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Knowledge transfer processes within “Child rights, classroom and school management”

Factors affecting the
knowledge transfer
processes on an individual-,
group- and organizational
level

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Abstract

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Title: Knowledge transfer processes within “Child rights, classroom and school management”. Factors affecting the knowledge transfer processes on an individual- group- and organizational level

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Summary: This study aims to answer two research questions with focus in Sida’s International Training Program: Child rights, classroom and school management, the two questions regard the knowledge transfer process. The first one focuses on how the participants of the program express knowledge and knowledge transfer and the second one highlights what contextual factors that affect the processes on three different levels: individual- group- and organizational.

These questions are answered through a social constructivistic approach with an adductive perspective which is manifested in qualitative methods as observations of the course made in Sweden and Zambia, observation of former participants accomplished in Uganda and interviews with the mentors conducted in Sweden and other participants done in Uganda.

Selected theories presented in the theoretical framework show a diversity of researchers’ regarding their different definitions of knowledge and knowledge transfer, tacit and explicit knowledge and factors affecting the knowledge transfer process. The later theories are structured within individual-, group- and organizational level to follow my second research question.

The analysis chapter contains a mixture of theory and results from the observations and interviews. Here the answers to the specific research questions are answered. Definitions of participants’ explanation of knowledge and knowledge transfer are presented and attached together with tacit and explicit knowledge. Factors affecting the knowledge transfer process are presented and evaluated upon. On individual level factors affecting the knowledge transfer process are: how the receiver adapts the

knowledge sent, the way it is contextualized to be sent by the sender and to be adjusted to fit the context by the receiver, how the sender is willing to transfer their knowledge, how the sender is willing to share or not and the receivers participation in the process. On group level the main factor affecting the knowledge transfer process are the group dynamics with focus on the relationship between the sender and the receiver. On organizational level there were three major factors that were highlighted: how the organizational environment should be to encourage knowledge transfer, what the organizational culture should feel like to make the participants encouraged to share their knowledge and the communication between the sender and receiver that affects if there will be a transfer or not.

Within the discussion chapter, the perspective is widened to include a general discussion about the research questions. Here a discussion about how one perceives knowledge and knowledge transfer is discussed with focus on seeing knowledge as an object or as a process. Further follows a theoretical discussion regarding knowledge as an object or as a process and how it is interlaced with knowledge transfer and knowledge sharing. Also further research topics within the chosen field are elaborated on.

Keywords:

Child rights, classroom and school management, International training program, knowledge, knowledge transfer, knowledge sharing, contextual factors, individual level, group level, organizational level

Abbreviations

CRC -[Child Rights Convention]
LUCE - Lund University Commissioned Education
Sida - The Swedish International Development Agency

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1. Introduction

1.1 Problem statement

For the organizations to survive in today's globalized world they need to keep their competitive advantages. This can be done in different ways, as an example the organization could strive for constantly developing their processes and make the employees become more effective in their work. By doing this the organization can win advantages towards their competitors and offer more effective services at a cheaper price or build more units at a lower cost and in this way remain competitive. A way to develop the organization is by knowledge, as knowledge is seen as an organizational asset. There are several issues regarding the organizational knowledge, the knowledge embedded in the organizations employees, that can be highlight. One of the major problems is known to be when employees quit, which risks that the knowledge is suddenly lost. A highly discussed issue today, is the alternation of generations on the labor market that concerns many CEO's and other leaders within the organizations since knowledge will be lost because of people's retirements and other employees who choose to quit. The only way for organizations to maintain the knowledge embodied within this individuals is by continuously embedding the knowledge in the organization by encouraging new employees to learn from other employees. By doing this, knowledge remains in the organization and can be further utilized to make processes more effective in order to gain competitive advantages. By knowledge transfer employees can become more effective in their work and develop new innovative methods, this by sharing each other's knowledge and experiences with each other. Knowledge transfer can be seen as an effective method since it doesn't require much from the organization, it only requires that the employees are given time to exchange ideas, knowledge, experiences etc and that there is a physical place where they can engage in knowledge transfer. Therefore it might be seen as a cheap method worth investing in. There are also other factors affecting the knowledge transfer process that the organization can't easily affect, these are dependent of the individuals intentions and the groups they belong to.

The Swedish International Development Agency (Sida), a government agency responsible for the major part of Sweden's development cooperation is highly dependent of the knowledge transfer process in their international training program "Child Rights, Classroom and School Management". The programs main methods of learning are interactive and are built on the expectation that the participants share their knowledge and experiences with each other in order to develop their organizations further. The participants of the program are employees that are working for different organizations around the world and the only thing they have in common is that they all work within the educational system in their home countries. Sida offers them time, by making the participants' bosses disengage time in their employees schedule in order for the participants to be able to attend the training and develop their knowledge further. Also a physical place is provided by Sida, who in cooperation with LUCE, invite three participants from ten different countries to Sweden for a month's long training (the three participants from a specific country are referred to as that country's team). In Sweden the participants get to learn about child's rights conventions, which are the focus of the program, by theoretical lectures, workshops and interactions with each other. Because of the participants coming from different organizations and different countries it becomes important to understand the knowledge transfer process from a perspective where the focus is contextual factors affecting it. More about the program, which functions as a model when examining the knowledge transfer process, is introduced under topic 1.3.

1.2 Aim

For a greater understanding of the knowledge transfer process, the concepts of knowledge and knowledge transfer need to be attended to. Within the knowledge transfer process there are many contextual factors affecting the knowledge, for example how the knowledge is seen and packaged before it is sent, how it is received and unpacked etc. In order for the transfer process to occur there needs to be certain contextual factors affecting the process in a positive way. These factors coexist and are simultaneously affected by each other. In order to explain the complexity of knowledge transfer the contextual factors can be divided in three levels: individual factors, group factors and organizational factors. This results in the following questions:

- How is the concept of knowledge and the knowledge transfer process expressed by participants within the International Program: Child Rights, Classroom and School Management?
- What contextual factors affect the knowledge transfer process within the program?
 - On individual level?
 - On group level?
 - On organizational level?

The participants are the employees from the different organizations that come to attend the training, both former participants that have finished the program already and chose to remain active in a network and current participants that are undergoing the training at the time the data is collected, whom I observed in Lund and Zambia, and interviewed employees in Uganda. More about the methodological framework under chapter 2.

1.3 Child Rights, Classroom and School Management

The ITP: Child Rights, Classroom and School Management, aim is to enforce managerial and technical skills in order to contribute to a process of change and development in the participating organizations (Ingelstam & Norman, 2014:3). According to Sida's brochure the program is:

"[...] designed to give opportunities to compare and share experience with participants from other countries while taking into consideration the Convention of the Rights of the Child, Education for All and other internationally agreed instruments. A rights-based approach has the potential of contributing to the broader efforts of improving educational quality and impact. Schools and classrooms that are protective, inclusive, child-centered, democratic and encourage active participation have the potential to solve problems such as non-attendance, dropout and low completion rates, which are common in developing countries."

The program has been ongoing since 2003 and the batch that I am attending is one of the last batches to be arranged. The program was redesigned in 2010, making phase two in Lund four weeks long instead of the previous three and also the requirements for applying were changed into demanding higher English skills in order for the participants to be able to fully participate. In total more than 600 participants have attended the course, in every batch ten countries are represented by three participants (change agents) per country. These change agents are holding positions at school-, intermediate- and national level of the educational

sector (Ingelstam & Norman, 2014; 2013-09-17). The participants of the chosen batch are teachers, administrators, head teachers, teacher trainers, directors, supervisors etc.

The overall objective of the program is according to Sida (Ingelstam & Norman, 2014; 3):

“To improve participating countries’ capacity to offer and ensure everyone’s right to relevant and quality education, an education that is safe and secure, inclusive, student-centered, democratic and problem-solving and that creates opportunities for all, regardless of background, to participate in community life as active citizens”.

And the main objective is to create:

“[A] change processes that will contribute to the realization of the intention of the Child Rights Convention in policy as well as in practice” (Ingelstam & Norman, 2014; 2013-09-17).

Sida sees several positive potential outcomes from the program as for example: enhancing teachers’ capacity, moral, commitment, status and income (Ingelstam & Norman, 2014). These outcomes can be seen as results of the knowledge transfer process as learning leads to them. The program is managed by staff from Lund’s University through LUCE in collaboration with Sida who is funding the two year long program which is divided in five phases, illustrated below. The three employees from the ten different countries, a sum of 30 people are in this section referred to as *“the participants”*. Apart from the participants there are also five mentors who are working at Lund University and Malmo University. They are hired by LUCE to lecture about child’s rights and be responsible for the program and the workshops in it. The mentors therefore function as teachers of the program and are present during the programs all phases. They work at different institutions within the social science discipline and can therefore offer an interdisciplinary approach to the participants.

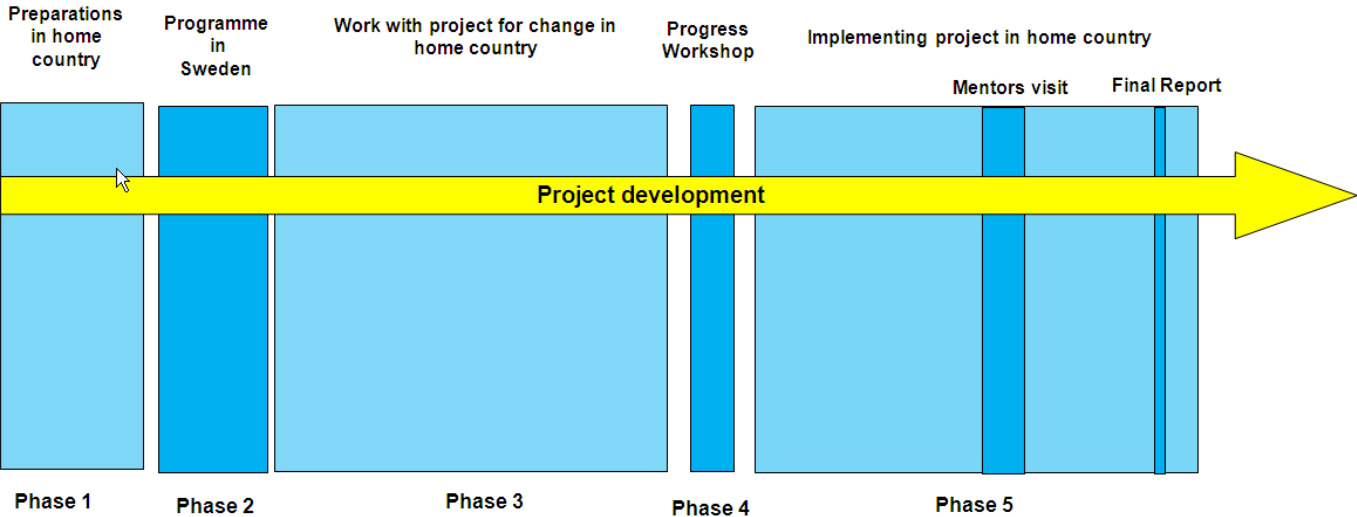


Figure 1. Illustrating the different phases of the program, presented in a PowerPoint during the observation in Lund (2013-09-16). Phase one and two are each a month long. Phase tree is four months long and phase four happens six months after phase two has started and is two weeks long. The last phase is supposed to be finished two years after the program has started.

1.3.1 Phase one

The *first phase* is situated in the three participants' home country and:

“The intention of this first phase is that you [the participants] are forming a team together with the other participants from your country and start examining the CRC [Child Rights Convention] situation in your country together” (2014-09-16)¹.

The presentation is held in Lund after the introduction of the program. These presentations later functions as a background to the change project and are therefore the first step in building the project. From these presentations it could be observed that most country's teams (consisting of three participants from the same country) discussed their school system, what is already done about child's rights in their country by presenting the government and NGO's, what the laws, policies, acts etc. state about child rights and an introduction to the country, by sharing what tourism opportunities they have, the meaning of their country flag, what language they speak, culture etc. (2013-09-16²).



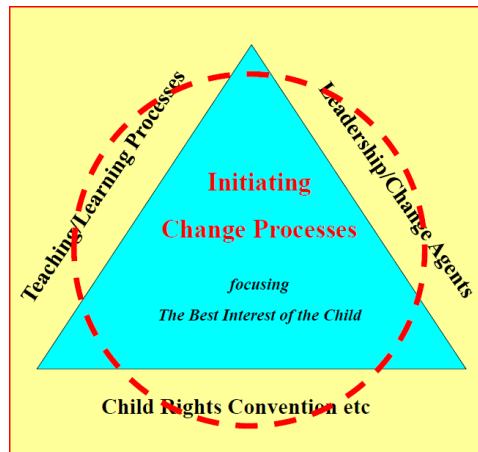
Picture 1. One of the presentations that illustrates some of the cultural values in the country. The picture was taken during the observation and illustrates how greeting rituals are done and how women dress depending on the day of the week (2013-09-16).

1.3.2 Phase two

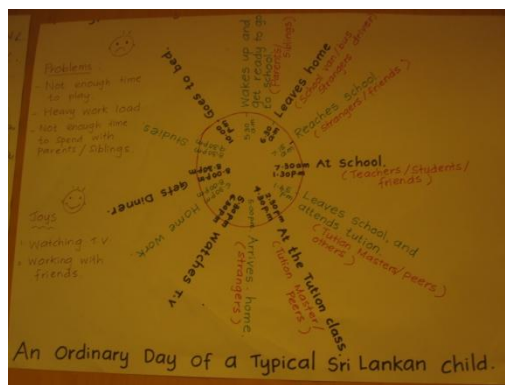
The second phase is situated in Lund, which implies that the 30 participants, who are representing ten different countries, come to Sweden in order to learn how to enhance child's rights in schools. These participants will return to their home countries after the one month long course and are meant to be implementing what they have learned in Sweden through a change project which they choose themselves. The education in Lund is built with focus on integrating: teaching and learning process, leadership and change agents responsibility and the child's rights convention (CRC), laws etc. with each other, always with the best interest of the child in the center. Methods used in this phase are interacting workshops where participants have to work together in order to interpret the child's rights conventions, the way of teaching learner centered, how to enhance ones leadership skills etc.

¹ Observed through a presented PowerPoint

² Date when the observation was made



Picture 2. The main focus of phase two which aims to integrate teaching/learning processes, leadership/change agents role and child rights convention within the change project by focusing on the best interest of the child, presented within a PowerPoint in Lund (2013-09-16).



Picture 3. Presentations from different workshops held in Lund during phase two. The picture to the left shows a team's result from a workshop where the participants had to summarize what they had learned under the training in Lund, the picture is illustrating the 3 pees (participation, protection and provision) as something that grows up from a Child Rights Convention school. The picture in the middle illustrated another workshop where the participants had to explain how an ordinary day looks like for a child in their country with the aim to make the participants view a child's challenges from the child's perspective. On the picture the child's activities during a day are written. The last picture is a result of a group discussion where the participants had to find what hinders the child rights convention to evolve. The convention was illustrated as a ship and the team spoke of the danger being the water, due to the water deciding where the ship goes and if it stays above sea level. Hindering factors presented within this illustration were culture, tradition, economy, laws, language, religion politics etc.

1.3.3 Phase three

Phase three's focus is for the participants to be working with the chosen project in the home country. One of the mentors state at a mentors meeting that:

"[...] before you leave Sweden you must have a concrete plan on what you want to do. Often people are too optimistic when they are here and mentors try to take them down a level. You can't do everything, but you can do something" (2013-09-16).

The participants are also informed, already in phase two, that phase three can feel very difficult due to resistance, as an example one of the mentors says that:

"When you come here, we all tell you that the projects are so important and you think that it's the best projects ever, but when you come home, people are resistant".

My reflection of this was that:

"The mentor seems to prepare them [the participants] that there are people in their country who won't be as open to their projects".

Within this phase the participants should also focus on what is practically applicable in their home contexts (2013-09-30). A mentor emphasizes that:

"When you go back to your home country and that context, you can change the plan to fit the context, everything you think of here will not be possible to implement there" (2013-09-17).

Phase three is also about changing the project in order for it to fit the context and therefore make the resistance smaller. Within this phase the teams have to write a progress report that has to be admitted before leaving for Zambia. After reading the reports in Zambia, the majority seemed to contain the following (2014-03-27):

- An introduction about the team's home country, which is often the same one as the first presentation made in phase one and presented in phase two.
- A frame of reference regarding child's rights in the home country, what is already done about child's rights by the government, NGO's and other stakeholders. Some of the teams chose to use some of the facts presented in Lund and fill in with some new acts, policies etc. regarding child's rights. Within this section it is also presented what child's rights convention articles and which of the three pees (participation, provision and protection) the teams chose to focus on within their change project.
- A presentation of chosen change project, what they want to be changed. Also here it can be observed that within the teams I have followed, the change project has been somehow changed from phase two and in most of the cases it has become more concrete and smaller than the one initially presented in Lund.
- A methodology chapter, which focuses on activities that the team has made in order to accomplish the desired outputs and outcomes; this section is often presented as an action plan (output focuses on direct observable futures as for example how many people came to the meeting which the participants arranged as part of their project, whether outcomes focuses on a deeper level that can't be easily measured, as for example what did the people attending the meeting actually understand and learn).

- The report ends by a result chapter that states how long the team has come and future challenges that the team thinks they will need to handle in order to implement their project in full scale.

1.3.4 Phase four

Phase four is a progress workshop, which this batch, consisting of 30 participants from ten different countries (the ten different country teams), is attending in Ndola and Chingola, Zambia. The aim of the progress workshop is for the participants to report how long they have come regarding the implementation of their projects and at the same time learn from each other's experiences. The aim is presented to be (2014-03-16):

1. To report, to explain, to reflect on and to share experiences from your project.
2. To support – in a constructive and critical way – the teams to gain clarity and knowledge for all in the Workshop.
3. To prepare the teams for implementation of your project in full scale.
4. To promote your professional and personal development as Change Agents.

The focus of this phase is the teams written progress report from phase three that they present to the rest of the batch phase four. Within the presentation, the team has three and a half hours to present their project and progress, to organize activities where all the participants are involved and to sum up their project. Within the presentations the teams present their frame of reference, purpose, methodology, results, discussions, reflections and the way forward (2014-03-25). After the team's presentation there is a feedback session where the participants give the presenting team feedback. The feedback session is mostly dominated by praising the presentation, questions regarding the presenting team's home context, discussion about further challenges and some clarifications within the written report. Another feedback session is later held with the responsible mentor and together with the team where further support is given. This meeting focuses more on the way forward and how to make the change project even more concrete in order to be able to see outcomes and outputs. Outside the teams presentations there are also two school visits of project schools where former participants have applied a change project. The school visit that I attended was organized by a longer introduction where the children showed traditional dances, sang and read poems. After the introduction the participants were encouraged to walk around in different classes and see how child rights were applied during the lessons, mostly by using a child friendly learning approach and allowing children to participate in class. Outside the formal meetings, there were activities, as in Lund, where the participants could mingle with each other and together with some participants of the network of change agents in Zambia which organized the future workshops school visits.



Picture 4. School visit, Mitobo Girls School. First picture illustrates a student leading the class. The second picture shows a class that attends the introduction. The last picture demonstrates children in a child friendly environment. All three pictures are a result of the project that a previous Zambian team has done with the focus on child's rights and participation (2014-02-18).

When summing up the progress workshop, it is stated that all ten change projects are aiming to implement something on local level, in schools rather than trying to formulate policies, acts etc. on national level. The participants also get a lot of good feedback regarding their projects and the atmosphere is positive. The summing up presentations is ended by looking forward at phase five and reflecting on what the participants have personally gained/learned and what they have given/taught to the other participants (2014-03-26).

1.3.5 Phase five

Phase five focuses on the implementation of the project in full scale. The teams work on their change project and the mentor comes to visit one week to help them with the implementation of the projects and to guide them in the right direction. The week the mentor visit their team is decided between the mentor and the participants. The mentor also has constantly contact with the teams through emails whenever they need support or have questions. Within the fifth phase the country team also has to write a final report that is later published in a book. This report has to include: introduction, frame of reference, purpose, methodology, results, discussion and reflection, the way forward, list of references and an appendix. Also the deadline is presented, in order for the mentors to have time to publish the book that the projects are presented in (2014-03-26).

1.4 Delimitations

I find child's rights to be an interesting subject and it will be hard for me not to involve it too much in my essay, but this study is mainly focusing on the knowledge transfer process per se and the contextual factors that affect it on presented levels. This is therefore not an evaluation on whether the program has succeeded or not, but a matter of understanding what affects the knowledge transfer process within the program. It should also be highlighted that I do not examine the results of the program by exploring what has been done in schools, in curriculums, acts etc, which has been implemented through the change projects that directly affect the children. Instead I focus on the programs participants; therefore the knowledge transfer process is examined from a more general point of view with results presented first

and foremost from observations made in Lund and Zambia. Because of my chosen methodological approach, social constructivism, this also highlights some delimitation, including that the study results are not wider applicable, but are truths by the participants' perceptions within their own organizations as presented within the methodological framework. The results can therefore not be used for other purposes than understanding the involved participants' understandings.

