M01, BS01c, M	The participant said by learning from his superiors that he has learnt how to learn quicker and has also improved his ability to teach his subordinates as well.
M01, BS01d, M	The participant said he has learnt that the capability of the team including those of the store manager has to move with the business.
M01, BS01e, M	The participant said he has improved his interpersonal interactions with both customers and colleagues.
M01, BS01f, M	The participant said he has learnt that he first needs to identify the customers in every new environment that he finds himself in, and he must know who they are and what their needs are first.
M01, BS01g, F	The participant said that employee involvement motivates employees because they feel recognized and challenged. The participant also said she has learnt how to get used to her role as a leader, how to change the way she works and thinks.
M01, BS01h, F	The participant said as a result of her trainings and development that she has improved her resultant managerial capabilities which have long-term impact on the business.
M01, BS02, M	The participant said he has learnt that shoppers, unlike before, are now generally not seen carrying big baskets about, because they

	are shopping more often. So he said the courses he has been attending have made him to be evolving with the consumers so he would be heading in the same direction with the consumers.
M02, BS02, M	The participant said that delegating some of his responsibilities and authorities to his subordinates has improved their resultant managerial capabilities.

The fundamental competencies developed by leaders of British supermarkets manifest through the trainees' reaction, subsequent performance appraisal, and Long-term impact on business (Kirkpatrick, 1967, 1971), and through intra-organisational features (e.g. HRD strategies), and resultant managerial capabilities (Mabey, (2002). Ten out of ten leaders of British supermarkets interviewed said they have witnessed improved managerial capabilities following their engagement in leadership learning and development, i.e. through subsequent self-performance-appraisals.

Theme: Assessment of the Competencies developed at Leadership Development Programme (ACLD)

Table 6.6b: The table below presents the ways for assessing the skills developed at Leadership Development Programme in British supermarkets

	Factors
F1	The trainees' reaction (Kirkpatrick, 1967, 1971)
F2	Follow-up questionnaire or focus group (Kirkpatrick, 1967, 1971)
F3	Subsequent performance appraisal (Kirkpatrick, 1967, 1971)

F4	Long-term impact on business (Kirkpatrick, 1967, 1971)
F5	Benefits versus cost (Bee and Bee, 1994)
F6	Contextualisation (depending on sector, size etc.) (Mabey, 2002)
F7	Intra-organisational features (e.g. HRD strategies) (Mabey, 2002)
F8	Resultant managerial capabilities (Mabey, 2002)

Frequencies:

F1	F2	F3	F4	F5	F6	F7	F8
10	0	10	3	0	0	2	10

How strongly they feel:

F1	F3	F8	F4	F7
10	10	10	3	2

Model:

Assessment of Competencies developed at Leadership Development Programme
(ACLD) = F(F1, F3, F8)

Theme: Strategic Value of the Leadership Development activities (SVLD)

Table 6.7a: The table below presents responses to the below question by leaders of Nigerian supermarkets.

Relevant interview question: How important do you think that this event or circumstance has been in your development as a leader?

Participants	Strategic Value of the Leadership Development activities (SVLD)
M01, NS01, M	The participant revealed he has achieved personal satisfaction, skill-growth, knowledge and insights which have equipped him to contribute at higher level.
M01, NS02, M	The participant said the knowledge gained from the trainings has helped him to understand the strategic perspective of the business and the organisational dynamics.
M02, NS02, M	The participant said the trainings have equipped him with the ability to perform reflective action-taking.
M03, NS02, M	The participant said he has achieved personal satisfaction, skill-growth, knowledge and insights following the learning and developments he has been receiving.
M01, NS03, M	The participant said the knowledge he gains by interacting with his colleagues (i.e. communities of practice) helps his business to drive for results.
M01, NS04, M	The participant said the trainings have helped to ensure the development of a continuous learning (that is focused on organizational growth and productivity and customer satisfaction) and leadership culture (with a focus on skill-growth) in the organization.

M02, NS04, M	The participant said the experiences learnt from taught modules in the University has equipped him with skill-growth, knowledge and insights which have prepared him to contribute at higher levels.
M03, NS04, F	The participant said due to an autonomy that she has been granted on her job, that she has achieved personal satisfaction, developed a culture of continuous learning, and that she now understands the strategic perspective of their organisation as well as the organizational dynamics.
M01, NS05, F	The participant said she now has personal satisfaction, skill-growth, knowledge and insights which have prepared her to contribute at higher levels, and that it is a source of competitive advantage for the business.
M01, NS06, M	The participant said that learning from the internet has helped him to achieve organisational growth and productivity and in gaining competitive advantage in business.
M02, NS06, M	The participant said he has achieved personal satisfaction, skill-growth, knowledge and insights.
M03, NS06, M	The participant said he has improved his personal satisfaction, achieved skill-growth, knowledge and insights which provide competitive advantage for his business.
M01, NS07, F	The participant said that role-modelling doesn't only improve her self-belief, self-worth and respect from her subordinates, but that at the same time it helps to sustain continuous learning and leadership culture in the entire organization.

M01, NS08, M	The participant said he has gained popularity, personal satisfaction, skill-growth, knowledge and insights which provide unique competitive advantage for his business.
M01, NS09a, M	The participant said following the on the job developments he has been receiving, that he has now honed his skills, knowledge and insights which have resulted in his ability to contribute at higher levels.
M02, NS09a, M	The participant said the on the job learning and developments has improved his interpersonal relationships and communications with his subordinates.
M03, NS09a, M	The participant said he has learnt how to empower employees. He also argued that by delegating some of his functions to his subordinates that he frees up himself to concentrate on his personal development.
M04, NS09a, M	The participant said that as the trainings are tied to the strategic business imperative, that he has gained a broader view of the strategic perspective of the organisation as well as the organisational dynamics. He also said he has gained the broader view of their business as a whole.
M01, NS09b, M	The participant said he learns and develops by developing others (i.e. his subordinates).
M02, NS09b, M	The participant said the size of the business (including the volume of staff to manage, the busy nature of the business, especially at

	operations level) has prepared him with the ability to contribute at higher levels.
M03, NS09b, M	The participant said prior to the trainings that he was a novice in the retail business, but because the trainings are tied to the strategic business imperative in the retail sector, that he has now developed personal satisfaction, skill-growth, knowledge and insights needed to thrive in his managerial position.
M04, NS09b, F	The participant said the trainings have built her self-confidence as a leader.
M05, NS09b, F	The participant said she has improved her skills, knowledge and insights which have now prepared her to contribute at higher levels.
M01, NS09c, M	The participant said that motivating and satisfying his staff makes them attain personal satisfaction, skill-growth, organisational growth and productivity.
M02, NS09c, M	The participant said the on the job learning and developments has honed his skills, knowledge and insights which have now prepared him to contribute at higher levels.
M03, NS09c, M	The participant said he has now honed his skills, knowledge and insights which have prepared him in readiness to contribute at higher levels.
M04, NS09c, F	The participant said her subordinates now feel motivated to contribute their innovative ideas to the decision making processes

	of the organization, and a situation which helps to improve organisational growth and productivity.
M05, NS09c, F	The participant said that following her newly found skills, knowledge and insight, that she now has the ability to contribute at higher level.
M06, NS09c, M	The participant said that role-modelling improves his self-belief, self-worth and respect from his subordinates. He also said that it helps in the development of a continuous learning and leadership culture in the organisation.
M07, NS09c, M	The participant said he is confident that he is now prepared to contribute at higher levels.

The strategic value of leadership development programmes in Nigerian supermarkets are manifest (mainly) through personal satisfaction, skill-growth, knowledge and insights of the trainees (Mumford, 1993) and the trainees' abilities to contribute at higher levels (Yeo and Gold, 2010) following their engagement in the activities. For instance, twenty-four participants said they have achieved personal satisfaction, skill-growth, knowledge and insights, while eleven out of the thirty participants said they have been able to contribute at higher levels, following their engagement in leadership developmental activities.

Theme: Strategic Value of the Leadership Development activities (SVLD)

Table 6.7b: The table below presents the strategic value of leadership development activities in Nigerian supermarkets

	Factors
F1	Organisational growth and productivity (Albawardy, 2010; Anderson, 2007; Garavan 2007; Goss, 1997)
F2	Gaining competitive advantage (Luoma, 2000)
F3	Should be tied to strategic business imperative (Tichy, 1997; Poole and Jenkins, 1996; Delbridge and Lowe, 1997; Brown and Posner, 2001)
F4	Development of a continuous learning and leadership culture in the organization (O'Toole, 2001; Ulrich and Smallwood, 2003)
F5	Personal satisfaction, skill-growth, knowledge and insights (Mumford, 1993; Beechler and Javidan, 2007)
F6	Ability to contribute at higher level (Yeo and Gold, 2010; Beechler and Javidan, 2007)
F7	Create a talent pool of managers (Pollitt, 2006)
F8	To understand the strategic perspective of the organization (Pollitt, 2006; Beechler and Javidan, 2007)
F9	To understand the organisational dynamics (Pollitt, 2006)

Frequencies:

F1	F2	F3	F4	F5	F6	F7	F8	F9
0	0	0	0	24	11	0	0	0

How strongly they feel:

F5	F6
24	11

Model:

Strategic Value of the Leadership Development activities (SVLD) = F(F5,F6)
--

Theme: Strategic Value of the Leadership Development activities (SVLD)

Table 6.8a: The table below presents responses to the below question by leaders of British supermarkets.

Relevant interview question: How important do you think that this event or circumstance has been in your development as a leader?

Participants	Strategic Value of the Leadership Development activities (SVLD)
M01, BS01a, M	The participant said the skills developed following his attendance to formal trainings and developments makes him to think of the bigger picture of the business instead of just focusing on his tasks.
M01, BS01b, F	The participant said the skills acquired through the trainings and development makes her to move the business forward in the current business climate.
M01, BS01c, M	The participant said he has learnt new ideas about how to face bigger challenges at work and in life generally.

M01, BS01d, M	The participant said he has made his team members to be able to carry out their routines even in his absence.
M01, BS01e, M	The participant said he has improved his chances of and ability to contributing at higher levels.
M01, BS01f, M	The participant said his trainings and developments have enhanced his ability to contribute at higher levels.
M01, BS01g, F	The participant said she has developed the resultant managerial capabilities that have prepared her to contribute at higher levels.
M01, BS01h, F	The participant said she has achieved personal satisfaction, skill-growth, knowledge and insights.
M01, BS02, M	The participant said his attendance to courses, trainings and seminars have helped him to be growing with the business. He said he has learnt the vision to grow their sales over the next two years.
M02, BS02, M	The participant said that delegation of his authorities and responsibilities to subordinates has helped to enhance the organisational growth and productivity in their business.

The strategic value of leadership development programmes in British supermarkets manifest (mainly) through the trainees' abilities to contribute at higher levels (Yeo and Gold, 2010). For instance, seven out of ten interviewed said they are confident they

are now able to contribute at higher levels following their engagement in leadership developmental activities. Eight of the participants (i.e. the managers from Tesco) also mentioned the options programme of their organization (see, for example, **Table 6.16a**), and which is basically a leadership development pathway for developing managers. They argue the options programme offers an opportunity to identify the strongest members of their teams (i.e. in terms of their performances) and recommend such employees to partake in the options programme so they would be trained to become team leaders and duty managers, and from there they can walk their ways up the ladder to become store managers. This strategy, as argued by Pollitt indeed helps to ensure that the supermarket possesses a readily identified and trained pool of talented leaders who could be promoted to support the firm's ambitious growth agenda (Pollitt, 2014, 2013, 2010, 2006).

Theme: Strategic Value of the Leadership Development activities (SVLD)

Table 6.8b: The table below presents the strategic value of leadership development activities in British supermarkets

	Factors
F1	Organisational growth and productivity (Albawardy, 2010; Anderson, 2007; Garavan 2007; Goss, 1997)
F2	Gaining competitive advantage (Luoma, 2000)
F3	Should be tied to strategic business imperative (Tichy, 1997; Poole and Jenkins, 1996; Delbridge and Lowe, 1997; Brown and Posner, 2001)
F4	Development of a continuous learning and leadership culture in the organization (O'Toole, 2001; Ulrich and Smallwood, 2003)

F5	Personal satisfaction, skill-growth, knowledge and insights (Mumford, 1993; Beechler and Javidan, 2007)
F6	Ability to contribute at higher level (Yeo and Gold, 2010; Beechler and Javidan, 2007)
F7	Create a talent pool of managers (Pollitt, 2006)
F8	To understand the strategic perspective of the organization (Pollitt, 2006; Beechler and Javidan, 2007)
F9	To understand the organisational dynamics (Pollitt, 2006)

Frequencies:

F1	F2	F3	F4	F5	F6	F7	F8	F9
0	0	0	0	0	7	8	0	0

How strongly they feel:

F7	F6
8	7

Model:

Strategic Value of the Leadership Development activities (SVLD) = F(F7,F6)
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Theme: Frequency of the Leadership Development activities (FLD)

Table 6.9a: The table below presents responses to the below question by leaders of Nigerian supermarkets.

Relevant interview question: How often does this training (event or circumstance) occur?

Participants	Frequency of the Leadership Development activities (FLD)
M01, NS01, M	The participant said he learns every day on the job.
M01, NS02, M	The participant said he learns every day on the job, and attends workshops and seminars that are organized by management consultants, twice a year.
M02, NS02, M	The participant said he develops every day at work and in the church.
M03, NS02, M	The participant said he learns every day.
M01, NS03, M	The participant said he learns every day on the job, and visits similar stores to exchange ideas and gain extra knowledge from colleagues, at least, twice in a month.
M01, NS04, M	The participant said staff training is done once every month, while the administrative staff have extra training which is done once every 2 months.

M02, M	NS04,	The participant said he learns from the University very often. That is, whenever the academic sessions are on.
M03, F	NS04,	The participant said she learns every day on the job.
M01, F	NS05,	The participant said she learns regularly.
M01, M	NS06,	The participant said he learns every day.
M02, M	NS06,	The participant said he learns every day.
M03, M	NS06,	The participant said he attends leadership development trainings and workshops in Nigeria every quarterly, and attends leadership development training outside the country once in a year.
M01, F	NS07,	The participant said she attends seminars / workshops / trainings every quarterly.
M01, M	NS08,	The participant said he learns every day, and he mostly learns from where he feels he has failed.

M01, NS09a, M	The participant said his development is daily, and at work.
M02, NS09a, M	The participant said his learning and development is on a daily basis.
M03, NS09a, M	The participant said he develops everyday on the job.
M04, NS09a, M	The participant said he attends trainings every quarterly.
M01, NS09b, M	The participant said he learns everyday on the job.
M02, NS09b, M	The participant said he learns and develops everyday on the job.
M03, NS09b, M	The participant said he learns and develops everyday on the job and attends trainings and workshops quarterly.
M04, NS09b, F	The participant said she learns every day on the job.

M05, NS09b, F	The participant said she attends off-the-job trainings twice in a year.
M01, NS09c, M	The participant said he learns everyday through the internet (either through his mobile phone or personal laptop) but that he funds the cost of the internet learning himself.
M02, NS09c, M	The participant said he learns and develops every day.
M03, NS09c, M	The participant said his learning and development occurs regularly, that there is no specific time.
M04, NS09c, F	The participant said she learns every day on the job.
M05, NS09c, F	The participant said she learns every day and on different scenarios.
M06, NS09c, M	The participant said he learns every day.
M07, NS09c, M	The participant said he learns and develops every day.

Not surprising though, as the dominant approach to leadership development in Nigerian supermarkets is on-the-job learning, the leaders learn every day at work. Twenty-three out of the thirty participants said they learn every day, and a learning approach which Dodds and Verest (2002) argue has the potentials of keeping pace with change.

Theme: Frequency of the Leadership Development activities (FLD)

Table 6.9b: The table below shows the Frequency of Leadership Development activities (FLD) in the Nigerian supermarkets studied.

	Factors
F1	Should keep pace with change (Dodds and Verest, 2002)

Frequencies:

F1
23

How strongly they feel:

F1
23

Model:

Frequency of the Leadership Development activities (FLD) = F(F1)
--

Theme: Frequency of the Leadership Development activities (FLD)

Table 6.10a: The table below presents responses to the below question by leaders of British supermarkets.

Relevant interview question: How often does this training (event or circumstance) occur?

Participants	Frequency of the Leadership Development activities (FLD)
M01, BS01a, M	The participant said he attends trainings and workshops every six months, and attends coaching in-store on a regular basis, such as once in a month when the operations manager comes in and spends some time with him to coach him and develop his leadership skills.
M01, BS01b, F	The participant said she learns quite often because she has realized she has to grow at a fast pace to be able to move herself forward.
M01, BS01c, M	The participant said he learns from his superior at least once a week on the phone, also during his superior's store-visits every two to three weeks. He also said they have a support network of other managers who have various experiences to contribute to the group's learning.
M01, BS01d, M	The participant said he identifies team members' leadership skills and drives their capabilities on continuous basis.

M01, BS01e, M	The participant said he developed through the FastTrack, has refresher courses every two years and learns every day on job as well.
M01, BS01f, M	The participant said depending on what comes up or what has been rolled out, that he attends trainings and workshop between twice and four times yearly.
M01, BS01g, F	The participant said she learns every day.
M01, BS01h, F	The participant said she learns every day on the job and attends formal trainings, workshops and seminars about twice every year.
M01, BS02, M	The participant said they do two optional training and developmental course a year, then a mandatory course as well. He said they have food colleges as well as specific colleges. They also do in-house courses.
M02, BS02, M	The participant said he delegates his authority and responsibilities on daily basis and that the whole team also learns on daily basis because rapid changes come up in retailing from day to day so they can be at alert to face the challenges.

The participants from British supermarkets studied have quite a different response to the frequency of occurrence of their learning and developmental experiences compared to their Nigerian counterparts. Four out of ten said they learn every day, while the other six said the rate of their learning varies significantly from one week to

six monthly. Though Jones (2011) has argued that leadership development programmes occur over a specified period of time, usually weeks or months, their impact may not become fully apparent for months or years following the initial experience, as participants experiment with new ideas and behaviours.

Theme: Frequency of the Leadership Development activities (FLD)

Table 6.10b: The table below shows the Frequency of Leadership Development activities (FLD) in the British supermarkets studied.

	Factors
F1	Should keep pace with change (Dodds and Verest, 2002)

Frequencies:

F1
4

How strongly they feel:

F1
4

Model:

Frequency of the Leadership Development activities (FLD) = F(F1)
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Theme: Leaders' collaboration with staff in planning and implementing learning and development.

Table 6.11a: The table below presents responses to the below questions by leaders of Nigerian supermarkets.

Relevant interview questions:

- Do you anticipate the future needs of your business? If yes, how often do you do that?
- Do you translate that into a plan that you share with others (e.g. your staff or top management)?
- As consequence of that does it lead to any developmental activity?
- Can you give me an example of such developmental activities that follows?

Participants	Do the leaders identify and analyze training needs, plan and control resources to implement them, and communicate such objectives to staff?
M01, NS01, M	The participant said he anticipates the future needs of his business quite often in order to identify when necessary actions (such as the need for expansion or relocation) are needed. He said he shares the ideas (such as on areas that will bring development to the staff and satisfaction to the customers) with the staff. As a consequence of that he said it normally leads to briefings and on the job training to his staff.

