Introduction
1. General Background

This thesis deals with the investigations carried out by the author on the impact of the executive development programmes on morale, behaviour and performance of executives in the Indian Corporate Organisations. Both private and public sector organisations have been included so as to make a comparative study. Training and development programmes have become almost a routine practice in almost all organisations though practices vary from organisation to organisation. In some organisations, it is highly formalised with adequate course content and instructions as in a university, whereas in others, it is in the form of informal coaching by some one from the organisation itself. The training given is either generalised or particularised. The training and development programmes offered thus pertain to anything the organisations feel inclined to do.

The training and development programmes conducted in many of these organisations, however, have not been thoroughly evaluated. The question as to how far these programmes were effective remains unanswered. Corporate chief executives want cost effective programmes which have
a beneficial impact upon the organisation and solve its current and future problems by developing the needed managerial talent. Managers want the right type of learning opportunities that will provide them with the right type of skills and abilities to perform their jobs. Training and development professionals, however, sometimes seem to lose sight of the real purpose of the training programmes. Very often they focus attention on quantity rather than quality of training or deliver the latest fad rather than meeting the true training and development needs. It is, therefore, essential that the objectives of the managements are met by these training programmes, if these programmes are to serve the required purpose. From the perspective of organisations there is thus the need to evaluate the executive development programmes. Evaluation should provide us with information that can be used to revise the objectives of these programmes. Before attempting to discuss the results obtained by the author to study the usefulness of executive development programmes offered by different organisations in the country, the general ideas that have been developed during the past years on executive development and the literature on the work done by earlier workers on evaluating the effectiveness of executive development programmes is first discussed in detail.
2. Executive Development

One of the most prominent areas of personnel management is that of executive development. Perhaps the justification for planned and systematic executive development programmes is the very complex nature of the job itself. The executive job is typically open minded, fragmented, interpersonal, verbal and active. Job descriptions that may exist do not capture the nature of the job in its entirety. It is true that the executive plans, organises, directs and controls but his typical day is not that simple. His* milieu seems to be one of the stimulus response.

Further, regardless of the type of formal education experienced by the managers, very often there tends to remain a certain separatism between learning and doing. Learning takes place in one setting while managing and doing in another. In executive development programmes, therefore, there should be some connection between the two. This can be seen by the usual practice of managers justifying their choice of learning on the grounds of contributing to their performance. Companies, both public and private, spend considerable money annually for meeting

* Throughout this thesis pronouns such as he, him, his and himself refer to persons regardless of sex.
direct and indirect costs associated with these programmes. A greater return on these investments might be realised if managers were more aware of the dynamics of adult learning in order to bridge the above mentioned separatism with a blend of the knowledge and skills necessary for effective learning and doing. Organisations, therefore, do require purposeful direction and some time must, therefore, be spent by some group within the organisation on executive development programmes.

Hardly a day goes by, without a flyer crossing the desks of the chief executives, describing some development programme or other that their managers need. There are motivational programmes, programmes on leadership styles, programmes to improve decision making abilities, programmes that help managers to control their time more effectively, discipline subordinate more equitably and communicate more precisely. If one investigates these development programmes, one would notice that most of them are quite good. Any seminar contains something worthwhile for the improvement of managerial performance. In fact merely selecting a manager to be sent for a professional development programme itself appears to be beneficial to his morale. But companies do not send their managers to development programmes for individual growth alone. Individual growth must be
accompanied by improved work group or organisational performance. Benefits must accrue to the firm and should be observable. Achieving these benefits requires that companies take steps to assure a successful performance change in their managers and see that they gain from the training activity in some measurable form. If not the resources devoted to the programme are wasted.

Long and Jinks (1982) believe that in relation to the overall management programme, there are three clear, though interlinked, aspects to be considered:

- the educational process which is largely conceptual in content is to be aimed at increasing the level of the general awareness of managers about business matters. Many newly appointed and newly promoted managers would require a good measure of this education.

- training should mean providing specific job related skills in response to carefully identified needs. Unlike education, training can be readily evaluated in terms of changed performance and behaviour,

- development, which is essentially a short term activity with long term implications, is the means
of allowing managers to increase their effectiveness by giving them opportunities to practice and polish their skills in order to grow in their current job. It is also the method through which future potential can be developed.