1.5 Outline

To provide the reader with a greater understanding I will be starting with the method I have chosen, because it is directly correlated with my questions of interest. Within the methodological framework I have chosen a social constructivistic perspective with abduction as my approach when conducting the following qualitative methods: semi structured interviews, participating and non participating observations. Further I will show how I will be analyzing my data and end the section by reflecting on the ethical- and methodological issues that might come up during the gathering of data. The next section will be a theoretical framework where definitions of knowledge and knowledge transfer will be sorted out. Within this section I will also present suitable theories emphasizing what affects the knowledge transfer process on an individual-, group-, and organizational level. The summary of this theoretical section will later lead the reader in the analysis chapter which will represent a mixture of both results and applicable theories with the focus on answering the above mentioned research questions. The findings will be concluded within a discussion about the ITP, a theoretical discussion about the difference between knowledge transfer and knowledge sharing will follow. Lastly recommendations for further research within this field will be presented.

2. Methodological framework

Within this section I will discuss several methodologically relevant aspects and answer some of the questions that Yin (2011) and Dalen (2007) point out when stating that the researcher should be open with what relationship one has to the field which is being studied, by reflecting on why this field has initially been chosen, how one has chosen the respondents, personal things that can affect the field, but also what empirical data one will reveal and what will not be revealed. I will begin by showing how the method philosophy will influence my choice of an abductive perspective and further a qualitative approach and qualitative methods: interviews and observations. I will also be presenting what analysis methods I will be using when I have gathered my data. Afterwards I will show my ethical considerations and end the chapter with a method discussion. Within this discussion I wish to show the challenges and risks with conducting this essay, but also how I think these could be overcome within my study.

2.1 Method philosophy

2.1.1 Social constructivism

My point of departure for this study is a social constructivistic approach that aims to explain and understand different subjects. Within this choice lies the fact that the research questions are best answered by this perspective and that this approach is similar to the way I perceive the reality. Its ontology reflects, according to Gergen (1985) that there are many different truths and that there are no relations in whose truth is "truer" than the other, all perceptions about the reality seem to be equally true. The reality is not out there for one to find, but constructed by one's experience and interpretation of the world. Social constructivism highlights how we (the subjects) perceive the social structures and intentions. Knowledge is socially constructed by every person and is controlled by one's perspectives. Without us (subjects) the truth as an objective thing does not exist independently (Fangen, 2005). There also seems to be a contextual factor of time dimensions that changes the different truths: yesterday, today and tomorrow. Therefore the knowledge is changeable over time. The epistemology shows that knowledge is subjective and constructed through the interaction of the subject studied and the researcher. It is also important to note that the process of understanding is driven by the relationship between the people that share the knowledge (Gergen, 1985). Within this method philosophy, researchers are interested in how the different truths are described by the subjects who perceive them (Fangen, 2005). Therefore the most suitable methods to use are the qualitative ones, in order to show that every person has its own constructed knowledge and picture of reality (Gergen, 1985).

2.1.2 Abduction

Abduction is according to Alvesson and Sköldböck (1994) a movement between theory and data that occurs constantly during the study. By studying the empirical data, the researcher can identify a relevant theoretical ground that can for instance be used to deepen the data collection or to change the aim of it. Alvesson and Sköldböck (1994) argue that the abduction can allow a continuous adaptation of theory and data. This means that the process of alternation between theory and data collection can emphasize new light on each other and deepen the

study. I believe that the abduction fits well with the approach of social constructivism, because from my perspective, they both create knowledge through a process together with each other. In this approach knowledge is created within interaction with people and it is later developed through other peoples' way of perceiving their reality. I believe that the abduction is created through different theories, in interaction with the people being studied when conducting observations and interviews (empirical data). Within this study I therefore choose abduction. I believe that you cannot be, as John Locke calls it "*tabula rasa*" when you do your study, previous methods and theory will always affect you even before you start your study and in an unconscious way choose several decisions for you. As an example I choose this subject, knowledge transfer, because I have during my bachelor and master studies become more interested in this pedagogic subject. This idea was born several years ago when I was writing a report about competence development and found out in theory, and later in practice, that some people are unable to bring back what they learned in one context to another. Similar I experienced that this does not only occur in theory, but also in practice at workplaces where employees are sent away for a course and gain personal knowledge that they cannot apply within their organizational context. After studying this phenomenon I discovered the knowledge transfer process and decided to do my own study about it. My choice of place is not a coincidence either, it has always been a dream for me to visit Africa, as a little girl I wanted to work voluntarily in Africa and now that the chance has been given, I didn't hesitate to take it. As this shows, the study subject and the place of fieldwork was decided, unconsciously at first, even before I decided to apply for the master program.

2.2 Qualitative methods

As mentioned before, in order to study, what Dalen (2007) names multifaceted reality, one must study how people construct their social realities and give meaning to their experiences. A suitable way to do this is through an ethnographical perspective. This is done best by using qualitative methods, which focuses on things meaning and content (Fangen, 2005). According to Yin (2011) qualitative research is needed in order to represent other peoples' opinions and perspectives, because these methods cover the contexts and circumstances that the studied people live in. This means that through qualitative methods one can study the meaning that can be attributed in peoples' life under real circumstances. As the social constructivistic approach shows, there will be different ways of interpreting the data and as a researcher one will most likely affect the peoples' perception about their reality. By studying it, one can picture a complex social world of the respondent's perspectives (Yin, 2011).

2.2.1 Observation as a method

According to Yin (2011) and Fangen (2005) the observation as an overall method can be seen on a scale that goes from only participating/insider to only observing/outsider. Between these extremes lies the participatory observation. The challenge within observations is said by Fangen (2005) to be the researcher's ability to combine these two extremes in order to be able to understand as an insider, but explain in a way that an outsider would understand. The observations should start by reflecting on the context that one observes within, what factors are there to be found in the context that can affect the study? Alvesson (2011) gives examples as culture, politics, hierarchy, power and society. Fangen (2005) provides other words for this; she calls it pre understandings and prejudgments. Within the participatory observation

one will be involved in the participant's life at the same time as trying to pin down what is actually observed within interaction and communication (Fayen 2005). The five positive sides with using participatory observations are, according to Fayen (2005):

- That the researcher gets a firsthand experience that can improve one's understanding and interpretation.
- That the researcher can use one's reflections and feelings as part of the data that has been collected.
- That the researcher can deepen one's understanding by asking questions to the field, as one meets the field over time.
- The ability to get a complex picture of what the researcher is studying.
- Accessing information that is not shown in interviews.

My choice of doing participatory observations derived from the curiosity on what the participants actually learn here in Sweden. I was astonished by the fact that there are 30 participants who are flown in to Sweden from all over the world to learn about child's rights. I started to wonder what they can learn here in Sweden, which they don't have the ability to learn in their own countries. I also wondered how they perceive this course and the lectures held. It was from these questions that I formed the aim with this essay.

2.2.1.1 Observation target groups

There are three target groups for my observations, the first one being the one month long training program held in Lund (phase two) and the two weeks long mid-term gathering in Zambia (phase four) when observing the batch participants and the mentors. The second one being down in Kampala in classrooms where change agents teach, here I will be observing mostly cultural aspects. The third one is the network meeting in Kampala that I will be attending in order to get a bigger sample from previous participants, this in order to deepen my understanding about the contextual factors. The first observation was done to directly answer research question number one, by looking at what is taught to the participants (see observational schedule in appendix I). What I observed through my participatory observations will be followed up by interviews with the change agents in Kampala, in order to answer what the change agents actually adapt, but I have also interviewed mentors in order to see their intentions regarding knowledge transfer and what they hope that the participants learn. By doing this I want to show a more complex picture of the knowledge transfer process that occurs. This first participatory observation has also helped me to understand the background that the participants are coming from, in order to identify the contextual factors which the participants experience when they are in Sweden. I believe that by observing their attitudes and experiences of the course, it will help deepen my study and make my interview guides catch the essence of the participants' perceptions about knowledge transfer on different levels. The second observation, done in Kampala will focus on the contextual factors that can affect the knowledge transfer and will be deepened by interviews with participants from previous batches through the network.

2.2.1.2 Conducting the observations

Before starting my one month long observation of the second phase of the ITP, I needed to understand what I wanted to focus on during the participatory observations and how

participatory I wanted to be. I chose to be specially focused on what is said to be knowledge (what is said during the lessons by the mentors as facts), what methods are used to enable learning and knowledge transfer and what I understand from the participants way of reacting (what are they saying, why and how is it said, their attitudes and reactions on different subjects). To make it easier I started by writing the different things observed in different colors. What the mentors said as facts I colored blue, used methods were green and attitudes were red. Additional to these I added black notes, that show my own reflections on the different aspects , questions that I started to ask myself and what I should try to observe better the next day. I also decided to let the field tell me how participatory I could be, much of my interactions with the participants in formal settings was by me adding additional facts to what the mentors said, raise questions and more freely talk during the informal breaks.

To find time every day in order to sit and go through the observations is recommended by Yin (2011), this time one should focus on interpreting the notes and organizing them. The first observation week that consisted of five days of observations, approximate eight hours long, I took the notes by hand in a notepad and later the same evening transmitted them to the computer. Unfortunately this procedure took too much time, as I would sit up to three hours after the eight hour observation session to transmit my notes. After the first week I decided to bring my computer and take notes directly on it in order to save time. By doing so, I could unfortunately not reflect as much on my notes as the first week because I didn't find the time to go through them again every day. I have reflected on them at the end of the course and created small interpretations and questions for the interviews to clarify certain things that have been said and done. I am not sure if the reflections would have been as many as the first week, because of the first weeks focus on getting to know each other and the participants way to quickly adapt to Lund and the working methods.

The observations in Kampala were non participatory, I was only observing. My only interaction was as I explained what I was looking for when the class started. The teacher didn't either involve me in activities or ask me if I had an answer or an opinion about what was lectured about. In Kampala I therefore made two non participatory observations which included two different classes of teacher students at different universities, one subject being philosophy and the other child's rights. Both the classes were led by former participants of the ITP.

The last observation in Zambia was a bit more difficult to handle. As I didn't fully understand what I could expect from the ten countries progress presentations, which would have something to do with knowledge transfer. I did attend the majority of the presentations. A couple of days after the workshop started, through interaction with participants and one of the mentors, when a group was getting its feedback, I suddenly saw a pattern. From that day I made a rather structured observation schedule (see appendix V) and used it for the rest of the time. The observations were to some degree participatory, within the feedback sessions and also because of the groups asking me after the presentations what my opinion was on their presentations. After the presentations we would sit together and have dinner and interact as we were staying in the same hotel for the two weeks, which made the observations even more participatory during informal settings.

2.2.2 Interviews

2.2.2.1 Interview target group

I have chosen two different target groups when conducting my interviews. The first interviews were conducted with three of five mentors of the ITP and the other target group will be participants of the Sida's ITP who live in Kampala. Also very informal interviews, discussions, have occurred during the observation in Lund and Zambia with the participants and mentors, these are included in my observational notes.

My sampling for the first target group, has been a convenience sampling, as Trost (2010) and Yin (2011) call it and it was depended on who had the time to be interviewed. The second sampling for the change agents will be what Trost (2010) and Yin (2011) call a purposive sampling where I choose change agents from Kampala. This sampling has been built on Dalens (2007) idea about criteria for sampling. The theoretical target group would in this case be all the change agents, over 600 people. The criteria, which I choose to make the sample smaller by, is that the participants have to live in Kampala; they have to work at a certain place that will not be revealed due to confidential reasons and they need to have been in Sweden for phase two after 2010 due to changes within the ITP. From these participants I choose one batch, with a total of three participants. I also conducted half of an interview with one participant from another batch, which I have chosen not to include in the data collection due to it never being finished since that participant had to leave the country rather quick.

2.2.2.2 Qualitative semi structured interviews

The interviews with the change agents will be qualitative and semi-structured because I perceive the interview situation as Dalen (2007) who sees it as a dialogue or a conversation between two parts which happens during a certain time, and when that time is over, the interview ends. Also Kvale and Brinkmann (2009) have a significant point when emphasizing that knowledge should be seen as a product of the interaction between the one interviewed and the one interviewing, the knowledge is therefore actively constructed through questions and answers. Yin (2011) explains through Brenner (2006) that qualitative interviews aim to understand the participants on their own terms and how they create meaning, experiences and cognitive process in their life. Kvale and Brinkmann (2009) define the qualitative interview as the way knowledge is created and produced through a social interaction between the people that are interviewed and the interviewer. Yin (2011) further reflects that qualitative interviews don't need a strict manuscript, but it's more important to pay attention and listen as a researcher.

There are also different types of questions to choose from, in my interviews with the mentors I used mostly opened questions as: "*Why do you think that it's important for the participants to see CRC in different perspectives?*" (see appendix II). I did not follow Trosts (2010) recommendation of not asking Why-questions in order not to challenge the responder, because I felt that I agreed more with Fangen (2005) who stated that one should ask why-questions in order to get the persons own reason on how one behaved and in order to clarify their answers. I also felt that I had already built up a relationship with the mentors, who gave me access to the field and established a trust with them in order for them not to feel threatened. Within the different types of questions I also felt the need to summarize,

something that Trost (2010) doesn't recommend because the researchers first interpretation is then affecting the participant. I feel that I agree more with Kvale and Brinkmann (2009) in their view of knowledge being constructed together by all the participating parts and in that matter I found myself asking also leading questions. Cohen et al. (2007) strongly recommends one not to ask leading questions. According to Kvale and Brinkmann (2009) it is not critical if the researcher asks leading questions, but instead the focus is whether these questions lead to new valuable knowledge or not, which I believe my questions did. By asking these leading questions, I could connect what the mentors said to how I interpreted the behavior of the participants within the different workshops. The leading questions were not initially printed in my guide, but were asked as follow up questions in order to lead the respondent to more concrete answers. Therefore they were answering open questions before I tried to make some of the questions more concrete. I even stated that: "*Now this is a leading question, but do you think that the methods that you use will be adapted by the participants?*"

2.2.2.3 When interviewing

There are several researchers who give tips on how the interviews should be conducted, for example Kvale and Brinkmann (2009) shows a model of 7 steps:

1. Create themes by working out your aim and research questions.
2. Plan your interview guide by designing what questions you want to use, the order of the questions etc.
3. Conduct the interview.
4. Prepare the data for analysis by for example transcribing it.
5. Choose your analysis method and analyze your collected data.
6. Verify your interpretations.
7. Make your rapport.

I have followed these steps, but not necessarily in the order that they are presented. I have as an example changed my interview guide after an interview because the question felt uncertain and not concrete enough. I have also chosen how to analyze my material before conducting the interviews, because I believe that my analysis method actually affects which questions I have chosen to ask. Some of the questions have been created during the planning stage and parts of them have been rewritten several times, which follows abduction as I see it. In a way I have chosen to verify my methods and choices as I go along with the study and not only at the end of it, this by combining method and theory all the time. Even though my process hasn't been a copy of Kvale and Brinkmanns (2009) recommendations, the content has been the same, at the end of the rapport I have been through all seven steps, in different order and some steps have been repeated.

Dalen (2007) suggests doing a pilot interview. I have not done this for the first interviews with the mentors due to lack of time, but I have done it when conducting my interviews with participants from Uganda by asking the questions to a former participant, the answers are not included in the data collection. Some of the questions have also been changed even after the first interview was conducted in order to make the other participants more comfortable to answer them. Some questions have been rephrased and explained further as the interviews have occurred due to misunderstandings and confusion that has occurred with two of the

participants. I have also changed some of the questions when I did my third interview with the third mentor. The first interview was a group interview with two mentors and they completed each other's answers, which was not the case with the third and therefore I had to rephrase them in order to get a concrete answer. The interviews with the mentors have been conducted during the observations in the classroom where the lectures took place and the meetings with change agents have been occurring at their schools and institutions.

2.3 Analysis methods

According to Yin (2011) there are five phases to analyze the collected data:

1. Assembling of all collected data.
2. Disassembly in smaller parts in order to categorize and find patterns.
3. Remounting by hierarchical arrangements, diagram, logical models etc. In order to compare similarities and differences, but also see what results are contradictory that doesn't really fit the rest of the sampling.
4. Interpretation from different perspectives and theories, by explaining what happened, why and how. According to Dalen (2007) the interpretations are built on the participants' answers in a dialogue with the researcher and the empirical data.
5. Conclusions.

After the observations in Lund were done it took me several months to reflect on how I could use this data due to an enormous amount of it. When I was in Kampala I suddenly saw a pattern and started to disassemble the data with the categories that are represented within the theoretical framework. I also started to draw different models on how the theory fits together with what questions I wanted to ask the change agents. This was a process that took several weeks until I finally decided on one of the many models I had drawn. It also took several days to understand how I could use what I had observed in Zambia, but by building an observation structure it was later easier to analyze the material.

Fangen (2005) stresses other ways for analyzing empirical data, in different degrees. Within the first degree of analysis, the researcher describes situations, patterns etc., and interprets what they hear and see with the concepts that lie close to or are identical to those the participants use. I conducted this in the observation situation in Lund and Zambia by writing down what they said and how they behaved, mostly explained with the words that they used because these came faster to my mind as they were talking and I was writing. The second degree means that the researcher interprets the data collection from the context. This was experienced when we visited the schools in Lund and the participants would ask questions that for me had obvious answers. As an example, on the last school visits at an upper secondary school, a participant asked why all the subjects weren't given in English. For me the answer was clear, that the first language in Sweden is Swedish, but for the participant it was very odd compared to his/hers country where all subjects were given in English even though English was a second language. I think that the only way to understand this was by letting someone else watch what I saw and express their perspective on it by questions, I wouldn't have noticed this if someone didn't see the context in another way. Analysis of second degree has also occurred widely in Uganda, where I lived for a month with one former change agent that helped me understand the context and culture that affected the lives of the interviewed

participants. There is also a third degree where the researcher compares and interprets underlying hidden interests. This can be done by conducting a critical evaluation of oneself and ones understanding of the field that is studied, as presented under the title Method discussion. Another example is an observation made in Lund where a person acted a bit strange when she talked. This was the first day and my field notes reflect that:

“One of the participants talks very fast, loud and clear, a bit authoritarian. The participant seems to try to control the others to listen to her 100%. Maybe it’s not about power and control, maybe it’s her way of talking? Maybe she is nervous or stressed in some way? Also one of the mentors seemed to acknowledge her tone and jokes by saying:” Now we got a lot of energy in the room” (2014-09-16).

2.4 Ethical considerations

2.4.1 Informed consent

Kvale and Brinkmann (2007), Fagen (2005), Cohen et al. (2007) and Trost (2010) emphasize informed consent. Cohen et al. (2007) defines this phenomena as a procedure in which the participants choose to participate in the study after being informed about the facts that can affect their decisions. Dalen (2007) defines it as the information which beforehand should be organized about everything that can affect the participant’s participation in the study. All of them also discuss that the participation should be voluntary, the aim of the study should be presented, the participants should have the choice to not participate and cancel their participation, even after the study has begun. Dalen (2007) and Trost (2010) also emphasizes the researchers to tell the participant who he/she is, for whom the study is made, what risks will appear by participating and how the result will be distributed. Dalen (2007) points out the importance of the researcher mediating the information about oneself and ones study in a way that the participants really understand. Fangen (2005) writes that the researcher can never beforehand know how he/she will do their interpretations and will therefore never be able to give a whole picture of what the study actually means. Within the observations I started by presenting the essay and myself, the same procedure was repeated at every interview and at the network meeting.

2.4.2 Information requirement

According to Dalen (2007) the information that should be given is not only concerning what the study is about and its aim, but also the overall plan, methods that the researcher wants to use and who is responsible for the study. I had a hard time during my first participatory observation in Lund to realize if the participants actually understood what I was doing or not. The second day of the course I got to introduce myself and my idea, I was very well prepared regarding the ethical considerations and shared these. I informed the participants of what I was going to look at when observing, my research questions, that they could come to me and say if something was to be deleted from my notes regarding what they said or did, I asked them if they were all ok with me observing them and described how the result would be presented and who had access to read the report. My field notes reflected on my understanding on how they perceived this presentation:

“I presented my idea which was received well (?). I got no questions afterwards, but I did get a tip from one of the mentors to send out my essay before it was done so everybody had a chance to look into it and express if there would be something that I should not publish“(2013-09-17).

The question mark became even more obvious a couple of days after I started observing when one of the participants came to me and asked me about my essay and my subject of interest. I was a little surprised because I believed that I was really clear when explaining my idea by both telling and illustrating on the whiteboard, which several participants photographed. As it is shown in my field notes with the question mark, I did elaborate a little on the fact that nobody asked any questions and nobody said anything except the mentors: By not getting any questions when presenting, I believed that it was understood what I was doing there and why I was observing the participants. Now, afterwards I question if everybody really understood what I was doing, even though it seemed crystal clear to me and the mentors. As a result I have informed them again about my study and the ethical considerations when I met them in Zambia.