M01, NS02, M	The participant said he anticipates the future needs of his business on quarterly basis. He said he translates the result of such anticipation into an information that is shared between himself and staff and management (especially the top management). According to him, as the aim of such forecasting is development, it is usually followed by briefing from the top management, on areas that need improvement.
M02, NS02, M	The participant said he anticipates the future needs of the business on daily basis. He also said he translates the result of such forecasting into a plan that he shares with staff and management during monthly meetings of the staff and management. He said that the plan often leads to formal training and development for the management team and briefings and on the job training for the staff.
M03, NS02, M	The participant said he sometimes anticipates the future needs of the business. He also said because he is an importer, that his business depends on the exchange rate so he ensures that he looks ahead to know the direction that the exchange rate might be moving towards at any point in time. He said he doesn't do that quite often, especially, when the exchange rate seems to have stabilized for a while. He also said he translates the result of that into a plan that he shares with his subordinates (especially, with his manager and his sales representative). He also said that as a consequence of that that it definitely do lead to further training and development for his staff, and he gave examples of such training and development that

	could follow, as, sending them to formal trainings, seminars and workshops.
M01, NS03, M	The participant said he anticipates the future needs of his business, by forecasting and planning at least once every week. He also said he translates such forecasting into a plan that he shares with his staff, especially, with the management staff and they all dialogue and listen to each other's opinion before reaching final decisions. He also said that sharing such plan often leads to learning and developmental activity (especially on the job learning and in-house training) for his managers and staff.
M01, NS04, M	The participant said he anticipates the future needs of the business. He said he does that on daily basis, and that he translates the result of the anticipation into a plan that he shares with his staff and with his fellow managers. He said it leads to training and developmental activity for his staff and managers. For instance, the researcher was shown a plan on how to improve the security of the business against shop-lifters, and which he (i.e. the participant) invented and he was still training his staff on it.
M02, NS04, M	The participant said he anticipates the future needs of the business and that he tries to innovate, reflect and open his mind to opportunities from time to time during such forecasting. He also said that he translates the result of the anticipation into a plan that he share with his colleagues and other staff so they all dialogue and come up with a working solution. As a consequence of such deliberation, he said it could lead to training and developmental

	<p>activity for the staff and management, if necessary. For instance, he said if he identifies something new (such as better ways of doing things) it normally leads to on the job training for the staff involved.</p>
<p>M03, NS04, F</p>	<p>The participant said she anticipates the future needs of the business on regular and daily basis and that she translates the result of such anticipation into a plan that she shares with colleagues and staff. She also said it at times leads to learning and developmental activity. For instance, as an admin officer of the business, she said she has devised, introduced and trained staff on the disciplinary procedures and customer relations approaches that should be a policy of the business.</p>
<p>M01, NS05, F</p>	<p>The participant said she anticipates the future needs of the business, and that she does that by visiting similar stores to learn from them. The participant said she translates the result of such visits that into a plan that she shares with her top management and staff, and as a consequence of that that it leads to developmental activities for the management. She gave an example of such developmental activities for the management as, coaching them on improved and easy ways of doing things.</p>
<p>M01, NS06, M</p>	<p>The participant said he anticipates the future needs of their business by basically going online to see the latest trend in retailing, and to see how to make things easier for the customers (e.g. through online shopping then home delivery to customers' home). He said he does weekly anticipation of the future needs of their business, and that he translates the result of that into a plan that he shares with the top</p>

	<p>management and other staff. But, he said as a consequence of that that it doesn't lead to any training and / or developmental activities for the staff or management.</p>
<p>M02, NS06, M</p>	<p>The participant said he anticipates the future needs of their business. He also said he does that every day. He said he translates the result of such anticipation into a plan that he shares with both the top management as well as members of his team. He said they share the plan during their weekly meetings. He also said it leads to training and developmental activities for the staff concerned. For instance, their superior provides on the job coaching and training for the rest of the team during their weekly meetings.</p>
<p>M03, NS06, M</p>	<p>The participant said he anticipates the future needs of his business. He said he has been anticipating how to improve his business up to international standard. He also said he does the forecasting every day. He said he translates the result of such forecasting into a plan that he shares with his staff and managers. He also said that as a consequence of that that it leads to training and development for them. He gave the examples of such developmental activities that follow, as, monthly mentoring sessions and briefings for his managers who then pass on the same message to their subordinates.</p>
<p>M01, NS07, F</p>	<p>The participant said she anticipates the future needs of their business on weekly basis. She also said she translates the result of such anticipation into a plan that she shares with her subordinates. She said as a consequence of that that it leads to developmental</p>

	<p>activities. She said the developmental activities that follow is briefings and on-the-job trainings for the staff.</p>
<p>M01, NS08, M</p>	<p>The participant said he anticipates the future needs of his business. He also said that the frequency of the forecast is based on the market trend, the climate change, and other periodic events that unfold and impact on his business. He also said he translates the result of the forecast into a plan that he shares with his subordinates, in order to carry them along. But he said as a consequence of that that it doesn't lead to any form of training and developmental activities for either himself or for his staff.</p>
<p>M01, NS09a, M</p>	<p>The participant said he anticipates the long term needs and direction of the business. For instance, he said though they are the market leaders in the grocery retail sector in Nigeria, but that he anticipates what happens in case 'fierce' competitors like Wal-Mart penetrates the Nigerian grocery market. As the admin manager of the branch, he tries to figure out his business's key strengths (i.e. whether it is in their brand, price, etc.) so they can build and capitalize on those to make sure they are the best, especially in terms of stronger rivalry. He said he translates that into a plan that he shares with his staff during their monthly meetings so staff can bring in their own ideas and suggestions. He also said it leads to further training and developments for the staff. For instance, he encourages them to gain University degrees and he also help to train them to acquire skills on how to operate some sophisticated equipment. He also said he encourages them to keep developing every day, both on and off the job.</p>

<p>M02, NS09a, M</p>	<p>The participants said they anticipate the future needs of their business. He said they do that during their weekly meetings with the top management, and a system which involves sitting down with the top management to do some evaluations and analysis of previous performances and results and looking into the foreseeable future to forecast future performances and results. He said he translates that into a plan that he shares with his staff, and that it can lead to training and developmental activities for those concerned. For instance, he said if he discovers any loopholes in their performances that he provides on-the-job trainings, personal one-to-one coaching and briefings to the staff concerned.</p>
<p>M03, NS09a, M</p>	<p>The participant who is also the branch manager of the store said he does daily anticipation of the future needs of his business. He also said he translates the result of such anticipation into a plan that he shares with his team. He said it leads to developmental activities, such as, on-the-job coaching of the staff on areas they need to grow and improve.</p>
<p>M04, NS09a, M</p>	<p>The participant said he anticipates the future needs of the business. He also said he does such anticipation on daily basis in order to follow the trend (including the technological trend in the business) and ask questions where questions need to be asked. He also said he shares the result of such anticipation (in terms of growth agenda) with his team, in order to inspire the team members to put in their best and to realize that they have a future in the business. He also said as a consequence of that it leads to developmental activities for the managers and staff. He then gave examples of such developmental</p>

	plans that follow, as, cashiers' trainings, management trainings, and job rotations so people can acquire overall development and broaden their experiences.
M01, NS09b, M	The participant said he anticipates the future needs of his business on weekly basis. He also said he shares the result of such anticipation with top management and other staff. As a consequence of that, he said it could lead to training and development for those concerned. For instance, the organisation had just organized a training session (for managers) on customer service for today's modern business and following his attendance to the training sessions and the experiences from the training that he attended he had just shared his experiences with his colleagues who were not opportune to participate in such training.
M02, NS09b, M	The participant said he anticipates the future needs of their business. He also said he does that on daily basis. He said he anticipates the growth in the business on daily basis, and that he makes sure that everyone in the branch (both above and below him) shares in the goals, drive and direction that the business needs to be going. They share such knowledge during their weekly staff meetings. He also said it does lead to developmental activities for either the staff and / or the management. For instance, the management could train staff on the job or provide briefing or coaching following anticipated direction of the business. And, the managers themselves are sent to the company's designated training centers on periodic basis for trainings and workshops.

M03, NS09b, M	The participant said he anticipates the manpower needs of the business. That he does that once in a while. That he translates the result of that into a plan that he shares with colleagues (i.e. including management and staff). He also said that as a consequence of that that it leads to learning and developmental activities. According to the participant, some examples of such developmental activity that could follow include, for instance, trainings on leadership and motivation.
M04, NS09b, F	The participant said she anticipates the future needs of their business on daily basis. She said she translates the result of such anticipation into a plan that she shares with others (i.e. with her junior staff and fellow leaders within the branch). She also said as a consequence of that that it leads to developmental activities. Example of such developmental activities, according to the participant, include, occasions that she tell her superiors to coach her on how to deal with recalcitrant employees and difficult customers at work.
M05, NS09b, F	The participant said she anticipates the future needs of their business on daily basis. She also said she translates the results of such anticipation into a plan that she shares with other (i.e. with her fellow managers and subordinates). For instance, she said they (i.e. the managers) go on the till to teach the workers how to deal with difficult customers (such as dealing with customers' refunds, complaints and enquiries). She said it often leads to further trainings and developments for the workers. For example, that she was currently conducting an on-the-job training for cashiers on dealing with difficult customers and recording transactions, preventing losses on sales.

<p>M01, NS09c, M</p>	<p>The participant said he does daily anticipation of the future needs of the business. He also said he translates the results of such anticipation into a plan that he shares with colleagues and staff, but not with the top management because the top management doesn't allow the junior managers any opportunity to contribute ideas in decision makings, according to this participant. He also said the top management doesn't have any atom of trust on the junior managers. He also said when he shares the results of his personal forecasting with his junior workers that it leads to training and developmental activities for them, such as on the job learning.</p>
<p>M02, NS09c, M</p>	<p>The participant said he was currently being trained on how to anticipate the future needs of his business (including HRD needs, manpower needs, and sales and marketing needs). He said he was being trained on how to predict the long-term needs of the business. He said he was being taught how to do these every monthly, quarterly and on yearly basis. He also said he was being taught how to translate the result of the forecasting into a plan to be shared with his team (especially, with his immediate line managers). He said depending on the outcome of the forecasting that it could lead to training and development for the concerned staff.</p>
<p>M03, NS09c, M</p>	<p>The participant said he anticipates the future needs of the business. He said he does that annually. He said he translates the result of such anticipation into a plan that he shares with others (i.e. with his team). He said he helps others to improve either through personal one-on-one coaching or on the job learning, as a way of teaching them the best</p>

	practices in what they do. He said he aims to improve the pace of their work, to reduce stress levels in them and improve their efficiencies.
M04, NS09c, F	The participant said she doesn't anticipate the future needs of their business.
M05, NS09c, F	The participant said she anticipates the future needs of the business, and that she does that on a daily basis. She said when she anticipates the future needs of the business that she translate that into a plan that she shares with her staff, and if it is a major discovery that she shares such with the management to bring about profitability to the business. She also said it definitely leads to developmental activities for the staff or management. She gave examples of such developmental activities that could follow as, advising the management on skill gaps and how such identified gaps could be filled. She also said she has 'pep talks' with the management based on major discoveries that she makes (e.g. on how to avoid out-of-stocks).
M06, NS09c, M	The participant said he anticipates the future needs of the business. He said he does that with other managers (including the top management). He also said he translates that into a plan that he shares with his subordinates. For instance, he said they've identified during one of their previous management meetings that certain number of new stores will be opened within the next couple of years. He said he therefore, shared that information with his subordinates as soon as he returned from the conference in order to make them fit into the bigger picture of the organization and to know that they have a future in the company.

	He also said that as a consequence of that, it led to developmental opportunities for the staff and management because there have been further trainings and development of some junior staff to provide them with extra trainings and development to gain additional skills (i.e. up-skilling) so they can manage the new stores and fill the new vacancies that are envisaged.
M07, NS09c, M	The participant said he anticipates the future needs of the business on a weekly basis. He said he looks at item-sales, customer needs and human resource needs. He also said he translates the result of such forecasting into a plan that he shares with colleagues during meetings. But as a consequence of that, he said it doesn't actually lead to any developmental activities either for himself or for his colleagues.

Twenty-eight out of the thirty participants in Nigeria said they anticipate, identify and analyse the future needs of their businesses (including the training needs), plan and control resources to implement them, and communicate such objectives to staff (McGurk, 2010). However, the rate of their anticipation varies from daily (twelve persons) to weekly (six persons) to quite often (one persons) to quarterly (one person) not certain (seven persons) and annually (one person). However, three of the participants said as a consequence of that that it does not lead to any form of training and developmental activities for either the leaders or for their staff, while two persons said they have never anticipated the future needs of the business.

Theme: Leaders' collaboration with staff in planning and implementing learning and development.

Table 6.11b: The table below presents how the Leadership teams of Nigerian supermarkets collaborate with their staff in planning and implementing learning and development.

	Factors
F1	Leaders should identify and analyze training needs, plan and control resources to implement them, and communicate such objectives to staff (Potnuru and Sahoo, 2016; Tarique and Schuler, 2010; Collings and Mellahi, 2009; and Lewis and Heckman, 2006; Kouzes and Posner, 1987; McGurk, 2010).

Frequencies:

F1
28

How strongly they feel:

F1
28

Model:

Leaders' collaboration with staff in planning and implementing learning and development = F(F1)

Theme: Leaders' collaboration with staff in planning and implementing learning and development.

Table 6.12a: The table below presents responses to the below questions by leaders of British supermarkets.

Relevant interview questions:

- Do you anticipate the future needs of your business? If yes, how often do you do that?
- Do you translate that into a plan that you share with others (e.g. your staff or top management)?
- As consequence of that does it lead to any developmental activity?
- Can you give me an example of such developmental activities that follows?

Participants	Do the leaders identify and analyze training needs, plan and control resources to implement them, and communicate such objectives to staff?
M01, BS01a, M	The participant said he anticipates the future needs of the business. For instance, that just on the same day of the interview that he had a walk around with his operations manager and they have been identifying things that need changing in the store (such as

	<p>introducing Polish brands to suit the locals in the area that is covered by his store, as the area is quite ethnic). He also said he has Asian sections within his store because he anticipated and discovered there are many Asians in the area that is covered by his store. He said he keeps anticipating on week to week basis to go ahead to change his store to suit the needs of his customers. He also said he translates the result of such anticipation into a plan that he shares with his management team (i.e. the duty manager and two team leaders) by sharing with them and they agree where they want to go then they obviously brief the rest of the team to get them on board with the new changes. He also said that as a consequence of that that it leads to developmental activities for the staff. For instance, that when a new activity or a new task is introduced that they know the high performers in the team so they use them to make sure that the new activity continues.</p>
<p>M01, BS01b, F</p>	<p>The participant said she anticipates the future needs of the business. She said she does that by looking (with her team) at the budget that is giving to her, she makes an input and considers whether she'll be able to achieve them, then she tells the top management whether they think that those are achievable or not, why and how they would be able to do that. She said they do that quarterly, and at times her team would say why and how they would like the budget to change, and with good explanations, her budget is reviewed and changed. And she gave the researcher a recent example of an event that made her budget to change. She said when</p>

	<p>she anticipated the arrival of a fierce competitor very close to her own store, she told the top management and her budget was increased. She also said she translates the result of such anticipation into a business plan that she shares with both her team and her top management. She also said as a consequence of that it could lead to developmental activities for her and for the team. She said the developmental activities that could follow, include, on-the-job learning, and personal coaching.</p>
M01, BS01c, M	<p>The participant said he do forecasting to know the direction of the customers and the business as well, to predict the sales for the coming week, to know whether they are going forward and what they need to do to improve. He said the forecasting is done on weekly basis (though at times on daily basis) and he translates that into a plan that he shares with his deputy store manager, the service manager and his five team leaders. He also said it leads to training and developmental activity, such as on-the-job learning.</p>
M01, BS01d, M	<p>The participant said he doesn't identify the future needs of the business, but that it is done at the strategic level of their business instead and that the company communicates such information to his team. He also said that when he receives such information as a team leader that he shares it with his team so he can identify who is best at what, so as to drive their capabilities.</p>
M01, BS01e, M	<p>The participant said his management team within the store anticipates the future needs of the business. He also said they do that every week. He also said they translate the result of such</p>

	<p>forecasting into a plan they share with the rest of the team. As a consequence of that he said it leads to training and developmental activities. He also gave the examples of such developmental activities that could follow, as, on-the-job coaching and briefings from the senior managers.</p>
<p>M01, BS01f, M</p>	<p>The participant said he anticipates the future needs of their business. For instance, that he has realized that customers are shopping more often today than they used to do in the past. And that he does the anticipation daily and weekly. He also said he translates the result of such anticipation into a plan that he shares with his team. As a consequence of that he also said it could lead to change instead of actual training and developmental activity for the team. For instance, changes in the way the team do their things.</p>
<p>M01, BS01g, F</p>	<p>The participant said she anticipates the future needs of their business. She also said she is being encouraged to do that by her superior, and that she does that each time she meets with her superior, by giving her inputs on what she thinks should be done to move the business forward. She said she does such meeting with her superiors on quarterly basis. She also said she translates the result of such anticipation into a plan that she shares with her team, and that it leads to training and developmental activities. She gave examples of such training and developmental activities that could follow, as, briefing the team, getting their inputs and providing on-the-job coaching to them, and recommending to her boss on further</p>

	developmental needs for the staff concerned so they can be made to progress in the company.
M01, BS01h, F	The participant said she anticipates the future needs of their business on daily basis. She also said she translates the result of such anticipation into a plan that she shares with her team. She also said as a consequence of that that it leads to training and developmental activities. She gave an example of such developmental activities that could follow, as, on-the-job coaching.
M01, BS02, M	The participant said he anticipates the future needs of the business and that he has been able to identify the quickest growth areas as well as the stagnated areas in the supermarket business following such anticipation. He said he does such anticipation quite regularly. He also said he translates the result of such anticipation into a training and developmental plan that he shares with his team (i.e. the store management team) once a week, and which leads them to further brainstorming. He gave examples of such training and developmental activities that could follow as, on-the-job learning, or booking someone on a course to do.
M02, BS02, M	The participant said he anticipates the future needs of their business and that he translates the result of such anticipation into a plan that he shares with his team. He also said he does that on weekly basis. He also said it leads to training and developmental activities. He also gave some examples of such trainings and developmental activities that could follow, as, upskilling. He also said they have assessment exercise which they use to determine who should receive such extra

	<p>training so the person will be made to move to the next level. However, he said there are plenty developmental opportunities for other staff, but with few developmental opportunities for the managers.</p>
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Nine out of ten leaders of British supermarkets interviewed said they identify and analyze the future needs of their businesses (including the training needs), plan and control resources to implement them, and communicate such objectives to the staff (McGurk, 2010). However, the rate of their anticipation varies from daily (two persons) to weekly (four persons) to quarterly (two persons) to not-certain (one person).

Theme: Leaders' collaboration with staff in planning and implementing learning and development.

Table 6.12b: The table below presents how the Leadership teams of British supermarkets collaborate with their staff in planning and implementing learning and development.

	Factors
F1	<p>Leaders should identify and analyze training needs, plan and control resources to implement them, and communicate such objectives to staff (Potnuru and Sahoo, 2016; Tarique and Schuler, 2010; Collings and Mellahi, 2009; and Lewis and Heckman, 2006; Kouzes and Posner, 1987; McGurk, 2010).</p>

Frequencies:

F1
9

How strongly they feel:

F1
9

Model:

Leaders' collaboration with staff in planning and implementing learning and development = F(F1)

Theme: Leaders' collaboration with staff in planning and implementing learning and development.

Table 6.13a: The table below presents responses to the below questions by leaders of Nigerian supermarkets.