Managerial talent is essential to organisational success. At the minimum, managers provide the communication links among the different components of an organisation to make it possible for coordinated action to take place. Managers are usually allocated the primary responsibility of ensuring the attainment of organisational goals. This requires a design of socio technical systems that would facilitate work accomplishment internally as well as adjusting to external changes.

The general objectives of executive development programmes, according to Rudrahasavaraj (1974), are:

- to provide the existing management force with the knowledge and skills they are required to possess for their present job in the most efficient way. These skills and knowledge should not only cover their own technical and professional fields but also knowledge relating to other functional areas of management like cost and man management.
- to create in them the right type of motivation, ability and willingness to recognise the need for change, if change is necessary, and to acquire the required knowledge and skill, and
- to ensure that problems of management succession are considered in advance and that there are, at all times in the company, men with the necessary ability, knowledge and experience, as good as may be obtained from the best concerns outside, so that the difficulties in finding suitable men to fill vacant positions are minimised,

Training objectives should thus meet both the individuals needs and the organisational needs like general knowledge, job knowledge, organisation knowledge, decision making skills, interpersonal skills and specific industrial needs.

The overall approach to management development, according to Wright(1949), can be summarised in the following ten basic principles:

(i) Development and training must be highly personal and individual:

No person is just like any other person. The individual
is unique. He is an individual and different. But even in his difference he is not always the same. He changes with time. He is not the same as he was last year. It follows, therefore, that we cannot successfully develop people by means of standardised methods. Human development can never be an assembly line process. Management development plans should, therefore, be manysided. Each plan must be tailor made to fit the abilities and needs of a particular person aimed at helping him to develop himself in the direction that is best for him.

(ii) The obligations and responsibilities for development rests with the individual:

Young men sometimes go to business concerns with an attitude that the concerns should develop them. This is wrong. Possibly recruiters oversell to these youngsters. What they ought to say is that they will give them the required opportunities but they will have to develop themselves by working hard. This will eliminate the chaff early. The company naturally has an interest in developing its people. The company can and will help but development is not something you do to people. The motivation, the desire, the effort, the obligation and the responsibility for development lie with the people themselves.
Companies should not seek men with certain personality traits but men who indicate or demonstrate an ability to do the work you want done:

Development should not be based upon any set of ideal personality characteristics. This would lead to conformity and hence dead uniformity. The strength of a good company has always been in the individuality of the people who compose it. There is not any standard pattern of personality traits that make a good manager. Some managers are tough and rugged personalities. Others are quiet and thoughtful men, still others are the aggressive salesmen type. Some are just widely assorted and different individuals but all good managers. Thus personality traits are not something upon which development approaches can be based. Further, personality traits are almost impossible to define. Nor can they be measured. They can be changed only with the greatest difficulty. One method is psychoanalysis and the other is religious conversion. Neither is practical in reality. Work is, therefore, a better focal point than personality traits. Work can be seen, identified, analysed and measured. Work is specific, tangible and basic. The whole company is nothing more than a group of people banded together to do work in return for money and personal fulfillment. There is an important checkpoint in evaluating
the work of a person. The single common denominator in all managerial jobs should be that the manager must get results through the efforts of other people. Education and development activities should, therefore, be directed to teaching or helping to develop the abilities of a man to do this kind of work.

(iv) Management or Leadership is a separate and distinct kind of work:
The best engineer when made as the manager of engineering very often fails. The star salesman when made as the sales manager very often fails. The outstanding individual performer thus very often turns out to be a mediocre manager. Managing thus has its own particular requirements. Management should, therefore, not be the only reward for outstanding achievement. Outstanding achievers on the contrary are usually good contributors. In choosing somebody as a manager or a contributor, the decision should, therefore, rest on answers to questions like whether the particular individual is in the right kind of work and whether management is the right direction for him. And if all men were truly adult, one would not yearn for prestige, but would want fulfillment in his work. One would want to get recognition for his professional capability and contribution rather than in the social
hierarchy of the company. But most people are something less than adult. An outstanding contributor is often unhappy because he sees a lesser productive person getting promotions which he is not getting. From this dissatisfaction comes decreased individual effort and hence a second rate manager or a second rate contributor. The prestige and rewards for an individual's outstanding contributions should, therefore, be equal to the prestige and rewards for managerial work. This unfortunately is not yet true and this is an area where there is still much to be done.