I did not inform all the children and teachers at the school visits in Lund on what I was doing. I felt that by informing the principal and some of the teachers that asked, I had fulfilled my duty, because I wasn't observing the children or teachers, but the change agents' attitudes and the questions that they asked. In the second observation that took place in Kampala I have briefly informed the class about my essay and said that I am studying the teacher's attitude and work methods rather than the students.

2.4.3 Confidentiality

Dalen (2007), Kvale and Brinkmann (2007), Cohen et al. (2007) and Trost (2010) emphasizes how the researchers should show his/hers data. They discuss confidentiality and anonymity, but because I only use confidentiality and not anonymity, this is the only factor which I will present here. Confidentiality means that within the information that will be presented, an outsider that reads the study should not be able to track what participant that the researcher has been talking about and who left what information. The researcher needs to protect the private integrity of the participants and decide what information should be presented, but also decide to delete certain information that is too sensitive to present. Trost (2010) highlights that the researchers should be very careful when citing because the participants identity should never be known by an outsider and because of that the researchers should also be cautious with what background information one presents. As a result of this I have chosen not to include any background questions in my interview, because I am not interested in their position, work, age etc., but rather their perception of the knowledge transfer process on different levels. I have also considered the quotations; they are presented in a careful way, in order to follow the confidentiality that I have promised. All change agents that were interviewed were promised confidentiality.

Within the presentation at the first participatory observation in Lund, I also promised the respondents confidentiality and I will give them the possibility to read the report before handing it in and let them comment on it if they believe that something is to be deleted due to confidential reasons before publishing it. The mentors were not informed about

confidentiality because I felt that they had already been promised confidentiality together with the participants, they were there during my presentation. I didn't feel the need to remind them about the confidentiality during the mentors' interviews as I feel that it is custom.

I have chosen to delete information that I gained from the observations because it was too personal. I also feel that some of the information that I choose not to present in the essay could have deepened some analysis and give a greater cultural background, but due to confidentiality I choose to protect the individuals before the scientific value of the report and its depth.

2.4.4 The researchers role

With the researcher's role Kvale and Brinkmann (2009) emphasizes one to be transparent, but also control and verify the results of the data analysis. They discuss the issue of keeping a professional approach and distance in order to report everything from the participant's point of view. I don't think that this is possible, because knowledge that results from this study, will not only be the answers of the participant, but my interpretation of what they said or what I observed that they did or in what way they behaved. The knowledge is, as motioned before, created within a relationship between the participants of the study and the researcher can therefore not reflect the "clear" perspective of the participants. Kvale and Brinkmann (2009) also highlight the problems of the power symmetry within the interview situations. The researcher therefore needs to reflect on his/hers role and how he/she is seen from a power perspective, this because there may be consequences on the created knowledge. Therefore it's an ethical consideration how one should handle the power situation in a responsible way.

I did not feel any power relation between me and the change agents, neither between me and the mentors, because I felt like an insider and an outsider (see more about this below), but I did reflect on the power relation which I felt that I picked up during the first days of observation in Lund between the mentors and the participants. This is reflected in my field notes by the lack of questions:

"An observation is that the participants never ask any of the mentors any questions during/after their presentations or ask them what they mean with the workshop or what they expect the participants to do. Why no critical thinking? Power? Respect?"(2013-09-17).

This approach is later changed when questions never seem to end from the second week onwards.

2.4.5 Availability and acceptance

Cohen et al. (2007) stresses that the researcher should be very careful with getting official permission to do their study; one should as an example contact the board and the participants to establish a collaboration. I have been establishing this contact through a mentor who has helped to introduce me and helped me to gain access to the field by explaining my aim and research questions for LUCE who is responsible for the ITP phase in Sweden and also the mentors who I felt accepted me as a part of the group. This was not easily done, as I felt that it took several months and explanations from me before they could accept my application to make my observation during phase two in Lund. The mentor also helped me establish contact with the participants in Kampala by informing them that I will be coming and giving me their

contact information. I was also assigned a supervisor in field that helped me with practical issues as where to stay and who to take up contact with regarding the network meeting that I observed. After attending phase two, I also asked the mentors for permission to meet up during the *Zambian project progress workshop*, something they were positive towards.

2.5 Method discussion

2.5.1 Problems and risks with qualitative methods

Dalen (2007) emphasizes different risks with qualitative studies: anxiety, as a researcher to get caught up in unpleasant situations, moral dilemmas and the issue of it being hard to balance the insider and outsider perspective. Alvesson (2011) stresses other subjects that can become problems in a qualitative study, as it for example, being difficult for the responded to express their opinion or that he/she doesn't want to tell their real opinion, respondents talk about things that they don't really have knowledge about and the respondents' actual motive to participate in an interview. Also Kvale and Brinkmann (2009) emphasizes some problems that can occur, due to many factors differing from one interview situation to another, as for example control and trust, respondents who avoid to answer certain questions, individuals thinking differently of the same thing and it being hard to control the data independent of the interview situation.

Within this discussion I also want to highlight other problems that have been brought up in the chosen method literature. Trost (2010) emphasized that the researchers, in an interview situation, should only ask questions and listen, but not share ones reflections or opinions because the respondent will then be influenced by the researcher, which is not desirable. Also Dalen (2007) presents this idea by stressing that the researchers own perceptions and viewpoints are to be left outside the data.

2.5.2 Reflections on presented problems and risks

I have, during my observations experienced that it is hard to balance the insider and outsider perspective. This because, during my observations in Lund, while on a break I got involved in discussions with the group that I observed, they tended to like me and see me as a member of the group. Then the session would start after the break and I would sit in the back observing people, which made me feel like an outsider. This issue is reflected in the field notes: one day when we had a school visit, we were eight people who visited this school, and one of the children raised their hands and asked what countries everybody came from. All seven answered and when it was my turn, one of the participants started talking, as I wasn't a part of the group who needed a presentation. I reflected that: "[...] *here I am an outsider, in this context, not as when we have our breaks*" (2013-09-20). This seems to change some times, which is reflected in my field notes: "*The participants ask me to take pictures of them and with them when they are working. Feel like an insider anyway?*" (2013-09-18). Also in Zambia I was both and insider and an outsider. Within the formal sessions when the teams presented their work, I sat in the back taking notes and I was not interfering, while outside the lesson hall I was a natural part of the group and therefore an insider.

I also got anxious several times during my observations because people have involved me in their lives and told me things that I wasn't prepared to react to, it's also been shown in a

workshop where the participants were divided in small groups and got an assignment to show each other how a typical child lives in their country. Heart breaking stories emerged from the workshop, in my field notes it is reflected by some sentences:

“It feels awful to sit here and listen to this, I am getting very emotional affected by this stories [that reflect exposed children in different countries] and I feel the urge to just cry and feel sad for the destiny of others. Maybe it’s because I can identify certain behaviors from when I was raised in Romania and my friends who lived in similar bad conditions” (2013-09-17).

I was sincerely sad when I left that session and I felt emotionally drained when I got home later that evening, the rest of the night I had trouble coping with those stories and dreamt awful dreams about the exposed children. It also made me anxious over the trip to Kampala, I began to fear what I would be observing, like children whom get beaten by teachers in the classrooms and I tried to prepare myself for this experience and figure out how I would react.

I recognize what Alvesson (2011) is discussing, because in my field notes it is reflected that I found it odd that nobody ever questioned each other. There was a workshop that I observed, during the second phase in Lund, by observing one of the groups, where at the beginning everybody had different ways of seeing the problems within the case, but after one person spoke, they all, what from the beginning seemed forced, agreed with this person and let him continue, in my fieldstones I wrote:

“It feels like the group I am observing misinterpreted the assignment. One person influences the group with ones knowledge even though the other four didn’t seem to agree at the beginning. Later the group seems to have, a little unwillingly, bought the persons arguments and that person continues” (2013-09-16).

It took a couple of days until they construct their own questions of what was said, but during the whole month when I did my observations, there was never any heated argumentation, everybody seem to agree with what everybody else were saying. Can this maybe be a reflection that they don’t want to share their opinions or is it only because of the good custom? That participants tended to talk about things that they didn’t have knowledge about was also represented in the fieldwork notes. Among all participants, many of them spoke to me and each other about what the others had said and that they didn’t agree at all with what was said. This because they thought that the others did not know the subject well enough to speak about it. Oddly this critical thinking only occurred outside the classroom, often on breaks, because, as mentioned before, nobody ever questioned what was said during the lessons.

I believe that Kvale and Brinkmann (2009) are right about the interview situated in a certain context, that it can never be the same in another interview situation. What I don’t agree with is their opinion that it is a problem that people tend to think differently of the same matter. According to social constructivism, this is supposed to be the strength; everybody has different perceptions of the world. I do not either strive to control the interview situation, but rather let it be as it is. According to Yin (2011) ones perception on how one understands what is said and done, will change over time and is affected by both external and internal factors, as

ones perspective, knowledge, experiences, understandings and opinions. Also Dalen (2007) highlights that one's pre understanding will affect ones perception. For that reason, even if I was to control the setting, which I think is impossible; my perception of what is said or done will never be the same.

Lastly I would like to disagree with Trost (2010) and Dalen (2007) when saying that one should not share opinions and experiences within the observation field. I have been observing these participants in Lund for a month, every Monday to Friday from 08.30 to 17.00. Because of that they already knew me, we've talked during breaks, we discussed our opinions and experiences. It is impossible for me not to affect the field that I observe or am involved in; I'm affecting it by only showing up every morning and taking notes all day, only by existing. It is not an objective setting, but rather a very subjective one. During two observations in Kampala it became clear to me that the teacher that was observed had prepared to talk about child's right because I was in the room. In that way I did not only affect the teachers, but all the students that now had a different theme on their lesson because of my appearance. As Thomas (1928;572) theorem states: *"If men define situations as real, they are real in their consequences"*, everything is created by the subjects, by our personal perspectives and interactions with each other. I do agree with Thomas theorem that points out that the researchers is a part of the social world that is studied.

2.6 Method summary

Method	Amount	Period of time	Structure
Observation, Phase two Lund	Mon to Fri 08.30- 17.00	2013-09-16 to 2013- 10-10	Partly participating, partly observing
Interview mentors Phase two mentors Lund	3	2013-10-07	Qualitative semi- structured, one group interview with 2 mentors, one individual
Interview change agents Kampala	3	2014-02-25, 2014- 02-27, 2014-03-02	Qualitative semi- structured, individual
Observation former participants classes Kampala	2	2014-02-28, 2014- 03-07	Only observing
Observation network meeting Kampala	1	2014-03-12	Participatory observation
Observation progress workshop Phase four Zambia	All day, daily	2014-03-14 to 2014- 03-27	Partly participating, partly observing

Figure 2. Methods used within this essay. Where there are phases stated, the data collections derives from the observed batch participants and the mentors and were done in the different phases of the program. Regarding the interviews, observations and workshop meetings made in Kampala, the data collection derives from former participants belonging to other batches.

3.Theoretical framework

Within this section I will present theories regarding knowledge, tacit and explicit knowledge and several definitions of knowledge transfer as defined by different researchers. Furthermore I will present theories about factors that can affect the knowledge transfer process on an individual-, group- and organizational level. Within the factors on an individual level I will present theories about previous knowledge, attitude towards receiving knowledge, receiver's absorptive capacity and cultural norms. When transferring knowledge some factors will affect whether the transfer is successful or not, some of these are the senders' willingness to share, the sense of ownership over the process/knowledge and understanding the value of one's own knowledge. On a group level knowledge transfer can be affected by factors as group dynamics, the relationship between the sender and receiver and the trust among these people, group members reputation, group consultation, group identification and the common frame of reference. On an organizational level, factors that affect the knowledge transfer is the organizational environment with the degree of participation, incentives, support, positive environment and the organizational culture. Most of these theories are presented in scientific rapports that I have been extracting from an article database. I have also tried to have a wide section of different researchers from different disciplines and different countries in order to show different perspectives of the same issue. The section ends by a summary of the theoretical framework illustrated within a constructed model.

3.1 Knowledge and knowledge transfer

Knowledge has been defined in different ways; it can be perceived as an object that can be built or as a process. Knowledge can also be defined from different perspectives which decide if it is seen as an object or a process and which determines how the learning occurs. Further, knowledge is divided in two types: tacit knowledge and explicit knowledge where the first one is deeply rooted inside our brains and the other one can more easily be accessed.

3.1.1 What is knowledge

Gera (2012) claims that knowledge is created within organizations through the processes of explication, structure and transformation of the collective tacit knowledge. But then how does knowledge appear? Liyanage et al. (2009) show two different perspectives, knowledge as an object or as a process. The first mentioned indicates that knowledge can be viewed as a thing to be shared and manipulated which they explain by the theory of Alavi and Leidner (2001) who states that the knowledge can be built and manufactured. The second approach views knowledge as a process where one can apply the expertise and knowledge flows by creating, sharing and distributing it (Liyange et al., 2009). According to De Corte (2003), who takes a constructivist view on knowledge, people construct their own knowledge in narrow interactions with the physical and social contexts in which learning occurs. This is something that Gera (2012) seems to sympathize with, when claiming that knowledge is the product of human mind and is therefore constructed. Gera (2010) also refers to Kolb (1984) who claims

that knowledge is a process, by disusing about knowledge creation, from the perspective of knowledge being a process that comes from tacit knowledge within the individuals and results into external expression.

3.1.1.1 Tacit and explicit knowledge

Researcher	Tacit knowledge	Researcher	Explicit knowledge
(Liyanage et al., 2009)	Non-verbalized, intuitive unarticulated (Polanyi, 1962)	(Mazloomi & Dominique, 2008)	Codified and transferable knowledge by formal systematic language (Pokanyi, 1986)
(Mazloomi & Dominique 2008; (Kumar & Ganesh, 2009)	Embodied in individuals and organization through culture	(Mazloomi & Dominique, 2008)	Embodied in products, manuals, databases etc.
(Liyanage et al., 2009)	Resides in human brain and cannot be easily captured or codified (Wong & Radcliffe, 2000; Nonaka & Takeuchi, 1991; McAdam & McCreedy, 1999)	(Liyanage et al., 2009)	Can be articulated in formal language and easily transmitted among individuals (Koulopous & Frappaolo, 1999)
(Sheng et al., 2013)	Deeply rooted in action, commitment and involvement in a given context (Nonaka & Takeuchi, 1995)	Rivera-Vazquez et al., 2009)	Everybody can use the explicit knowledge (McMurray, 2002)
(Mazloomi & Dominique 2008)	Made up of knowledge that has a personal quality		
(Sheng et al., 2013)	Gained through experience		
(Sheng et al., 2013)	Developed through learning by doing (Reed & DeFillippi, 1990)		
(Mazloomi & Dominique 2008; Sheng et al., 2013; Rivera-Vazquez et al., 2009)	Hard to formalize, communicate and share	(Mazloomi & Dominique, 2008; Liyanage et al., 2009; Sheng et al., 2013; Kumar & Ganesh, 2009 Rivera-Vazquez et al., 2009))	Easy to codify, formalize, communicate, articulate and transmit

Figure 3. Explaining tacit and explicit knowledge from different researchers' point of view.

As presented in the chart, no researcher has built a whole picture of tacit and explicit knowledge, but they have presented different aspects of the way they perceive knowledge.

Many of them have referred back to earlier researchers, like to the father of tacit and explicit knowledge, Polanyi. From this chart, I would summarize tacit knowledge as: *developed in our actions and experiences which are embodied in our brains which makes it hard to share*. The explicit knowledge I would summarize as: *formal knowledge that is embodied in things which can be easily shared and is accessible for all people*. An important standpoint that is emphasized by Liyanage et al. (2009) and built on the theory of Polanyi (1975) is that both tacit and explicit knowledge are important and must coexist because of the tacit knowledge forming the background necessary for assessing the structure to develop and interpret explicit knowledge.

Chua (2002) argues that the creation and distribution of knowledge happens simultaneously. According to Glaser (1991) the knowledge is depended of its own context, therefore one needs to measure knowledge by asking those who have the knowledge and can make use of it (Chua, 2002). This states that the knowledge doesn't exist objectively outside the individual and because of that the context of where the knowledge is created and shared should be taken into consideration (Chua, 2002). Casal and Fontela (2007) also highlights socially constructed complex knowledge which focuses on the knowledge distribution and how it is shared among people. This kind of knowledge is created and sustained through interaction in order to, according to Berman et al. (2002) create common cognitive schemas that are required for successful knowledge construction. Within this perspective, the group's knowledge will always be greater than the sum of the knowledge of its members, a phenomenon that is called synergy.

3.1.2 What is knowledge transfer?

The definition of knowledge transfer is somehow complex. Researchers' have tried to define it for a long time without being able to agree on one common definition. Instead it has been defined from different disciplines, perspectives and with the help of communication theories involving a sender and a receiver. Further some researchers' have tried to separate knowledge transfer of tacit knowledge from knowledge transfer of explicit knowledge which results in four different aspects: socialization, externalization, internalization or combination.

There are different perspectives to view knowledge transfer from; one example is the behaviouristic, which claims that the transfer does only occur when the transfer task shares specific identical elements with the original learning task. Another example is the cognitive perspective, which states that for the transfer process to occur there is a need of general skills, for instance problem-solving strategies (De Corte, 2003). Rogers (1983) defines knowledge transfer as an attempt to copy a specific type of knowledge from another entity (Lucas, 2006). Lucas (2006) also tries to define knowledge transfer with the help of Kostova (1996) and Szulanski (1996) as being about ensuring that the provision of desired results and the new knowledge is to become institutionalized within the organization. Darr and Kurtzberg (2000) define it as an event through which one entity learns from the experience of another. Another explanation is provided by Liyanage et al. (2009) who sees it as an act of translation where knowledge from a sender is transferred to a receiver who acquires the knowledge. According to Sheng et al. (2013) the knowledge transfer is one person being affected by the experience of another, this is built on Kumar and Ganesh (2009) view on the transfer as being the activities of exchanging explicit or tacit knowledge provided between two people, during which one person receives and applies the knowledge provided by the other person. Foss and

Pedersen (2002) also showed this when highlighting that the knowledge transfer is not a replication of knowledge, but rather the modification of some existing knowledge to fit a different context, what is transferred is not usually the underlying knowledge, but the application of this knowledge as a solution to a specific problem (Kumar & Ganesh, 2009). Darr and Kurtzberg (2000) also highlight this aspect by stating that the transfer has only occurred when a sender shares knowledge that is used by the receiver (Kumar & Ganesh, 2009). Woodsworth and Schlosberg (1945;734) first defined transfer as: “*the carrying over of an act, or way of acting from one performance to another*” (Barnett & Ceci, 2002) According to Butler et al. (2006) knowledge transfer is the process in where the participants acquire additional knowledge through participation in education and training. Lucas (2006:9) states that: “*Knowledge transfer involves changing the way things are done and adapting new approaches that may be radically different from those currently in use.*” Lucas and Dt (2006;3) states that in order:

”[...]to understand knowledge transfer, one must consider how employees gain access to information, whether that information allows them to change the way they do their jobs, and what inducements may be offered to motivate them to change the way they do their jobs”

This means that if the context doesn't allow the receiver to translate the knowledge sent by the sender there will be no knowledge transfer. Lucas and Dt (2006) also acknowledge that if knowledge is acquired and not used it will be lost.

According to the taxonomy that Barnett and Ceci (2002) present there are three possible outcomes of transfer:

- No transfer between contexts which means that transfer theories are context depended.
- There will only be a transfer if participants have plenty of context knowledge.
- Transfer will occur independent of the participants' level of context knowledge, which includes that the transfer is not context depended.

Barnett and Ceci (2002) also emphasize the difference between near- and far transfer, where the first one is a transfer to a similar context, whether the second one classifies the transfer to a dissimilar context. Further Dougherty (1999) cited by Li-Hua (2007), says that knowledge transfer is about connection and it therefore depends on individual choices. It is utilized and transferred through intensive and extensive interaction between people.

