

1 Knowledge Management: A Key Strategic Element of HRD

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5

6 Abstract

7 The main objective of the current paper is to point to the dualistic nature of HRD practice:
8 employee empowerment strategy juxtaposed with high levels of individualization. HRD
9 practice contributes to a series of dualities in organizations such as flexibility vs. loyalty,
10 commitment vs. individualization and responsibility vs. alienation. The paper will argue that
11 current HRD strategies have an individualistic role rather than an interactive and
12 interpersonal influence for better knowledge sharing and organizational learning. The research
13 implies that HRD should change its interventions in terms of how the individual is
14 conceptualized to make knowledge actionable in social contexts to create favorable conditions
15 for knowledge sharing and organizational learning.

16

17 **Index terms**— knowledge workers, flexible organizations, self-management, activity theory, learning progression,
18 HRD strategies.

19 1 I. INTRODUCTION

20 The information age caused important restructuring processes in the workplace and in occupational structures,
21 which changed organizational behaviours. Knowledge management was recognized as an important strategic
22 element of human resource development ??HRD) strategy to provide functional organizational behavior and
23 performance ??Gibbons et al. 1994). In this respect, current debates in knowledge management literature
24 could be placed into a wider context of the management of knowledge workers in knowledge -intensive firms
25 (Bell 1973), institutional innovation (Castells 1996), knowledge creation (Drucker 1988), increasing flexibility
26 of work conditions and autonomy and responsibility of the employees. The high growth rate of knowledge
27 requires organizations to develop flexible organizational potential to match changing environments and keep up
28 organizational competence ??Laursen 2006). Increasing flexibility in the labour market and within organizations
29 creates opportunities for employee mobility, which challenges organizations as they lose their best talents. It
30 is a paradox that the willingness of knowledge workers to work hard and is because of shifts in traditional
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34 career development pathways (Carlsen, Klev, and Krogh 2004).

35 In increasingly flexible conditions, HRD managers try to retain workers by developing strategies that empower
36 individual employees. The HRD department as a key strategic unit within an organization is responsible for
37 creating favourable conditions for career development. This paper will analyse how developments in HRD
38 empowerment practices for retaining knowledge workers paradoxically contribute to greater autonomy and
39 independence. These practices have further implications for employee individualization and alienation from
40 the workplace, resulting in greater mobility.

41 Furthermore, increasing employee individualization contributes to outsourcing responsibilities and duties,
42 which increase stress, doubt, uncertainty and ambiguity among the employees. The current paper will develop
43 and present an analytical perspective from which to study empirical research based on secondary data from a
44 HRD department in the Danish high-tech company Bang & Olufsen (B&O). Empirical material will be analysed

5 ANALYTICAL FRAME AND CONCEPTS

45 and discussed to understand the need for change in current HRD practice in order to meet and accommodate
46 the changing nature of flexible career development patterns.

47 2 II.

48 3 ORGANIZATIONAL KNOWLEDGE AND THE KNOWL- 49 EDGE WORKERS

50 Addressing these research questions requires elaboration on the concept of knowledge necessary to view
51 organization, organizational behavior and organizational learning as a certain analytical tool. According to
52 Davenport (2005), organizational structures at the workplace become increasingly knowledge-intensive and involve
53 people, processes and technologies, thus increasing the role of the knowledge workers. Furthermore, organizations
54 become heavily dependent on this type of workers as long as most organizational work is dematerialized (Luker
55 and Lyons 1997). However, concepts of knowledge work, knowledge worker and knowledge-intensive organization
56 introduced by Drucker are quite ambiguous ??Newell et al. 2002).

57 Knowledge-intensive firms are organizations where most of the work is of an intellectual nature (Alvesson 2001).
58 Knowledge workers are defined as hard-working and committed employees with a high T degree of expertise,
59 education and experience. They add the most economic value to organizations, and determine growth and
60 profitability. Knowledge work as 'thinking for living' is related to problem solving, decision making, collaboration
61 and extensive communication. For knowledge workers, knowledge is simultaneously an input, medium and output
62 of their work ??Frenkel et al. 1995). Due to nature of their work, knowledge workers require high levels of
63 autonomy, as they decide how to initiate, plan, organize and coordinate their own tasks (Gherardi 2006).

