UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA

IMPACT EVALUATION OF A LEADERSHIP TRAINING PROGRAM

BY

OLUSEGUN AGBOOLA SOGUNRO

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DEDICATION

To God, from whom all blessings flow.

To 'Tinu, 'Tayo, Akin, and Anu for their love and support.

To the Sogunros, the Popoolas, and the Fabunmis, the giants on whose shoulders I have been able to stand.

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ABSTRACT

The study examined the impact of a 19 year-old leadership training program whose purpose was to develop leadership skills for agricultural, cooperative, and community leaders across Alberta.

The study, which can be described as responsive evaluation, combined both qualitative (interviews, document analyses and direct observations) and quantitative (pre-workshop, end-of-session, post-workshop and follow-up questionnaires) research techniques. Data were collected from four groups of stakeholders, namely, the participants, the funders (sponsoring organizations), the instructors or facilitators, and the administrators of the program. In all, 29 participants were involved in the pre-workshop, end-of-session, and post-workshop evaluations, while 185 participants responded to the follow-up questionnaire. The interviewees included 37 participants, 11 representatives of the sponsoring organizations, seven instructors, and two administrators of the program.

The 12 prominent events in Stake's responsive evaluation model were encapsulated into five phases in conducting this study. These phases are identification of the purpose and scope of evaluation, identification of data needs and methods of collecting data, data collection, data analysis, and reports and recommendations. The increase and/or changes in participants' leadership knowledge, skills, and attitudes constituted the criteria used for determining the impact of the program.

The participants perceived that, as a result of the training, their knowledge and skills increased and their attitudes changed from pre-workshop to post-workshop. As perceived by the participants, the role-playing aspect of the workshop, the practical application of learned concepts, the cost effectiveness of the program, the group interaction engendered by the workshop setting, and the conduciveness of the workshop site constituted the main strengths of the program. The major weaknesses identified were those relating to the organizational arrangements and effectiveness of the instructors, the five-day length of the workshop, declining enrollment, program competition, poor

visibility and marketing strategies, sequential nature of the program, lack of needs assessment and program focus, and timing of the leadership training.

Overall, the study provided enough evidence to justify the continuation of this leadership training program. It also supported the belief that leadership can be taught and learned in a workshop setting.

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INTRODUCTION

The efficacy of leadership training programs in enhancing the leadership competencies of individuals cannot be taken for granted. Perhaps because leadership is seen as key to organizational success, especially in today's world of limited and competing resources, many organizations are concerned about the apparent leadership inadequacies and hence involved in one form of leadership training program or another.

In the wake of financial constraints, increasing competition, downsizing, new technology, workers' dissatisfaction, and decreasing effectiveness, the outcry is generally for more effective leadership. According to Bolman and Deal (1991), leadership as a concept is offered as a solution for most of the problems of organizations everywhere. "Schools will work, we are told, if principals provide strong instructional leadership. Around the world, middle managers say that their organizations would thrive if only senior management provided strategy, vision, and real leadership" (Bolman & Deal, 1991, p. 403). As leadership skills may not be fully developed by practice alone, leadership training programs offer a means for improving and developing the leadership capabilities of individuals. Training is provided in various leadership areas including administrative and management practices, through formats such as residential programs, seminars, and workshops. A perennial question is, "What is the impact of these training programs on the participants?"

An examination of the literature shows that most evaluation studies of leadership training programs have reported antecedents and transactions only. Once participants have left the training settings, however, program providers seldom attempt to determine the effects of their programs, whether in the immediate, short, or long terms. Few have assessed impacts in terms of effectiveness and efficiency regarding costs and benefits to

the funders; many lack assessment of impacts on participants in the program, especially through a combination of pre-training, during training, post-training, and follow-up evaluation procedures; and most lack in-depth data gathering strategies involving mixed research methods such as interviews, document analyses, observations, and questionnaires. Often evaluations are done at the end of the program with questionnaires, which provide very little information about the real effect of the program on participants' behavior on the job. The challenge for most providers today would appear to be how to justify the impact and continuation of their training programs.

In Alberta, the Rural Education and Development Association (REDA) is one of several organizations providing leadership development programs for rural organizations and individuals. For about two decades, program evaluation has been an on-going phenomenon in the life of REDA's leadership training program. However, little was done to determine the impact of this program on the participants. The mode of evaluation has predominantly been informal, that is, the evaluations have largely been based on the opinions and judgments of a few individuals. No formal impact evaluation of the program has been undertaken. This situation raised questions about the real impact of REDA's leadership training program in enhancing the leadership competencies of the participants.

According to Courtenay and Holt (1987), "the failure of many adult educators to provide substantive data reflecting the impact of continuing education programs on participant learning and performance has caused many sponsors to question the validity of each of such experiences" (p. 168). Their emphasis is in regard to the importance of providing data about the impact of a program on the participants. Lack of such evaluation data is a major weakness in REDA's evaluation practices. If *program impact* is identified as the difference between observed "before" and "after" program conditions (Hatry, Winnie, & Fisk, 1973), and *impact evaluation* includes "an assessment of participants prior to an educational experience; an assessment of participants' change in

knowledge, skills, or attitudes immediately after the educational experience; and a similar assessment after a predetermined time lapse following the program" (Courtenay & Holt, 1987, p. 169), then the need for this study is justified. It was the realization of these facts that encouraged REDA's administrators to support a proposal to evaluate the impact of their leadership training program.

The aim of this study, therefore, was to evaluate the impact of REDA's leadership training program on the participants since its inception, that is, the period 1976-1994. Given the particularistic nature of REDA's program (i.e., the age of the program, the diversity of participants, and the role and interest of the stakeholders), Stake's (1975a) Responsive Evaluation Model was selected to provide the data that would determine the impact of REDA's leadership training program.

To help the reader understand the study, background information which led to the study and the research questions are presented.

Background to the Study

This section presents a description of the Rural Education and Development Association and its 19 year-old leadership training program.

REDA as an Organization

REDA is an outcome of the early efforts of the Farmers' Union of Alberta and the Alberta Federation of Agriculture towards organizing educational programs for the rural population, especially in the areas of citizenship, farm management, and leadership development. According to Ralph Jespersen, Chairman of REDA's Board of Directors (Rural Education and Development Association, [REDA], 1984), the recognition that the human being is the most precious and treasured resource of any community or province was the fundamental principle that prompted the formation of the Farmers Union and Co-

operative Development Association (FU & CDA), and later, REDA as an independent educational agency.

Established on February 26, 1971 as a private continuing education agency based in Edmonton, Alberta, Canada, REDA is an association of organizations committed to the continuing education of rural Albertans. Because of its rural orientation, it is devoted to promoting and developing the human resource potential of the agricultural and cooperative communities of Alberta. As stated by its Executive Director in an interview, "Helping individuals develop the skills needed to effectively lead in organizations is the goal of REDA's leadership training program." Its main objectives are "to develop in people commitment to, and responsibility for agriculture, cooperatives, and quality of rural life; and to develop leadership and organizational expertise in and for farm, co-operative and rural organizations" (REDA, 1992, p. 2).

As a service organization, REDA offers leadership training programs to rural organizations, especially those which cannot set up their own programs for reasons of limited resources--capital or expertise. REDA also provides expertise in program design, leadership development, organizational development, cooperative education and development, social and economic surveys and analysis, designing and managing citizen participation programs, board and staff development for farm and commodity organizations, and designing and managing programs for youth and home study courses (REDA, 1992).

Basically, REDA offers two types of leadership training programs: one for youth and the other for adults. The youth leadership program is designed for young people between ages 13 and 19. The program is categorized into three areas according to the age range of the youths. For instance, the *Teen Seminar* is designed for those between 13 and 14 years of age, the *Youth Seminar* for those between 15 and 17 years of age, and the *Graduate Seminar* for those between 16 and 19 years of age. The program offers the youth the opportunity to develop leadership, communication, and interpersonal skills as

well as explore agricultural, co-operative, and community systems and issues. The second leadership training program is generally organized for adults of diverse background.

Although REDA has been conducting various human resource development programs over the past years, it was not until 1976 that the adult leadership training program was formalized. Before the formalization of the program, REDA had offered leadership programs in discrete forms under such headings as "Agrileader," Rural Sociology and Economics Program, Planning for Retirement Program, Building a Working Relationship with a Client, Lobby Skills Workshops, Quality of Rural Life, Small Farm Development Program, and so on. Beside these programs, REDA had also acted as a leadership training consortium for the Canadian Farm Management Committee and various farm and rural organizations.

REDA maintains a close relationship with some local co-operatives and farm organizations such as the Alberta's Department of Agriculture, Food and Rural Development, and the University of Alberta's Faculty of Extension. Often REDA works collaboratively with these organizations to organize various programs. At present, REDA is involved in the Alberta Leadership Education for Agricultural Development Program, commonly referred to as Alberta LEAD Program. The program, which aims at fostering self-reliant agricultural enterprises through the development of effective leadership skills, is a collaborative venture among three organizations: the Food and Rural Development Branch of the Department of Alberta Agriculture, the Faculty of Extension of the University of Alberta, and REDA (Kontz, 1993).

REDA's Leadership Training Program for Adults

The leadership training program for adults which began in 1976 is just one of the many educational programs organized by REDA. Its main goal has been to develop leadership skills for agricultural, cooperative, and community leaders across the province. REDA's leadership training program is reminiscent of the two week leadership program

formerly conducted by the Faculty of Extension of the University of Alberta. As indicated by the Director of REDA's leadership training program, the two programs are similar in content and orientation.

As part of the history of REDA, a statement in the "Final Report of Agrileader Program of Leadership Development" heralded the establishment of the leadership training program:

> Out of concern for ongoing effective agricultural leadership in the ensuing years, Gerald Schuler, Director of Rural Education and Development Association and Wayne Lamble, Agricultural Supervisor, Faculty of Extension (with the encouragement of C. J. McAndrews and J. G. Calpas) designed and promoted an innovative program of leadership training. (REDA, 1979, p. 1)

This concern marked a milestone in the history of REDA's leadership training program. Translated into action, "a board of Governors was appointed and the first seminar in March 1976 officially launched Agrileader . . . as the program has become known" (REDA, 1979, p. 1).

Presently, the leadership training program is organized in three sequential levels: Introductory Leadership Skills (level I); Intermediate Leadership Skills (level II); and Advanced Leadership Skills (level III). The introductory level focuses on leadership through participation while the intermediate and the advanced levels concentrate on leadership through management. Between 1976 and 1994, the offering of level I component of the program has been consistent, that is, annually for the 19 years. The level II component, which started in 1978, has been offered 10 times and cancelled seven times because of low enrollment (see Table 1.1). The level III component has only been offered once as a result of the enrollment problem. Based on the fact that levels I and II were both offered more regularly than level III, they constituted the object of evaluation for this study. The program objectives for levels I and II of REDA's leadership training program are as follow:

Table 1.1

REDA's Leadership Training Program: Attendance Record (1976-1994)

Year	Level I	Level II	Remarks
1976	27	-	No level II
1977	30	-	No level II
1978	33	21	
1979	27	-	Level II cancelled
1980	32	32	
1981	28	21	
1982	36	32	
1983	41	-	Level II cancelled
1984	24	23	
1985	22	22	
1986	41	-	Level II cancelled
1987	26	17	
1988	33	-	Level II cancelled
1989	19	13	
1990	27	-	Level II cancelled
1991	18	17	
1992	13	-	Level II cancelled
1993	21	-	Level II cancelled
1994	17	12	
TOTAL =	515	210	

Note: Level III was conducted only in 1985 with 24 participants.

Source: Summary of Attendance of Participants, Office of the Rural Education and Development Association (REDA), Edmonton, Alberta.

Program Objectives, Level I:

> -To develop skills and confidence in individuals so that they may participate and effectively lead in organizations at all levels. Participants will develop an understanding of the complexities and relationships between individuals, groups and leaders. Skills will also be developed in communications, meeting management, public speaking, and group consensus. (REDA, 1994a)

Program Objectives, Level II:

> -To explore leadership concepts of power, decision-making, and motivation in organizations.
> -To develop skills in which leaders are more able to involve group members in problem solving and decision-making.
> -To provide personal development opportunities in the areas of time management, self esteem and risk taking.
> -To use skills of leadership in debating and seeking consensus on rural issues. (REDA, 1994b)

Table 1.1 shows the attendance record of REDA's leadership training program between 1976 and 1994. The table is a summary of the program's attendance documents. To date, 515, 210 and 24 individuals have participated in levels I, II, and III respectively. "Cancelled" in the remarks column of the table means that the program was planned but cancelled because of low enrollment.

Program content. A review of brochures of past programs and teaching manuals indicated that the program content for each of the levels consisted of different subjects that have changed overtime. As of January 1994, the program for level I consisted of the following content areas: behavioral styles, communications, public speaking, motivation, activity time, group process, parliamentary procedure, group role expectation, leadership and the group, effective meetings, volunteer recruitment, group consensus, and driftwood dilemma. Level II content areas were risk taking, rural community issues, openness, motivation, retaining volunteers, self esteem, effective presentations, time management, leadership, and decision-making. Level III topics included leadership in the organization

and the community, communications in an organization, decision-making in an organization, planning (objectives, philosophy, goals), delegation, authority and responsibility, community involvement, control and evaluation, board management roles, force field, managing conflict, managing stress, modern motivation approaches, and lobbying. These content areas have changed over time. Table 1.2 presents the program contents for each of the levels as at January, 1994. The leadership training for level III was held only in 1985.

After each level, participants are expected to gain practical experience for at least a year before returning for the next level.

Workshops. The training for each level is usually provided in a week-long program using the workshop format. Instructional methods include lectures, question-and-answer periods, small group discussions, leadership simulations, case studies, structured experiences, role-playing, etc. The 1994 leadership workshops were held at the Goldeye Centre, Nordegg. The center is a retreat setting owned by a charitable foundation located about 250 kilometers southwest of Edmonton. In the past, the site for the workshops was Lake Louise and prior to that at the Banff Center. Perhaps because of the secluded nature of Goldeye and the fact that the primary stakeholders in the Goldeye Foundation are sponsors of many of REDA's programs, the Goldeye Center has become a more permanent site since 1989.

Program Participants. The program has always attracted people of varying ages, educational backgrounds, and experience. Generally, their educational backgrounds ranged from below high school to university, while their ages ranged from under 21 to above 65. Participants included newly elected chairpersons, delegates, members, and staff of agriculturally oriented business organizations, volunteer leaders in community organizations such as 4-H, and owners or employees of private organizations. A large number of these participants had arrived at their positions of leadership through the ranks,

Table 1.2

REDA's Program Contents

Level I	Level II	Level III
-Behavioral Styles (Personal Profile System)	-Risk Taking	-Leadership in Organization and Community
-Communications	-Rural Community Issues	-Communication in an Organization
-Public Speaking	-Openness	-Decision-making in Organization
-Motivation	-Learning	-Planning (objectives, philosophy, goals)
-Activity Time	-Motivation	-Delegation
-Group Process	-Retaining Volunteers	-Authority and Responsibility
-Parliamentary Procedure	-Self Esteem	-Community Involvement
-Group Role Expectations	-Effective Presentations	-Control and Evaluation
-Leadership and the Group	-Time Management	-Board Management Roles
-Effective Meetings	-Leadership	-Force Field
-Volunteer Recruitment	-Decision Making	-Managing Conflict
-Group Consensus		-Managing Stress
-Driftwood Dilemma		-Modern Motivation Approaches
		-Lobbying

and their leadership skills had been developed primarily through life experiences. Many had never experienced or developed the art of leadership for organizational change.

Sponsors As contained in REDA's 1992 Annual Report, the 13 member organizations that sponsor REDA are:

-Alberta Egg Producers Board
-Alberta Institute of Agrologists
-Alberta Milk Producers' Society
-Alberta Pork Producers Development Corporation
-Alberta Wheat Pool
-Agrifoods International Cooperative Ltd.
-The Co-operators
-Credit Union Central Alberta Limited
-Federated Co-operatives Limited
-Lilydale Co-operatives Limited
-Unifarm
-United Farmers of Alberta Co-operatives Limited
-United Grain Growers Limited

These organizations make annual financial contributions and provide materials and resource persons from their staff, especially as facilitators or instructors for REDA's programs.

Program Evaluation at REDA

Program evaluation has been a regular practice in REDA's leadership training program as mentioned earlier. However, previous evaluations have focused mainly on the workshop activities per se and not on the impact of those activities on the participants. For example, the pre- and post-workshop evaluations provided data reflecting opinions on the content, knowledge acquired, delivery styles, and satisfaction with accommodation, food, and recreational activities. Although these data are useful for

explaining certain aspects of the program's success, they say little about the extent to which the program has affected the leadership competencies of the participants over the years. For instance, the evaluations have not addressed changes in the leadership performance of participants after training. As a result, little or no feedback has been provided to determine whether the workshops were effective. As indicated by the director in charge of the program, the major reasons for the lack of detailed feedback included the complexity of evaluation, and shortage of resources such as personnel, money, and time.

Purpose of the Study and Research Questions

The purpose of this study was twofold. First, the goal was to evaluate the impact of REDA's leadership training program on the participants for the 1976-1994 period of its existence. Second, the purpose was to elicit suggestions for modification and/or improvement of the program. The study was guided by the following research questions:

1. What are the stakeholders' perceptions of the program's impact? That is, what changes in the leadership behavior of participants can be attributed to the influence of REDA's leadership training program?

2. What are the stakeholders' perceptions of the strengths and weaknesses of the program, including issues and concerns that could provide cues for maintenance, modification, and/or improvement of the program?

Significance of the Study

This study has significance for practice of program evaluation, it extends the research on program impact evaluation, and contributes to the literature on evaluation of leadership training programs. In addition, the study may be meaningful to trainers.

Significance for the Practice of Evaluation

This study has significance for the field of program evaluation, and specifically for impact evaluation. Considering the increased demand for effective leadership in organizations and the recent proliferation of leadership training programs, this study provides an opportunity to demonstrate whether changes in leadership behavior (if any) can be attributed to the training program. Since studies on the impact of leadership training programs are relatively few, it was a goal of this study to contribute to the body of knowledge in this area. Moreover, since REDA has not conducted a formal impact evaluation of their leadership training program for the past 19 years, the findings of this study will enhance REDA's credibility in organizing such programs, and perhaps provide a basis for continued funding of the program by sponsors. In support of this view, Sullivan and Decker (1988), claimed that "if there are objective data to prove that a training program does have a positive effect . . . rarely will money be cut from the training program budget" (p. 346).

Furthermore, such decisions as to whether some of the training programs at REDA should be shortened, lengthened, changed, resequenced, rescheduled, or even cut could be based on the findings of this study. As indicated by Kirkpatrick (1987) "If a program effort is to be considered successful, some substantive decisions about the program must be based on the evaluation data" (p. 24).

Significance for Trainers

Stemming from the fact that the core of program evaluation is the collection and/or retrieval of information, this study provides valuable information regarding the

impact of REDA's leadership training program, and identifies some strategies that could be employed to enhance the value, decision-making, and effectiveness of future training activities. As noted by Warr, Bird, and Rackham (1971), "The primary purpose of gathering evaluation data is to provide the trainer with information that will help him increase his subsequent effectiveness" (p. 18). In support of the significance of this study, Wolf (1990) indicated that since a specific course, program, or curriculum would have been initiated to meet some perceived educational need, it becomes necessary to determine how well the enterprise meets that need.

Research Significance

A point of research significance was particularly rooted in the research method. The use of a mixed research design, that is, combining both qualitative and quantitative research paradigms, enhanced the researcher's skills in conducting program impact evaluations. It may also benefit other researchers who intend to utilize or extend their knowledge about responsive evaluation.

Assumptions

1. One of the main reasons for responsive evaluation is the politically sensitive aspect of program evaluation. It was assumed that an outsider invited to see the organization from the inside would be familiar with the tenets of responsive evaluation.

2. Due to the complexity of the program, especially in terms of its age (i.e., 1976-1994), and the composition of stakeholders, the use of both qualitative and quantitative methods was assumed to be the most effective method of researching the program in order to provide an in-depth understanding of the program and its impact.

3. It was assumed that the stakeholders involved in the study would provide honest and accurate opinions about the operations and effects of the program.

4. It was assumed that the suggestions and recommendations based on the findings of this study would be useful in helping REDA improve its leadership training program.

5. It was assumed that changes in leadership behavior attributed by the respondents to REDA's leadership training program were, in fact, reflective of the program's impact.

6. Given that "it is difficult to develop models of social phenomena that can serve adequately as the framework within which impact assessments are to be undertaken" (Rossi & Freeman, 1982, p. 167), it was assumed that the framework of evaluation designed for this study would be a resource for REDA in conducting future impact evaluations of its leadership training program.

Delimitations

1. The study focused on the leadership training program of the Rural Education and Development Association, Edmonton. As such, it covered the points most likely to be of concern to REDA and the program's stakeholders.

2. The study was delimited to the levels I and II of REDA's leadership training program.

3. Data were derived from a defined group of stakeholders (i.e., the participants, sponsoring organizations, facilitators, and the organizing body of the program). Stakeholders not involved in the program were not included in the study.

4. The study was delimited to the period between 1976 and 1994 (i.e., the period covering the life of the program to the time of this evaluation.

5. The conduct of a pilot study was circumvented due to the lack of a parallel or truly comparable control group. Rather, the instruments used to collect the data for this study were reviewed for face validity (i.e., to ensure that the questions did not elicit

ambiguous or misleading responses) by different groups of people including the members of the supervisory committee for this study, the client organization, and colleagues interested in the study.

Limitations

1. Evaluation of the impact of the program relied mainly on (a) self-reports by participants regarding personal benefits and behavioral changes they experienced as a result of participation, and (b) reports of observations made by supervisors or other superordinates in participants' home organizations.

2. Given that changes in participants' behavior would be expected in any training program, the changes manifested by the participants in this study, of course, may be peculiar to REDA's leadership training program, especially from the standpoint of the contents, the learning setting, and the training methods adopted. Therefore, the applicability or generalizability of the findings from this study to other similar leadership situations would probably be limited by the particularistic nature of the study.

3. Time and financial constraints limited the number of interviews and site visits that could be made.

4. The willingness and ability of the participants to recall and articulate their experiences, beliefs, and perceptions constituted a limitation.

5. The study was also limited by the researcher's skills in obtaining relevant and appropriate data through interview, questionnaire, observation and document analysis.

Definitions of Terms

Terms or expressions used in this study are defined below. Others are defined in the report as they are introduced.

Antecedents: "Conditions existing prior to program implementation that could affect program outcomes" (Craven, 1980, p. 436). In systems terminology, Guba and Lincoln (1981) referred to antecedents as inputs.

Case study: A detailed examination of an object or subject in-situ.

Clients: "Those persons or agencies that request an evaluation or for whom an evaluation is conducted" (Grotelueschen et al., 1976, p. 110).

Concern: "Any matter of interest or importance to one or more parties" (Guba & Lincoln, 1988, p. 34). It may be something that threatens or raises anxiety.

Delegate: A delegate is an elected official of a district or sub-district of an organization who is empowered to make decisions and take necessary actions on behalf of the jurisdiction represented. For example, in Alberta Wheat Pool, a delegate's term of office is three years. An Alberta Wheat Pool delegate must be a member of the Alberta Wheat Pool organization, own or control land in the sub-district represented, live in the sub-district represented. More importantly, a delegate must be elected by the majority of members within the sub-district represented (Alberta Wheat Pool, 1990).

Evaluation: "A set of procedures to appraise a program's merit and to provide information about its goals, expectations, activities, outcomes, impact, and costs" (Kosecoff & Fink, 1980, p. 20).

Evaluand: Evaluand refers to whatever is being evaluated. If it is a person, it is referred to as an *evaluee* (Scriven, 1981). Nevo (1986) referred to the evaluand as the object of evaluation, that is, "what is 'the thing' that has to be evaluated" (p. 18). According to him, any entity can be an evaluation object. Programs, projects, institutions, curricula, instructional materials, students, faculty, and administrative personnel are examples of evaluation objects in education.

Executive summary: This is a succinctly written form of the major findings, conclusions, and recommendations of the study with less emphasis on description, procedures, designs, and analyses. It is written in non-technical language and is intended for administrators, governing board members, and interested or designated stakeholders. Usually, an executive summary represents an abstract of the final report as well as the shortest and most general form for reporting. It normally consists of between five and ten pages (Wolf, 1990).

Final report: The final report is usually a document which contains the overall results of the study. In addition, it contains conclusions, judgments of the worth of the program, and recommendations about future action. To a certain extent, a final report is a political document (Wolf, 1990).

Formative evaluation: "Evaluation undertaken during the development and implementation of a program" (Craven, 1980, p. 434).

Impact evaluation: The systematic determination of the direct and indirect influence of a program on the participants and/or the larger audience (e.g., communities and organizations).

Issue: "Any statement, proposition, or focus that allows for the presentation of different points of view; any proposition about which reasonable persons may disagree; or any point of contention" (Guba & Lincoln, 1988, p. 34).

Model: "A methodological tool used to guide and focus inquiry" (Borich, 1974, p. 143).

Organizer: "The concerns and issues of audiences or . . . the reactions, motivations, and problems of persons 'in and around' the evaluand" (Guba & Lincoln, 1988, pp. 29-30).

Outcomes: "The full range of program consequences" (Craven, 1980, p. 436) or "resultants of instruction (the output factors in systems terminology)" (Guba & Lincoln, 1988, p. 12).

Portrayal: "A form of description in which the evaluator provides a comprehensive representation of the program so that various audiences may judge for themselves the worth of the program" (Grotelueschen et al. , 1976, p. 110).

Preordinate evaluation: "Evaluations that emphasize program goals as evaluation criteria, using objective tests for data collection, standards or program personnel to judge programs, and research-type reports. Preordinate evaluations are determined by the evaluator early in the evaluation, and imposed on the program based upon an a priori plan" (Stake, 1991, p. 270). In other words, preordinate methods of evaluation are "highly structured approaches" (Popham, 1988, p. 42).

Program evaluation: The systematic evaluation of a specific program to provide information on the full range of the program's short and long-term effects. Its chief focus is on measuring the program's impact (Hatry et al., 1981).

Programmed instruction: The essential feature of programmed instruction is that the trainee is given a piece (module) of instruction, and his knowledge and understanding of the information is then tested through an objective question. The answer to the question determines the next stage of instruction [i.e., either to proceed to the next step, or repeat the previous step, or diverted along a branch (by setting new learning objectives at each stage)]. At intervals, the trainee may be tested for retention of knowledge; if the test is failed, the trainee must again retrace the steps (Hamblin, 1974).

Progress report: "Progress reports usually include a relatively short summary of activities engaged in during a particular time period, a preview of upcoming activities, a statement of problems encountered and/or resolved and, possibly a brief statement of preliminary findings. They are intended to keep administrators and program personnel informed about the progress of evaluation work" (Wolf, 1990, p. 208).

Responsive evaluation: Responsive evaluation is oriented to program activities rather than program goals, it responds to audience information needs rather than predetermined information categories, and considers different values of people interested in the program

when judging its adequacy. Questions and methods are not imposed but emerge from observing the program during the evaluation. Responsive evaluation is opposite of preordinate evaluation (Stake, 1991).

Session: A short presentation on a specific topic, each by a different instructor.

Stakeholders: "Those whose lives are affected by the program and its evaluation" (Weiss, 1991, p. 179).

Summative evaluation: "Evaluation conducted after the program has been in operation for a period of time" (Craven, 1980, p. 434).

Technical appendix: A technical appendix usually consists of a number of tables, and the detailed results of statistical analyses which supply the detailed information that underlies many of the general findings of the study. It sometimes contains discussions of various technical issues and data analysis, along with a description and rationale for how they were resolved (Wolf, 1990).

Training: "A learning process that involves the acquisition of skills, concepts, rules, or attitudes to increase the performance of employees" (Byars & Rue, 1984, p. 156). It changes people from what they were when they reported for work in order to improve their efficiency on the job (Laird, 1985).

Transaction: "The processes of the program" (Craven, 1980, p. 436) or "the encounters that make up the teaching-learning process (the process factors in systems terminology)" (Guba & Lincoln, 1988, p. 12).

Workshop: "An intensive training activity where participants learn primarily by doing. . . . The key idea is heavy participant activity and high interaction, stemming from the use of a good variety of participative training techniques" (Eitington, 1984, pp. 282-283).

Organization of the Dissertation

The dissertation is organized into seven chapters. Chapter 1 gives a preamble of the study. It is organized around eight areas that set the stage for the remainder of the dissertation. These include: introduction, background, purpose and research questions, significance, assumptions, delimitations, limitations, and definition of terms. Chapter 2 is comprised of a review of the literature germane to this study and focuses on the areas of leadership and management; training, education and development; evaluation of training programs; and educational program evaluation. Chapter 3 is comprised of the framework adopted for this study. The fourth chapter is a description of the research design and methodology, including data collection and analyses. Chapter 5 is a critical component of the study and in a sense represents the study's fulcrum. The chapter discusses the findings of the study, especially in response to the research questions regarding stakeholders' opinions about the impact, strengths and weaknesses of the program, including issues and concerns. The summary, conclusions, recommendations, and implications of the study are presented in chapter 6. Finally, chapter 7 provides some reflections in regard to the study, followed by the bibliography and appendices.

Summary

This chapter sets the stage for the study, and outlines the purpose and the research questions. The chapter espouses the absence of formal impact evaluation as a major weakness in REDA's leadership training program to justify the conduct of the study in providing information on the effect of REDA's program on the participants as well as providing cues for improvement of the program. It describes REDA as a private continuing education agency committed to the promotion and development of the human resources potential in Alberta. The significance of the study is detailed in terms of

providing information to enhance the practice of impact evaluation' to enhance the effectiveness of future leadership training programs; and to improve evaluation research.

The chapter also provides a list of assumptions, delimitations and limitations about the study as well as a list of definitions of terms and expressions used in the study. Finally, the chapter provides a guide to the reader about the organization of the chapters contained in the study.

CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

The literature review for this study is presented in four main parts. The first part distinguishes between leadership and management. The second part differentiates among training, education, and development, and presents views about the need for leadership training. The third part provides a review of the literature in respect to evaluation of training programs and particularly impact evaluation. Finally, the fourth part reviews the literature about educational program evaluation as well as provides brief descriptions of some evaluation approaches employed in educational programs.

Leadership Versus Management

This section provides a clarification of the conceptual problems apparent in the use of the words *leadership* and *management.* The literature contains a seemingly endless list of descriptors defining both leadership and management but despite the many attempts to draw the similarities and differences between the two concepts, many scholars, executives of organizations, and especially the stakeholders of REDA's leadership training program are still trapped by the temptation of using both concepts as though they were synonymous or interchangeable. Considering the many meanings given to leadership and management, this section attempts to provide a review of the literature with a view to eliciting some basic similarities and differences inherent in them and, consequently, to justify the essence of leadership training programs in enhancing the leadership potential of every individual.

Historically, leadership is an ageless topic while management (i.e., modern management) is largely a product of the twentieth century, basically created to help instill

a degree of order and consistency in to key dimensions like the quality and profitabiiity of products in complex enterprises or organizations (Kotter, 1990).

Kotter's (1990) impression of both leadership and management (see Figure 2.1) gives a synoptic summary of the comparison between the two. This figure illustrates some of the basic similarities and differences between leadership and management especially in terms of functions and processes. As shown in the figure, both leadership and management are similar, especially in the areas of independent decision-making processes regarding the creation of agendas, developing a network of people, implementing agendas, and accomplishing the agenda. In terms of differences, leadership is a process whose implicit function is constructive or adaptive change. Usually, leadership establishes direction by creating a vision of the future and strategies for producing the changes needed to achieve that vision. It aligns people and influences the creation of teams and coalitions by communicating the direction of change to all the relevant parties so that they understand and believe the vision and strategies. It also involves providing an environment that will inspire and motivate people to overcome major barriers to change by satisfying basic human needs. Management, by contrast, is basically a process which, through the use of more or less scientific techniques and formal authority, produces consistent results, order, and efficiency on important processes including planning, budgeting, organizing, staffing, controlling, and problem-solving. Waldron (1984) defined management as "the process by which people, technology, job tasks and other resources are combined and coordinated so as to effectively achieve organizational objectives" (p. 127).

Today, many schools of thought including Yukl (1989), have concluded that "a person can be a leader without being a manager, and a person can be a manager without leading" (p. 4). Traditionally, managers have been characterized as:

> Unimaginative, problem-solving, controlling, rigid, analytical, orderly-- in essence, as rather tedious and dull individuals. . . Leaders have been depicted as visionary, passionate, creative, goal-oriented, risk-taking,

Management	*Leadership*
Planning and Budgeting—establishing detailed steps and timetables for achieving needed results, and then allocating the resources necessary to make that happen	Establishing Direction—developing a vision of the future, often the distant future, and strategies for producing the changes needed to achieve that vision
Organizing and Staffing—establishing some structure for accomplishing plan requirements, staffing that structure with individuals, delegating responsibility and authority for carrying out the plan, providing policies and procedures to help guide people, and creating methods or systems to monitor implementation	Aligning People—communicating the direction by words and deeds to all those whose cooperation may be needed so as to influence the creation of teams and coalitions that understand the vision and strategies, and accept their validity
Controlling and Problem Solving—monitoring results vs. plan in some detail, identifying deviations, and then planning and organizing to solve these problems	Motivating and Inspiring—energizing people to overcome major political, bureaucratic, and resource barriers to change by satisfying very basic, but often unfulfilled, human needs
Produces a degree of predictability and order, and has the potential of consistently producing key results expected by various stakeholders (e.g., for customers, always being on time; for stockholders, being on budget)	Produces change, often to a dramatic degree, and has the potential of producing extremely useful change (e.g., new products that customers want, new approaches to labor relations that help make a firm more competitive)

Figure 2.1. **Comparing Management and Leadership** from *A force for change: How leadership differs from management* (p. 5) by John P. Kotter, 1990, New York, NY: The Free Press. Copyright c 1990 by John P. Kotter. Reprinted by permission of the publisher.

> flexible and charismatic. In metaphorical terms, manager is *mind* and leader is *soul*. (Capowski, 1994, p. 13)

Another categorization refers to managers as "problem-solvers," and leaders as "change seekers" whose primary objectives are to alter human, economic, and potential relationships (Zaleznik, 1977).

In the work situation, management is primarily concerned with the efficient achievement of organizational goals; hence its basic function is denoted with supervision of workers and resources as well as conflict resolution (Orlosky, McCleary, Shapiro, & Webb, 1984). "It does not necessarily include activities associated with long-range planning, setting goals and objectives, and setting organizational priorities" (Kowalski & Reitzug, 1993, p. 5). On the other hand, leadership broadly includes "influence processes involving determination of the group's or organization's objectives, motivating task behavior in pursuit of these objectives, and influencing group maintenance and culture" (Yukl, 1989, p. 5). Equally important is the fact that "leadership is a group phenomenon. It cannot occur in a vacuum. At least four elements are required for leadership to exist: (1) a group of people, (2) a leader or leaders, (3) a problem and (4) a possible solution to the problem" (Prawl, Medlin, & Gross, 1984, p. 84).

In distinguishing leadership from management, Katz and Kahn (1978) equated leadership with the exertion of influence and management with the mechanical compliance of people with routine directives. Similarly, Burn's (1978) classic leadership typology: *transformational* and *transactional* has been equated with ideal leadership and management--respectively (Bass, 1985, 1990; Rost, 1993). Based on these diverging views about leadership, Bass (1990) concluded that "organizations whose leaders are transactional are less effective than those whose leaders are transformational" (p. 22). Prior to Burn's leadership dichotomy of 1978, many leadership theorists also held the view that leadership and management are two separate concepts. Bennis (1977) argued that leading is different from managing and that many institutions are very well managed

but poorly led. The differences between leading and managing are crucial. These differences were revisited in 1985 by Bennis and Nanus in their book, *Leaders: The strategies for taking charge*. According to these writers,

> The problem with many organizations, and especially the ones that are failing, is that they tend to be overmanaged and underled. . . . They may excel in the ability to handle the daily routine, yet never question whether the routine should be done at all. There is a profound difference between management and leadership, and both are important. To manage means to bring about, to accomplish, to have charge of a responsibility for, to conduct. Leading is influencing, guiding in direction, course, action, opinion. The distinction is crucial. Managers are people who do things right and leaders are people who do the right thing The differences may be summarized as activities of vision and judgment--effectiveness versus activities of mastering routines--efficiency. (p. 21)

From the perspective of management and leadership roles, Kouzes and Posner (1987) made a distinction between the process of managing and the process of leading. They believe that "managers get other people to do, but leaders get other people to want to do" (p. 25). After several years of observation and conversation with ninety of the most effective, successful leaders in American organizations, Bennis (1990) was able to identify four leadership competencies evident in these organizations: "management of attention, management of meaning, management of trust, and management of self" (p. 19). According to Bennis, leaders manage attention through visions or intentions that have positive outcomes, goals, or directions. Meanings are created through communication of visions and alignment of people with them. Trust is achieved through reliability or "constancy" of behavior. Management of self is achieved through the leader's ability of knowing his or her skills and developing them effectively.

Clark and Clark (1994) claimed that the words *management* and *executive* are frequently used to refer to lower and top level positions within hierarchical organizations. They argued that since leaders may emerge in any level of an organization or be absent from any organization, executives may not necessarily be referred to as leaders. On the other hand, management simply refers to "any system of structure and control that often

leads to the timely accomplishment of specific tasks within defined resource limits" (p. 20). They, however, concluded that one main advantage of leadership behavior over management practices relates to its positive effect on group processes and performance. According to these authors, "leadership refers to the highest use of human capabilities in the pursuit of goals" (p. 20).

As a corollary to the ambiguity inherent in differentiating between leadership and management, Foster (1989) contended that "when leadership is separated from a simple legitimation of a managerial philosophy, it then adopts certain characteristics which particularly define it as a subject of attention. These serve as distinguishing criteria for leadership, whether practiced in business, education, the arts or elsewhere" (p. 50). From this standpoint, Foster (1989) postulated four criteria for the definition and practice of leadership, that is,

-leadership must be critical (i.e., analytical/one that comments on present and former constructions of reality);
-leadership must be transformative (i.e., oriented toward social change);
-leadership must be educative (i.e., must be reflective and visionary); and
-leadership must be ethical (i.e., focus oriented toward democratic values within the community).

Training, Education, and Development

The words *training*, *education*, and *development* have been used interchangeably by many human resource developers to describe the nature of the teaching-learning transactions they undertake to impart desirable competencies (e.g., knowledge, skills and attitudes) in individuals. Hitherto, there was little agreement as to whether, or how, these concepts should be differentiated (Darkenwald & Merriam, 1982). Before examining the impact of a training program it is necessary to define and distinguish training from the closely related concepts of learning, such as education and development.

Nadler (1982) grouped the three terms under the broader concept of *human resources development* which he defined as "a series of organized activities, conducted within a specified time and designed to bring about behavioral change" (p.121). Nadler used the time dimension as a distinguishing factor among the terms *training*, *education*, and *development*. According to him, the term *training* includes those learning activities "designed to improve performance on the job the employee is presently doing or is being hired to do" (p. 122) while *education* prepares an employee for a place in the organization different from the one now held. *Development* is an integrated entity for producing a flexible work force that can "move with the organization as it develops, changes, and grows" (p. 123). In other words, training is learning related to the present job; education is learning related to preparing the individual for a different but identified job and development refers to learning related to the growth of the individual but not to a specific present or future job (Nadler & Nadler, 1990).

While using the terms *training* and *education* synonymously, Watson (1979), in his book on *Management Development and Training*, argued that "people act as integrated beings, whose knowledge, skills, and attitudes are interrelated and inseparable. To make a distinction between training and education is to ignore these interrelationships" (p. 116). However, he distinguished between *training* (formal classroom learning activities) and *development* (all learning experiences, both on and off the job, including formal classroom (training). Based on precision and program content or course, Buckley and Caple (1990) differentiated between training and education. In terms of precision, they posited that training involves the acquisition of behaviors and information (i.e., facts, ideas, etc.) that are more easily defined in a specific job context. Training is more job-oriented than person-oriented. By contrast, education is a broader process of change, more person-oriented and its objectives are less amenable to precision. From the perspective of program content, they opined that the aim of training is usually to provide knowledge, skills and attitudes which are needed to perform specific tasks

while education usually aims to provide more theoretical and conceptual frameworks to stimulate an individual's analytical and critical abilities. On a time scale, Buckley and Caple (1990) claimed that training is associated with changes which are observable more in the immediate and short terms, whereas the changes brought about by education and development manifest usually in the longer term and, possibly, in a more profound way.