3.1.2.1 Transfer of tacit and explicit knowledge

The transfer process of tacit and explicit knowledge is somehow different, the tacit knowledge is according to Nonaka and Takeuchi (1995) transferred through observation, demonstration and experience by interaction (Kumar & Ganesh, 2009). The tacit knowledge is often created through social interaction when working together in groups and developing routines between processes that they are involved within (Lucas, 2006). The explicit knowledge seems, from Koulopous and Frappaolo (1999) point of view, to be transferred through formal language in charts, sheets etc. (Liyanage et al., 2009). When new knowledge is acquired, independent of it being tacit or explicit, one must adjust it to fit in the new context by transforming it into being applicable in one's own work environment (Layland, 2006). According to Kohut and Zander (1992), Nonaka and Takeuchi (1991) and Spencer (1996) the explicit knowledge is easier to transfer, due to it being easier to codify than tacit knowledge which is embodied in

the individuals cognitive process (Mazloomi & Dominique, 2008). Mazloomi and Dominique (2008) emphasize that tacit knowledge can be transferred into explicit knowledge by borrowing the theory of Nonaka and Takeuchi (1991) and the theory of Daft and Lengel (1986) which states that tacit knowledge requires a richer context and more than mere codification in order to be transferred. According to Liyanage (2009), built on the idea of Nonaka and Takeuchi (1995) there are four possible outcomes the knowledge transfer:

1. Socialization, tacit to tacit, through interaction and discussion. Is transferred through interaction and observing, demonstrating and sharing experiences.
2. Externalization, tacit to explicit through theories, concepts and models.
3. Internalization, explicit to tacit knowledge, through learning from charts.
4. Combination, explicit to explicit, through sharing a rapport by email

	<i>Tacit</i>	<i>Explicit</i>
<i>Tacit</i>	Socialization	Externalization
<i>Explicit</i>	Internalization	Combination

Figure 4. Illustrating the combinations of tacit and explicit knowledge, built on the theories of Nonaka and Takeuchi (1995)

Barnett and Ceci (2002) acknowledge the fact that there is still no agreed on definition of knowledge transfer. In an effort to define the knowledge transfer process from presented theories one could understand the knowledge transfer as being a relationship between a sender and a receiver where the transfer only occurs when knowledge from the sender is received by the receiver and translated to fit the new context of the receiver. This tacit knowledge is partly acquired through participation and sharing ones experiences and the explicit knowledge through formal language. The context will determine if there will be a far or near transfer and will also affect whether the knowledge will be transferred or not. If the transfer is successful, there are four possible outcomes: socialization, externalization, internalization and combination. This can be illustrated as:

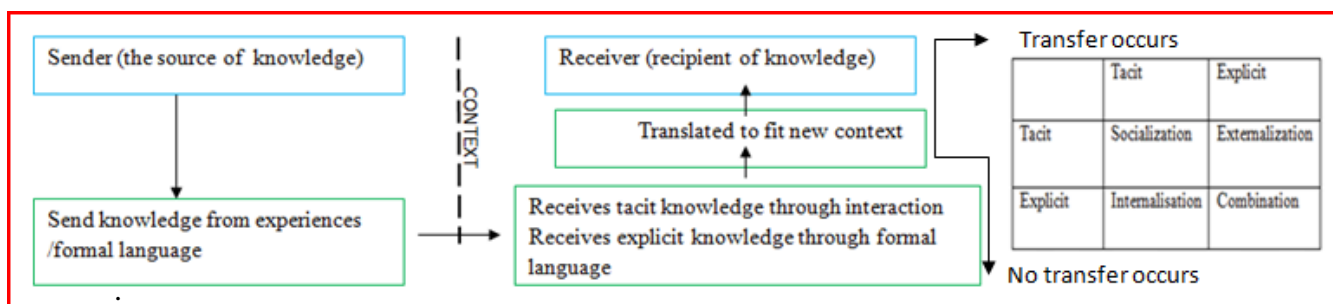


Figure 5. Explaining the knowledge transfer process from presented theories.

3.2 Contextual factors affecting the knowledge transfer process

This section will present different theories about what affects the knowledge transfer process on three levels: individual, group and organizational. The theories presented are constructed by researchers all over the world and are a good sample of diversity.

3.2.1 Contextual factors affecting the knowledge transfer process on individual level

3.2.1.1 Adapting knowledge

Within the field of adaption, knowledge researchers have concentrated on what affects the individual's way to acquire new knowledge. Factors as previous knowledge and absorptive capacity have been presented to have an impact and therefore influence if the transfer process will occur and what is transferred.

Casal and Fontela (2007) state in agreement with Cohen and Levinthal (1990) and Szulanski (1996) that for the individual to acquire knowledge it is important that the individual already has knowledge about something that is related to the new knowledge, because the lack of absorptive capacity is a barrier to the knowledge transfer. According to Zander and Kogut (1995) and Simoni (1999) previous knowledge in the area is important, if the individual already has some knowledge, one can acquire the new knowledge more quickly after already being familiar with the context and the content of the new information (Casal and Fontela, 2007). Mazloomi and Dominique (2008) also emphasize this by Inkpen's (1998) theory about the knowledge transfer being more effective when transferred knowledge is related to knowledge that has already been transferred previously from the sender to the receiver by past experiences. Rivera-Vazquez et al. (2009), built on Davenport and Prusak (1998) theory, highlights the importance of the receiver's absorptive capacity to acquire new knowledge. Casal and Fontela (2007) also conclude, in confirmation with Cohen and Levinthal (1990) and Szulanski (1996), that acquiring knowledge is easier if the receiver is prepared to obtain the knowledge. Casal and Fontela (2007) also conclude, in confirmation with Cohen and Levinthal (1990) and Szulanski (1996), that acquiring knowledge is easier if the receiver is prepared to obtain the knowledge. Rivera-Vazquez et al. (2009) discusses Haukes (2006) theory that a person's ability to acquire, assimilate, adapt and apply new knowledge decides the knowledge transfer that will occur. Kumar and Ganesh (2009) are stressing this as well through their theory of absorbing capacity which they define as a person's ability to recognize, assimilate and apply the knowledge where it is needed. Other norms that also play a role in the knowledge creation, according to Leonard-Barton (1995) are: willingness to value and respond to diversity, openness to negative feedback and tolerance towards failure (Chua, 2002).

3.2.1.2 Contextualizing knowledge

The issue of contextualizing knowledge depends on both the sender and receiver and are influenced by factors as willingness to share the knowledge further, willingness to acquire knowledge, culture, the sense of ownership over one's own knowledge and knowledge stickiness.

As Liyange et al. (2009) states the sender should be happy to share their knowledge and the receiver should want to acquire the knowledge and have the absorptive capacity. Lucas and Dt

(2006) deepen their argument by generating Chases (1998) results about employees who were working in a culture where they saw knowledge as a personal asset and didn't want to share it with others, which hindered the knowledge transfer process. Also Rivera-Vazquez et al. (2009) share this aspect by referring to Hauke (2006) who states that competitive behavior due to the person being afraid of losing their position is inhibiting the transfer process, which can be seen as individualistic ways of handling ones knowledge (Rivera-Vazquez et al., 2009). Another factor is letting the sender and receiver sense of owning the process. According to Barrett et al. (2004) and Thomas-Hunt et al. (2003) participation and active involvement in the decision making, makes employees feel that they own the process, whereby they make an effort to make the knowledge transfer process successful (Lucas & Dt, 2006). It is also important according to Rivera-Vazquez et al. (2009) that the person understands that one's knowledge can be useful to other people. Some people chose not to share the knowledge due to an internal fear of not believing in one's own knowledge and ability to help solve problems. They also emphasize the fear of sharing, but not receiving back, which also shows another presented aspect, the lack of trust between the sender and the receiver. Another aspect that Rivera-Vazquez et al. (2009) emphasize through Ford and Chan (2002) is the gender issue, by stating that in cultures with high masculinity are more competitive and hinder the knowledge transfer process. The lack of commitment will also, according to Rivera-Vazquez et al. (2009) inhibit knowledge transfer. Liyange et al. (2009) show that employees who get greater organizational rewards from sharing, will spend more hours sharing knowledge to others and they strive for self-improvement. Another presented factor is the recipient's cultural closeness to each other that facilitates the knowledge transfer and the willingness to share knowledge (García-Almeida et al., 2011). The behavior of not wanting or not being able to transfer knowledge is called knowledge stickiness by Gupta and Govindarajan (2004) and Szulanski et al. (2004) and depends according to Teecer (1998), on the information itself and the way it is coded (Sheng et al., 2013).

3.2.2 Contextual factors affecting the knowledge transfer process on group level

3.2.2.1 Group dynamics

Examining the knowledge transfer process on a group level involves the group dynamics by researchers' theories about factors affecting the knowledge transfer process as: cooperation among sender and receiver, culture as a facilitator or a barrier with its norms, employees reputation, group constellation, the issue of common or different frame of reference and vocabulary among the sender and receiver.

Chua (2002;3) emphasizes the theories about norms of cooperation among organization members, which he borrows from Coleman (1990) and Putnam (1995), when highlighting that: “[The] norms of cooperation can establish a string foundation for the creation of knowledge”. This, according to Putnam (1995) is because of the norms which can influence the social process and open up access to knowledge sharing among individuals and at the same time ensuring the motivation that is needed to engage in such exchange. By the micro perspective of Rivera-Vazquez et al. (2009), built on Davenport and Prusak (1998) there are several aspects to look at in the relationship between the sender and receiver: one of them being trust. Within the social dimension Chua (2002) discusses Putmans (1993) and Von Krogn's (1998) theory on the level of care and willingness to help. Care leads to trust and

raises empathy which can be translated into willingness to help others. The knowledge transfer process can also be affected by a group member's reputation. The potential for the success of the knowledge transfer process can be found in close relationship and good reputation among the employees (Barrett et al, 2004; Hansen, 1999; Szulanski, 1996 in Lucas & Dt, 2006) Employees with good reputations are more likely to engage in knowledge transfer with people that have the same reputation than with those who have bad reputations (Lucas & Dt, 2006). Another factor is the groups' constellation, if it is a homogenous group or a heterogeneous one. According to Riviera-Vazquez (2009) theory built on Ford and Chan (2002) a cultural homogenous group will facilitate knowledge transfer, whether a heterogeneous group will require more time and effort to transfer knowledge. In a context where the group members have a similar way of seeing the world, create their norms and values which are show as a direct outcome on how the employees will deal with knowledge transfer (Lucas & Dt, 2006). When explaining the sense of identification to the group Chua (2002) borrows Nahapiet and Ghoshal (1998) definition: the degree to which individuals see themselves as one with the group. Kramer et al. (1996) argued that the identification enchases the concern for collective processes and outcomes, which increases the process of knowledge sharing (Chua, 2002). As a result to this, Child and Rodrigues (1996) and Simon and Davies (1996) argues that when groups have identities that are contradictory with the organizational ones, the knowledge creation, learning and information sharing becomes a barrier (Chua, 2002). The senders and receivers frame of reference is also an important factor within the knowledge transfer process. Rivera-Vazquez et al. (2009), built on Davenport and Prusak (1998) theory, highlights the importance of common vocabularies and frame of references which affect how the knowledge is interpreted. They also highlight that there are several aspects to reflect on regarding the relationship between the sender and receiver: the trust, the common vocabularies and frame of references which affect how the knowledge is interpreted and the receiver's absorptive capacity to acquire new knowledge.

3.2.3 Contextual factors affecting the knowledge transfer process on organizational level

3.2.3.1 Organizational environment

Several researchers have tried to connect knowledge transfer with an ideal organizational environment by discussing theories about what facilitates and hinders the knowledge transfer in different environments. Factors that have been shown to affect the knowledge transfer process within the organizational environment are: an organizations incentives to make people transfer their knowledge by discussing employees inner motivation, status, rewards etc., the way the environment is built and its culture that motives one to transfer the knowledge further or not and the kind of climate and whether it increases knowledge transfer by collaboration, personal interaction, allowing people to make mistakes etc. or decreases it.

Incentives act like signals for the employees to engage in knowledge transfer, Lucas and Dt (2006) show through Ancona (1990) and Szulanskis (1996) studies that when there are no incentives it's more difficult to affect successful knowledge transfer. The incentives can, according to Lucas and Dt (2006), be either outcome- or behavior based. The first one indicated that there rewards come after the employees archive the objectives and the second one changes the behavior of an employee's when doing a task. The behavior based incentives are designed for motivating information sharing with colleagues. Lucas and Dt (2006) also

state, built on the study of Ancona (1990), that employees will be more willing to participate in the knowledge transfer process if they know that they will be rewarded for it. After conducting their study, Lucas and Dt (2006) reveal in their discussion that their study shows no support for the role of incentives in knowledge transfer. According to Riviera-Vazquez et al. (2009) knowledge transfer can be inhibited by status and rewards given to knowledge owners. Lucas and Dt (2006) state through the theories of Goh (2002) and Hult et al. (2004) that the participants also need to be participating in the process for the knowledge transfer to occur. Lucas and Dt (2006:12) further show in their discussion that:

“[...] perception of a supportive context is vital to successful knowledge transfer. Employees must believe that the organization allows them the freedom to learn from others, a freedom that is real and goes beyond lip service”.

Another factor within the organizational environment is to have a positive environment in order to enhance knowledge transfer. Rivera-Vazquez et al. (2009) also stress some barriers for knowledge transfer in the work environment: culture where result is promoted instead of sharing and intolerance to mistakes or need of help. The physical layout of the workplace is also important for the knowledge transfer, by being built in a way where interaction is enabled the knowledge transfer can be more successful (Kumar & Ganesh, 2009). Another important factor is what Rivera-Vazquez et al. (2009) emphasizes, the importance of communication. For it to facilitate knowledge transfer it needs to be good through all levels of employees, as well between the manager and employee as in-between managers and in-between employees. Casal and Fontela (2007) dismisses the arguments of some researchers (Winter, 1987; Brown and Duguid, 1991; Zander and Kogut, 1995; Grant, 1996; Szulanski, 1996) who show a pattern that illustrates that the more socially complex the knowledge is, the slower and more difficult it is to transfer to others. In the concluding part of the study, Casal and Fontela (2007) shows an unexpected result, that there is a positive correlation between socially complex knowledge and its transfer. For it to be easier transferred, a favorable climate needs to be established, with focus on collaboration, sharing experiences, personal interaction and an ability to create social ties (Casal and Fontela (2007). Rivera-Vazquez et al. (2009) add another dimension of the climate and culture: to allow the employees to make mistakes. They also emphasize the theory of Hauke (2004) which states that smaller power distances, environment where employees feel secure to share their knowledge and informal environment to share information on facilitate the knowledge transfer.

3.2.3.2 Organizational culture

Within organizational culture, researchers have highlighted several factors that affect the knowledge transfer process. By different presented theories, factors that have been shown to influence the knowledge transfer are: the importance of strong common values and norms, whether the culture promotes knowledge transfer or not and the senders and receivers similarities and differences in cultural beliefs.

Lucas and Dt (2006) borrow the theories of Goh (2002) and Hult et al.(2004) about culture to explain how culture affects the knowledge transfer. Their theories state that there is a need for the culture to have strong values and norms that enhance the sharing of information. The researchers Lucas and Dt (2006) takes it a step further and states that the knowledge then is

viewed as an organizational asset to be shared among colleagues. Also Rivera-Vazquez et al. (2009) bring up the issue of knowledge sharing by using Bradleys (1991) theory about ways to facilitate knowledge transfer through cultures by building up an environment where culture promotes knowledge sharing (Rivera-Vazquez et al., 2009). Lucas (2006:15) concludes in his article that: “[...] *cultural differences may create bottlenecks that either impede or eliminate the potential for successful knowledge transfer*”. García-Almeida et al. (2011) stresses the matter through theories of Davenport and Prusak (1998), Gupta and Govindarajan (2000) and Kostova (1999) about the cultural differences between the sender and receiver, which inhibits good communication and instead leads to conflicts.

3.3 Theoretical conclusion

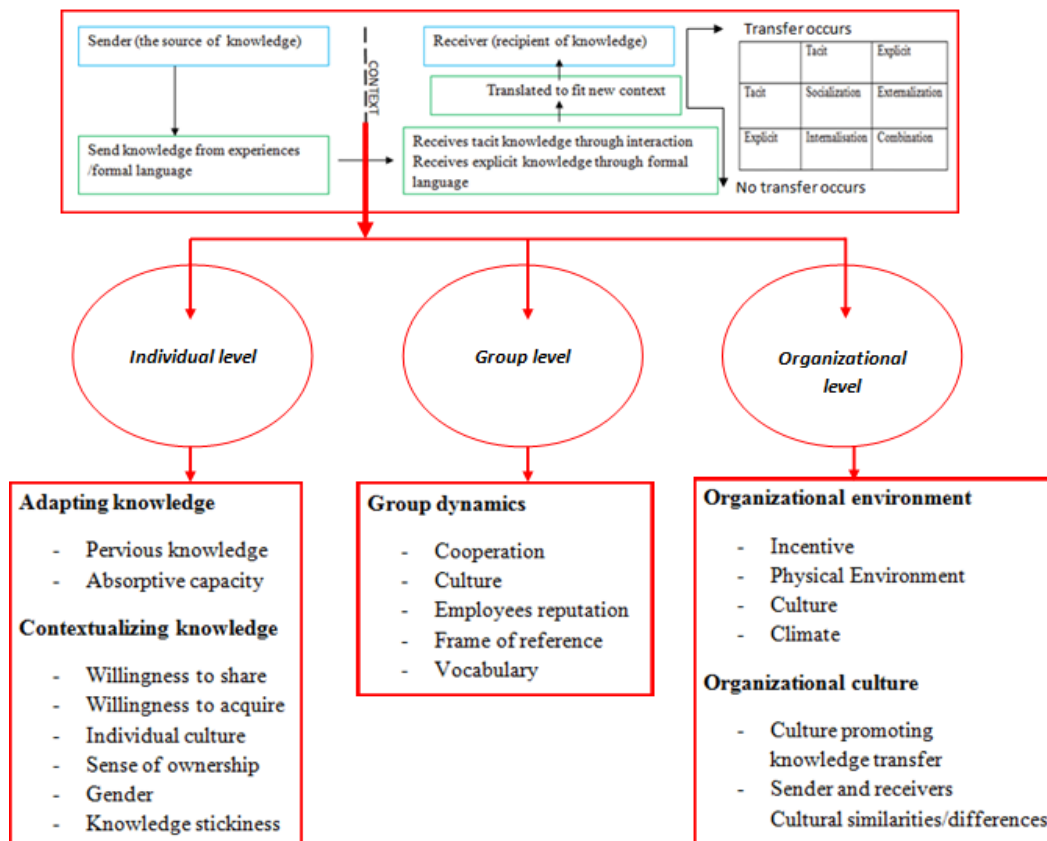


Figure 6. Explaining the knowledge transfer process and what factors affect it on an individual-, group- and organizational level. The knowledge transfer process can be seen as an interaction between the sender and the receiver. If the knowledge transfer is successful or not and whether the knowledge can be adjusted, by the sender when sending and by the receiver to change it in order for it to fit the context, or not is decided by contextual factors. These contextual factors can be divided in three levels: individual, group and organizational. Within the individual level the focus is on individual factors among the sender and the receiver. The group level focuses on the sender and the receiver’s relationship to one another which will decide if the sender wants to share and if the receiver wants to adapt what is shared. The organizational level focuses on what the organization can provide the sender and receiver in order to encourage them to share their knowledge and in that way facilitate the knowledge transfer process.

4. Results and analysis

This chapter will start by establishing the participants' definition of the concepts knowledge and knowledge transfer. These two concepts will further be associated with tacit and explicit knowledge in an attempt to build a complete definition. Contextual factors affecting the knowledge transfer process follows, with focus on knowledge adaption, contextualization and transfer of knowledge. Further follows factors on group level that affects the knowledge transfer process, these factors affect the group dynamics and focus on the relationship between the sender and the receiver. Also contextual factors affecting the knowledge transfer process will be presented with focus on organizational environment, organizational culture and communication. The chapter ends with an analysis conclusion where the answers to the research questions are presented.

4.1 The networks participants definition of knowledge and knowledge transfer

What one individual defines as knowledge and knowledge transfer can be very different to what another person would describe it as. Therefore I chose to ask the participants to define these two concepts in order to define knowledge and knowledge transfer from the participants' point of view, which is in line with the social constructivistic approach.

<i>According to the network in Uganda</i>	
<i>What does knowledge mean to you?</i>	<i>What does knowledge transfer mean to you?</i>
The experiences we go through and what can be spread and stored through memories.	When we apply the knowledge that we have by doing things.
Information, learning new things. Getting ideas, studying situations, acquire skills. Obtaining ideas and develop mentally.	To pass on the knowledge or information from one person to another.
Information.	Passing on skills, attitudes and values to other people.
Information that can help the individual/group to live a better life, improve the surroundings and empower the individual.	It is the interaction with learners and their environment, the educators to enrich information on the learners.
Acquisition of skills, values and norms.	The process of acquiring skills, values and norms.
What one acquires for functionality in solving problems.	Sharing information or what you have learned with others for the purpose of improvement.
Accumulated wisdom.	Passing on what you know.
Learning something, as skills, values, attitudes and how to deal with people and situations.	The ability to apply the acquired values, skills and attitudes in real life situations.
The process of information, ideas, concepts and experiences.	-
<i>According to the interviewed participants in Uganda</i>	
	Imparting knowledge from 1 person to another. Exploiting knowledge from one

	country to another. Knowledge guidance from first learner to you.
	Ability to adapt the new things you acquired to your local situation. Pick the relevant knowledge, contextualize it and use it in a situation.
	Sharing knowledge, activities and ideas.

Figure 7. Presenting the Ugandan networks participants and the interviewed Ugandan participants view on knowledge and knowledge transfer.