64 The discourse on knowledge management in organization studies appeared in the 1970s and embedded the
65 concept of learning in organizational practice (Gherardi 2000). According to the early discourse, knowledge is
66 stored in the heads of individuals; this is based on traditional cognitive theory. It rests upon high levels of
67 individual autonomy, cognition and the banking concept of knowledge (Hooks 1994). The second discourse
68 approaches knowledge through the knowledge management perspective as a productive strategic commodity in
69 organizational management. There is no practical distinction between information and knowledge in this sense
70 (Prahalad and Hammel 1990). Knowledge is embedded in organizational routines and the main objective is to
71 provide knowledge transfer and not knowledge transformation. Arising from the first discourse is the problem
72 of transferring individual knowledge and learning outcomes from knowledge workers to organizations (Elkjaer
73 2006). Hence, even a high level of individual competencies does not guarantee functionality of an organization.

74 In the second discourse, the limitation is that the focus is on a greater level of power of organizational
75 management, thus ignoring the individual subjective knowledge processes. It focuses on the control of knowledge
76 in the economic interests of organization. These individualized and static views on knowledge and knowledge work
77 contrast with the perspective that strategically important knowledge of organization is produced in collective
78 working practices, cooperation and day-to-day problem-solving. This paper focuses on the knowing process that
79 is: knowledge embedded in practice (Cook and Brown1999). It will present knowledge as an active, highly
80 situational and contextual concept where individuals give meanings to information and contribute to knowledge
81 creation (Nonaka 1994).

82 The main assumption made in the paper is that knowledge in organization does not have any meaning on
83 its own without enactment. In this respect, the organizational learning literature presents an active definition
84 of knowledge where it represents not mere external representations but rather guides human activity (Argyris
85 1999; Argyris and Schon 1978; Ravn 2004). From a pragmatist's perspective, knowledge is understood not
86 as static and abstract phenomenon but rather as an active process of knowing that is embedded in dynamic
87 human actions. Knowledge is not an object shared materially (Dewey 1916) but socially constructed through
88 cooperative efforts with common objectives. It is built in the artifacts, behavioral pattern sand actions, and calls
89 for an' epistemology of practice'. Consequently, knowledge is kept neither in the head of individuals nor is it a
90 commodity of organization and its management (Tsoukas and Vladimirov 2004). Organizational learning in this
91 perspective is a process that occurs as a result of the actions of organization's members being simultaneously
92 influenced by the collectively accepted knowledge. The paper will develop a theoretical framework to address
93 relationships between the individual, organization, knowledge and action. The paper will analyse how knowledge
94 is connected to action and discover the prerequisites for HRD practices in order to make effective interventions,
95 direct individual actions and knowledge-use in organizations.

96 4 III.

97 5 ANALYTICAL FRAME AND CONCEPTS

98 The current paper will develop a theoretical framework that incorporates a theory of activity (Engestrom 1987)
99 and a concept of learning progression ??Laursen 2006). The paper will address a flexible organization structure
100 and HRD practices with an active definition of knowledge. Namely, it will consider knowledge through 'know-
101 how' rather than 'know-what' ??Laursen 2006). The knowledge criteria are defined by knowing how they are
102 primarily related to actions, intentions, relations and context (Polanyi 1966). Hence, this paper will be focused

103 on knowing and how people 'do their knowing', and will present the organization as an infrastructure of knowing
104 (Blackler, Crump, and McDonald 1999a).

105 The reason for choosing an active concept of knowledge is to analyse the process by which organizations
106 create knowledge through individual actions based on autonomy, commitment and individual responsibility.
107 Furthermore, it is necessary to consider the organizational context in which individuals undertake their actions.
108 The concept of activity setting and theory of activity provides a significant departure point in current analysis
109 of organizational context.

110 **6 IV.**

111 **7 ACTIVITY THEORY**

112 An activity theory is a useful analytical tool to analyse relationships between knowledge and action, individual
113 thoughts and collective beliefs (Blackler 1993). It bridges the literature of organizational learning between
114 psychological and social, thought and action, theory and practice. The main concept to describe activity is
115 the activity system presenting the context for individual actions (Engestrom 1987). The activity actions in the
116 activity setting through agents, their objectives, tools and language in use within the broader social and cultural
117 setting of an activity system.