Relevant interview questions:

- Do you reflect on your own or with your staff on the performance of the business?
- If yes, how often do you do this reflection?

- Do you translate the result of such reflection into a training and developmental plan?
- Can you give me an example of such developmental activities that follows?

Participants	Do the leaders identify and analyze training needs, plan and control resources to implement them, and communicate such objectives to staff?
M01, NS01, M	The participant said he reflect on the performance of the business regularly with his staff. But this doesn't lead to any form of training for the staff.
M01, NS02, M	The participant said they do monthly reflection on the performance of the business in order to identify what went well and what could be done better. He said if the need for training and development (such as, training on customer relations) is identified during the reflection that it leads to on the job training and development of the staff concerned. He also said that trainings are done as events unfold and the trainings are tailored to suit the needs of the business (especially, customers' satisfaction).
M02, NS02, M	The participant said he personally reflects on the performance of the business on daily basis but not in conjunction with any staff or member of the management team. He said it leads him to further training and development of himself. For instance, during one of such reflections he realized he doesn't remember a lot so he started writing information on a diary for an improved record keeping ability.

M03, NS02, M	The participant said he reflects on his own on the performance of the business, and that he does that very often. He also said he translates the results of such reflection into a training and developmental plan for his staff, and he gave an example of such developmental activity that follow, as, personal briefings and on-the-job coaching.
M01, NS03, M	The participant said he collaborates with his staff to perform weekly reflections on the performance of the business, every Monday. That is, once every week. He said he translates the result of such reflection into a learning and developmental programme for his staff. For instance, he said he provides in-house training for the staff following every week's reflection.
M01, NS04, M	The participant said he carries out daily reflection on the performance of the business in collaboration with his staff and fellow managers before writing his daily report on the business, which is normally done at the close of the daily transactions. He also said the reflection could lead to training and developmental actions for the staff in terms of daily briefings and on the job learning.
M02, NS04, M	The participant said he does both monthly as well as annual reflections on his own on the performance of the business. He said the aims of the reflections are to determine whether he meets his target or not and to identify ways of improving. He said if the result of such reflection demands further training and development activity for the staff or management then he takes adequate measures to

	implement them. He said the adequate measures could mean either in-house training or on the job training or both.
M03, NS04, F	The participant said she reflects with her fellow managers and junior staff on the performance of the business. The reflection according to the participant is done once in a month. The team use the reflection to evaluate their monthly performance, to plan ahead for the coming month with the aim of adjusting where loopholes could be identified and finding ways for improvement. She said they translate the result of such reflection into a training and developmental plan. For instance, when a particular task / role-player is underperforming, she normally rotate the role player by assigning a different role-player to the task, and under a close watch.
M01, NS05, F	The participant said she do reflect on her own and with her superior on the performance of the business. She also said due to lack of time that she does that about twice a week. She also said she translates the result of such reflection into a training and developmental plan. She gave the examples of such developmental activity that follows as, personal coaching and on-the-job trainings of staff involved.
M01, NS06, M	The participant said he reflects on his own on the performance of the business. He said he does the reflections once in a week, which is towards the end of each week. He said he translates the result of such reflection into a training and developmental activity for his staff. He gave an example of such developmental activity that follows, as,

	on-the-job-coaching and mentoring for the staff concerned, and training them on the use of IT to do retailing.
M02, NS06, M	The participant said he does personal reflection on the performance of the business. He also said he does that once in a week. He said he relates the results of his reflections to his superior who summons the rest of the team for briefings, and when required, on-the-job training and development follow the reflections.
M03, NS06, M	The participant said he does weekly reflection on the performance of the business with his subordinates. He also said he translates the result of such reflection into a training and developmental plan. He gave some examples of such training and developmental activities that follow. For instance, as the CEO he provides regular (written and oral) tests and examinations for his employees to make sure they are learning and developing.
M01, NS07, F	The participant said she reflects on her own and with her subordinates on the performance of the business. She also said she does that very often, that is every day. She also said she translates the results of such reflection into a training and developmental plan. She gave examples of such developmental plans that follow, as, on-the-job coaching, 'oral education' and preparation of handouts for the staff to go through. She also said she is preparing other hand outs to be distributed to the staff, especially the newly recruits to teach them the challenges in supermarket retail job.
M01, NS08, M	The participant said he reflects on his own on the performance of the business. He said the reflection is normally done at the end of

	<p>the year, and that as the owner manager that he also gives 'memo' to his senior managers to write to assess his own performance as their boss, and as such he knows more than he would have imagined of his performance. He also said they suggest for him on possible areas for future development of the business. He also said he translates the result of his reflection into a training and developmental plan. He gave the examples of such developmental activity that follow, as, team meetings, planning, briefings and dialogues with his staff.</p>
M01, NS09a, M	<p>The participant said he reflects with his staff on the performance of the business, which they normally do during their monthly meetings. He said the company's HR translates the result of such reflection into training and developmental activities. He gave the examples of such developmental activities that follow as cashiers trainings and development, Mystery Shoppers (that is, sending unanimous shoppers to the shop and the shoppers give report on the performances of the serving cashiers). He said the reports of the mystery shoppers always mean there should be retraining of the cahiers involved until they get it right, for quality control.</p>
M02, NS09a, M	<p>The participant said he reflects with members of his department on the performance of the business, at times on a daily basis but usually on a weekly basis. He said they don't really translate the result of such reflective activity into any form of training and developmental activity. But that they do provide periodic on-the-job learning and</p>

	development for his staff and members of his department, example, on how to reduce shrinkage.
M03, NS09a, M	The participant said he does daily reflection on the performances of the business, and in collaboration with his staff. He also said he translates the results of such reflection into a training and developmental activity. He gave the examples of such developmental activities that could follow, as, on-the-job learning and coaching.
M04, NS09a, M	The participant said he reflect with his staff on the performance of the business. He said during such reflection they evaluate their performances to see if they hit their target or not, and, if not, why? And how they can improve on their areas of weaknesses. He said the reflection is done monthly during their fixed monthly meetings. He said he translates the results of such reflection into a training and developmental programme for the team to make the staff learn new things, either through personal coaching or on-the-job learning.
M01, NS09b, M	The participant said he does personal reflection on his own on daily basis based on their daily report and weekly based on their weekly report to determine what went well, what could be done better and how to improve on their performance. He said he translates the result of such reflection into an on-the-job-training exercise for the staff concerned because there isn't much time to sit and analyze the result with others. He said the aim of the reflection is to mirror and evaluate on their performances as a unit and on their performances

	as an entire corporate venture with the aim of improving performance.
M02, NS09b, M	The participant said he reflects on his own and in collaboration with colleagues on the performance of the business. His personal reflection is focused on self-evaluation to know if he has met his targets. He also does daily reflection with his staff to know if the team has met their targets. He said he does the reflections every day, and that he translates the result of such reflection into a training and developmental plan. For instance, he said he normally provides periodic briefings to his subordinates, and he also mentors them and provide on-the-job trainings to improve their performances. The company also provides cashiers' trainings for the cashiers and trainings on merchandising techniques to other staff, on regular basis.
M03, NS09b, M	The participant said he reflects on his own on the performance of the business, and that he calls his staff together to share the result of such reflection. He said he does his personal reflection every Monday morning. He also said he translates the result of such reflection into a training and developmental plan. He gave an example of such training and developmental activity that could follow, to include: for instance when they receive a complaint from the customers on poor hygiene level, it normally leads them to hygiene training.
M04, NS09b, F	The participant said she reflects on her own and in collaboration with other staff on the performance of the business. She said these

	<p>reflections are done on daily basis. She also said she translates the result of such reflections into training and developmental activities. She gave examples of such training and developmental activities as coaching and on the job trainings with key focus on customer relations and communication and work, and technical skills in retailing.</p>
M05, NS09b, F	<p>The participant said she sometimes reflects on her own and at other times with her subordinates on the performance of the business. She said their reflections are done weekly. She also said sometimes she translates the results of such reflections into a training and developmental plan. She gave examples of such training and developmental activities that follow, as, staff briefings and on-the-job trainings.</p>
M01, NS09c, M	<p>The participant said he reflects on his own on the performance of the business. He also said that such reflection is done daily. He also said he translates the results of such reflection into a training and developmental activity for the staff. He gave the examples of such training and developmental activities that follow, as, personal coaching and on-the-job learning and team briefings (such as meetings on shrinkages, i.e. to correct some acts that leads to shrinkages).</p>
M02, NS09c, M	<p>The participant said he reflects on his own as a manager and with his staff on the performance of the business. He said the reflection is done on weekly and monthly basis. He also said he translates the results of such reflection into a training and developmental activity</p>

	<p>for the staff concerned. He said he sends the feedback from their reflections to the HR who then uses the feedback as an input for training and developmental planning. The examples of such training and developmental activities that follow include, written tests, seminars, workshops, e-trainings, use of DVDs and on the job learning.</p>
<p>M03, NS09c, M</p>	<p>The participant said on his own that he does personal reflections regularly, and occasionally he does reflection in collaboration with his staff. He said his reflections are done weekly, monthly and annually. He said he translates the results of such reflection into a training and developmental plan. He gave an example of such training and developmental activity as - on-the-job learning for the team, especially when he discovers new and improved ways of doing things that he shares these with his team members.</p>
<p>M04, NS09c, F</p>	<p>The participant said she reflects on her own on the performance of the business, and that she does that twice in a week. But that she is not yet empowered to share the results of such reflections with anyone nor does it lead to any form of trainings and developmental activities.</p>
<p>M05, NS09c, F</p>	<p>The participant said she reflects on her own and with her staff on the performance of the business. She said she translates the result of such reflection into a training and developmental plan for either herself and / or her staff. She gave some examples of such training and developmental activities that could follow, as, both on-the-job and off the job learning, or even work-life-balance.</p>

<p>M06, NS09c, M</p>	<p>The participant said he reflects on his own and with his team on the performance of the business. He said he does that through the reports that he sends to his top management and through the feedback from assessment by the top management. He said the team normally do their reflections during their monthly and impromptu (i.e. when it is required) meetings. He also said they translate the results of such reflections into a training and developmental activity for the staff concerned. For instance, when feedback is received from the top management and it reveals where improvement might be needed or the need to open up new stores then they try to build on that by using skilled / key staff to merchandize the new stores. The idea is that from there such talented staff can be developed and promoted to become the managers of the new stores.</p>
<p>M07, NS09c, M</p>	<p>The participant said he does daily reflection with his colleagues (i.e. his fellow managers as well as with his subordinates) on the performance of the business. He said such reflection normally results from their weekly reports. He also said the report tells them their performances. He also said he translates the result of such reflection into a training and developmental plan that he share with his training managers and supervisors. He also showed the training manuals that have resulted from such reflections to the researcher. He said they have been training and retraining everybody (especially the cashiers) following their reflective exercises.</p>

Twenty-nine out of thirty leaders of supermarkets interviewed in Nigeria said they reflect on the performance of their businesses and, as a consequence of that, they identify and analyze the training needs embedded, plan and control resources to implement them, and communicate such objectives to staff (McGurk, 2010). However, the rate of their reflections varies from daily (eight persons) to weekly (nine persons) to often (two persons) to Monthly (eight persons) to not certain (one person) and annually (one person). Though one person said he reflects on the performance of the business regularly with his staff, but this does not lead to any form of training for the staff, while another said being a newly recruited manager that she was not yet empowered to share the result of such reflection with anyone or to communicate such objectives to staff.

Theme: Leaders' collaboration with staff in planning and implementing learning and development.

Table 6.13b: The table below presents how the Leadership teams of Nigerian supermarkets collaborate with their staff in planning and implementing learning and development.

	Factors
F1	Leaders should identify and analyze training needs, plan and control resources to implement them, and communicate such objectives to staff (Potnuru and Sahoo, 2016; Tarique and Schuler, 2010; Collings and Mellahi, 2009; and Lewis and Heckman, 2006; Kouzes and Posner, 1987; McGurk, 2010).

Frequencies:

F1
29

How strongly they feel:

F1
29

Model:

Leaders' collaboration with staff in planning and implementing learning and development = F(F1)

Theme: Leaders' collaboration with staff in planning and implementing learning and development.

Table 6.14a: The table below presents responses to the below questions by leaders of British supermarkets.

Relevant interview questions:

- Do you reflect on your own or with your staff on the performance of the business?
- If yes, how often do you do this reflection?

- Do you translate the result of such reflection into a training and developmental plan?
- Can you give me an example of such developmental activities that follows?

Participants	Do the leaders identify and analyze training needs, plan and control resources to implement them, and communicate such objectives to staff?
M01, BS01a, M	The participant said he reflects in more detail with his lead team (i.e. with his duty manager and his team leaders) on the performance of the business more than he does with other staff members, because the lead team has an in-depth understanding about the business more than other staff do. He said they do the reflections on regular and daily basis and they talk with the staff after that. He also said the lead team uses feedback from the customers as an input during their daily meetings with the staff to know where improvements may be needed. He also said they have a problem of shrinkage as well, so that makes them to engage on daily reflections to make sure they know exactly what is missing. He also said that he (in collaboration with his lead team) translates the result of such reflection into a training and developmental plan for the team. He gave an example of a female worker who was identified recently as a high performer because she developed an action plan that should be implemented in the area of delivering the wastage programme, and it worked. Consequently, she has now successfully passed through the options

	programme and has been signed off to head her own store as a store manager.
M01, BS01b, F	The participant said she reflects on her own and with her team on the performance of the business. She also said they do these together so the team can know what they are expected to do and why they need to do that. She also said they do the reflections as and when needed, though on day to day basis they do look at their (KPI) to know what they have to do each day to keep the business moving forward. She also said the result of the reflection is often translated into a training and developmental activity, as part of the reflection is to look at what they need to do to improve or what wasn't right on their performance that needs to be improved upon. She said the example of the training and developmental activity that could follow is on-the-job learning, and which is followed by another review to determine whether the required improvements have been made.
M01, BS01c, M	The participant said he reflects on his own and with his staff on the performance of the business. He said such reflections are done daily, especially on his way home or at his home, and that he normally emails the store to tell them what he thinks should be done. He also said he translates the result of such reflection into a training and developmental plan, to identify what needs changing or improving (including the skill sets of his team), and how to change them.
M01, BS01d, M	The participant said he reflects on his own on the performance of the business. He said he does that once a week. He also said he

	<p>translates the result of such reflection into a training and developmental plan for the team. He gave some examples of such reflective activities as, assessing why people may not have performed well, to determine if they have the requisite potentials to perform their assigned tasks, and then identify their training needs. He said their trainings are always 'shoulder-to-shoulder on the shop floor'. That is on-the-job coaching and supporting of the individuals.</p>
M01, BS01e, M	<p>The participant said the team do weekly reflections on the performance of the business. He also said they translate the result of such reflection into a training and developmental plan. He gave some examples of such training and developmental activity that could follow, as, briefing the team on their KPI and how they can improve their performances.</p>
M01, BS01f, M	<p>The participant said he reflects with his team on the performance of the business e.g. by looking at their end of the year figures, especially from the store and from their own departments, but with major focus on the store and finding out what can be done to improve. He also said if the results are not satisfactory they would work out a developmental plan to correct the issues. He also said the reflection is done weekly. He said the example of such developmental activity that could follow could be, if sales are identified to be dropping due to lack of skills, hence, there would be on-the-job trainings and personal coaching on sites and attendance to workshops for the staff concerned. In addition, during such</p>

	<p>training periods the managers would have to attain to the customers so the trainee staff can focus on their trainings.</p>
<p>M01, BS01g, F</p>	<p>The participant said she reflects on her own and with her team on the performance of the business. She said she does that on a weekly basis during their management team's weekly meetings to reflect on what has happened during the previous week, then they would brief the rest of the team later. She said depending on what has happened or on the trends spotted, that it could lead to training and developmental activities for the staff concerned. She gave the example of such training and developmental activities that could follow, as, on-the-job coaching.</p>
<p>M01, BS01h, F</p>	<p>The participant said she reflects mostly with her staff on the performance of the business. She also said they do that as it is needed, and that it also depends on if their regional headquarters send things down to the leaders and expects them to pass it on to the staff, and it depends how often such information comes down. Nevertheless, she also said they talk to the staff on daily basis. She also said she translates the result of such reflection into a training and development activity, and she gave some examples of such trainings and developmental activities that could follow, as, on-the-job coaching on good customer relations.</p>
<p>M01, BS02, M</p>	<p>The participant said he reflects on his own and with his team on the performance of the business. He also said they do that on weekly basis by looking at the sales reflectively and see how they've performed against their expectations, to see if and how they could</p>

	<p>have performed better. He also said they don't necessarily translate the result of such reflection into a training and developmental plan but that they could come up with a sales plan. For instance, if there was a particular section that wasn't performing up to the required level, they would be made to look at the lines where their profits are always reducing and may be made to take those lines out and be made to open up on the lines that they are doing very well at. So by getting rid of their losses they increase their profit and chances of expansion.</p>
<p>M02, BS02, M</p>	<p>The participant said he reflects on his own and with his team on the performance of the business. He also said they do the reflections six monthly, and that they translate the result of such reflection into a training and developmental plan. He gave the example of such training and developmental activity that could follow, as, colleagues' upskilling into a different role, e.g. that someone may move out from the check out to the café, to petrol, etc. Therefore, such staff concerned would need to be developed on the new role to acquire all the legal and mandatory trainings that go with the new role, especially with high-risk roles like petrol.</p>

Ten out of ten leaders of British supermarkets interviewed said they reflect on the performance of their businesses and, as a consequence of that, they identify and analyze the training needs embedded, plan and control resources to implement them, and communicate such objectives to staff (McGurk, 2010). However, the rate of their

reflections varies from daily (six respondents) to weekly (three respondents) to six monthly (one respondent).

Theme: Leaders' collaboration with staff in planning and implementing learning and development.

Table 6.14b: The table below presents how the Leadership teams of British supermarkets collaborate with their staff in planning and implementing learning and development.

	Factors
F1	Leaders should identify and analyze training needs, plan and control resources to implement them, and communicate such objectives to staff (Potnuru and Sahoo, 2016; Tarique and Schuler, 2010; Collings and Mellahi, 2009; and Lewis and Heckman, 2006; Kouzes and Posner, 1987; McGurk, 2010).

Frequencies:

F1
10

How strongly they feel:

F1
10

Model:

Leaders' collaboration with staff in planning and implementing learning and development = F(F1)

Theme: Top Management Support for Leadership Development (TMSLD)

Table 6.15a: The table below presents responses to the below questions by leaders of Nigerian supermarkets

Relevant interview questions:

- Do you seek feedback from your boss on your performance?
- If yes, can you say how often you do this?
- What does such feedback always say?
- Is there any common plan for pursuing management and staff training and development in your entire organisation?
- Do you have other approach (es) for pursuing your staff training and development?

Participants	Top Management Support for Leadership Development (TMSLD)
M01, NS01, M	The participant said he neither seeks nor receives feedback from his superior on his performance. The participant said the only common plan for pursuing management and staff training and development in their entire organization is that when somebody is newly employed the person passes through in-house training and induction exercise, and that this policy is written in a document.