(v) Emphasis should be made on one's development in his present assignment rather than on a promotional ladder:

Promotion as a development factor is important. But if undue stress is placed on the promotional ladder, everyone begins to feel that he is in that particular job only temporarily. Such a person, therefore, devotes most of his attention to looking ahead and not getting his present work done. The development process should, therefore, be integrated with the normal conduct of the business. But if a man's development is concentrated only on his present job, he may not be able to take bigger responsibilities
when they come as he concentrates primarily on the present job. He should, therefore, be helped and encouraged to broaden himself to take on bigger tasks. Broadening for the future should be an additional factor. The main objective should be doing better, whatever one is doing. When one moves up on recognition or authority, one has, therefore, earned it.

(vi) Opportunity for development must be unrestricted:

Many development programmes have been based on the idea of selecting the so-called high potential men. Yet experience shows that a low fraction of nearly one third fulfill this prediction. And there are historic warnings against these promising young men. Abraham Lincoln, for example, was a constant failure in his early life and would never have appeared on the promising list. Everybody in a company must, therefore, be given an opportunity to develop himself. Obviously the brighter one will develop faster. But the lesser one is not cut off. Each gets an appropriate opportunity. Nobody is left out and the stage is set for happy surprises, dark horses, poor starters and strong finishers.
A person should be developed through his experience in the day-to-day work:

A majority of the managers believe that the most important factors in their development are the manner in which they are managed in their daily work, the climate in which they work and their interpersonal relationships. Civic activities, outside courses, rotation and formal training are no doubt important, but the daily experience is much more important than these. There can thus be no doubt as to where the major attention should be directed. Every man is having experience in his day-to-day work that tends to develop him or retard development. He is daily reacting to the climate in which he works and to his relationship with the immediate superior.

A prime instrument of development is decision making:

No one can develop judgement and learn to make good decisions without actually making decisions. Learning on decision making comes from doing. But if most of the decision making in the company is concentrated among a few of the top brass, it limits the field for individual learning on decision making. Some companies have discovered that small isolated plants breed many of their best executives. In a decentralised component one learns to make decisions right on the job. He develops himself by doing.
(ix) The incumbent manager influences the development of the people under him:

The incumbent manager is a powerful influence and hence should be used for developing others. It is true that many managers object to development work but it is ideal to make helping people who report to them to develop themselves, a part of their job description and a part of the rule against which they are measured. Managers must watch the climate that exists and should originate opportunities and work situations which will challenge and develop people working under them. Development work can be one of the most satisfying parts of a manager's job. It helps him in getting his work done when he operates on an integrated and reciprocal basis. Anyone can issue commands and give orders. But to make a man feel that he is developing through his work so that he performs voluntarily at a high level of effectiveness is leadership and motivation in the true sense.

(x) Moral and spiritual values are important in development:

For a long time mankind has been growing more and more materialistic. The scientific and material comforts that we have in our hands have grown out of proportion. But the human being seems to have advanced very little. One should,
therefore, find ways and means to greater wisdom in handling these materials. This is directly involved with decision making and the quality of our decisions, particularly those with regard to people. Our decision must be wise and good. This necessitates the ethical man, the moral man, and the complete man. Developing the ethical norms of conduct thus distinguishes development education from mere training.

One cannot interfere with one's private life neither can one insist in church affiliations. But one can suggest interest in a broad range of subjects, not related to his work, but sociological pursuits that make him a part of the community of men leading to conditions that improve his moral judgements. It is thus important for managements to keep its men growing morally and intellectually.