Darkenwald and Merriam (1982) referred to *development* as the term that connotes both the formal and informal processes by which individuals learn, while, from an organizational perspective, Pattern (cited in Darkenwald & Merriam, 1982) defined training as the "formal procedure which is used to facilitate employee learning so that their resultant behavior contributes to the organization's objectives" (p. 65).

Laird (1985) asserted that training is meant to provide a match between two inputs to organizational effectiveness: people and technology. According to him, "Since organizations can rarely secure people who are, at the time of employment total masters of their unique requirements, organizations need a subsystem called 'training' to help them master the technology of their tasks. (p. 7). Training is the process of changing the uninformed or unskilled employee to an informed and skilled employee, he added. Similar to Laird's stance, Dimock (1987a) claimed that "training is a major component in the development of an organization and helping it to deal with social, organizational and technological change" (p. 1).

In some Canadian government departments, a distinction is made between training and development. They refer to training as a form of learning activity which prepares people to perform their present jobs, and development as that learning activity which prepares them for future jobs. Other departments of government believe development is part of training (Kernaghan & Siegel, 1987). Still, in Canada, the federal government defines training as "any learning activity that contributes to the acquisition by employees of knowledge, skills and experience that helps them to do their present jobs efficiently or prepares them to assume other responsibilities" (Government of Canada,

Treasury Board Secretariat, 1982). This latter definition of training describes REDA's leadership training program essentially because most of the participants are already on the job and attend REDA's leadership training program to acquire knowledge, skills, and attitudes with which to meet the demands of existing needs or other positions in their organizations.

Regardless of the terms used, the three concepts "training," "education," and "development" embody some form of learning activities leading to a temporary or permanent behavior modification. Since "any training is designed to change something about the person being trained. . . " (Havelock & Havelock, 1973, p. 43), this study aimed to determine the extent to which REDA's leadership program has been successful in changing the leadership competencies of the participants.

Clearly, leadership is an interactive process that influences, motivates, and elicits human potentialities in the pursuit of group goals or interests. As human beings, we tend to influence or motivate spontaneously or otherwise, the behavior of others. But how many of such influences elicit a synergy that results in outcomes greater than those from individual efforts? In other words, how effective are our leadership capabilities? This question leads us into the discussion of the variety of reasons that could help us understand why every individual or employee (whether new or old, manager or director, etc.) should strive to improve or develop his/her leadership capabilities through leadership training programs such as REDA's.

Why Training for Leadership?

The complexity in today's organizations necessitates the use of different leadership skills. There is no gainsaying the fact that in the day-to-day running of organizations, we often come across leaders or managers whose skills are limited, and those whose skills are old-fashioned. According to Capowski (1994), "What many experts are saying is that yesterday's leader was more of a manager. And what is called for today is a true leader" (pp. 12-13).

Perhaps because of the belief that leaders are made and not born, it is held that certain skills associated with leadership, can be learned, and improved through training and education (Prawl et al., 1984). According to Herman (1990), "There is an obvious pop culture in management today. But beneath all the rhetoric and clichés lie some real needs for training, education, and development programs for all kinds and levels of management" (p. 15.4). Bolman and Deal (1991) have recognized the efficacy of training and retraining as powerful levers for change. According to them, training helps people to develop new skills to fit new roles, and through training, managers' ability to change organizations can be improved significantly.

In a survey of 1,000 senior executives of US corporations in 1988, Kotter (1990) found that about two-thirds of those surveyed reported they had too many people who are strong at management but not at leadership. These data strongly suggest that "most firms today have insufficient leadership, and that many corporations are 'over-managed' and 'under-led' (p. 10). As claimed by Capowski (1994), the truth is that:

> there are probably no fewer business leaders today than there were 30 or 50 years ago. Rather than a shortage of good people, the problem may be a lack of the right kind: people with the skills necessary to drive companies forward in a thoroughly different and rapidly changing business world. (p. 10)

Little wonder that the difficulties encountered by most organizations are blamed on ineffective leadership. This finding implies the imminent need for leadership training programs to enhancing the leadership skills of those who are at the corridor of power and those who aspire to be. As claimed by Herman (1990),

> Not all managers are leaders, and not all leaders are managers. To be effective, however, every manager must display some leadership qualities. . . . A manager must have group skills to ensure appropriate and effective use of human resources, especially in group settings such as meetings. Further, a manager needs to take a leadership role in planning, delegating, and coaching. Competency is needed to recruit, interview, hire, train, delegate, evaluate, counsel, and sometimes terminate subordinates. (Herman, 1990, pp. 15.6-7)

In order to meet the challenge of today's rapid organizational changes, the need for fine-tuning of skills possessed by employees (new or old) becomes necessary. As claimed by Nadler (1990), it is possible for a good employee to lose some skills over a period of time and therefore not work up to standard. "Without training, it is possible that the employee will fall further and further below standard. This can result in the firing of a good employee when all that was required was training" (p. 1.20), he added.

For the practising executives or those who already are in leadership positions, the only way to change their leadership behavior is "to learn how to lead differently" (Belasco & Stayer, 1993, p. 82). Using the "head-buffalo" and "lead-goose" metaphors in the "Leading the Journey" (LTJ) leadership system, Belasco and Stayer (1993) explicated the importance of leadership training programs in facilitating the transition from old to new leadership paradigms. As indicated by these writers, buffalo are noted to be loyal to one leader and they always expect the leader to show them what to do. "When the leader isn't around, they wait for him to show up. That's why the early settlers could decimate the buffalo herds so easily by killing the lead buffalo. The rest of the herd stood around, waiting for their leader to lead them, and were slaughtered" (Belasco & Stayer, 1993, p. 17). In a "lead-goose" organization, by contrast, the geese fly in a "V" formation, the leadership changing frequently with different geese taking the lead. Every goose is responsible for changing roles whenever necessary, alternating as a leader, a follower, or as a scout. When the task changes, the geese are responsible for changing the structure of the group to accommodate the change: the geese fly in a "V" but land in waves. In other words, in a buffalo-like organization, there is a lot of "waiting around." People do only what they are told to do, whereas in a goose-like organization, everyone could become a leader.

In reality, to become a leader requires a lot of conscious efforts of which training and education are the most salient. In realization of this fact, many executives have placed a premium on training as a "quick fix" for enhancing the leadership skills of their

staff (Kotter, 1988; Bolman & Deal, 1991) and perhaps for transforming managers into leaders (Herman, 1990; Belasco & Stayer, 1993).

Various studies, including those undertaken by Bergen (1972); Stogdill (1974); Pareek and Rao (1981); Dimock (1987b); Yukl, (1989); and Clark and Clark (1994) have long established the fact that leadership and managerial capabilities can be developed and improved through training and other educational programs.

In support of the need for leadership training, particularly from the perspective of agricultural development, the Rural Education and Development Association, on November 7, 1976, presented the following rationale to the Alberta Agricultural Research Trust:

> With the ever-increasing complexities of agricultural production, processing, and marketing, the need for informed, skilled and sophisticated leadership continues to escalate. Threatening world famine and predicted food shortages increase the pressure for efficiency in production. As always, and perhaps as never before the agricultural leader needs ongoing and current information re all aspects of agriculture. At the same time he strives to develop some marketing system which will provide him with a decent return on his labor and investment. This means experimentation with new organizational structures as he seeks to gain control of his marketing problems. Too often he finds himself thrust by democracy into positions of power and judgment for which he has little or no training. So that his educational needs become multi-dimensional: for factual, informational input; for the skills of leadership; for the ability to make decisions based on analytical evaluation of available information. (REDA, 1979, p. 1)

In the current study, the importance of leadership training for a more effective and efficient agricultural production has been viewed as a necessity by some of the farm executives interviewed. This view was supported by such comments as:

> We must have qualified farm leaders who can stand up in front of a group and present information in an orderly, understandable, down-to-earth fashion. If that doesn't happen, I think agriculture is going to go backwards. I think we've got a role to play, a vital role indeed.
>
> Looking at the Boards of Directors. . . I believe that we have very weak leadership, weak leadership for the simple reason of the lack of training. Some of these people have not participated in this program and should

> have. I think there is going to be a time when it really should be mandatory that they attend this type of program.

The realization of the importance of leadership for increased effectiveness and efficiency in human endeavors including farming makes it all the more important that we look to leadership training as an indispensable tool.

Evaluation of Training Programs

As indicated by Goad (1982), "When the last learner has left the training area, the last part of the trainer's job is just beginning. Now is the time to perform the step that completes the training cycle: the evaluation. Although it is not the most enjoyable part of the training function, evaluation could well be the most important" (p. 159).

The issue of evaluating a training program has remained the subject of considerable scrutiny over the years (Kirkpatrick, 1987). Perhaps no issue in the training field creates as much controversy as the subject of evaluation. The bone of contention has always been centered on the best method of evaluating a training program. Programmers or trainers rarely agree on a universal approach to evaluation (Grotoleuschen, 1980; Stake, 1981; Joint Committee on Standards for Educational Evaluation, 1981; Cronbach, 1982; Brandenburg, 1987; Sullivan & Decker, 1988). The situation is that the intent of evaluation is encouraged, but the practice has not kept pace with prescription (Kirkpatrick, 1987).

It is ironic at a time when the proliferation of training programs would seem to dictate a more critical role for evaluation, that quite the opposite seems to be the order of the day (Kirkpatrick, 1987). Apparently, the inclusion of evaluation at the top echelon of a training program is merely a "white elephant" in a metaphoric sense. A common remark from trainers is "We know our program works." As explained by Sullivan and Decker (1988), a program is reviewed often at the corporate level and if it looks good the

organization uses it. The same programs are used again and again until someone in a position of authority decides that the programs no longer work or, more commonly, attendance decreases. These writers opined that training programs are rarely evaluated to determine whether they have caused a change in behavior or in some organizational variable.

Discussing the principles of good training design, Havelock and Havelock (1973) stated that good training programs are relevant to specific objectives. The objectives, in turn, should be relevant to some real social needs, the trainees' back home situations and, the needs, wishes, and background of the trainee himself. However, the determination of the conformity and compatibility of training to the objectives, needs, applicability, and experience of trainees is what evaluation is all about. The argument is, if "training emphasizes (1) the development of a skill and (2) learning for a definite purpose, characteristically associated with the goals of an organization" (Mayo & Dubois, 1987, p. 2), then there must be a measure of the participant's acquisition of the new skill and its usefulness or applicability to a particular organization. According to Byars and Rue (1984), "When the results of a training program are evaluated, a number of benefits accrue. Less effective programs can be withdrawn to save time and effort. Weaknesses within established programs can be identified and remedied" (p. 157).

Many problems in the training profession have been traced to a lack of adequate evaluation of trainees before, during, and after the training programs (Phillips, 1983; Courtenay & Holt, 1987). Often the literature is void of useful and practical information on training evaluation (Kirkpatrick, 1975; Phillips, 1983). As claimed by Brandenburg (1987), "No universally accepted model for evaluating training exists, nor are there generally accepted modes of operation or behavior . . ." (p. 36). In a series of articles published in the *Training and Development Journal* between 1959 and 1960, Kirkpatrick (1975) summarized the techniques for evaluating training programs into four segments:

1. **Reaction.** Evaluation in terms of reaction relates to the measurement of how well the participants liked the training.
2. **Learning.** Evaluation in terms of learning relates to the measurement of what principles, facts, and techniques were understood and absorbed by the participants. This is not concerned with the on-the-job application of the concepts learned.
3. **Behavior.** Evaluation in terms of behavior relates to the measurement of the changes in the behavior of the participants as a result of the training.
4. **Results.** Evaluation in terms of results relates to the measurement of the accomplishments of the training.

Kirkpatrick (1975) assumed that a training director cannot borrow evaluation results from another, he can, however, borrow evaluation techniques. With these articles, Kirkpatrick hoped to stimulate training directors to increase their efforts in evaluating training programs.

Eitington's (1984) classic four-step model is descriptive of a complete training cycle: diagnose or determine need (look for difficulties or deficiencies, that point up that training effort is in order); design or develop program (plan and design a course or program to meet that need); deliver or present programs (use training methods in the most effective way possible); and discern differences or measure training results (i.e., evaluation of the training impacts). In other words, the differences made in terms of job performance of the trainees should be determined.

Foci of Impact Evaluation

The concept "impact evaluation" means different things to different people. Many of the respondents interviewed in this study identified impact evaluation with effect, outcome, or result and used effectiveness evaluation to refer to the determination of achievement or effectiveness of REDA's program in regard to the attainment of a program's goals and objectives. Since the meanings of impact and effectiveness evaluations, especially as used in this study, go beyond those ascribed to them by the respondents, it is most appropriate to clarify the two concepts.

According to Lambert and Prieur (1992a), the word impact originated from the Latin verb *impingere*, which means to thrust or drive against. "Impact also designates the effect of strong action. In the latter case, it suggests the decisive influence of one thing on another, including foreseen and unforeseen effects" (p. 3).

Patton (1982) distinguished between *effectiveness evaluation* and *impact evaluation*. According to him,

> Effectiveness evaluation sometimes refers to a narrow focus on relative goal attainment; at other times it is used in a way that refers to the overall operations and processes of a program. Impact evaluation is sometimes synonymous with outcomes evaluation, implying an assessment of stated goals; at other times it is meant to include attention to unanticipated or unstated goals; and on other occasions it refers to measures of larger community impact . . . . (p. 48)

In other words, while effectiveness evaluation answers the question: "To what extent is the program effective in attaining its goals?", impact evaluation responds to the question: "What are the direct and indirect program effects on the larger community of which it is a part?"

Differences between effectiveness evaluation and impact evaluation have also been noted by House (1980), and Lambert and Prieur, (1992a & 1992b). While effectiveness evaluation is used in "determining whether a program has produced the expected results" (Lambert & Prieur, 1992b, p. 6), impact evaluation provides information that tells whether a program produces change in the desired direction (House 1980). Lambert and Prieur (1992b) went further to explain that:

> impact evaluation is an extension of effectiveness evaluation. It starts with information obtained on outputs produced and objectives attained and focuses on the impact and effects of action, that is to say on all other results, expected and unexpected, arising from a particular action. The impacts may be studied at various levels. They may include, for example, impact on target groups, on organizational objectives and programs, on government priorities, and so on. This kind of evaluation also means determining whether the program completes, strengthens, overlaps, duplicates or works at cross-purposes with other programs. (p. 6)

In the simplest and most ideal sense, Schalock and Thornton (1988) indicated that the impacts of a program are estimated by comparing how a program outcome differs from what would be the case in the absence of that program.

From these definitions and explanations, it is obvious that a considerable overlapping exists between effectiveness evaluation and impact evaluation. For example, the literature includes a similar range of descriptors for both effectiveness and impact evaluation. While concepts such as results evaluation, outputs evaluation, objectives evaluation, and outcomes evaluation have been used to describe effectiveness evaluation (Kirkpatrick, 1975; Knox, 1979; Lambert & Prieur, 1992b), concepts such as summative, outcome, and effectiveness evaluations have also been used to describe impact evaluation (Patton, 1982).

Perhaps because impact evaluation focuses on the long-term results of a program, many evaluators tend to be apprehensive about the difficulty inherent in determining the impact of a program from the standpoint that long-term results of a program are greatly affected by other variables (e.g., effects of other training programs, on the job experience, incidental learning, etc.). Nevertheless, impact evaluations "are aimed at determining program results and effects, especially for the purposes of making major decisions about program continuation, expansion, reduction, and funding" (Patton, 1982, p. 44). Schalock and Thornton (1988) also indicated that impact evaluations help to confirm the accomplishments of a program as well as influence the acceptability of a proposal for funding. For example, "In regard to proposal writing, a good setup and rationale that links specific processes to desired outcomes will communicate to potential funders that this person is truly in control, which should increase your funding chances" (Schalock & Thornton, 1988, pp. 139-140). The justification of a program's impact communicates the passing of the mother-in-law test, they added.

The fact that "the earliest reports of leadership training in industry and the armed services were concerned primarily with statements regarding the need for and value of

training, descriptions of programs, and discussions of problems" (Stogdill, 1974, p. 177), suggests that the need for leadership training is not new. Perhaps what is new is the assessment of the impact of such training programs. Considering the increased demand for effective leadership in organizations and the recent proliferation of leadership training programs, it is necessary to demonstrate that change in leadership behavior is related to the training program. Moreover, the fact that "leadership is treated as something identifiable, tangible, measurable, and efficacious" (Birnbaum, 1988, p. 21) justifies the need for an impact evaluation of a leadership training program.

For all practical purposes, impact evaluations are essential when there is an interest in either comparing different programs or testing the utility of new efforts to ameliorate a particular community or organizational problem (Rossi & Freeman, 1982). As indicated by Rossi and Freeman (1982),

> An impact assessment gauges the extent to which a program causes change in the desired direction. It implies that there is a set of specified, operationally defined goals and criteria of success. A program that has impact is one that achieves some movement or change toward the desired objectives. (p. 38)

According to these authors, to conduct an impact evaluation of a training program, therefore, the evaluator needs to demonstrate in a persuasive way that the changes are a function of the program. Rossi and Freeman (1982) posited two main points in the total evaluation process at which impact assessment is especially important. The first relates to testing of new, proposed programs or proposed changes in existing programs, in order to provide definitive estimates of program effects. The second is in regard to reviewing existing or on-going programs, even when the programs appear to be working well, in order to provide plausible estimates of how well the program is fulfilling its designated purposes.

Educational Program Evaluation

The history of evaluation dates back to 2000 B. C. "when the emperor of China instituted proficiency requirements for his public officials, to be demonstrated in formal tests" (Guba & Lincoln 1981, p. 1). However, "formal evaluations of educational and social programs were almost nonexistent until the mid-nineteenth century" (Worthen & Sanders, 1987, p. 12).

For a long time, the absence of a definitive history of program evaluation was highly conspicuous (Madaus, Scriven, & Stufflebeam, 1983). Proponents of evaluation differed among themselves as to the what, why, and how of an educational program. Probably because an awareness of the growth and development of program evaluation presupposes a clearer understanding of its importance, Madaus et al. (1983) have endeavored to categorize the growth and developmental stages of program evaluation into six main periods. They described those periods as the Age of Reform, 1800-1900 (i.e., the period of Industrial Revolution with all its attendant economic and technological changes. The period was marked by continued attempts to reform educational and social programs and agencies); the Age of Efficiency and Testing, 1900-1930, (i.e., the period when the idea of scientific management became a powerful force in school administration and focus was on school and/or teacher efficiency using criteria such as expenditures, dropout rate, and promotion rates, etc.); the Tylerian Age, 1930-1945, (i.e., the period of assessing the extent to which valued objectives had been accomplished as part of an instructional program); the Age of Innocence/Ignorance, 1946-1957, (i.e., the period when exorbitant consumption and widespread waste of natural resources were practised without any apparent concern or thought that one day these resources would be depleted); the Age of Expansion, 1958-1972, (i.e., the period of increasing public demand for justification for and/or accountability of projects and programs funded by government); and finally the Age of Professionalism, 1973 to the present (i.e., the period of formal recognition of evaluation as a field with competent trained personnel, and widespread

quality publications). According to Madaus et al. (1983), this historical documentation of the trend in the growth and development of program evaluation provides background information for research, training, and financial support for the emerging field.

Berk (1981) noted that during the 1950s, there were numerous large-scale evaluations of social action programs in public housing, delinquency prevention, psychotherapeutic treatments, and the like but educational program evaluations were rare. The challenge posed to American education at the instance of the Russian Sputnik launch on October 4, 1957 perhaps led to the rapid growth in educational evaluations and evaluation approaches in the 1960s (Craven, 1980; Guba & Lincoln, 1981, 1988; Worthen & Sanders, 1987). The American civil rights movement and the massive federal projects that followed in its wake to increase minority student access to education, fight poverty, reduce crime, control disease, and rebuild cities in the 1960s also contributed to the growth of evaluation (Craven, 1980).

Berk (1981) indicated that the greatest single boost to educational evaluation in the 1960s was the US. Congress's passage of the "Elementary and Secondary Education Act" (ESEA), in 1965. House (1986), claimed that "this requirement engendered a flood of evaluation activities" (p. 5). The Act required that all state and local education agencies evaluate the effectiveness of their programs. According to Guba and Lincoln (1981), "It seemed so important to members of Congress that the impact of their new funding programs be assessed that they mandated evaluation for virtually every authorized activity" (p. 8). Wholey and White (1973) asserted that a major impact of this funding and mandated local evaluation was increased evaluation credibility and acceptance. The 1960s also witnessed the emergence of a new perspective on the roles of evaluation research. Scriven (1967) labelled the two basic roles of educational evaluation as formative (i.e., evaluations conducted during the implementation of a program for improvement purposes), and summative (i.e., evaluations conducted after the completion of a program for accountability and judgmental purposes). As posited by Popham (1988),

"Although educational evaluators can deal with a variety of educational entities, such as appraising the quality of a set of educational objectives, most educational evaluators spend at least 90 percent of their time in formatively or summatively appraising educational programs" (p. 16). This expansion in the field of evaluation extended to the early part of the 1970s.

The period after 1970 witnessed increasing demands for systematic evaluation. One of the most obvious developmental efforts in the practice and study of evaluation in the latter part of the 1970s was the improvement of evaluation through a set of standards. Under the chairmanship of Daniel L. Stufflebeam, the Joint Committee (1981) recommended 30 standards which are grouped into four main categories: utility standards (intended to ensure that evaluation serves practical information needs of stakeholders), feasibility standards (intended to ensure that evaluation is realistic and prudent), propriety standards (intended to ensure that evaluation is conducted legally, rationally/ethically), and accuracy standards (intended to ensure that evaluation reveals and conveys technically adequate information about the object of evaluation).

In recent years, the key impetus to the practice of a more professional evaluation has been attributed to the federal legislation mandating it and supplying funding for it (Shadish, Cook, & Leviton, 1991). As indicated by Posavac and Carey (1985), "Today innovative programs as well as expansions of standard services can seldom be funded without some means of demonstrating that the costs of the service are justified by the improved state of the clientele" (p. 6). Kosecoff and Fink (1982) asserted that "with the proliferation of human services programs from World War II through the 1960s, government and concerned citizens began to request systematic, data-based evaluations of the merits of these programs" (p. 19).

Posavac and Carey (1985) contended that the difficulty encountered in describing the intended outcomes of human services organizations as compared to those of product-oriented organizations is another reason for the growth in the evaluation of people-

oriented service. According to these authors, "In some human services, the nature of the products is as difficult to describe as are the methods of assessing their quality" (p. 7). The question, therefore, is "How do we know that a trainee or participant has obtained what a program was designed to offer?" Or, "How do we assess the contribution of the training program on the differences in knowledge, skills and attitudes as manifested in the performance of the participant after the training?"

Other than the traditional input-output evaluations, today's evaluation can be "studied from a variety of approaches, including measurement, learning, curriculum, instruction, counseling, administration, organizations, values, and politics" (Glasman, 1986, p. 1). According to Posavac and Carey (1985), the types of human service programs requiring evaluations include health care, criminal justice, educational, industry and business, and public administration.

Purpose of Program Evaluation

Perhaps because human behavior is adaptive only when people are provided with feedback from the environment, the only one major purpose for program evaluation is to provide information in social systems (Posavac & Carey, 1985). Although this purpose is often broken down into several subpurposes, "most evaluators subscribe to the idea that providing feedback to organizations will help those organizations meet the needs of their clients and remain effective and vital" (Posavac & Carey, 1985, p. 18). In most cases, reasons for conducting program evaluations include:

-Fulfillment of accreditation requirements
-Accounting for funds
-Answering requests for information
-Making administrative decisions
-Assisting staff in program development
-Learning about unintended effects of programs. (Posavac & Carey, 1985, p. 11)

Each of these reasons is related to the mission or goal of a program and may serve the purpose for a particular evaluation study. Sometimes the reason is related to specific

stakeholders' interests in the program. For example, policymakers may need impact evaluation results to justify expansion of programs in the face of persistent competition for funds and the political pressures of various interest groups, while program administrators may need impact evaluation results to learn how to fine-tune their programs and increase their efficacy and efficiency (Rossi & Freeman, 1982). Hatry, Wertz, and Henderson (1981) argued that the purpose of evaluation should be to determine the degree to which a given activity has been effective and how successful it has been in terms of the process and the product or outcome. According to them,

> Unless the processes are examined, there is no way of determining how it [a given activity] can be improved to enhance its impact. Furthermore, when a particular curriculum development or inservice activity has been found to produce a very effective outcome, the evaluation effort needs to attempt to determine the factors that brought about this result. Conversely, when an activity is found to be inadequately implemented or to produce unsatisfactory outcomes, the evaluation effort needs to probe to determine what possible impediments are deterring its potential impact. (p. 118)

Grotelueschen (1980) claimed that "while specific evaluation purposes may vary, the general goal of evaluation is to ascertain the worth of something" (p. 95). Accordingly, "evaluation may thus serve the purposes of program planning, policy making, program improvement, or program justification or accountability. Evaluation activities may also entail documenting the history and impact of a program" (Grotelueschen, 1980, p. 96). However, whatever purpose is served by an evaluation should be influenced by the values and/or needs as perceived by different audiences (Scriven, 1967; Stake, 1975b, 1991; Cronbach, 1991; Wholey, 1991)

The Government of Canada defined program evaluation as "the periodic, objective review of a program to determine, in light of present circumstance, the adequacy of its objectives, its design and results both intended and unintended" (Corbeil, 1989, p. 3). As such, departments embarking on program evaluation are expected to consider answering the following questions:

(1) Is the program still relevant and plausible in terms of its mandate? Present government objectives? Present external environment?
(2) What have been the effects of the program?
(3) How well has the program achieved its objectives?
(4) Are there better ways of achieving the program's results? Alternative programs? Changes in program delivery or design? (Corbeil, 1989, p. 3)

Although REDA is a non-government organization, this definition and expectations seem to fit the program under study.

Given that programs do not exist or operate in a vacuum, they affect and are affected by forces including social, political, and economic institutions and activities. According to Shadish et al. (1991), "Program evaluation assumes that social problem solving can be improved by incremental improvements in existing programs, better design of new programs, or terminating bad programs and replacing them with better ones. If these conditions do not hold, evaluation cannot achieve its purpose" (p. 37).

Evaluation Approaches

Following the Russian Sputnik of 1957, the application of the Objective Model of evaluation to improve the course content of various national educational programs in the United States proved inadequate (Guba & Lincoln, 1988). This perhaps led to the proliferation of evaluation approaches.

As asserted by Kitto (cited in Barak & Breier, 1990), "Conducting educational evaluation is not new but can be traced to antiquity" (p. 1). They added, "What is new is the systematic and periodic application of modern evaluative techniques to educational programs" (Barak & Breier, 1990, p. 1). Today, the literature contains many approaches regarding the conduct of inquiry, review, or evaluation. As claimed by Nevo (1986), "Many of those approaches have been unduly referred to as *models* . . . in spite of the fact that none of them includes a sufficient degree of complexity and completeness that might be suggested by the term *model* " (p. 15). Cronbach (1982), cautioned that too much emphasis on model building could be dangerous as evaluators are prone to making a mis-match between ends and means by forcing a set of evaluation objectives to fit a

particular model. In Stake's (1981) opinion, evaluation models should be used only as framework or guidelines to aid investigation or data collection in regard to specific problems.

Through critical reviews of the evaluation literature, attempts have been made by various authorities (such as Popham, 1975; Stake, 1975a; Guba & Lincoln, 1981; Stufflebeam, & Webster, 1983; Worthen & Sanders, 1987) to put some order into the classification of the burgeoning evaluation approaches. According to Nevo (1986), those classifications were based on a somewhat holistic approach by placing each evaluation model as a whole in one of the labeled categories with some other models. In other words, these labeled categories constitute the basis for evaluation designs. Guba and Lincoln (1988) referred to such categorizing labels as *organizers* and asserted that evaluation models are differentiated on the basis of their organizers.

Nevo (1986) revised Stufflebeam's list of eight questions to be addressed in any attempt to conceptualize evaluation and extended it to ten major dimensions which represent the major issues addressed by the most prominent evaluation approaches in education:

> How is evaluation defined?
> What are the functions of evaluation?
> What are the objectives of evaluation?
> What kinds of information should be collected regarding each object?
> What criteria should be used to judge the merit and worth of an evaluation object?
> Who should be served by an evaluation?
> What is the process of doing an evaluation?
> What methods of enquiry should be used in evaluation?
> Who should do evaluation?
> By what standards should evaluation be judged? (p. 16)

According to Nevo (1986), the usefulness of these questions is that they "could provide a framework to delineate research variables for an empirical study of evaluation" (p. 27).

House (1983) claimed that the major elements pertinent to understanding the models are their ethics, their epistemology, and their political ramifications. According

to him, "The current models all derive from the philosophy of liberalism, with deviations from the mainstream being responsible for differences in approaches. The ethics, epistemology, and politics are not entirely separable from each other" (p. 47). While valuing freedom of choice as fundamental in evaluation models, House (1983) likened the choice of evaluation models to "a free marketplace of ideas in which consumers will 'buy' the best ideas" (p. 49). The assumption is that competition of ideas would always strengthen the truth and that knowledge would make people happy or better in some way. With a view to guiding the choice of a model, House (1983) compiled a taxonomy of major evaluation approaches (see Figure 2.2). The taxonomy provides an efficient way of reviewing the literature on evaluation models, especially in terms of their proponents, major audiences, assumptions, methodology, outcome and the typical research questions associated with them. House's eight categories are described briefly as follows:

Systems analysis. This model concentrates on the effectiveness and efficiency of a program through a quantitative measure of its inputs and outcomes. Grounded in social science techniques, systemic evaluations prefer planned variations of program to natural variations, and produce valid and reliable evidence which can be duplicated by others (House, 1980). "Cost-benefit analysis of comparative programs is the hallmark of this approach" (House, 1980, p. 25). According to Synder (1967), system analysis cherishes explicitness of an evaluation. It specifies all assumptions and criteria used and delineates areas of uncertainty.

Goal-based/objective model. This model "conceives of evaluation chiefly as the determination of the degree to which an instructional program's goals were achieved" (Popham, 1988, p. 24). This approach, "often called the objectives model, has been enormously influential, so much so that many claim that it is the only way to develop

Model	*Proponents*	*Major Audiences*	*Assumes Consensus on*	*Methodology*	*Outcome*	*Typical Questions*
Systems Analysis	Rivlin	Economists, managers	Goals; known cause & effect; quantified variables.	PPBS; linear programming; planned variation; cost benefit analysis.	Efficiency	Are the expected effects achieved? Can the effects be achieved more economically? What are the most *efficient* programs?
Behavioral Objectives	Tyler, Popham	Managers, psychologists	Prespecified objectives; quantified outcome variables	Behavioral Objectives; achievement tests	Productivity; accountability	Are the students achieving the objectives? Is the teacher producing?
Decision Making	Stufflebeam, Alkin	Decision-makers, esp. administrators	General goals; criteria	Surveys, questionnaires, interviews; natural variation	Effectiveness; quality control.	Is the program effective? What parts are effective?
Goal Free	Scriven	Consumers	Consequences; criteria	Bias control; logical analysis; modus operandi	Consumer choice; social utility.	What are *all* the effects?
Art Criticism	Eisner, Kelly	Connoisseurs, Consumers	Critics, standards,	Critical review	Improved Standards	Would a critic approve this program?
Accreditation	North Central Association	Teachers, public	Criteria, panel, procedures	Review by panel; self-study	Professional acceptance	How would professionals rate this program?
Adversary	Owens, Levine, Wolf	Jury	Procedures and judges	Quasi-legal procedures	Resolution	What are the arguments for and against the program?
Transaction	Stake, Smith, MacDonald, Parlett-Hamilton	Client, Practitioners	Negotiations; activities	Case studies, interviews, observations	Understanding; diversity	What does the program look like to different people?

Figure 2.2. **A Taxonomy of Major Evaluation Models** from Assumptions underlying evaluation models by House, E. R. (1983). In G. F. Madaus, M. S. Scriven, & D. L. Stufflebeam (Eds.). *Evaluation models: Viewpoints on educational and human services evaluation* (p. 48). Boston, MA: Kluwer-Nijhoff. Copyright c 1983 by Kluwer-Nijhoff Publishing. Reprinted by permission of the publisher.

curricula" (Hopkins, 1989, p. 6). Some evaluation proponents refer to this approach as the "Tyler Model" of evaluation, named after its originator. While applying this concept to the conduct of the Eight-Year Study of the college performance of students (i.e., students prepared in progressive high schools versus the college performance of students prepared in more conventional high school) "Tyler's fundamental strategy was to determine the degree to which the objectives of an educational program had been attained" (Popham, 1988, p. 2).

Decision-making model. This model requires the structuring of evaluation according to the decision to be made. A popular example of this approach is the Context-Input-Process-Product (CIPP) Model. As an alternative to the traditional view of using evaluations for witch-hunting or accountability purposes, the emergence of the CIPP approach in the late 1960s was based on the premise that "the most important purpose of evaluation is not to prove but to improve" (Stufflebeam, 1983, p. 118). Four types of decisions have been associated with the CIPP model: planning (specifying program objectives, environment boundaries, needs, opportunities, and problems), structuring (designing the means of achieving planned objectives), implementary (delivering or operationalizing program objectives), and recycling (judging program attainments and using evaluation results). In all, the information generated from the four evaluation types provides a stronger base for deciding the fate of a program than any single type (Craven, 1980). According to Patton (1982), the CIPP model of evaluation is decision-focused and responds to the question: "What information is needed to make a specific decision at a precise point in time?" (p. 45).

Goal-free evaluation model. This model was developed with a view to reducing the effects of bias in evaluation. It evolved as an alternative approach to the popular Goal-based evaluation model. It is simply the evaluation of actual effects against a profile of demonstrated needs (Scriven, 1973). The model contends that an evaluator does not have to be dogmatic about the stated objectives of a program. Rather than

determining the success of a program by discounting accomplishments against a set of objectives, the goal-free evaluation approach opts for the manifestation of a program's goals from its outcomes. It enjoins the evaluator to focus on both anticipated and unanticipated outcomes of the program.

According to Popham (1988), the main advantage of the goal-free evaluation approach over the goal-based evaluation model is that "it encourages the evaluator to be attentive to a wider range of program outcomes than might be the case with an evaluator who has been unduly influenced to look for project results consonant with project aims" (p. 30). As indicated by Popham (1988), "Ideally, a well-designed evaluation would involve both goal-based and goal-free evaluators" (p. 30). This model is inextricably associated with Scriven (1967).

Art criticism or connoisseurship model. This model is a naturalistic approach to educational evaluation which evolved from the tradition of art and literary criticism of complex work of art. It relies on the use of the evaluator's experience and training in data gathering and judgment of the important facets of educational programs (House, 1983; Popham, 1988).

Accreditation model. This model is used to approve or disapprove educational programs based on information collected according to a set of external standards. According to Patton (1982), the question addressed by this model is: "Does the program meet minimum standards for accreditation or licensing?" (p. 46). As indicated by House (1983), the accreditation of a program or institution is usually done by a team of outside professionals visiting on-site.

Adversary/judicial evaluation model. This model ensures the presentation of two sets of views about a program. One team presents the most positive or favorable claims about a program while the other presents the most negative or damaging claim. (Popham, 1988; Craven, 1980). According to Craven (1980), "The evaluators are then given an opportunity for follow-up statements to respond to each other's program

assessments. The resolution for the claims and counterclaims then is left to a third party-evaluation committee" (p. 439). Some forms of this evaluation approach include trial-by-jury (House, 1983); actual contests in which there are winning and losing sides; and clarification hearings in which no formal decision is made with regard to winners or losers (Popham, 1988).

Transaction (or case study) model. This model "concentrates on the program processes themselves and how people view the program (House, 1980, p. 39). It uses informal methods of investigation which include interviews with the stakeholders, making observations at the program site, and presenting findings in the form of a case study (Parlett & Hamilton, 1976; House, 1980).

The approach is "naturalistic" and almost entirely qualitative both in methodology and presentation, and responds to the question: "What does the program look like to various people who are familiar with it?" (House, 1980, p. 39). Examples of this approach are the *Responsive Evaluation Model* developed by Stake (1975a), and the *Illuminative Model* developed by Parlett and Hamilton (1976). Stake's (1975a) "responsive" evaluation model responds to the stakeholders' curiosities by negotiating with the stakeholders as to what to be done while Parlett and Hamilton's (1976) "illuminative" evaluation model aims at examining and documenting the what, how and why of the occurrences in a given program. Stake is one of the leading proponents of this model.

Summary

This chapter describes the review of the literature in regard to leadership and management including the essence of leadership training; training, education and development; evaluation of training including the differences between impact and efficiency evaluations; the development of program evaluation; and evaluation approaches.

The chapter explains the fact that most people in managerial positions are commonly referred to as managers, directors, or chief executive officers but that this is not enough justification to equate management with leadership. Perhaps because both leadership and management have *humans* as the most active factor in the domain of influences, they are similar in some ways. Neither leadership nor management exists in a vacuum. They are both interactive processes with varying elements and outcomes. While leadership cannot be isolated from followership, management exists as a result of a conventional or fashionable interaction between humans, materials, and machines. Leadership is more active or humane while management is more passive or mechanistic. Since change is a continuous process and leadership connotes change, leaders need to keep learning new skills so that they can cope with the rapid pace of change of today and the future. This implication justifies having individuals participate in a leadership training program such as REDA's.

The section on training, education, and development describes the ambiguity in the use of these three terms, especially in describing various teaching-learning transactions. Perhaps because their main functions embrace learning and behavioral changes in the individuals towards a particular goal, the three concepts are often used interchangeably. The concept "training," as used in this study, refers to a learning activity in which individuals are helped with temporary and longstanding leadership needs. The section delineates further the basic differences in the roles of *manager* and *leader* to justify the essence of leadership training programs for all kinds and levels of today's management. For all practical purposes, a good leadership training program is apt (1) to prepare participants for their leadership roles, (2) to improve participants' present leadership functions, (3) to predispose organizations to positive change and benefits, and (4) to enhance personal and organizational growth and development.

The section on evaluation of training describes the evaluation of a training program as a means of determining its success. It explains that evaluation is an integral

part of the four classic steps of a complete training cycle: need determination, program design, program delivery, and program evaluation. The sub-section on the foci of impact evaluation draws the similarities between impact evaluation and effectiveness evaluation as two related concepts and emphasizes that the foci of impact evaluation are the effects of a program on the participants, organizations, and the larger community. These effects (which may be intended or unintended) are manifested in the forms of behavioral changes, enhanced performance, and productivity. In other words, the major function of an impact evaluation is to provide information that helps to determine the micro and macro effects of a program (i.e., a program's effects on participants, organizations, and the society).

The section on educational program evaluation provides a synoptic view of the developmental stages of the concept based on six main periods--the age of reform, the age of efficiency and testing, the Tylerian age, the age of innocence/ignorance, the age of expansion, and the age of professionalism The major purpose for program evaluation is identified as the provision of information to aid decision-making in client organizations.

The section on "evaluation approaches" mentions some cautions about the choice and use of evaluation models and emphasizes the responsibility of the evaluator to be able to determine the suitability and applicability of a model to a particular situation. House's (1983) taxonomy of major evaluation models is used to review some of the assumptions underlying evaluation models. As used in the literature, the system analysis model establishes the effectiveness of a program by relating output to input. The focal point of the goal-based model is the effectiveness of a program in attaining pre-determined goals while the focal point of the goal-free model is the effectiveness of a program as manifested in the process and/or outcome of the program. The decision-making model makes evaluative judgments from the perspective of the decision to be made. The art-criticism model relies on the expert's knowledge in making decisions about a program. The accreditation model assesses a program based on a set of

standards. The adversary model makes evaluative judgments based on the identified merits and demerits of a program related issue or concern. The transaction model makes clinical judgments of a program based on clues natural to the program.