M01, NS02, M	The participant said he neither seeks nor receives feedback from his superior on his performance. He also said there is no common plan for pursuing management and staff training and development in the entire organisation.
M02, NS02, M	The participant said he doesn't only seek feedback from his boss but also from his customers and clients. He said the feedback from his senior management is always done weekly while those from the customers and clients is often done randomly. He said the feedback tells what went well and areas that need improvement. He said there are no common plans or laid down policies for pursuing management and staff training and development in the company.
M03, NS02, M	The participant said he doesn't have any bosses to seek feedback from, but that he goes on line to learn through the internet. He also said he gives feedback to his subordinates on their performances. He also said he sends his senior managers to workshops and trainings to acquire and develop their managerial skills, at least twice a year. He also said the trainings and developments are always structured and tailored to suit the areas the trainees are lacking in terms of their managerial competencies. He also said the company doesn't have any written down policies for pursuing its staff and management trainings and developments.
M01, NS03, M	The participant is the owner-manager, and being an owner-manager he doesn't have any superior to seek feedback from but he said he gives feedback to his staff to tell them what went well and if, where and how improvement should be made. The participant also said he

	<p>provides in-house training for his staff on good customer relations skills and how to secure the business against shop-lifters, once every month. He also said he provides extra leadership mentoring for his managers to prepare them for succession planning, or expansion or in readiness to open their own businesses at the end of their apprenticeship training, every Monday.</p>
<p>M01, NS04, M</p>	<p>The participant said he seeks feedback on his performance from his superior, and that the feedback is always positive. He also said he provides feedback to his subordinates as well. He said his feedback from his superior is done daily as he sends his daily report to his superior at the close of each day's transaction. He said the common plan for pursuing management and staff training and development is that the company has a management consultant at the company's headquarters who performs the in-house training for the management and staff.</p>
<p>M02, NS04, M</p>	<p>The participant said he seeks regular feedback from his superior on his individual performance, especially each time he sends a report. He said the feedback could either be positive (i.e. praises) or negative (i.e. pointing out areas that one needs to improve) or both. The participant said the in-house trainings for staff are done within the stores / branches, while management training and development are often done at the headquarters by the management consultant.</p>
<p>M03, NS04, F</p>	<p>The participant said she seeks feedback form her superiors on her performances, but not very often. She does that once in a while. She said the feedback is always positive. She said she's not aware of</p>

	any other approach for pursuing management and staff training and development in the entire organisation.
M01, NS05, F	The participant said though she doesn't seek, but that she receives feedback from her boss on her performance. She said the feedback is received quite often. She said the feedback tells her the areas of her weaknesses, why she needs to improve on them and what she should do to improve on them, then praises on things she did well. The participant said the only common approach they have for pursuing staff training and development is by encouraging staff to go out and learn from similar stores, but unfortunately that the staff don't go out to learn from such stores.
M01, NS06, M	The participant said he seeks feedback from his superior on the performance of the business, though not regularly, and that the feedback are always on the positive side (that is, commendations). He also said there are no common plans for pursuing staff trainings and development in the entire organization and that even when he tries to attend trainings, workshops and seminars that he bears the cost himself.
M02, NS06, M	The participant said he neither seeks nor receives feedback from his superiors on his performances. He said the common approach for pursuing management and staff training and development in the organisation is everyday on-the-job coaching.
M03, NS06, M	The participant who is also the owner-manager said he gives feedback to his staff on their performances. He also said he does that on monthly basis. He said the feedback always appreciates high

	<p>performances in order to motivate and encourage the performer to do more. He also said the feedback could as well identify and suggest some areas that need improvement and advice on how improvement should be made. The participant also said the common approach for pursuing staff training and development is that, as the CEO he sends his managers and staff to trainings and workshops in areas that he deems fit into their areas of operation.</p>
M01, NS07, F	<p>The participant said she seeks feedback from her boss on her performance. She also said she does that every two weeks. She said the feedback are always encouraging. That is, encouraging her that she did well but also to put in more effort next time. She also said the common approach for pursuing management and staff training and development is on the job learning.</p>
M01, NS08, M	<p>The participant said as the owner-manager that he doesn't have any boss to seek feedback from, but that he give feedback to his subordinates. He said the feedback he gives them are not just positive comments only, not just handshakes, but incentives, including car gifts. He said he motivates them through such efforts in order to avoid other companies from poaching his best talents. He said he gives them six monthly feedback, but that the 'ultimate reward' comes at the end of each year. The participant said the common approach for pursuing management and staff training and development in his organization is on-the-job training. He also said the on-the-job trainings are done either when the staff is newly employed or when they want to change the role of the staff to a</p>

	<p>different one so the person can match up with the new challenge. He also said that their training and developmental plans are written down and reviewed, but that the review is based on the anticipated target or approach that the company is pursuing. That is, the review is not done at any specific period of time, but is based on the changes in business environment.</p>
<p>M01, NS09a, M</p>	<p>The participant said the system of their business doesn't have any formal appraisal system, such as quarterly or annually. He however, said the only way one knows whether he / she is doing well is if you are not being 'scolded' by his / her superiors. He also said when he sends his reports that some of the reports do carry feedback but not all the reports sent are followed by feedback. Feedback on reports, according to the participant could either be negative or positive. Negative feedback tells where improvements are needed and it could demand that the superiors or their delegate from the headquarters come down to the branches to provide some briefings. Positive feedback means there is improvements and the role player receives commendations for his / her performances, according to this participant. He said they have both formal and informal approaches for pursuing staff and management training and development in their organisation. Informal approaches include, on the job trainings and coaching which takes place every day, while the formal ones include structured trainings and developmental workshops which are organised by the company's HR department, and this is periodic. He also said the company has customized</p>

	<p>training materials and journals (such as on retail management, managing shrinkage, leadership, customers' services, managing people for profit, etc.) some of which he showed to the researcher. He also said the training plan is formally written down in the company's policy statements, is reviewed by the HR department, though he said he was not aware of how often the training plans were being reviewed. He also said the company gives grants (which is calculated on the percentage of employees' salaries) and bursaries to deserving employees who wish to further their education in related areas to the company's operations (such as retailing, business management, etc.) in Higher institutions of learning.</p>
<p>M02, NS09a, M</p>	<p>The participant said he gets feedback from his superiors, and that the feedback are done on regular basis. He said the feedback could be either positive (meaning there is an improvement) or negative (meaning they have to work harder on specific areas). However, he said most feedback always say there is still room for improvement. He said they have a common approach for pursuing staff training and developmental for the entire staff. He said their trainings are both on-the-job and off-the-job. For example, the managers are once in a while challenged by the headquarters to identify 'high performers' among their staff who will be trained and developed so the trainees return and extend the lessons from the training and development to the rest of the staff who didn't attend the sessions. He said there are also periodic training arrangements that are being</p>

	<p>organised by the company's HR for the various levels and categories of staff but there are more trainings for the newly recruits. Then there are various refresher courses for the continuing staff. He said the participants at the various trainings are giving the opportunities to make suggestions during and after each training sessions, and which serves as an input for the review of the training plan by the HR.</p>
M03, NS09a, M	<p>The participant said he neither seeks nor receives feedback on his performances from his superiors. He also said the company has other approaches for pursuing staff training and development, such as, the use of DVDs to show staff the best practices in retailing, on merchandizing, and other challenges they could be faced with within the supermarket retail environment. He said the review of the training programmes are done annually, but the participant said he can't say categorically if the training programme is written down anywhere by the company.</p>
M04, NS09a, M	<p>The participant said he seeks feedback form his bosses on his performances. He said the superiors give the feedback each time they make store visits. He also said the feedback could either be positive (that is with commendations) or negative (that is being queried for your actions and told to amend the areas that you are not getting things right). The participant said there are other approaches for pursuing management and staff training and development in their entire organisation. The participant gave the examples of such as the trainings he had attended which include,</p>

	<p>managing people for profit, and shrinkage management. He also said there are monthly meetings and briefing sessions for various categories of staff. He also said the company reviews their training plans every quarterly by the HR. He also said there is a forum for managers and staff to meet occasionally to share ideas and learn from each other. He also said the company gives loans and grants for staff to pursue their formal education in the Universities, and the company encourages undergraduates with one year left to complete their studies to apply for managerial positions in their organization.</p>
<p>M01, NS09b, M</p>	<p>The participant said he seeks feedback from his boss on his performance. He said the feedback is done weekly, because they don't want to lower their standard. He said the positive statements in the feedback basically motivates him to do more and for the areas of allowable weaknesses means he has to perform better next time. He said there are other approaches for pursuing staff and management training and development. For instance, there is cashiers' training on customers service which is organised monthly in order to keep pace with changes in the business environment. There are also quarterly trainings which are organised by the HR for supervisors and managers of the entire organisation. Examples of topics covered during the supervisors and managers trainings include managing people for profit. He said the training plan is reviewed quarterly by the HR.</p>
<p>M02, NS09b, M</p>	<p>The participant said he seeks feedback form his superiors on his performance on regular basis. He said the feedback is either</p>

	<p>negative (i.e. stressing areas that one needs improvement), positive (i.e. giving praises on areas of good performance) or both. He also said the company has training policies (e.g. monthly training programmes for the cashiers, structured quarterly training programmes for the managers). Courses covered in managerial training include, for instance, managing people for profit. He said the plan is reviewed quarterly, and that it is written down in the company's policy statement and developmental plan.</p>
<p>M03, NS09b, M</p>	<p>The participant said he doesn't seek feedback from his superiors, but that he receives weekly feedback following each week's store visit by his superior (i.e. the operations manager), and that such feedback could either be positive or negative, or both. But that the negative feedback are always detailed and tailored in terms of areas that need improvement, the required improvements and how the improvements can be made. He said the management team at the branch also provides briefings and mentoring to their staff. But that most of their staff trainings are done on-the-job and that is done daily. He said the HR has different training programmes for the different categories of staff (e.g. management, cashier, etc.). He said the example of such training include, motivation training, hygiene training, cash handling trainings, customer service or customer relations trainings, honesty-training (i.e. focused on the need to be honest). He also said the training plan is reviewed by the HR. He also showed their training manual to the researcher.</p>

<p>M04, NS09b, F</p>	<p>The participant said though, she doesn't seek feedback from her boss, but that she receives daily feedback from her boss on her performances. She said the feedback normally let her know her areas of weaknesses and how she could improve on them, and encourage her to keep up with her areas of strengths. The participant said the nature of their business demands mainly on the job leanings, hence their trainings are mainly on the job. She said though they rarely do off the job trainings at times. She said the organisation has a culture that promotes every day on the job learning for all, but that there is a periodic structured off-the-job-training activity for designated staff which is organised by the respective sectional leaders (e.g. admin manager for admin staff, sales manager for sales staff, health training by health and safety manager, etc.) once every 3 months. She also gave an example of the training that is performed at the sales department which she is a part of to include, training on merchandizing skills. She said there is a common training policy for the company and that the policy is written down and reviewed periodically by the HR.</p>
<p>M05, NS09b, F</p>	<p>The participant said she seeks feedback from her bosses on her performances. She said she does that on monthly basis, from the finance, the regional admin and from the HR department. She said the feedback are always educative, that is stressing areas that went well (with commendations on them) and areas where improvements are needed. She said their other approaches for pursuing staff training and development include, asking staff questions about the</p>

	<p>challenges they face at work, then helping them overcome those challenges through personal coaching and on the job learning; and off-the-job trainings which the staff attend twice in a year. She said the common plan for pursuing staff and management training and development in their entire company is through workshops and structured trainings. She also said the plan is being reviewed by the HR department, thrice in a year. She also said the plan is on the company's website.</p>
<p>M01, NS09c, M</p>	<p>The participant said he seeks feedback from his boss on his performances. He also said the feedback is done nearly every day and it's always stressing areas that need corrections in the department or the need for the team leader to reassess one or more staff. He also said the organisation has different structured training activities which are done monthly for training various categories of staff under different sections of the company. Examples of such monthly training programmes include the cashiers' performance trainings, the customer relations trainings, management trainings, and health and safety training. He also said the HR has the control of the training programmes, but that the management training programmes are mainly tailored to suit the management development needs. The nature of the trainings includes workshops and seminars. He said the training plans are not reviewed. He said the training plans are written down in the company's developmental plans.</p>

<p>M02, NS09c, M</p>	<p>The participant said he seeks feedback form his superiors on his performances. He said he does that monthly, quarterly and annually. Depending on the result of the appraisals done, he said the feedback could be good (that is with praises) or not very good (meaning there is room for improvements), though he said he is always told how and where to improve up on. The participant said the company has training programmes designed for both junior and senior staff. The senior staff (i.e. the managers) are mainly trained on the job, though there are periodically organized off-the-job trainings sessions for them. The junior staff are often trained off the job. The off-the-job trainings are done either annually or on quarterly basis, according to this participant. He said the common plan for pursuing staff and management trainings and development in their organisation is 'being guided by the same training manual' that is designed by the HR, regardless of the branch from which the trainees and trainers may be drawn. He said the training plan is reviewed annually by the HR. He also said there is a policy document that guides the management and staff training and development in the entire organisation.</p>
<p>M03, NS09c, M</p>	<p>The participant said he seeks feedback from his boss on his performance. He said the feedback occurs periodically. He said his feedback have always been positive, that is commendations. He said the company has an approach for pursuing its management and staff training and development. He described the approaches to training to include, meetings, formal trainings and seminars,</p>

	<p>briefings through email and which is done by the management to advise the workers on best practices, as well as cashiers' trainings which is done regularly. But he said the staff and management trainings and developments are mainly on the job. He said the company regularly reviews its staff training and development. He also said the company has training manuals.</p>
<p>M04, NS09c, F</p>	<p>The participant said she doesn't seek feedback but that she receives feedback from her boss each time she submits her reports. She said her feedback are always commendations for a job well done. She said the company has other approaches for pursuing management and staff training and development. She gave examples of such approaches as, formal trainings on health and safety, customer relations, shrinkage trainings (i.e. trainings on how they can prevent loss). She said the trainings are done on monthly basis. The trainings are done either at the regional office or at the staff canteen. She said she is not aware whether the company reviews its training and developmental plan.</p>
<p>M05, NS09c, F</p>	<p>The participant said she neither seeks nor receive feedback from her bosses on her performances. She also said there are many approaches for pursuing management and staff trainings and development in their entire organisation. She gave examples of such approaches to include the cashiers training and development, trainings for customer service (i.e. for controllers). She said the plan is reviewed and that it is formally written down in the company's</p>

	<p>website and developmental plan. She also said the company has training handbooks, training manuals and DVDs.</p>
<p>M06, NS09c, M</p>	<p>The participant said he seeks feedback from his boss on his performance. He said he gets the feedback during the regular store visits by his superiors. He said the feedback is always in the form of advice and / or commendations, depending on what was observed by the appraiser. He said there is common plan for pursuing training and developmental activities in the entire organisation, and that the plan is managed and controlled by the HR department. He also said the plan comprises of workshops, seminars, on the job learning, class-room based theory based teachings but with practical inputs (such as case studies to supplement the theories).</p>
<p>M07, NS09c, M</p>	<p>The participant said he neither seeks nor receives feedback from his boss on his performance. The participant said they have other approaches for pursuing their management and staff training and developments. He said at times the company hire external training consultants to provide what he called 'structured work-through'. This involves bringing in neutral training providers to bring in new ideas that will spice up what they learn from their internal HRD practitioners. He said their trainings are normally quarterly. It could be held internally or externally at hired training venues. He said the training plan is written down in the company's policy statement, that it is quarterly reviewed and that there are training manuals and audio-visuals, which are all updated for their trainings.</p>

Nineteen out of the thirty participants from Nigerian supermarkets said they seek and / or receive feedback from their superiors on their performances, and they all said the feedback identify their developmental needs, how to develop and offer commendations on their strong points. Four of the leaders who are owner-managers also said they provide feedback to their staff on their performances. They also said the feedback appreciate high performances (in the form of recognition, praise or awards) in order to motivate and encourage the staff to do more. They also said the feedback identify some performance-gaps and advice on how improvements should be made. However, seven of the respondents said they neither seek nor receive feedback from their superiors on their performances. However, twenty-six out of the thirty interviewed in Nigeria said their organisations have common approaches for pursuing staff and management training and development, which include planning for, creating mechanisms for, and developing an environment conducive for learning (Marsick and Watkins, 1997) and designing training and development programmes (Wang, 2010). Whereas, four said their organisations have no common approach for pursuing staff and management training and development. However, two persons (see, for example, **Table 6.1a**) had earlier said that they develop faster because they are allowed the freedom and autonomy to learn new things, because they have been allowed to be in control of their jobs.

Theme: Top Management Support for Leadership Development (TMSLD)

Table 6.15b: The table below shows top management support for Leadership Development activities in Nigerian supermarkets

	Factors
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F1	Empower and offer freedom and autonomy to employees (Gray, 2005).
F2	Provide employees with the opportunities to learn from their work (Dalakoura, 2010)
F3	Planning for, creating mechanisms for, and developing an environment conducive for learning (Marsick and Watkins, 1997)
F4	Designing training and development programmes (Wang, 2010)

Frequencies:

F1	F2	F3	F4
2	23	26	26

How strongly they feel:

F3	F4	F2	F1
26	26	23	2

Model:

Top Management Support for Leadership Development (TMSLD) = F(F3, F4, F2)

Theme: Top Management Support for Leadership Development (TMSLD)

Table 6.16a: The table below presents responses to the below questions by leaders of British supermarkets.

Relevant interview questions:

- Do you seek feedback from your boss on your performance?
- If yes, can you say how often you do this?
- What does such feedback always say?
- Is there any common plan for pursuing management and staff training and development in your entire organisation?
- Do you have other approach (es) for pursuing your staff training and development?