Knowledge as presented in the theory chapter can either be viewed as an object, a thing that can be manufactured or as a process where knowledge is created, shared and distributed. The knowledge is then constructed in interaction between people which makes learning occur, this interpretation which makes knowledge a product of human mind. When the participants tried to define knowledge, they saw it as experience that is spread or stored through memories, information, and the accumulation of skills, values, norms and wisdom in order to solve problems and knowledge as learning. The definition of knowledge from the participants' point of view with the clarification in theory could be described as:

“A process where the knowledge is acquired through learning in order to be stored within our human brain and through interaction spread forward”.

With focus on tacit and explicit knowledge it could be defined as:

“A process through where the knowledge is acquired by learning tacit and explicit knowledge in order to be stored in a tacit form within our human brain and through interaction spread forward in tacit and explicit form”.

As the theories state, presented within the theoretical framework, there is no common agreed on definition of knowledge transfer. Within the participants' answers, one can see that several of the presented theories can be applied to what the participants define as knowledge transfer. One of the common points within the participants definitions seem to be: passing the knowledge forward from one person to another (in theory called sender and receiver) in interaction between the two people and by doing this, sharing knowledge. Another common view amongst the researchers and the participants seems to be that the knowledge acquired needs to be used or applied in order for the knowledge transfer to occur, this by picking the relevant knowledge that the sender has shared to the receiver through adaption, contextualize it and then use it in a situation. The knowledge transfer process can therefore be defined from the participants' point of view as:

“The interaction between a sender and receiver, where the sender passes on/shares the knowledge to the receiver who adapts, contextualizes and uses the knowledge in a given situation”.

4.2 Contextual factors affecting the knowledge transfer process on individual level

Within the network meeting and the interviews held in Uganda, the participants were asked “What contextual factors affect the knowledge transfer process on an individual level”. Among the answers were factors as: level of understanding the new knowledge, receiver’s attitude towards learning something new regarding if one wants to or not, ability of the receiver to learn and the way the receiver can adapt and contextualize the knowledge. When transferring the knowledge further, the sender’s willingness to share seems to be an important factor, as well as the participation of both the sender and receiver in the knowledge transfer process.

4.2.1 Adapting knowledge

4.2.1.1 Previous knowledge

The importance of previous knowledge was highlighted within the theoretical framework. It was stated that for the individual to acquire knowledge through knowledge transfer, it is of great importance that the individual already has knowledge about the subject (Casal & Fontela, 2007; Cohen & Levinthal, 1990; Szulanski, 1996). In this way one can relate the new knowledge to already acquired knowledge which makes the knowledge transfer process quicker and more effective. The data collection shows that the previous knowledge seems to be important within the ITP as well. As an example, the participants have to create a presentation within the project’s first phase, before they come to Lund. This presentation is held the first day they arrive and within the presentations the different country teams talked about what their country does within the field of CRC already and what laws, acts etc. enforced child’s rights (2013-09-16). When doing this exercise, the groups have to prepare and read about child’s rights and in this way they acquire knowledge about child’s rights before coming to Lund, which can later be used as previous knowledge to build the new knowledge on. The importance of previous knowledge is also shown in a statement made by one of the mentors: *”When you come from a country that has former change agents that have already stated changes, you actually often pick up where they left off and change even more”* (2013-09-30). The importance of the network in the home countries is also emphasized in Zambia where one of the mentors’ states that some networks invite the next batch participants before they go to Sweden, in order to brief them about what they should expect and what is expected of them. While observing the network meeting in Uganda, the former participants spoke of the new change agents. They stated that:

“When the change agents come back home [from Sweden], they are introduced into the family. We had a need to come together [former change agents] to become stronger, now we have formed a formal organization to promote and work further with CRC [Child Rights Convention]”.

They continued to speak of the new participants being invited into the network before they leave for phase two in Lund, in order to prepare them for what is expected of them and what they can expect in return, but also to help them with the preparations in phase one (2014-03-12). Seen this was, the network also functions to provide the participants with new knowledge that can be used as previous knowledge when in Sweden. The observations in Zambia also show the importance of previous knowledge as a factor to knowledge transfer. All participants were encouraged to read the written progress reports by the other countries before the presentation, in order to get a greater understanding and more easily accumulate/assimilate what they have read to what is presented within the presentation. While reading the progress reports, one could see it as the participants already had previous knowledge since the introduction of all the reports were built on what they had learned in Lund together about child’s rights and they themselves had the same topics within their own report. The three

conducted interviews in Uganda showed that the participants had previous knowledge about child's rights before going to Sweden. This was expressed by respondents answering that they applied for the program because they were already interested in child's rights and because they wanted to increase their knowledge by getting exposed to external knowledge in order to improve one's profession and administration. It was also shown in the interviews that all the participants had some knowledge about child's rights before coming to Sweden, two of the three respondents said that they knew general things about child's rights, but not specifically the convention. Two of three respondents also had some experience of the field, by having attended workshops or having studied the subject academically. The importance of previous knowledge was highlighted by a respondent as: "*[I had] old knowledge to build on. [It made me] understand better, it [the previous knowledge and experience] had a positive impact*".

4.2.1.2 Receivers attitude towards receiving knowledge

Another factor that affects the knowledge transfer process is if the receiver is prepared to acquire knowledge. In order to gain knowledge one has to have an absorptive capacity, which in the method chapter was defined as a person's ability to recognize, assimilate and apply the knowledge where it is needed. For one to be able to acquire knowledge the receiver of the knowledge has to be prepared to receive new knowledge (Rivera-Vazquez et al., 2009; Haukes, 2006; Casal & Fontela, 2007; Cohen & Levinthal, 1990; Szulanski, 1996). The participants of the Ugandan network spoke about expectations of the receiver towards the sender. This was also discussed in the interviews conducted in Uganda, where when the change agents were asked in the interviews "*What expectations did you have on what you would learn in Sweden*" two of three answered that they wanted to improve their [already existing] knowledge. One of the participants expressed this as getting: "*Improved knowledge of what I already knew*" another said that: "*I expect to expand my professional knowledge*". This can be analyzed as they were expecting to learn more about child rights beyond the basic knowledge they already had, which may have given them a bigger absorptive capacity towards the new knowledge and in that way made it easier for them to learn. All three participants also expected that by conducting their change process, there would be a further knowledge transfer about the subject of child's rights, they hoped to spread what they learned in Lund further, as expressed by one participant: "*[...] to teach learners something outside the curriculum that they would pick up*". This is also shown within the observations in Lund and Zambia, the participants show that they are grateful when other participants chose to share their knowledge by thanking them and nodding to what they say and in that way acknowledging them (2013-09-16).

What kind of knowledge transfer process that will occur, is decided by a person's ability to acquire, assimilate, adapt and apply the new knowledge. In Zambia one of the participants said during their presentation about the progress report that: "*In order to contextualize the knowledge learned in Lund, we needed to make it fit the home context*" and therefore that team built a mini research where they went out and started to observe and interview the target groups in order to understand the context of the schools. This shows that even if they live in the same context, it doesn't mean that they perceive the reality in the same way and by doing this mini study they reassure themselves of the fact that the receiver, in this case their target group, will be prepared to understand what is coming next and what the project is about. In this way they too can use their previous knowledge to build the new knowledge on. When interviewing the change agents in Uganda one of them pointed on the issue of contextualization as well by saying that:

"We learned a lot of things in Lund, but we can't use all the things we learned in our home context. You need to apply it slowly, child rights in this context is seen as spoiling the

children. *We need to be able to package the knowledge when sharing these “western things”. The methods you use to spread knowledge will decide if it will hinder or facilitate the knowledge transfer”.*

4.2.2 Contextualizing knowledge in order to understand it

The issue of contextualization was emphasized during a workshop in Lund where the focus was to explain what factors that could influence the contextualization of child’s rights. Among the answers provided by the participants were: teachers’ way of perceiving the children, power relations, national culture, tradition and family values (2013-09-24). It has also been highlighted in the interviews with the mentors, when one of the mentors expressed that the aim with the program is to give the participants an integrated understanding with the help of their former knowledge and that the program should add something new in relation to the already existing knowledge that the participants have. In Zambia it was also used by the teams, by using different methods within their presentation in order to discuss issues from different perspective with the help of pictures, cartoons etc. As an example, one of the presenting teams divided all participants into different smaller groups and then distributed cartoons that were printed on paper. The discussion groups then had to argue what they perceived from these cartoons. By doing this, they could build knowledge together within the group and help each other to understand the context of the cartoons that showed the presenting teams different contextual challenges, and in that way enable the contextualization within the knowledge transfer both in the discussion groups and later when presented to all participants of the batch.

4.2.2.1 Building common frames of reference

Another example of contextualization was a workshop held in Lund where the participants answered the following question: *“What is it like to be a school child in your country?”* The participants had to describe an ordinary day, from morning to night, for this child. They got papers and pens to discuss and write for ten minutes and then they shared what they discussed with the whole group. Some questions from the participants to the presenting group were raised after every presentation, which I observed as a way for the participants to try to understand each other’s contexts (2013-09-17). This workshop can be perceived as a way to contextualize the knowledge one has within the country team by the discussions and with the whole group when the participants are asking questions. The contextualization makes them build common frames of references. Another workshop with the same purpose was presented by one of the mentors: *“Why should we work with participation, what does it mean to you? Take two minutes at each table and talk about it”* (2013-09-18). One of the mentors commented this workshop afterwards by stating that the method used is: *“Great for learning, to discuss first and then feed facts”* (2013-09-18). By discussing the previous knowledge together with the new knowledge the participants are able to see similarities and differences in each other’s contexts and ways of perceiving the same issue. This was illustrated by a workshop that was created to highlight the problems that children have in the different countries. One of the mentors acknowledged that: *“Do you see any patterns from all the posters? We have actually created a global frame of references. You represent ten different countries, but there are so many similarities”* (2013-09-19). This is reinforced by the interview with the mentors when one said that the program is not about learning the convention per se, but instead give the participants a greater understanding of the meaning of the convention in relation to their own context. It was also highlighted that:

“It is important with the interpretation in relation to the context. The programs lectures may not improve the project plans, but they help with the implementation, to have a common perspective”.

An additional illustration of contextualization can be seen in one of the workshops in Lund that had the assignment to draw a definition of the child, without mentioning the age, gender etc. The participants worked in mixed groups for ten minutes. When the groups started to work I made a personal note stating that:

"I think the purpose of this workshop is to make the participants conscious of the different perspectives that one can see the same thing from, in order to make it easier to understand and contextualize the new knowledge" (2013-09-18).

Another session started by the mentor encouraging the participants to reflect on the concept of change for ten minutes by discussing it with each other.

"What do we [the group] mean with change? What is the definition according to us [the group]? After ten minutes: select one group member and send to the whiteboard to write down your group's definition."

The participants were asked to sit in mixed groups, from different countries. The mentor continued: *"And then we look at common words you used"* (2013-09-30). This can also be seen as a way of highlighting the participants' previous knowledge and helping them, by discussion in a heterogeneous group, to contextualize the new knowledge, in order to enable learning. This interpretation is enforced by the interviews with the mentors, where they said that it's important to have a common definition of the words used in order to understand what context they [the participants] put the definition in and how they contextualize what they already know in order to facilitate the transfer further.

4.2.2.2 Adapting different perspectives

To facilitate the new knowledge and understand it better it also seems to be important to see a situation from different perspectives. This is illustrated in a casework where the participants had to form mixed groups with five people and discuss a case about a child that has been expelled by the principal from school due to not having bought her books to class. Children at the school were upset; the school council started to act and organized a demonstration in the school. The Principal and teachers disliked their action because they had no permission. This case was discussed by using the following words: rights versus responsibilities, child perspective and adult/teacher perspective (2013-09-24). In my field notes I reflected on this casework by writing:

"With the method of this casework the mentors facilitate for the participants to apply their old and new knowledge and integrate them to make them build a joint frame of references together as a group. The results [their presentations] show that they have been able to see the case and its challenges from the given different perspectives, which seems to give them a better understanding of the issue. Even though they were six different teams, most of them present the same result after the group discussions" (2013-09-24).

4.2.2.3 Repeating knowledge

In order to better understand the practice of child rights, it was combined with theory during phase two. As an example, a lecture ended with one of the mentors giving examples from one's own work and talking about experiences by discussing the issue of leadership and the frame of reference which was earlier presented in theory, the same frame of reference that the participants will use when they will implement their change project in their own home contexts. Another example illustrating the combination of practice and theory was when the mentor asked the participants *"Do you have any more examples for expanding your space of action? Have you experienced any examples of the use of personal power in your*

organization?” (2013-10-04). By repeating and assimilating/accumulating knowledge this way the participants can facilitate learning and a greater understanding due to previous knowledge that was discussed in the section above. The importance of different perspectives on the same issue is strengthened by the mentor saying: *“Try to understand other ways and see that the problems can be approached in various ways”* (2013-10-04). Another example on the method of repeating was one of the last workshops where the participants were told to think of models, understandings, methods/concepts /ideas that they have been working with.

“Using those, build a framework for CRC school, using all that you have done till now from, theory, method, school visits, experiences etc. and individually start to formulate your ideas on creating a framework for CRC-schools”.

After the individual phase the participants were encouraged to continue the work together in their country teams. When finished they had to present the results to each other and then illustrate their discussion by writing and drawing on paper (2013-10-08). This can be seen as an effort to package the new knowledge adapted and work through it by repeating it. From the results of their papers I could observe that most of the things presented and discussed take place within the pictures and words used during the training in Lund, the three pees, the child centered approach etc. In this way one could see that the knowledge transfer has been somehow successful in some matters. The method of repeating was also used in Zambia, by one of the teams when conducting their presentation, they had a workshop where they asked a questions for each letter in the alphabet where the answers would begin with the certain letters, for example they asked: *“What title did the Tanzanian team have on their project?”*, *“In the school [X] what position did [Y] have?”*, *“ This person is a principal at what school?”* and *“Who is the deputy director of education in country [Q]?”*. Questions about child’s rights were asked that were firstly answered during phase two in Lund, the majority of them were about the 3 pees: participation, protection and provision. Within the Zambian observation the importance of repetition for the target group of the teams’ project was also highlighter when one participant said:

“We have full support from our head teachers, they seem very positive to the project and come to all meetings and we have positive meetings. We do need to have repeated meetings, in order to enable learning”.

Repetition of knowledge can therefore be seen as a factor to whether the knowledge transfer process is successful or not.

4.2.2.4 Contextualizing knowledge from tacit to explicit

The participants were divided in different groups when visiting different schools in Lund. The first and second school visit is at the same school and the third one they all gather to visit a secondary school together. Regarding the school visits it can be noted that most of the questions the participants have regards how things are done here in Sweden. Examples of the questions asked are: How does the grade system look like? How do you teach? How do you as a principal monitor the teachers that they are doing their jobs? (2013-10.07). This illustrates that the participants try to contextualize what they have learned from explicit knowledge taught in the classroom in Lund at lectures and apply it in the Swedish context in order to be able to see and use the new knowledge transferred in different perspectives and eventually transform it into tacit knowledge. This is also something that the mentors have been questioned about in the mentors’ interview, where they answered that the aim of the school visits is to make the participants concretely see how CRC can be used in the classrooms and to understand what they have learned in theory in a practical way, which can

be interpreted as a process where the participants have the possibility to transform the received explicit knowledge into tacit knowledge.

4.2.2.5 Methods used to contextualize knowledge

All progress reports that are presented in the progress workshop in Zambia are built in the same way: they start with a presentation of used articles from the convention that are involved in projects and the explanation of the three pees: participation, protection and provision. Afterwards the context of the country is presented by facts about the country and the school system in order to make the other participants understand the context to facilitate the understanding of the context bound knowledge. The project is then presented and the schools that are chosen for the project are shown. Then more of the context is explained by showing pieces of documents where child's rights are represented, for example in national documents, acts, policies etc. in order to contextualize what is already done and how the chosen change project can contribute to give the children their rights. All presentations end with challenges for the future, most of them contextual, as for example: politics, educational system, women oppression, etc. These challenges are also presented to the networks in the home country in order to help each other, through discussion, to overcome them. The challenges seem to have been the same, according to the mentors, for the previous batches regarding the context and its politics, economy, culture etc. Some of the teams also choose to do a workshop with focus on their challenges in order to let the participants of the batch discuss how they would handle these challenges if they had to, in order to implement their projects in their home country. Within these workshops the challenges are discussed from different perspectives, in order to make it more understandable for all participants and in an effort to solve some of the problems. Role play is used as a method, as in Lund, and the participants of the different smaller groups get to play children, teachers, principals etc. and present their perception of the issue in these different perspectives.

Another example is one of the teams' activities that is a ten minutes group discussion which is presented in a sort of panel debate where the different groups have different positions and perspectives, one is the school management committee, another is teachers committee etc. Within the progress workshop presentations all teams show pictures or/and movies in order to give the listening participants a better picture of the context that they work in. The importance of the context in order to understand each other is shown within one of the feedback sessions given by the team's mentor, who asks: "*what did you learn from this?*" and one of the team members answered: "*We need to show the context to enable people [participants] to understand and learn. In the workshop we noticed that some did not understand what they were meant to do*".

The feedback session where the participants are free to give feedback, is mostly dominated by questions about the context in order to make the participants understand the context and further contextualize their knowledge, as an example many questions are asked to clarify and try to understand the context by asking questions like: "*Just to get the picture: How is it in the [X] context? How are the teachers motivated?*", "*What does that mean? How does that work in your country? How do you do this in your country?*", "*Same context in my country, how do you deal with these problems?*". This shows that the participants have a need to understand the context that the knowledge was once created in, in order to be able to understand it and apply it further in their own contexts. Another method that seems to be transferred from Lund is the group work that is presented by flip charts to sum up the discussion the group had about a given issue. This method was used by the majority of the teams at the workshop in Zambia, which shows that not only the explicit knowledge about child's rights was transferred, but also the used methods which were transferred further when the participants used them in their

own home context with their target groups, which is illustrated in pictures and videos that are shown during the teams' presentations in Zambia. Therefore it could be concluded that there has occurred a double transfer, first from the mentors to the participants and then from the participants to their target groups. There is also a transfer process amongst the participants while sharing their knowledge. This issue is further evaluated on under 4.6 "Summarizing figures illustrating the knowledge transfer process complexity".

4.2.3 Transferring knowledge

4.2.3.1 Senders willingness to share

The issue of the sender's willingness to share is discussed by theories of several researchers within the theoretical framework (Liyange et al., 2009; García-Almeida et al., 2011; Gupta & Govindarajan, 2004; Szulanski et al., 2004; Sheng et al., 2013). At the same time as the receiver should want to acquire the knowledge and have the absorptive capacity to do so, the sender should be happy to share the knowledge. This is shown within the observation in Lund when one of the mentors tells the participants that:

"When you come here, we all tell you that the projects [their final CRC change projects] are so important and you think that it's the best projects ever, but when you come home, people are resistant".

I did a personal reflection here that:

"The mentors seem to prepare them that there are people in their country who won't be as open as the mentors are and letting them understand that they can become sad etc. when they come home and nobody really cares about their project or are interested of listening to them".

Further the mentor asks:

"Which resistance do you think would be most common when you come home, prepare an action plan so you can overcome that resistance. You will need to sit down and discuss with them [the target group] and explain your project and try to understand each other. It's possible, but it takes some time" (2013-09-30).

Not only can the context affect if one person wants to share the knowledge or not, but also the receivers willingness to listen and adapt the knowledge will affect if the knowledge transfer process will be successful or not. The ethical consideration of wanting to share knowledge or not was discussed by one of the Ugandan respondents who said that: *"When you take a new teaching, you should come back and share"*, which shows that he/she felt that it was not voluntary to transfer knowledge further, but necessary. It was also stated in the interview that there are some facilitators and hindrances, which the other two participants emphasized with as well. Presented factors of the willingness to share were: if there is time to share the knowledge or not, the transport might also hinder the transfer if there is too big of a distance between the sender and receiver or if there are geographical difficulties in reaching each other. Also the culture of needing to provide facilitators such as lunch, something to drink etc. was also limiting when there is no money invested in the project and the receivers willingness to learn and engage in the change project affected if the participants shared their knowledge further when they came home or not. Personal motivation was a factor as well, the respondent highlighted that it is decided by a person's motivation of he/she will share their knowledge with other people when coming home. One of the participants highlighted the issue of transforming tacit knowledge to explicit knowledge in order to share it further, the change

agent expressed that: *"I know it practically, but can't explain it theoretically, its tacit knowledge and I am not able to transform it to explicit knowledge"*. When asked with whom the interviewed participants shared the knowledge, one said the network and another answered that he/she transferred their knowledge to the colleagues at work and the people they, as a team, came in contact with within their chosen change project. All three participants shared their knowledge with people independent of gender, that worked in different organizations, on different positions and who they had different relationship with. When asked why they chose these people to share their knowledge with, one of the participants answered that: *"We share the ideology about protecting child rights in Uganda"* another talked about wanting sustainability and replication of their change project, and a third answered that they had to because the people they shared their knowledge to were affected by the team conducting the change project. This is also seen in the answers to the following question where the first two respondents answered that they wanted to transfer the knowledge further, whilst the last responded felt that he/she had to share it, which shows that the willingness to share knowledge or not can differ even in the same team working with the same change project and it is therefore highly individual whether the change agents transfer their knowledge further or not.