118 The goals and objectives of the given activity system are partly predefined for those involved through rules,
119 culture and division of labour, and in part recreated and modified by individual actions. Tools and instruments
120 mediate relationships between individuals and their contexts. Rules mediate relationships between individuals
121 and community. The division of labour mediates relationships between actions and its members. The concept of
122 mediation here refers to the fact that they transform the nature of contexts within which individuals act (Figure
123 1).

124 According to activity theory, knowledge is neither an individual nor an organizational commodity (Blackler,
125 Crump, and McDonald 1999b). Knowing is active achievement and social construction through which individuals
126 'do their knowing'. Doing and knowing are achieved by culturally developed resourcescharacter of practices, tools
127 and technologies. In an organizational context, these resources represent a knowing infrastructure. Thus, how
128 an organization knows depends on interactions between individual cognitive processes, community members and
129 shared knowledge infrastructure. Rather than studying knowledge owned by individuals or organizations, activity
130 theory studies knowing as something that they do and analyses dynamics of systems through which knowing is
131 accomplished (Blackler 1995). An activity system represents relationships between individual knowledge and
132 knowledge infrastructure, individual action and broader patterns of activity. Thus, activity links events to
133 the context within which they occur. Organizations provide a context for actions while individuals interpret
134 and negotiate context. This includes complex organizational routines (repetitive patterns of behavior) and
135 conditions. Together these factors create knowledge infrastructure through which knowing and doing is achieved
136 in organizations. V.

137 **8 PROGRESSION**

138 The emphasis on knowledge in organizations raises fundamental questions of learning, namely how knowledge
139 workers acquire relevant competencies and transform their actions (Elkjaer 1995). In this respect, progression is
140 considered as development of learning infrastructures, which lead to the development of learning opportunities
141 (Laursen 2005). In response to individual actions, a learning organization facilitates the learning of its members
142 and continuously transforms itself (Pedler, Burgoyne, and Boydell 1991). A learning organization develops a
143 wide range of structured social situations -learning opportunities -described as learning infrastructure. In this
144 learning infrastructure, the focus is on collective agency where a group constitutes a collective learning system
145 and depends on how its structures meet the conditions of learning, i.e. Create learning opportunities (Salomon
146 and Perkins 1998).

147 The social situation of learning represents the organizational capability for learning. The progression within a
148 learning organization follows the development of social structures inside an organization and involves employees
149 in learning. Here the flexibility of organizations is defined as a constant transformation of organizational resources
150 that provide continuous opportunities for individual members to learn and expand their knowledge (Senge 1990).
151 In this sense, individual employees have to decide how the job is done and what quality job performance is.
152 However, social structures in organizational relations create a general framework and social context for individual
153 learning in organizations (Laursen 2005). Consequently, organizational learning is not based on a banking concept
154 of individual knowledge and competence container.

155 It is rather viewed as the development of social contexts and the existence of organizational infrastructure of
156 learning and knowing through which knowledge is produced, acquired, evaluated and transformed. Integrating
157 the analytical concepts of an activity system and learning progression makes it possible to develop a modified
158 model of the knowing and learning in flexible organizations (Figure 2). In this model, learning and knowing
159 are considered as situated activities -social interactions among social actors drawing on contextual resources
160 that are knowledge and learning infrastructures (Layder 1997). The key elements linking processes of social
161 interactions are tools, techniques, norms and social structures (Engestrom 1987). Social structures can function
162 as constraining or facilitating elements for individual actions.

163 Consequently, learning opportunities (progression) are social processes of interaction structured by sets of
164 contextual resources transforming the knowledge base and producing progressive changes in individual actions.

165 9 BANG AND OLUFSEN: BACKGROUND FOR HRD DE- 166 PARTMENT

167 The qualitative analysis is based upon secondary data from the Danish high-tech company Bang and Olufsen
168 (Krause-Jensen 2002). Analysis involves the study of data derived from documents, field notes, transcripts of
169 interviews and observational records. Bang & Olufsen (B&O) is a Danish high-tech company distinctive for its
170 design. At the end of the 1990s, the company launched a project that defined and communicated company values,
171 which lead to organizational mobilization and cohesion.