CHAPTER 3

CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

This chapter presents the conceptual framework adopted for evaluating the impact of REDA's leadership training program. The framework was derived from the "Responsive Evaluation Model" selected to guide this study. Since not all evaluation models are adequate or applicable to all situations, the onus is on the evaluator to design a framework that is suitable for evaluating a particular program. Moreover, unlike preordinate designs which are completed at the beginning of the evaluation, responsive designs are continuously evolving and never complete (Guba & Lincoln, 1981; Stake, 1983a). According to Guba and Lincoln (1981), "It is a major setback if the evaluator does not actively work at continuous design change as a result of his ever-growing knowledge and insights" (p. 30). As a result, the prominent events in Stake's (1983a) responsive model were modified continuously in the conduct of this study. The outcome of this modification was a five-phased responsive evaluation process, which is an off-shoot of Stake's (1983a) mnemonic "clock device" of 12 prominent events in a responsive evaluation.

Responsive Model

Responsive evaluation emerged as an alternative to the more conventional preordinate approach to evaluation. Many educators, including Stake, were disenchanted with the preordinate approach for lack of focus on the variables that educational administrators have control over (Stake, 1969). For example, "administrators cannot control the gender or age of teachers, but can influence distributions of budgets or class schedules" (Shadish et al., 1991, p. 275). These were viewed as sources of biases in the management and administration of educational programs. Stake and other educators

wanted evaluations designed to resist or respond to these management biases (Shadish et al., 1991).

In a paper presented at a conference on "New Trends in Evaluation" at the Goteborg Institute of Educational Research, Sweden, in October, 1973, Stake (1983a) remarked: "To be of service and to emphasize evaluation issues that are important for each particular program, I recommend the responsive evaluation approach" (p. 292). This remark heralded the responsive model among other evaluation approaches. In practical terms, "responsive evaluation as proposed by Stake and elaborated by others offers the most meaningful and useful approach to performing evaluations" (Guba & Lincoln, 1981, p. 33). In his exposition, Stake (1983a) asserted that "Many evaluation plans are more preordinate, emphasizing statement of goals, use of objective tests, standards held by program personnel, and research-type reports. Responsive evaluation is less reliant on formal communication, more reliant on natural communication" (p. 292). Responsive evaluation emphasizes the relationship between evaluator and clients (i.e., it encourages the use of "human instrument"). It recognizes the dynamic nature and ambiguity of clients' needs, especially at the beginning of a project, and therefore, provides ways in which an evaluation can take account of these factors (Stake, 1975a; House, 1980). Stake (1975a) posited that "an educational evaluation is *responsive evaluation* if it orients more directly to program activities than to program intents; responds to audience requirements for information; and if the different value perspectives present are referred to in reporting the success and failure of a program" (p. 14).

Unlike many other models of evaluation, "the design of responsive evaluation is emergent (or unfolding or rolling or cascading. . .)" (Guba & Lincoln, 1981, p. 36). In other words, "the purpose, framework, and focus of a responsive evaluation emerge from interactions with constituents . . . and those interactions and observations result in progressive focusing on issues" (Guba & Lincoln, 1981, p. 135). According to Guba and Lincoln (1981), responsive evaluators must interact continuously with the stakeholders to

ascertain what information they desire and the manner in which they prefer to receive such information. Guba and Lincoln (1988) claimed that "the audiences for an evaluation are those persons entitled by virtue of holding a stake to propose concerns and issues and to receive a report responsive to them" (p. 37). They asserted that apart from those interested in or affected by the *evaluand*, an evaluation audience must also include those who are unaware of the stakes they hold.

Stake (1991) identified three major merits of responsive evaluation: allowing important program variables to emerge, encouraging change efforts in local stakeholders, and increasing local control, these are discussed below as well as my experiences in the study. Guba and Lincoln (1981) also made some epistemological and methodological distinctions of great importance between responsive evaluation and other conventional or classic models which Stake referred to as "preordinate" (see Figure 3.1). These differences were based on several items including: orientation (informal), value perspective (pluralistic), basis for evaluation design/organizer (audiences, issues, and concerns), design completion (continuously evolving), evaluator role (identification of concerns and issues, and development of portrayals, and so on), methods (subjective or qualitative), communication (2-stage), feedback (written and oral), form of feedback (holistic and based on vicarious experience), and paradigm (look to anthropology, journalism, or poetry for insights and metaphors).

Prominent Events in a Responsive Evaluation

Stake's mnemonic "clock device" of twelve prominent events in a responsive evaluation suggests particular variables and analytical procedures to be considered in a program evaluation (see Figure 3.2).

Comparison Item	Type of Evaluation	
	Preordinate	*Responsive*
Orientation	Formal.	Informal.
Value perspective	Singular; consensual.	Pluralistic; possibility of conflict.
Basis for evaluation design (organizer)	Program intents, objectives, goals, hypotheses; evaluator preconceptions such as performance, mastery, ability, aptitude, measurable outcomes; the instrumental values of education.	Audience concerns and issues; program activities; reactions, motivations, or problems of persons in and around the evaluand.
Design completed when?	At beginning of evaluation.	Never—continuously evolving.
Evaluator role	Stimulator of subjects with a view to testing critical performance.	Stimulated by subjects and activities.
Methods	Objective; "taking readings," for example, testing.	Subjective, for example, observations and interviews; negotiations and interactions.
Communication	Formal; reports; typically one stage.	Informal; portrayals; often two stage.
Feedback	At discrete intervals; often only once, at end.	Informal; continuously evolving as needed by audiences.
Form of feedback	Written report, identifying variables and depicting the relationships among them; symbolic interpretation.	Narrative-type depiction, often oral (if that is what the audience prefers), modeling what the program is like, providing vicarious experience, "holistic" communication.
Paradigm	Experimental psychology.	Anthropology, journalism, poetry.

Figure 3.1. **Comparison of Preordinate and Responsive Evaluation Models** from *Evaluating the arts in education: A responsive approach* by Stake, R. E. (1975a), cited in E. G. Guba & Y. S. Lincoln (1981). *Effective evaluation: Improving the usefulness of evaluation results through responsive and naturalistic approaches* (p. 28). San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass. Copyright c by Jossey-Bass Inc. Publishers. Reprinted by permission of the publisher.

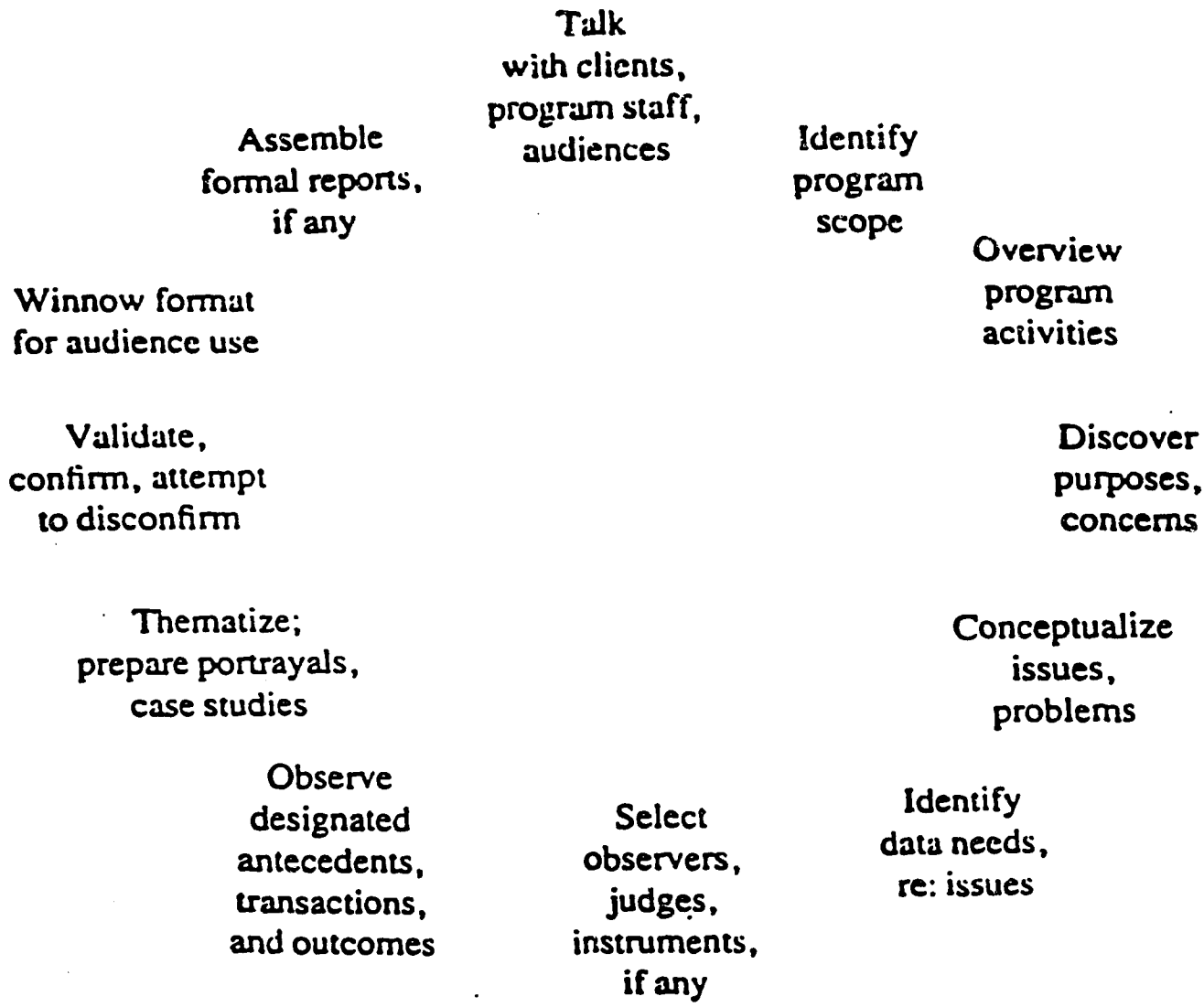

Figure 3.2. **Prominent Events in a Responsive Evaluation** from Program evaluation, particularly responsive evaluation by Stake, R. E. (1983a). In G. F. Madaus, M. S. Scriven, & D. L. Stufflebeam (Eds.). *Evaluation models: Viewpoints on educational and human services evaluation* (p. 287). Boston, MA: Kluwer-Nijhoff. Copyright c 1983 by Kluwer-Nijhoff Publishing. Reprinted by permission of the publisher.

Beginning at "twelve o'clock" and proceeding clockwise, the 12 prominent events in a responsive evaluation are: talking with clients, program staff and audiences; identifying program scope; overviewing program activities; discovering purposes and concerns; conceptualizing issues and problems; identifying data needs in regard to the issues; selecting observers, judges, and instruments; observing designated antecedents, transactions and outcomes; thematizing, and preparing portrayals and case studies; validating, confirming and disconfirming; winnowing and formatting for audience use; and assembling reports. Figure 3.2 shows a diagrammatical representation of the prominent events in the responsive evaluation model. These events are, in other words, the steps involved in conducting a responsive evaluation. While these steps are listed one after the other, Stake (1975a) cautioned that they need not be carried out serially, rather, a continuous movement back and forth through the list is permissible as the evaluation proceeds.

Five-Phased Process of Responsive Evaluation

Structurally, the 12 prominent events in Stake's responsive evaluation model have been encapsulated into five phases in conducting this study. These phases include:

1. Identification of the purpose and scope of evaluation
2. Identification of data needs and instruments
3. Data collection
4. Data analysis
5. Reports and recommendations

The five-phased responsive evaluation process, as used in this study, is a set of interacting phases of events. Figure 3.3 shows the interconnectedness of the five phases. Functionally, these phases are overlapping and they provided the basic procedure for evaluating REDA's leadership training program.

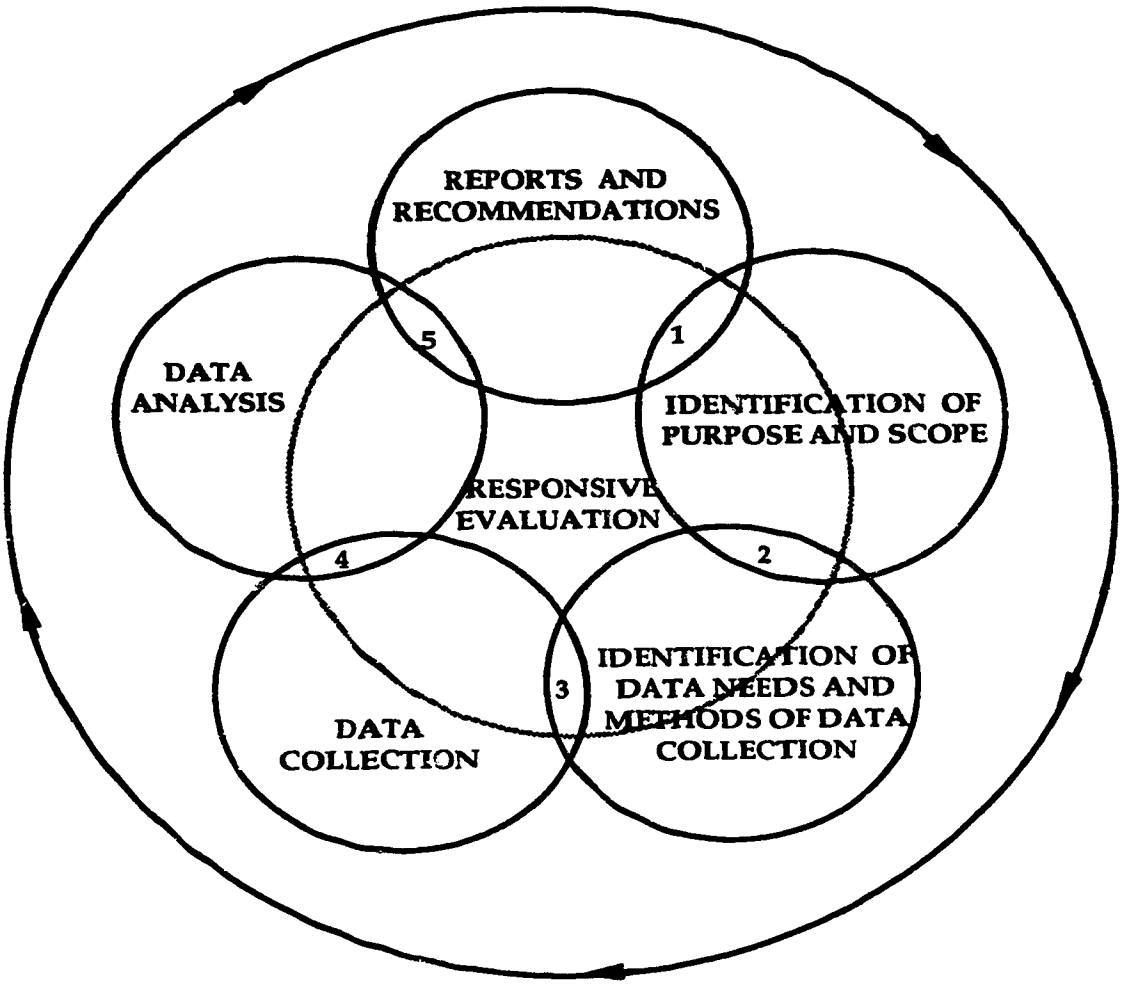

Figure 3.3. **Five-Phased Process of Responsive Evaluation**

PHASES				
1 Identification of purpose & scope	2 Identification of data needs & Methods of data collection	3 Data Collection	4 Data Analysis	5 Reports & recommendations
EVENTS				
1	2	3	4	5
•Talking with program administrators: -Identifying object of evaluation -Identifying stakeholders (i.e., participants, funders, etc.)	•Identifying: -Data needs -Methods of collecting data	•Collecting data: -Interviewing -Document analyses -Participating in the program -Observing program activities -Administering questionnaire	•Analyzing data: -Content analysis -Statistical analysis	•Presenting reports & recommendations: -Formal & informal -Formative & summative

Identification of purpose and scope of evaluation. Essentially, this initial phase embraced talking with the organizers/administrators of the program about the purpose and scope of evaluation; and identifying the stakeholders of the program (i.e., participants, funders, facilitators/instructors, etc.). These events are similar to the first two prominent events in Stake's (1983a) responsive evaluation model: talking with clients, program staff and audiences; and identifying program scope. The step involves establishing contact with clients, program staff, and those who have a stake in the program. In this study, REDA was the client organization, while the program coordinators and administrators, REDA's secretaries and clerks, printer, accountants, and instructors or facilitators constituted the program staff. Those whose concerns and issues were addressed constituted the relevant audiences. Guba and Lincoln (1981) defined a stakeholding audience as "a group of persons having some common characteristics (for example, administrators, teachers, parents, students, sponsors, clients, and the like) who has some stake in the performance (or outcome or impact) of the evaluand, that is, is somehow involved in or affected by the entity being evaluated" (p. 304). The stakeholders identified for this study included the participants in the program between 1976 and 1994, the organizations sponsoring the program, the instructors or facilitators of the program, and the administrators of the program (i.e., representing the client organization).

The first contact with REDA was established through a meeting with its Executive Director and later with the Director coordinating the program. In the discussions that ensued, a bird's eye view of REDA's mission, goals, and objectives was provided. In addition, my introduction to the staff of REDA by the executive director kindled rapport and cordial relationships with the staff members.

Considering the available resources, especially in terms of time and money, my initial plan of determining the impact of the program was to limit the scope of my study to the last five years of the program's life (i.e., 1990-1994). But because the program

administrators were also interested in having more comprehensive feedback on how they had been performing as organizers over the years, and how the program could be improved, they requested an expansion of the study to cover the entire life span of the program from inception to date. However, this request was compromised and thus, the scope of the study was expanded to cover the whole period of existence of the program from inception to the time of conducting this study (i.e., 1976-1994). Perhaps as a result of this expansion, REDA provided some assistance, especially in the area of services such as printing, mailing and receiving of questionnaires and interview guides. In addition, I was provided a scholarship for participation in the two weeks of leadership workshops for levels I and II.

In sum, the outcome of this phase provided the benchmark for the overall evaluation study. It marked the beginning of the success of any evaluation activity. Without it, I might have not been successful in clarifying the purpose of this study and consequently the data needs and instrumentation which constitute the next step. For example, through my interaction with the program staff it was easy for me to have access to the program's documents and records, while talking with the stakeholder groups or audiences yielded suggestions useful for the improvement of the program.

Identification of data needs and methods of data collection. The events embraced in this phase are mainly the identification of the types of information required and the appropriate methods of collection. The events in this phase are similar to the sixth and seventh events in Stake's (1983a) responsive evaluation model: identifying data needs related to the issues and concerns raised by stakeholders; and selecting observers, judges, and instruments. Given the purposes of this study, data needs were basically the determination of cues for the impact and improvement of the program. The responses to these needs were derived from the issues and concerns raised by the stakeholders (participants, sponsoring organizations, instructors, and program administrators).

Following the purposes and information needs of the client organization, the next step was the designing of instruments. Although the procedures involved in carrying out responsive evaluation are typically qualitative in nature, there are situations in which the issues and concerns of stakeholders require information that is best generated by quantitative methods (Guba & Lincoln, 1981). That was the situation in this study. Both qualitative and quantitative approaches were employed in the data collection and analyses. For example, in addition to the evaluator being a data source (i.e., participant-observer), other instruments employed in this study included interviews, document analyses, and questionnaires. The data gathering instruments and procedures were chosen in ways that encouraged triangulation of data, and, therefore, assured the reliability (auditability) and validity (credibility) of the findings. Since the study sought to examine the impact of a program extending over 19 years, the use of both qualitative and quantitative research methods, as explained by Tuckman (1978), has the advantage of helping "to discover what experiences have taken place . . . and what is occurring at the present" (p. 197).

Data collection. This phase comprised the use of the data instruments or methods identified in the preceding phase. The events in this phase are similar to the third, fourth and eighth events in Stake's (1983a) responsive evaluation model: overviewing program activities; discovering purposes and concerns; and observing designated antecedents, transactions, and outcomes. Essentially, this phase involved the administration of the instruments. As mentioned earlier, the data collecting instruments used in this study included questionnaires, interviews, observations, and document analyses. An overview of the program activities through analyses of documents and records revealed a three tier training arrangement--levels I, II, and III; that is, introductory, intermediate, and advanced levels respectively. This revelation was verified through observations of the 1994 leadership workshops at Goldeye Centre, Nordegg.

During discussion, it became apparent that the organizers were overtly concerned about knowing: (1) the opinions of the stakeholders on the impact of their 19-year program, and (2) suggestions for improving the program.

This third step is supported by Scriven's (1967) goal-free evaluation which posits that an evaluator can recognize the goals and accomplishments of a program by observing the program activities. For example, through observation of the training program, I was able to verify the goals and objectives of the program. Guba and Lincoln (1981) referred to this event as the "empirical phase" of evaluation. The antecedents, transactions, and outcomes relate to those conditions, processes, and results existing before, during, and after the program. In fact the data collection strategy for this study followed this sequence: pre-workshop, during workshop, and post-workshop data collection phases.

Data analyses. Essentially, the data analyses phase embraced both content and statistical analyses of all data collected. These events are similar to the fifth and ninth events in Stake's (1983a) responsive evaluation model: conceptualizing issues and problems; and preparing of themes, portrayals, and case studies. From the analyses of the program's documents and records, discussions, interviews, and observation, I was able to conceptualize some of the issues, concerns or problems related to the program. For example, the series of conversations with the directors of the program revealed that a follow-up evaluation of participants' performance of leadership functions was lacking in the program. Similarly, my analyses of the program documents revealed a gradual decline in the enrollment of program participants (see Table 1.1).

The presentation of some findings as themes and cases helped to illustrate the concerns of stakeholders. Through "thick" descriptions and illustrations with the aid of tables, and narratives of comments, the findings were presented to the stakeholders. For instance, tables were predominantly used to present most of the quantitative data and some of the qualitative data in both formal and informal presentations. Important comments from the taped conversations and open-ended questionnaires were included in

the formal written report and were presented to the stakeholders through charts during oral and informal presentations. The responses to the various informal presentations were incorporated in this final written report.

Reports and recommendations. The focal point of this phase was the presentation of reports and recommendations about the evaluation study. The events in this phase are similar to the 10th, 11th and 12th events in Stake's (1983a) responsive evaluation model: validating, confirming and disconfirming; winnowing and formatting for audience use; and assembling reports. The preparation of reports is usually the concluding stage of any evaluation. According to LeCompte (1994), "Once data are collected, they must be organized and put into a form that stakeholders can understand and use" (p. 35). Some general considerations in an evaluation report include "to whom one reports, about what, when, and with what criteria in mind to guide report development" (Guba & Lincoln, 1981, p. 363). However, these factors are the main considerations in the preceding step for conducting a responsive evaluation. Since REDA was the organization that commissioned this evaluation study, the questions, "to whom one reports and about what", were clear.

As indicated earlier, the reports were both formal (written) and/or informal (oral). According to Wolf (1990), written reports are necessary for at least three main reasons: to provide a formal record of an evaluation enterprise for an organization; to justify funding, meet legal or legislative requirements as well as satisfy a number of formal organizational demands; and to furnish a basis for the legitimization of various decisions about policy and practice. Since the demand for reports has become routine in evaluation studies, it is necessary to consider what kinds (i.e., progress or final report) and the format (i.e., executive summary, full final evaluation report, and technical appendix, etc.) necessary, as well as how they might be prepared and disseminated (Wolf, 1990). An important guide to the evaluator is that "the report should be made in the natural language of the audience receiving it" (Guba & Lincoln, 1981, p. 365). In other words, the content

and wording of the report should be clear and straightforward, ingenuous to the people for whom it is intended. As suggested by Stake (1983a), an evaluator should be guided also with the fact that "the rewards to an evaluator for producing a favorable evaluation report often greatly outweigh the rewards for producing an unfavorable report" (p. 289).

For all practical purposes, "it is hard to conceive of an evaluation report without recommendations" (Ryan, 1993, p. 143). Inevitably, recommendations constitute an obvious cornerstone of an evaluation report (Ryan, 1993). As claimed by Patton (1986),

> Recommendations are often the most visible part of an evaluation report. Well-written, carefully derived recommendations and conclusions can be the catalyst that brings all other elements in an evaluation process together into a meaningful whole. (p. 268)

The suggestions from a cross section of the stakeholder groups form the bulk of the recommendations for this study. Given the large volume of data gathered, it became practically impossible to report on every issue, concern, or problem; therefore, the winnowing out of certain information to be included in the report became very important. Based on the purposes of this study (determination of the impact of the program and improvement of the program) the reporting format required a two-stage communication. The latter was formative while the former was summative. Stake (1983a) indicated that:

> responsive evaluation will be particularly useful during formative evaluation when the staff needs help in monitoring the program, when no one is sure what problems will arise. It will be particularly useful in summative evaluation, when audiences want an understanding of a program's activities, its strengths and shortcomings, and when the evaluator feels that it is his responsibility to provide a vicarious experience. (p. 303)

To ensure effective utilization of the findings, reporting was made continuous throughout the study. For example, formative reporting was made in both verbal and written formats to the program administrators during observation and analyses of interview and questionnaire data.

Summary

The chapter describes Stake's responsive evaluation model as well as the 12 prominent events involved in conducting responsive evaluations. The chapter discusses the five-phased impact evaluation process adopted in carrying out the study: identification of the purpose and scope of evaluation, identification of data needs and instruments, data collection, data analysis, and reports and recommendations.

The *identification of purpose and scope of evaluation phase* explains the efforts of the researcher in establishing contacts with the client organization and the stakeholders. It also explains the circumstances surrounding the determination of the scope of the study. The *identification of data needs and instruments phase* provides bases for the design of the data gathering procedures (i.e., interviews, document analyses, questionnaires, and observation) in the *data collection phase* Given the nature of the data collecting strategies, the *data analysis phase* emphasizes the use of both statistical and content analyses methods. The *reports and recommendations phase* provides the general guidelines for assembling and presenting the findings of the study to the audience, including the client organization.

CHAPTER 4

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

This chapter provides a description of the research design and methodological procedures used to conduct the study. The chapter is organized in six main sections. The first section explains the research design and methodology adopted. The second section presents a description of the planning strategies adopted for the study. The third section describes the respondent groups, provides a demographic profile of the participants, and explains the data collection procedure. The fourth section discusses the data analyses used. The fifth section describes the tests of rigor adopted. Finally, the sixth section explains the ethical considerations.

Research Design and Methodology

Program evaluation designs have tended to be formulated as "models" which reflect particular methods or approaches to particular issues or problems in a program (Hopkins, 1989). Stake (1991) posited that "responsive evaluations using case study methods give readers vicarious experience of the evaluand in context, detailing situations in which the reader usually has no firsthand experience" (p. 271). Since the possibility of understanding the program impact rests with the structure of the evaluation design (Bryk & Light, 1981), the case study is apt "to produce an in-depth understanding of the entity being studied" (Borg & Gall, 1989, p. 402).

In support of the use of a responsive case study design, Stake (1978) indicated that,

> most case studies feature: descriptions that are complex, holistic, and involving a myriad of not highly isolated variables; data that are likely to be gathered at least partly by personalistic observation; and a writing style that is informal, perhaps narrative, possibly with verbatim quotation,

> illustration, and even allusion and metaphor. Comparisons are implicit rather than explicit. Themes and hypotheses may be important, but they remain subordinate to the understanding of the case. (p. 7)

Indeed, as outlined in Chapter 3, the case study design of this evaluation study adopted a five-phase procedural approach (a modified version of Stake's mnemonic clock device of prominent events in a responsive evaluation) as its framework for assessing the impact of REDA's leadership training program on the participants as well as examining participants' opinions towards the improvement of the program.

This evaluation study combined both qualitative (i.e., interviews, document analyses, direct observations); and quantitative (i.e., pre-workshop, end-of-sessions, post-workshop, and follow-up questionnaires) research methods in its data collection processes.

Planning of the Evaluation Study

The evaluation planning embraced organization and information gathering. The strategy revolved around the collection of data leading to (1) the identification of the evaluation object or "What is it that has to be evaluated?" (2) the identification of stakeholders, (3) the specification of the criteria for determining the impact of the program, and (4) the design of instruments for data collection. Methods of data collection in this phase were interviews and document analyses, observations, and questionnaires.

Identification of the Evaluation Object

The process of determining the evaluation object for this study began with establishing contact with the program organizers through a referral source. Following this, discussions were held with the directors of the program to identify and understand the program goals, the stakeholders, and achievements of the program. In the course of

probing the program's goals and outcomes, it became obvious that REDA had never conducted any formal evaluation to determine the impact of its leadership training program. In other words, there had never been any formal participant follow-up evaluations regarding the proficiency of leadership abilities of participants after the training. This provided a basis for the purpose of this study--"Impact Evaluation of REDA's Leadership Training Program."

Identification of Stakeholders

Through a review of the program's documents and interactions with the program administrators, four groups were identified as having stakes in REDA's leadership training program--participants, sponsoring organizations, facilitators/instructors, and the client organization (i.e., the program administrators). These stakeholders constituted the main population for this study.

Specification of Criteria

As claimed by Schein (1975) "The effects of any training program . . . must be evaluated in terms of some criterion" (p. 109). Steele (1970) identified criteria as one of the three essential elements in a program evaluation. These three are criteria, evidence, and judgments. According to Steele, "Evaluation doesn't occur unless all three of these function. There must be criteria against which the program is judged, evidence of the extent to which the program meets those criteria, and a judgment of the extent to which the criteria were met" (p. 7). As criteria come in all shapes and sizes, they must be precise enough to elicit sound judgments in order to be useful (Steele, 1970).

Steele (1975) posited that "criteria are the basic organizing framework of evaluation as hypotheses are in research. Criteria indicate what information is to be presented, organized, and interpreted" (p. 15).

Perhaps because the intents of many training programs are to impart knowledge and skills necessary to influence change in the behavior of participants towards a

predetermined goal, criteria are often built around the three areas (or domains as referred to by Bloom, 1956) of learning: knowledge, skills and attitudes. For example, "learning to be a business man . . . is a process of acquiring (1) a certain body of knowledge, (2) skills in implementing this knowledge and (3) the attitudes and values that define how and when and for what ends the knowledge and skills are to be used" (Schein, 1967, p. 602). In consonance with this example, REDA's program objectives (see Chapter 1) implied the acquisition of adequate knowledge, skills, and attitudes for their accomplishments. According to Dobbin (1994), "Knowledge is a theoretical or practical understanding of a subject. Skill is a practised ability, knowledge into action" (p. 89). Attitude relates to the predisposition of a changed or modified behavior of the trainee towards the subject or object (Buckley & Caple, 1990). In view of the fact that not all training programs require all three areas of learning, criteria should be based only on the area focused upon by the training (Dobbin, 1994).

Since in talking about a leadership training program, we are talking about a set of activities embracing the inculcation in the participants, a specified body of knowledge, skills, and attitudes regarding leadership so that they can behave in a particular manner, this study sought to ascertain the impact produced by REDA's leadership training program on the participants' knowledge, skills, and attitudes. A number of criteria were identified for determining the impact. They included the following:

1. Increase in participants' leadership knowledge as a result of the training.
2. Increase in participants' leadership skills as a result of the training.
3. Changes in attitudes/behavior as reported by participants and supervisors, and other observable and measurable evidences of impact of the training.

Data associated with each of these three sets of criteria provided the yardstick against which to assess the impact of the program. Figure 4.1 provides a diagrammatic representation of the relationships that often exist among these three domains of learning

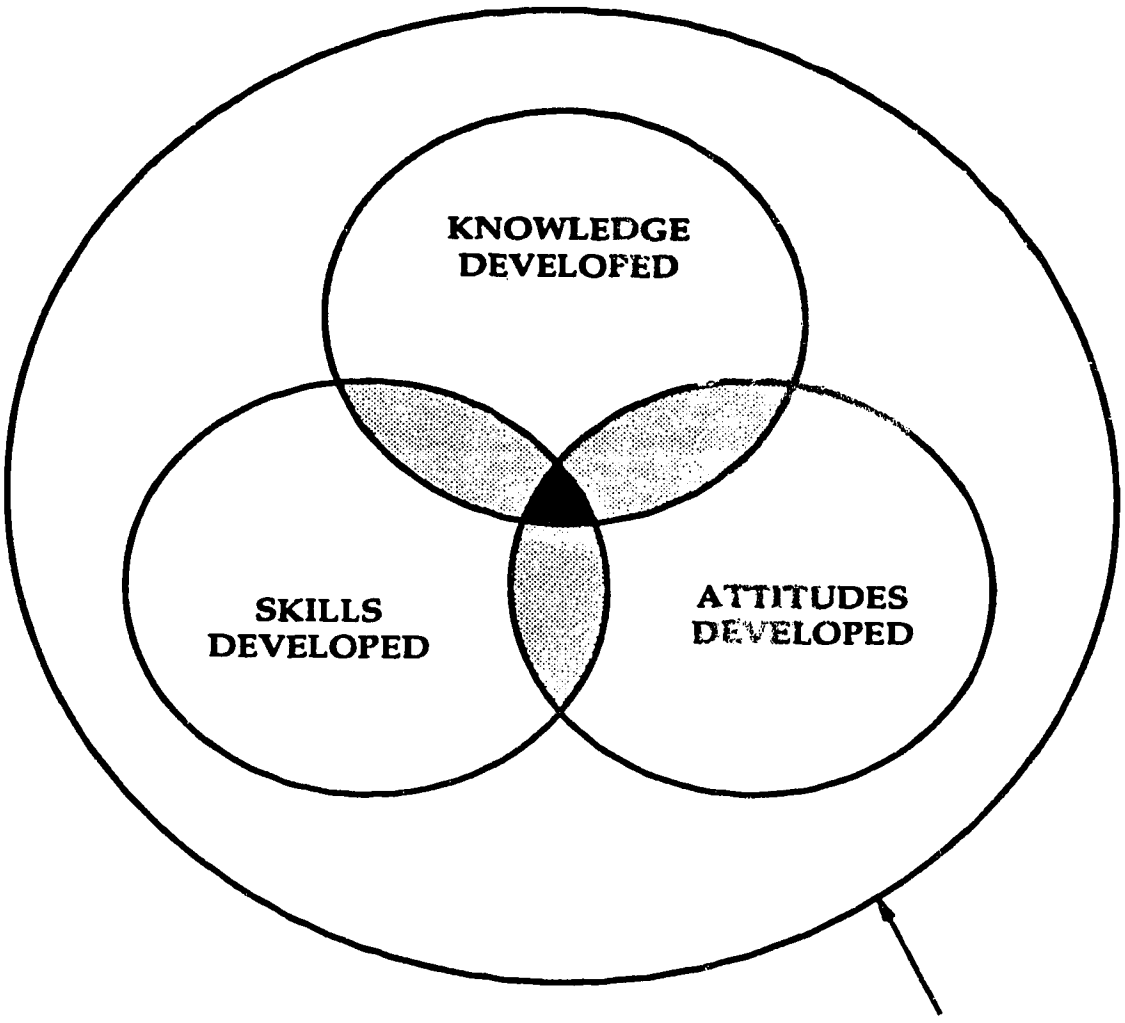

Figure 4.1. **Criteria for Evaluating the Impact of a Leadership Training Program: Changes in Knowledge, Skills, and Attitudes.**

(knowledge, skills and attitudes). As shown in the figure, the three domains of learning can interact (the shaded areas) and also remain separate. However, whether separately or collectively, the assessment of changes in participants' knowledge, skills and attitudes, as a result of the training program constitute the focal point of the impact of the program on the participants. Essentially, the impact represents the expected leadership behavior (the darkest area in the figure) mentioned in the objectives of the program (see Chapter 1). The following provides a synoptic view of the criteria adopted in this study:

Knowledge developed. Although in a programmed instruction, objective testing may be the most complete form of evaluation of knowledge acquisition (Hamblin, 1974), "for open-ended training, where objectives are not formulated in measurable terms, the best way of assessing knowledge changes may be simply to ask trainees whether they think their knowledge has improved in specific areas" (Hamblin, 1974, p. 92). Given that the objectives of REDA's leadership training program were not defined in precisely measurable terms, the knowledge developed by the participants was determined through a comparison of the results of the pre- and post-workshop questionnaires as well as through the end-of-session questionnaire discussed subsequently in this report.

Skills developed. As indicated by Hamblin (1974), since "Skills are mainly learnt by actual practice (even if the practice takes place in an off-the-job training setting); they can best be evaluated by observing and analyzing the actual performance of the trainees while they are practicing" (p. 93). The increase in the participants' leadership skills was determined through observation, interviews, and by a comparison of the results from the tailor-made questionnaires--pre-workshop, end-of-session, post-workshop, and follow-up (see details later in this report).

Attitudes developed. Since the kinds of attitudes developed as a result of a training program are largely influenced by both the knowledge and skills acquired from

the training, a follow-up evaluation involving observation, interviews, and questionnaires was used for this purpose. This does not mean that the pre-workshop, end-of-sessions, and post-workshop evaluations were unimportant; but it does mean that the "participant follow-up" evaluation was considered more adequate in determining participants' changed job behavior and beneficial consequences.

Methods of Data Collection

Based on the purposes and criteria identified above, the data gathering for the study involved the utilization of four methods: questionnaires (i.e., four different questionnaires for the participants before the workshop, during the workshop, immediately after the workshop, and on the job), interviews (i.e., interview guides for each of the four stakeholder groups involved in the study: participants, facilitators, sponsoring organizations, and program administrators), observation (i.e., participant-observation approach), and document analyses (i.e., of records pertaining to attendance, performance, and previous evaluations). The data collection methods were designed in consultation with the program administrators and my research supervisors.

Respondent Groups

Based upon the program's background, the research purpose, the three impact criteria, a review of the literature, and program documents, data were collected from four groups of stakeholders, namely, the participants, sponsoring organizations, instructors/facilitators, and the administrators of the program. Table 4.1 shows the data gathering instruments and the corresponding numbers of respondents. In all, 234 individuals participated in the study. Of these individuals, 214 were past participants of the program (i.e., between 1976 and 1994), seven were instructors/facilitators, 11 were representatives of the organizations sponsoring the program, and two were program administrators representing the client organization.

Table 4.1

Questionnaire and Interview Respondents

Respondents	Questionnaire				Interview
	Pre-WS	End-of-Session	Post-WS	Follow-up	
Participants	29	*353	29	185	37
Facilitators	–	–	–	–	7
Sponsors	–	–	–	–	11
Organizers	–	–	–	–	2

WS= Workshop
*(17 participants at level I x 13 sessions) + (12 participants at level II x 11 sessions).

The participant-respondent group constituted the largest group. Of the 214 participant-respondent group, 29 (i.e., 19 men and 10 women) were involved in the pre-workshop, end-of-sessions, and post-workshop evaluations; and 185 (i.e., 97 men and 88 women) were involved in the follow-up evaluation. Also, 37 people (i.e., 25 men and 12 women) participated in the interview. In all, the return rates for the pre-workshop, end-of-session, post-workshop, and follow-up questionnaires were 100%, 93%, 97%, and 52% respectively (see Table 4.2).

Demographic Profile of Participant-Respondent Group

As identified earlier, the four stakeholder groups (i.e., the participants, sponsoring organizations, facilitators/instructors, and the program administrators) constituted the four main respondent groups for this study.

The demographic profile of the 214 participants involved in the study is shown in Table 4.3. A total of 116 (54%) of the respondents were male and 98 (46%) were female. Their ages spanned all age categories from 21 and up. Specifically 49 (23%) were

between ages 21 and 39, 79 (37%) were between ages 40 and 49, 74 (35%) were between ages 50 and 65, and 12 (6%) were older than 65. This represented a cross section of the age continuum of early, middle and late adulthood. Of these 214 participant-respondents, 12 (6%) had less than high school education, 98 (46%) had some high school education, 85 (40%) had some post-secondary education, and 19 (9%) had university degrees. The majority of them (83%) had backgrounds in an agriculture related occupation, 13% came from non-agriculture related occupations, and 4% did not indicate their occupation.

Table 4.2

Return Rates of Evaluation Questionnaires

Questionnaire	# Sent	# Returned	% Returned
Pre-workshops (levels I & II)	29	29	100
End-of-Session	353	329	93
Post-workshops (levels I & II)	29	28	97
Follow-up	*385/**354	185	52

31 follow-up questionnaires (8%) were returned, "address unknown" or "deceased".
*number of follow-up questionnaires mailed
**actual number of follow-up questionnaires administered (i.e., less 31 questionnaires returned).