The mentors' willingness to share their knowledge is also seen within the different methods used in Lund, when talking about child's rights. In order to enable the participants to understand and make it easier for them to remember CRC, some of the facts presented in Lund are situated as pictures. As an example are the three green pees to illustrate CRC:s three p's: participation, protection, provision. The presenting mentor states that he/she uses this method to facilitate the knowledge transfer for the participants, in order for them to receive the knowledge and remember it (2013-09-18). The respondents also answered why they thought that the teachers used these interactive methods and answered that: *"We were able to learn from each other. Get experiences from other countries, it was a quick method of learning", "Have free discussions" and "Maximizing the output"*. The methods were also the things that the participants felt that they can use in their daily work outside the project, as for example team teaching which the mentors used, interactive methods and the circle of sharing. Also within the mentors interview it is stated that different methods are used to facilitate learning and that the participants can adapt these methods by using them themselves in Lund and in that way trying them out which usually seems to result in them copying the methods and using them in their home context. By reusing these methods, one of the mentors believes that they, at the same time, change their attitude regarding using participatory methods.

Another positive factor that is highlight by one of the mentors is that the methods are also chosen because of the fact that different participants learn in different ways and therefore the different methods facilitate that the understanding of the participants and learning what is said. An example is given to explain the different ways of learning: *"Some of the participants aren't totally fluent in English, by illustrating facts they can have a chance to understand what is presented in a better way"*. The different methods are also seen as a way of controlling one's own learning and see what other perspectives that can be represented within the group, one mentor expresses that: *"Creativity is a part of building knowledge"*. The methods used in Lund seem to be remembered by the participants after coming home. When the interviewed change agents answered what they had learned in Sweden, only one of them firstly mentioned the theory of leadership, which can be perceived as explicit knowledge, the others highlighted the school visits and how the teachers and learners interacted with each other, the use of good methods and the teaching styles among teachers, which can be seen as tacit knowledge due to these things not being explained by words, but instead were picked up by the participants without communicating.

4.2.3.2 Participation

As it is pointed out by several researchers within the theoretical framework, another factor that affects the knowledge transfer process is the sense of ownership that can be enhanced by participation and involvement in decision making. Making the participants feel that they own the process will encourage them to make a greater effort to transfer their knowledge successfully. The participation can be illustrated by a workshop done in Lund about the degree of participation. By looking at Arnstein's (1969) model of: A Ladder of Citizen Participation, the participants had to give positive examples from the classrooms about to what degree are the children able to participate within the classroom. One of the participants expressed that: *"Participation makes people visible, brings a sense of belonging. Implementation becomes easier if people can participate in decisions and have a sense of ownership"* (2013-09-18). The importance of participation, not only for the participants, but for their target groups as well, was also highlighted by one of the mentors who stated that:

"You don't show your plans to the teachers, because it's much better if you can give them the impression that now we [you as participants together with your target group] need to do this together. We have these intentions, but we need to do it together. Maybe they come with great ideas on how you should do it, and then you can go back and change your plans. You need to know the reasons, need to make the participants [your target group] parts of it by making them feel that they own the project themselves" (2013-10-04).

This issue of ownership was further reflected on in a discussion during the observations made in Zambia when one of the mentors expressed that: *"In order to enable learning, the head teachers [principals] need: monitoring, support, discussing the challenges, evaluation and a sense of ownership and participation"*.

Another observation made in Zambia regarding the sense of ownership is the group discussions within the activities that the different teams initiated, which can also be seen as owning the process. The group discussions are the majority of time presented to the rest of the group with the help of flip charts, in that way it can also be perceived that the presenting group owns their own knowledge which is presented on the flip charts. They also seem to want to spread their knowledge by happily sharing it with their batch colleagues. Within one workshop it is, as an example expressed that: *"We are all composing this book"*, even though that project belongs to another previous batch which one of the presenting teams chose to build further on, the participants help each other with the batch and encourages each other to see it as they own the project together. Even though the different teams have expressed frustration about meeting each other because of time management, geographic challenges etc, they show within their presentations that they feel that they own the process together even though some parts of the project implementation are divided among the team members. One of the participants expressed this by saying: *"We meet up later and put the pieces together in the end"*. The sense of ownership can also be seen in the ITP as it influences the whole program. In Zambia it is stated, in the first day at the introduction of the two weeks long workshop, that: *"Our main purpose, as mentors is to support you. Here you are at the center, you own the presentations"*. The teams choose not only how to present their progress workshop, but also what activities to include, what subjects to discuss and how to share the results of the discussions.

The different teams choose themselves what project they want to work with and build it themselves. Afterwards they decide what they want to focus on and what methods they want to use when conducting their project. They get involved in other projects through the network and can feel that they have a responsibility to help each other, some projects are initiated from

the network and some of the projects are built on former projects, but the decision is still the teams own and the way of implementing it as well.

4.2.3.3 Understanding the value in one's own knowledge

Within the theory chapter it was presented that in order to be able to share ones knowledge it is also important to understand the value of one's own knowledge. A person who can't understand that one's knowledge is useful to other people will not share it further because of an internal fear of one's knowledge not being able to help solve a problem. Another hindrance to knowledge transfer is the fear of sharing knowledge, but not receiving anything back for it, this can be seen as a lack of trust between the sender and the receiver. The batch encourages each other to share the knowledge by giving each other positive feedback on the team's presentations during the feedback sessions and informal feedback on breaks. This can be seen as encouraging the participants to believe in the value of their own knowledge and understanding. As the batch participants seem to happily share their knowledge with each other through exchanging experiences within the group works and outside the classroom, it can also be perceived as they trust their own knowledge and believe that it should be shared further to their fellow colleagues.

4.2.3.4 Ability to transfer knowledge or not: resistance and knowledge as a personal asset

Another hindrance to transferring knowledge further, as presented in the theory chapter, is employees who are seeing the knowledge as a personal asset and who don't want to share it with someone else. This competitive behavior due to the person being afraid of losing advantages by sharing ones knowledge is hindering the knowledge transfer process. This can also be seen as resistance which is illustrated in the mentor's interview. On the question "*How do you think that the knowledge transfer works when the participants are implementing what they learned?*" the mentors response was that one of the biggest issues for participants to transfer their knowledge further, to their colleagues in their home contexts is that some colleagues are showing resistance towards the new knowledge and towards the changes within the change project. One of the mentors expressed that: "*We can teach them how to deal with the resistance through informal power and hope that the colleagues will give up their resistance and be willing to adapt new knowledge*". Another mentor fills in by stating that: "*We can teach them an approach, the way of involving the different people of a group and how to handle the challenges that may come when they return to their home context*". This shows that the participants have to contextualize the knowledge by themselves and want to share it further when they come home and at the same time package the knowledge in a sort of way that is not building resistance in the receivers.

The majority of the participants of the batch that was observed seemed happy to share their knowledge with each other. This can for example be illustrated within the Zambian observation where I could observe that the willingness to share the knowledge with the other participants was very high. The different teams presented the methods they had used during their implementation of their projects, for example workshops, lectures, trainings, project presentations and spreading the CRC forward. Also the way the presentations were built and the power points shows that the majority of the teams had put a lot of time on their presentations, which can also be interpreted as a willingness to share about the progress of their project with the other participants and not seeing knowledge as a personal asset, as presented in the theoretical framework.

4.3 Contextual factors affecting the knowledge transfer process on group level

Within the conducted interviews and the network meeting in Uganda, among the answers on what affects the knowledge transfer process on group level, several factors were brought up: the group dynamics through interpersonal relationships among the senders and receivers were factors as: trust, hierarchy, empathy and reputation of the employees. Other presented factors were whether the group is homogenous or heterogeneous, sense of identification through the sense of belonging to the group and communication, with focus on common frame of references and language.

4.3.1 Group dynamics

4.3.1.1 Group cooperation

The theoretical framework explains the importance of group dynamics for the knowledge transfer. Theories presented about cooperation among the organizations members and shared norms and values amongst colleagues show that this enchases knowledge transfer and motivate people to share their knowledge further. This can be seen in the mentors' interview, where it was stated that if the participants have good experiences from the beginning, in the second phase, it becomes easier for the group to make a change, the motivation is higher and the team can stick together in a better way and support each other. The group can also hinder the knowledge transfer, according to another mentor, when one of the participants can't find ones place within the group and therefore has a problem socializing with others and therefore doesn't feel motivated.

Another factor presented by a mentor, that can affect the group dynamics and whether the group can cooperate or not, is the issue of language, if the participants can understand each other or not. The observed teams' cooperation within the ITP also seem to be influenced by the fact that the ten different teams represent participants that are working on different levels of the educational system, independent of this structural power situation the participants' show, in Lund as well as in Zambia, that they divide the work and the progress workshop presentation equally amongst them. The majority planed from the beginning, while in Lund, that they were going to conduct the project together, due to time management and geographic challenges many teams recognized in Zambia that they did only the planning and follow up together and the implementation of the project was sometimes divided amongst them. This was also shown in the interviews conducted in Uganda where one respondent stated that:

“We divided it [the project]. Initially started as a team and planned together, but we did not move together. We had a hard time meeting together so we divided the [target] schools among us, the first visits we did together as a group, but later followed up with teachers separately”.

The geographical hindrance to share the knowledge further together as a team and the hierarchical order, was highlighted in the Ugandan interview by a responded, as two of the problems regarding knowledge transfer were:

“The ability of the team to transfer knowledge [together] would be different if all group members were coming from the same place, now I felt that all did not have the same opportunity to transfer the knowledge further, sometimes it would have been a greater impact if all would come from the same workplace”.

Another respondent said that the transfer process was affected negatively by the geographical factor: *“Physical closeness, to be able to gather together at a place was hard”.* An additional

issue that was highlighted in the interviews was that the participants felt more as a group in Lund when they constantly met and worked together, than in their home context due to geographical difficulties and time management.

4.3.1.2 The relationship between the sender and the receiver: trust and empathy

Another factor affecting the knowledge transfer process on group level is, as presented through theories above, the relationship between the sender and the receiver. One of the issues within this relationship is the sense of trust among the two, but also the level of care and willingness to help each other in theory, called empathy (Rivera-Vazquez et al., 2009; Davenport & Prusak, 1998). Within the observation in Zambia it became clear that the batch seemed to trust the person who was speaking. In the feedback sessions that were held after every presentation, some participants asked questions about the context of the presenting teams home country and accepted the answers without questioning them, they seem to have a trust for the people answering, that what was said was true. This is mostly observed by them nodding and agreeing with the facts that are presented as answers to the asked questions. The positive attitude towards each other was also shown within the interviews conducted in Uganda where the respondents were asked how they felt towards working with their team mates before they even met them and all of them were positive, with one of them motivating it as: *"It was easy since we all have the same profession"*.

The trust and the empathy factors were not only applicable in the relationship between the country team and the participants of the batch, but also in the relationship with the mentors. It was observed in Lund that one of the mentors showed, during ones presentation, a picture of one's sons and talked about oneself in front of the group on a personal level and what personal challenges the mentor had met in life. I reflected on this activity in my field notes by writing that: *"Is this a way to show that the mentor is at the same level as the participants? Maybe trying to establish trust with the participants?"* (2013-09-19). Within the mentors interview the issue of trust was also discussed, the mentors evening, where the mentor meets its specific team in an informal setting to eat together, is seen as a very important activity for the building of trust between the mentor and the participants. The mentor continues by stating, in the mentors' interview, that this trust is essential for the collaboration. This trust, amongst mentor and participant, but also between the participants themselves, is seen within the observations in Lund and in Zambia. The participants of the batch seem to trust and support each other. They also have a support system around them as they get support from the rest of the batch when there are questions and uncertainties, but also the network of former participants that some of them have in their home countries when returning home. Another observation was that some of the participants also started to trust me, which was observed when they came to talk to me about their personal issues in their personal life or about the project work. This happened both in Lund and Zambia, with different participants of the batch.

4.3.1.3 Group members' reputation

The group dynamics is also affected by the members of the group. The potential for the success of the knowledge transfer process can, according to presented theories, be found in close relationship between the sender and receiver and good reputation among the employees. Employees with good reputations are more likely to engage in knowledge transfer with people that have the same reputation as them than with those who have bad reputations. When interviewing the Ugandan participants if they knew who their fellow colleagues were before going to Sweden, all three answered that they did not, but that they felt excited towards meeting each other.

4.3.1.4 Heterogeneous and heterogeneous group

Another important factor presented in the theoretical framework is if the group is homogenous or heterogeneous. A cultural homogenous group will facilitate knowledge transfer, while a heterogeneous group will require more time and effort to transfer knowledge. In a context where the group members have a similar way of perceiving the world and create their norms and values together, are shown to have a direct outcome on how the employees will deal with knowledge transfer (Riviera-Vazquez, 2009; Ford & Chan, 2002; Lucas & Dt, 2006). The batch and the different teams within can be seen both as a homogenous and a heterogeneous group. Homogenous in the sense that all participants are representing some part of the educational system and heterogeneous because the participants work on different levels of the educational system and different institutions. During the interviews with the mentors, they were questioned about what factors in the Swedish context that can facilitate the knowledge transfer, one of the mentors answered that a factor could be diversity. It was mentioned that because of the participants coming from different countries and from different levels of the educational system, the hierarchies were changed during the four weeks in Sweden. This due to the participants starting to learn from each other and open up for discussion, the hierarchical order that they have in their home contexts is changed and it is harder to understand who is higher or lower within that hierarchy, they all cooperate with each other and help each other out.

Diversity seen from a greater perspective made one of the mentors start discussing the creation of relationships over borders which help to improve the communication both inside and outside the different countries, indifferent of the hierarchies. The hierarchies seem to play an important role in the home context, according to one of the mentors: the higher up one participant is, the easier it becomes to involve others in the project, and that is also the reason to why the group is mixed and preferably contains participants from all the tree levels of education: national, regional and local. It was also mentioned that when they come home, the participants join the network and continues with their project, this independent of hierarchical order. This was observed in the network meeting in Uganda, where participants spoke freely despite their different positions and despite someone being the boss of someone else, outside the ITP.

Within the Zambian observation some of the participants spoke about the importance of the network in their home countries. A good network for support was preferred. Within this interaction the new participants and the former participants seemed to create a feeling of commitment as they would think highly of each other and also because of the network having the power to recommend people to apply for the program and encourage them to become a part of the next batch. Within the progress workshop presentations some of the teams also seemed to be very comfortable with each other, which was also highlighted in a mentors feedback session that I attended. This could be observed also outside the formal sessions where the presentations would take place, for example when the participants interacted with each other during breaks and on their free time, they didn't seem to mind if they were talking to someone on a low or high hierarchical level and all participants seemed to be able to cooperate with each other within the group activities. Nobody ever moved from a group to

another and I did not observe any conflicts between the participants either during the presentations or on their free time.

4.3.1.3 Group identification

Within the group constellation there were also presented theories about a group member's identification with other group members as a factor that affects the knowledge transfer. The identification enhances the concern for collective processes and outcomes, which increases the process of knowledge sharing. When group members have contradictory identifications with the organization, the knowledge creation, learning and information sharing becomes a barrier to knowledge transfer. Many of the former participants actively choose to help the new participants through the network even though it is not compulsory as a part of the project due to after the two years period to the project is supposed to be finished and there are no further requirements on the participants. Within the network the participants built further on their ideas and introduce new projects at the same time as helping each other to manage the ongoing projects. At the network meeting in Uganda that I attended, it became clear that they wanted to continue their commitment as participants, since they were representing former batches that went through the program several years ago. At the meeting they were planning to meet up with the network in Tanzania to enable knowledge sharing, it was said by several participants of the network that Uganda's participants were good at implementing things on the local level, in schools etc., but Tanzanian participants had more experience implementing child's rights on a higher level within their acts, policies etc. By meeting up and having discussions at the same time as seeing each other's project processes, they could learn from each other. Within the Zambian observation it was stated several times that: "*We are [all] change agents*" which shows that they identify themselves and each other with the ITP and the way the program identifies them as change agents. One of the mentors highlighted, while in Lund, the importance of identifying with the group as well:

"All three of you must have the same compassion for the idea that you have now created. When you confront the groups, you are together and need to work together. You need to be one country with one idea. You can't sit in front of the principal and say the two of them had this idea, but I thought differently" (2013-10-04).

4.3.1.4 Understanding each other within the group

Another factor that affects the knowledge transfer is if the sender and receiver understand each other, if they have similar frames of reference and common vocabularies as this affects how the knowledge is understood and interpreted. The frame of reference seemed to be very important for the participants to share within the Zambian workshop. As an example one of the teams talked about: Uneasiness on the children's right to participation, adults failing to appreciate the child's potential, cultural beliefs that hinders child's rights, children being dictated upon, children perceived as rude when pressing for space, adults thinking that the children are being spoiled. Similar attitudes are seen when the Zambian network held their presentation and two students from a Zambian school council present their challenges:

"The teachers feel that CRC has made the pupils too powerful, and made them undisciplined".



Picture 6. This picture was taken during the one month long stay in Kampala, It illustrates a news article regarding the issue of contextual resistance towards letting the children use their rights. (2014-02-29)

This approach is also highlighted during one of the observations in Uganda: "If we give children the freedom to do what they want it is a waste of time", "They become undisciplined, we are spoiling them and making them get a negative and destructive behavior". From the interview with the mentors it was expressed that there was a hope that the participants would change their behaviors and attitudes due to the program lasting for a long period of time, two years. And that the participants should become conscious and understand that there are things outside their frame of references and by these gain new perspectives. One of the mentors stated that the participants should:

"Start with the adults [when presenting their project plan in their home context], start with the human rights and then go into CRC. Talk about the human rights and see what rights are fulfilled and afterwards also talk about the children's rights" (2013-10-04).

By doing this it enables the target group to first get interested in the issue, but also lets them talk about things that they have previous knowledge about and that are affecting them: the human rights. In this way, communication can facilitate knowledge transfer.

4.4. Contextual factors affecting the knowledge transfer process on organizational level

When the interviewed respondents in Uganda answered what factors could affect the knowledge transfer process on an organizational level, they said that: the organization needed to show appreciation towards the ITP and understand how it can benefit the institution, the bosses to be committed to help the individuals by encouraging them to apply and commit to the ITP, openness from the organization and trusting the knowledge one has acquired. Also the network, empowerment of the participants and providing necessary material were highlighted as important. Within the Ugandan network, the participants talked about factors such as: facilitation of needed materials, organizational structure and physical

outlay of facility, organizational culture and communication. These factors can be summed up as related to the organizational environment, organizational culture and communication.

4.4.1 Organizational environment

4.4.1.1 Enable participation

Within the organizational environment one of the factors affecting the knowledge transfer, presented in the theory chapter, is the participants need to participate in the knowledge transfer process for the knowledge transfer to occur. In Zambia it was observed that the participants were highly participating. The majority seemed to have read the report and listened actively to the presentations, which was reflected in the questions they asked the presenting team during the feedback sessions. In the beginning, the first days of presentations all the participants seem to participate because everyone had at least one question during the feedback sessions. As the time went by, a few participants weren't as interested anymore and some of them didn't have any comments or questions, the majority were still participating. During the observation in Zambia it also became obvious that the teams had spent a lot of time on their presentations. They had also rehearsed the presentations together which became clear as they, within their team, would complete each other's sentences and fill in if someone missed to say something while presenting their part. Also one of the mentors highlighted the participation within the presenting team by stating that: "[You have] *very good participation within the group, good exercises, good presentation*". The importance of knowledge transfer towards the target groups was shown by one of the participants who stated that: "*[We] need to use a variety of methods to capture all [people within our target group]*". Another group was also advised by one of the mentors to define the different words they are using within the team, in order to have a clear definition before spreading it forward. As an example child friendly environment was brought up and several definitions were given. The same impression, of participants' commitment, was given in Lund where participants put a great amount of time to finish the different workshops and on their project presentations.