172 HRD became a strategic element in transforming B&O from a product-focused to valuedriven company. A
173 human resources department was formed as the result of a fusion of two departments: an employee centre
174 (medarbejdecenter) with fourteen employees and a smaller HRD unit with only four employees to overcome
175 fragmentation and dispersal at the social level. The former employee centre was a personnel department that
176 serviced mostly nonmanagerial employees. The latter HRD unit was a small group that worked with senior
177 management on strategic issues of organizational development. The integration of the two departments and
178 the appointment of a new head of HRD emphasized that personnel issues were given strategic importance in
179 developing comprehensive personnel policy.

180 With the fusion of the two departments, the company decided to mobilize and empower employees through
181 a value-based rhetorical strategy for creating organizational flexibility and autonomous self-managing employees
182 (selvkorende medarbejder). The point of integrating 'medarbajdcenter' and HRD was to upgrade the entire
183 personnel area and increase a sense of belonging to the company: 'all employees should feel that they contribute
184 to strategic development of the company' (HRD top management).

185 The new HRD department tried to establish a clear departmental profile and have its contribution recognized
186 by the rest of organization through legitimization of renewed HRD activities. At the first stage, HRD was
187 struggling to get rid of its 'welfare image' associated with previous personnel policies. The change in policy
188 involved giving HRD a new strategic vision. It implied a shift towards soft forms of control associated with value
189 based management and facilitated autonomous self-managing employees. At the same time, the fact that HRD
190 was considered strategically relevant and given unprecedented visibility within organization meant that it had to
191 legitimize its activities in new ways, vis-à-vis hard business realities (competition, product development, etc.).

192 10 VII. EMPIRICAL ANALYSIS

193 The idea behind the fusion of the HRD department with the personnel department at B&O was to create
194 structure with coherent, comprehensive employee policies to fit in with new values of the company. One of the
195 most important tasks was to ease communication, help the vision of the HRD manager is based primarily on
196 reciprocity between organizations and single individuals, and is based on contractual and exchange relationships.
197 The reformed HRD strategy shows that employees are looked upon as a source of competitive advantage through
198 their commitment, adaptability and high quality (Guest and Terence 1983).

199 In new vision, employees should be proactive rather than passive inputs into the productive processes
200 and capable of development in exchange for increased personal autonomy and self-management. This clearly
201 demonstrates a highly individualistic approach to empowerment and the motivation for development of employees.
202 The centrality of the individual and the ways in which the individual is conceptualized are unchallenged: 'If I
203 look at people's motivation for working, it is all about individuals' working to make a difference.

204 It is important to know where employees fit into things, and it is vital that progress is noted and development
205 monitored, so that people can see that their work is successful. Anything else would not be reasonable from both
206 commercial points of view and individuals 'self-esteem' (HRD assistant).

207 Hence, HRD remains a management rather than a development function By doing so, HRD acts as a political
208 tool of regulation constituting individualized HRD practices. The vision of a 'new HRD' jeopardized the
209 success of the HRD strategy from the very beginning by creating a gap between organization and individual,
210 constituting the self-managing employee and contributing to the visions of a fragmented society in a position
211 where managers needed to accommodate individual aspirations and interests within the strategic interests of the
212 organization. It had to negotiate relationships between individuals and organizations in a particular way, so
213 that HRD employees simultaneously represented producers, gatekeepers, communicators and consumers of the
214 corporate messages bringing individual and organizational growth into alignment (Krause-Jensen 2002). SELF-
215 MANAGING EMPLOYEE (SEVKORENDE MEDARBEJDER) VIII.

216 11 SELF-MANAGING EMPLOYEE (SEVKORENDE 217 MEDARBEJDER)

218 Aspiration depends on the negotiation process based on tact and diplomacy: 'People's attitudes towards me can
219 be described in two ways: 1. I am the tool of the management to manipulate the staff, and 2. I am here to protect
220 the staff from duality. Namely, HRD ended up According to the HRD manager of new integrated department,

221 coherence between organizational and individual the company. They are both wrong. I am on the side of the
222 work. Both the staff and the company share the interest in ensuring that the staff gets most out of their work
223 and the company gets most out of their staff' (HRD manager).