Participants	Top Management Support for Leadership Development (TMSLD)
M01, BS01a, M	<p>The participant said he seeks feedback from his boss on his performances. He said he does that every week by speaking to his operations manager to know how he has performed. He also said that on a weekly basis that the operations managers has conference calls with the store managers to discuss how the stores are doing, and if the store managers are hitting their targets or not they would be told straight away. He also said that sometimes if there is a problem half way through the week the store manager gets feedback straight away. He said the feedback details ways to improve, as well as celebrations on the successes made. And, at times it may demand that the store manager receive extra coaching from the operations manager. The participant also revealed that one of the developmental activities in the company is what they call the options programme, which is basically a management training programme for developing managers. He said he used that opportunity to</p>

identify the strongest members of his team (i.e. in term of their performances) and recommend such employees for partaking in the options programme so they would be trained to become team leaders and duty managers, and from there they can walk their ways up the ladder to become store managers. He said such employees who are selected to partake in the options programme do have their weekly files which contain their training and developmental needs, and as such they can help to develop themselves further off the job, in order to walk their ways up the ladder quicker. He said the options programme first takes the participant to assessment centre and they spend a full day doing group activities and interviews, and a team of six would decide if they are capable of being on the programme or not. Then if they are selected to continue on the options programme, they would spend the next six months on the programme including both on-the-job and off-the-job learning. The participant also said he gives workers the needed support, then he grants them autonomy and flexibility to do their job so they can achieve a high level of mastery on the job and to get them to the next level. He also said the company has a graduate programme which allows people with 2.1 to apply and go on the programme so they can graduate to become either duty or store managers within six months. He said the company keeps pushing the store managers to keep developing people by making sure that at any point in time (at least) one of their staff is on the options programme, according to this participant. And that one of the questions on the annual review of the managers is:

	<p>'have you got any of your staff on development (i.e. on the graduate programme or the options programme)?' And, once the staff who is on development is signed off the manager must identify the next person to go on board. He also said the training programmes are on the company's website. He also said the training plans are reviewed annually.</p>
<p>M01, BS01b, F</p>	<p>The participant said she seeks feedback from her boss on her performance. She also said the feedback is done on quarterly basis. The feedback follows their quarterly reviews, which is done every 12 – 13 weeks. She said the feedback could be either positive or negative or a mixture of both, but that her feedback has been good because of the transformations she's done on her store. She said the company's other approaches for pursuing management and staff training and development is on-the-job training, which is done on daily basis. She also said the common plans for pursuing staff and management training and development in the entire organisation is the options programme. She said that everybody is entitled to go on the options programme, regardless of your level or cadre, there is always an opportunity to get you to the next level, via the options programme. And, while on the options programme the candidate has to work towards the next level of options while doing that, according to this participant. She said before a person is admitted into the programme the candidate would first have to go on review to see if he / she fit the criteria to go on the options programme. She said once a candidate is on the options programme the person is</p>

	<p>continuously reviewed weekly by the store manager, reviewed monthly by the personnel manager, and area managers review the candidate every quarterly, and that the idea is that within a year the candidate should be moving to the next level. She also said that sometime there are people who learn fast so they would be made to go on the FastTrack so they can do the training within half the normal time (i.e. within 18 weeks or 12 weeks instead of a year). She said the FastTrack is the same thing as the options programme, just that the former is condensed.</p>
M01, BS01c, M	<p>The participant said he doesn't seek feedback from his boss, but from his colleagues on his performance. He also said the feedback from his colleagues and his subordinates are generally good, that is positive. He also said the company has extra training programme for the staff and management such as on alcohol licensing, the first aid training, on-the-job training for the cash office, and training for stock control. He also mentioned the options programme.</p>
M01, BS01d, M	<p>The participant said he seeks feedback from his boss on his performance, and that he does that quarterly. He said such feedback focuses on how he extracts information, how he relates with his team, how he communicates with people, etc. with the aim of building his personal developmental plan, and whether he needs to change his leadership style. He also said his team do e-learning every four weekly on the shop floor. He said it covers various areas of their operations, such as alcohol training, health and safety training, etc. He also said through their reviews that potential talents</p>

	<p>are identified so they could be utilized (i.e. by putting them through the FastTrack programme so they could come back in store). First, that when they are identified as having the potential, that they go through a panel, then from there they join others for group and individual training exercises. He also said the plan is reviewed quarterly by himself and once a month by his personnel manager. He also said the FastTrack training plan should be written in the Tesco training and developmental website.</p>
M01, BS01e, M	<p>The participant said he doesn't seek feedback from his superiors on his performances. He also said their company's other approaches for pursuing its staff training and development in the entire organisation includes, six monthly training on the computer and which is a refresher on the legal activities that they have to do. He said they also do six monthly refresher courses on every other area of their operations, and they get audited twice a year to make sure they are doing it. He also mentioned the options programme.</p>
M01, BS01f, M	<p>The participant said he seeks feedback from his boss on his performance. He said they have consistent meetings and feedback with his superior (i.e. the operations manager who makes weekly visits to the stores), then they also have quarterly performance review. He said the feedback emphasize the developmental needs, growths on the business, challenges in the stores, and how the store manager relate with his / her colleagues and plans that could be mapped to go forward. He said he started as a shop assistant just five years ago and through the options programme that he has</p>

	<p>developed and progressed to a store manager which is his current role. He said there are various opportunities (within the options programme) for staff to get upskilled and move to the next level if they are identified as having the potentials. He also said the training plans and programmes are being reviewed quarterly by the company.</p>
<p>M01, BS01g, F</p>	<p>The participant said she seeks feedback from her boss on her performance and that she gets the feedback every quarterly following their formal reviews. She also said her boss seeks feedback from her as well. She also said the feedback have been quite good, while she has also been encouraged to stretch herself to make sure she builds networks and move to the next level, as she is currently on the options programme for the next level. The participant also said their other approaches for pursuing staff and management training and development in their entire organisation is the legal trainings that they have to do, such as the seven weeks training that they have to complete in certain mandatory areas. She also gave the other examples as a twice-a-year training that every manager has to complete on the Tesco website, and that this is monitored. She also said every manager must pass / complete the training before he / she is signed off the training programme.</p>
<p>M01, BS01h, F</p>	<p>The participant said she seeks feedback from her boss on her performance. She also said such feedback is done quarterly, on reviews. She said the content of such feedback depends on the type of quarter one has had, and that it could also vary from very good,</p>

	<p>not too good and bad feedback meaning the person needs tremendous improvement in certain areas that will be specified. She also said the other approach that the company has for pursuing their staff and management trainings and development is the 'talent spot' to identify the staff that would like to go further with the company because according to her some want to, while some don't want to go further with the company. Then they try to send the spotted talents (i.e. if the person is interested) to the options programme or the Fast Track. She said the common plan for pursuing staff training and development in their entire company is, if a candidate is a team leader, the person goes to the Fast Track (for fourteen weeks) to become deputy store manager or store manager, or to courses or seminars or workshops (off-sites) for upskilling. She also said the type of courses attended depends on the level the staff is in. She said some will spend six months on their courses then they would be signed off to go and do placements. She also said the plans are written down on the company's developmental plans and are reviewed weekly and monthly.</p>
<p>M01, BS02, M</p>	<p>The participant said he seeks feedback from his boss on his performance. He said they have in-house performance review which happens twice a year, but that there is also always 360 degree feedback form that you can use to seek feedback from anybody in the business anytime. He also said there is a questionnaire that everybody in the business fills in to assess the management. He said the feedback giving are constructive and depends on how you</p>

have performed your tasks. For instance, instead of saying you have not done this right, it could say there are developmental needs or developmental opportunities. Then at some other times it could be commendations on a job well done. The participant said they also have on-the-job coaching and in-house trainings as their other approaches for pursuing their staff and management trainings and developments. And, that each colleague has to go through a review to see how they are performing and they'd have twelve weeks sign off period. If they are up to the required level, they would keep them on. They also have six monthly review, as well as their attendance to mandatory and optional trainings annually. He also said most of their trainings occur within the first six months that an individual join the company, then if the individual wants to move to a different department or store they would be made to do a training for that particular part of the store and they would have another six months to complete that. He also said they have mandatory trainings for fire and alcohol sales, and that these are high priority trainings. He also said all trainings come from the same website and that it is generic for whatever store one is working, then there are always some in-house bits that you'd have to add to it to cater for certain differences between stores (such as their sizes). He also said within their training sites you can choose whether it is a supermarket, a convenience store then you go for the training package that suits your preference. He also said the training plans are reviewed and updated at the head office to suit the changes in legislation and other

	<p>procedural changes. He also said when the training plans change, the staff have refreshers to update them on such changes. He said it is possibly reviewed yearly, and as the business is evolving it is reviewed to fit for purpose. He also said the plan is on their training website.</p>
<p>M02, BS02, M</p>	<p>The participant said they have feedback every week, but that they have detailed feedback every six months (usually three hours). The participant also said such feedback could either be positive or negative and tells one what he / she needs doing that week. The participant said their company's other approaches for pursuing its staff and management training and development include corporate trainings, e.g. the fire trainings that are done every six months. And, if someone is learning a new skill once they are signed off, it finishes, unless something new comes up then they would be retrained base on the new procedure.</p>

Eight out of the ten leaders of British supermarkets interviewed said they seek and / or receive feedback from their superiors on their performance. One person said he does not seek feedback from his boss, but from his colleagues, but they all said the feedback identifies their developmental needs, how to develop and offers commendations on their strong points. One of the respondents said she neither seeks nor receives feedback from her superiors on her performance. Nine out of the ten respondents said their organisations have approaches for pursuing staff and management training and development which include, planning for, creating

mechanisms for, and developing an environment conducive for learning (Marsick and Watkins, 1997) and designing training and development programmes (Wang, 2010).

Theme: Top Management Support for Leadership Development (TMSLD)

Table 6.16b: The table below shows top management support for Leadership Development activities in British supermarkets

	Factors
F1	Empower and offer freedom and autonomy to employees (Gray, 2005).
F2	Provide employees with the opportunities to learn from their work (Dalakoura, 2010)
F3	Planning for, creating mechanisms for, and developing an environment conducive for learning (Marsick and Watkins, 1997)
F4	Designing training and development programmes (Wang, 2010)

Frequencies:

F1	F2	F3	F4
0	8	9	9

How strongly they feel:

F3	F4	F2
9	9	8

Model:

Top Management Support for Leadership Development (TMSLD) = F(F3, F4, F2)

Theme: Barriers to Leadership Development (BLD)

Table 6.17a: The table below presents responses to the below question by leaders of Nigerian supermarkets.

Relevant interview question: Do you think there is anything that hinders you from learning new and improved ways of doing your job? If yes, can you give some examples of such hindrances?

Participants	Barriers to Leadership Development (BLD)
M01, NS01, M	The participant said the only barrier to his learning is the <i>recalcitrant</i> employees who would try to undermine his authority.
M01, NS02, M	The participant said the barriers to his learning and development are time and money. For instance, he said he would like to gain further knowledge in the University but that he neither has the time nor the funding to pursue such ambition.
M02, NS02, M	The participant said the company's policies are detrimental to his learning and development. He said the company's culture doesn't support his individual learning and development. For instance, he said the company policy doesn't permit him to try and experiment new and improved ways of doing things.

M03, NS02, M	The participant said there are no barriers to his learning and developments.
M01, NS03, M	The participant said time is the only barrier to his learning and development. He also said being the owner manager means his regular attention is needed in the business.
M01, NS04, M	The participant said time-factor is mostly the major barrier to his personal learning and development. Because due to the hectic nature of their business he hasn't been able to prioritize his time to pursue his personal development.
M02, NS04, M	The participant said time-factor is the only hindrance that inhibits his ability to learn new and improved ways of doing his job. For instance, he said due to lack of time, he can't move round to visit other shops to learn new and improved knowledge. Even as the store has access to the internet, he said he can't find time to explore knowledge through the internet.
M03, NS04, F	The participant said lack of time and finance are her major hindrances to pursuing her individual learning and development. For instance, working six or seven days a week doesn't allow her time to attend learning and development trainings and workshop. Finance, according to the participant is another barrier to her learning in the sense that, for instance, she do have some developmental opportunities that she would like to explore but she can't fund such due to financial constraints.

M01, NS05, F	The participant said the top management is her only barrier to learning and development. She said the top management doesn't support her individual learning and development. For instance, she said each time she suggests new and improved ways of doing things for the company (such as when she learns from her experienced and international customers and clients), that such ideas never gets approval from the management, and as such, the company policy doesn't permit her to try and experiment new and improved ways of doing things.
M01, NS06, M	The participant said the only constraints to his learning and development is lack of time.
M02, NS06, M	The participant said he has no barriers to his learning and development.
M03, NS06, M	The participant said there are no barriers to his learning.
M01, NS07, F	The participant said she has no barriers to her learning.
M01, NS08, M	The participant said the only barrier to his learning and development is finance. He said the government and supposedly funding agencies in Nigeria do not provide the necessary funding and soft loans to support business activities in the country. He also said that

	<p>racial discrimination in Nigeria does not allow level playing ground in the grocery retail market. He said there is racial discrimination by the authorities in Nigeria in their allocation of landed properties for location and siting of grocery stores, based on skin colour. He said investors with certain skin colours are giving preferential treatments in terms of being allowed to open supermarkets in key sites, at the expense of their competitors.</p>
M01, NS09a, M	<p>The participant said the only constraint to his learning and development is time. He said working six days a week doesn't allow him time to focus on his personal development.</p>
M02, NS09a, M	<p>The participant said the only constraint to his learning and development is time. The participant said working nine hours a day and six days a week do not allow him ample time to focus on his individual development.</p>
M03, NS09a, M	<p>The participant said there are no barriers to his learning.</p>
M04, NS09a, M	<p>The participant said there are no barriers to his learning and development.</p>
M01, NS09b, M	<p>The participants said there are no barriers to his learning and development.</p>
M02, NS09b, M	<p>The participant said there are no hindrances to his learning and development.</p>

M03, NS09b, M	The participant said the only barrier to his learning is time. He said the nature of the business normally does not allow enough time to concentrate on one's individual development. He said working 6 days a week leaves him with no spare time to pursue his personal development. Even at times that the headquarters call them (i.e. the managers) for training he doesn't attend due to lack of time to attend.
M04, NS09b, F	The participant said the only barrier to her learning and development is time.
M05, NS09b, F	The participant said she has no barriers to her learning and developments.
M01, NS09c, M	The participant said the top management is the main barrier to his individual learning and development. He said the management doesn't provide enabling environment for people to learn and improve their worth. For instance, the top management doesn't allow them to experiment new and improve ways of doing things, the management doesn't trust the workers, and the management doesn't allow them to learn new skills and knowledge with the company's internet. He also said time-factor is another barrier to his learning and development. He said the job takes nearly all the time he has in a week, which is at the expense of his personal learning and developmental needs.

M02, NS09c, M	He said the only barrier to his development is the busy nature of the business. Though he argued that this has its own advantage because if he manages less busier store in the future, having been trained on a busy store that he could easily priorities his time to attain to his individual developmental needs.
M03, NS09c, M	The participant said there are no barriers to his learning and developments. He said the management encourages the staff to keep learning on the job.
M04, NS09c, F	The participant said she doesn't have any barriers to her learning and development.
M05, NS09c, F	The participant said the only barrier to her learning and development is time, which according to her is a common challenge for the hospitality industry.
M06, NS09c, M	The participant said he has no barriers to his learning and developments.
M07, NS09c, M	The participant said there are no barriers to his learning and developments.

The barriers to learning and development vary among the respondents from Nigerian supermarkets. Twelve out of the thirty respondents said that lack of time (Ford, 2006; Fourie, 2013; Ellinger and Cseh, 2007) is their main barrier. Two respondents each said it is lack of money, and top management (i.e. Leadership not committed to

learning) (Ellinger and Cseh, 2007). One person each said their main barriers are organisational policies (i.e. structural inhibitors) (Ellinger and Cseh, 2007), and recalcitrant employees; whereas thirteen persons said they have no barriers to their learning and development.

Theme: Barriers to Leadership Development (BLD)

Table 6.17b: The table below shows barriers to Leadership Development (BLD) in Nigerian supermarkets

	Factors
F1	Lack of time (Ford, 2006; Fourie, 2013; Ellinger and Cseh, 2007)
F2	'Not learning' (Bateson, 1972; Turner, Mavin and Minocha, 2006)
F3	Learning models not close enough to the operational realities of work (Walter, 2012)
F4	Information overload and poor information organization (Fourie, 2013)
F5	Leadership not committed to learning, Structural inhibitors, Fast pace of change, and Negative attitudes (of learners and top management) (Ellinger and Cseh, 2007)
F6	Managers, employees, HRD professionals, organisational culture, the structure of work, and resources (Sambrook and Stewart, 2000: 217)

Frequencies:

F1	F2	F3	F4	F5	F6
6	0	0	0	3	2

How strongly they feel:

F1	F5	F6
6	3	2

Model:

Barriers to Leadership Development (BLD) = F(F1)

Theme: Barriers to Leadership Development (BLD)

Table 6.18a: The table below presents responses to the below question by leaders of British supermarkets.

Relevant interview question: Do you think there is anything that hinders you from learning new and improved ways of doing your job? If yes, can you give some examples of such hindrances?

Participants	Barriers to Leadership Development (BLD)
M01, BS01a, M	The participant said the only barrier to his learning and development is time.
M01, BS01b, F	The participant said the only barriers to her learning is time, but that this could be overcome if one has the will to move forward.

M01, BS01c, M	The participant said the only barrier to his learning and development is himself. He said he concentrates on the learning and development of others without paying much attention to his individual learning and developmental needs.
M01, BS01d, M	The participant said the only barrier to pursuing his learning and development is lack of money.
M01, BS01e, M	He said the only barrier to his learning is shortage of staff, and which makes him to be overworking himself. In order words, there is lack of time for him to pursue his learning and developmental needs.
M01, BS01f, M	The participant said the only barrier to his learning and development is time. He said most times he focus on the job and forgets to develop himself.
M01, BS01g, F	The participant said the only barrier to her learning and development is time.
M01, BS01h, F	The participant said there are no barriers to her learning and developments.
M01, BS02, M	The participant said the only barrier to his learning and development is time, but that if one is a little more organised that this could be overcome by adjusting the work to suit the time.
M02, BS02, M	The participant said the only barrier to his learning is lack of time.

The barriers to learning and development among the respondents from the British supermarkets studied varied significantly from their Nigerian counterparts. Seven out of ten interviewed said their only barrier to learning and development is lack of time (Ford, 2006; Fourie, 2013; Ellinger and Cseh, 2007). One person said it is ‘self’ (which Bateson, 1972; Turner, Mavin and Minocha, 2006 viewed as, ‘**Not learning**’), and one person said it was lack of money, whereas one person said she has no barriers to her learning.

Theme: Barriers to Leadership Development (BLD)

Table 6.18b: The table below shows barriers to Leadership Development (BLD) in British supermarkets

	Factors
F1	Lack of time (Ford, 2006; Fourie, 2013; Ellinger and Cseh, 2007)
F2	‘Not learning’ (Bateson (1972; Turner, Mavin and Minocha, 2006)
F3	Learning models not close enough to the operational realities of work (Walter, 2012)
F4	Information overload and poor information organization (Fourie, 2013)
F5	Leadership not committed to learning, Structural inhibitors, Fast pace of change, and Negative attitudes (of learners and top management) (Ellinger and Cseh, 2007)
F6	Managers, employees, HRD professionals, organisational culture, the structure of work, and resources (Sambrook and Stewart, 2000: 217)

Frequencies:

F1	F2	F3	F4	F5	F6
7	1	0	0	0	1

How strongly they feel:

F1	F2	F6
7	1	1

Model:

Barriers to Leadership Development (BLD) = F(F1)

6.3: Chapter Summary:

Three key findings are evident in this results chapter. These are:

- 1. Leadership Development and HRD practices in Nigerian and the UK Retail Supermarkets are socially constructed. In other words, socio-cultural, socio-political and socio-economic factors wield significant influences on their HRD and leadership development practices (Jones, 2011):**

From the empirical data, the HRD and leadership development practices in the studied Nigerian supermarkets were mostly based around on-the-job (i.e. informal) learning (Dixon, 1993; Institute of Management, 1994), whereas their UK counterparts relied mainly on attendances at conferences or seminars, and Management Development Programmes (MDPs) (O'Connor, Mangan and Cullen, 2006) (i.e. formal learning) to develop their leaders. This variation between the leadership development practices in these two countries also seemed to have been influenced by culture and societal variables (McLean, Bartlett and Cho, 2003; Posner, 2013; Hofstede et al, 2010; Hofstede, 1980, 2001; Iwowo, 2011; Den Hartog et al., 1999; House et al., 2004). Little wonder that earlier studies (such as McLean, Bartlett and Cho, 2003; Posner, 2013; Hofstede et al, 2010; Hofstede, 1980, 2001; Iwowo, 2011; Den Hartog et al., 1999; House et al., 2004) had emphasised that leadership development could vary internationally as it is influenced by culture and societal variables. Prototyping (Hogg and Terry 2000; Hogg 2001; Jones, 2011; Grint 2005b; 2007 and 2009; Kempster, 2009; Cook, 2006; Bandura, 1977, 1986) was, for example, acknowledged as a form of leadership development practice adopted by one participant in Nigerian. The participant argued that his prototype is the best practice (Adebanjo, Abbas, and Mann, 2010; Moriarty, 2011, Smith, 2006) available to learn from in the retail supermarket sector in Nigeria. Other leadership development approaches that are common in the Nigerian supermarkets studied but not found in their UK counterparts included: executive coaching (Hagemann and Stroepe, 2013; Stokes and Jolly, 2010; Baron and Morin, 2009; Ellinger and Ellinger, 2013); communities of practice (Argyris, 1999; Brown, Collins and Duguid, 1989; Lave and Wenger, 1991; Wenger, 1998; Barrett and Oborn, 2010; Oborn and Dawson, 2010a; Oborn, Barrett and Racko, 2013); and connectivism (Dunaway, 2011; Siemens, 2004).