Executives of sponsoring organizations were the second major group of respondents. These organizations were responsible for the bulk of funding for the program as well as sponsoring most of the participants of the program. Of the 13 randomly selected executives, only 11 were available for the interview (10 men and 1 woman). These stakeholders were interviewed for their opinions on the observed behavioral changes in the participants after the training program. Specifically, the supervisors were asked to compare the leadership competencies of participants before and after the training with a view to determining what changes, if any, could be attributed to REDA's training program, especially in the areas of the skills addressed at the leadership

Table 4.3

Demographic Profile of Participant-Respondent Group

	Pre- and post-workshop Questionnaires (N=29)		Follow-up Questionnaires (N=185)		Total (214)	
Demographic Item	n	%	n	%	n	%
Gender						
Male	19	66	97	52	116	54
Female	10	35	88	48	98	46
Age range as of March 1994						
21-39	16	55	33	18	49	23
40-49	10	35	69	37	79	37
50-65	3	10	71	38	74	35
Above 65	-	-	12	7	12	6
Highest educational level						
Below high school	4	14	8	4	12	6
High school	10	35	88	47	98	46
Some post secondary	14	48	71	38	85	40
University degrees	1	3	18	10	19	9
Position/Main occupation						
Agriculture related: (farm managers/farmers, farm accountants, Veterinarians, 4-H leaders, Home Economists, Coop Board Directors, & PR officers of Coops)	20	69	158	85	178	83
Non-Agriculture related: (Recreation Directors, Nurses, Travel Agents, Program Coordinators, Bookkeepers, Teachers, Realtors, Secretaries of schools/organizations, Clerks, Industrial workers & supervisors)	9	31	19	10	28	13
"No answer"	-	-	8	4	8	4

training workshops (see Appendix F, question 7 and Table 1.2 for a list of these skills). The situations observed by the supervisors ranged from brief, but often intense, critical incidents (such as observing the performance of participants on specific tasks, at meetings, and giving public presentations, etc.) to longer-duration relationships (such as regular on-the-job team work).

The facilitator-respondent group consisted of those who had been invited to instruct at any of the workshops in the past. The seven facilitators (six men and one woman) were largely practitioners and professionals released by the sponsoring organizations and institutions as part of their support of the program. All seven were interviewed.

The organizer-respondent group consisted of the two program directors (both men) from the client organization--the Chief Executive Officer, and the Director directly in charge of the program. Both were interviewed.

Data Collection Procedure

For ease of description, the procedure for data collection has been divided into four distinct sections based on the particular strategy used: questionnaires, interviews, document analyses, and observations.

Questionnaires. Both closed and open forms of questions (Guba & Lincoln, 1989) were used in the questionnaires. Those closed response items were of the multiple choice format while the open-ended questions required the participants to provide a written response (see Appendices B, C, D, & F).

Questionnaires were developed for collecting data from participants at four stages: pre-training, during training, post-training, and on the job. These questionnaires were labeled "Pre-workshop Survey," "End-of-Session Evaluation," "Post-workshop Survey," and "Follow-up Survey" respectively (see Appendices B, C, D, & F).

The pre-workshop, end-of-session and post-workshop questionnaires were administered to the 29 participants at the 1994 leadership workshop, while the follow-up questionnaires were sent to all the participants in the program between 1976 and 1994. They were received between two months and 19 years after participation in the leadership workshops.

In order to eliminate bias and enhance return rate, the participants were asked to participate voluntarily, and if they agreed to do so, they should not write their names on the questionnaires. Also, with a view to facilitating the comparison of pre-post data from individual participants, the 29 participants at the 1994 leadership workshop were asked to pick and use the same notation on both the pre-workshop and post-workshop questionnaires. Examples such as birth dates, car registration numbers, and symbols were suggested.

Pre-workshop questionnaire. This questionnaire (Appendix B) was intended to evaluate or determine the leadership capability of the participants before commencement of the training program. At the training site, shortly before the 1994 leadership workshop, a questionnaire which solicited personal background data (i.e., gender, age, and educational level), motivational factors, expectations about the workshop, and leadership evaluation experience was completed by the participants. A section of the questionnaire labeled "leadership" had a set of five questions which were repeated in the post-workshop evaluation. The first of these questions asked participants to rate on a nine-point scale, the extent to which leadership depends on four given variables: personality and training, characteristics of the group being led, situation in which group works, and the goals being sought. The second question required participants to rate, on a nine-point scale, their potentials as leaders. The third question asked participants to rate themselves on the extent to which they emphasize or would emphasize leadership behavior at work. The fourth question asked participants to list the kinds of training they would recommend for a person in a leadership position. The fifth question required

participants to list some key "ingredients" of leadership, or how they would recognize leadership if seen. The repetition of these five questions at the post-workshop session was intended to provide the basis for comparison of participants' knowledge of leadership skills before and after the training.

The 29 participants at the 1994 leadership workshops for levels I and II were asked to complete the pre-workshop questionnaires. The return rate was 100 percent (see Tables 4.1 and 4.2).

End-of-session questionnaire. The end-of-session questionnaire (Appendix C) provided quick feedback on the knowledge and skills learned by the workshop participants. At the conclusion of each of the 24 topics (otherwise referred to as sessions) in both levels I and II, participants were asked to complete an end-of-session questionnaire. The questionnaire asked for participants' understanding of the session's contents, and the usefulness and applicability of the contents to their work situations. The questionnaire also assessed how interesting the topics were to the participants. In all, 353 end-of-session questionnaires were administered (i.e., 13 questionnaires were distributed to each of the 17 participants at the Level I workshop; and 11 questionnaires distributed to each of the 12 participants at the Level II workshop). The return rate was 93 percent (see Tables 4.1 and 4.2).

Post-workshop questionnaire. The post-workshop questionnaire (Appendix D) solicited the immediate outcome of the program. It focused on participants' satisfaction with the organizational arrangements associated with the leadership workshop, the effectiveness of the facilitators, participants' judgment about the workshop, and immediate acquisition of knowledge and skills about leadership. As indicated earlier, a section of the post-workshop questionnaire contained the questions repeated from the pre-workshop questionnaire for comparison purposes. With this comparison, the pre- and post-workshop questionnaires helped to determine the extent of change in knowledge and skills by the participants as a result of the training.

Of the 29 participants at the 1994 leadership workshops for levels I and II, 28 completed the post-workshop questionnaires. The return rate was 97 percent (see Tables 4.1 and 4.2). Due to an urgent call from home, one of the participants had to leave before the completion of the workshop.

Follow-up questionnaire. The administration of the follow-up questionnaire (Appendix F) was intended to determine the amount of change that had occurred in participants' leadership behavior or attitude since attending the training program. A section of the questionnaire addressed personal background data, while the rest of the questions focused on the participants' experiences on the job, the retention of subject matter, and the applicability of the workshop materials to their job situations. On a six point scale, participants were asked to rate changes in their overall job behavior based on the leadership competencies discussed or experienced at the workshops. Also, participants were asked to rate their leadership abilities before attending REDA's leadership workshop/s and their present abilities.

For easy sorting, the questionnaires used were differentiated by colors. The color used for the first set of questionnaires was "golden brown" while the second set of questionnaires was "golden yellow."

Of the 385 questionnaires sent to all participants of the program between 1976 and 1994, 31 questionnaires (8%) were returned by the postal service for reasons including "address unknown" or "deceased." In effect, the sample size for the follow-up questionnaire was 354. Of this figure, 185 questionnaires (52%) were returned (see Tables 4.1 and 4.2). The first mailing of the questionnaires was done on February 28, 1994 and a follow-up mailing occurred on March 31, 1994. The return rate for the first mailing was 41% (146 questionnaires). The return rate for the second mailing was 11% (39 questionnaires).

Interviews. Both structured and semistructured interviews were used in this study. For example, those interviews in which the questions required "yes" or "no"

responses or selection from a set of alternative choices were described as "structured interviews" while those interview questions for which responses were best provided by probing more deeply, using an open-ended format were regarded as "semistructured interviews."

The interviews were aided by the four interview guides (see Appendices H, I, J, & K) developed to collect data from the stakeholder groups including the participants, sponsoring organizations, facilitators, and administrators of the program. The interview guides were dispatched through hand delivery or by "fax" to the interviewees prior to the interviews. The interviewees were given as much time as they wished to respond to the questions asked. On the average, the interview time ranged between 30 and 150 minutes. All interviews were tape-recorded and later transcribed for analysis.

The interviews were conducted during and after the workshops. During the 1994 leadership workshops for Levels I and II, interviews were conducted with 27 participants (excluding myself and the participant who left before the end of the workshop) and four of the facilitators at the workshop site in order to gather their opinions about the workshops. Between three and seven months after the 1994 workshops, interviews were conducted with 10 other participants, three instructors/facilitators, 11 representatives of sponsoring organizations (i.e., training personnel, supervisors, and administrators), and two administrators of the program from the client organization (i.e., the coordinator of the training program and the executive director of REDA). Overall, 57 stakeholders were interviewed.

To encourage participation and frank comments regarding the several aspects of the program, the interviewees were assured of the confidentiality and anonymity of their information.

Document analyses. The review and analyses of the available documents complemented data sources in regard to REDA's goals or mission, historical development, stakeholder groups, and program activities. Some of the documents

included performance records of participants, previous evaluation data conducted by REDA, leadership program contents/curricula, and up-to-date demographic data of participants for levels I, II, and III of the leadership training program.

Observations. The participant-observant strategy used in this study enhanced the formulation of relevant questions, especially in the designing of the follow-up questionnaires. This was consistent with Guba and Lincoln's (1981) claim that "qualitative observations must always precede quantitative transformations" (p. 148). As posited by Stake (1983a), direct experience (especially through participation and observation) is an efficient, comprehensive, and satisfying way of creating understanding of the evaluation object, the observation phase provided a first-hand or eyewitness account of the program activities as well as participants' behavior. Observations were made of all program activities, including the delivery processes, instructional materials, food services, and facilities such as accommodation, recreation, and library.

Probably because I was a participant as well as an observer in the leadership workshops held in January, 1994 for levels I and II of the program (i.e., January 17-21 for level II, and 24-28 for level I), my observation of those things that might elude discussion or escape the conscious awareness of some respondents attested to Patton's (1990) claim that "direct observation allows the researcher to be open, discovery oriented, and inductive in approach" (p. 203), and also to "move beyond the selective perceptions of others" (p. 205).

Data Analyses

Based on the quantitative and qualitative data collected, both statistical and content analyses of data were carried out.

Statistical Analysis

The quantitative data were analyzed using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) by the Program Officer in the Department of Educational Policy Studies, University of Alberta. The data were interpreted using the "descriptive statistics" technique of data analyses, especially frequency counts, percentages, means, and standard deviations (Borg & Gall, 1989).

The analyses used provided bases for understanding the impact of REDA's program in the development of participants' leadership competencies.

Content Analysis

Codes were developed to analyze respondents' reactions and opinions as revealed in: (1) the responses to the open-ended questions in the four questionnaires (pre-workshop, end-of-sessions, post-workshop, and follow-up), and (2) the interviews conducted with the four stakeholder groups (participants, facilitators, supervisors in the sponsoring organizations, and the program directors).

To facilitate this analysis, the following procedure was adopted in this study: coding of data, categorization of data, identification of themes, search for all negative cases, and careful examination of all relevant data before making recommendations for the improvement of the leadership training program at REDA. A number was assigned to each of the returned questionnaires, and these numbers were used as codes for each of the respondents. This was done as a safeguard of confidentiality and anonymity of sources of information.

The emerging data were further analyzed using the following techniques: (1) Frequency counts and ranking of responses to the open-ended questions, especially those requiring the listing of facts such as the pre-workshop and post-workshop evaluation question: "Can you list some key ingredients of leadership?" Or "How would you recognize leadership if you saw it?" (2) By categorizing and comparing participants' perceptions of effective leadership skills at the pre- and post-workshop evaluations with

those identified by Cary and Timmons (1988) in their taxonomy of effective leadership skills--personal characteristics, personal relationship skills, and task accomplishment skills. (3) By using Burn's leadership typology (*transformational* and *transactional*) to classify the various leadership views indicated by the participants in the pre- and post-training evaluations.

Tests of Rigor

Guba and Lincoln (1981) emphasized that meeting tests of rigor is a requisite for establishing trust in the outcomes of both scientific and naturalistic inquiries. According to these authors, "The criteria commonly used by scientific inquiries also hold for naturalistic inquiry but require some reinterpretation in order to better fit the assumptions of the naturalistic paradigm" (p. 103). In conducting a naturalistic inquiry, Guba and Lincoln (1981) advocated the concern of the evaluator with: *credibility* of findings rather than internal validity when determining the truth of an evaluation; the *fittingness* of the evaluation findings rather than external validity when determining the applicability of an evaluation; the *auditability/dependability* of findings rather than reliability when determining the consistency of evaluation findings; the *confirmability* of evaluation findings rather than its objectivity when determining the neutrality of the evaluation.

Credibility

"The premise that an evaluation must be perceived as credible in order to be used is widely supported" (Greene, 1987, p. 327). As indicated by Patton (cited in Greene, 1987), "Credibility is a complex notion that includes the perceived accuracy, fairness, and believability of the evaluation. . . " (p. 327).

Guba and Lincoln (1981) advised that care must be taken in gathering and recording data, and that continual scrutiny is necessary to eliminate distortions and enable the researcher to produce a truthful and credible report. According to Crabtree and Miller

(1992), "The naturalistic investigator seeks trustworthiness in data collection by trying wherever possible to use multiple methods and divergent data sources" (p. 177). In this study the researcher was solely responsible for collecting and analyzing the data, and as suggested by Patton (1980) that "the researcher's primary responsibility is to experience and describe [as accurately as possible] what is going on in the program" (p. 163), I participated in the leadership workshops for levels I and II. My participation and interaction with other participants (both present and past), program facilitators, sponsoring organizations, and the organizers, as well as my accessibility to the program documents, provided the basis for my description of the program as indicated earlier in this chapter.

Most of the distortions that were likely in the study were overcome by using safeguards such as spending enough time at the training site; establishing rapport with the respondents; cross-checking data from questionnaires, interviews, observations, and documentary materials; and continual assessment of credibility (Guba & Lincoln, 1981), via "those conclusions that have the highest perceived *credibility* among identified evaluation users" (Greene, 1987, p. 328). The users of this evaluation study are primarily the program administrators, the Board of REDA, the Advisory Council, and the sponsoring organizations (funders).

Peer examination, or peer debriefing, as described by Lincoln and Guba (1985) is "a process of exposing oneself to a disinterested peer in a manner paralleling an analytic session and for the purpose of exploring aspects of the inquiry that might otherwise remain only implicit within the inquirer's mind" (p. 308). In this study, progressive reports of the evaluation findings were shared with my advisor, supervisory committee, research colleagues, as well as the sponsors of the evaluation study (i.e., REDA) for clarification and justification of findings.

Fittingness/Transferability

In a naturalistic study, Guba and Lincoln (1981) suggested that the idea of generalizability, or external validity, should be replaced by the idea of *Fittingness/Transferability* of evaluation findings within another context.

According to Guba and Lincoln (1981), generalization assumes a context-free proposition, whereas transferability is contextual. The descriptive data provided in this study might enable readers to compare and adapt (with appropriate caution) some findings to programs or situations with similar characteristics to that of REDA.

Auditability/Dependability

For the aspect of consistency or reliability (as in scientific inquiry), the terms *auditability* (Guba & Lincoln, 1981) or *dependability* (Lincoln & Guba, 1985) have been proposed for a naturalistic inquiry. According to Guba and Lincoln (1981), "It is essential that documentation of the decision trail (that is, the audit trail) be adequately maintained . . . . A second judge should be able to verify that categories derived by the first judge make sense in view of the data pool from which the first judge worked" (p. 122). That is, "by having a second team review the documentation and reasoning underlying the evaluation, the evaluator can determine whether agreement on the findings can be reached" (Guba & Lincoln, 1981, p. 139).

The dependability of this evaluation findings was ascertained by sharing the data with my advisor, members of the supervisory committee, the organizers, and selected respondents of the questionnaire and interview. Records of questionnaires, transcripts of interviews, and analyses have been kept and will be made accessible with the authorization of the researcher or the client organization.

Confirmability

Guba and Lincoln (1981) asserted that "in any inquiry, the objectivity of the data is of critical concern. The data should be factual and confirmable" (p. 125). The burden

of proof in a naturalistic study is shifted from the investigator to the information itself. Thus the data collected have been reported in such a way that they can be confirmed, where necessary, from sources such as the questionnaires and transcripts of interviews, and analyses (Guba & Lincoln, 1981).

Ethical Considerations

This study abided by the ethical guidelines established by the University of Alberta General Faculties Council and the Research Ethics Review Policies and Procedures of the Department of Educational Policy Studies.

Approval to conduct this study was granted by the client organization (see Appendix A). All those who have a stake in REDA's leadership training program (i.e., the participants, facilitators, sponsoring organizations, and the program administrators) were identified and duly informed about the purposes of the research and the voluntary nature of their participation. For instance, prior to the finalization of the research proposal, I was invited by the Executive Director of REDA to attend the General Advisory Council's bi-annual meeting of September 16, 1993 to introduce myself and the research. Moreover, my introduction and the introduction of the purpose of the research by the program director preceded the administration of questionnaires and conduction of interviews at the two workshops. The follow-up questionnaire and the interview guides were each accompanied by a letter introducing the researcher, explaining the purpose of the research, and assuring the respondents of the confidentiality and anonymity of information (see Appendices E and G). Negotiations (through a one-on-one contact method) for participation in the interviews were finalized by the researcher shortly after the formal introduction by the director of the program to the participants and facilitators at the 1994 workshops. Telephone calls, letters, and short notes were used to remind

respondents about the interviews as well as about the completion and return of the questionnaires.

Given the "responsive" nature of the research, the client organization's needs comprised the nub of this study. As mentioned earlier, in the research plan presented to the client organization for review, I planned to assess the impact of the program for a five or ten year period of the program's life (i.e., 1990-1994 or 1985-1994). However, the organization opted for an extension of the time-frame to cover the 19 year existence of the program (i.e., 1976-1994). Moreover, while the original plan was to assess the impact of the program on the participants, it was requested that the study examine also the perceptions of the stakeholders about the program's activities with a view to determining what changes, if any, are needed for the modification and/or improvement of the program. These concerns were accommodated in the purpose of this study.

Although quotations from interviews are used in this report, the sources remain anonymous. The researcher was the only individual who could match comments or data with the individual informants. In addition, the right to withdraw from the research at any stage, or to request that any material be deleted from the report, was explained to all respondents and adhered to.

In conformity with the University's regulations and guidelines (i.e., for thesis preparation) regarding copyrighted material, permission was sought from the publishing companies of each of the materials included in this study (see Appendix O).

Summary

A detailed description of the research design and the methodological procedures used in the study were provided in the chapter. The chapter presents the responsive evaluation model as the main model guiding the study.

To obtain information relating to the research question, both qualitative (i.e., interviews, document analyses, and observations) and quantitative (i.e., pre-training, end-of session, post-training, and follow-up questionnaires) tradition/research paradigms were employed. In all, four questionnaires and four interview guides were developed for the data collection. For ease of description, the data collection strategy was divided into four distinct phases: pre-evaluation study, pre-training, training session, and post training data collection phases.

The planning of the evaluation study involved the identification of the evaluation object, stakeholders, evaluation criteria, and instruments for data collection. The pre-workshop data collection phase aimed at assessing the leadership capability of participants before the training by the use of a questionnaire.

The "during workshop" or "end-of-session" questionnaire aimed at evaluating the progressive impact of the program. At the conclusion of each of the 24 sessions in both levels I and II, participants were asked to complete an end-of-session evaluation to provide insightful information regarding the feelings of the participants and how effectively the program content was meeting their needs. In addition, observations were made of all program activities, and formal and informal interviews were conducted with the 27 participants (excluding myself) and four of the facilitators at the workshop site in order to gather their opinions about the workshops.

Through post-workshop and follow-up questionnaires and interviews, the post-workshop data collection phase examined the changes in the immediate and the long term leadership competencies of the participants as a result of participating in the leadership training program.

Both statistical and content analysis of data were carried out. The quantitative data were analyzed using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS). The emerging data were interpreted using the "descriptive statistics" technique of data analyses. This embraced the use of means, standard deviations, frequency counts, and

percentages. Also, "correlational statistics" were used to describe the relationship between variables. For example, correlated t-tests for pairs of means were conducted where appropriate.

The content analysis of qualitative data was accomplished through the open coding of data, categorization of data, identification of themes on the basis of axial coding, and a search for the presence of positive and negative cases. The emerging data were interpreted based on comparisons of responses using frequency counts and ranking of responses, as well as making comparisons of participants' responses with Cary and Timmons' taxonomy of effective leadership skills (personal characteristics, personal relationship skills, and task accomplishment skills), and Burn's leadership typology (*transformational* and *transactional leadership*).

CHAPTER 5

PRESENTATION OF EVALUATION FINDINGS

This chapter presents the interpretations of the data collected and analyzed for this study. The data included the opinions of the stakeholder groups (i.e., the participants, facilitators, sponsoring organizations, and the organizers) and the insights of the researcher regarding the leadership training program organized by REDA over the 1976-1994 period. Specifically, this chapter answers each of the main research questions, that is, questions about impact, strengths, issues, and concerns perceived by stakeholders in regard to the program.

The findings and the corresponding interpretations are presented by "subjects/themes" taken from the methods used for collecting data for the study (i.e., pre-workshop, during the workshop, post-workshop, and follow-up questionnaires; interviews; observations; and document analyses). For example, findings about the concept of knowledge of leadership are derived from both the pre- and post-workshop questionnaires.

The chapter starts with the discussion of responses about the program impact, followed by those geared toward program modification and/or improvement. For clarity, a description of the questions and interpretations of responses are presented together.

Basically, the research questions, subjects or themes discussed and their respective data sources are as shown in Figure 5.1.

Subject/Theme	Source
Impact	
Knowledge, Self Rating and Emphasis of Leadership Factors	Pre- (JI, II and III) Post- (I-I, 1I and III)
Interest, Applicability, and Usefulness of Leadership Training Program	End-of-session (B, C, and D), Post- (B) and Interviews (Appendices H, I, J, K)
Increase in Leadership Abilities after Training	Pre- (JV), Post- (H, IV) and Follow-up (7)
Changes in Leadership Behavior on the Job	Follow-up (7, 15a, b, c) and Interviews (Appendices H, I, J, K)
Satisfaction of Leadership Needs and Role	Follow-up (8 and 9)
Unanticipated Impact	Interviews
Strengths and Weaknesses	
Strengths of the Program	Post- (F1), Interviews (Appendices H, I, J, and K) and Observations
Weaknesses/Issues and Concerns about the Program	Post- (F2), Follow-up, Interviews (Appendices D, F, H, I, J, and K)
Organizational Arrangements and Effectiveness of Instructors	Post- (A and E), and Interviews (Appendices H, I, J, K)
Attending and Recommending REDA's Programs	Post- (C and D), Follow-up (17) and Interview (Appendix H)
Overall Value of the Workshop	Post- (B)
Declining Enrollment	Document analysis and Interview (Appendix K)
Program Competition	Interview (Appendix K)
Poor Marketing Strategy	Interview (Appendices H, I, and J)
Sequential Nature of the Program	Interview (Appendices H, I, and J)
Lack of Needs Assessment and Program Focus	Interview (Appendices H, I, J and K)
Point When Leadership Training Should be Taken	Follow-up (10)
Participants' Experiences and Suggestions for Future Programming	Follow-up (14 and 18)

Figure 5.1. Stakeholders' Perceptions of the Program Impact, Strengths, and Weaknesses

Note.
1. Letters refer to sections of questions and Appendices.
2. Numbers refer to specific questions on the questionnaires or within a section.

Stakeholders' Perceptions of the Program Impact

This section addresses the research question: "What are the stakeholders' perceptions of the impact of REDA's leadership training program?" In other words, "What changes (if any) in the leadership behavior of participants can be attributed to the influence of REDA's leadership training program?" Through interviews and questionnaires (pre-evaluation, end-of-session, post-evaluation, and follow-up), participants were asked about the impact of REDA's leadership training program. The responses are presented according to the subject/theme.

Participants' Knowledge, Self Rating, and Emphasis of Leadership Factors

In the 1994 leadership workshops, pre- and post-workshop evaluation questionnaires were administered to the 29 participants in levels I and II. On a nine-point scale (from 1: *to a minor extent* to 9: *to a great extent*), participants were asked to rate the extent to which leadership depends on four given variables, viz: personality and training, characteristics of the group being led, situation in which group operates, and the goals being sought. The findings for levels I and II combined were compared with the post-workshop evaluation data. Table 5.1, section A reports the findings, including the results of *t-tests*.

The table (section A) shows that for each of the four given variables contingent to leadership, the mean score increased from pre- to post-workshop while the standard deviation decreased from pre-to post-workshop (i.e., showing an increase in participants' knowledge about the four variables). For example, the average mean response values before and after the workshop were 6.80 and 7.44 respectively while the standard deviation values before and after the workshop were 1.87 and 1.24 respectively. In other words, participants tended to be more in agreement following the workshop, and they on average felt that leadership depends more on each of the four variables than they felt before the workshop.

A comparison between the pre- and post-workshop mean response values of the four variables (see Table 5.1, section A) shows that the characteristics of the group being

Table 5.1

Assessment of Knowledge, Self Rating and Emphasis of Leadership Factors (N=29)

Key concepts	Pre-workshop Mean (9-point scale)	SD	Post-workshop Mean (9-point scale)	SD	Significance Differences in the Means
Section A					
Personality and training of the leader	7.69	1.51	8.15	0.78	.161
Characteristics of the group being led	6.00	1.98	6.89	1.48	.047
Situation in which group is operating	6.45	2.03	7.31	1.16	.195
Goals that are being sought	7.04	1.95	7.39	1.55	.826
Section B					
Self rating of potential as a leader	6.00	1.61	7.00	1.17	.001
Section C					
Emphasis on leadership	6.52	1.77	8.00	1.20	.000

Scale for section A: from 1: to a minor extent to 9: to a great extent.
Scale for section B: from 1: low potential to 9: high potential.
Scale for section C: from 1: very little to 9: a great deal.

led recorded the highest mean value difference of 0.89, and the only statistically significant difference at $p<.005$ level. This means that the extent to which participants

considered the group characteristics as critical to leadership increased as a result of the workshop.

From pre-workshop to post-workshop evaluations, the mean differences of the other three variables are 0.86, 0.46, and 0.35 for the situation in which group is operating, personality and training of the leader, and the goals being sought respectively. These variables, though not statistically significant, also change in a positive direction.

On a nine-point scale (from 1: *low potential* to 9: *high potential*), participants were asked to rate their own potential as a leader. Table 5.1, section B shows a statistically significant difference in the mean response values of participants' views before and after the workshop(s). Average mean response values of 6.00 and 7.00 were obtained from the pre- and post-workshop questionnaires respectively on the self rating of participants' leadership potentials. As the standard deviations reveal, the spread of self ratings decreased from pre- to post-workshop evaluations. These results suggest that during the course of REDA's leadership training program, changes in participants' self-perception of leadership potential occurred: (a) their ratings of potential were significantly higher, and (b) the group was somewhat more homogenous in their self-perceptions of leadership potential.

Similarly, on a nine-point scale (from 1: *very little* to 9: *a great deal*) in the pre-post-workshop questionnaires, participants were asked to indicate the extent to which they do emphasize or would emphasize leadership at work, respectively. The results are shown in Table 5.1, section C. Average mean response values of 6.52 and 8.00 were obtained from the pre- and post-workshop questionnaires respectively. The standard deviations (SD = 1.77 and SD = 1.20) also show that participants are more in agreement in their perceptions about emphasizing leadership behavior in their work following the workshop. These results suggest that as a result of the training program, participants viewed leadership as more critical in their work.

Participants' Perceptions of Interest, Applicability, and Usefulness of the Program

At the end of each of the 24 sessions during REDA's 1994 leadership training, participants were asked to assess the session's content in terms of interest, the applicability of subject matter to their job situations, and the usefulness of the information presented. The mean values of the responses from the 29 participants (levels I and II combined) are indicated in Table 5.2.

Table 5.2

Participants' Interest in, Applicability of, and Usefulness of the Program (N=29)

Variable	Mean	SD	Scale
(A) How interesting the sessions were	4.45	0.65	5-point
(B) Applicability of subject matter to job situation	7.53	1.31	9-point
(C) Usefulness of information presented	7.64	1.24	9-point

Scale for variable A: 1=highly interesting; 2=slightly interesting; 3=somewhat interesting; 4=interesting; 5=highly interesting. For the purpose of analysis, the values were recorded as 1=not interesting; 2=slightly interesting; 3=somewhat interesting; 4=interesting; 5=highly interesting.
Scale for variable B: from 1: not applicable to 9: highly applicable.
Scale for variable C: from 1: not useful to 9: very useful.
Mean response values and standard deviations for variables A, B, and C were obtained from 24 end-of-session questionnaires (i.e., 13 and 11 sessions/topics for levels I and II respectively).

On how interesting the sessions were, the mean response value on a five-point scale (from 1: *not interesting* to 5: *highly interesting*) was 4.45. The mean response values on a nine-point scale (from 1: *not applicable* to 9: *highly applicable*, and from 1: *not useful* to 9: *very useful*) on the applicability of the subject and usefulness of the information presented were 7.53 and 7.64 respectively. These results are considered very high both on the five-point and nine-point scales. The standard deviations for variables (A) and (B) in the table (i.e., SD = 1.31 and SD = 1.24) reveal that the participants were in fairly high agreement in their perceptions about the applicability and usefulness of the

leadership training program. These results suggest two main outcomes. First, REDA's leadership training program was successful in stimulating the interest of participants towards the learning of leadership concepts. Second, the program provided information that was perceived to be useful and applicable to participants' job situations.

When asked a similar question at the post-workshop evaluation, participants comments were positive. On a five-point scale (from 1: *of no value at all* to 5: *of great value*), the mean response value was about 4.9. Table 5.3 shows details about the responses of participants in regard to the value of the workshop. As shown in Table 5.3, 96% of the participants found REDA's leadership training program valuable (i.e., 86% found the program of great value while only 10% found it of average value).

Table 5.3

Value of the Workshop
(N=29)

Value label	f	%
Of great value	25	86
Of average value	3	10
Of below value	0	0
Of little value	0	0
Of no value at all	0	0
No answer	1	3

Scale: 1=of great value; 2=of average value; 3=of below value; 4=of little value; 5=of no value at all. For the purpose of analysis, the values were recorded as 5=of great value; 4=of average value; 3=of below value; 2=of little value; 1=of no value at all.

Complementary to these findings were comments made by some of the participants and their supervisors during the interviews conducted during and after the workshops.

Comments by the Participants:

It seems like it is an interesting thing because you can really see a change in people. People come out of the workshop with more understanding of what it is like to listen sometimes instead of always trying to have the floor.

With the experiences acquired at this training, I think I'm competent enough to run for office in the next local election in my community.

The training elicits a broader understanding of the leadership concept. For example, it improves the communication and public speaking skills of participants just within a short period of time. I think that is one of the most valuable things that the program brings to people and I don't think we always recognize it.

I believe the skills gained would enhance my competency as a member on the Board.

I felt really good. I felt I had learned a lot. I know that the people I took the course with felt that way too. I mean people are very positive about it, very keen that there is so much out there to grasp. It is very interesting because you can really see a change in people. The people who are quite outspoken leave with more understanding of what it is like to listen sometimes instead of always trying to have the floor.

The program has been very resourceful for me. Learning about different behavioral styles and especially finding out about myself has really been fascinating.

Comments by the Participants' Supervisors/Facilitators/Program Administrators:

From what I've gathered and observed from past participants, the key difference is that they feel more confident, more empowered to try to improve their meetings and the functions of their organizations.

They may bring back some specific techniques but it's more a change in attitude. It's an attitude that things can be better, the meetings don't have to be four hours long and boring as well. They can be run better and we can as a group decide how to do that. It's a sense of power. That's what people bring out.

Generally I have, over the last number of years talked with those who have been involved with REDA training and I would say there is quite a level of satisfaction.

I personally have never had anyone come up and tell me it's a total waste of time.

I know for some people it was like a giant leap. They weren't going to get up and do that speech, they weren't going to get up and talk to that group and they did, and they really felt afterwards like that was an occasion in their life in regard to the terror they felt beforehand and in terms of how good they felt afterwards.

> One of the most recent participants came up to me and specifically told me of how he had tried to improve the quality of his community annual meeting this year since he went to training. The first thing he did was to get some flip charts on which he laid out their entire budget rather than just have them printed on a page and he stood up with a pointer to explain all the points to the members. That's a most current example of someone really trying to do something better to improve his ability to communicate with their members. I don't think he would be as successful without going to REDA training.
>
> Participants have clearer expression and are better at dealing with issues.
>
> They are more comfortable standing in front of a group in conducting meetings and so on.
>
> They find the program very interesting. One of the things they've said is that they got a lot of ideas on how to work in groups and how to use their skills in meetings.
>
> After a delegate has gone to the program, he can get up and have organized notes. He has the ability to present with overheads or use other audio-visual materials and be able to do it fairly well, instead of someone just standing up in front of the group and asking: What am I to do now?
>
> We have a number of our delegates, who use the Leadership Level I and Level II as a training process for developing new delegates, within our organization.

The above comments substantiated the perceptions held by the stakeholders that REDA's leadership training program was having positive impact on the leadership behavior of the participants. The few negative comments had to do with the five-day length of the workshop being too long, lack of time to use the recreational facilities, and the unsuitability of the timing of the workshop, especially in terms of the time of the week (Monday-Friday).

Increase in Leadership Abilities as a Result of the Training

In the post-workshop evaluation that followed immediately after the workshop, participants were asked what they might do differently in their role as leaders as a result of the workshop. Their responses included: listening to others, getting people organized and motivated to get things done, making better presentations, organizing more effective meetings, planning ahead, identifying and integrating individual goals with organizational

goals, encouraging participation and shared leadership among groups, and being more outspoken and assertive. The fact that all the participants anticipated some behavioral changes justifies the conclusion that the workshop had a positive effect.

In an open-ended question in both pre- and post-workshop questionnaires, participants were asked to list some key "ingredients" of leadership or how they could recognize leadership. Table 5.4 shows the difference in participants' abilities in identifying essential leadership skills before and after the leadership workshops. The data reveal that participants were able to identify 27 leadership skills before and 42 after the workshops. The data indicate that, on average the perceptions of the 29 participants' at the 1994 leadership workshops in regard to what constitutes essential leadership skills broadened as a result of the training. Moreover, based on the five most frequently listed skills at the pre-workshop and those listed at the post-workshop, participants' perceptions concerning what constitutes key ingredients of leadership changed from confidence, cooperation, competence and determination skills at the pre-workshop to communicating, listening, empathy and fair-minded skills at the post-workshop. As shown in the table, "confidence" and "communicating" skills were the most highly rated at the pre- and post-workshop sessions respectively. Perhaps before the training, participants opined that the leader must be confident in his/her abilities as well as radiate confidence to followers. After the training, there was an increased recognition of the importance of "communication" ability for a successful leadership role. As stated by an executive of one of the sponsoring organizations during an interview,

> The main leadership needs are to be able to be a good communicator, to be a good public speaker, to be able to conduct meetings, make presentations and present various kinds of scenarios or business activities or whatever. The biggest area that can be of significant benefit for a leader and particularly the participants is communication.

Table 5.4

Identification of Key Leadership Skills
(N=29)

Pre-Workshop			Post-Workshop		
Skill	f	Ranking	Skill	f	Ranking
Confidence	11	1	Communicating	9	1
Cooperating	8	2.5	Listening	8	2
Competence	8	2.5	Empathy	7	3.5
Determination	7	4	Fair-minded	7	3.5
Listening	6	5.5	Confidence	6	5.5
Communicating	6	5.5	Charisma	6	5.5
Organizing	5	7.5	Motivating	5	8
Managing	5	7.5	Positive attitude	5	8
Motivating	4	9.5	Visionary	5	8
Appreciating	4	9.5	Assertiveness	4	13.5
Empowering	3	13.3	Cooperating	4	13.5
Aggressiveness	3	13.3	Competence	4	13.5
Visionary	3	13.3	Managing	4	13.5
Decision-making	3	13.3	Organizing	4	13.5
Mediating	3	13.3	Sharing	4	13.5
Discipline	3	13.3	Empowering	4	13.5
Honesty	2	19.5	Honesty	4	13.5
Positive attitude	2	19.5	Flexibility	3	18
Sharing	2	19.5	Determination	2	25
Flexibility	2	19.5	Respect	2	25
Charisma	2	19.5	Group Dynamics	2	25
Visibility	2	19.5	Decision-making	2	25
Supporting	1	25	Dependability	2	25
Dependability	1	25	Appreciating	2	25
Empathy	1	25	Controlling	2	25
Assertiveness	1	25	Tact	2	25
Facilitating	1	25	Energetic	2	25
			Supporting	2	25
			Unwavering	2	25
			Facilitating	2	25
			Mediating	2	25
			Aggressiveness	1	33.5
			Analyzing	1	33.5
			Openness	1	33.5
			Patience	1	33.5
			Maturity	1	33.5
			Initiating	1	33.5
			Risk-taking	1	33.5
			Coordinating	1	33.5
			Modeling	1	33.5
			Commitment	1	33.5
			Courage	1	33.5

The skills listed are in response to questions J.V & H, I.V in both pre- and post-workshop questionnaires respectively (see Appendices B & D). Frequencies which are tied are given the same rank.

A corollary to the finding mentioned above was evidenced in the follow-up evaluation a few months after the 1994 training. Given a list of leadership skills (see Table 5.8), participants were asked to check the leadership skills in which their competency had improved since attending the program. Based on frequency counts, communication was the skill in which the overall leadership behavior of participants improved the most. This finding is discussed more fully later in the chapter (see "changes in participants' leadership behavior on the job").

A descriptive analysis of the identified leadership skills based on five scales from Bass's (1985) Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire suggests that some of the skills identified by the participants at the 1994 REDA's leadership training program can be viewed in terms of *transactional* and *transformational* leadership skills. Through factor analysis of data collected from military officers, Bass (1985) identified three primary factors typical of transformational-style leadership (i.e., charisma, individual consideration, and intellectual stimulation), and two factors typical of transactional-style leadership (i.e., contingent reward, and managing-by-exception). In the military sample, Bass posited that the charismatic/inspirational leadership was central to the transformational process.

As identified in this study, the matching skills to Bass's five main leadership factors mentioned above were charisma, empathy, and facilitating, appreciating, and managing, respectively. The findings of this study show that although these five skills were identified both at the pre- and post-workshop evaluations, those skills oriented towards transformational leadership (especially charisma, empathy, and facilitating) were identified more frequently after the training than before the training. An examination of Table 5.4 shows that charisma, empathy, facilitating, appreciating, and managing skills had frequency counts of 2, 1, 1, 2, and 4 respectively before the training compared to the frequency counts of 4, 7, 2, 2, and 4 after the training. Those skills oriented towards transactional leadership, (i.e., "appreciating" and "managing") were identified equally

both before and after the training; each skill had frequency counts of 2 and 4 before and after the training respectively showing that the same number of participants viewed appreciation and managing skills as basic to effective leadership in organizations. Overall, from the perspective of Bass's factor analysis, out of the five main leadership factors mentioned earlier, three skills (i.e., charisma, empathy, facilitating) that were more akin to transformational leadership were identified after the training by the participants of REDA's program. In other words, before the workshop, the participants' views of leadership were generally more transactional while after the workshop, their leadership orientation placed more emphasis on transformational leadership. These differences suggest some shift in the participants' perceptions of essential leadership skills.

Although these findings tend to be similar to those of Bass (1985), they differ in prioritization. Given the three primary factors of transformational leadership in Bass's military sample, the order of ratings was (from high to low)--charisma, individual consideration/empathy, and intellectual stimulation/facilitating. In contrast, the rating of the participants at the 1994 REDA's leadership training program was (from high to low)--individual consideration/empathy, charisma, and intellectual stimulation/facilitating. In other words, participants viewed "empathy" or "individual consideration" as more central to the transformational process of leadership than the leaders' charisma as claimed by Bass (1985). Perhaps from the perspective of the empathy factor, participants felt that the leader's sensitivity to the feelings and needs of the followers is a precursor to encouraging followers to taking on more challenging responsibilities in solving self and others' problems. A possible implication of these findings is that participants viewed the empathetic characteristics of the leader as the starting point in transforming followers from low to higher levels of performance. Moreover, the higher rating of transactional leadership skills at the pre-workshop evaluation versus higher rating of transformational leadership skills at the post-workshop evaluation connotes a shift in participants'

perceptions of effective leadership skills from managing/transactional leadership to leading/transformational leadership.