224 However, the transformed HRD department faced the dilemma of individual aspiration vis-à-vis the organization's vision. The major challenge for the HRD department was to overcome individual organization. However, it
225 is questionable whether the mediatory role of HRD in B&O is able to bring the rhetoric of change and challenge
226 has become prevalent in corporate discourse, and management stresses the ideal of developing a proactive, self-
227 managing and 'selfstarting' change agent: 'Only an HRD department with a clear and common understanding of
228 its own ambitions vis-à-vis the business plan can accomplish its tasks. Growth is conceptualized as moving from
229 a state of dependency and embeddedness with others to a relative state of independence and autonomy where
230 individuals acquire tools 'to develop and find themselves'. B&O management stresses the importance of the ideal
231 member of organization -the self-managing employee (sevkorende medarbejder), a presupposing motivated and
232 entrepreneurial worker offering workplace knowledge and experience. In this sense, employees have to be directed
233 through the inculcation of certain attitudes, behaviours and views of themselves vis-à-vis the organization.

234 The strategy of the company is to create a situation where employees manage themselves and are guided by
235 implicit motivations. According to Keat (1991), the ideal self-managing enterprising individual is one that is keen
236 on responsibility; goal-oriented; concerned to monitor their own progress towards goal achievement; motivated
237 to acquire skills and competencies; and has the resources necessary to pursue these goals effectively.

238 The meaning of subjective involvement of liberated individuals exhibiting autonomy and responsibility is
239 implicit in the new social contract, best characterized by the notion of 'individual responsibility' (Schots and
240 Taskin 2005). Namely, employees are given new responsibilities; they become proactive, show initiative and
241 commitment, and take risks. HRD practice intends to increase the self-management of workers but in response
242 encounters a trade-off in the face of increased individualization. According to an employee from the B&O
243 Man/Machine Interface technology and multimedia department, 'If you want to move forward in a company like
244 B&O, you have to fight for it. You have to draw attention to yourself. If you are not in demand and you can't
245 deliver your goods, then you are out! If they cancel their appointments and your calendar gets empty, then
246 you are in trouble. I have always been supposed to find my own assignments.' Therefore, HRD development
247 is leading to increasing individualization through greater in-group competition, mobility and flexibility related
248 to the career progression of the workers as well as the transfer of risk to individual employees. Individual
249 autonomy appears to be an ambivalent concept, as individualization of objectives and performances reinforces
250 mental burden. The ambivalence is because the increase in autonomy and responsibilities transfers certain risks to
251 employees: they become responsible for their own professional development and management in order to become
252 visible in organizations: 'It is also true that when I put so many hours, they notice me, and creating a constant
253 need to meet organizational requirements. While the HRD practice intended to constitute a social innovation
254 -self-managing employee.

255 -it contributed to fragmentation of collectivity that exposed employees to high individual and social risks.

256 I get the benefits' (IdeaLand employee, R&D department). In reality, the risk transfer contributes to
257 intensification of workload and may lead to increase in stress and alienation from the workplace (Taskin and
258 Devos 2005). Consequently, while HRD practice makes people autonomous and self-managed, it constrains their
259 actions Learning new skills and competencies. But these higher levels of participation are structured in less
260 visible ways and employees become accountable for outcomes that were once the responsibility of supervisors
261 and managers (Krause-Jensen 2002). Hence, the empowerment of the employees paradoxically constrains and
262 constricts their actions.

264 12 IX.

265 13 PRODUCT DEVELOPMENT DEPARTMENT- 266 FROM SELF-MANAGEMENT TOWARDS SELF- 267 DEVELOPMENT

268 The new communication strategy of the HRD department resulted in flattening and removing traditional
269 hierarchies: 'Years back you would feel the bad breath of your subordinate over your shoulder. Now I meet
270 my supervisor once or twice a week, and I appreciate the trust that the company puts in you, the space you
271 are given to plan your own day and to arrange your own job, we have a lot of possibilities to develop' (Product
272 Development Department employee).