2. Leadership Development practices in both Nigerian and UK Retail Supermarkets involve both formal and informal learning methods (Jones, 2011):

Participants from both countries adopted both formal and informal learning in their leadership development practices. The only difference lies in the degree to which these supermarkets integrate these two learning approaches. For instance, participants from Nigerian supermarkets relied more on informal learning (i.e. on the job learning in the workplace) (Dixon, 1993; Institute of Management, 1994), while their British counterparts relied more on formal learning (i.e. Personal skills training; conferences/seminars; and MDPs) (O'Connor, Mangan and Cullen, 2006).

3. Their core competencies developed varied significantly between the two countries:

Finally, it is very important to note that the core competencies developed by leaders in these two countries vary significantly. For instance, while the Nigerian supermarkets are more concerned with developing – team leading skills, performance management skills, and maintaining good interpersonal relationships, in their British counterparts, particularly, in Tesco Supermarket they are competent (mainly) in taking reflective actions and leading their teams successfully as well.

Chapter 7

Discussion of Findings:

7.1: Introduction:

The preceding chapter presented and analysed the empirical findings of this study, and to achieve the main objective of the study, and which is 'to understand the effectiveness of the various HRD interventions adopted in developing leadership competencies in supermarkets in Nigeria and the UK', the present chapter discusses the results. In doing so, section 7.2 tailors the discussions to compare and contrast the results with the gaps in prior studies and extant literature in order to tease out the key thesis findings and contributions to knowledge. Section 7.3 presents the HRD implications of the findings of this research.

7.2: Discussions, Uniqueness and Contributions to existing literature:

This thesis explores and compares the HRD interventions (and HRD outcomes for that matter) of retail supermarkets in Nigeria and the UK. Particularly, it offers an explanatory model on the specific learning strategies involved in developing specific leadership competencies in these understudied supermarkets. As such, the thesis not only helps us to understand the effectiveness of the various HRD interventions adopted in developing leadership competence in supermarkets in Nigerian and UK,

but challenges some of our assumptions about the compositions of HRD activities in various parts of the world, especially in retail supermarket setting.

In terms of the fundamental competences enhanced in their leadership development programmes, this thesis has found team-leading skills as a common competence developed by participants from both countries, whereas performance management skills and interpersonal skills were the competencies peculiar to the participants from the Nigerian supermarkets, unlike their UK counterparts. However, since the description of the David Kolb's Experiential Learning Cycle by The University of Leicester (2016) matches very well with the description (by the participants from Tesco) of the Tesco Options Programme (see table Table 7.1), it is not surprising, therefore, that the core competence developed by these participants from the UK supermarkets is an ability to take 'reflective actions' (Kolb, 1984). By this, this thesis, therefore, explores the effectiveness of the ELT as a learning intervention, and an area where the literature on retail supermarkets had previously overlooked. This thesis also reflects Mumford's (2005, p.17) concerns "that little use has been made of the learning theories to assess the potential or the actual achievement of the case method in management development". Mumford also argues that if HRD practitioners can utilise insights from learning theorists (such as David Kolb) they would not only make a more meaningful contribution to our understanding about how people learn, they will also improve the learners' understanding about their own learning (Mumford, 2005, p.17). This thesis not only concurs with Mumford's argument, but, also, justifies Hughes' (1981, p.198) argument on "the value of (learning) theories in the execution of practice".

Another unique contribution of this thesis to the critical HRD literature, is to the debate on the critical role of HRD scholars in setting the future direction for the field. For instance, Ghosh, et al., (2014, p.302) “found that the boundaries of the field (of HRD) are constantly expanding with some of the older and mature themes losing momentum and new themes coming to the forefront of scholarly interest”. Yet, this thesis reveals that such “older and mature themes” like the ELT has not lost momentum, instead it is still at the forefront of scholarly interests and organisational practices as well. Other scholars also assert that “what is missing in these efforts (of academic scholars) is a content analysis of HRD scholarship as reflected by what conceptual and empirical research HRD scholars have published over the past decade” (Ghosh, et al., 2014, p.303). Callahan and Dunne de Davila (2004) have earlier suggested that going back through the works of previous researchers (such as David Kolb, in this thesis) would allow us to have a quick reflection on the actions undertaken by such previous researchers, so as to identify patterns taken in those actions. This thesis is therefore a step in the right direction as it reflects what steps Kolb and Fry (1975) and Kolb (1984) took in their classic ELT research.

However, in terms of the strategic value of the leadership development programmes of the UK and Nigerian retail supermarkets, this thesis also compares them with the strategic value of HRD outcomes in various parts of the world. Consequently, the thesis concurs with the competency literature which argues that competency is culture-specific, or, at least, industry-specific. For instance, Yaw and Ofori’s (2006) study found the HRD outcomes in the Tanzanian construction firms to include – business development skills, managerial skills, accounting and finance skills, IT skills, environmental impact assessment and management skills, project management skills,

and quantitative technique skills. Similarly, the Chinese firms are concerned with developing communication, problem-solving, job-basics, technical knowledge, and dispositional characteristic skills (Xiao, 2008). Yet, employees' perceptions of such 'fundamental' job-related competencies vary significantly across organisations, industries, occupations, and even across the three regions of China in which the study was conducted (Xiao, 2008). By the same token, Garavan and Carbery (2012) also argue that the configurations of industry-wide business environment, national institutions, internal and external business environments, and national culture all culminate to influencing the particular individual-level and firm-level HRD outcomes. For instance, Kim, Kwon and Pyun (2008) found that the HRD practices of Korean firms are linked to the strategic objectives of the organisations with a key focus on developing high performers through transformational learning interventions and individual learning rather than in groups. Similarly, participants from the Nigerian retail supermarkets studied revealed that the strategic value of their leadership development activities are evident through their personal satisfaction, skill-growth, knowledge and insights, as well as through their ability to contribute at a higher level. In the UK supermarkets, eight (out of ten) of the participants said the strategic values of their leadership development programmes include the creation of a talent pool of managers (especially through the Tesco options programme), whereas seven of the participants said the strategic values of their learning and development is evident through their ability to contribute at higher levels. By creating such talent pool of managers, the UK supermarkets care for the long-term human capital needs of their businesses, and a practice which also likens to the HRD systems in Taiwanese, South Korean and Singaporean firms, whereas the strategic value of the HRD outcomes of the Nigerian supermarkets replicate the situation in the Persian Gulf. For instance, Ashton et al.

(2002) found that in Taiwan, South Korea and Singapore, government and institutional frameworks are designed to support economic growth, thereby ensuring steady skills formation to check acute skill shortages in these countries. While such institutional frameworks are designed to match the demand for skills with appropriate levels of quantity and quality of skills (supplied) (Ashton, 2002), this is in sharp contrast to the situation in the Persian Gulf, which, in fact, replicates the Nigerian HRD scenario. For instance, Achoui's (2009) study of the Gulf Arab countries found a weak relationship between the needs of the economic sectors of these Arab nations (i.e. in terms of the skill sets needed by the key sectors of their economies) and the outputs of their educational systems, hence these countries rely heavily on migrant workers. The only difference between the case in the Persian Gulf and Nigeria's is that even though Nigeria may not be over-reliant on migrant workers but the countries education systems do not produce the leadership competencies needed to power its economic growth and development (Ohiorhenuan, 2011). This has been resulting in the stagnation, slow growth in its economy, and/or rising inequality, and which makes the country not likely to meet most millennium development goals (MDGs) (Ohiorhenuan, 2011). Yet, as noted by Trehan (2004) a measure of HRD depends on metrics such as – improved organisational performance, decrease in absenteeism, improved sales, and increased ROI. Similarly, Anderson (2007) found that while ROI is a term used most popularly by learning and development professionals, ROI is not a popular term among senior managers. Senior managers are rather more interested in issues such as successful succession planning, the level of employees' strategic readiness, the level that employees exhibit expected novel behaviours, the scope of the pool and the level at which specific strategic people skills have been developed (Anderson, 2007). Yet, from the findings it could be argued that the top management of the Nigerian

supermarkets studied do not appear to be interested in issues such as the scope of the pool and the level of employees' strategic readiness, unlike in their UK counterparts where through the Tesco Options Programme high performers are constantly identified (and giving extra attention through training and development) for succession planning and to meet the company's ambitious growth agenda. Yet, Iles and Yolles (2003, p. 152) had suggested that such traditional and outdated "input-transformation-output" systems models which is at the foundation of the traditional OD and HRD practices be abandoned as they are not suitable for understanding and managing transformational change and HRD complexities. This view has also been supported by Vince (2003, p. 558) who proposed that for HRD to flourish, academia, researchers and practitioners should make it more complicated by focusing on supporting "the impact people can have on organising rather than on people development". This thesis therefore contributes to such debate on the strategic value of the learning to an organisation.

In addition, job related competencies across the globe are not only influenced by culture, but this thesis has also found that HRD outcome is largely influenced by a country's legislature, economy, HRD life-cycle and indigenous institutions, hence making the purpose of HRD to vary significantly from country to country. For instance, Abdullah (2009) found that (in both theory and in practice), what constitutes HRD practice (or HRD outcomes for that matter) in a given country is largely influenced by the country's legislature, economy, societal value system, HRD life-cycle and government, hence making the purpose of HRD to vary significantly from country to country. Similarly, some scholars (see, for example, Lynham and Cunningham, 2006) have identified some resemblances among countries' (or even regional) HRD

practices, i.e. based on the convergence debate in the national culture literature. Hofstede et al. (2010) also postulate that where people grow up shapes the way they think, feel, and act. For instance, Nikandrou et al. (2008) who explored the influence of organisational and national culture on the performance of firms in Europe with regard to training found that institutional and socio-cultural factors wield major impacts on training and development and firms' performance. Stewart (2005) also found cultural diversities, socio-political and socio-economic factors as wielding significant influences on HRD practices and theories in different EU countries. By this, this thesis also contributes uniquely to the literature on constructivist account of competency development and associated phenomena.

Furthermore, regarding top managements' support for learning, Lien and McLean (2004) interviewed seven HR practitioners in Taiwan to examine their HRD preferences, and found that the HRD practices in Taiwan relates to training, while the success of such training depends on top managers' support for, and vision of, HRD. The top management support for leadership development programmes in Nigerian retail supermarkets are evidenced through the provision of opportunities for employees to learn from their work; planning for, creating mechanisms for, and developing an environment that is conducive for learning, and in designing training and development programmes. This is identical to how the top management teams of the UK supermarkets supported their leadership and development programmes. However, the difference between the UK and Nigerian experience is that few of the participants from the Nigerian supermarkets also revealed that their top management empowers them by offering them freedom and autonomy to learn and develop from their work through delegation of authority to these lower level managers, whereas their

UK counterparts did not admit to be benefitting from such opportunities. However, prominent among the conditions for successful business leadership development are – top management support, integration of leadership development with business strategy, and the fit of leadership development practices with other HR practices and functions (Glastra and Meerman, 2012). This thesis, therefore, makes a unique contribution to such debate on top management support for learning and development.

Moreover, as a strategic orientation, Prince and Stewart (2000) have recognised an increasing need for senior managers to have subordinates who are trained to think and act independently and who have the capacity to relate to cutting-edge management thinking in order to facilitate the implementation of strategic plans. Accordingly, virtually all the participants from Nigeria and the UK supermarkets admitted to be identifying and analysing their training needs, to be planning and controlling resources for implementing them, and to be communicating such objectives to staff. This is a very good development for both countries because – just as Glastra and Meerman (2012) have suggested – for leadership skills to be legitimate or socially acceptable it must be understood, heard of and believed in for it to fit within the appropriate social setting. Similarly, Lobel (1990) who examined the success and effectiveness of training and development of global leaders, also argue that such (leadership) training programme should be designed to teach individual leaders to develop the capacity to learn (irrespective of the cultural setting), to develop team-building skills with diverse individuals, as well as to develop generalizable skills. Yet, both traditional as well as conventional ideas that inform HRD (including leadership development) practices tend to emphasise mechanistic approach to the subject. For instance, Vince (2003) had noted that many organisations HRD approach entails

learners to learn mechanistically, by first, identifying training gaps and then designing training and development activities to systematically fill such training-gaps. Yet, such approach to HRD practice does not represent a successful HRD outcome, as the link between such training approach and organisational performance is narrowly defined. Therefore, scholars (such as Hutchinson and Lawrence, 2011) who examined the level of effectiveness of such mechanistic learning experiences and a range of aims and outcomes of various training programmes have highlighted a variety of dilemmas, problems and challenges faced by learning facilitators, coaches and managers who attempt to run such impressive training sessions. By this, this thesis, therefore, increases the academic community's awareness of the limitations of some of the current HRD practices, which also raises some critical questions about the significance of some HRD tools applied in our leadership development programmes, especially, in developing countries. Yet, this thesis explores how, through the Tesco Options Programme, Tesco explicitly lays out a unique innovative approach to experiential learning, and which provides confidence to leaders in Tesco and which could possibly have the same effect if applied in the Nigerian retail supermarkets. Hence, the thesis, also, offers HRD practitioners and leadership development consultants a justification for a transformational shift in their thinking and application of learning methodologies in leadership development practices, especially, in retail supermarket setting. This, therefore, does not only make a unique contribution to the debate on the impact of social environment on a learning model, but also provides a constructivist account of competency development and associated phenomena (especially) in retail supermarket setting.

However, by appreciating the importance of HRD theories in HRD research, this thesis not only proves that HRD theories inform practice, but also helps to clarify some of the disagreements within the current theorising of critical HRD. For instance, some scholars have argued that much work in HRD are merely theoretical, hence lacking practical guidance for practitioners, as “empirical investigations that have systematically applied critical approaches to HRD are in short supply, and their potential to enrich HRD practice has rarely been explored” (Trehan and Rigg, 2011, p. 277). Therefore, by exploring how HRD theories inform practice, this thesis also challenges those critical HRD theorists who argue that HRD researchers have failed to appreciate the importance of HRD theories in HRD research (Gilley, 2006), or the lack of the researchers’ competence to undertake HRD research (Bassi, 1998), or simply, their failure to appreciate the importance of HRD research (Gilley, 2006).

7.3: HRD Implications:

With the aid of empirical data (and underpinned by the literature) this thesis compares leadership competences and HRD interventions in retail supermarkets drawn from Nigeria and the UK in order to determine how to improve the competences of the supermarket leaders in Nigerian, by learning from their UK counterparts. However, the key difference found in the leadership competences of the participants was ‘reflective action taking’, and this was identified in the responses of 88% (i.e. 7 out of 8) of Tesco leaders and 50% (i.e. 1 out of 2) of Sainsbury’s leaders interviewed (see Tables 6.4a and 6.4b). When asked the question: How important do you think that this event (i.e. engagement in leadership development activities) has been in your development as a

leader? These participants' responses indicate that they have now developed abilities to take reflective actions.

Indeed, from the findings of this thesis (and with reference to the review of the literature), reflective action taking is very important for transforming an organisation. By definition, reflective action taking is a practice where learners mirror on their past experiences and actions (taking during such experiences) in order to engage in a process of continuous learning, and which is also the main tenet of the David Kolb's (1984) ELT. Reflective action taking enables clearer thinking (before taking actions), hence reduces our tendencies towards emotional bias, therefore, enhances happiness and personal fulfilment, as the learner can then see and understand him/herself as a more objective person.

Indeed, through the case study (of Tesco), this thesis can confirm the relevance of the ELT to leadership development in the current competitive retail market, as the participants' responses have revealed how the company uses the Tesco Options Programme as an effective application of Kolb's ELT. Therefore, the novelty of this study lies in the fact that the insights gleaned from the empirical study of Tesco was further fed into David Kolb's ELT table (as below) and it fits neatly well to prove that the Tesco Options Programme is designed to help leaders produce reflective action taking as the learning outcome. Below is the table:

Table 7.1: Matching David Kolb's Experiential Learning Cycle and the Tesco Options Programme

Stage	Description of Kolb's Learning Cycle	Activities to Help	Description of Tesco Options Programme
Concrete experience	<p>Kolb's cycle starts with a concrete experience. In other words it begins with doing something in which the individual, team or organisation are assigned a task. Key to learning therefore is active involvement. In Kolb's model one cannot learn by simply watching or reading about it, to learn effectively the individual, team or</p>	<p>ice breakers & energisers, team games, problem solving, discussion, practical exercises, e.g. making a presentation, debates.</p>	<p>To be entitled to go on the options programme, the candidate must have spent some time working in Tesco in order to gain some concrete experiences. For instance, the Tesco options programme is an <i>“opportunity to identify the strongest members of (my) team (i.e. in term of</i></p>

	organisation must actually do.		<i>their performances) and recommend such employees for partaking in the options programme so they would be trained to become team leaders and duty managers, and from there they can walk their ways up the ladder to become store managers” (see M01, BS01a, M, in Table 6.16a).</i>
Reflective observation	The second stage in the cycle is that of reflective observation. This means taking time-out from "doing" and stepping back	ask for observation, write a short report on what took place,	<i>“The options programme first takes the participant to assessment centre and they spend a full day doing</i>

	<p>from the task and reviewing what has been done and experienced. At this stage lots of questions are asked and communication channels are opened to others members of the team. Vocabulary is very important and is needed to verbalize and discuss with others.</p>	<p>give feedback to other participants, quiet thinking time, tea & coffee breaks, completing learning logs or diaries.</p>	<p><i>group activities and interviews, and a team of six would decide if they are capable of being on the programme or not. Then if they are selected to continue on the options programme, they would spend the next six months on the programme including both on-the-job and off-the-job learning” (see M01, BS01a, M, in Table 6.16a).</i></p>
<p>Abstract conceptualisation</p>	<p>Abstract Conceptualisation is the process of making sense of what has happened</p>	<p>present models, give theories, give facts.</p>	<p><i>“Once a candidate is on the options programme the person is continuously</i></p>

	<p>and involves interpreting the events and understanding the relationships between them. At this stage the learner makes comparisons between what they have done, reflect upon and what they already know. They may draw upon theory from textbooks for framing and explaining events, models they are familiar with, ideas from colleagues, previous observations, or any other knowledge that</p>		<p><i>reviewed weekly by the store manager, reviewed monthly by the personnel manager, and area managers review the candidate every quarterly”</i> (see M01, BS01b, F, in Table 6.16a).</p>
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	they have developed.		
Active experimentation	<p>The final stage of the learning cycle is when the learner considers how they are going to put what they have learnt into practice. Planning enables taking the new understanding and translates it into predictions as to what will happen next or what actions should be taken to refine or revise the way a task is to be handled. For learning to be useful most people need to place it in a context that is</p>	<p>give learners time to plan, use case studies, use role play, ask learners to use real problems.</p>	<p>Candidates on the options programme are given <i>“the needed support” by their store managers who grants them the “autonomy and flexibility to do their job so they can achieve a high level of mastery on the job and to get them to the next level”</i> of their career after the programme (see M01, BS01a, M, in Table 6.16a).</p>

	<p>relevant to them. If one cannot see how the learning is useful to one's life then it is likely to be forgotten very quickly.</p>		
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Source: Adapted from The University of Leicester, Graduate School, available at:

<http://www2.le.ac.uk/departments/gradschool/training/eresources/teaching/theories/kolb>

(Accessed on 11/09/2016).