In addition to relating the leadership skills to Bass's Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire, responses were also assigned to three categories based on Cary and Timmons' (1988) taxonomy of individual leadership skills (see Tables 5.5 and 5.6). Cary and Timmons developed a monograph titled "Leader's Guide" as one of the seven modules of "Working with Our Publics: In-service Education for Cooperative Extension." This module was designed to help U. S. extension educators become more

Table 5.5

Cary and Timmons' Taxonomy of Individual Leadership Skills

Personal Characteristics	Personal Relationship Skills	Task Accomplishment Skills
-Intelligence	-Listening	-Initiating
-High level of energy	-Encouraging	-Elaborating
-Positive attitude	-Providing feedback	-Communicating
-Self-confidence	-Praising	-Coordinating
-Assertiveness	-Questioning	-Information seeking
-Ability to express feelings	-Mediating	-Gaining content knowledge
-Ability to control inappropriate emotions	-Teaching and training	-Information giving
-Humor	-Maintaining discipline	-Analyzing
-Empathy		-Diagnosing
-Openness		-Summarizing
-Creativity		-Evaluating
		-Managing

Adapted from Cary and Timmons (1988). Leader's guide, pp. 31-33.

effective in their leadership functions, and in developing leadership in others. Cary and Timmons grouped 31 individual leadership skills under three main categories (see Table 5.5): (1) personal characteristics--intelligence, high level of energy, positive attitude, self confidence, assertiveness, ability to express feelings, ability to control emotions, humor, empathy, openness, and creativity; (2) personal relationship skills--listening,

encouraging, providing feedback, praising, questioning, mediating, teaching and training, and maintaining discipline; (3) task accomplishment skills--initiating, elaborating,

Table 5.6

Key Leadership Skills Identified by Participants Based on Cary and Timmons' Taxonomy of Individual Leadership Skills (N=29)

Personal Characteristics	Personal Relationship Skills	Task Accomplishment Skills
-Confidence*	-Cooperating	-Decision-making
-Assertiveness*	-Listening*	-Organizing
-Positive attitude*	-Motivating	-Communicating*
-Visionary	-Sharing	-Managing*
-Aggressiveness	-Empowering	-Modeling
-Charisma	-Supporting	-Controlling
-Empathy*	-^Praising*	-Analyzing*
-Fair-minded	-Flexibility	-Initiating*
-Patience	-Mediating*	-Risk-taking
-Respect	-Discipline*	-Coordinating*
-Maturity	-Facilitating	-Unwavering
-Tact	-Group dynamics	
-Courage		
-Openness*		
-Energetic*		
-Commitment		
-Dependability		
-Competence		
-Visibility		
-Determination		
-Honesty		

Note.
The skills grouped in this table are those listed in Table 5.4.
^ = "Praising" skill is used in the place of "appreciating" skill identified in Table 5.4.
* = Skills appearing in the Cary and Timmons' Taxonomy (see Table 5.5).

communicating, coordinating, information seeking, gaining content knowledge, information giving, analyzing, diagnosing, summarizing, evaluating, and managing.

Table 5.7 compares the leadership skills identified by participants at REDA's leadership training program (i.e., Table 5.6) with those of Cary and Timmons (Table 5.5). With this arrangement, 12, 11, and four skills at the pre-workshop evaluation, and 19, 11,

and 11 skills at the post-workshop evaluation came under personal characteristics, personal relationship skills, and task accomplishment skills respectively.

For two categories of the taxonomy, there was a remarkable increase in the number of skills identified after the workshop than before the workshop. That is, about 67% increase for personal characteristics, and more than 100% increase in the task accomplishment skills. On one hand, the relative increase in the number of identified skills may be ascribed to the influence of the training on the participants. On the other

Table 5.7

Comparison of Identified Leadership Skills with Cary and Timmons' Taxonomy of Individual Leadership Skills
(N=29)

Skills	Cary and Timmons' Leadership Skills #	Pre-workshop: Skills Identified by Participants #	Post-workshop: Skills Identified by Participants #	Skills Identified by Participants at both Pre- and Post-workshop #
Personal Characteristics	*11	12	19	21
Personal Relationship Skills	*8	11	11	12
Task Accomplishment Skills	*12	4	11	11

*Number of Individual Leadership Skills in the Cary and Timmons' Taxonomy (see Table 5.5).

hand, the participants may have felt the need for more personal characteristics to set the stage for effective leadership actions, and more task accomplishing skills to justify the

leader's performance. The personal relationship skills which apparently did not increase appreciably in terms of participants' views perhaps indicated that the participants were already aware of the importance of those skills or that the skills were generally taken to be basic to leadership effectiveness.

Overall, the relative change in the number of skills identified under each category confirms the difference in participants' perceptions of key leadership skills before and after the workshop. The difference was probably a result of the influence of the workshop experience, and hence the impact of REDA's program.

Changes in Participants' Leadership Behavior on the Job

Because of the desire to make the study comprehensive, it was deemed important to explore the impact of the program from the perspective of a larger population. Thus a follow-up survey of all individuals who participated in the leadership workshops (i.e., levels I & II) from 1976 through 1994 was conducted. Out of the 354 follow-up questionnaires distributed, 185 (52%) were returned (see Table 4.2).

Thirty-three leadership competencies were presented in the follow-up questionnaire for participants' self-evaluation of changes in their leadership behavior; each represents an important topic or subject emphasized at the workshops. These skills were identified through a review of program documents (past and present) and participant observations of the 1994 workshop sessions. A merging of these sets of skills netted thirty-three distinct leadership competencies that were then used in the follow-up questionnaire. These competencies were rated on a five-point scale (from 1: *no change* to 5: *very much better*) to indicate the extent to which overall job behavior changed since participating in REDA's leadership training programs, levels I and/or II. In other words, "To what extent has the leadership competencies of participants changed since attending REDA's leadership training program?"

Table 5.8 presents the result of the self-rated changes in the leadership behavior of participants over the months or years after the training. In other words, those who had

Table 5.8

Changes in Participants' Leadership Behavior or Competencies on the Job (N=185)

Leadership Competencies	Valid Cases*	Mean (5-point scale)**	SD
Communication with others (verbal)	174	3.97	0.96
Respect for abilities of others	176	3.86	0.86
Listening ability	178	3.83	0.91
Appreciating performance of others	173	3.83	0.86
Providing leadership in a group	176	3.80	0.82
Being active at meetings	176	3.78	0.95
Sensitivity to feelings	173	3.76	0.92
Conducting successful meetings	175	3.74	0.98
Identification with organization's goals	171	3.73	0.99
Delegation of responsibilities	174	3.70	0.97
Working with others in problem solving situations	173	3.68	0.99
Openness, frankness & confidence	177	3.68	0.99
Sharing leadership in a group	177	3.68	0.94
Making effective presentations	176	3.67	0.94
Receiving feedback	175	3.66	0.83
Accepting responsibilities	173	3.65	1.10
Decision-making	174	3.62	0.95
Coordinating group work	171	3.58	0.93
Giving feedback	176	3.58	0.81
Team-building/nurturing	161	3.57	0.93
Influencing others' behavior	173	3.53	0.99
Conflict management	170	3.51	1.17
Initiating a change	164	3.51	0.94
Planning organization/group work	175	3.50	1.06
Managing change	165	3.50	0.93
Using different leadership styles	159	3.50	0.88
Recruiting staff and volunteers	151	3.30	0.96
Retaining staff and volunteers	145	3.30	0.90
Visionary	166	3.21	0.95
Risk-taking	166	3.18	1.01
Time management	171	3.18	1.04
Communication with others (written)	175	3.03	1.20
Stress management	173	2.95	1.13

Note.

* = number of participants (i.e., out of 185) who responded to each of the leadership competencies contained in the question.

** 1 = no change; 2, 3, 4 = some improvement; 5 = very much better.

participated in the workshops rated the extent to which their leadership competencies had changed since attending REDA's leadership training program. These changes are illustrated in the table through means and standard deviations for each of the 33 leadership competencies specified in the follow-up questionnaire. The arrangement of the competencies in the table was based on a decreasing order of the mean values from the highest (3.97) to the lowest (2.95).

As shown in the table, all the means are above the midpoint on the response scale. An overall average mean response value of 3.56 was obtained for the 33 leadership competencies listed in the table. This average mean value was considered relatively high on a five-point scale. These results reflect the positive impact of REDA's leadership training program in enhancing the leadership competencies of the participants. Based on the difference of 0.36 between the highest (1.17) and lowest (0.81) standard deviation values, participants differ in their perceptions about the changes experienced regarding the 33 leadership competencies emphasized at the training. The 1.02 difference between the highest and lowest mean values also indicated a difference in the extent of changes in participants' leadership job behavior.

As can be seen in the table, the first five leadership competencies [communication with others (verbal), respect for abilities of others, listening ability, appreciating performance of others, providing leadership in a group] recorded some relatively higher mean values of 3.97, 3.86, 3.83, 3.83, and 3.80 respectively than the last five competencies (visionary, risk-taking, time management, written communication, and stress management) with mean values of 3.21, 3.18, 3.18, 3.03, and 2.95, respectively.

In order to determine whether the means differ significantly from each other, a correlated *t-test* for several pairs of means was conducted. It was found that a statistically significant difference exists only between pairs of means where the difference between the high and low mean values was 0.17 and more. For example, starting from the highest mean value, the correlated *t-test* between "communication with others (verbal)" and

"providing leadership in a group" yielded a statistically significant difference at $p<0.05$ level. The independent correlated *t-tests* for pairs of means between "communication" with others (verbal) and each of "respect for others," "listening abilities," and "appreciating performance of others" yielded no significant difference.

The table also shows relatively low response rates (i.e. valid cases) for three of the competencies: using different leadership styles, recruiting staff and volunteers, and retaining staff and volunteers. Out of the 185 total number of respondents, these competencies received response rates of 159, 151, and 145 respectively. These are lower than the average response rate of 165. It is probable that those participants who did not respond to the questions relating to these competencies have not been in the position of recruiting or retaining staff and volunteers. It is also probable that these participants still found the application of these competencies difficult. These data are corroborated by the participants' response to the follow-up questionnaire (Appendix F, question 14) in which participants were asked: "Among the concepts presented at REDA's leadership workshop(s), which ones do you still have difficulty in applying?"

The difficulties commonly experienced by participants included avoiding stage fright and achieving finesse during public speaking or formal presentations, application of "Robert's' Rules" on parliamentary procedure (e.g., sponsoring of motions at meetings), recruiting and retaining personnel, written communications, giving direction and giving the last word of authority, how to be more assertive (e.g., saying "No"), time management, consensus building, the challenge to attempt a failed project again, how to control vocal people from dominating meetings, getting one's point across, coping with change, keeping people motivated, conflict management, stress management, and lobbying. The list appears to identify the content areas of the program that need the most attention from the administrators of the program.

Participants were also asked to provide global ratings of their leadership abilities before and after attending REDA's leadership training program using a nine-point scale. The results are contained in Table 5.9. As shown in the table, the mean response values

Table 5.9

Leadership Abilities Before and After Training
(N=185)

Leadership Ability	Mean (9-point scale)	SD
Before training	2.82	1.72
At present (After training)	6.43	2.22

Scale: low to high=0 to 9.

were 2.82 and 6.43 while the standard deviations were 1.72 and 2.22 before and after the training respectively. These results are indicative of the fact that participants' leadership abilities have improved significantly since attending the program.

When asked to rate the amount of increase in their leadership effectiveness that could be attributed to either level I or level II on a nine-point scale, the collective responses of participants were as shown in Table 5.10.

Table 5.10 provides insights to how each of the two levels of REDA's leadership training program have contributed independently to improving the leadership effectiveness of participants. With mean response values of 5.00 and 4.18 for levels I and

Table 5.10

Influence of REDA's Program on Leadership Effectiveness
(N=185)

Leadership Effectiveness	Mean (9-point scale)	SD
Level I	5.00	1.59
Level II	4.18	1.71

Scale: 1=10% or less; 2=20%; 3=30%; 4=40%; 5=50%; 6=60%; 7=70%; 8=80%; 9=90%.

II respectively, participants seem to perceive the level I component of REDA's leadership training program as having greater influence on their leadership effectiveness than level II. The standard deviation values of 1.59 and 1.71 for levels I and II respectively did not differ much in their ratings of effectiveness concerning the two levels. However, one important result from these data was the fact that both the levels I and II components of REDA's leadership training program were perceived to have contributed appreciably to the leadership growth of participants over the years.

With a view to validating the above responses, an open-ended question was included in the follow-up questionnaire--"Can you describe any changes in you, your work, your leadership behavior, or your relationships with others that were caused in some substantial part by your attending the leadership workshop(s)?" Also, some of the remarks made during the interviews with the participants bore testimony to the above changes.

The following summary of responses from the open-ended questionnaire item and the interviews, therefore, complement the statistical information on changes in participants' leadership competencies noted in the previous discussion:

> I now run a much better meeting and can deal more effectively with those who constantly interrupt meetings.

I am much more tolerant of others and their ideas. As chairman, I try to create a meeting atmosphere which promotes openness and make sure everybody has a chance to speak. I have learned to keep meetings on the subject.

I became more confident in myself and this has been reflected in my position as chairman. I can handle situations much more easily than before--both at work and in volunteer positions.

Gained confidence in speaking at conferences. Improved listening and delegating abilities, and increased attitudinal orientation in regard to giving more respect to the ideas of others.

I have since been a supervisor. Able to conduct self better, and delegate better.

Conflict resolution is much better. It was used immediately after the course and helped our community get back together.

Improvement in my relationship with others. I practised to become a better listener, good communicator. I became a more patient and diplomatic person and did not jump to conclusions so quickly any more. I have a great respect for others' opinions.

I am much more able to distinguish between the issue and the personality. This makes me to be more of a facilitator in getting the job done, rather than promoting a fight over non-issues.

I now take a much greater interest in other people. More empathetic. I listen much closer and honestly try to understand their views. I don't necessarily agree with them but I do try to understand them.

As a result of attending a REDA workshop, I am much better able to take part in meetings and debates. As a delegate, I have been chairman of our annual meeting for several years. I have been selected to represent our organization at both provincial and federal levels.

I have learned to be more willing to share my ideas and less withdrawn in group work.

Presently I have a supervisor which I feel very intimidated with, and through the workshop I have been able not to take this personally and continue to communicate with this individual on a daily basis.

Increased confidence in playing roles as president and chairman.

REDA's program has enhanced my confidence as director and school trustee and in my ability to organize a new group of farmers.

Overcoming my shyness was a big hurdle and speaking in public has helped immensely.

The above comments are corroborative of the changes in the leadership behavior of the participants as a result of REDA's leadership training program.

Satisfaction of Participants' Leadership Needs and Role

On a five-point scale (from 1: *highly dissatisfied* to 5: *highly satisfied*), participants were asked to indicate the degree to which they were satisfied that the leadership workshop(s) met their needs as leaders--supervisor, director, chairperson, manager, facilitator, politician, foreman, spokesperson, delegate, member, staff, etc. (see Follow-up Questionnaire, Appendix F, question 8). The results are shown in Table 5.11.

As indicated in the table, about 90% were highly satisfied or satisfied. The remainder were generally undecided. A review of the returned questionnaires indicated that the sole dissatisfied respondent came from a non-agriculturally-related background. In the light of this factor, the source of dissatisfaction might be due to the fact that REDA's leadership training program was, for the most part, agriculturally oriented.

Also in the follow-up questionnaire, with a view to validating the perceptions of the participants of REDA's leadership workshop(s), participants were asked a question similar to the above. On a nine-point scale (from 1: *much less satisfaction* to 9: *much more satisfaction*), participants were asked to indicate the degree to which satisfaction in their role as leaders changed over time. The results are provided in Table 5.12.

Comparing leadership abilities before and after the training, Table 5.12 shows that 87% of the 185 respondents were much more satisfied in their roles as leaders following their participation in the program. From the Table, it was possible that the 7% "No change," and the 4% "No answer" participants also were satisfied with their leadership role, but perhaps did not experience any remarkable changes. A more likely explanation is that they did not have opportunity to assume a leadership role. The 2% who indicated much less satisfaction in their leadership role gave no reasons.

For Tables 5.11 and 5.12, the average mean response values obtained with regard to the impact of REDA's program in satisfying participants' leadership needs and

Table 5.11

Satisfaction of Participants' Leadership Needs
(N=185)

Level of Satisfaction	f	%
Highly Satisfied	64	35
Satisfied	102	55
Undecided	16	9
Dissatisfied	1	1
Highly Dissatisfied	0	0
No answer	2	1

Scale: 1=highly satisfied; 2=satisfied; 3=undecided; 4=dissatisfied; 5=highly dissatisfied. For purpose of analysis, the values were recorded as 5=highly satisfied; 4=satisfied; 3=undecided; 2=dissatisfied; 1=highly dissatisfied.
Average mean value on the five-point scale = 4.25.

Table 5.12

Satisfaction of Participants in their Leadership Role
(N=185)

Level of Satisfaction	f	%
Much more satisfaction	161	87
No change	12	7
Much less satisfaction	4	2
No answer	8	4

Scale: 1 = no answer; 2, 3, 4 = much less satisfaction; 5 = no change; 6, 7, 8, 9 = much more satisfaction
Average mean value=7.10.

role were 4.25 on a five-point scale and 7.10 on a nine-point scale respectively. These results were considered to reflect a high level of program efficacy.

Overall, as a result of the program, participants claimed to have a better understanding and performance of their leadership roles. These results suggest that REDA's program has been perceived by the participants to be quite effective in contributing to their leadership development. Furthermore, the results are indicative of a high degree of credibility for REDA's leadership training program, especially in enhancing the leadership abilities of participants.

Unanticipated Impact of REDA's Leadership Training Program

More than 70% of the participants (i.e., six out of the 12 participants interviewed while attending the 1994 level II leadership workshop and 10 other past participants) reported some unanticipated outcomes or "spillover effects," (as referred to by Wiswell, 1990) of REDA's leadership program. As asserted by Wiswell (1990), "The spillover of typical training and development activities . . . intended to enhance performance in the workplace also affects activities away from work" (p. 71). From the standpoint that leadership or management development programs often involve interpersonal skills such as negotiation or feedback, Wiswell's argument was that if people gain these skills for the purpose of increasing their job effectiveness, nothing should preclude them from utilizing the skills to improve interactions with their family, friends, and acquaintances in the community. Thus, the general community benefits from the learning intended to improve job performance.

The findings of this study have shown a corollary to Wiswell's (1990) example about using some of the interpersonal skills acquired in management or leadership training outside the work environment. Comparing the leadership abilities of participants before and after the training, the study indicated that participants felt more confident about promoting causes, and were better able to motivate people, to make informed

decisions in their private life, to work with people, to lead a group, and to deal with family and community matters. Several participants indicated they gained confidence in making presentations in public or private places, including local organizations such as churches. Some said they had even gained the confidence to make extemporaneous presentations. Nine out of the 22 participants interviewed indicated that REDA's program served as a *trainers' training program* for them and had highly enhanced their capabilities in training others in their respective organizations and communities; four of these nine reported having served as program instructors/facilitators at subsequent leadership training programs organized by REDA.

The leadership training program had also enabled eight of the nine participants to become more active in organizing various community educational programs, especially as volunteers. One participant indicated that REDA's leadership training program had given him enough background to represent his community in a provincial election. More than 80% of the 16 participants who claimed to have experienced some spillover effects of REDA's leadership training program mentioned their competencies in conducting effective board, club, cooperative, and community meetings.

Stakeholders' Perceptions of the Strengths and Weaknesses of the Program

This section addresses the general research question: "What are stakeholders' perceptions of the strengths and weaknesses of the program including issues and concerns that could provide cues for maintenance, modification and/or improvement of the program?"

Aspects of the program that should be maintained were spelled out in the strengths of the program as perceived by the stakeholders. Similarly, those aspects that should be modified or improved were indicated in the weaknesses emphasized in the issues and concerns raised by the stakeholders across the variety of instrumentation used in this study.

Strengths of REDA's Leadership Training Program

In response to the interview question concerning the main strengths and weaknesses of the leadership training program, the following comments from respondents offer valuable insights about the strengths of the program.

> It's very practical. Lots of hands on stuff. So you actually experience some of the things you're talking about instead of just listening to someone lecture on them.
>
> The cost-effectiveness of delivering the program is an advantage. I don't think you can get a similar program in Edmonton or Calgary for the same price.
>
> The program is very much directed at agriculture and cooperatives. I don't know of anywhere else we can get that.
>
> REDA's program is good as a starting point, especially for those who aspire to assume leadership positions.
>
> The program produces a well rounded individual.
>
> The ability to provide a common ground for people to rub shoulders and network is a strength.
>
> Conducting the workshops at Goldeye as a way of keeping people away from distractions such as the home environment, telephone, "fax" machines etc., is a strength. In fact, I hate meetings in Edmonton because people are always running off to do this or that.
>
> The program was very informative and very effective. First you learn then you practice, which made it more effective. More lessons regarding group situations was very good and perhaps a little more wouldn't hurt.
>
> The instructors were very good communicators, which made it easier for the students.
>
> Actual speech making and presentations are hard nuts which were cracked in the program.
>
> The size of the group was just right, material was presented very well, and facilities were excellent.

The above comments bore testimony to those aspects that have made the program tick and perhaps should be maintained.

Role-Play. From observation, the "role-play" method of delivery adopted by some of the instructors was also a strength of REDA's leadership training program. The role-play aspect of the sessions was practical and educative.

After a brief introductory talk on the objectives and expectations of the session by the instructors, participants were divided into small groups of five or six to discuss and/or role-play certain concepts pertaining to the subject matter of the session. Each group was provided with instructions, flip charts and markers. Within a time limit, the instructor re-assembled the participants and asked for written and/or verbal reports from the spokesperson of each group. Usually the written reports were displayed on the walls using tape to hold them up, so that the reports could be removed or moved around easily. After receiving reports from all the groups, participants were encouraged to make comparisons.

Throughout each session, the role of the instructor was to facilitate discussions and clarify issues or problems. For example, in order to let participants see how different leadership styles affect group interaction, decision-making, and outcomes, participants were divided into three groups in one of the sessions (i.e., the session on "Leadership and the Group"). A leader was appointed for each of the groups labelled 1, 2, and 3. These leaders were given special instructions as to what their roles should be among their group members. Group 1 leader was asked to act "autocratic" (i.e., to make all decisions and discourage participation). The leader of Group 2 was asked to act in a "democratic" manner (i.e., to facilitate decision-making by encouraging members to participate and vote). The leader of Group 3 was asked to act in a "laissez-faire" manner (i.e., to give little or no direction to the group. In other words, to allow members to do as they please). At the end of the 20 minutes, a member of each group was asked to report briefly on what happened in the group. After the reports, the appointed leaders were asked to reveal their assigned leadership style and roles to the whole group.

By allowing participants to lead in a variety of groups and situations, participants were provided the opportunity of relating theory to practice. In other words, the role-playing provided an understanding of the object being role-played as well as a means of determining the extent of change in participants' leadership attitudes or behavior based on the practical application of the knowledge and skills acquired from the training. The role-playing of the three common leadership types (authoritarian, democratic and laissez-faire), and the principles of parliamentary procedure gave participants a better understanding of the concepts.

Weaknesses, Issues and Concerns Raised by Stakeholders

Stakeholders' responses were prompted especially in the post-workshop and follow-up surveys (i.e., through questionnaires and interviews) by questions relating to participants' opinion about some aspects of the program that should be addressed in an effort to modify and/or improve REDA's leadership training program. The weaknesses or issues and concerns raised were in respect of the following:

Organizational Arrangements and Effectiveness of Instructors

Using eight and six variables respectively, participants were asked to rate their satisfaction levels with the organizational arrangements and the effectiveness of all the instructors at the leadership 1994 workshops.

On a five-point scale (from 1: *highly dissatisfied* to 5: *highly satisfied*), the mean values and standard deviations relating to the organizational arrangements are shown in Table 5.13, variable A. An overall average mean response value of 4.36 was obtained for the eight items. This mean value was considered as high on a five-point scale. As the standard deviation values also show, participants did not differ very much in their opinions about their satisfaction with each of the organizational arrangements. These results suggest that participants were generally satisfied with all arrangements. However,

the length of the workshop and the availability and use of recreational facilities were the two lowest in terms of satisfaction. As indicated earlier, the five-day length of the workshop was a major factor responsible for the declining enrollment in the program.

In order to determine whether the means for each of the variables differ significantly from each other, a correlated *t-test* for several pairs of means was conducted. It was found that a statistically significant difference exists only between pairs of means where the difference between the high and low mean values was 0.39 and more. For example, starting from the highest mean value, the correlated *t-test* between "learning facilities" and "time of the week" yielded a significant difference at $p<0.05$ level. The independent correlated *t-tests* for pairs of means between "learning facilities" and each of "location of workshop," "meals," "time of the year," and "accommodation" yielded no significant differences. In other words, the difference between the highest mean response value and the lower mean values yielded statistically significant differences only at mean intervals of 0.39 and more. Moreover, the data show a statistically significant difference between each of the learning facilities provided for the workshop, the location of the workshop; and the length of the workshop, and recreational facilities provided at the workshop. These show that the participants were more satisfied with the learning facilities, location of the workshop, the meals, and the time of the year, than the length of the workshop, and the recreational facilities.

On a five-point scale (from 1: *poor* to 5: *excellent*), the mean values and standard deviations in regard to the effectiveness of all the instructors are shown in Table 5.13, variable B. With an overall average mean response value of 4.33 on a five-point scale, all means are relatively high indicating high quality performance. Also, the standard deviation values of the six items suggested that participants differed in their levels of satisfaction with the different aspects associated with the effectiveness of the instructors and/or facilitators. However, five variables received a mean response value above 4.00. Only the quality of handout materials received a mean response value of less than 4.00

Table 5.13

Participants' Satisfaction with Organizational Arrangements and Effectiveness of Instructors
(N=29)

Variables	Mean (5-point scale)	SD
A. Organizational Arrangements:		
Learning facilities	4.61	0.50
Location of workshop	4.56	0.64
Meals	4.50	0.84
Time of the year	4.46	0.64
Accommodation	4.43	0.70
Time of the week	4.21	0.83
Length of workshop	4.07	0.72
Recreational facilities	4.07	0.83
B. Effectiveness of Instructors/Facilitators:		
Knowledge of subject	4.53	0.58
Responsiveness to participants	4.50	0.75
Organization and preparation	4.43	0.69
Creating appropriate learning climate	4.39	0.69
Style and delivery	4.21	0.92
Quality of handout materials	3.93	0.77

Scale for variable A: 1=highly satisfied; 2=satisfied; 3=undecided; 4=dissatisfied; 5=highly dissatisfied. For purpose of analysis, the values were recorded as 5=highly satisfied; 4=satisfied; 3=undecided; 2=dissatisfied; 1=highly dissatisfied.
Scale for variable B: 1=excellent; 2=very good; 3=good; 4=fair; 5=poor. For purpose of analysis, the values were recorded as 5=excellent; 4=very good; 3=good; 2=fair; 1=poor.

(i.e., 3.93), probably because most of them appeared to be out-dated. For example, some handouts developed in 1976 were used in 1994 without revision. The second lowest mean response value of 4.21 was in regard to the delivery style of some of the instructors. Some of the respondents were concerned about this inadequacy.

To determine whether the means for each of the variables differ significantly from each other, a correlated *t-test* for several pairs of means was conducted. It was found that a statistically significant difference exists only between pairs of means where the difference between the high and low mean values was 0.32 and more. For example, starting from the highest mean value, the correlated *t-test* between "knowledge of subject" and "style and delivery" yielded a significant difference at $p<0.05$ level. The independent correlated *t-tests* for pairs of means between "knowledge of subject" and each of "responsiveness to participants," "organization and preparation," and "creating appropriate learning climate" yielded no significant differences. In other words, the difference between the highest mean response value and the lower mean values was statistically significant only at a mean interval of 0.32 and more. Moreover, the data show a statistically significant difference between the instructors' knowledge of the subject, and the delivery style, as well as the quality of the handout materials used in the workshop. It could be inferred that while the participants tended to be satisfied with the instructors' "knowledge of the subject," responsiveness to participants," organization and preparation," and "creating appropriate learning climate," they appeared to be less satisfied with the style and delivery methods of some of the instructors as well as the quality of handout material given to them.

As observed by the researcher, the different delivery styles manifested by the instructors could be the result of differences in professional background, preparation, experience, or personal characteristics. The following remarks from the interviewees are supportive of the above concerns and observations:

> If you provide staff people who are not qualified, it turns the participants off and they don't get what they want from the program.
>
> The organizers should look at who they have as instructors and not bring every Tom, Dick, and Harry from all over the place. I think they need to have quality people and maybe go through some training sessions themselves, before they get into it, and make sure that they all get together and have a uniform product.
>
> We have different staff that come through and offer different parts of the program and while we try to control what people are presenting in terms of asking them to give us a lesson plan so at least we can see if they are on track, sometimes we don't get the lesson plan, sometimes we get the lesson plan and understand it a certain way and when they present it, it is not quite the way it is stated.

The above comments are self explanatory of the concerns held by some of the participants as well as the organizers of the program regarding the quality of some of the instructors and their delivery methods.

Attending and Recommending REDA's Leadership Programs

When asked about their interest in attending further leadership training programs with REDA, 62% of the 29 participants expressed strong interest, 24% some interest, 10% were undecided, and three did not respond (see Table 5.14, section A); none of the respondents showed any disagreement in attending further leadership training programs conducted by REDA. In other words, about nine out of 10 participants were potentially interested in attending future leadership programs.

In the follow-up questionnaire three months after the 1994 workshop, all the participants of the program--including the 1994 participants were a similar question (i.e., similar to the above). Out of the 185 respondents, 56% said "yes," 27% said "no" and 17% did not answer. Both results support the view that REDA's leadership programs have responded to the needs of participants. The interest in attending further leadership training programs conducted by REDA was substantiated by such comments as:

Table 5.14

Attending and Recommending REDA's Future Leadership Programs
(N=29)

Value label	f	%
A. Interest in Attending Future Programs		
Strongly agree	18	62
Agree	7	24
Undecided	3	10
Disagree	0	0
Strongly agree	0	0
No answer	1	3
B. Recommending program to others		
Strongly agree	22	76
Agree	5	17
Undecided	1	3
Disagree	0	0
Strongly disagree	0	0
No answer	1	3

Scale for variables A and B: 1=strongly agree; 2=agree; 3=undecided; 4= disagree; 5=strongly disagree. For purpose of analysis, the values were recorded as 5=strongly agree; 4=agree; 3=undecided; 2= disagree; 1=strongly disagree.

I still have lots of room for improvement. I also believe that I never will be too old to learn more about leadership.

I really enjoyed level I and would like to go back for level II.

As I have taken levels I and II, I would be interested in a level III or possibly another advanced course.I attended this workshop probably 15 to 20 years ago and now I seem to require a push, or maybe something a little more like a 'kick' as I feel like burnout has set in, and I really don't know how to become motivated into doing what I used to be involved in.

> Maybe it was too much or maybe a push into another leadership workshop would do the trick.
>
> I have always felt the importance of being involved in the community in which I live, Some communities lack good leadership. I think that if you want to be good at what you do and be successful and worthwhile to your community, it is very important to gain the proper skills. REDA has a very successful history. Successful rural communities are very important to REDA and to me too. I would attend a REDA leadership workshop before another.
>
> Even to take the best of level I and level II over would be a great help to me. There is definitely a need for good leadership in every organization or community.

The above comments are indicative of the positive impact of REDA's leadership training program and its motivating influence on participants' interest in attending future leadership programs that might be organized by REDA. Furthermore, the satisfaction engendered by the program has perhaps aroused the enthusiasm of the participants to wish to recommend REDA's program to prospective participants.

On a five-point scale (from 1: *strongly disagree* to 5: *strongly agree*), participants were asked to indicate if they would recommend the program to friends, colleagues, co-workers, etc. As shown in Table 5.14, section B, 93% indicated they would do so, 3% were uncertain, and 3% did not respond. None of the respondents indicated that they "disagreed" or "strongly disagreed" with the statement. Those who agreed used such expressions as:

> The program is very valuable for anyone interested in self development.
>
> I will encourage rural people to attend. It is a great confidence builder. It has been really great for me.
>
> Let more people know about the workshop by sending out brochures on time.
>
> The program is great. I'll definitely recommend it to my friends.
>
> It's a good program. There's definitely something good for everybody but it depends on what individuals want out of it also.

The above were positive comments about REDA's leadership training program. There were very few negative comments and they tended to focus on the circumstances of a potential participant, such as:

> I'm not sure if my friend would like to spend five days out here.
>
> My friend might be interested but he doesn't like traveling.

Declining Enrollment

In recent times, the program has experienced low enrollment. This factor has largely been responsible for the cancellation of many of the workshops and the inefficient use of resources for the few who attend. As shown in Table 1.1 (see Chapter 1), between 1976 and 1994, the Level II leadership workshop was cancelled 7 times for low registration. Among other things, the workshop duration was identified as a critical factor affecting the success of the program especially in terms of declining enrollment. Though the five-day long workshop retreat was viewed as a strength by 5%, it was also viewed as a weakness by 95% of the interviewees. The following are some of the comments made by the participants in response to the follow-up questionnaire and interviews:

> The biggest difficulty I see with this program is that it is held all week long. People are just not able to get away from work.
>
> Definitely a five-day course is a lot of time. You have to really consider the benefits of the program before taking people out of the company for five days.
>
> I don't want to see the quality of the program to go down, but you could offer a shorter program.
>
> For an average farmer, or a lot of people, five days is a long time to be away from home or business.
>
> I think the mind can only absorb what the "ass" can stand. For five days in a stretch, obviously the ass would be sore.
>
> If it was a weekend program you may get more people being able to attend.

> It might be necessary to modify the length of future workshops as a one week program would continue to make full-time workers unavailable.
>
> Getting enough participants seems to be the main problem. Possibly shorter courses may work.

The above comments show that although stakeholders were appreciative of the fact that REDA's leadership training program has considerable impact in improving the leadership capabilities of participants, it is becoming more difficult for REDA's clientele from the standpoint of time and cost to be away from their business for a five-day residential training. Hence the incessant call for a short "out-patient" and skill-focused training.

Contributing to the declining enrollment is the ailing economic situation. Until recently, people may have been more able to participate in a week-long training program. Now, many people have to work off the farm to supplement their income. According to one of the supervisors, "These people are just not there; they don't have the time. They have to really work hard enough to survive." The attendance record (see Table 1.1, chapter 1) shows a downward trend in the enrollment of participants. Apparently, it is increasingly difficult for participants to get away from home for an extended period of time, as long as five days. For many, it becomes very expensive in view of the fact that they have to get some extra help to look after their business while they are away from the farm. For some, the quest for sustenance is paramount. Other complementary remarks concerning the ailing economic situation include:

> I would dearly love to attend more REDA workshops but financially it is hard for me, plus the time is not always suitable.
>
> But would I have time and the money? I don't know I am a full-time student now.
>
> They are too expensive for anyone without sponsorship.
>
> If funding were available and I could find the time, I would attend.

Another concern with regard to the decline in enrollment related to the inadequate support from sponsoring organizations. It is a common belief that if people at the top echelon of an organization accept a program, the tendency is high that subordinates will also attach much value to it. In other words, subordinates can easily be influenced by the superordinates' behaviors. However, it appears that the leaders of many of the sponsoring organizations are not promoting REDA's program as one would expect. As indicated by one of the respondents, "Despite the increasing numbers of members, delegates, and staff in the sponsoring organizations, it is surprising to see the meager number of participants from the organizations." Evidence abounds that some have even quit promoting REDA's program. As stated by a representative of one of the organizations in an interview, "I know, I probably haven't promoted it as much as I should, but I've tried at least. Some organizations have quit promoting it altogether." Another representative stated:

> We had traditionally in the past supported REDA, but we haven't really actively taken advantage of all the things that they have. I guess that is where we have failed. We have traditionally looked at REDA to supply information and education to our members, but we haven't really involved our delegate structure that much in what REDA has to offer, especially in recent times.

The location of the training site (i.e., Goldeye) offers yet another predisposing factor to the declining enrollment. There is no doubt that Goldeye provides one of the best training atmospheres for learning. However, the main concern was over the distance. Some of the participants who lived far away from Goldeye mentioned their difficulty in driving many hours. As remarked by one of those interviewed, "where it's nice to get away for a retreat, or for one night, or at the most two nights, still it's nice to know you're only few hours away from home if you have to go home."

Program Competition

Many agencies or institutions outside REDA offer similar programs. In particular, the in-house training programs by sponsoring organizations constitutes a

challenge to REDA's program. As in-house training programs grow, they seem to do more things. And so there is competition. To date, about half of the 13 organizations funding REDA's leadership training program are themselves conducting one form of leadership training program or another. If one recalls the history of REDA, and especially, the primary objective for its establishment, then it would be apparent that those who collaborated to put REDA in place as a consortium have since provided various in-house training programs whose objectives are seriously conflicting with REDA's program.

The management of the in-house programs could be taken as an example of the impact of REDA's program, especially concerning the "trainers' training" aspect where some past participants of REDA's program are responsible for facilitating those in-house programs. However, from an ethical standpoint, the belief is that there should be a compromise as to the type and scope of training offered on both sides rather than making REDA's program a white elephant.

While some sponsoring organizations appear to be behind REDA's leadership program, many are either competing with REDA or simply not willing to promote the program any longer; some have even quit promoting it.

Poor Visibility and Marketing Strategies

More than 90% of the 55 interviewees (i.e., 37 program participants, 11 representatives of the sponsoring organizations, and seven instructors) remarked about the poor visibility and marketing inadequacies of REDA. As claimed by some of the interviewees, the main concern relates to how to attract more participants to the program. Some of the challenging remarks by the interviewees include:

> How can more individuals be motivated to participate in the program? How can participants be encouraged to return home and sell the program to others? Or how do you get it to their ear to help sink the hook in the marketing sense?

We have come to the gruesome conclusion that too few people read any more. You can have a nice glossy brochure, but it better have a lot of lights and whistles on it, otherwise people don't read it. You can spend thousands of dollars putting the stuff on their kitchen table, but are they going to read it? The most effective contact method is one-on-one.

You have to keep selling the program to us and maybe come and visit us once in a while and sit down with us and tell us what it's all about. Tell us the changes you've made and the updates you've made and the new things you're doing so we know about it. It's nice to get a brochure but I get millions of brochures on my desk a day and a lot of them end up in the waste basket. It's pretty hard to sort a person into the waste basket when he's sitting across to you. Once they sell it to me and get me convinced, I'm going to support them a lot more.

I could take you to a couple of cooperatives around Calgary and Medicine Hat alone that probably have never heard about it especially in their training departments.

REDA has to become more visible to be recognized as a viable option in management and leadership training.

You have to market yourself, you have to let people know what you have and what you can provide.

To really do a sales job, you have to get in and get the key people. You'll have to write and talk to people in the Human Resources.

Certainly a pamphlet or quiet discussion doesn't seem to work. Personal touch is more appreciated.

You promote yourself to regenerate yourself.

If you do not promote what you do, funders might quit funding.

The above remarks are relevant in demonstrating the importance of personal contact and improved promotional strategies, especially in a competitive situation. As indicated by Walshok (1987), a good promotional strategy presents the values of a program in a way that helps various constituencies understand the potential benefits of the program being promoted. Given these comments, one is tempted to assume that the present marketing or promotional strategy of the client organization needs to be overhauled.

Another shortcoming of REDA's program was the late dissemination of program information to participants. About 41% (i.e., 12 out of 29) of the participants at the 1994

workshops indicated they received the brochures about REDA's program late. Some of this group of participants were aware of REDA's program but did not know precisely when or whether the program would be conducted that year while some of them only stumbled into knowing about the workshops for the first time through friends or supervisors. Some of the comments from the follow-up questionnaires are:

> I got the brochure about the first week of January, three days before the workshop. It just happened that it came before the Board's meeting.
>
> I got the brochure two days before the enrollment deadline and two days before my Board's monthly meeting.
>
> Most of the people that I informed about REDA's program didn't have enough time to get the applications to their particular organizations for permission and/or funding.
>
> REDA doesn't get the programs out early enough so that our organization can hand out the brochures to people who they think would be interested.
>
> For this program to succeed, I'd like to see a little bit of information sent out to the participants ahead of time.
>
> If not for my friend. . . I wouldn't have heard nor attended this workshop.