273 However, in reality employees face the disappearance of aspects related to the reward system, security and
274 career development. When hierarchies are flattened or removed, and where vertical movements previously served
275 as external guides for sequences of work experience, employees are now forced to rely on the internal self-generated
276 guides devolving responsibility for growth, learning and development. The product development (PD) department
277 came to be seen by many employees as the core of company. According to the HRD recruitment officer, there
278 was a clear migration pattern towards the product development department. Once employees were in the PD, it
279 was difficult to convince them to move to other parts of the company.

14 RESULTS AND CONCLUSIONS

280 This assumed prestige was because work in the PD was close to the product and because employees were
281 engaged in development as opposed to other operational departments (Krause-Jensen 2002). This preference for
282 development was reflected in the internal mobility of employees. On the product side, there was a migration
283 pattern from operations towards product development, and from central purchasing and sales towards marketing.
284 These movements' reflected orientations from areas concerned with operations to strategic spots closer to tasks
285 related to strategic development. A young sales manager in the customer centre expressed a general preference
286 for PD: 'It is my dream job to work there (PD) where things are happening and what you do has impact. We
287 are put into this world to be innovative, and that is the challenge, to take responsibility and break new ground
288 all the time.' However, the employee mobility to PD implies that individual employees have a responsibility to
289 develop their own competencies. The employee mobility trend shows employees need to 'fit in the organization',
290 develop and offer the right competencies valued by the organization. Employees become self-managers of their
291 competencies and of their career paths as well as their development opportunities. However, due to nature of the
292 job, employees carry out dematerialized knowledge work, which is not seen physically as tasks. Consequently,
293 employees do not perceive their work to add value to their reputation and in 'becoming visible'. In their opinion,
294 'much of the work does not appear to the rest of organization as a genuine specialist activity involving unique
295 knowledge and skills'. Consequently, employees intensively express a high need to 'become visible' implying the
296 need to reestablish interaction with the organization and overcome social fragmentation. The new HRD practice
297 in B&O demonstrates that the HRD strategy for employee empowerment -to develop self-managed, autonomous,
298 and responsible and flexible employees -contributes to increased employee competition; creates alienation from
299 the workplace; and produces less predetermined career path and employee mobility towards different units.

300 Furthermore, it had implications for increased individualization through the search for learning opportunities
301 for personal growth and the need to fit into an organizational context rather than develop organizational
302 commitment. All this reflects the employee's need to become 'visible' in the organization, thus constraining
303 individual opportunities for action and increasing stress and competition. HRD practice constitutes a lack of
304 knowledge creation and sharing, thus contributing to knowledge fragmentation and having negative consequences
305 for organizational learning. Furthermore, HRD practice, in this perspective, acts as a tool of exclusion. It
306 excludes the benefits of the group and teamwork, social interactions and those employees who are unable to
307 position themselves in a favourable way according to the new vision X.

308 14 RESULTS AND CONCLUSIONS

309 The current paper questioned HRD practice at the workplace: a HRD strategy based on individual empowerment
310 directed towards developing autonomous employees. The research demonstrates that individual self-management
311 creates a high risk for employee individualization, alienation from the workplace and a lack of knowledge sharing
312 leading to ineffective organizational learning. This individualizing HRD practice contributes at the same time to
313 fragmentation of organization, exposes individuals to social risks and creates exclusion among the collective. In
314 contrast, the successful managerial discourse of the company would mediate organizational paradoxes, considering
315 dualities such as flexibility and loyalty, individualism and commitment, responsibility and alienation. Such
316 HRD systems could contribute to the capacity of an organization to learn by facilitating the development of
317 organization-specific competencies in complex social relationships based on the company's history and culture, and
318 generate organizational knowledge. Hence, the current analytical perspective gives the opportunity to view HRD
319 practice through 'activity' and 'progression' lenses. The object of the current activity system is the knowledge
320 worker, who represents raw material or the problem space in which activity is directed and transformed through
321 appropriate tools into the outcome of the self-managed employee. Organizational values are the social rules
322 presenting implicit and explicit regulations, conventions and norms constraining or facilitating the interactions
323 with the activity system as well as the relationships between subjects and other employees (Boer, Baalen, and
324 Kumar 2002).