However, a fundamental purpose of leadership development is to help leaders to develop knowledge and to build relationship networks that can help them cope with leadership problems in their constantly changing business agendas (Kolb, et al., 1986, p.13), and one of the most renowned learning strategies for achieving this is the Kolb's experiential learning theory. For instance, Kolb and Kolb (2010, p.26) have found that experiential learning can promote deep learning in the intellectual, physical, spiritual, and moral realms. However, with respect to the practice of HRD, experiential learning is "a cost-effective extension of in-house apprentice development programmes with attendees benefiting from an increase in motivation, improvement in self-awareness and personal responsibility, enhanced team work and improved communications skills" (Ritchie, 2011, p.179). Through involvement and active participation in a real

event, experiential learning do not only help learners to learn how to plan, implement and evaluate an event, but actively engaged learners would usually learn how to apply such skills to the real world of work (Lamb, 2015). Due to such benefits, the skills developed via experiential learning have been found to be easily transferred effectively back to the workplace (Lamb, 2015).

However, this connection between theory and practice, is, therefore, pivotal and is a prevailing theme of this thesis. By helping leaders to reflect on their experience and to adapt their learning to job-related events experiential learning, therefore, helps leaders to develop a wide range of job-related skills both personal and team based (Lamb, 2015). Experiential learning, is, indeed, a more exemplified holistic way of learning, which acknowledges the mind, the body and emotions of both learners and facilitators as they work together to experience a different way of learning and relating (Desmond and Jowitt, 2012). For instance, White (1992) studied various scenarios where ELT was applied in both workshop design and content involving management and professional development of physicians, educators, and social workers, and in a follow-up study it was found that the participants reported an increase in self-understanding and appreciation of their own and their colleagues' learning styles" while "some (participants) reported an improvement in their working relationships with others" (p. 55).

Furthermore, Gitsham (2012) drew on empirical data from the IBM and HSBC to explore the effectiveness and potential value of experiential learning approaches in developing the leadership mind-sets and leadership competences needed by leaders for an effective response to the pressures and opportunities they face. The study found

that a range of leadership outcomes were developed, and “that experiential, immersive experience was a fundamental factor in the achievement of these outcomes” (p. 298). As scholars (such as, Pauleen, Corbitt and Yoong, 2007) had earlier stressed, by providing a method that maps how organisations can learn from novel situations involving people and technology, experiential knowledge can provide competitive advantage. Gitsham (2012), therefore, suggest that HRD practitioners and management development consultants must lay more emphasis on the potential value of experiential learning approaches while designing and implementing their programmes.

However, this study is valuable and relevant to both in-house and external HRD practitioners who may wish to consider experiential learning programmes for training both their leaders and their entire workforce. This is because both Kolb's (1984) learning cycle and stages could be adopted by HRD practitioners and learning and development consultants in making a critical evaluation of their learning programmes in order to make the most of their learning opportunities (Gitsham, 2012). McLeod (2013) also suggested that, the learning “activities and material should be developed in ways that draw on (each learner’s) abilities at each stage of the experiential learning cycle and take the learners through the whole process in sequence”.

Chapter Eight

Conclusions and Recommendations:

8.1: Introduction

The discussions below provide conclusions and recommendations to stakeholders. However, instead of providing a generic conclusion, section 8.2 is tailored and discussed along the themes/comparators. This helps to tease out the similarities and differences in the various HRD interventions adopted in developing leadership competences in Nigerian and the UK Supermarkets studied. While section 8.3 provides some recommendations, 8.4 presents the limitations of this research. Based on the limitations (provided in 8.4) section 8.5 presents some suggestions for further studies to address/minimize those limitations. 8.6 presents the researcher's personal and professional reflection on the whole 'research-journey'.

8.2: Conclusions:

Theme 1: Approaches to Leadership Development (ALD)

On the job (i.e. informal) learning is the dominant HRD intervention for developing leadership competencies in the Nigerian supermarkets studied, whereas their UK counterparts develop mainly through attending personal skills training, conferences,

seminars and workshops. This sharp contrast in leadership development scenario between both countries underpins the theoretical arguments (by Den Hartog et al., 1999; Hofstede, 1980a,b; Hofstede, 2001; House et al., 2004) that leadership varies all over the world and that those theories developed in the USA, for instance, may not be applicable to other parts of the world due to cultural differences. Hofstede et al. (2010) also postulate that where people grow up shapes the way they think, feel, and act. Similarly, Abdullah (2009) argues that in both theory and in practice, that what constitutes HRD in a given country is largely influenced by the country's legislature, economy, societal value system, HRD life-cycle and the government, hence making the purpose of HRD to vary significantly from country to country. For instance, Lien and McLean (2004) interviewed seven HR practitioners in Taiwan to examine their preferences for carrying out HRD tasks and found that in Taiwan HRD practices is likened to training, and that the success of such training efforts depends on the top management's' support for, and vision of, HRD.

However, the cultural literature has also advanced the basis for analysing the impact of national culture on HRD practices. Such a cross-cultural viewpoint (on HRD) largely focuses on the distinctiveness of an individual country's value system, beliefs and traditions. As such, unique socio-cultural values and beliefs permeates social interaction and similarity in thinking among those who share in such culture (Garavan and Carbery, 2012), therefore, social and institutional practices (including HRD practices) are culture-specific. For instance, drawing on the convergent and divergent argument in the national culture literature, Lynham and Cunningham (2006) have found that national human resource development (NHRD) studies reveal similarities and differences among countries' and regional HRD practices across the globe.

Nikandrou et al. (2008), who explored the influence of organisational and national culture on the performance of firms in Europe with regard to training, also found that institutional and socio-cultural factors wield major impacts on training and development and firms' performance. Similarly, Stewart (2005) also found that cultural diversity and socio-political and socio-economic factors wield significant influences in HRD practices and theories in the different EU countries studied.

Theme 2: Fundamental Competences enhanced in Leadership Development programmes (FCLD)

The fundamental competences developed by leaders in Nigerian retail supermarkets include – leading teams, managing performance, and maintaining good interpersonal relationships. Also, very few of the respondents admitted to have learnt to be visionary, and they argue to have improved their abilities to undertake innovative reasoning, and how to take reflective actions as well. This is also in sharp contrast to the competencies of their UK counterparts studied. For instance, the ability to take reflective actions and to lead their teams effectively were the fundamental competences developed by leaders in the studied British retail supermarkets.

Indeed, the literature also argue that even with similarities in their HRD interventions the competencies developed by leaders in different cultures could vary. This is because leadership competence is culture-specific, or, at least, industry-specific. For instance, Yaw and Ofori (2006) found that the HRD practices in the Tanzanian construction industry is designed to equip workers with skills such as business

development skills, managerial skills, accounting and finance skills, IT skills, environmental impact assessment and management skills, project management skills, and quantitative technique skills. In a similar study, the skills that Chinese workers consider central to their performance are: communication, problem-solving, job-basics, technical knowledge, and dispositional characteristic skills (which simply means the ability to behave in the most intelligent way while performing one's assigned tasks) (Xiao, 2008). Yet, these employees' perceptions of such 'fundamental' job-related competencies vary significantly across organisations, industries, occupations, and even across the three regions of China in which the study was conducted (Xiao, 2008). Moreover, Garavan and Carbery (2012) argue that the configurations of industry-wide business environment, national institutions, internal and external business environments, and national culture all influence the particular individual-level and firm-level HRD outcomes.

Theme 3: Assessment of the competences developed in Leadership Development programmes (ACLD)

The competences developed in leadership development programmes in the Nigerian and UK retail supermarkets studied were evidenced through the same 'variables'. These variables include the trainees' reaction, their resultant managerial capabilities, subsequent performance appraisal, and the long-term impact of the leadership competences on their businesses. These findings concur with the studies by Kirkpatrick (1967, 1971) and Mabey (2002). Indeed, numerous models exist in relation to evaluating management development activities. For example, the classic evaluation

model designed by Kirkpatrick (as described in Thomson et al., 2001) which assesses the impact of training at four-levels of evaluation. These include (1) The trainees' reaction; (2) An assessment of learning via a follow-up questionnaire or focus group; (3) Impact on subsequent job performance, which is often reviewed at appraisal; and (4) Long-term impact on business, as indicated by such measures as customer feedback, productivity outcomes, attitude surveys and achieving organisational targets. Mabey (2002) also highlighted three important issues when evaluating management development. These are (1) that it needs contextualisation (depending on the sector, size etc.); (2) that intra-organisational features have even a greater influence on the formulation and implementation of human resource development. Finally, (3) that when assessing outputs, numerical measures of training days need to be supplemented by other qualitative measures, and that organisation should perhaps assess how successful the management development intervention has been on creating managerial capabilities.

Theme 4: Strategic Value of the Leadership Development activities (SVLD)

The strategic value of HRD activities should suit the strategic objective of the organisation. For instance, Kim, Kwon and Pyun (2008) found that companies' HRD practices in Korean firms are linked to the strategic objectives of the organisations with a key focus on developing high performers through transformational learning interventions and individual learning rather than in groups. However, participants from the Nigerian retail supermarkets studied revealed that the strategic value of their leadership development activities are evident through their personal satisfaction, skill-

growth, knowledge and insights, as well as through their ability to contribute at higher levels. In the UK supermarkets studied, eight (out of ten) of the participants said the strategic values of their leadership development programmes were evidenced through the creation of a talent pool of managers (which is through the Tesco options programme), whereas seven of the (UK) participants said the strategic values of their learning and development is evident through their ability to contribute at higher levels. These differences between the strategic values of leadership development programmes of supermarkets in these two countries is surmised as the UK supermarkets' interest in creating a talent pool of managers, against their Nigerian counterparts' nonchalance about such long-term human capital needs of their businesses.

However, the strategic value of the UK's HRD system could be likened to the HRD systems in Taiwan, South Korea and Singapore, whereas the Nigerian case replicates the situation in the Persian Gulf. For instance, Ashton et al. (2002) found that government and institutional frameworks that relate to education policies and programmes in Taiwan, South Korea and Singapore are designed to support their economic growths by ensuring steady skills formation to check acute skill shortages. Such structures emphasise the relationships between the demand for, and supply of, skills. Ashton (2002) advocates that such achievements in the national human resource development (NHRD) strategies of these countries are due to the type of relationship between the state and the labour, rather than the impacts of external forces such as the IMF. However, this is in sharp contrast to the situation in the Persian Gulf, which, in fact, replicates the Nigerian HRD scenario. For instance, Achoui's (2009) study of the Gulf Arab countries found a weak relationship between the needs

of the economic sectors of these Arab nations (i.e. in terms of the skill sets needed by the key sectors of their economies) and the outputs of their educational systems, hence these countries rely heavily on migrant workers. The only difference between the case in the Persian Gulf and Nigerian is that even though Nigeria may not be over-reliant on migrant workers but the countries education systems do not produce the leadership competencies needed to power its economic growth and development. This has been resulting in the stagnation, slow growth in its economy, and/or rising inequality, and which makes the country not likely to meet most millennium development goals (MDGs) (Ohiorhenuan, 2011).

Theme 5: Frequency of the Leadership Development activities (FLD):

There is also a sharp contrast between the frequencies of the leadership development activities of the Nigerian retail supermarkets and their UK counterparts'. This is not surprising because the Nigerian participants learn on the job and they, therefore, admit to be learning every day. Whereas for their UK counterparts, since their major approaches to learning and developments are attendance at conferences, trainings and workshops, and some of which could happen just annually, six-monthly, or quarterly, hence they did not admit to be learning every day. Though Jones (2011) has argued that leadership development programmes occur over a specified period of time, usually weeks or months, but their impact may not become fully apparent for months or years following the initial experience, as participants experiment with new ideas and behaviours at work.

Theme 6: Leaders' collaboration with staff in planning and implementing learning and development.

There is no significant difference between the commitment of the leadership teams of the supermarkets studied in both countries to collaborate with their staff in planning and implementing learning and development activities. For instance, virtually all the participants from both countries admit that they identify and analyze training needs, plan and control resources to implement them, and communicate such objectives to staff. This is a very good development for both countries because – just as Glastra and Meerman (2012) have suggested – for leadership skills to be legitimate or socially acceptable it must be understood, heard of and believed in for it to fit within the appropriate social setting. Similarly, Lobel (1990) foresaw that for successful and effective training and development of global leaders, the training programme should be designed to teach individuals to develop the capacity to learn (irrespective of the cultural setting), to develop team-building skills with diverse individuals, as well as to develop generalisable skills. As a strategic orientation, Prince and Stewart (2000) also recognised an increasing need for senior managers to have subordinates who are trained to think and act independently and who have the capacity to relate to cutting-edge management thinking in order to facilitate the implementation of strategic plans.

Theme 7: Top Management Support for Leadership Development (TMSLD)

The top management support for leadership development programmes in Nigerian retail supermarkets are evidenced through the provision of opportunities for

employees to learn from their work; planning for, creating mechanisms for, and developing an environment that is conducive to learning; and in designing training and development programmes. This is identical to how the top management teams of the British supermarkets support their learning and development programmes. But the difference between the UK and the Nigerian experience is that few of the participants from the Nigerian supermarkets also revealed that their top management also empowers them by offering them the freedom and autonomy to learn and develop from their work through delegation of authority, whereas their UK counterparts did not admit having such opportunities. However, prominent among the conditions for successful business leadership development are – top management support, integration of leadership development with business strategy, and the fit of leadership development practices with other HR practices and functions (Glastra and Meerman, 2012).

Theme 8: Barriers to Leadership Development (BLD)

The major barrier to learning and development of leaders in Nigerian retail supermarkets is lack of time. This is also similar to the responses from their UK counterparts. However, in a sample of 18,425 supervisors drawn from across 12 countries Kowske and Anthony (2007) who examined the amount of importance placed on various leadership competencies found that competencies such as leading teams and handling issues were given the utmost priority, whereas competencies such as personal development was given the least attention. This also resonates well with the responses from both Nigerian and the UK retail supermarkets, where some of the

participants argued that their focus on their jobs and on the development of their subordinates were at the expense of their own personal and professional developmental needs, hence, they end up not having time to develop themselves.

However, as it is commonly understood that the industrialised countries invest relatively more on training programmes (Tomé, 2009), the literature on training data, therefore, typically relate only to such developed countries (Eurostat, 2007; OECD, 2006; UNESCO, 2006), hence, raising some questions of cross-cultural validity of HRD data, or even more so, the grounds on which to convince the developing countries that investment in HRD should be considered a necessity (Tomé, 2009). For instance, in Zachmeier and Cho (2014, p.347) comprehensive review of peer-reviewed literature on university-based human resource development (HRD) courses and programs, majority of the 71 peer-reviewed articles that were found focused on HRD courses and programs in the USA and the UK. This means that national perspectives from other countries were almost lacking, yet, many of the assertions made about the content and quality of HRD courses and programs (in the articles) lacked empirical evidences to enhance their validity. Zachmeier and Cho (2014, p.353), therefore, propose what they call “perceived deficits”, meaning that HRD education is guilty of ignoring issues of diversity, ethics and power, while scholars (such as, Ardichvili, 2012; Craft, 2010) argue that integrating such studies from non-western countries would provide HRD students with a better knowledge about the realities of HRD practice, especially in the non-western parts of the world. Yet, “openness to a diversity of perspectives is not only a sign of maturity within the field” of HRD but it also “demonstrates a willingness to embrace novel and frame-breaking approaches” (Garavan and Carbery, 2014, p.262). Such openness to diversity of perspectives

contributes to the development of “new concepts, paradigms, theories and conceptual frameworks” which are vital sparks of the field and will also facilitate the development of new research questions to help us look at existing questions in different ways (Garavan and Carbery, 2014, p. 262 – 263).

However, unlike many HRD research that fail to address some key topics that are presently worrying HRD practitioners (Berger, Kehrhahn and Summerville, 2004) or lack of the researchers’ competence to undertake HRD research (Bassi, 1998), or simply, their failure to appreciate the importance of HRD research (Gilley, 2006), this study explores how HRD theories inform practice. This helps us with a better understanding of how the divide between HRD academics and practitioners can be bridged. Moreover, this thesis is particularly crucial in advancing both HRD research and practice because just as Smith, et al., (2015, p.1018) had noted “until some kind of mutually satisfactory bridge between (HRD) theory and practice is forged”..., “the two will never achieve adequate co-ordination” (p.1018). This thesis indeed helps to address these gaps. And, as a final point, by linking the HRD approaches of these selected supermarkets with existing HRD theories, it reflects on the actions undertaken by HRD theorists and previous researchers, therefore, helps to clarify some of the questions raised in the critical HRD literature, and which also clarifies some of the disagreements within the current theorising of critical HRD. Finally, it raises some critical questions about the significance of some HRD tools applied in our leadership development programmes, especially in developing countries.

8.3: Recommendations:

Based on the findings, this thesis makes the following recommendations:

1. Having raised our awareness of the relevance of the ELT in leadership development practice, this thesis suggests that HRD practitioners and leadership development consultants adopt the experiential learning theory in their leadership development programmes, especially, in developing countries.
2. Although scholars argue that one can enter the learning cycle at any stage provided the cycle is followed and completed, the Tesco options programme provides a tested step-by-step approach to leadership development programme through the experiential learning theory. These 4-stage-leadership-development approach (aka Tesco Options programme) also matches the University of Leicester (2016) description of the ELT model. These steps are described below for supermarkets in Nigeria to follow in order to maximize the outcome of their leadership development activities, and it includes:

Stage 1: Concrete experience:

Both the Kolb's Learning Cycle and the Tesco Options Programme all argue that to become a leader an individual must have spent some time working (in the supermarket) in order to gain some concrete experiences. This is because, according to Kolb (1984) the key to learning therefore is active involvement. In other words, for an individual to be developed as a leader in a supermarket, the person must have worked in a supermarket environment. In Kolb's model, one cannot learn by simply watching or reading about it, to learn effectively the individual, team or organisation must actually be doing something in which they are assigned as their task (The

University of Leicester, 2016). In Tesco, based on individual employee's capacity to learn, the organisation identifies the strongest members of the team (i.e. in terms of their performances) and recommends such employees for partaking in the leadership training programme so they could be trained to become team leaders and duty managers, and from there they can walk their ways up the ladder to become store managers (see M01, BS01a, M, in **Table 6.16a**).

Stage 2: **Reflective observation:**

The second stage in the Kolb's cycle is reflective observation. This means taking time-out from "doing" and stepping back from the task and reviewing what has been done and experienced. At this stage lots of questions are asked and communication channels are opened to other members of the team. Vocabulary is very important just as it is needed to verbalize and discuss with others, leaders therefore need communication in order to influence followers to act. In the Tesco *"Options Programme, the participants are first taken to assessment centre where they spend a full day doing group activities and interviews, and a team of six-member-panel would decide if each individual is capable of being on the programme or not. Then if they are selected to continue on the options programme, they would spend the next six months on the leadership training programme which include both on-the-job and off-the-job learning"* (see M01, BS01a, M, in **Table 6.16a**). In the early stages (of the training sessions) their first meeting as suggests by The University of Leicester (2016) should include the following activities – ice breakers and energisers, team games, problem solving, discussion, practical exercises, e.g. making a presentation, debates. While on the programme, the activities include: observation, writing a short report on what took

place, giving feedback to other participants, quiet thinking time, tea & coffee breaks, completing learning logs or diaries. However, all these activities will of course help the individual to develop the communication skills which is a vital element at this stage (The University of Leicester, 2016).