The above comments are expressive of the effect of late dissemination of program information to prospective participants.

The design of the program's brochures was a source of concern for some of the participants. Seven (19%) of the 37 participants interviewed found individual speech delivery (level I) and presentations (level II) as stated in the brochures very frightening. To some individuals, standing up in front of a peer group or colleague to deliver a speech or make a presentation is overwhelming. One respondent commented, "Seeing speech preparation and delivery in the brochure scared me more than anything else in the whole program." This, in itself, may deter people from participating. So how to get the participants there and not scare them off should be a matter of concern in the designing of the brochure.

Sequential Nature of the Program

The sequential nature of the present three-level program (i.e., levels I, II, & III) has its own merit. To some, it makes the program very distinct. As it is, the sequential nature of the program warrants taking level I before level II, and level II before level III. As indicated in Chapter 1, participants are expected to gain practical experience at each level for at least a year before returning for the higher level (i.e., participants are expected to use the skill acquired at a particular level for a period of time, and reach a plateau where they need the next step). This is likened to the requirement of some courses in the graduate programs at colleges and universities in which taking a particular course becomes a pre-requisite for another.

This arrangement tends to limit the number of participants available for each of the levels of the program at a time, and therefore may contribute to the declining enrollment. For example, in a situation where there are 20 participants taking level I this year, only three or four of them may be ready for level II next year. It may even take some people five or more years to come back for level II. The organizers themselves have identified this factor as one of those responsible for the declining enrollment and the consequent cancellation of some of their workshops.

Lack of Needs Assessment and Program Focus

To date, REDA has never conducted any formal needs assessment. As remarked by the Executive Director, "Since REDA started conducting the leadership training program, it's been building on what was inherited from the Faculty of Extension of the University of Alberta (i.e., the former organizer of the program)." In other words, there has been no formal needs assessment conducted directly by REDA for the program. According to the Director, what was done originally was to form a committee comprised of representatives of the sponsoring organizations to discuss the various leadership skills needed and thereafter design a training plan to cover the skills identified. This approach

had been on a trial and error basis as it does not cover an in-depth analysis of participants' needs or interests.

In his paper on "Educational Needs Assessment", Popham (1972) referred to *needs assessment* as "that operation designed to identify those areas of educational deficiency most worthy of amelioration" (p. 22). Since REDA's programs deal with participants with a wide range of experiences and backgrounds, it is fairly difficult to have a program that covers all needs and aspirations. A needs assessment is necessary to determine what leadership skills or competencies are lacking, with a view to developing the training programs around such identified needs. For some individuals, the introductory aspect of the program would meet their needs. For others, it might be too basic and they might need to go beyond that. If properly conducted, a needs assessment should also indicate similarities and differences among the needs of members, staff, delegates, directors, board members, community leaders, and volunteers. The identification of needs is likely to help tailor the program content to meet the needs of the participants rather than the participants tailoring their needs to meet the program's contents. Epigrammatically, it is believed that the program should be for the people and not the people for the program.

As remarked by a respondent, "Those who have never been exposed to leadership development programs go away with a very good feeling that they have increased their skill level. Those who have had a wider range of experience elsewhere may feel that REDA's program doesn't offer quite as much as they had hoped." In other words, the claim is that REDA doesn't offer enough targeted programming as compared to similar programs elsewhere.

Perhaps part of the side-effects of the issue of a needs assessment is the concern of stakeholders about the lack of focus of REDA's leadership program. About 90% of those interviewed from the sponsoring organizations felt that REDA's program had not attended to the specific needs of their people. The program covers a broad base of topics

but doesn't cover some of the specialized skills required for effective leadership in organizations. Some of the supervisors and training personnel in the sponsoring organizations claimed that, though both Levels I and II are comprehensive, they are too general. In their opinion, a more focused training should concentrate on only one aspect of the content at a time. For example, the focus on effective communication or conflict resolution at one workshop would suffice.

Representatives of some of the sponsoring organizations indicated their reluctance to send participants for a three- or four-day general session especially if that participant had received a very intense session at an in-house training program with components of what REDA was offering. They perceived that special programs should be developed to address the needs of individuals and organizations.

Another concern raised by respondents was the lack of emphasis on the application of leadership concepts to some of the tough issues with which organizations have to deal. About 20% of the 29 participants attending the 1994 leadership workshop and 11 representatives of sponsoring organizations were critical about this problem. One of the respondents remarked:

> If I was a director facing the issue of NAFTA (North American Free Trade Agreement) negotiations or those kinds of things and I had a chance to spend a few days at that or a few days at a leadership program, I would be at the NAFTA program and that's because it's a farm economic issue about which I need to have some understanding to make viable political and economical decisions relating to my farm business. Whereas this type of leadership program only shows me ways to make decisions which I've been making ever since I was a baby and I've been getting by just fine. So I think that is the mentality that is out there.

Probably because the world is changing quickly, many farm organizations are interested in knowing what to do to meet the present challenges, and those of the future.

Point When Leadership Training Should Be Taken

During the 1994 leadership workshop, some participants discussed the most appropriate time to take a leadership development program. In anticipation of getting a

cross-sectional view of a larger population, the question was asked in the follow-up evaluation: "At what point do you feel the leadership workshops should be taken?" The results are shown in Table 5.15.

For 30% of the respondents, "Before holding a leadership position" and "Any time when interested" are the most appropriate times for people to take leadership training programs. These results suggest that leadership training programs are most effective when taken by prospective leaders before holding a leadership position or any time they are interested. In addition, the respondents opined that since every human is a potential leader, it is important for organizations to encourage their workers to attend various forms of leadership programs before holding a leadership position or any time they are interested in them. Particularly, training incentives should be provided for those being considered for future leadership roles.

Table 5.15

When to Participate in a Leadership Training Program
(N=185)

When to Participate	f	%
Before holding a leadership position	55	30
Any time when interested	55	30
When first assigned a leadership position	41	22
Several weeks after getting a leadership position	19	10
Several months after getting a leadership position	14	8
No answer	1	1

Suggestions for Future Programming

Kirkpatrick (1987) emphasized the importance of obtaining comments and suggestions which would be helpful in improving future programs. He opined that it is important to obtain favorable reaction because decisions on future training activities are frequently based on the reactions of one or more key persons and that the more favorable the reaction to the program, the more likely the programmers or organizers are to pay attention.

In this study, participants were asked to provide comments about the leadership workshops (i.e., comments about the content, the facilitators/instructors, and the materials used, etc.) which could help make future programs more valuable. In the content analysis of the responses the following suggestions were offered:

> The provision of library facilities was considered highly important.
>
> Outdoor activities would be a good feature to include.
>
> I would like to see you push level III. It was an excellent workshop. I feel privileged to have attended.
>
> There should be a course on decision-making related to financial analysis.
>
> Perhaps more should be stressed on keeping in touch with your M. L. A. and about lobbying.
>
> To include topics on power positions and money power--Suggesting a level IV.
>
> Instructors should not all come from one organization. More mixture of backgrounds is good.
>
> Let more people know about the workshops by sending out brochures to potential participants and service groups on time.
>
> A bit more impromptu speaking would be beneficial. An exercise in applying parliamentary procedure with some one leading the meeting who was very proficient would have taught me far more than overheads. I can read the book myself, but that still doesn't help me apply it.
>
> Special workshops on local and global issues would be of great interest. Some examples might be: GATT, NAFTA, land banks, decentralization, rural opportunities, etc. I also suggest that REDA includes something like how to organize successful fund raising activities in the program.

To offer a leadership program for two separate groups:
(a) Business (i.e., employees, directors, managers, directors, etc.)
(b) Volunteers (i.e., 4-H leaders, community leaders, etc.).

I would have liked to keep the tape used to practice public speaking. This would have helped in the self-evaluation of my performance over and over again. Maybe we could have been asked to bring our own tapes or buy some at the workshop.

Encouraging groups (e.g., sponsoring organizations) to send more participants would allow for more discussion and interaction in the home environment of the workshop.

A binder with overview and additional information or resource materials listed on each area covered might be a good idea. This could act as manual at home or work.

More than one presentation should be encouraged. Doing one presentation did not give enough opportunity for practising the art of doing oral presentation to a group.

More advance notice of workshop is important.

Travel distance is a factor of concern. Moving the program around the province to places like Medicine Hat or Lethbridge might be a better idea.

Keep up with the changing times.

Regarding "What follow-up activities or subject matter (if any) would have been helpful after participating in the leadership workshop(s)?, suggested activities include (see Appendix F, question 16):

A periodic review or a yearly newsletter or if possible a level IV leadership workshop. Just something to keep the edge that we all carried back to our communities after these training opportunities.

Weekend refresher workshops in local areas would be a great idea. These could possibly be at more regional locations maybe at Edmonton, Calgary, Red Deer, or. . . .This is more intended for those who took the courses 2-5 years in the past.

A special session on presentation would be helpful as many organizations do not follow the procedure.

A questionnaire like this is nice.
Maybe a problem mailed out that we could respond to.

On the job observation. Some of us need guidance in the use of the leadership concepts learned.

Perhaps because of the interest in REDA's leadership training program, participants and other stakeholder groups (i.e., representatives of the sponsoring organizations, and the facilitators of the program) were willing to provide some valuable suggestions toward the improvement of future leadership training programs that might be organized by REDA. Collectively these suggestions provide a rich source of ideas that the program administrators can use to improve the leadership training program.

Summary

The analyses and interpretations of the data derived from the questionnaires, the interviews, the observation, and the document analyses were presented in this chapter. The determination of program impact was largely based on the results of data analyses (content and statistical) obtained from the questionnaire (pre-workshop, end-of-session, post-workshop, and follow-up); the interviews (with the participants, sponsoring organizations, instructors, and administrators); observations; and document analyses. There is no doubt that REDA's leadership program has achieved success. The data show that the participants valued the training experiences and rated the overall value of the program as good, and that the program had actually enhanced their leadership competencies.

The mean ratings on all variables across all questionnaires (pre-workshop, end-of session, post-workshop, and follow-up) and content analysis of comments gathered from the interviews indicated general satisfaction with the program. Participants responded positively regarding the stimulating quality of the program and its relevance to their job situations. Perhaps as a result of these positive outcomes, participants expressed their willingness to recommend the program to friends, colleagues, and co-workers.

The comparison of the mean scores of the pre-workshop and post-workshop questionnaire showed a remarkable difference. Although the participants tended to

express a limited set of management capabilities before the training, afterward they expressed leadership abilities which were quite expansive. For example, participants were more aware of emphasizing and evaluating leadership behavior at work. In the pre-workshop and post-workshop questionnaires, participants were able to identify a greater number of skills that are essential for effective leadership. Specifically, they were able to identify 42 leadership skills at the end of the workshop as opposed to the total of 27 skills identified before the workshop. Moreover, the frequency counts of the skills identified at the pre-workshop and post-workshop showed a shift in participants' perceptions of effective leadership skills from "managing" toward "leading." In other words, participants demonstrated that an effective leader goes beyond the horizon of the status quo in regard to maintaining organizational performance through exchange of rewards for commitment between the leader and the follower to improving and engineering a more challenging vision capable of transforming both the individuals and the organization from a lower-order level to a higher-order level of performance. On a continuum, the leadership competencies of participants moved from that which is static to that which is dynamic.

Regarding what participants might do differently in their role as leader as a result of the training, they anticipated to improve mostly their listening, organizing, planning, empathy, participatory, and shared leadership skills. The stakeholder groups identified the main strengths of the program as those including role-play method of delivery, cost effectiveness, group size, group interaction, and the ambience of the workshop site. However, they indicated a desire for a shorter program duration, early dissemination of program information, a more focused program that would concentrate on one particular area of interest at a time rather than a broad base of topics, more visibility of the organizers, and improved promotional or marketing strategies.

CHAPTER 6

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, RECOMMENDATIONS, AND IMPLICATIONS

This chapter is divided into four sections. The first section presents an overview of the study including the purpose of the study and research questions, a synopsis of the research design and methodology and a summary of the major findings. The second section presents the conclusions drawn from the study as well as presents recommendations for the improvement of the program. The third section lays out the implications of the study based on the findings and conclusions. The fourth section presents some concluding remarks about the study.

Summary

This section offers a synoptic view of the study including the purpose, research design and methodology, and findings.

Overview of the Study

Despite the increasing concern of institutions with evaluation as part of the "training cycle" for their programs, relatively little attention has been paid to evaluating the impact of training programs on participants. Most evaluations emphasize the costs and benefits of resources and give little or no attention to the impact of such programs on the participants. Fewer still focus on the immediate, short- and long-term impact of their programs on the participants.

In Alberta, the Rural Education and Development Association (REDA) is one of the leading organizations providing leadership development programs for rural people and organizations since 1976. A review of the program's records and documents revealed that previous evaluations of REDA's leadership training program were primarily

informal. REDA had never conducted formal evaluation of the impact of the program on participants over the years. For all practical purposes, an evaluation of the impact of a leadership training program helps to provide evidence on whether changes in the leadership behavior of the participants are related to the training program. In addition, formal evaluation can elicit suggestions for the enhancement of the program based on the issues and concerns that might be raised by the stakeholders of the program.

Drawing on the foregoing rationale, this study aimed at answering two main research questions:

1. What are the stakeholders' perceptions of the program's impact? That is, what changes in the leadership behavior of participants can be attributed to the influence of REDA's leadership training program?
2. What are stakeholders' perceptions of the strengths and weaknesses of the program including issues and concerns that could provide cues for maintenance, modification, and/or improvement of the program?

Research Design and Methodology

Stake's (1975a, 1983a) Responsive Evaluation Model was adopted as the conceptual design for this study. The 12 prominent events in Stake's mnemonic "clock device" were encapsulated into five main steps which formed the framework for conducting this study: (1) identification of purpose and scope of evaluation, (2) identification of data needs and instruments, (3) data collection, (4) data analysis, and (5) reports and recommendations.

Data collection was a mixture of both qualitative (interviews, document analyses, direct observations), and quantitative (questionnaires) research strategies. Four sets of questionnaires and interview guides were developed for the four stakeholder groups: the participants, the instructors, representatives of the sponsoring organizations, and the program administrators. These questionnaires were administered to the participants at four stages of the data collection process: pre-workshop, end-of-session, post-workshop,

and follow-up. The interview guides were dispatched through hand delivery and by facsimile transmission to the program participants, instructors, representatives of sponsoring organizations, and program administrators prior to conducting the interviews.

The pre-workshop, end-of-session and post-workshop questionnaires were distributed to the 29 participants at the 1994 leadership workshops. The return rates were 100%, 97%, and 93% for the pre-workshop, post-workshop, and end-of-session questionnaires respectively. Follow-up questionnaires were distributed to 354 individuals who participated in the program over a 19-year period (i.e., 1976-1994) with the return rate of 52.3%. While the pre-workshop, post-workshop and follow-up questionnaires were distributed and completed only once throughout the study, the end-of-session questionnaire was completed 24 times based on the number of sessions offered in the workshops for levels I and II (i.e., 13 sessions for levels I and 11 sessions for level II). Since 17 and 12 participants were involved in levels I and II leadership workshops respectively, a total of 353 end-of-session questionnaires were distributed with a return rate of 93%.

The interviewees included 37 participants, 11 representatives of the sponsoring organizations, seven instructors, and two administrators of the program. A review of the program's records and documents provided information on the history, goals and objectives, enrollments, and program content. In-person observation of the 1994 leadership workshops for levels I and II provided a first person perspective on the program's activities and enhanced the formulation of questions both for the questionnaires and interview guides.

Both statistical and content analyses of the data were employed. The quantitative data were analyzed using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) and interpreted with the aid of descriptive and correlational statistics (i.e., using frequency counts, percentages, means, standard deviations, and *t*-tests). The content analyses of the qualitative data were done using codes and frequency counts. Based on frequency

counts, participants' perceptions of leadership skills were compared with Cary and Timmons' (1988) taxonomy of individual leadership skills (i.e., personal characteristics, personal relationship skills, and task accomplishment skills), and Burn's typology of leadership skills (i.e., transactional and transformational skills).

Summary of Findings

This section of the chapter provides a summary of the major findings of the study. First, the findings relating to the stakeholders' perceptions of the program's impact are presented. This is followed by the findings relating to the stakeholders' perceptions of the strengths and weaknesses of the program, including issues and concerns that could provide cues for maintenance, modification and/or improvement of the program.

Stakeholders' Perceptions of the Program Impact

The impact criteria were threefold: changes in participants' knowledge, skills, and attitudes regarding leadership behavior as a result of REDA's leadership training program. Stakeholders' perceptions of the program's impact were grounded in changes in the participants' knowledge; changes in participants' leadership abilities after the training; participants' perceptions regarding interest, applicability and usefulness of the training; changes in participants' leadership behavior since the training; satisfaction of participants' leadership needs and role; and unanticipated outcomes of the program. Briefly, the findings revealed the following:

-Participants perceived that their knowledge about leadership increased as a result of REDA's leadership training program. Assessments of participants' knowledge on the extent to which leadership depends on four given variables (i.e., personality and training, characteristics of the group being led, situation in which group operates, and the goals being sought), however, showed some differences in these variables. Based on the mean response values for each of the four variables, there was an overall increase in leadership

knowledge from pre- to post-workshop. However, only for the group characteristics factor was the difference statistically significant. Other factors that were associated with the knowledge about leadership included participants' self ratings of their potentials as leaders and emphasis on leadership behavior in their work. The mean response values for self rating of potential as leaders increased from 6.00 to 7.00 while that for emphasizing leadership behavior in their work increased from 6.25 to 8.00 (both significant at well beyond the 0.05 level).

-Participants found the program interesting and perceived that the knowledge, skills, and attitudes acquired as a result of the training were useful and applicable to their job situations. The mean response value relating to how interesting the participants found the sessions/topics was 4.45 on a five-point scale. Pertaining to the applicability of subject matter to the job situation and the usefulness of information presented, the mean response values on a nine-point scale were 7.53 and 7.64 respectively. These findings were corroborated by a mean response value of 4.9 (on a five-point scale) for the rating of the program value at the post-workshop, and the reflective comments offered by participants and supervisors.

-Participants were able to identify 27 and 42 leadership skills before and after the workshops respectively. Based on the most frequently listed, the five most highly rated leadership skills in the pre-workshop evaluation were confidence, cooperating, competence, determination, and listening. In the post-workshop evaluation, the five most highly rated leadership skills were communicating, listening, empathy, fair-minded, and confidence.

These outcomes provided positive indicators of the impact of REDA's leadership training program on the participants. First, there was a shift in participants' perceptions of the most essential leadership skill from confidence to communication. This result was corroborated by the finding in the follow-up evaluation in which communication (verbal) was the skill in which the overall leadership ability of participants showed the most

improvement. Second, the interpretation of these findings in the context of Bass's (1985) *transactional* leadership skills (contingent rewards, and managing-by-exception) and *transformational* leadership skills (charisma, individual consideration, and intellectual stimulation) suggests that as a result of REDA's leadership training program, participants' leadership orientation moved from greater emphasis on transactional leadership before the workshop to greater emphasis on transformational leadership after the workshop. Third, interpreting these findings in the context of Cary and Timmons' (1988) taxonomy of individual leadership skills--personal characteristics, personal relationship skills, and task accomplishment skills also suggests that as a result of REDA's leadership training program, participants believed that development of a leader's personal characteristics is of utmost importance in providing the impetus for the effective use of both personal relationship and task accomplishment skills. On the whole, these results indicate that the participants' understanding of leadership concepts increased as a result of the training.

-The program was perceived by participants to elicit some unanticipated outcomes. More than 70% of the participants (i.e., of the six participants interviewed while attending the 1994 level II leadership workshop and 10 other past participants) reported unanticipated outcomes of the program. For example, participants reported they were able to utilize some of the leadership skills acquired as a result of the training program to improve interactions with their family, friends, and acquaintances in the community.

Stakeholders' Perceptions of the Program's Strengths, Weaknesses, Issues and Concerns

As perceived by the stakeholder groups involved in this study, the main strengths of the program include the role-play method of delivery adopted by some of the instructors, cost effectiveness of the program, group size, group interaction among program participants, and the conduciveness of the workshop site.

The weaknesses of the program evolved from the issues and concerns raised by the stakeholders. The main issues and concerns were centered on organizational

arrangements, effectiveness of instructors, participants' willingness to attend or recommend a future leadership program conducted by REDA, declining enrollment, program competition, poor marketing strategy, sequential nature of the program, lack of needs assessment and program focus, and suggestions towards future programming.

The main issues and concerns raised by stakeholders had to do with the following:

-Five-day length of the workshop. About 95% of the participants perceived the five-day long workshop as a problem and would want it reduced to one to three days.

-Declining enrollment. The program administrators perceived declining enrollment as chiefly responsible for the under-utilization of resources as well as the cancellation of many of their workshops. Some of the factors perceived to be contributing to the declining enrollment include the long duration of the workshop, the ailing economic situation, the geographical location of the training site, and the declining support from the leaders of sponsoring organizations in encouraging the participation of their members.

-Program competition. Many of the sponsoring organizations now compete with REDA by offering similar programs. In other words, the funders became competitors. About half of the 13 member sponsoring organizations mentioned in Chapter 1 are currently performing those functions that were originally assigned to REDA.

-Poor visibility and marketing strategies. More than 90% of the 55 interviewees (i.e., 37 program participants, 11 representatives of the sponsoring organizations, and seven instructors) perceived that the organizers of REDA's leadership training program have not done enough to promote the program. These stakeholders expected REDA personnel to make more personal contacts with the right people in the organizations as an effective means of promoting the program.

Associated with the concern about poor marketing strategy were both the late dissemination of program information to participants and the intimidating nature of the program's brochures. For example, about 41% of the 29 participants at the 1994

workshops indicated they received the brochures about REDA's program late. About 19% of the 37 participants interviewed (during and after the workshops) found the proposed workshop topics of individual speech delivery (level I) and presentations (level II) as stated in the brochures very frightening.

-*Sequential nature of the program.* Respondents perceived the sequential nature of the program as limiting the opportunities of prospective participants. The present arrangement was perceived to be time consuming. It was frustrating in the sense that individuals were not provided the option of taking only the courses or topics of their choice. Moreover, it was time-consuming because participants were required to take level I before level II and to take level II before level III. This sequential ordering of the program was also perceived by program organizers as a potential factor in the declining enrollment and the consequent cancellation of some of their workshops.

-*Lack of needs assessment and program focus.* Since its inception, the planning of REDA's leadership training program has always been based on informal needs assessment. Apparently, formal needs assessment was still a thing for future programming. About 90% of the interviewees (i.e., out of the 11 representatives from the sponsoring organizations) perceived that REDA's leadership training program had only been satisfying the basic leadership needs of participants but was not focusing much on the specific needs of their organizations. Coupled with these concerns was the lack of emphasis on application of leadership concepts to some of the tough issues facing participants' organizations.

-*Point when leadership training should be taken.* Concerning the most appropriate times for people to participate in leadership training programs, the "before holding a leadership position" and "any time when interested" were the most favored by the participants. Each of the options was supported by 30% of the 185 participants.

Conclusions and Recommendations

The findings from this study identify changes that have occurred in participants' knowledge, skills, and attitudes. Strengths and weaknesses of the program were also identified. Based on these findings, the following conclusions are offered:

-The changes in participants' knowledge, the self-ratings of their potential as leaders, and their perceptions of the emphasis they would give to leadership behavior in their work increased from pre- to post-workshop apparently as a result of REDA's leadership training program.

-As perceived by the participants, the program was interesting, relevant and useful. Overall, 95% of the participants found REDA's leadership training program valuable.

-The findings bore testimony to the fact that the broader community benefits from the training intended to improve job performance. Thus, REDA's leadership program apparently also elicited some macro and multiplier effects.

-The participants perceived that successful leadership is contingent for the most part on group characteristics.

-The participants also perceived that the development of a leader's personal characteristics is of utmost importance in providing the impetus for the effective use of both personal relationship and task accomplishment skills.

-As a result of the satisfaction derived from the program, participants indicated a desire to recommend the program to their friends, colleagues and co-workers as well as expressing the desire to return themselves. Also, it was expected that such satisfaction would lead to a positive change in the leadership behavior of participants on the job and consequently enhanced organizational performance.

-Participants' perceptions of leadership tended to change from managing (transactional leadership) to leading (transformational leadership). At the post-workshop

evaluation, many of the skills that are ascribable to *transformational leadership* (i.e., charisma, empathy, and facilitating skills) were stressed more than those ascribable to *transactional leadership* (i.e., managing, and appreciating skills). In other words, based on frequency counts, some of the skills akin to transformational leadership (i.e., charisma, empathy, and facilitating skills) tended to increase from pre- to post-workshop while those akin to transactional leadership (i.e., managing, and appreciating skills) tended to decrease from pre- to post-workshop. These differences suggest some shift in the participants' perceptions of essential leadership skills from transactional leadership to transformational leadership.

In conclusion, the study has provided evidence to justify continuation of REDA's leadership training program as well as some indications that leadership competencies can be taught and learned. As perceived by the stakeholders, the overall impact of REDA's leadership training program appeared to be the enhancement of the leadership competencies of the participants. However, the general reactions to the 19-year program, as expressed by the various stakeholder groups differed markedly. There were some who were impressed with the program and seemed to be satisfied with the status quo; there were others who had concerns about the context, inputs, and process of the program and, hence, would opt for some modifications. As indicated above, the main issues and concerns raised by stakeholders had to do with the five-day length of the workshop, the lack of time to use the recreational facilities that were available, the unsuitability of the timing of the workshop, especially in terms of the time of the week (Monday-Friday), the quality of handout materials received, the declining enrollment, the unwillingness of some of the sponsoring organizations to continue to promote the program, the poor marketing strategy, limitations posed by the sequential nature of the program, the lack of formal needs assessment, and the lack of focus in REDA's leadership program. Based on these stakeholder reactions, some fine-tuning of the program would appear to be in order.

The findings seem to suggest that REDA should play a more proactive role in modifying the program in response to the changing demands, issues and concerns of its consumers.

Based on the findings and conclusions, the following recommendations are offered:

1. Offer a Shorter Program

The practice of taking people out of their home or work situation for more than three days was criticized and seems to need rethinking. From an educator's viewpoint, a shortened retreat program could foster effective learning. In view of the reality of the community and home and work life, a five-day retreat setting appears not to be the best model, especially for REDA's clients. While it is appreciated that REDA's leadership training program has considerable impact in developing or improving the leadership capabilities of participants, it is becoming more difficult for REDA's clientele, from the standpoint of time and cost, to be away from their business or home for a five-day residential training program. Hence the incessant call for a shorter "out-patient" and skill-focused training.

This study revealed that the popular preference was for a program of shorter duration--not more than three days. About 92% of the interviewees (i.e., participants and their sponsors) indicated their support for shorter program duration, with 70% preferring a one-day workshop while the remaining 20% would opt for a workshop that would not last more than three days. As indicated by some of the respondents, an added advantage of a one-day workshop would be the allowance of travel time on both ends and perhaps increased motivation for organizations to sponsor their members.

2. Design Smaller and Detailed Program Components

About 85% of the respondents expressed the opinion that the program should be offered in smaller components. The perception of the participants was that the program

was very large, and comprehensive. Breaking it into smaller components would attract more participants.

The present three levels of programs could be modified and conducted perhaps in six training sessions (see Table 6.1) over a span of two or more years, depending on how many sessions are conducted in a year. Following this model, the leadership training program would be made up of a series of sessions, each of which would address specific leadership skills. For example, a one-day workshop might accommodate one or two topics; a two or three-day workshop would be adequate for a session (see Table 6.1). This arrangement would eliminate the current sequential format. One would not have to take a particular session or level before the other. Rather, individuals could partake of the program at any point. This would make it possible for the program to be more focused and meet the specific needs of participants. For example, some individuals might be interested in public speaking and how to conduct effective meetings. The proposed arrangement takes care of such preferences. Similarly, the arrangement tends to remove the ambiguity inherent in the categorization of the leadership training program as levels I, II, and III. Some respondents reported their perceptions that the three levels were tied to leadership status in the workplace and that one had to be a leader of level I or level II status to be qualified to attend. As remarked by one of the respondents, "I thought I had to be a level I leader or aspire to be a level II leader to be eligible to partake in the workshop."

With regard to detailed programming, some of the study respondents were of the opinion that the program should be made more in-depth than it is now. For example, in the time management course, participants could be taught how to manage their time in their organization, their family, and even in their leisure activities (such things as flexible

Table 6.1

Example of an Alternative Component Program

SESSION I	SESSION II	SESSION III
-The Individual	-Communication	-Time Management
-Motivation	-Effective Meetings	-Stress Management
-Openness	-Effective Presentations	-Conflict Management
-Risk Taking	-Public Speaking	-Modern Motivation Approaches
-Planning (Objectives, Philosophy, Goals)	-Parliamentary Procedure	-Force Field
	-Lobbying	-Driftwood Dilemma
SESSION IV	**SESSION V**	**SESSION VI**
-Group Process	-Power and Influence	-Leadership
-Group Role Expectation	-Community Involvement	-Decision-making
-The Leader and the Group	-Leadership in Organization and Community	-Authority and Responsibility
-Group Consensus	-Agricultural Policy Issues	-Delegation
		-Board Management Roles
		-Control and Evaluation

time, less rigid work schedules, and so on, are important). As opined by a respondent, "Good time management should be centered around the use of time productively to allow a participant to be able to intermingle family relationships with working relationships."

3. Develop a Good Marketing Plan

Improved communication and promotional efforts and early dissemination of program information are marketing strategies vital to increasing enrollment in REDA's leadership training program.

Communication and promotional efforts can take a variety of forms. The suitability of these is dictated by the nature of the program, as well as by the size and character of the constituency for which it is intended (Walshok, 1987, p. 161). As suggested by Walshok (1987), the "key techniques for accomplishing this include direct mail publications such as catalogues, brochures, newsletters, and special letters or invitations. They also include publicity and media relations, public relations, paid advertising, telemarketing, and personal representation" (p. 161). The application of any of these techniques is likely to increase the visibility of an organization. Thus, with a view to making REDA more visible, about 80% of the respondents suggested the idea of REDA having a "Development Officer" (DO). According to these respondents, the DO should be given the responsibility of visiting all sponsoring organizations to advertise or market REDA's programs. It is obvious that some of the sponsoring organizations are having their own in-house training programs which are similar to REDA's programs. By visiting the sponsors, the DO would become more informed about the various programs available and thus be better able to advise REDA on the type of program to organize. Moreover, the DO could also be involved in fundraising activities for REDA.

The organizers should also consider the use of special events to showcase their program. As indicated by Walshok (1987) "Free career-counseling days, open houses, free public lecture series, and luncheon or reception for corporate leaders are ways to

showcase services and attract constituencies" (p. 164). According to Walshok, such events can also facilitate the development of mailing lists of prospective participants for future programs or help introduce a highly targeted group to a particular program. REDA should also explore the use of agricultural fairs/shows, board meetings of allied and interested organizations, conferences, community meetings, or local educational settings, etc. Two other suggestions are developing a mailing list of past participants and producing high quality brochures.

The study indicated that many people are not aware of the existence of the program. Therefore, it is suggested that REDA should endeavor to get a comprehensive list of all farm and allied enterprises in the province (private and public) including 4-H clubs, home economics organizations, etc., for communication purposes. When asked: "How do you think REDA's leadership training program can be improved?", the response from an interviewee was: "I guess the biggest improvement in the leadership program is more advertising and making more people generally aware that this is being offered. I don't believe that the farm population is aware of this opportunity". This remark attests to the need for improved communication and promotional efforts.

Early dissemination of program information is vital. Both prospective clientele and their employers require some lead time to prepare for the workshops. Moreover, since most board meetings at which the decisions about sponsorship or permission to attend are made are usaually held monthly, bimonthly, or quarterly, the availability of program information far in advance of the actual program is important. Such advance information is necessary (say three to six months prior the commencement of training programs) so that participants and sponsors can know exactly where, when, and how it is going to happen, with a view to planning their agenda accordingly. In other words, early dissemination of program information should be incorporated in the planning for future leadership training programs.

As suggested by a supervisor of one of the sponsoring organizations, another means of marketing REDA's program is through the use of the *electronic highway*. This form of interactive computer bulletin board can be used to send and receive electronic mail. This would be in keeping with the current trend among farm families to use fax, phones, computers, and modems.

4. Consider Alternative Delivery Strategies

A key factor in considering delivery alternatives is location. In fact, location makes a difference in the success of a program for adults. The delivery alternatives suggested by study respondents include: distance delivery (e.g., through correspondence or satellite) regional delivery, and in-house delivery within the premises of sponsoring organizations. In addition, permanent site delivery such as at the Goldeye center could still be used for certain workshops. About 20% of the respondents suggested the distance delivery of some aspects of the program; about 60% opted for regional program delivery; about 5% supported conducting workshops within the premises of client organizations; and about 10% were comfortable with the residential, retreat or permanent site delivery (i.e., at Goldeye).

Generally, a location other than the site of one's organization is itself a motivating factor and "it is helpful for participants to feel free from their usual duties and to be able to relax in a less work-oriented environment" (Dimock, 1987a, p. 10). The regional delivery of REDA's program is deemed to increase accessibility to interested participants.

5. Collaborate with Local Programmers

The proliferation of leadership training programs is threatening the survival of REDA's program. As indicated earlier, most of the funders of REDA's program are presently offering various in-house programs similar to those of REDA. One way for REDA to meet this challenge is to work collaboratively through *partnership programming* with other organizations.

As a means of enhancing REDA's program, the consideration of collaboration with some other organizations or educational agencies becomes very important. Probably the best way to start such a *programming partnership* would be to involve representatives from all the sponsoring organizations in REDA's planning and implementation committee. Preferably, the representatives should be persons responsible for training programs in their respective organizations. Perhaps an outside consultant or resource person (i.e., a program planning specialist) should also be involved in the committee. Participatory planning helps to secure ownership of the program and, thereby assists in assuring its acceptance and successful implementation.

6. Increase Support from Sponsoring Organizations

The executives of the sponsoring organizations should realize that to have an efficient and effective organization requires the development of the leadership potential in all its members, and not just the privileged few. Therefore, as a way of getting more participants, it is suggested that the sponsoring organizations have a quota to be filled or paid for every year. This can be achieved by asking the sponsoring organizations to indicate how many they are prepared to sponsor annually so that an assurance of a certain number of participants could be obtained from a particular organization. For example, one of the sponsoring organizations has already taken the initiative in encouraging the participation of their "delegates" in leadership training programs. Recently the organization decided to build into its job description for delegates, a requirement for delegates to attend REDA's level I leadership course or an equivalent in the first two years in office. This idea is supported by a number of writers (e.g., Kouzes & Posner, 1987; Capowski, 1994). Kouzes and Posner suggested: "We recommend that you devote at least two weeks each year to . . . personal development programs. Do not wait to be sent 'to get fixed.' Initiate the request to participate in outside training and development programs" (p. 289). Perhaps on this premise, Capowski posed a challenge to organizations: "If we are truly immersed in a managerial mind-set when what the

business environment is begging for is great leadership, then what is being done to develop new leaders?" (p. 14). It seems obvious that if organizations would subscribe to the idea of sponsoring or supporting their members to attend REDA workshops annually, REDA would be assured of a regular enrollment.

7. Strategic Planning

The need for organizations such as REDA to engage in long-range planning in order to come to terms with today's need for effective leadership skills is pervasive. Pfeiffer (1991) defined strategic planning as "the process by which an organization envisions its future and develops the necessary procedures and operations to achieve that future" (p. x). Strategic planning encourages clarity and long range vision of a program as well as the prioritization of the program activities based on potential impacts.

According to Votruba (1987), "The central locus of strategic planning is developing a good fit between the organization's activities and the demands of the surrounding environment" (p. 195). As a continual process, strategic planning can help provide the focus and direction needed by an organization (Holt, 1987; Schmidt, 1987; Votruba, 1987).

From a review of the literature, the following steps have been identified as essential in planning for the future, especially in an educational setting. According to Schmidt (1987), these steps are:

1. Scan the environment to identify trends or potential changes and their implications for the institution. These changes may open up opportunities as well as pose threats.
2. Assess institutional strengths, weaknesses, problems, and capabilities.
3. Review the mission, tradition, values, and roles of the institution.
4. Match the staff's strengths to the mission of the institution so that change can be planned effectively.
5. Devise strategic alternatives to achieve goals.
6. Choose from the alternatives identified. (p. 34)

These steps appear relevant to REDA's leadership program. Their adoption and use should help to enhance REDA's program. The first step, environmental scanning, is particularly important. In Votruba's words,

> Environmental scanning can help to identify some underpinnings for developments such as new learner needs; new initiatives by other educational providers; new economic, political, and demographic trends; new funding opportunities; state and federal policy shifts in regard to education; enrollment trends; etc. (Votruba, 1987, p. 196)

To paraphrase Votruba, the strength and vitality of any educational program rest on its ability to serve both the needs of clientele and the client organization. If this is true, then it follows that REDA executives must develop the ability to relate to both of these worlds and recognize where they intersect. As suggested by Pfeiffer (1991), REDA's strategic planning process should include the criteria for decision-making at all levels of the leadership training program and should provide a template against which all such decisions can be evaluated.

8. Engage Professionals and Practitioners as Facilitators or Instructors

The qualification (especially in terms of educational background and experience) of volunteer instructors should be examined to determine their suitability for the assignment. As indicated earlier, some of the stakeholders are particularly concerned about delivery styles. According to Caffarella (1988), "The instructor/facilitator has a key role in making a training event a success as he or she is responsible for assisting trainees to achieve their learning objectives. Therefore, it is important to obtain effective personnel for this role" (p. 122).

To ensure high quality instruction, a blend of professionals and practitioners as program instructors or facilitators is suggested. In addition, the program might include the use of guest speakers. For example, practicing executives, managers, supervisors, consultants, educators, labor leaders, and key government officials could be invited to share their leadership experiences on topics relevant to a particular program. Moreover,

participants' motivation should be enhanced by placing emphasis on their involvement in the teaching-learning transaction.

9. Formalize Needs Assessment and Evaluation Practices

For all practical purposes, needs assessment is a *sine qua non* for any successful program. "Through each developmental stage of a program--from the setting of objectives to the preparation of course material to the selection of instructors--training directors are guided by what they believe to be participants' needs" (Fast, 1975, p. 48). Since the clients of REDA's program are predominantly adults with the usual divergent needs, the issue of needs assessment is critical. According to Simerly (1987), "It is important to assess the overall demand for adult educational services" (p. 154) prior to implementation. Among other things, a thorough needs assessment helps to determine the training objectives as well as assures participants that their needs, interests, and problems would be addressed in the program. The needs assessment is deemed to help REDA to determine the suitability of the traditional residential programming, or distance learning mode. Byars and Rue (1984) have claimed that interviews with individuals, questionnaires, group discussions, and personal observations of job performance can be used to identify training needs.

As claimed by Eitington (1989), "All training programs begin with a determination of need" (p. 334); therefore, the starting point of REDA's leadership training program should be a thorough needs assessment. This claim was supported by Dobbin's (1994) suggestion that in order to maximize training results while minimizing time spent on projects, "your first step in developing training is to determine what the learners must know and/or be able to do at the end of the training" (p. 89). For example, some needs are simply knowledge-based while others are skill- or attitude-based. The needs assessment process should result in the elimination of non-focused programs. This would also arrest the rivalry problem with the in-house programs conducted by some of the sponsoring organizations. The fact is, where there may be nothing particularly

wrong with REDA's program, there may be a problem in justifying sending people to REDA, especially if virtually all the content has already been dealt with in the in-house training programs.

Perhaps because programs are often initiated to meet specific social or educational needs, leadership training programmers should always seek feedback geared towards the increased efficiency and effectiveness of their programs. In the course of conducting their programs, they are likely to ponder such questions as "What have we done?" "How well have we done it?" "Was it worth the effort to continue with the program?" More importantly, "How can we explain the overall program activities in terms of its outcomes to establish or maintain credibility as well as justify increased funding and support?" The administrators of REDA's program are no exception. Therefore, it makes sense to make evaluation part of program implementation right from the planning stage.

Evaluation literature suggests that the incorporation of evaluation activities in the design of any program engenders a self-monitoring mechanism toward the success of the program. As suggested by Trisko and League (1978), "Evaluation activities should take place in the same sequence as the implementation of the program. First, (1) tasks should be monitored; (2) activities should be assessed; (3) outcomes (achievement of objectives) should be enumerated; (4) goal attainment should be measured; and (5) a judgment as to whether the problem has been reduced should be made" (p. 224). Trisko and League explained the synchronization between program implementation and evaluation activities in the process of addressing a problem, and established the fact that before concretizing how the impact of a program is to be assessed, the context, inputs, and processes involved in the planning and implementation of the program should be evaluated.