325 The employees represent a community or group of actors sharing the same object of activity that is distinct
326 from other groups. Finally, knowledge sharing is a process of division of labour, which refers to both a horizontal
327 division of tasks as well as a vertical division of power and status. Hence, the model presents a multivoiced
328 HRD practice in a relationship between subject (HRD development) and object (knowledge worker) mediated
329 and guided by a set of structural non-causal relationships.

330 The model proposes HRD practices as a system based on actions, tools, technologies, social structures, rules,
331 and problems of particular organizational contextual conditions analytical framework is that it provides the
332 possibility of analyzing organizational reality based on the conception of culture/competence. Furthermore, it
333 points to the opportunities for development promised by engagement with knowledge and learning infrastructure
334 where contexts are not seen as containers of behavior but as activity. The concepts and framework provide
335 the possibility of overcoming dualistic thinking about the separation between individualistic and organizational
336 thinking and knowledge. It presented a conceptually comprehensive and consistent structure in organizational
337 learning and knowledge by presenting the organization in a wider social context.

338 The emphasis on individual development in the analysed case shows that HRD has an individualistic role
339 rather than interactive and interpersonal influence for better knowledge sharing and organizational learning.
340 The research implies that HRD should change its interventions in terms of how the individual is conceptualized

341 to make knowledge become actionable in social contexts in order to create favorable conditions for knowledge sharing and organizational learning (Lopez2006). ^{1 2 3}

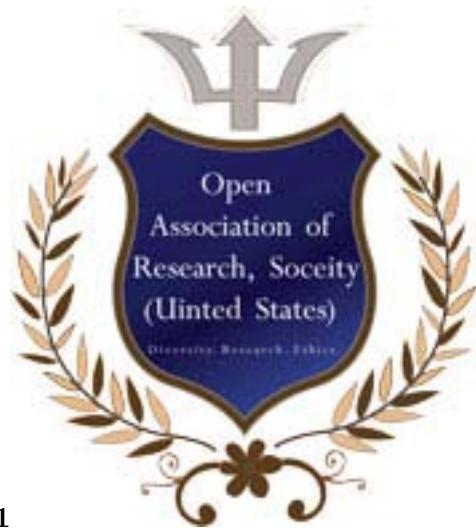


Figure 1: Fig. 1 .

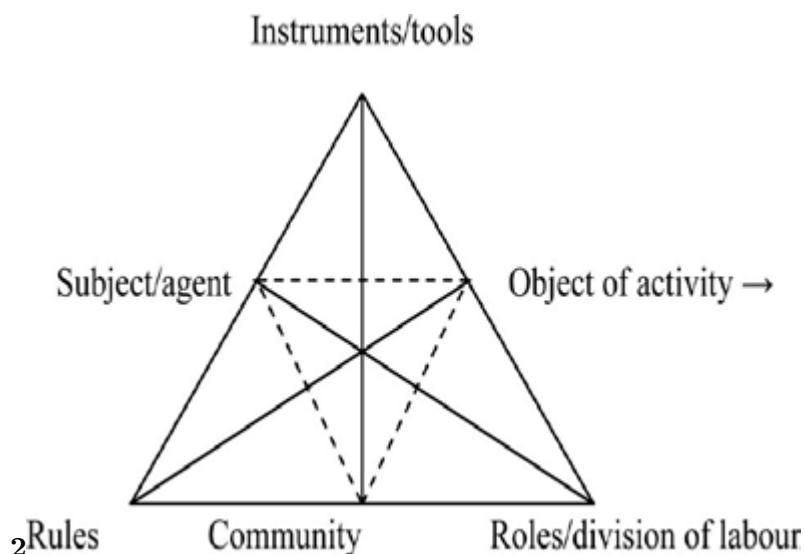


Figure 2: Fig. 2 .