Stage 3: **Abstract conceptualisation:**

Abstract conceptualisation is the process of making sense of what has happened (at the two previous stages) and it involves interpreting the events and understanding the relationships between them. At this stage the learner reflect upon and makes comparisons between what they have done and what they already know. They may draw upon theories from textbooks for framing and explaining events, models they are familiar with, ideas from colleagues, previous observations, or any other knowledge that they have developed. The learning facilitator should (at this stage) provide support in form of presenting models, giving theories, and giving facts to facilitate each individual learner's development (The University of Leicester, 2016). During the interview, one of the participants from Tesco revealed that, *"once a candidate is on the options programme the person is continuously reviewed weekly by the store manager, reviewed monthly by the personnel manager, and area managers review the candidate every quarterly"* (see M01, BS01b, F, in **Table 6.16a**). These various levels of managers are what the University of Leicester (2016) described above as the learning facilitators who provide support to facilitate each individual learner's development.

Stage 4: **Active experimentation:**

This final stage of the learning cycle is when the learner considers how they are going to put what they have learnt into practice (The University of Leicester, 2016). Planning enables taking the new understanding and translating it into predictions as to what will happen next or what actions should be taken to refine or revise the way a task is to be handled. For learning to be useful people need to place it in a context that is relevant to them. If one cannot see how the learning is useful to their lives then it is likely to be forgotten very quickly. Learning facilitators should support this stage by giving learners time to plan, using case studies, using role play, asking learners to use real life problems and examples. Participants from Tesco added that, candidates on the options programme are given *“the needed support” by their store managers who grant them the “autonomy and flexibility to do their job so they can achieve a high level of mastery on the job and to get them to the next level”* of their career following the options programme (see M01, BS01a, M, in **Table 6.16a**).

8.4: Limitations of this study

As with all academic research of this type, this study is not without a range of limitations. The known limitations of this study are discussed as follows.

First, the primary data from the UK were collected from Tesco and Sainsbury's supermarkets only, and there are justifications for doing so. For instance, as this study seeks 'the best' leadership competencies in retail supermarkets, such 'standards' in

the UK should normally be found among the 'best' supermarkets in the country, i.e. the big 4 supermarkets – Tesco, Asda, Sainsbury's and Morrison's. Although Asda is owned by the US-based Walmart (so arguably should not be included in this study), Asda refused the researcher's request (including letters from the University) to include the supermarket in this study. A similar experience was encountered with Morrison's, as every effort to include the supermarket in this study proved fruitless as Morrison's refused the researcher any access to an interview of any type. Hence, Tesco and Sainsbury's were selected.

In terms of data collection, much concentration was given to Tesco not just because it is the UK's largest supermarket, but also because of its experiences in supermarket internationalisation and competitiveness. This has been justified in the earlier sections of this thesis. Therefore, Tesco was the focal point of the UK aspect of this study.

However, during the pilot study of 5 participants from Tesco, the researcher observed quite similar responses from the 5 respondents, i.e. in terms of their HRD approaches. The operations manager of the supermarket also acknowledged this relatedness in their responses and said it was because their HRD approach is the same across all their branches, hence, he suggested that the researcher interview just 1 or 2 persons during the primary research. But, after careful discussions with the supervision team, the researcher interviewed 8 respondents from Tesco, and to improve the rigour of the primary data collected from the UK, 2 additional participants from Sainsbury's were added, making it a total of 10 participants from 9 branches of the 2 UK supermarkets studied.

Another limitation to this study was that all the 9 branches of the 2 UK supermarkets studied are located within Middlesbrough, Teesside and there is a simple reason for concentrating on just this area. It would have definitely been a waste of resources had the researcher travelled round the UK to collect the same or similar set of data, since the HRD practices of these selected supermarkets are the same in all their branches.

In the Nigerian supermarkets studied, due to the relative ease in accessing these supermarkets, up to 9 supermarkets were selected in Nigeria, and the researcher was able to interview all their leaders who were on the ground at the time of the primary fieldwork. So, 30 participants from 9 Nigerian supermarkets were interviewed.

8.5: Suggestions for further studies

Based on the limitations discussed above, this thesis makes the following recommendations for future researchers:

- Subsequent studies (that test the usefulness of HRD theories in HRD practice) should include (in their samples) other smaller sizes of supermarkets that will be drawn from a wider range of geographical location in order to improve the reliability of such study.
- Such subsequent studies should also consider focusing their attentions outside the retail supermarket sector and consider how HRD theories inform practices in other sectors of the economy as well.

- Future studies should also consider the usefulness of HRD theories in employees training and development practices instead of focusing only on leadership development.
- Further studies should also include both qualitative and quantitative data in order to improve the reliability and validity of their findings.

There are also other major challenges and questions in human resource development (HRD) and leadership development which cannot be probed in this research but which future researchers should be curious about. These questions include:

1. *Do we have a strong and inspiring vision of the future of HRD practices in organisations in developing countries? If not, what can we do to achieve these?*
2. *Are current HRD practices in developing countries associated with the extent to which employees experience values fulfilment following their engagement in the programme? If it is, what can be done to increase values fulfilment?*
3. *What 'psychological contract' dynamics mediate the effectiveness of assessment and feedback for HRD practices in developing countries?*
4. *Do culture and institutional factors influence HRD practices in developing countries? If yes, how?*
5. *What are the advances needed in HRD in developing countries?*
6. *What are the advances needed in leadership development in developing countries?*

7. *Do current HRD practices in developing countries incorporate an interest in the ethics of professional practice in the field?*

8.6: Personal and Professional reflections

Kleinsasser (2000) had argued the importance of being reflective in our research journey, as, “a methodical process of learning about self as researcher” (p.155). Similarly, Dolorier and Sambrook (2009) are of the view that, although “*the focus of the inquiry is on understanding the researched culture ... there may be some focus on the researcher’s personal reveal*” (p.37) and, as such, I will use this section to reflect on my personal and professional development as a result of undertaking this study.

I have undergone significant transformation (personally and professionally) in the course of this doctoral study. Although the whole period of this study has been the most challenging and difficult time of my life and career, but in terms of cognitive and time management skills gained, I have learnt to complete tasks as soon as I pick them up. Having combined the entire duration of this study with my academic career, initially, I had struggled to apportion my time appropriately to each task, until just recently when I realised that the best approach (for me) is to draw a time table of things to be done, arrange them in my order of preference, and to ensure that I finish any one task I pick up to do before moving to the next task.

However, the past 2 years have been the most difficult of my whole life, but I have also learnt some life-changing lessons during this period. Indeed, to have lost 4 relatives (2 of my brothers, my father in-law and my sister in-law) in a space of 5 months in

2015 was quite unbearable for me, especially as my research was also most demanding then, hence I felt that my world had come to an end. Thanks to the consolation and encouragement that I received from those around me (especially my wife) who taught me to become more focused since then, to be stronger, to work harder, and ensure that I secure a permanent full-time lecturing job in order to support our surviving dependants back home in Africa. And, I did it and it worked, as just 5 days after the death of my wife's younger sister in July 2015 I secured my first permanent full-time lectureship position in a UK University.

However, this PhD study has also taught me how to generate and value knowledge. As a novice researcher, determining the direction that my research should follow was the most daunting task that I have ever faced as a human being, but thanks to the team of examiners who were involved in my mock viva and who made wonderful corrections on the whole work. This was highly appreciated (by me) to the point that I requested that one of them (Dr Derek Watson) take over the supervision of this work to ensure a successful completion.

Furthermore, even though I had been a lecturer quite before I embarked on this PhD study, I have just observed that research and teaching skills vary significantly, yet they are very complementary for a successful teaching career (especially) in a UKHE environment. For instance, I would never have realised that modern organisations do utilise academic theories to inform their practices. This research has therefore broadened my understanding that the development of academic theories (like the David Kolb's ELT) do actually inform organisational practices. Moreover, with the amount of readings that I have done so far and the presentations I made in the course

of this research, I have also developed my presentation skills which also was instrumental in my securing my first full time academic role in July, 2015. For instance, I have noticed that I am now more confident to discuss my research topic as well as other academic topics before an audience. These skills have also been very useful in both my teaching and dissertation supervisions. However, I have also widened my professional network of colleagues and associates, as I made a lot of contacts in the course of attending conferences and accessing the participants to be interviewed during the primary field work of this PhD research study.

Appendix A:

The Interview Questions:

1. Professional Development (PD) (Dixon, 1993; Institute of Management, 1994; Dodds and Verest, 2002; [Hagemann](#) and [Stroope](#), 2013; Kirkpatrick, 1967, 1971; Mabey, 2002; Mumford, 1993; O'Connor, Mangan and Cullen, 2006; Pollitt, 2006; Yeo and Gold, 2010).

- How do your leadership skills today compare to what they were 2 or 3 years ago?
- If any difference what event or circumstance do you think has caused the difference in your leadership skills?
- How important do you think that this event or circumstance has been in your development as a leader?
- How often does this event or circumstance occur?
- Where does this event or circumstance occur?

2. Continuing Professional Development (CPD) (Potnuru and Sahoo, 2016; Tarique and Schuler, 2010; Collings and Mellahi, 2009; and Lewis and Heckman, 2006; Kouzes and Posner, 1987; McGurk, 2010).

- Do you anticipate the future needs of your business?
- If yes, how often do you do that?
- Do you translate that into a plan that you share with others (e.g. your staff or top management)?
- As consequence of that does it lead to any developmental activity?
- Can you give me an example of such developmental activities that follows?
- Do you seek feedback from your boss on your performance?
- If yes, can you say how often you do this?
- What does such feedback always say?

3. Development of Others (i.e. the employees) (Potnuru and Sahoo, 2016; Tarique and Schuler, 2010; Collings and Mellahi, 2009; and Lewis and Heckman, 2006; Kouzes and Posner, 1987; McGurk, 2010).

- Do you reflect on your own or with your staff on the performance of the business?
- If yes, how often do you do this reflection?
- Do you translate the result of such reflection into a training and developmental plan?
- Can you give me an example of such developmental activities that follows?
- Do you have other approach (es) for pursuing your staff training and development?
- If yes, can you describe the approach?
- When is your staff training and development done?
- How often do you carry out such staff development activities?

4. Top Management Support for Learning (Marsick and Watkins, 1997; Wang, 2010; Dalakoura, 2010).

- Is there any common plan for pursuing management and staff training and development in your entire organisation?
- If yes, Can you give me an example of such plan?
- Is the plan reviewed?
- If yes, how often is it reviewed?
- Is the plan formally written down in the company's Website or policy statement or development plan?

5. Barriers to Learning (Ford, 2006; Fourie, 2013; Ellinger and Cseh, 2007; Ford, 2006; Fourie, 2013; Ellinger and Cseh, 2007; Bateson, 1972; Turner, Mavin and Minocha, 2006; Sambrook and Stewart, 2000: 217).

- Do you think there is anything that hinders you from learning new and improved ways of doing your job?
- If yes, can you give some examples of such hindrances?

Appendix B:

The Supermarkets Studied:

S/N	Name of and address of Supermarket	Location	Number of Managers interviewed	Ownership Structure
1	GLOBUS SUPERMARKET AND ELECTRONIC CENTER, SUITE H357/361, IKOTA SHOPPING COMPLEX, VGC, LEKKI, LAGOS.	Nigeria	1	Nigerian
2	SHOPPERS PLACE INTERNATIONAL LTD, SUITE J289, IKOTA SHOPPING COMPLEX, VGC, LEKKI, LAGOS.	Nigeria	3	Nigerian
3	D AND K DELIGHT SUPERMARKET, LTD, IKOTA SHOPPING COMPLEX, VGC, LEKKI, LAGOS.	Nigeria	1	Nigerian
4	SHOP DIRECT RESOURCES NIG LTD, 115 TAFAWA BALEWA, SURULERE, LAGOS	Nigeria	3	Nigerian
5	ANWADS-KOT LTD, SHOP 41, DOLPHIN SHOPPING PLAZA, DOLPHIN ESTATE, IKOYI, LAGOS.	Nigeria	1	Nigerian
6	OKOLI SUPERMARKET AND PHARMARCY, 43B ETI-OSA WAY, DOLPHIN, IKOYI, LAGOS.	Nigeria	3	Nigerian
7	3 MAT SUPERMARKET, SHOP 2, ASSOCIATION ROAD, DOLPHIN ESTATE, IKOYI, LAGOS.	Nigeria	1	Nigerian
8	EVERBRIGHT STORES LIMITED, 83 BODE-THOMAS STREET, SURULERE, LAGOS	Nigeria	1	Nigerian
9	SHOPRITE, THE PALMS SHOPPING MALL, LEKKI, LAGOS.	Nigeria	4	South Africa
10	SHOPRITE, ADENIRAN ODUNSAWA, SURULERE, LAGOS.	Nigeria	5	South Africa
11	SHOPRITE, IKEJA CITY MALL, IKEJA, LAGOS	Nigeria	7	South Africa
12	TESCO EXPRESS, 91 PARLIAMENT ROAD, MIDDLESBROUGH, TS1 4JF.	United Kingdom	1	British
13	TESCO EXPRESS, 251 – 255 LINTHORPE ROAD, MIDDLESBROUGH, TS1 4AT.	United Kingdom	1	British
14	TESCO, 646 ACKLAM ROAD, MIDDLESBROUGH, TS5 7HL.	United Kingdom	1	British
15	TESCO EXTRA, MIDDLESBROUGH CORPORATION EXPRESS, 14 CORPORATION ROAD, TS1 1LJ, MIDDLESBROUGH.	United Kingdom	1	British
16	TESCO EXPRESS, 422 MARTON ROAD, MIDDLESBROUGH, TS4 2PT.	United Kingdom	1	British
17	TESCO EXPRESS, 51 ROMAN ROAD, LINTHORPE, MIDDLESBROUGH, TS5 6DX.	United Kingdom	1	British
18	TESCO EXPRESS, DIXONS BANK, MARTON-IN-CLEVELAND, MIDDLESBROUGH, CLEVELAND, TS7 8NX.	United Kingdom	1	British
19	TESCO EXPRESS, LONGLANDS ROAD, MIDDLESBROUGH, CLEVELAND, TS4 2JR	United Kingdom	1	British
20	SAINSBURY'S, 32 WILSON STREET, TS1 1RP, MIDDLESBROUGH.	United Kingdom	2	British
Total			40	3

Appendix C:

The Consent Letters

Pieter Le Roux
<pleroux@shoprite.co.za>

from: Pieter Le Roux <pleroux@shoprite.co.za>

to: "bg22mb@research.sunderland.ac.uk"
bg22mb@research.sunderland.ac.uk

cc: Adeola Kagho <akagho@shoprite.co.za>,
The Palms SR 044917 <044917@shoprite.co.za>,
Ikeja City Mall SR 053443 <053443@shoprite.co.za>,
Adeniran SR 057617 <057617@shoprite.co.za>,
Park Lane SR 037734 037734@shoprite.co.za

date: 16 January 2015 at 06:49

subject: FW: SUNDERLAND UNIVERISTY - PHD RESEARCH
REQUEST

Important mainly because of the words in the message.

:

Good Morning Mr. Alo

Below authorisation given by our GM – please contact the branch leaders via e-mail to setup interviews. We will appreciate it if this can be done on Mondays/Tuesday/Wednesdays as these are the calmer trading days in our cycle.

BLs – please take note and accommodate Mr. Alo.

Regards

Pieter le Roux

16
Jan

From: Anton Wagenaar
Sent: 15 January 2015 07:06 PM
To: Pieter Le Roux
Subject: RE: SUNDERLAND UNIVERISTY - PHD RESEARCH REQUEST

ok

Regards Anton Wagenaar

From: Pieter Le Roux
Sent: 15 January 2015 06:02 PM
To: Anton Wagenaar
Subject: SUNDERLAND UNIVERISTY - PHD RESEARCH REQUEST

GM

Mr. Alo submitted a 15 min questionnaire which he wants to discuss with our Lagos managers.

Have gone through it and it focusses on leadership development, no financial data requests.

He is comparing us with ASDA and will share his findings.

Do we have a mandate to assist?

Regards

Pieter le Roux

From: Obinna Alo [<mailto:bg22mb@research.sunderland.ac.uk>]
Sent: 15 January 2015 06:29 PM
To: Pieter Le Roux
Subject: PhD Research

Hi Pieter,

My name is Obinna Alo. I visited your shop earlier today regarding my PhD research. However, I am giving you a briefing on my research as below:

Research Title:

A Comparative evaluation of Human Resource Development (HRD) processes and practices in Nigerian and UK retail supermarkets.

Context and Focus

This research compares Human Resource Development (HRD) processes and practices in Nigeria and UK retail supermarkets. Specifically, it investigates how leaderships of Nigerian retail supermarkets learn and develop, and compares the findings with HRD and leadership development practices in UK supermarkets, with a view to recommending strategies for achieving rapid organisational transformations of the Nigerian retail supermarkets, via HRD practices learnt from their UK counterparts.

Research Aim:

The aim of this research is to explore how retail supermarkets in Nigeria and the UK develop their leaders through HRD, and to suggest a framework for organisational transformation in the Nigerian retail supermarkets through leadership development practices learnt from UK supermarkets, while accommodating the local knowledge frameworks within which the suggested approach is to be deployed.

Research Objectives

- To find out what the UK's best HRD and leadership development approaches are.
- To find out what the Nigerian best approaches (including any problems with the approaches) are at the moment.
- To examine whether the UK best approaches work or not to address the problems we see with the Nigerian approaches.

Please be aware that I am not going to publicize any of your secret data including names of organizations and persons involved in the research. It is purely for academic purpose. Please

I will be grateful if you could please accept to participate in this research as it would really enrich my findings.

Please Pieter I am looking forward to hearing from you soon.

Thank you.

Kind regards,

Obinna Alo

Academic Assoc CIPD, MA – HRM, BSc (Hons), Dip.

Academic Tutor

Doctoral Researcher

Faculty of Business and Law

University of Sunderland

The Reg Vardy Centre

St. Peter's Way

Sunderland

SR6 0DD

Email: obinna.alo@research.sunderland.ac.uk



17 Jan

Obinna Alo <bg22mb@research.sunderland.ac.uk>

to Pieter

Hi Pieter,
I really appreciate your support towards my PhD research. Please could you grant me interview as well as with other managers in your branch, any time of your own chosen

between Monday the 19th and Wednesday the 21st of January.
Thanks for your consideration.
Kind regards.

17 Jan

Obinna Alo <bg22mb@research.sunderland.ac.uk>

to 057617

The Manager,
Shoprite,
Adeniran branch.

Please following the authorisation giving by Shoprite GM (as below), please could you kindly grant me interview with your branch managers for my PhD research, any time between Monday and Wednesday next week?

Thank you.
Kind regards,



17 Jan

Obinna Alo <bg22mb@research.sunderland.ac.uk>

to 053443

The Manager,
Shoprite,
Ikeja City Mall
Dear Sir/Madam

Please following the authorisation giving by Shoprite GM (as below) please could you grant me interview with your branch managers any time of your own chosen between Monday and Wednesday next week?

Thank you.
Kind regards,
Obinna Alo

17 Jan

Obinna Alo <bg22mb@research.sunderland.ac.uk>

to 044917

The Manager,
Shoprite,
The Palms Shopping Complex.
Dear sir/Madam.

Please giving the authorisation by your GM (as below) please could you kindly grant me interview for my PhD between Monday and Wednesday next week?

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