10. Provide Adequate Library Facilities

Although participants seemed generally satisfied with the quality of the resources provided at the workshop, some concerns were raised about the library facilities, including computers, and materials such as books and journals, etc. The desire of

participants to acquire more information about effective leadership seems to require the provision of a library. Computers could be used for preparing speeches. Some books relating to leadership in general or the specific program content could be put in a reading room or proto-type library.

11. Award Certificates of Accomplishment to Participants

The awarding of certificates of accomplishment to those who have completed the program was suggested by some of the respondents. The general opinion is that people want to be recognized for having completed a training program such as this. Some may want to include such certificate in their résumés. Some might even use them when seeking a position on a board or with a voluntary organization.

Implications of the Study

The following discussion presents the implications of this study as they relate to practice and research.

Implications for Practice

The findings of this study add to the volume of literature on program evaluation and present a knowledge base especially for REDA and those in the fields of training, evaluation, and research.

Implications for the changing focus of leadership training programs. Based on the increasing demand for effective leadership skills in today's work place, it is foreseeable that the demand for individuals with effective leadership skills will remain high in the future. Unless we respond to these changes fast enough to keep pace, there is no gainsaying the fact that tomorrow's organizations would be run by less well-trained or less well-educated leaders. The findings of this study provide some evidence on the

important role that a leadership training program plays in developing or improving the leadership capabilities of participants.

The implications here are three-pronged. First, organizations will have to realize that every employee is a potential leader whose leadership ability should be developed. Second, organizations will have to realize that today's managers require retraining in various leadership skills to be more effective. Third, the implication is for program administrators or trainers to organize a more dynamic leadership training program that would equip leaders with new knowledge, skills, and attitudes adequate enough to meet the leadership needs of today and tomorrow. For example, effective leadership in agricultural and/or rural organizations today and tomorrow requires development or improvement of skills in change management, computer literacy, innovativeness and creativity, cognition and interrelationship, globalization of trade [e.g., NAFTA (North America Free Trade Agreement), GATT, (General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade), or CUSTA (Canadian, United States Free Trade Agreement)], visionary and strategic planning, communication, team building, and collaboration, to mention just a few.

Implications of impact evaluation as an administrative tool. Perhaps because no program administrator wants to have his/her program considered bad or be terminated, experiences have shown that most program administrators face a number of potential dilemmas (Schalock & Thornton, 1988). The findings of this study bore some sensitivity to these dilemmas.

Based on the results of this study (i.e., identifying the program's impact and providing cues for the improvement of the program), program administrators should see evaluation as an essential process in programming and not necessarily as an end in itself. As suggested by Steele (1975), evaluation should not be seen as something to engage in simply because it is intrinsically good, but as a natural part of the human process of getting things done. Among other things, evaluation provides a basis for better program choices and for more rapid responses to needs for modification and improvement. It can

be a powerful decision-making tool for improving a program's efficiency and effectiveness as well as providing stakeholders with reliable information about the worth of a program (Borich, 1974; Steele, 1975; Popham, 1975; Patton, 1978; Stufflebeam, 1983; Worthen & Sanders, 1987; Schalock & Thornton, 1988).

Evidence abounds to show that the present "happy face" type of evaluation frequently used by program administrators would not survive the test of time. What most stakeholders are concerned about today is the worth or adequacy of their program and its impact on the participants as well as the sponsoring organizations and society at large. Thus, another implication of this study is for program administrators to consider impact evaluation as an integral and continuing process that completes the closed-loop of a training program, and therefore embark on regular impact evaluations of their programs, using a suitable set of criteria and relevant evaluation framework. Since this evaluation study is apparently the first formal impact evaluation of REDA's program in the past 19 years of its existence, the challenge is for REDA to continue to conduct impact evaluations of its leadership training program. This is not to suggest that each evaluation takes the same format and identical evaluands. In designing each evaluation, the five-phase process (i.e., identification of the purpose and scope of evaluation, identification of data needs and instruments, data collection, data analysis, and reports and recommendations) used in this study could be useful because it is generalizable to all other evaluation activities, regardless of their intents or complexities.

Implications for educational administration. Much of what constitutes graduate program content for educational administration today, both at the masters and doctoral levels, is actually management-oriented rather than leadership-oriented. As a result, many educational institutions suffer from being over-managed and underled in the words of Bennis (1977, 1990), and Bennis and Nanus (1985). The finding of this study that leadership is, at least to some measure, a learnable construct, provides an impetus for

strengthening leadership education in colleges and universities within and outside Canada.

Bolman and Deal (1991) have urged administrators to take a hard look at ensuring better leadership in educational institutions. As indicated by these authors, it is important to help educational administrators lead more effectively. Administrators cannot be expected to lead effectively without adequate training in leadership. According to them, "We need more leaders as well as better leadership" (p. 408). In other words, school administrators should have a store of knowledge, skills, and attitudes to enhance both managerial and leadership responsibilities.

Klenke (1993) defined leadership education as "the development of critical thinking and analytical skills as well as the mastery of leadership competencies" (p. 119). As agents of change, educators, especially the "administrators" including principals, superintendents and directors, should be equipped with the leadership competency needed to cope with change. Based on the persistent changes in technology, economic and political situations, today's and tomorrow's educational administrators need competencies in team building to work cooperatively with teachers, parents, and local communities in handling difficult situations such as socio-economic, political and multicultural problems, fundraising activities, computer literacy, and so on. As an academic discipline, Klenke (1993) suggested that leadership education should attempt to combine, under one roof, knowledge from a number of disciplines, including the humanities, arts, and sciences. In his words, "Each of these disciplines contributes a repertoire of methodologies and theories and derives discipline-specific criteria of leadership success and effectiveness" (p. 113).

A cursory look at the program structure of several departments of educational administration indicates an absence of "administrative internship" for student-administrators under their tutelage. Given the prevailing circumstances in today's school environment, the significance of administrative internship in the preparation of effective

educational leaders can no longer be ignored. The implication, therefore, is for the various departments of educational administration or educational leadership that do not already do so to include the administrative/leadership internship as a requirement in their programs. For example, at the completion of the course work, student administrators could be placed in the world of work, attached to a practitioner (say a school principal, director, superintendent, board chairman, deputy minister of education, and so on) for a term or longer in order to acquire leadership experience through observation and practising the application of various leadership concepts. In addition, the administrative internship tends to provide opportunities for student administrators to relate theory to practice, and to test and acquire new leadership skills. The implication, therefore, is to emphasize leadership education in the program content more than ever, especially at the graduate level. Broadly speaking, leadership education, as proposed here, should emphasize the knowledge, skills, and attitudes about "leadership" that would engender effective leadership behavior in the administration of educational institutions.

From the foregoing, it becomes imperative that departments or schools of educational administration or educational leadership be challenged by these realities so as to ensure the preparation of able educational administrators and leaders that would stand the test of time.

Implications for Further Research

This study has yielded valuable information about leadership training and evaluation that informs research. Considering the increased demand for effective leadership in organizations and the recent proliferation of leadership training programs, it is necessary to demonstrate that changes in leadership behavior are related to training programs. Further research must, therefore, be undertaken to obtain increased information concerning the impact of leadership training programs on participants. Further studies can include:

Longitudinal studies (Panel studies). Another study is prompted by a major limitation of most evaluations of training programs in terms of lack of data to justify that the changes in the leadership competencies of participants are directly related to the program per se. Most evaluations of training programs are carried out at the workshop sites. Longitudinal studies of this nature are typical of cohort and trend studies. Since in using these approaches, different individuals make up the research sample at each data-collection point, it becomes difficult to track changes in the individual participants. Future impact evaluation studies of REDA's leadership training program should explore the use of "panel studies" (a form of longitudinal studies) where the evaluator selects and surveys the same individual participants over time. This type of research design enables the evaluator "to note changes in specific individuals and can therefore explore possible reasons why these individuals have changed" (Borg & Gall, 1989, p. 422).

Evaluating training impact through assessments of participants' peers and subordinates. Another way of determining the impact of a leadership training program is to ask participants' peers and subordinates to assess, in their own perceptions and opinions, the extent to which the leadership behavior of the participants has changed as a result of the training. Since participants are apt to interact or work with people with higher, equal, or lower positions in organizations, evaluation of the impact of training should not be limited to the perceptions or opinions of the supervisors or superordinates; the perceptions and opinions of participants' peers and subordinates are equally important. Further research is necessary to assess the impact of the training on the participants through the perceptions and opinions of participants' peers and subordinates. Moreover, a combination of assessments based on the perceptions and opinions from the three groups (i.e., superordinates, peers and subordinates) is assumed to yield a more comprehensive result than any single approach. This assumption therefore provides an avenue for further research.

Validation of a research approach. From the perspective of the epigram "The end justifies the means," further research needs to be carried out to determine the efficacy of this approach in determining the impact of a program. This approach is retrospective in orientation, and determines the effectiveness of a program from the perspective of the result or end product of the program without necessarily examining details of the program's inputs and activities.

Replication of study. Given that this study was confined to the particularistic nature of one organization, and utilizes a particular framework (i.e., the "five-phased process" of impact evaluation of a training program), findings will not necessarily be generalizable to other organizations. Further research utilizing this framework is needed in other organizations with similar programs to validate the generalizability of the research design and methodology adopted for this study. Similarly, the content analysis of data from the pre-workshop, post-workshop, and follow-up questionnaires indicated that participants' perception of effective leadership skills tended to change from managing to leading. This conclusion was made on the basis of the data obtained from the sample particular to REDA's leadership training program and therefore, should be interpreted with caution. Further research on changes in participants' perceptions can be undertaken to verify whether the generalizations presented in this study hold for other similar situations.

Furthermore, the findings indicated that the participants tended to perceive that group characteristics were the most contingent variable for successful leadership and that the most changed leadership ability experienced by participants on the job was verbal communication. Since these findings were particular to REDA's leadership training program, further research is needed (especially in similar leadership training programs) to help determine their generalizability.

Macro impact evaluation. Having established the impact of the training program from the perspective of the changes in the leadership behavior of the participants, further research is needed to determine the impact of these changes on the sponsoring organizations and the society as a whole, especially in terms of cost-benefit analysis, improved productivity, and organizational effectiveness, and other outcomes.

Concluding Remarks

Contrary to the myth that leadership can neither be taught nor learned, the outcome of this study adds some support to the notion that leadership is teachable and learnable and can be developed and improved through training and other educational programs. Basically REDA's leadership training program was concerned with the development of the knowledge, skills, and attitudes that would enable individuals to lead effectively in particular situations.

Given the common practice of determining the impact of a program through comparison of the pre- and post-workshop evaluation data, it seems clear that while occurrence of changes is apparent especially in terms of acquisition of knowledge, skills and attitudes, these changes are only immediate or short-term. Long-term changes in participants' leadership behavior at the instance of a leadership training program are more evidenced on the job. These changes may be determined through follow-up surveys (i.e., using feedback questionnaires, and/or interviews, and observations). The implication here is the need for trainers or programmers to be more adept in the evaluation of their programs. It is not that REDA had not previously engaged in evaluation; they had. It is rather that the demand in today's program evaluation is for a more formal evaluation of the impact of programs. Therefore, REDA must not only engage in pre- and post-workshop evaluations, but also must conduct a participant follow-up evaluation following the training to assess the impact of the training on participants' leadership competencies on the job. Given that impact evaluation appears essential for assessing the effects of a

program, REDA's decision to evaluate the impact of its leadership training program was laudable.

From the foregoing, leadership development through the use of training programs is expected to be a continuing area of responsibility and challenge for individuals, organizations and the society as a whole. As a society, we are on the threshold of changes in technological advancements, economic conditions and political situations that will continue to affect human activities and corresponding leadership more than ever before. The need is ripe to strengthen our organizations and society. Since both society and organizations are systems operated by humans, the beginning point is to develop the leadership potentials of individuals with a view to their taking charge of the system. The hope is that in the future there will be more thought given to the above implications. Furthermore, it is anticipated that the five-phased process of evaluating the impact of a training program, as used in this study, would be beneficial to REDA's future programs as well as to training or educational programs in other settings, regardless of whether the focus is leadership training or managerial training. With continued and enhanced leadership training programs for rural communities in Alberta, the province will continue to be a leader in rural development.

Overall, the study has provided valuable information about the impact of REDA's leadership training program as well as its improvement. However, whatever decision is reached regarding the impact and improvement of the program is not mine but that of the stakeholders, especially the program administrators and the sponsors of the program or the Advisory Board. My role had been to get the pertinent information and to present it in a manner that would guide rational decisions. In other words, my summary, conclusions, recommendations and implications about the study do not form overall judgments, but they are substantively based on the information gathered. The final decision is REDA's and the board's.

CHAPTER 7

REFLECTIONS

In this chapter, I wish to reflect briefly on the research process itself, and the influence which this study has had on my thoughts as an evaluator, researcher, trainer and educational leader.

To start with, if recognition of "leadership" in people is difficult, impact evaluation of a leadership training program, especially in terms of the changes in the leadership competencies of program participants is even more of a problem. This forms the core of my personal discovery from this study.

It is evident that impact evaluation goes beyond evaluating the teaching-learning transaction of a program into determining the long-term effect of such transaction on the behavior of participants. In the context of the leadership program studied, the objective was to assess how effective the teaching-learning transaction was in enhancing the leadership competence of participants. Rephrased, the question addressed was, "How much of the change in leadership behavior was attributable to the training program?" The organizers were interested in knowing, by any measure, how they have performed in helping to develop or improve the leadership competencies of participants of their program. There was no doubt that this study provided me with multiple experiences. In the discussion that follows, I wish to reflect briefly on my experiences under the following seven headings: (1) leadership and the characteristics of the group being led, (2) selecting a quantitative or qualitative research methodology, (3) "the end justifies the means": an alternative approach to impact evaluation, (4) role identification as an evaluator, (5) utilization of evaluation results, (6) efficacy of responsive evaluation, and (7) final comment.

Leadership and the Characteristics of the Group Being Led

For me as a researcher, one of the most interesting findings of the study was the one that related to leadership effectiveness and group characteristics. With a view to determining participants' knowledge about some key variables of leadership, participants were asked to rate, on a nine-point scale, the extent to which leadership depends on personality and training of the leader, characteristics of the group being led, the situation in which group operates, and the goals being sought.

In order of importance, based on the mean response value differences between pre-workshop and post-workshop evaluation data, effective leadership is contingent on the characteristics of the group being led, the situation in which group operates, the personality and training of the leader, and the goals being sought as contingent to leadership. The results of this study portray the perception of the participants of REDA's leadership training program that, of these four factors, the characteristics of the individuals in a group is the most critical to effective leadership. This does not mean that other variables mentioned above do not influence leadership behavior. What this indicates is that some leaders are most effective from the perspective of the appropriateness of the characteristics of the group being led. By suitability of the characteristics of the group is meant the commonality or diversity of characteristics of individuals in the group.

This study finding prompts the question: "What is the influence of the characteristics of the group being led on the effectiveness of the leader?" Since leadership is a group phenomenon which exists only in relationship with followers, the nature of the group and characteristics of its members are important. When individuals interact, they bring with them characteristics that are either similar or different: traits; talents; skills; backgrounds; experience; position; power; expertise; affluence; prestige; reputation; gender; age; social, political, personal needs, and so on. A leader's

effectiveness in a group depends heavily on these group characteristics. To enhance the leader's effectiveness, these characteristics must be in consonance with the situation in which the group operates; the leader's personality and training; and the goals that are being sought by the group. However, depending on the situation, the group's membership and characteristics could be homogenous or heterogeneous; therefore, leadership could be "single" or "shared." Bolman and Deal (1991) asserted that the single leadership model is relatively simple and well understood. With the single leadership model, the responsibility for leadership is focused on one individual and everyone knows who is accountable. The problem is that "a single individual is often unable to provide leadership in all the situations that the group may encounter. Sometimes, groups do better with a shared and fluid approach to leadership, always asking, Who can best lead in this situation?" (p. 150). On the other hand, shared leadership provides a way of responding to the diverse needs of individuals in the group. For example, two or more members of a group can provide leadership, perhaps in different ways, and in different situations (Bolman & Deal, 1991).

Whether leadership is shared or individual, research on task groups has shown that group characteristics play a critical role in a leader's effectiveness (Bolman & Deal, 1991). Since much of the work of large organizations is done in small units, teams, or groups, these writers opined that the two basic structural questions that face larger organizations relate to how to share responsibilities across different roles and how to integrate diverse characteristics of groups into a unified effort. According to Hackman (1990), group composition (or the characteristics of the group as used in this study) answers the following questions:

> Is the group well staffed? Is it the right size, given the work to be done? Do members have the expertise required to perform the task well? Do they have sufficient interpersonal skill to function well in a team? Is the mix of members appropriate? Are there signs that members are so similar that there is little for them to learn from one another? Or are there signs that they are so heterogeneous that they risk having difficulty communicating and coordinating with one another? (p. 10).

In one series of studies, Hackman (1990) edited and presented the report of a group which created a book titled "Groups that work (and those that don't): Creating conditions for effective teamwork." The study sought to provide insights into how work groups function by presenting a scenario in which the characteristics of the group enhanced leadership effectiveness and productivity in a group. The study involved 27 diverse task-performing teams grouped into seven categories: top management, task forces, professional support, performing, human service, customer service, and production. The activities of each of these categories were coordinated by seven project leaders. The activities of the project leaders were in turn coordinated by a group leader. In a flurry of activity over three months, the book was finished. The success of this group effort was largely a result of the diverging characteristics of the group members and the coordinating efforts of both the project and team leaders. According to Hackman (1990), with group characteristics, more resources are available in accomplishing group work, and more interesting projects or activities could be undertaken than could be accomplished by an individual working alone. Also in group work,

> More minds [are] applied to the work and a greater diversity of perspectives brought to bear on it, which can result in observations or insights that might escape the notice of any one individual. And, of course, group members can stimulate each other, cover for one another, and try out ideas on each other--all activities that can boost the quality of the final product. (p. xiv)

The importance of the characteristics of the group for effective leadership was also evident in the early work by Bavelas (1969). According to Bavelas,

> By a mechanism of role differentiation, groups use the differential characteristics of members to the advantage of all by assigning group tasks to those best qualified to perform them. Leadership is an act of this process. Role differentiation is clearly more detailed than the broad concept of leadership implies and leadership is now understood to have a role structure which varies somewhat from one situation to another. (P. 10)

One major lesson drawn from this study and the above findings is obvious: the characteristics of the group and its membership are one of the most important factors determining the effectiveness of a leader. Many leaders have been unsuccessful perhaps because of their failure to harness the strengths in the characteristics of their group members.

Selecting a Quantitative or Qualitative Research Methodology

Perhaps no other issue in research design today is so pervasive as the conflict between the quantitative and qualitative research paradigms. These twin research paradigms are the off-shoots or "hy-brids" of the main traditional research methodologies--positivism and interpretivism. A review of the research literature reveals that the protagonists of these research approaches have long been antagonistic of each other (Weiss, 1972; Guba & Lincoln, 1981; Phillips, 1983; Borg & Gall, 1989; Lincoln, 1991; Fetterman, 1992; Sechrests, 1992; Hedrick, 1994; Smith, 1994; Reichardt & Rallis, 1994a, 1994b, 1994c).

The bottom-line of the dissonance lies with the "how" of research. Often, if one was objective, the other was subjective (Guba & Lincoln, 1989); if one's data were hard, the other's were soft (Phillips, 1983); if the research of one was criticized for irrelevance, the research of the other was criticized for unreliability (Reichardt & Rallis, 1994b); and if the subject-object research of one is heartless, the subject-subject research of the other is soft-headed (Smith, 1983; Sechrest, 1992). So the parody of antagonism, complexity, hegemony, unhealthy criticism, or backsliding, to mention just a few of the issues in the debate, continues to pervade the field of research, whether discovery or evaluative, experimental or quasi-experimental, scientific or social, preordinate or responsive. As indicated by Reichardt and Rallis (1994a), "This antagonism was part of the reason that the field of evaluation gave birth in the 1970s to two separate organizations, the

Evaluation Network (ENet) and the Evaluation Research Society (ERS)" (p. 1). Even when both organizations merged in the mid-1980s to form the American Evaluation Association (AEA), "The antagonism did not disappear, it was merely suppressed" (Reichardt & Rallis, 1994a, p. 1).

The fray between champions of these two distinguishable research paradigms is essentially political. The stage is always charged so that, given the chance, these champions would fight at any setting to defend their research philosophies. Fueling this charged situation is the subconscious luring of graduate students into these dichotomous camps of research methodologies and paradigms, especially from the standpoint of the research orientations of the professors--instructing or advising. My experience in the course of undertaking this study was that the suggestions given to me were largely based on the professional preparations, interest or orientations of the professors. For instance, one professor suggested the use of questionnaire for data collection while the other suggested that the use of interviews alone would suffice. However, based on the indication of my curiosity to explore the two research approaches, my research proposal was approved. Thus, I assert from my experience, that the use of a mixture of these approaches enhances the credibility and reliability of a research.

Although my evaluation study involved extensive data processing, I was able to achieve a more comprehensive simultaneous interpretation of the data by combining both quantitative and qualitative research strategies. Reichardt and Cook's (1979) belief that "researchers cannot benefit from the use of numbers if they do not know, in common sense terms, what the numbers mean" (p. 23), was valid in this study. For instance, meanings were drawn from both quantitative and qualitative data by "going back and forth, progressively clarifying the findings of one with those of the other" (Linn, cited in House, 1994, p. 19). Through content analysis (i.e., coding, frequency counts, and ranking), meanings were given to qualitative data, while through means, and standard deviations, quantitative data were made more meaningful.

Overall, both quantitative and qualitative research paradigms have notable roles to play in the research of this type. According to Datta (1994),

> Today, evaluation standards call for stakeholder involvement, and many evaluations begin with trying to understand what different-make that many different-stakeholders see as the issues. That is a lesson taught to us all by qualitative methodologists. As another example, evaluation standards call for methodological transparency, making public what the evaluator did in the conduct of the study: measures, instance selection, data reduction and analysis, precautions taken to achieve quality, and limitations and strengths. That is a lesson taught to us all by quantitative methodologists. (p. 55)

However, since the focus of this study was the impact of a leadership training program, especially on the participants, there was the need to go beyond collecting specific data, such as goal identification versus accomplishments through distant collection of hard data, to a closer and interactive collection of soft data which embraces getting testimonials of program impact from the program participants and stakeholders as well as taking cognizance of emerging concerns and issues with a view to coming to terms with what to do to enhance the program. Conceived in this way, the use of the twin approaches cannot be easily divorced from each other. In reality, they are mutually complementary, and the strengths of both can produce a research synergy whose collective benefits would be greater than that obtainable from either approach taken alone.

From the foregoing, therefore, I tend to disagree with those who strongly support one thought and condemn the other. Quite simply, the key rule is understanding the nature, and applications of each of the two paradigms, and entering the evaluation arena with an open research mind. In other words, the research strategies selected should suit the nature of the research being undertaken rather than merely being guided by the proponents of one or the other research paradigm. Eisner (1981) summarizes it all, "The field of education in particular needs to avoid methodological monism. Our problems need to be addressed in as many ways as will bear fruit" (p. 9).

"The End Justifies The Means": An Alternative Approach to Impact Evaluation

My experience in impact evaluation of a leadership training program, especially as envisioned in this study, has kindled in me an alternative way of determining the impact of a training program. The question is, "Is the end result of a program alone compatible with impact evaluation of a leadership program?" or "Does the follow-up evaluation alone provide adequate data to determine the impact of a program?"

From my experience, the impact of a program could be determined without necessarily going through all the rigors of being on site, participating in the program or administering pre-and post-workshop questionnaires. Apparently the follow-up survey (i.e., based on interviews of and/or questionnaires completed by the participants, the sponsoring organizations, the facilitators, and the program administrators) alone is enough to yield a similar end results. Considering the fact that training is related to the improvement in the participant's present job, one cannot really determine the impact of the training until the participant actually gets back on the job. The follow-up survey was therefore, indispensable in this study. As claimed by Lynton and Pareek (1967), "At the follow-up stage, important information can flow back to the training institution. The organization feeds back to the institution information about the effectiveness of the training in practice, on the job. The training input can then be improved and made economical on the basis of this practical experience" (p. 36). Phillips (1990) indicated that follow-up evaluation is extremely useful in determining the impact of a human resource development program. According to him, the follow-up evaluation helps to measure the lasting results of the program, isolates the areas where learners show the most improvement, and compares the responses at follow-up time with those provided at the end of the program.

Taking cues from this study, the analysis of the responses to some of the questions contained in the follow-up questionnaire which simply required participants' perceptions of the influence of REDA's program on their leadership competencies are enough to

measure the impact of the program. For instance, based on 33 leadership competencies taught or discussed at the leadership workshops, participants were asked to rate on a five-point scale the extent to which their overall job behavior had changed since their participation in REDA's leadership training program (see Appendix F, question 7).

Similarly, on the "step-wise" nine-point scale provided in question 15 (a), (b), and (c) of the questionnaire (Appendix F), participants were asked to rate their leadership abilities before and after attending REDA's program. As well, they were asked to indicate how much of the increase in their leadership effectiveness could be attributed to each of the levels of the leadership training (i.e., levels I or II) offered by REDA. Another impact-related question required participants to indicate (i.e., based on a list of some competencies discussed at the leadership workshops for level I and/or level II) the extent to which their overall job behavior had changed since they participated in the program. In the same vein, the content analysis of the interview data collected after the program could yield similar results. As is, this type of "the ends justify the means" evaluation forms a link between formative and summative evaluations. Since the problem of "deficient or zero" leadership skills is basically the driving force behind the establishment of any leadership training program, the primary role of impact evaluation should be to determine the extent to which the program has been able to solve the problem in terms of improved or developed leadership skills in the participants after the training. Similarly, testimonials (i.e., through interviews, or questionnaires, or observations) from the participants, their supervisors and/or subordinates would add an important dimension to assessing program impact.

Getting information from more than one source tends to be more comprehensive, but today's limited resources do not allow all research strategies to be used. Therefore, we have to choose which method works best in a particular situation. The guiding principle should be, "How well and not how many?" Just like the High Court Judge who, based on presented evidence, has the power to declare a suspect guilty of a crime without

observing the commission of the crime directly, so a program evaluator can as well be judgmental about the impact of a program, especially based on the testimonials from the participants themselves, and/or their superordinates and subordinates.

The mixture of evaluation approaches used in this study [i.e., questionnaires (pre-workshop, end-of-sessions, post-workshop, and follow-up); interviews (face-to-face and telephone); field observations (site visitation and program participation); and document analyses] can be likened to an army battalion dispatched to war. Some of the soldiers would get to the battle front by armored tanks, some through ships and submarines, and some through fighter jets and parachutes. Usually, the ultimate aim is to get to the battle field to fight and defeat the enemy. After the war--whether won or lost--the immediate question would be "What has been the impact of the war?" It is not how long or how well the battle was fought. Therefore, program evaluators would do well to think of more effective ways of evaluating the impact of a program on the stakeholders of the program, including especially the participants.

Role Identification as an Evaluator

From the literature, two types of evaluation exist--internal and external. Internal and external evaluations are euphemistically called "in-house" evaluations and "out-of-house" evaluations respectively (Patton, 1982). Usually, the internal evaluation is conducted by the staff members of the client organization (in this case, REDA) while the external evaluation is done by respectable professional evaluators from outside the focal organization.

Allowing that there are tradeoffs between internal and external evaluations, some proponents of evaluation have indicated that the use of a combination of the two approaches is more desirable and more cost-effective than either a purely internal or purely external evaluation (Grotelueschen, 1980; Patton, 1982). In other words, the

internal-external combination ideally utilizes the strengths or best features of both approaches. For example, the collection and analysis of data by the internal group is apt to be less expensive while the passing of judgment and writing of final report by the external group commands legitimacy and credibility.

According to Patton (1982), with internal-external evaluation people in the program actually collect, analyze, and arrange evaluation data so that the external group can come in, inspect the data collected by the internal group, sometimes collect additional information on their own, pass judgment on the program, and write the report. A good example of an internal-external combination is found in the accreditation process.

From the perspective of the responsive evaluation used in the present study, one could refer to the type of evaluation adopted as internal-external evaluation. This label is justified because of the involvement of staff members from the client organization in the problem identification process, in the design and finalization of data collecting instruments, and in the administration of questionnaires. In this regard, my responsibility as an evaluator was to monitor the return of questionnaires, transcribe, collate, analyze, and interpret the data, write and present the evaluation report. Based on my experience, I believe the role of an evaluator should be that of a *finder* and a *presenter* of facts. By a finder and a presenter of facts is meant a person who looks for or seeks relevant information about an evaluand and presents the information as clearly and comprehensively as possible with a view to engendering utilization decisions. Based on information gathered, the evaluator can offer recommendations or suggestions regarding the evaluand. However, judgments or decisions about evaluation findings should be the prerogative of the client or stakeholder.

From an extensive research literature, I have been able to come up with a list of 12 descriptors regarding the roles of evaluators: when evaluators communicate information that guides decision-making, they are *communicators* or *informants*; when they facilitate improvements in a program by providing valuable recommendations, they

are *change facilitators*; when they stimulate awareness in their subjects, they are *stimulators;* when they identify problems and recommend solutions, they are *problem-solvers*; when they provide enlightening information, they are *educators*; when they infer from the strengths and the weaknesses of an evaluand, they are *judges* or *whistle-blowers;* when they approve the legitimacy of an institution, they are *accreditors*; when they offer professional advice or services, they are *experts* or *consultants*; when they test performance, they are *examiners*; when they estimate values, they are *appraisers*; when they reexamine something, they are *reviewers*; and when they provide service, they are *servants*. So the rhetoric of role identification as an evaluator continues.

Utilization of Evaluation Results

As the taste of the pudding is in the eating, the hallmark of the worth of an evaluation is the utility of its results. For all practical purposes, "Evaluations have typically been seen as ways of reaching better decisions about the program being evaluated" (Cronbach, 1982). According to the Joint Committee on Standards for Educational Evaluation, "an evaluation that lacks utility will not be accepted regardless of its other redeeming features" (Worthen & Sanders, 1987, p. 381). Similarly, good evaluation can be stymied by poor coordination with management, since many of the problems in using evaluation are controlled by management (Wholey, 1991).

As posited by Suchman (1967), the success of an evaluation is largely dependent upon its usefulness in improving services. In his advocacy for responsive evaluation, Stake (1983a) emphasized the utility obligation of good evaluations. He claimed to prefer to work with evaluation designs that perform a service and useful to specific audiences. As such, in this study, a substantial amount of time was spent in understanding the program's contents and processes as well as in clarifying the concerns and issues raised by the different stakeholder groups with the view to enhancing the

utilization of the results. For example, I was a participant-observer for a period of two weeks at the workshops held in January 1994 (i.e., one week for each of levels I and II of the leadership training program). In addition, data were collected through four sets of questionnaire (i.e., pre-workshop, end-of-session, post-workshop, and follow-up questionnaires), and interviews were conducted with 57 different stakeholders (i.e., 37 participants, 11 representatives of the sponsoring organizations, seven facilitators, and two program administrators).

From the perspective of the utility factor, it is logical to assume that evaluators are pleased when their reports and recommendations hold promises for utilization by stakeholders. On the other hand, the rejection of a supposedly good report could be frustrating and demoralizing. There is no gainsaying the fact that the acceptability and utilization of the recommendations of this evaluation study has basically provided an acid-test for determining its success and worthiness.

Weiss and Bucavalas (1980) indicated that the utilization of research data is influenced by recommendations such as those that challenge and affect existing practices, beliefs or perceptions. Close contact between evaluators has been identified as a stimulant to utilization of evaluation results (Wholey, 1983, 1991; Shadish et al., 1991). Wholey (1983) posited that frequent interaction with clients, briefing key individuals on evaluation findings and options, and preparing for implementation of the highest-priority options are keys to getting the necessary policy and management decisions. Shadish et al. (1991) indicated that frequent communication may be more likely than other means lead to dissemination and eventual utilization of evaluation reports. In order to stimulate the use of evaluation reports, the followings have been suggested:

> (a) to write informal reports in simple language,
> (b) to present reports in different forms tailored to specific information needs and communication styles of different stakeholder groups,
> (c) to make action recommendations, and
> (d) to publicize evaluation findings in mass media and professional outlets to increase the number of stakeholders who learn of them. (Shadish et al., 1991, p. 454)

As indicated earlier, presentations (i.e., progress reports) were made during the evaluation process to the program administrators, advisory committee, and committee on Alberta Leadership Education for Agricultural Development (Alberta LEAD) program. Also, various discussions were held specifically with the program administrators. Interestingly, the study started to bear fruit, even before its completion. Some of the recommendations in the reports (especially those relating to declining enrollment, sequential nature of the program, lack of focus, and location of the training site) have begun to influence major shifts in the existing nature of REDA's leadership training program. REDA's decisions regarding the changes in the program were outlined in the article entitled, *Leadership Programming Takes a New Approach.* (see Appendix N). In my reports (both verbal and written), the issue of declining enrollment was emphasized. Apparently, it is becoming more difficult for the program's target group (i.e., agriculturally-oriented audience) to find five days that do not interfere with its farming activities to participate in the program. In view of this situation, REDA, decided to run a shorter, and a more subject-specific program. Moreover, the leadership workshops will no longer be conducted in a particular setting, rather it will be offered in different geographical locations in order to increase access to the program. These modifications are envisaged to ameliorate the declining enrollment and the effectiveness of the program.

Efficacy of Responsive Evaluation

As claimed by Worthen and Sanders (1987) "No evaluation design is perfect. The question is whether on balance, after summarizing judgments across scales, the evaluation seems to achieve its purposes at an acceptable level of quality" (p. 381). Perhaps because "Evaluation is an observed value compared to some standard" (Scriven, cited in Stake, 1983a, p. 291), the matter of meta-evaluation providing a quality control

for evaluation activities, has become an increasing concern (Stake, 1983a). In evaluation, the application of evaluation to itself is generally referred to as meta-evaluation (Scriven, 1983).

The common descriptor for meta-evaluation is *evaluation of evaluation* (Scriven, 1981) or *evaluating evaluation* (Stufflebeam, 1981). Such evaluations are needed to "promote quality in educational evaluations . . . and to report publicly the strengths and weaknesses of completed evaluations" (Berk, 1981, pp. 146-147). But when is an evaluation accepted as good evaluation? This concern requires that evaluation results be evaluated.

With a view to guiding people as to how seriously they should accept the credibility of an evaluation's report as well as the evaluation approach used, many educators and evaluators, including Stufflebeam (1981) have suggested that the decision about the quality or goodness of such evaluation should be based on some set of standards for guiding and judging evaluations. One such set of standards is provided by Worthen's (1974) 11 criteria: conceptual clarity, characteristics of the evaluation object, recognition and representation of legitimate audience, sensitivity to political problems in evaluation, specification of informal needs and sources, comprehensiveness or inclusiveness, technical adequacy, consideration and costs, explicit standards/criteria, judgments and/or recommendations, and reports tailored to audiences. Grotelueschen (1980) also put forward some procedures that can be adopted in the spirit of meta-evaluation. These procedures require evaluation clients to:

> (1) have program personnel provide written feedback on a preliminary evaluation report to the evaluator,
> (2) have representatives of the program--such as board members, trustees, and elected officials who are not directly involved--react to an evaluation report, and
> (3) ask an evaluation specialist who is knowledgeable about adult education to critique a draft of the evaluation report. (p. 119)

According to Groteluesehen (1980), this arrangement is most likely to be successful if agreed upon at the initial commissioning of the evaluation. An even more complete set of standards are the 30 standards developed by the Joint Committee on Standards for Educational Evaluation (1981) and mentioned earlier in this study.

Obviously, a meta-evaluation of the responsive evaluation could be undertaken for this study. I have, however, taken a three-pronged approach to reflecting on the efficacy of responsive evaluation. First, I have focused on the merits of responsive evaluation as identified in the literature and added reflections on each of these based on my experience in the study. Second, I comment on some demerits of responsive evaluation that I believe have relevance for this study. Third, I end with reflections on some of the characteristics of responsive evaluation identified in the literature.

Merits of Responsive Evaluation

As stated in Chapter 3, based on the comparisons between a preordinate approach and a responsive approach to evaluation, Stake (1991) discussed three major merits of responsive evaluation: allowing important program variables to emerge, encouraging change efforts in local stakeholders, and increasing local control. These merits described below, are confirmed by my experiences in the study.

Allowing important program variables to emerge. Unlike the preordinate evaluation which requires the evaluator to identify important treatments and outcomes prior to observing the program, responsive evaluation accommodates ongoing changes in program purpose, focuses more on observations, and reports multiple views about what people think is good or bad. As described by Stake (1991), "The term *responsive* refers to a stimulus-response relationship" (p. 276) between the responsive evaluator and the evaluand. From the perspective of a stimulus-response relationship, while the preordinate evaluator conceptualizes himself as a stimulus, the responsive evaluator considers the principal stimuli to be those naturally occurring in the program to which he responds. In support of this relationship, Stake (1980b) advised that:

> the responsive evaluator should be sure to give careful attention to the reasons the evaluation was commissioned, then to pay attention to what is happening in the program, then to choose the value questions and criteria. He should not fail to discover the best and worst of program happenings. He should not let a list of objectives or an early choice of data-gathering instruments draw attention away from the things that most concern the people involved. (p. 78).

Since it is not possible to conceive of all important questions at the beginning of an evaluation (Guba & Lincoln, 1981; Stake, 1983a; Shadish et al., 1991), there is the need to be receptive of other evolving questions, problems or cues, that may have effect on the evaluations. Responsive evaluation procedures enable the evaluator to respond to emerging and preconceived issues (Stake, 1983a; Shadish et al., 1991). For example, my first evaluation plan included a chart which contained columns for information needed, sources of information, and the data gathering instruments. Although the chart was not rigid, it helped to organize my thinking and made the data collection less complicated. However, as I approached the identified stakeholders, the chart got expanded.

Stake's (1980b) claim that the primary source of question formation or identification of program variables for the responsive evaluator is direct contact with the program and its stakeholders was valid in this study. The first port of call in this study was my contacts with the program administrators, that is, the Executive Director of REDA and the Director directly coordinating the leadership training program. During these contacts, certain issues and concerns or problems about the program were identified. In fact, the purpose and planning for this study were largely based on the identified issues, concerns or problems. These were also aided by subsequent document analyses and personal observation of, and participation in, the program workshops.

Encouraging change efforts in local stakeholders. Since responsive evaluation encourages the participation of stakeholders in the evaluation object, it subsequently motivates intrinsically their involvement in the change efforts that are likely to occur.

From the perspective of social programs involving federal, state, and local governments, Stake (1975b; 1986a) claimed that improvements are best identified by local stakeholders. In support of this advantage, Stake (1975b) asserted that:

> when you hire an evaluator you aren't hiring a person who has a great deal of wisdom about your problems. You aren't going to get somebody who will capture a truth that is really crucial to your program. It is much more likely that whatever truths, whatever solutions there are, exist in the minds of people who are running the program, those participating in the program, those patrons of the program. . . . He is making his greatest contribution, I think, when he is helping people discover ideas, answers, solutions, within their own minds. (p. 36)

By this statement, it is presupposed that Stake meant the role of the evaluator in helping stakeholders become aware of the stakes they hold as well as encouraging them to take their destiny in their hands. In other words, it is the prerogative of the evaluator to provide adequate information with which the people can solve their problems by themselves. In the current study, the local stakeholders refer to those who are directly affected by the program including the participants, facilitators or instructors, funders, and client organization (i.e., program administrators, advisory committee, and board members, etc.). My responsibility involved the provision of information that had both "disillusioning" and "enlightening" effects (in the words of Stake, 1986a) especially for these groups of stakeholders. In this way, my effort was to encourage stakeholders to make changes in the program.