342

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(Activity system and learning progression)

Instruments/tools

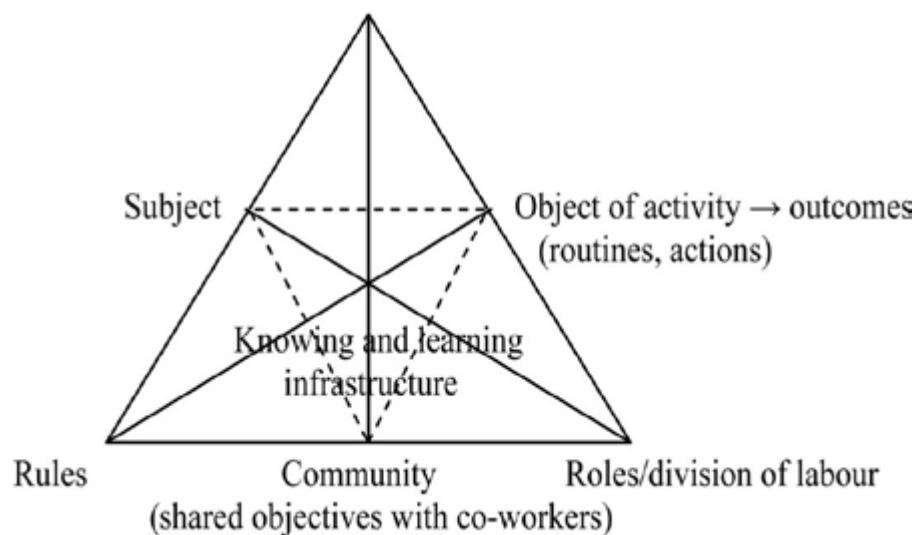


Figure 3:

Career development

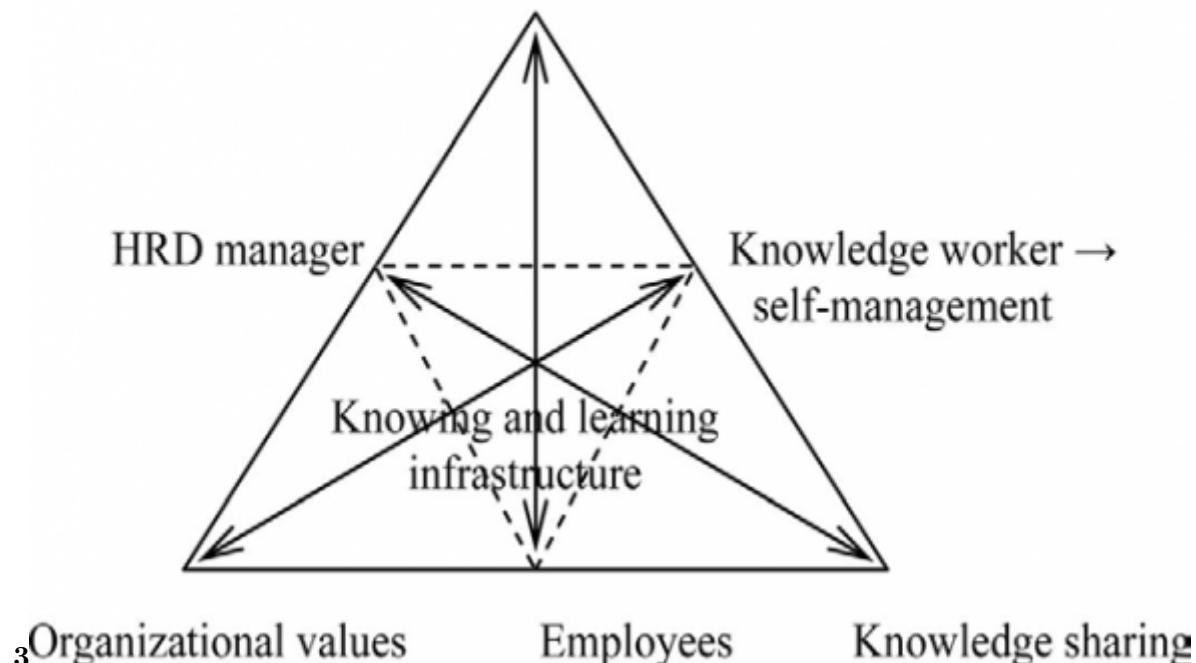


Figure 4: Fig. 3 :

Figure 5:

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