4.4.1.2 Incentives

As presented in the theoretical framework by Lucas and Dt (2006), Ancona (1990), Szulanskis (1996) and Riviera-Vazquez et al. (2009), incentives can act as signals for the employees to engage in knowledge transfer. Researchers have showed that when there are no incentives it's more difficult to affect successful knowledge transfer. The incentives can be either outcome based or behavior based. The behavior based incentives are designed for motivating information sharing with colleagues. It has also been shown that employees will be more willingly to participate in the knowledge transfer process if they know that they will be rewarded for it. At the same time incentives have been shown by other researchers to not have an effect on knowledge transfer and that the knowledge transfer process can be inhibited by status and rewards given to knowledge owners. The lack of commitment from knowledge owners will also inhibit knowledge transfer. It has also been shown that employees, who get greater organizational rewards from sharing, will spend more hours sharing knowledge to others and they strive for self-improvement. The inner motivation was seen through the feedback sessions in the Zambian progress workshop, when positive feedback was given, the participants who received it got very happy. The positive feedback was not only given in a formal way during the feedback sessions, but also informally as participants would give the

teams feedback during breaks and on their free time. As an example one of the participants stated during lunch break that: *"You have opened my mind"*. This show both that the participants offer each other good support and the participants really have listened and learned something from the presentations and progress reports. When the mentors gave feedback to the presenting teams, they would start up by admiring the projects and giving the team positive feedback for their papers and their presentations, as an example one of the mentors admired the project by saying: *"First of all I want to admire your presentation; it was a very interesting presentation"*. Within one of the mentors feedback sessions the mentor also tried to motivate the team to spread the idea forward, not necessarily to other schools, but higher up in the hierarchy, in order to make it easier for the team to implement the project even further.

Another incentive used by some of the presenting teams was a small present or candy as the presenting team would ask questions and the person who answered correctly would be motivated by receiving this present. Within the interview of the Ugandan change agents one of the participants said that one of the motivations to attend the ITP was to get a better job in the future. When the respondents were asked if their work situation had changed after completing the ITP, all three answered yes, either they got other positions or their responsibility had increased. Two of three participants also stated that they expected this change and they thought that the change was due to participating in the program, which can also be seen as an incentive to make people want to apply and participate in the program.

4.4.1.3 Support

When transferring knowledge it is also shown in theory that it's important for the sender and receiver to feel supported. The organization has to provide a positive sharing environment where employees can learn from each other. While in Lund, one of the mentors expressed that there was support in the countries home context as well, by stating that: *"You have the network, they have already been involved in this process and know what turns you should make to facilitate and what to work extra on"* (2013-10-04). In most of the participating countries, there is a network of new and former change agents that functions as a support group for the new batches and their implementation of the program. According to the mentors, this works excellent in some countries and not too great in others. One of the bigger issues seem to be the infrastructure as the change agents do not always come from the same corners of the countries, this hinders them to get together often, or sometimes even at all. All the former change agents who participate in the network have implemented their own project and have been to Sweden as well to learn about child's rights, which makes it easier for them to help the new participants with whatever question they might have. Support was also given to the participants from the mentors. When one of the mentors held a presentation he/she tried to empower the participants by stating that:

"I see that you are really committed to CRC. You have the capacity to put yourself in a child's shoes. This is the best workshop so far of all batches, [because] the way you executed it and illustrated your discussions, at the same time as showing an interest with your questions to the presenting group" (2013-09-17).

The next day another mentor empowered the participants by talking about the current batch as being very special from the other batches and stated that they have achieved more

interpretations than the other former batches within the workshop that aimed to define a word (2013-09-18).

The participants also give each other support within the batch. It is illustrated when they give each other constructive feedback in the progress workshops in Zambia, the participants seem to offer support the same time as they try to criticize. The things that need to be worked on are presented carefully and in a nice way, as suggestions rather than comments, often through questions to enable the understanding and the realization about the problem to come from the presenting team themselves rather than giving it as critique. At the same time the participants dare to give constructive feedback, as an example one of the participants stated that: *"I feel that I did not understand the focus of your project, what is the focus?"*. The presenting team members seem to be happy to receive this critique. One of the presenting participants expressed after getting some critique: *"Thank you very much, I am going to take that in account for the final report"*.

The support is not only given by the participants and mentors, but the teams highlight that they have gained support from the stakeholders that are involved within their project in the home context. One of the teams presented that they get great support from stakeholders at national level by stating that:

"The director of basic education encouraged us to access funds for implementation. They also monitor our projects and use them as role model [best practice]. Also stakeholders at division level, the division manager, gave us advice to make sure that the project would be sustainable and encouraged us to spread it to other schools within the district. They also showed us support and encouraged us. Stakeholder at districts level, the district commissioner welcomed the project; they were committed to support the project. [They also] helped us to source funds from other organizations".

4.4.1.4 A favorable environmental climate

Within the organizational environment it was also presented that the environmental climate has to be favorable in order for the knowledge transfer to occur. The positive climate is characterized in theory by collaboration, sharing experiences, personal interaction, an ability to create social ties and to allow the employees to make mistakes. Also favorable for knowledge sharing is an environment where the employees feel secure to share their knowledge and having an informal environment to share information on. The physical layout of the workplace is therefore also important for the knowledge transfer by being built in a way where interaction is enabled. Within this essay the organization is represented by the mentors of the program and the environment they built, where it could be observed that the organizational environment seemed to be positive during the observation in Lund. This can, for example be illustrated for in one of the workshops which aim to make the participants act out in a play, they give each other feedback and play out their roles independent of gender, age or hierarchical work position (2013-09-18). Another example is a workshop where the participants were supposed to read an article and comment on what they would like to add, correct or delete (2013-09-19) which also shows a positive environment that encourages openness. A third example of this is a mentor's statement that: I think it's important that we now have full attention to the one speaking. If you are not done with your project, it's ok

(2013-09-19), which reflects on the respect towards each other. A forth example of a positive environment, is another workshop held in Lund which aim was to make the participants try out making a fake project, in a group of five people, mixed from different countries the participants needed to discuss and agree on a project. The mentor clarified that: *"There is no right or wrong here; the most important is to stick to the discussions and participate"* (2013-09-17). This also illustrates an environment that is positive and doesn't consider mistakes as a problem, but rather a good way of exploring new knowledge.

Also the mentors are open and friendly, as an example they try to empower the participants by making them ask questions and giving them feedback that they asked good questions at the same time as taking time to explain so the answers become clear to everybody. This is observed during the session about the Swedish school system and how it works, where participants ask a lot of questions which are met with gratitude from the mentor when saying: *"Thank you, that is a good question!"* and *"An excellent question"* (2013-09-19).

Another encouraging phrase that showed on the open climate was presented by a mentor: *"Now we need an ice barker: make a movement, it's important to have breakers, you are always welcome to initiate ice breakers when you are too bored out"* (2013-09-24). The open culture is also illustrated by a workshop where the participants watch Malala Yousafzai speech in UN and later has to make individual notes about what they associate to the concept of reliance. They are given some minutes to discuss what they saw in the movie are afterwards encouraged to write on the board what they see in the movie that has to do with resilience. After the mentor explains the outline of the workshop, one of the participants interrupts and asks: *"Can we fist talk about our feelings that we got when we saw the movie?"* And the mentor responds: *"Of course, please do"* (2013-10-08).

Yet another way to illustrate the open climate is when one of the mentors states that *"I will be the one asking the stupid questions now"* (2013-09-19). This illustrates that the participants and the mentors are on the same level and that it is ok to ask stupid questions, that the culture even encourages it. Yet another example is another mentor who tells a personal story about the time when he/she was a student, a story which the participants seem to associate a lot with themselves by nodding, laughing and encouraging the mentor to go on and evaluate further on the issue (2013-10-04). The environment seems to be decided already on the first days, one of the mentors says in the mentors' interview that: *"The first days are important to set the norms and show how we are collaborating with each other. It is important that they learn from each other, we as mentors provide the methods, but it is them who fill in with their experiences. Therefore it is important to create a positive and open environment"*.

The positive environment is also seen in Zambia where the participants and mentors seem to be open to each other's projects; they listen and are active when presenting questions in the feedback sessions. The chair person of the feedback session, that is democratically chosen, tries to raise more questions and comments at the same time as he/she encourages people to say something to the presenting team. Within the activities which are in the form of group discussions, the participants try to help each other through the activities to solve the challenges that the different teams are facing when implementing their project. This shows that they are not only happy to help each other, but the environment is encouraging

knowledge transfer. The participants seem to be open minded as well, which is illustrated in one of the feedback sessions when one of the participants asks a question and the presenting team wants to answer it, then the chair says: *"No, no, we fist ask the questions and later answer them"* because the other questions were taken care of in the same way, it became custom. When nobody else asked any other questions, one of the other participates suggests that the presenting team member could instead answer after every question, which led the chair to happily announce that they should do like that instead.

4.4.2 Organizational culture

The organizational culture is also important for the knowledge transfer. As stated within the theoretical framework, there is a need for the culture to have strong values and norms that enchase the sharing of information. When this can't be done, knowledge transfer might not occur, as for example in a culture where result is promoted instead of sharing and intolerance towards mistakes or the need of help. According to the mentors the values within the culture and attitude towards knowledge can hinder the knowledge transfer process. It is highlighted by one of the mentors that the result of the knowledge transfer process is dependent on how the knowledge is transferred. If for example the participants come home from Lund and say that: *"In Sweden we did it like this"* the response could easily be *"Well that's not how we do it here"*. The culture of the batch is shown from the first day when one of the teams arrives in the afternoon due to have missed their connecting flight. When they enter the room, everybody is welcoming them, smiling and getting up from their seats to greet them. I reflected on this matter, within my field notes I wrote: *"A very warm welcome and an instant inclusion within the group"* (2013-09-16), which illustrates the positive culture that welcomes new members and has a friendly environment. Another example was shown the very next day when the different teams present themselves in front of the class for the newly arrived team. A couple of them great by saying: *"Hello friends"* (2013-09-17) even though the participants don't know each other since before.

The loyalty and trust of the group is shown a couple of days after the program has stated in Lund and was initiated by the mentors. One of the mentors is presenting the power point slide and ends by asking the other mentor if he/she has anything to add, when he/she starts weeping with the back against the audience. The group members start to get uncomfortable and some of them are getting up from the chairs to go see what has happened. A role play breaks out between the mentors with a plot about a girl not being able to go to school because of her father; the play is used as a method to introduce the next workshop (2013-09-18). The positive encouraging culture is also shown several times, one of them being when one of the participants forgets what she intended to say and expressed: *"I'm sorry I forgot"*. The other participants responded to this by smiling and emphatically encouraging her to go on, they don't seem to have a problem with her losing the trail and I observed people listening even more actively after she did this, to support her even more in a way. I reflected in my field notes that: *"It's very interesting how people tend to become so loyal to one another so fast when in a group"*. When the participant that has spoken takes a seat, several of the participants around her encourage her and say that she made a good presentation and padding her on the shoulder (2013-09-16).

4.4.3 Communication

The importance of communication is also emphasized, by above presented theories, as a factor for the knowledge transfer to occur. For it to facilitate knowledge transfer it needs to be good through all levels of employees, as well between the manager and employee as in-between managers and in-between employees. Cultural differences between the sender and receiver can work as an inhibitor to good communication and instead lead to conflicts. One of the mentors highlights the importance of communication. He/she emphasizes that: *"You need to communicate in different ways with different people that you have to involve [in you projects, your target group], you need to communicate in a way so they understand [your project]"* (2013-10-04). The progress workshop in Zambia was built by the presentations of the participants and it could be observed that different communication methods were used. During the presentation, a more traditional way was used where the presenting team would talk with the help of a PowerPoint and the participants would listen. The activities that were included in the presentations were in the form of group discussions, the participants were divided into different groups and an assignment was given, by discussions they had to solve the challenges from different given perspectives. The feedback sessions were built on questions from the participants and answers from the presenting team, also in the form of group discussion. In the mentors feedback session, the two mentors that I observed would start the discussion by firstly asking how the presenting team perceived that the presentation went, how the project is evolving and their report, after this the mentor would give ones feedback and one's own perception.

4.5 Analysis conclusion

The aim with this essay was firstly to answer how the knowledge transfer process is expressed by the participants within the ITP, this is done by giving a constructed definition of their answers. The second research question was to understand what contextual factors that affect the knowledge transfer process within the ITP on an individual- group- and organizational level, these factors are summarized in the analysis conclusion.

4.5.1 The participants' definition of knowledge and knowledge transfer

The first research question within this essay focused on the participants' way of defining knowledge and knowledge transfer. The respondents define knowledge as:

"A process where the knowledge is acquired through learning in order to be stored within our human brain and through interaction spread forward".

And knowledge transfer as:

"The interaction between a sender and receiver, where the sender passes on/shares the knowledge to the receiver who adapts, contextualizes and uses the knowledge in a given situation".

4.5.2 Contextual factors affecting the knowledge transfer process on individual level

On individual level contextual factors that have been identified within the ITP are adapting knowledge, contextualizing knowledge and transferring knowledge.

Within the knowledge adaption factors as the importance of previous knowledge to build new knowledge on and the receiver's attitude towards receiving knowledge were identified. The participant's degree of previous knowledge is decided by their own motivation to learn about child's rights, the network of change agents that prepare them for the Swedish phase and the first phase of the ITP where the participants have to build their presentations regarding CRC in their country.

Regarding the contextualization of knowledge, five factors were emphasized: the importance of building a common frame of reference amongst the participants, adapting different perspectives in order to enable the transfer process, repeating knowledge and making it fit the context by for example making tacit knowledge explicit or vice versa and the methods used to contextualize knowledge. By group discussions and through workshops where the participants define expressions that are relevant to child rights, the participants build a common frame of reference by combining previous and new knowledge and widen their knowledge through adapting different perspectives. By repeating the knowledge the participants can fit the new knowledge into the previous one and contextualize it in order to understand it and make it easier to translate the tacit knowledge into explicit and vice versa. The methods that are used to contextualize knowledge within the ITP are group discussions and interactions among the participants, this in order to help each other to package the new knowledge in a way so that they can further transfer it by explaining each other's contexts and by doing so get a greater understanding.

Within the knowledge transfer factors that are important for the participants of the ITP on individual level are: the willingness to share, participation, understanding the value of one's own knowledge and the ability to share knowledge or not. The willingness to share is according to the participants' dependent of the resistance from the receivers (their target groups), personal motivation, time management, geographical factors affecting if the teams can meet in a physical place, facilitators at meetings in order to make the target group wanting to join, the receiver's engagement in the issue and their willingness to learn. For the participants to want to participate in the knowledge transfer process and for their target group to want to participate when they transfer their knowledge further to them, the participants feel that the sense of owning the project is important to motivate someone to participate. This is seen both towards the participants of the ITP by letting them chose their own change project and the participants who choose to involve their target group in their projects.

Another highlighter factor was the importance of understanding the value of one's own knowledge, in order to transfer it further, the sender needs to feel that one has something to share, which is seen through the support the participants offer each other when they exchange experiences and through the workshops where the participants happily share their knowledge with the whole batch. If the sender is able to share knowledge or not depends, according to the participants, on the resistance of the receiver and if the sender sees the knowledge as a personal asset or not.

4.5.3 Contextual factors affecting the knowledge transfer process on group level

The contextual factor of group dynamics is affected by other factors that according to the participants are: group cooperation, the relationship between the sender and receiver, group

members' reputation, if the group is homogenous or heterogeneous, group identification and if the members understand each other within the group. Whether the group can cooperate or not depends according to the participants on factors as: having good experiences with the group, understanding each other, time management and if the group can physically meet due to geographical difficulties. The relationship between the sender and receiver which can be a factor affecting if the knowledge transfer process occurs or not, is affected by factors as trust among the participants and empathy towards each other. The group members reputation is deciding if the sender and receiver has a good attitude towards each other or not, which affects if they want to share and adapt knowledge or not. The ITP can be seen as homogeneous and heterogeneous at the same time, homogenous in the sense that all participants are a part of the education system and heterogeneous because they all work in different institutions and on different positions. The members group dynamics is also decided by the factor of group identification, whether the member identifies oneself with the group or not. Within the ITP it is clear that the group identification is high, the participants call each other friends and "change agents" which was observed both in the network meeting and when observing the batch. Another highlighted factor was the issue of understanding each other within the group depending on factors as language and contextual differences.

4.5.4 Contextual factors affecting the knowledge transfer process on organizational level

Within the organizational level there were three main areas that were highlighted as factors affecting the knowledge transfer process: organizational environment, organizational culture and communication. The organizational environment should, according to the participants: enable participation, give incentives, offer support and establishing a favorable environmental climate. In order to enable participation, the participants need to feel that there is an open environment, which was observed during the observations in Lund and Zambia when the teams gave each other constant feedback. The incentives are within the ITP both inner motivation, where the participants are happy to share their knowledge and outcome based where the organization offers a better job or other responsibilities after conducting the ITP. Support is shown within the ITP to be given from the mentors, the participants, the network and the target group. Factors affecting the favorable environment were the physical outline which was exemplified as if there are places to meet at and if the participants can reach each other, if the environmental climate is open where people can collaborate, share experiences and allow mistakes to happen in order to engage the participants in knowledge sharing. By the workshops and due to the participants staying in the same hotel in phase two and phase four, one could conclude that there is a lot of physical space to share ones experiences and knowledge on. Within the organizational culture the participants felt that it was important to have a positive attitude towards each other and towards sharing knowledge which was seen as they would call each other "friends" at the same time as they were loyal towards each other and encouraged each other when someone made a mistake. The communication factor was exemplified by the many discussions that the participants had within the workshops and the mentors' use of different methods to enable learning for all.

4.6 Summarizing figures illustrating the knowledge transfer process complexity

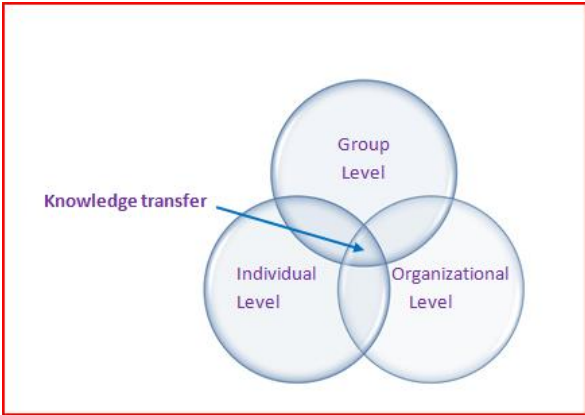


Figure 8. Explaining the complexity within the knowledge transfer process. It is important to highlight the fact presented under the research aim within the introduction. The different factors on the different levels coexist and are dependent off each other. As an example the individual level affects how an individual acts within a group, but also how this individual perceive that the organization enchases knowledge transfer. A person who does not have any interest of sharing their knowledge will not either feel like a part of the group and will most probably experience that he/she cant share their knowledge because the organization does not facilitate it, even if other organizational members feel that the organizational environment is enabling participation. This model also illustrates the complexity of the knowledge transfer process as it requires factors on all different levels in order to happen.

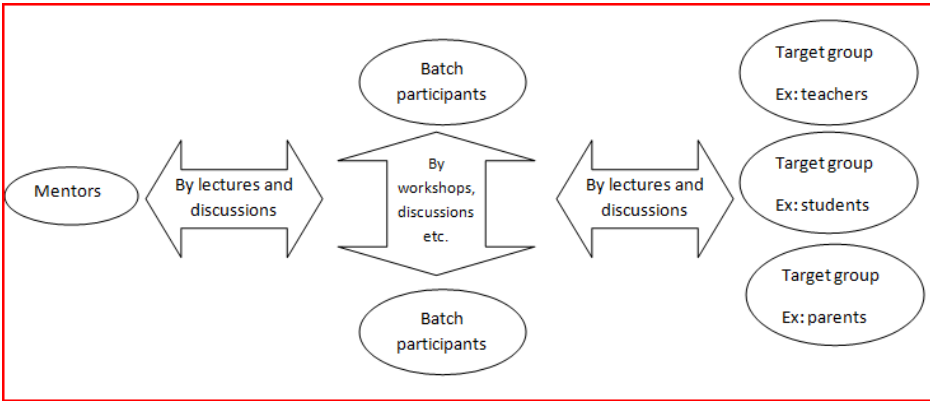


Figure 9. Illustrating the participants dual role within the knowledge transfer process. Within the different phases of the program the participants are both senders and receivers of knowledge. As an example, it can be illustrated when the mentors’ first lectures about a child rights convention (where the mentor functions as the sender and the participants function as receivers) and then introduces a workshop where the participants have to work in a group and exchange knowledge and experiences (where the participants work as senders when presenting their knowledge and experiences to each other and receivers when adapting what the team members share). The group work is then presented for the whole group (where the presenting participants function as senders and the listening participants and mentors function

as receivers). The participants later transfer their knowledge further to their target groups within their country teams change project (where the participants function as senders while lecturing and the target group functions as receivers. If the target group gets a workshop to solve in group, they also function as senders and receivers and when the workshop is presented the batch participants function as receivers.

5. Discussion

The discussion will begin with reflections of the ITP in relation to the presented results and analysis. The focus will be a reflection on how these contextual factors on individual-, group- and organizational level can be developed further with by the mentors within the program. Afterwards a theoretical discussion will follow about if one perceives knowledge as an object or as a process and how this perception of knowledge affects ones understanding of the knowledge transfer process and knowledge sharing. The last part of the discussion will recommend further research subjects within this field.

5.1 Discussion of the ITP in relation to the results

5.1.1 Contextual factors affecting the knowledge transfer process on individual level

After completing the analysis, I would like to bring two things up for discussion, one of them being the recruitment process where the mentors choose who the next batch participants will be and the second one being how the mentors, can enable the transfer to happened within the program in order to motivate the participants individual factors as presented in the analysis.