Increasing local control. Comparatively, while preordinate evaluation takes power from local stakeholders by imposing treatments and measurements on them, responsive evaluation includes all program stakeholders as a way of ensuring local participation in controlling the change process. For all practical purposes, this advantage soothes Stake's concern: "In the process of change how much should we give people opportunity to approve, to participate in controlling the changes we would make in their lives?" (1986b, p. 90). I believe that the starting point of increasing local control is to involve all who are impacted by the program. Since this evaluation study set out to

determine whether the program works, four groups of stakeholders (i.e., participants, facilitators and/or instructors, funders, and program administrators) were identified and involved in the study. In my meetings with the respondents, I discussed the purpose of the study, the process for conducting it, and sought their support for participation in it, especially in the survey. Their participation was believed to have generated a feeling of responsibility and empowerment. More importantly, the inclusion of stakeholders' suggestions in my recommendations was another way of fostering their ownership and control of the program as well as soliciting their active participation in implementing the results. It is my belief that local control was at least factored if not increased in the process.

Demerits of Responsive Evaluation

Although the design of Stake's model is commendable, it is difficult to disregard the criticism of the model especially in terms of its demand for time, cost, expertise, and focus, and so on. According to Klinberg (cited in Hurteau & Nadeau, 1985), "the time necessary to build the evaluation instruments can be lengthy" (p. 13). Van Hoose (cited in Hurteau & Nadeau, 1985) has argued that "because of its flexibility, the responsive model can generate some difficulties in maintaining the focus and in collecting the information. Also, the model has been criticized for being expensive in terms of cost (Hurteau and Nadeau, 1985). More interestingly, a conscious criticism of the subjectivity inherent in the model had earlier been explicated by Stake himself. In the presentation of the model to a group of researchers, educators, and evaluators in Sweden in October, 1973, Stake (1983a) declared: "I believe, it is subjective . . . " (p. 292). However, he concurrently gave an antidote for subjectivity. According to him, "Subjectivity can be reduced by replication and operational definition of ambiguous terms even while we are relying heavily on the insights of personal observation" (p. 292).

The only significant criticism I have for responsive evaluation, especially as experienced in this study (i.e., different from those mentioned above) is that which relates

to Stake's passive recognition of a program's objectives. As related by Guba and Lincoln (1981), Stake postulated that "the evaluator is less concerned with the objectives of the evaluand than with its effects in relation to the interests of relevant publics (p. 24). I found this to be an overstatement. As indicated by Gill (cited in REDA, 1979), ". . . Without a clearly written statement of goals (in such a form which allows for an evaluation of achievement) it is impossible to effectively evaluate. . . ." (p. 6).

Given that "The process of evaluation is essentially the process of determining to what extent the educational objectives are actually being realized" (Tyler, 1950, p. 69), the direct response of the evaluator to the program objectives or intents becomes equally important as the program activities. While this may not necessarily be at the beginning of the evaluation, it certainly should not elude the consciousness of the evaluator (even in the "goal-free" evaluation) before making judgment about the success or worth of the program. I found my knowledge of the objectives of REDA's leadership training program useful in planning this evaluation, especially in the formation of the research questions and data collecting instruments. This was in consonance with Tyler's position regarding the importance of objectives in the evaluation of educational programs. As director of research for the Eight-Year Study to determine whether students trained under progressive high school curricula could work as well in colleges as their counterparts trained under conventional Carnegie-unit curricular, Tyler posited that:

> objectives were critical because they were the basis for planning, because they provided an explicit guide to teachers, and because they served as criteria for selection of materials, outlining of content, development of instructional procedures, and the preparation of tests and examinations. Most importantly from the point of view of evaluation, they served as the basis for the systematic and intelligent study of an educational program. (Guba & Lincoln, 1981, p. 4)

From Tyler's standpoint, an evaluator is expected to be really concerned with the objectives of a program as with the evaluand. Similar to this point of view, Rossi and Freeman (1985) claimed that as a prerequisite for assessing the impact of an intervention,

"the project should have its objectives sufficiently well articulated to make it possible to identify measures of goal achievement or the evaluator must be able to establish what reasonble objectives are " (pp. 187-188). As much as I would advocate that a criticism along this line, tempting as it is, should not be given the final word, I would submit that it does no justice to any evaluation to ignore the objectives of the evaluand. However, I suppose this criticism would attract the admiration of many proponents of evaluation as well as elicit further debates and research.

Reflections on Other Characteristics of Responsive Evaluation

As mentioned earlier, the second parameter for determining the efficacy of responsive evaluation is based on my reflections on some of the characteristics of the model identified in the literature review chapter. In brief, they are as follows: responding to the value positions of multiple audiences, recommending the use of "human instruments," accommodating other organizers, and creating awareness through "holistic" communication.

Responding to the value positions of multiple audiences. By value positions of multiple audiences is meant the different needs, issues, concerns or problems, and requirements for information considered to be important by the stakeholders. For example, the scope of this study which was initially planned to cover a five or ten year duration was extended to 19 years. This was in response to the desire of the client organization that the scope of the study be expanded to include all participants of the program to the date of the study. This added work to the study but on reflection added a worthwhile enrichment to it.

Recommending the use of "human instruments." The key human instruments in a responsive evaluation are the evaluator, selected observers, and judges. Stake (1983a) recommended that "Human observers are the best instruments we have for many issues" (p. 297). Through observations, responsive evaluation expects the evaluator (or

any observers or judges that might be selected by him) to directly gain direct or vicarious experience about evaluation object. According to Stake (1983a),

> Direct personal experience is an efficient, comprehensive, and satisfying way of creating understanding, but a way not usually available to our evaluation-report audiences. The best substitute for direct experience probably is vicarious experience--increasingly better when the evaluator uses "attending" and" conceptualizing" styles similar to those which members of the audience use. Such styles are not likely to be those of the specialist in measurement or theoretically-minded social scientist. Vicarious experience often will be conceptualized in terms of persons, places, and events. (p. 300)

A corollary to the importance of using "human instrument" was provided by Douglas (1976). Douglas related the "tests of truth" to the reality of everyday life experiences. According to him,

> First, we use direct experience of things, "Seeing is believing." "Experience is the best teacher." People sum it up in many ways even in everyday abstractions. Most importantly, they use it all the time, commonly without saying anything about it. Direct experience seems to be the most pervasive, fundamental test of truth. . . ." (p. 5)

For Douglas, the tests of truth are brought about through direct experiences. For example, the direct experience of other people, including observation of events and situations provides the "acid test" for the truth (Douglas, 1976, pp. 5-6).

In the current study, a "participant observation" approach of collecting data was adopted in order to enhance my experience and understanding of the program. Since it is "not all that the eye sees that the mouth says", the two-week participant observation of REDA's leadership training program provided me with information vital to comprehending the experiences of the participants as well as being able to determine the credibility of information provided by respondents of this study, especially in terms of the program contents, processes, and activities. Moreover, the participant observation technique facilitated and enhanced the success of my interviews with the participants through encounters and rapport as indicated by Guba and Lincoln (1981).

Accommodating other organizers. The use of other *organizers* as advocated by Stake was found valuable. An example from this study was the use of adversarial procedures (i.e., concepts of *adversary* or *judicial* model of evaluation) in obtaining necessary information regarding the impact of REDA's leadership training program and, especially in presenting my findings (i.e., strengths, weaknesses including issues and concerns raised by the stakeholders) to the program administrators, REDA's advisory council committee, and the Alberta Leadership Education for Agricultural Development Program committee (Alberta LEAD) for decision making. Concerns and issues were presented as naturally as possible.

In their TCITY evaluation report, Stake and Gjerde (cited in Stake 1983a), experienced the importance of leaving issues unresolved, to let the reader decide which claim to accept. A parallel example from this study was the issue of the in-house training programs conducted by most of the sponsoring organizations. The issue was highly sensitive. On one hand, the organizers were not impressed about the rivalry posture of such activity while, on the other hand, the sponsoring organizations claimed that REDA's program was too general and not specific enough to meet the needs of their organizations. Since the role of the responsive evaluator is "to collect information that confirms or disconfirms" (Guba & Lincoln, 1981, p. 35) the issues and concerns that might be raised by stakeholders, what I did in my presentations, especially to the advisory committee and the Alberta LEAD committee, was to present the two sides of the story as perceived by the respondents. Throughout the study, evolving issues and concerns were continuously discussed with the program administrators. In addition, written reports were submitted to the program administrators in order to guide formative decision-making. By these, it was possible to incorporate at least one other organizer into this study--the adversarial model.

Creating awareness through "holistic" communication. Responsive evaluation requires evaluators to communicate their findings as they unfold throughout the study. "For the responsive evaluator, communication with his audiences is of the

essence, for the most meaningful test of the validity of an evaluation is that it improves the audience's understanding of the evaluand" (Guba & Lincoln, 1981, p. 32). As indicated earlier in this study, formal and informal reports were continuous throughout the study. Among other advantages of this characteristic of responsive evaluation is the fact that the findings presented in this study have provided the program administrators with the necessary information to determine for themselves, the effectiveness of their role in influencing changes in the leadership abilities of the participants in their leadership training program over time. In addition, it has provided them with adequate information for the improvement of the program.

Given the premise in which the model has been used, one is apt to conclude that responsive evaluation is a powerful tool suitable for evaluating various training, educational, or development programs. To paraphrase Guba and Lincoln (1981), the efficacy of responsive evaluation, especially as demonstrated in this study, has provided a modicum of legitimation to the many educators and evaluators who have concluded that the preordinate or traditional methods are inadequate but have felt powerful enough to throw off the yoke of the orthodoxy that now surrounds the evaluation process. In anyway, some of the demerits identified in the literature, were not really demerits in this study.

Final Comment

My background as an agricultural extensionist and educational administrator in Nigeria helped to determine what approaches and techniques could be used in this study. Also, my experience in the United States (i.e., as an undergraduate student in Agricultural Education and as a graduate student first in Agricultural Education and then in Educational Administration, as well as my internships in both areas) was of particular help in the early stages of problem definition and data collection. This background of experience facilitated my interaction, especially in terms of language and understanding

experience facilitated my interaction, especially in terms of language and understanding with the stakeholder groups involved in this study.

Given the circumstances leading to REDA's acceptance of my research proposal, I became, in many ways, a "can" of solutions looking for problems to solve. Even though I was not a "hired gun" or consultant employed by REDA, my contract with them required me to produce some results. Although I tried to be as responsive as a hired consultant would want to be, I was not a consultant. I found myself walking on a "tight rope" between satisfying the needs of REDA and satisfying the needs of a doctoral dissertation. Unlike the typical responsive evaluator, I was also required to be responsive to my doctoral thesis supervisory committee. In the final analysis, I satisfied the needs of the doctoral dissertation, as this document attests. I am hopeful that I have also sufficiently satisfied the needs of my "host" for this study.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A: Letter of Acceptance/Approval to Conduct Research

TELEPHONE: (403) 451-5959
FAX: (403) 452-5385

RURAL EDUCATION and DEVELOPMENT ASSOCIATION
An Alberta association of organizations committed to the continuing education of Rural Albertans

14815 - 119 AVENUE, EDMONTON, ALBERTA T5L 2N9

July 21st, 1993

Jim Small, Professor
Department of Educational Administration
Faculty of Education
7-104 Education North
University of Alberta
Edmonton, Alberta T6G 2G5

Dear Jim,

Re: Research of Olusegun Songunro

We are pleased to offer our organization's time and assistance to enable Olusegun Songunro to conduct a research project on evaluation of programs.

The program selected to evaluate (Leadership Level I, II, III) will offer a research into a 20 year project, plus some evaluation of the ongoing components.

We are presently evaluating the program and a committee has been working with Richard Stringham to initiate a review of the program as to delivery methods, etc.

I suggest that Segun contact Richard Stringham, who presently co-ordinates the program, to arrange for discussion of the timeline and how we can assist in the project.

Segun's research may also be complimentary to the Leadership Research Project being done by Alberta Lead (if funding is received) this coming year.

The evaluation procedures, etc. may be useful to R.E.D.A. as we are presently looking at a number of our programs with the idea of making changes in the future.

As mentioned we look forward to working with you in the next few months.

Sincerely,

John Melicher
Executive Director

/prb

D:\JOHN\SMALL.LET

P7-7

APPENDIX B: Pre-workshop Questionnaire

RURAL EDUCATION AND DEVELOPMENT ASSOCIATION, EDMONTON
1994 Leadership Workshop

Pre-Workshop Survey

Please respond to all statements. You are required to check or circle one response for each item,where applicable.

A. Gender:
____(1) Male
____(2) Female

B. Age to your nearest birthday:
____(1) Under 21
____(2) 21-39
____(3) 40-49
____(4) 50-65
____(5) Above 65

C. Please indicate your highest level of education :
____(1) Elementary school
____(2) Below high school
____(3) High school
____(4) Post secondary
____(5) Others

D. What is your main occupation (e.g. Farm Manager/Home Economist/Teacher, etc.)?
_____
_____

E. Is this the first leadership workshop that you have attended?
____(1) Yes
____(2) No

If no, please name those you have attended:_____
_____
_____

F. How did you know about this leadership workshop?
____(1) Through friends/past participants
____(2) Through advertisement/newsletters
____(3) Through community meetings
____(4) Through co-workers
____(5) Others

G. Why did you decide to attend this leadership workshop **OR** What do you consider to be the reasons you were selected by your organization? _____
_____
_____
_____

H. Have you ever found it necessary to evaluate your leadership behavior at work? If yes, how did you evaluate your performance?_____

_____

_____

I. Overall, what do you expect to learn from this leadership workshop?: _____

_____

_____

_____

J. Leadership:

I. In your own opinion, to what extent does leadership depend on each of the following?

	To a Minor Extent									To a Great Extent	Don't Know
a. The personality and training of the leader	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9		10
b. The characteristics of the group being led	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9		10
c. The situation in which the group is operating	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9		10
d. The goals that are being sought	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9		10

II. How do you rate your own potential as a leader?

Low Potential							High Potential		Don't Know
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10

III. To what extent do you emphasize leadership behavior in your work?

Very Little						A Great Deal		Don't Know
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10

IV. What kind of training would you recommend for a person in leadership position?

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

V. Can you list some key "ingredients" of leadership? **OR** How would you recognize "leadership" if you saw it?_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

APPENDIX C: End-of-Session Questionnaire

RURAL EDUCATION AND DEVELOPMENT ASSOCIATION, EDMONTON
1994 Leadership Workshop

Session Evaluation Form

Title of Session:_____

A. An important idea which I have learned (gained) in this session is:_____
_____
_____
_____

B. How interesting was this session? (Check one number).

____(1) Highly interesting
____(2) Interesting
____(3) Somewhat moderate
____(4) Slightly interesting
____(5) Not interesting

C. To what extent is the subject matter applicable to your job situation? (Circle one number).

Not Applicable							Highly Applicable		Don't Know
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10

D. To what degree is the information presented useful? (circle one number).

Not Useful							Very Useful		Don't Know
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10

Any comments/suggestions:_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____

APPENDIX D: Post-workshop Questionnaire

RURAL EDUCATION AND DEVELOPMENT ASSOCIATION, EDMONTON
1994 Leadership Workshop

Post Workshop Survey

Please take a few minutes to think about the entire workshop and give us your opinion or understanding by responding to the following questions. You are required to check or circle one response for each item ,where applicable. The space on the right hand side is available for any comments.

A. To what degree were you satisfied with the following organizational arrangements associated with the leadership workshop?

I. Timing in terms of the time of the year: Any Comments/Suggestions?
____(1) Highly Satisfied
____(2) Satisfied
____(3) Undecided
____(4) Dissatisfied
____(5) Highly Dissatisfied

II. Timing in terms of the time of the week
____(1) Highly Satisfied
____(2) Satisfied
____(3) Undecided
____(4) Dissatisfied
____(5) Highly Dissatisfied

III. Timing in terms of the length of the workshop:
____(1) Highly Satisfied
____(2) Satisfied
____(3) Undecided
____(4) Dissatisfied
____(5) Highly Dissatisfied

IV. Location of the workshop (Geographic)
____(1) Highly Satisfied
____(2) Satisfied
____(3) Undecided
____(4) Dissatisfied
____(5) Highly Dissatisfied

V. Learning Facilities (Buildings, rooms, desks and chairs, access to library and computer, etc.)
____(1) Highly Satisfied
____(2) Satisfied
____(3) Undecided
____(4) Dissatisfied
____(5) Highly Dissatisfied

VI. Recreational facilities available
____(1) Highly Satisfied
____(2) Satisfied
____(3) Undecided
____(4) Dissatisfied
____(5) Highly Dissatisfied

VII. Meals: Any Comments/Suggestions?
____(1) Highly Satisfied
____(2) Satisfied
____(3) Undecided
____(4) Dissatisfied
____(5) Highly Dissatisfied

VIII. Accommodation:
____(1) Highly Satisfied
____(2) Satisfied
____(3) Undecided
____(4) Dissatisfied
____(5) Highly Dissatisfied

B. Overall, how valuable was the workshop?
____(1) Of Great Value
____(2) Of Average Value
____(3) Of Below Average Value
____(4) Of Little Value
____(5) Of No Value at all

C. Would you be interested in attending further leadership training program(s) conducted by REDA?
____(1) Strongly Agree
____(2) Agree
____(3) Undecided
____(4) Disagree
____(5) Strongly Disagree

D. Based on your experience with this leadership workshop conducted by REDA, would you recommend the program to others (i. e., friends, colleagues, co-workers, etc.)?
____(1) Strongly Agree
____(2) Agree
____(3) Undecided
____(4) Disagree
____(5) Strongly Disagree

E. Although you have rated each instructor at the end of his or her presentation, please give your evaluation of the effectiveness of all the instructors using the following parameters:

I. Knowledge of subject:
____(1) Excellent
____(2) Very Good
____(3) Good
____(4) Fair
____(5) Poor

II. Organization and preparation:
____(1) Excellent
____(2) Very Good
____(3) Good
____(4) Fair
____(5) Poor

III. Style and delivery: Any Comments/Suggestions?
____(1) Excellent
____(2) Very Good
____(3) Good
____(4) Fair
____(5) Poor

IV. Responsiveness to participants:
____(1) Excellent
____(2) Very Good
____(3) Good
____(4) Fair
____(5) Poor

V. Creating appropriate learning climate:
____(1) Excellent
____(2) Very Good
____(3) Good
____(4) Fair
____(5) Poor

VI. Quality of handout materials:
____(1) Excellent
____(2) Very Good
____(3) Good
____(4) Fair
____(5) Poor

F (1). What did you like best about the program?_____
_____

F (2). What did you like least about the program?_____
_____

G (1). What do you think should be added to the program?_____
_____

G (2). What do you think should be dropped from the program?_____
_____

H. Please indicate anything you might do differently in your role as a leader as a result of what you have learned/gained in this workshop (please be specific):_____
_____
_____
_____

I. Leadership:

I. In your own opinion, to what extent does leadership depend on each of the following?

	To a Minor Extent								To a Great Extent	Don't Know
a. The personality and training of the leader	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
b. The characteristics of the group being led	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
c. The situation in which the group is operating	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
d. The goals that are being sought	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10

II. How do you rate your own potential as a leader?

Low Potential								High Potential	Don't Know
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10

III. To what extent would you emphasize leadership behavior in your work?

Very Little								A Great Deal	Don't Know
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10

IV. What kind of training would you recommend for a person in leadership position?

_____

_____

_____

_____

V. Can you list some key "ingredients" of leadership? **OR** How would you recognize "leadership" if you saw it?

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

APPENDIX E: Covering Letter for Follow-up Questionnaire

Rural Education and Development Association
14815 119 Avenue
Edmonton, AB T5L 2N9

February 28, 1994

Name
Address
City, province
Postal code

Dear (Name of participant),

Leadership development is an important part of what we, at R.E.D.A. provide. We believe that effective leaders make for successful organizations and communities. Consequently we are constantly looking for ways to improve our programs.

As a former participant in a R.E.D.A. Leadership Workshop, you are in a key position to provide important feedback on both the immediate and long range impact of the workshops.

I am requesting your valuable time (20 to 30 minutes) to complete the attached questionnaire and return it in the enclosed, self-return, stamped envelop before **March 31st, 1994**. Note that the envelop is addressed to Mr. Olusegun Sogunro at R.E.D.A.

Mr. Sogunro is using this study as part of his academic program requirements at the university. This provides him with a useful, relevant study. It also gives R.E.D.A. a valuable insight into the applied nature of our workshops.

We are most concerned that the feedback from past participants be open and honest. Only frank responses will help us to identify what needs improvement. Your name is not required on the questionnaire. Answers will be kept confidential.

If you have any concerns regarding the nature of the study or queries about the questionnaire, please contact myself at 451-5959 or Olusegun Sogunro at 438-0952 or 492-4913.

Thanks for your co-operation.

Sincerely,
Richard Stringham, P.Ag.
Director of Rural & Co-operative Development

APPENDIX F: Follow-up Questionnaire

RURAL EDUCATION AND DEVELOPMENT ASSOCIATION, EDMONTON

Leadership Training Program

Participant Follow-Up Survey

Please take a few minutes to think about the leadership workshop (levels I and II) organized by REDA and give us your opinion or understanding by responding to the following questions. You are required to check or circle one response for each item, where applicable.

Do Not Write in This Space

1. Gender: 1
   ____(1) Male
   ____(2) Female

2. Age to your nearest birthday: 2
   ____(1) Under 21
   ____(2) 21-39
   ____(3) 40-49
   ____(4) 50-65
   ____(5) Above 65

3. Please indicate your highest level of education: 3
   ____(1) Elementary school
   ____(2) Some high school
   ____(3) High school diploma
   ____(4) Some post secondary (please specify) _____
   ____(5) University degrees (please specify) _____

4. What year did you participate in the leadership workshop - level I (if applicable)? 19___ 4-5

5. What year did you participate in the leadership workshop - level II (if applicable)? 19___ 6-7

6. What was your main occupation at the time of participating in the workshop(s) (e.g., Farm Manager/Home Economist/Teacher, etc.)?

---

7. Based on the following competencies, to what extent has your overall job behavior changed since your participation in REDA's leadership training programs (level I and/or level II workshops)? Please circle the number which best expresses your change in competency for each item.

	No change		Some improvement		V. much better	Don't know	
• Decision-making and problem-solving ability	1	2	3	4	5	6	8
• Ability to delegate responsibilities	1	2	3	4	5	6	9
• Ability to accept responsibilities	1	2	3	4	5	6	10
• Listening ability	1	2	3	4	5	6	11

	No change		Some improvement		V. much better	Don't know	
• Ability to manage conflicts	1	2	3	4	5	6	12
• Ability to give feedback	1	2	3	4	5	6	13
• Ability to receive feedback	1	2	3	4	5	6	14
• Time-management ability	1	2	3	4	5	6	15
• Stress-management ability	1	2	3	4	5	6	16
• Ability to work with others in problem-solving situations	1	2	3	4	5	6	17
• Ability to influence/motivate the behavior of others	1	2	3	4	5	6	18
• Openness, frankness, and confidence abilities	1	2	3	4	5	6	19
• Sensitivity to own feelings and the needs of others	1	2	3	4	5	6	20
• Ability to communicate with others (i.e., verbally)	1	2	3	4	5	6	21
• Ability to communicate with others (i.e., written)	1	2	3	4	5	6	22
• Ability to provide leadership in a group	1	2	3	4	5	6	23
• Ability to share leadership in a group	1	2	3	4	5	6	24
• Ability to plan organization/group work	1	2	3	4	5	6	25
• Ability to coordinate organization/group work	1	2	3	4	5	6	26
• Ability to recognize or appreciate the performance of others	1	2	3	4	5	6	27
• Ability to identify with the organization's goals and objectives	1	2	3	4	5	6	28
• Ability to develop and nurture team spirit	1	2	3	4	5	6	29
• Ability to make effective public presentations	1	2	3	4	5	6	30
• Ability to conduct successful meetings	1	2	3	4	5	6	31
• Ability to be active at meetings	1	2	3	4	5	6	32
• Ability to initiate change	1	2	3	4	5	6	33
• Ability to manage change	1	2	3	4	5	6	34
• Ability to respect each member for his/her abilities	1	2	3	4	5	6	35
• Visionary abilities	1	2	3	4	5	6	36

	No change	Some improvement			V. much better	Don't know	
• Risk-taking abilities	1	2	3	4	5	6	37
• Ability to recruit staff and volunteers	1	2	3	4	5	6	38
• Ability to retain staff and volunteers	1	2	3	4	5	6	39
• Ability to use different leadership styles in different situations	1	2	3	4	5	6	40

8. To what degree were you satisfied that the leadership workshop(s) met your needs as a leader (e.g., Supervisor, Director, Chairperson, Manager, Facilitator, Politician, Foreman, Spokesman, or Delegate)? 41

____(1) Highly satisfied
____(2) Satisfied
____(3) Undecided
____(4) Dissatisfied
____(5) Highly dissatisfied

9. To what degree has your satisfaction in your role as a leader changed since your participation in REDA's leadership workshop(s)?

Much less satisfaction				No change				Much more satisfaction	
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	42

10. At what point do you feel the leadership workshop(s) should be taken? 43

____(1) Before holding a leadership position
____(2) When first assigned a leadership position
____(3) Several weeks after getting a leadership position
____(4) Several months after getting a leadership position
____(5) Any time when interested

Please give your reasons:

_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____

11. What do you remember most about the workshop(s)?

12. Can you describe any changes in you, your work, your leadership behavior, or your relationships with others that were caused in some substantial part by your attending the leadership workshop(s)?

13. How often do you make use of some of the specific techniques or materials provided during the workshop(s)?

44

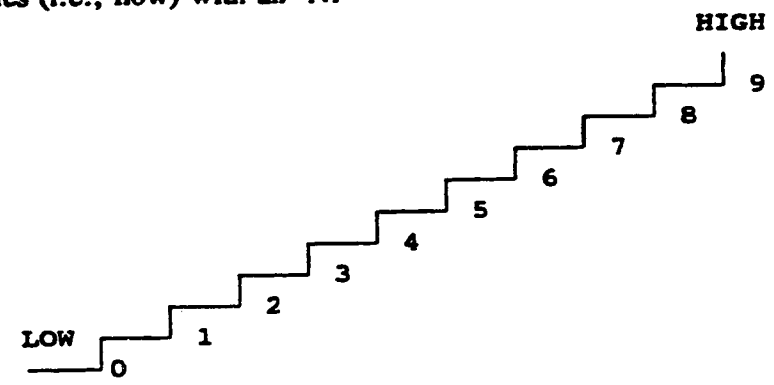
____(1) Never
____(2) Rarely
____(3) Sometimes
____(4) Often
____(5) All the time
____(6) Don't know

Please explain: _____

14. Among the concepts presented at REDA's leadership workshop(s), which ones do you still have difficulty in applying?

Please explain: _____

15. (a) On the following scale, please rate your leadership abilities before attending REDA's leadership workshop(s) with a 'B' and your present abilities (i.e., now) with an 'N.'



B 45

N 46

(b) How much of the increase in your leadership effectiveness would you attribute to the leadership workshop - level I (if applicable)?

Please note that the total of b and c doesn't have to equal 100, but cannot be greater than 100.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
10% or less	20%	30%	40%	50%	60%	70%	80%	90%

47

(c) How much of the increase in your leadership effectiveness would you attribute to the leadership workshop - level II (if applicable)?

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
10% or less	20%	30%	40%	50%	60%	70%	80%	90%

48

16. What follow-up activities or subject matter (if any) would have been helpful after participating in the leadership workshop(s)?

17. Would you be interested in attending any future leadership workshops organized by REDA? 49

____(1) Yes
____(2) No

Please explain: _____

18. Please make any comments about the leadership workshop(s) (i.e., the content, the facilitators/instructors, the materials used, etc.) which would help us to make future programs more valuable.

THANK YOU VERY MUCH FOR YOUR ASSISTANCE.

APPENDIX G: Letter to Interviewees

Rural Education and Development Association
14815 119 Avenue
Edmonton, AB T5L 2N9

February 28, 1994

Name
Address
City, province
Postal code

Dear (Name of interviewee):

Re: R.E.D.A. Leadership Training Programs for Elected Leaders

R.E.D.A. is in the process of evaluating the three level series - Introductory, Intermediate and Advanced Leadership (Levels I, II, and III) Workshops. This letter is to ask for your participation in the evaluation process.

Mr. Olusegun Sogunro is a student at the University of Alberta. He is conducting this evaluation as part of his doctoral program in Educational Administration.

Mr. Sogunro has been receiving feedback from participants at this year's programs, from past participants and from program staff. Your feedback is needed to provide some of your organization's perspectives on the program.

Mr. Sogunro will be asking you the questions by telephone or in person. He will phone you in the near future to arrange a time (and if in person) a place for the interview.

The enclosed questionnaire guideline is for your use in preparing for the interview.

If you have any questions or concerns, please call:

-myself at 451-5959

or

-Olusegun Sogunro at 438-0952 or 492-4913.

Sincerely,

Richard Stringham, P.Ag.
Director of Rural & Co-operative Development

/prb
Encl

APPENDIX H: Interview Guide for Program Participants

Interview Guide for the Participants of the Leadership Training Program at REDA

What do you think the mission (goals) of the program are and/or should be?

For how long have you been involved in this program? Have you ever participated as a trainee in other leadership training programs in the past? If yes what can you say about those programs?

What motivated your participation in the leadership training program at REDA? What did you expect to learn at the training?

How and why were you selected for REDA's leadership training program? What preparation did you make on your own for the training?

What do you think about how the training/workshop has been designed and implemented, strategies that are/were used, or activities involved? Do you have any concerns about these?

What are your perceptions about the resources of the program? Are they adequate? What more/else is needed?

Did the program activities satisfy your leadership goal or needs?

In what ways has the program helped you? What do you like and dislike about the training program?

What are you doing differently that you were doing before you attended the leadership training program? In other words what sorts of on-the-job behavioral changes can be credited to REDA's leadership training program?

What leadership needs do you have that were not addressed by the program?

Would you recommend this program to others (e.g. co-workers, friends, etc.)?

Did you contribute in any way to the planning/design/implementation of the program? If yes, how?

What are your feelings about this program being evaluated? Are there any questions or concerns about the program that you would like to see addressed in the evaluation?

What would you say have been the benefits of the program both to the participants and the sponsoring organizations? **OR** What changes or differences, if any, is the program making with regard to participants and the sponsoring organizations?

What do you consider to be the main strengths and weaknesses of the leadership training program?

Generally, in what ways do you think the leadership training program can be improved?

Is there anything else I should know or anything you would like to add?

APPENDIX I: Interview Guide for Sponsoring Organizations

Interview Guide for the Sponsoring Organizations of Participants for the Leadership Training Program at REDA

How did your organization get involved with REDA? For how long have you been sponsoring participants to the leadership training program at REDA? How many participants/people have you sponsored to REDA to date?

Are you familiar with the goals of REDA, especially the Leadership training program?

Has your organization ever sent participants to institutions or organizations other than REDA for similar leadership training ? If yes, what relationship/similarities and differences, if any, do you see between the program offered by REDA and other organizations?

Why did you decide to send participants to REDA as opposed to other institutions offering leadership programs?

What category of participants/employees do you normally send for leadership training, and how do you select them?

What do you consider to be the main leadership needs among your employees? What are the major obstacles to meeting these needs within your organization?

Have you ever been involved in or observed any aspect of REDA's workshop? If so, what are your impressions of it?

How/What do participants feel about the program they have attended? Do they seem to find the program helpful? If so, in what ways? In other words, to what extent has their job behavior changed as a result of attending the training program?

What opportunities for advancement are available in your organization for participants of the leadership training programs conducted by REDA?

What kinds of support does your organization give to the participants as well as REDA, and what kinds of benefits does your organization derive from the leadership training? **OR** What do you consider to be the costs and benefits of the leadership training program to your organization?

What are your feelings about this leadership training program being evaluated? Are there any questions or concerns about the program that you would like to see addressed in the evaluation?

What do you consider to be the main strengths and weaknesses of the leadership training program?

Generally, in what ways do you think the leadership training program can be improved?

Is there anything else I should know or anything you would like to add?

APPENDIX J: Interview Guide for Instructors/Facilitators

Interview Guide for Instructors/Facilitators of the Leadership Training Program

What do you think the mission (goals) of the leadership training program are and/or should be?

How did you become a facilitator/instructor of the leadership training program at REDA (i.e., when, how long, etc.)?

Are your services to REDA voluntary, salaried, or on contract basis?

What is your role as a facilitator/instructor? What can you say about your professional/academic preparation as a facilitator/instructor/expert for this program?

How/What do participants feel about the program? Do they seem to find the program helpful? If so, in what ways?

What are your perceptions about the resources of the program? Are they adequate? If not, what more/else is needed?

What are your feelings about this program being evaluated? Are there any questions or concerns about the program that you would like to see addressed in the evaluation?

What would you say have been the benefits of the program both to the participants and the sponsoring organizations? **OR** What changes or differences, if any, is the program making with regard to participants and the sponsoring organizations?

Should REDA expand the scope of its leadership program to involve other nonfarm businesses? If the scope is to be expanded, what should be REDA's role?

What do you consider to be the main strengths and weaknesses of the leadership training program?

Generally, in what ways do you think the leadership training program can be improved?

Is there anything else I should know or anything you would like to add?

APPENDIX K: Interview Guide for the Organizers of the Leadership Training Program

Interview Guide for the Organizers of the Leadership Training Program

What is the overall purpose of the leadership training program?

What are the official and unofficial goals of the leadership program? What are the main objectives of the different levels of the program (i.e., levels I, and II)?

What are the short and long-range prospects for the program from the perspective of the levels I, and II?

What are the short and long-range outcomes of the program from the perspective of the levels I, and II?

Why was this particular program developed by REDA? Does the program relate to any other developmental needs?

Did REDA conduct any training needs assessment that are instrumental to the leadership training program? If yes, please explain REDA's process of conducting needs assessment for the program?

What resources of money, time, skill, space and facilities do you provide for the training? What are the sources of these resources?

To what extent do you feel REDA has reached the target audience?

What would you say have been the benefits of the program both to the participants and the sponsoring organizations? **OR** What changes or differences, if any, is the program making with regard to participants and the sponsoring organizations?

Do you consider 'Participant Follow up' an essential part of the program? If yes, how often is this done? How has this affected the overall success of the program? If no, why? **OR** What has been the problems in planning/conducting this type of activity?

What are your feelings about this program being evaluated? Are there any questions or concerns about the program that you would like to see addressed in the evaluation?

What use, if any, would you make of the evaluation findings on this program?

Who would you like to inform with the evaluation findings of this study? What types of information or evidence is likely to influence these person(s)?

Do you anticipate increasing the scope of your leadership training program to include, for example, participants from nonfarm businesses? If the scope is to be expanded, what should be REDA's role? Planning and management delivery as it now is? **OR** Only facilitation and support services?

What do you consider to be the main strengths and weaknesses of the leadership training program?

Generally, in what ways do you think the leadership training program can be improved?

Is there anything else I should know or anything you would like to add?

APPENDIX L: Letter of Reminder to Follow-up Questionnaire

Rural Education and Development Association
14815 119 Avenue
Edmonton, AB T5L 2N9

March 31, 1994

Name
Address
City, province
Postal code

Dear (Name of participant):

On February 28, 1994 we sent you a questionnaire asking for your evaluation of your R.E.D.A. Leadership Workshop experience. The questionnaire was to be returned in an enclosed addressed envelope to the attention of Mr. Olusegun Sogunro.

We have received many returns, however, we are still short of our goal. If you have returned the questionnaire, please accept our thanks for your time. Your thoughts and actions are appreciated.

If you have not returned the questionnaire, we urge you to do so. Another questionnaire has been enclosed for your convenience. Your feedback is important toward developing a clear picture of what our leadership program has accomplished.

Sincerely,

Rs/mr

Richard Stringham, P.Ag.
Director of Rural & Co-operative Development

APPENDIX M: Letter for Revision of Transcripts

Department of Educational Administration
University of Alberta
Edmonton, AB
Canada T6G 2G5

June 15, 1994

Name
Address
City, province
Postal code

Dear (Name of participant):

Kindly find enclosed a copy of the transcript of our interview. I would ask that you read it carefully and make any deletions, additions, and/or changes that you wish so that the data best reflect the intent of your opinion or viewpoint.

As soon as this is completed, kindly return it to me using the enclosed self-addressed stamped envelope or, if you prefer, telephone me at the number below to make the changes.

Thank you for your cooperation.

Yours sincerely,

Olusegun Sogunro
(403) 438-0952

APPENDIX N: Utilization of Evaluation Findings: Leadership Programming Takes a New Approach

Leadership Programming Takes a New Approach

R.E.D.A. will not be offering its three level (Introductory, Intermediate and Advanced) Leadership Workshops in the foreseeable future.

"The numbers have been declining over the past several years", according to Richard Stringham, Director of Rural and Co-operative Development with R.E.D.A. "Ironically, what people had liked about the program also worked against it. Many past participants commented that being in a secluded location (Goldeye Centre) for five days of very comprehensive programming created opportunities to really focus on the program and learn from other participants. The fact that the program touched on so many areas in one week, helped participants gain a new appreciation for the breadth of skills needed in leadership".

"But time has become more of a concern over the past few years. Finding five days to take in a workshop seems to be more difficult for our target group. Finding five days that does not interfere with farming, meetings, conferences or other activities from various groups has become extremely difficult for R.E.D.A."

R.E.D.A.'s new approach will be to run shorter, subject specific workshops throughout Alberta. For example, R.E.D.A. will offer programs on Effective Meetings, Parliamentary Procedure, Leadership Dynamics, Effective Presentations, etc. Each program will be offered annually but in different locations so that over a few years everyone will have easy access to the programs.

"Our workshops will distinguish themselves by their quality and their practical nature", commented John Melicher, Executive Director for R.E.D.A." We want people to walk out of these workshops knowing how they will apply the things they have learned".

During the next few months watch for further notice of the new R.E.D.A. leadership workshops.

Source: Rural Education and Development Association Update: Winter 1994-95

APPENDIX O: Copyright Permission: Letters from Publishers

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Agnes Fisher
Director
Consumer Permissions

October 4, 1995

Olusegun A. Sogunro
Department of Educational Policy Studies
7-104 Education North
University of Alberta
Edmonton
Alberta
Camada
T6G 2G5

Fax: 403-492-2024 (and mail)

Dear Mr. Sogunro:

This is in reply to your letter of September 26. You may have our permission to utilize a figure, "Comparing Managment and Leadership," p 6, from John P. Kotter's A FORCE FOR CHANGE: How Leadership Differs from Management, in your doctoral dissertation research and in all copies to meet degree requirements, includingUniversity Microfilms edition. New permission is required for all subsequent uses.

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Best wishes.

Sincerely yours,

Agnes Fisher

University of Alberta
Edmonton
Canada T6G 2G5

Department of Educational Policy Studies
Faculty of Education
7-104 Education Building North,
Telephone (403) 492-7625. Home: (403) 438-0952
Fax (403) 492-2024
Internet

September 26, 1995

Lorri Winer
Copy Right Permission Department
Jossey-Bass Inc. Publishers
350 Sansome Street,
San Francisco, CA 94104

Dear Ms Winer:

I wish to seek for your written permission for the inclusion of some of your publication materials in my dissertation.

I am a doctoral student at the University of Alberta, Department of Educational Policy Studies. I am working on a research titled: "Impact Evaluation of a Leadership Training Program." The study determines the impact of the program conducted by the Rural Education and Development Association, Edmonton, Alberta, Canada on the participants over the past 19 years.

The material in question was found in the book referenced: Guba, E. G. & Lincoln, Y. S. (1981). *Effective evaluation: Improving the usefulness of evaluation results through responsive and naturalistic approaches* (p. 28). San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass. A copy is attached.

While sending your reply by mail, please be grateful to send a copy by fax.

Thanks for your cooperation.

Yours sincerely,

Olusegun A. Sogunro

Encl.:

Permission granted; no fee. Please also contact R.E. Stake (see attached References page) for permission. Please fully credit source.
– Sophia D. Ho for Lorri Winer, Permis Administrator
10/19/95

Kluwer Academic Publishers

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Telephone (617) 871-6600 • Telex: 200190 • Fax: 6178716528

October 18, 1995

Olusegun Sogunro
University of Alberta
Department of Educational
Policies Studies
Faculty of Education
Edmonton, CANADA T6G 2G5

Dear Mr. Sogunro:

Following-up on your letter of September 26, 1995, I am willing to grant permission for you to include the material identified in your letter of September 26 in your dissertation. Attached please find your original letter that included my permissions.

Permission is granted provided that complete acknowledgement is given to the original source of publication. Thank you very much.

Sincerely,

Z. Rolnik/co

Zachary Rolnik
Senior Editor

ZR:co
enclosures