Within the recruitment process, a suggestion for further development could be that the mentors try to identify what individual factors the participants have for applying for the ITP . Contextual factors that have been shown within this essay to have an impact on the knowledge transfer process on individual level are: previous knowledge, receiver's attitude towards receiving knowledge and one's own motivation within the field of adapting knowledge. As an example, the mentors could let the participants sum up what they know about child's rights in order to see that the participants have previous knowledge in order to make the transfer process more successful. Another section in the application could be regarding the motives to why a participant wants to be a part of the program, the mentors could then try to figure out if the applicant ready to learn more about child's rights. Phase one within the program should also be further developed to involve more information about the participants' knowledge of child's rights, Also the focus of the context is recommended to encounter on the issue of child's rights and the school system rather than tourist information about the country as the courtier's geographical outline or the meaning of the country flag. This in order to make the team members learn more about child rights before coming to Sweden and let them explain to the other batch members in order to help them with the contextualization of the presented knowledge.

Regarding contextualization, this essay has shown four major areas to take into consideration. The first one being the issue of building a common frame of reference, this is an important factor of the program as the ITP is built on working methods where, most of the time, participants are encouraged to share their knowledge to one another and help each other understand each other's contexts. The second area being helping each other to look at things from different perspectives in order to understand the issues on a deeper level and see that there are faceted ways to perceive the same things; this is also highly enabled through the workshops within the second phase in Lund. Outside Lund, the network functions as a discussion forum to let new participants and former participants reflect together on different aspects of the same issue, this in order to make each other understand the knowledge on a

deeper level. The third area is repetition of knowledge to make it remain with the participants. This can be done on a wider level within the program than it is done today, as an example the participants can have a workshop at the end of the day or at the end of the week to repeat what they have learned and how they can apply it in their own context. Another thing could be encouraging them to transfer their knowledge further, to their target groups, which the Zambian observation showed that some of the teams already did. The forth is the issue of adjusting the knowledge to fit the context, in order to make it understandable for oneself and others at the same time as making it easier for oneself to actually use it. A summarizing suggestion for further development of the ITP regarding contextualization could be to end the days by reflecting on what one has learned (repetition) and later discussing how one can use this at home with ones team members from the same country (to enable a common frame of reference, exchanging perspectives and adjusting the knowledge to fit one's own context).

Another issue within the contextual individual factors is the issue of transferring the knowledge further which depends on the individual's willingness and ability to share one's knowledge. This factors are dependent of other factors as receivers resistance to adapt, personal motivation to why one chooses to share, if there is time or not and the physical issues as where to meet to share the knowledge. The issue of resistance is highlighted several times in Lund and the participants have a workshop where they discuss what resistance may come up when in their home context and how to overcome it. Even so, the participants at the Zambian workshop explain that they had to deal with resistance from people they needed to share their knowledge to and several teams focused their workshops on discussing the issue of how to overcome this resistance. Regarding time and place, it might be hard for Sida to do something about the problem since the participants come from so many workplaces and have different bosses. This is an issue that the mentors can encourage the participants to talk to their bosses about when applying for the program. Within the recruitment process, the mentors could also try, as far as it is possible, to choose the three batch participants from the same country, who live in the same city.

5.1.2 Contextual factors affecting the knowledge transfer process on group level

Several contextual factors on group level have been identified to have an impact on the knowledge transfer process including: group cooperation, the relationship between the sender and the receiver, the group member's reputation, if the group is homogenous or heterogeneous and the way the group members understand each other. The group cooperation has been shown to depend on if the group can create good experiences together and if the group members can identify with the group. These factors within the ITP can be seen as rather strong, the groups cooperate not only in their country teams, but also with the rest of the participants through workshops and discussions where they get to integrate and exchange knowledge and experiences. Regarding the good experiences and group identification there are several social activities, as the cultural evening, the mentors evening, the trip to Copenhagen and Stockholm etc. that are intended to make the participants have a good time together as they discover new places and take part of the Swedish culture. The participants also live at the same place when in Lund and Zambia, eat together and spend their time together outside the classroom, this was observed in Zambia where I joined them and they

made me identify with the group as well and invited me into every discussion they would have.

This close relationship to each other (between the sender and the receiver) makes the issue of trust and support to be a natural part of the experiences. The support is also highly spread, not only amongst the participants but also between the participants and mentors and the participants and their network in their home countries. Regarding the groups reputation, it is also shown through the interviews that they seem to perceive each other to be at the same level and they are looking forward to work with each other even if they don't know each other before applying to the program. It was also observed in Lund and Zambia as everybody would talk to each other and work with each other, without ever mentioning anything negative about the other person. Whether the group is heterogeneous or homogenous does not seem to make such an impact on the knowledge transfer, some participants have complained about the heterogeneous group regarding the issue of everybody working in different places and the difficulty to find a suitable time and a place to meet. This issue would from my perspective still be an issue if the participants work at the same place, the time management and if they are all at the same place or not, is not dependent of their organization but instead of their priorities. Of course it might be easier to see each other if all three participants work at the same workplace, but as shown in the network meeting; people could find time to join anyways, even if it took forever for them to get to the place where they were supposed to meet due to traffic jam and other contextual circumstances. Therefore it can't be guaranteed that participants would meet more often if they all worked in the same workplace.

The factor of understanding each other can be seen from two, point of views; the issue of language and the contextual differences. Regarding language it has been difficult to observe this while in Uganda as they have a lot of different languages which depends on what tribes they come from. What I did observe was that they used English as their first language and most of the things, like newspapers, news, information in the shops etc. were written in English. The lessons observed were also held in English and despite the African people have another pronunciation of the words than one might be used to, I did understand almost everything that was said. Seen from the participants' point of view, the majority of the batch members that I observed knew English good enough to understand what was said and to discuss matters in English. English was the working language within the ITP. There were a few participants who did not speak too good English, these participants got help with translation from their team members. Unfortunately I have not focused on these participants to see whether they have learned something new or not, but on the whole group in general. Same reflection goes for the differences in different contexts, regarding the local context in the specific workplace where a participant works, but also on national level that the three team participants experience and the international level, where the participants try to understand each other's contexts within the batch. All these contexts differ, and the mentors tried to take this in consideration when planning all the interactive workshops, the feedback sessions and when constantly encouraging the participants to ask questions in order to enable contextual understanding.

5.1.3 Contextual factors affecting the knowledge transfer process on organizational level

The organizational factors that have been highlighted in the analysis are divided in three groups: organizational environment, organizational culture and communication. Regarding the organizational environment, the study has shown that the ITP is built by the mentors to:

- Enable participation through interaction within the workshops and lessons.
- Offering the participants incentives by giving them diplomas (external motivation) when finishing the course and constantly encouraging them to believe that their new knowledge is highly valuable (internal motivation).
- Support them by giving them confidence regarding what they have learned and how they should work further with applying it.
- Offering a favorable climate where the participants feel free to share their knowledge and experiences at the same time as they feel open and happy to adapt other participants' knowledge and experiences.
- Offering a physical space where the participants feel that they can share their knowledge and experiences, which is enabled through putting the tables together instead of in rows so that all participants can speak to each other without needing to turn around or have their back to each other.

Within the organizational culture, the mentors (seen as the organization here) have created an open culture where everybody can say whatever they want without feeling that they are wrong or committing a mistake, which is shown both in Lund with the workshop about Malalas speech and in Zambia within the feedback sessions. They also encourage the participants to collaborate with each other by forcing them all the time to work together and try to mix them as much as possible in order to make everybody work with each other within smaller groups. This encourages sharing and makes the participants feel that they want to share at the same time as they want to adapt other participants knowledge and experiences. Within the group work, the culture of having a positive attitude towards each other is also shown, as participants not only work together but get to know each other on a deeper level as they are open with sharing their experiences and thoughts about the issues discussed, something that is observed both in Lund and Zambia.

Also regarding communication, the mentors have worked out several methods, using several means in order to communicate with the participants. Within the observation in Lund and Zambia, it was observed that the mentors used PowerPoints, acting, movies, music, different workshops built of seeing the same things from different perspectives etc. in order to communicate the conventions to the participants in a way that they could understand and use it. Many of these methods were later replicated by the participants when holding their presentation at the progress workshop in Zambia.

5.2 Theoretical discussion

5.2.1 Knowledge as a process or an object

Within the theory chapter different aspects regarding what knowledge is, are presented through different researchers' definitions. Alavi and Leidner (2001) perceive knowledge as a subject, a thing that can be manufactured and stored in the brain, while Liyange et al., (2009),

De Corte (2003), Gera (2010) and Kolb (1984) see knowledge as a process. They state that people construct their own knowledge in interactions with others and that the knowledge is affected by the social and physical context. When examining the participants definitions of knowledge one could emphasize that some see knowledge as an subject, by defining it as: information, skills, ideas, concepts etc., whether other sees it as a process by defining it as: a process, learning, values, norms, developing mentally etc. Within a classroom observation made in Uganda, the teacher talked about the students' way of perceiving knowledge. As a tradition, when the students have finished university, they have a big book fire, where they burn all their books that they have read during their studies. According to the teacher, this is done to mark that the students are now fully learned and that they have all the knowledge they need for the rest of their lives. Seeing it this way, knowledge is perceived as an object rather than a process. In Sweden, learning and knowledge is often seen in a different way, as a process. Here people discuss the issue of lifelong learning and the responsibility to always learn something new.

On another level, knowledge as an object has much in common with explicit knowledge, defined in the theory chapter as: embodied in things which can be easily shared and accessible for all people, like information. Knowledge as a process has more in common with tacit knowledge, which was defined in theory as: developing in interactions between people's experiences and actions that are embodied in us. Here the knowledge is personal and constructed by oneself which makes it harder to share. The explicit knowledge can once have been tacit, when accumulated, and later, what Nonaka and Takeuchi (1995) define as externalized, by transforming it from tacit to explicit. Seeing it this way, one could say that knowledge as an object coexists with knowledge as a process, that some knowledge can be seen as an object for example information, while the process lies in how the knowledge is accumulated and translated to fit ones context and previous knowledge. Within knowledge the tacit knowledge required the interacting parts to socialize and exchange experiences in order to build frames of references and in that way enable learning from each other, whether the explicit knowledge can be seen as information that does not require absolute interaction with a living thing, because it can for example be represented in charts, sheets etc.

Within the social constructivist perspective, knowledge is viewed as a process rather than an object, knowledge is socially constructed in interactions among people and their different contexts. Therefore the knowledge does not exist independent of people, but the people create it through their way of viewing the world and understanding each other and ones experiences. As Kvale and Brinkmann (2009) states, the knowledge should be seen as a product of the interaction between two people. This leads to the conclusion that knowledge is individually constructed and that everybody creates their own knowledge within interactions. How we choose to understand the world and each other is therefore personal and depends on our previous experiences together with the context that it began to develop in and how we chose to understand these two factors. Regarding the ITP, the knowledge that is shared is therefore never the same in the different batches. It depends on the specific batches participants, their experiences, contexts and social interaction with each other. The explicit knowledge, that can be read, for example UNICEF's "*Convention on the Rights of the Child*" is the same, but the process where it is translated to fit ones experiences and context will differ. In this way, the

group of 30 participants can read the same convention and when retelling it to each other, it might be explained in 30 different ways. Another important aspect that shows knowledge as a process is the issue of time and context. If knowledge is seen as a process it is also seen as changeable over time and space. In a wider perspective, one can also see that time and context is socially constructed by people and their personal knowledge about the reality. Therefore the knowledge that the participants have at the beginning of the program, is changeable over time. As the time goes by, they assimilate and accumulate new knowledge and deepen their understanding, which shows that knowledge can be perceived as a process rather than an object.

5.2.2 Knowledge transfer versus knowledge sharing

Depending on how one perceives knowledge, the knowledge transfer process can be viewed differently. If knowledge is seen as an object, the knowledge transfer process can be seen as the communication theory defines it: the sender sending knowledge, a package, to the receiver who then unpacks it and adjusts it to fit ones understanding and context. On the other hand if the knowledge is seen as a process, then the knowledge is shared between two people or more when they interact with each other.

In theory, knowledge transfer and knowledge sharing are often explained to be two sides of the same coin. The word transfer, in knowledge transfer process, might lead the reader to believe that a thing is to be transferred and therefore perceive the knowledge as being an object, but within the knowledge transfer process definitions presented in the theory chapter, knowledge seems to be viewed by some researchers as an object and by others as a process. The participants' definition of knowledge transfer can be explained as seeing knowledge both as a process and an object. An object because they talk about something being passed on or shared to others, which can be defined as knowledge being a thing (a package) that can be transferred. A process because the knowledge transfer happens within an interaction where the knowledge is fitted to the context and used in new situations. How the knowledge is contextualized and used is dependent of the interaction and the involved parts peoples experiences and contexts.

In the last workshop held in Zambia, the participants' had to evaluate what they had learned. Looking at the knowledge they exemplified, much of it shows that the participants see knowledge as a process that is created in interaction with the other participants. Among the answers, on what they have gained through the program, were, presented as said by the participants:

- *Experiences*, we realized that we had experiences on all levels and it widens our perspectives.
- Gained *creativity* and a sustainable *network* that can only be raised from a growing knowledge and we realized that we learn from our colleagues and mentors.
- *Inspired* through the school visits, *encouraged* from the presentations of all countries, we have been *empowered* and when we go back we have a lot to add to our projects.
- Feedback has made us *motivated* because we got remarks from friends which have motivated us. We have learned a lot, from friends, from mentors and from school visits.

- *Shared experiences* specifically by providing experience from the Zambian context and having participated in different activities.
- Through interaction with other change agents we felt *empowered, developed*, we realize the importance of *networking, participation* and *cooperation*.
- We were able to give love to our fellow change agents, *share* our experiences and *support*.
- Gained a lot, your experiences and your different cultures can contexts.

This shows that they do not highlight the explicit knowledge they have learned about for example the convention, but instead got inspired, motivated, encouraged etc. which is a product of the process they have engaged in when transferring/sharing knowledge with each other.

The mentors also seem to perceive knowledge as a process, which is shown in the methods they use. Most of the time in phase two is spent in workshops where the participants discuss their previous knowledge in relation to the new knowledge and try to, by together building a frame of reference, understanding and translating the knowledge. There are quite a few lessons where the mentor traditionally lectures with one way communication, but even here the participants are rather involved and invited to participate in the lessons too.

5.4 Discussion summary

After presented discussion it could be summarized that the research questions have been specifically answered in the analysis chapter and wider discussed in this chapter with focus on individual-, group- and organizational contextual factors affecting the knowledge transfer process (see second research question). It can be concluded that the individual factors are the only ones that can be further developed, as the group- and organizational factors function as they should within the ITP. The mentors cannot directly affect the individual factors as they depend on each and every applicant, but can, in a wider perspective, take them into account when recruiting new participants. Regarding the first research question, which was also specifically answered within the analysis chapter and which is evaluated in a wider perspective within this chapter, what knowledge transfer means to the participants differ. Something that affects their definition is if they perceive knowledge as an object or as a process, this difference will determine how they perceive knowledge transfer/knowledge sharing.

5.5 Further research

As this is not an evaluation of the ITP, it would be very interesting to do one in order to see what the participants have actually learned and how they can use this knowledge in their context, by using a mixture of quantitative and qualitative methods. Yet another way to expand the field would be by not only evaluating the participants, but also take in consideration their projects and target groups in order to see if the knowledge has been successfully transferred further and if it was successfully applied to fit the context. A last recommendation regarding the field of interest would be to try to understand how the knowledge needs to be packaged in order to fit the context and therefore changed from when

it is adapted to when it is shared further and how the participants do this, by conducting an ethnographic study during the whole two year period of the ITP.

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Appendix I

Observation Schedule in Lund

Observational notes are taken in different colors depending on the issue of the notes in an attempt to structure the notes.

Blue color: things that are presented as facts by the mentors about child's rights, the Swedish education system etc.

Red color: participant's reactions / attitudes towards what is being said and done, answers to questions, etc.

Green color: methods that are being used in the ITP

Back color: Own reflections, further questions, clarifications

Appendix II

Interview guide, mentors

Adapting knowledge

1. What knowledge do you think that the participants adapt after the course?
2. What do you wish that the participants take with them?
 - a. What is the most important thing you want them to learn?

Methods

3. What perspectives do you think that the school visits can contribute to?
4. Why do you use different learning styles and different methods?
5. Why do you want them to write or color papers as explanations when they present their thoughts?
6. Why do you think they need their 3 rules/norms to follow?
7. Why do you let them create the 3 rules/norms themselves?
8. Why do you use role-plays as a way of presenting something?
9. Why did you choose to let the participants only come up with good examples with “the ladder of participation”?

Knowledge transfer process

10. How do you think that the knowledge transfer works when the participants are implementing what they learned?
11. Why is it important for the participants to define their own definition of words?
12. Why do you think that it's important for the participants to see CRC in different perspectives? (Ex. When they had to identify a child first and then had to identify it without saying it was a girl/boy)
13. How have the projects plans evolved over time?
 - a. From the first meeting the first week to the last one?
 - b. Why do you think it changed?

Context

14. Do you think that it's possible to implement the way of learning in their context?
 - a. How?
15. What factors in this (Swedish) context can facilitate?
 - a. Why?
16. What factors in their home country can facilitate?
 - a. Why?
17. What factors in this context (Swedish) can hinder?
 - a. Why?
18. What factors in their home country can hinder?
 - a. Why?
19. Is there anything you would like to add?

Appendix III

Interview guide, change agents

Definition

1. What does knowledge transfer mean to you?

Individual level

2. What do you think facilitates the knowledge transfer on an individual level?
 - a. And hinders?

Previous knowledge

3. Why did you choose to apply to the ITP?
4. What did you know about child's rights before attending the ITP
 - a. Did you have any experience of the field before going to Sweden?
 - i. How do you think this knowledge/experience affected what you learned and the way you learned?
5. How did you prepare for the program?
 - a. What expectations did you have on what you would learn?
 - i. In Sweden?
 - ii. By conducting the project?
6. What do you remember learning in Sweden?
7. What methods of learning do you remember using in Sweden?
 - a. Why do you think they chose to use these methods?
8. Can you use anything you learned in Sweden in your daily work outside the project?
 - a. How?
 - b. When?

Willingness to share

9. What factors affect if you want to share the knowledge or not?
 - a. Why?
10. Have you shared your knowledge after coming back from Sweden?
 - a. To whom?
 - i. Woman or man?
 - ii. In the same organization or not?
 - iii. What positions did they have?
 - iv. What relationships would you say you had with them?
 - b. Why?
 - i. Did you want to share or did you feel that you had to?
 - c. How?
 - i. How do you think they understood what you said/did?
 - ii. How did you feel that the information was received?

Individual culture

11. Has your work situation changed since you attended the ITP?
 - a. How?
 - b. Higher salary?
 - c. More responsibility?
 - d. Did you know it would change before applying to the ITP?

Group level

12. What do you think facilitates the knowledge transfer on group level?
 - a. And hinders?

Group dynamics

13. Did you know the other two people that were in your project group?
 - a. How did you feel about working with them?
14. How did you work on the project?
 - a. Sit together or divided the different parts?
15. How did you feel that your group dynamics was?
 - a. At the beginning?
 - b. In the middle of the work?
 - c. At the end?

Organizational level

16. What do you think facilitates the knowledge transfer on organizational level?
 - a. And hinders?

Communication

17. Do you think your boss knows about your conducted project?
 - a. Did he/she help you with anything?
 - i. With what?
 - b. How much do you anticipate that you colleagues know about your project?

Organizational culture

18. What would you say characterize your organizations culture?
19. Is your experiences and knowledge about child's rights spread within the organization?
 - a. How?
 - b. By whom?

Organizational environment

20. Could you discuss the project with someone in your organization?
 - a. With whom would it be?
 - b. Why?

21. Have you made any mistakes with your project along the way?
 - a. How was it perceived by the group?
 - b. And by the organization?
22. Is there anything you would like to add?

Appendix IV

Discussion points during the network meeting

- What does knowledge mean to you?
- What does knowledge transfer mean to you?
- What contextual factors affect the knowledge transfer process on:
 - Individual level?
 - Group level?
 - Organizational level?

Appendix V

Observation Schedule in Zambia

Individual level

Adapting knowledge

Previous knowledge
Attitude towards receiving knowledge/
absorptive capacity

Contextualizing knowledge

Knowledge creation

Transferring knowledge

Sender's willingness to share
Trust
Owning the process
Understanding the value of one's own knowledge
Gender factors when transferring knowledge

Group level

Group dynamics

Relationship sender and receiver
Trust
Group members' reputation
Homogenous / heterogeneous group
Group identification - Insider /outsider

Understanding each other

Frame of references

Organizational level

Organizational environment

Participation
Incentives
Support
Positive environment

Organizational culture

Norms and values
Organizational structure
Communication



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