As the objectives of the present study are to obtain information on the impact of executive development programmes on morale, behaviour and performance of executives, it is appropriate here to first discuss in detail on the points of view that have been developed by various authors on these three qualities.
Morale has been defined by Allport (1942) as an individual's attitude in a group endeavour. This implies that both personal and social features are involved in the mental condition of an individual. To have high morale the individual must possess firm convictions and values which make life worthwhile for him so that he has the energy and confidence to face the future. The individual must be aware of a job to be done to defend or extend his values, the individual's values must be in essential agreement with those of his group and there must be coordination of efforts in attaining the objectives. Stouffer and Luchamam (1949) refer to the term morale in the context of a group, namely, dealing with the relationships existing between the individuals in a group. Katz (1952) is of the opinion that morale involves two factors, namely, the presence of a common goal among the members of a group and the acceptance of socially recognised pathways towards that goal.

Morale is the sum of satisfactions which an individual experiences because of one's membership and involvement in an organisation. It is also the confidence the individual experiences in his ability to achieve goals and cope with future challenges. In short it is the spirit exhibited by
an individual in pursuit of his goals. The dimensions of executive morale, however, are quite complex. According to Miller and Form (1980) the following are some of the more important factors:

(i) Intrinsinc job satisfaction:

When several hundred managers and professional people were asked to describe a job experience and when they felt exceptionally good or bad about their job, two things turned out to be very important. Favourable experiences were associated with job content, that is, the task performed by the person. In this the principal sources of satisfactions were feelings of accomplishment, recognition, the work itself and chances of advancement. Negative feelings mainly centred around job context such as supervision, company policy and operating procedures. Individuals thus tend to perceive satisfactions as coming from the work environment. Some people, particularly at the professional levels, see this problem as an interactional one between the individual and the environment.

There are many reasons why people like the job they are doing. One man may like what he is doing because he has just the right ability and training for it. Another may like his job because it is easy and free from tension and
gives him an opportunity to travel. Whatever is the reason, what one does at his particular job usually contributes to both satisfaction and dissatisfaction.

The chief factor that places the professional man such as a physician, a lawyer, a scientist, in a somewhat unique category is that his satisfactions come largely from his own efforts. Doctors for instance are dependent on their organisations such as hospitals and medical societies for operational settings but these organisations seem to do little in providing satisfaction to them. A large number of doctors seem to think that their hospitals are badly managed. University professors often express the feelings that they are primarily professionally oriented, possibly reflecting one reason why so many shift from job to job, particularly, in the earlier years when mobility offered more possibilities. Members of law firms report that their basic job satisfaction comes largely from what they do as individuals. To a somewhat lesser degree, young professionals in industries very often feel that they are professionally oriented in contrast to higher level managers who say they are essentially company oriented.

It is well known that conflicts often develop in scientists working in the industry over the problem of
colleague control versus administrative control of research personnel leading to dissatisfaction with staff jobs. Managements' desire for research supervisors whose primary loyalty is to the organisation rather than to their profession conflicts with the scientists' desire for research supervisors whose primary loyalty is to them rather than to the management. Interactions between professions and organisations tend to produce competing orientations, career lines and incentive systems. The scientific profession seeks contributions to knowledge and gets satisfaction from research papers and acclaim from colleagues. The company management often seeks contributions to production and sales and rewards commercial success with promotions in a hierarchy of status, income and authority. Sometimes the scientist gets confused as to where he should look for satisfaction.

(ii) Involvement with immediate work group:

This is one of the most difficult factors of the job attitude to describe. It involves such individual needs as belonging and social approval. This factor contributes to both satisfaction and dissatisfaction of the employee. A man who thinks of himself as a member of a productive and cohesive group is happier with his job than one who finds himself a misfit. The social factor seems to appear
slightly more important to women than to men and it is relatively independent of age and occupational level.

The problems that often agitate the minds of a professional are the kind of people with whom he should associate himself and the kind of company he should work for; whether he should associate himself with the people in whom he has the right confidence or with the people whom he does not trust and whether he should work for a company for which he has the highest respect or for one in whose policies, future and its management, one has doubts about. These problems are genuine and understandable. Employees want to be able to respect and have confidence in the company they work for.

Humans are social by nature. They need acceptance. They want to belong to the club, the church or the employee group. When they are left out, they are lonely and unhappy. They look to their jobs as opportunities to be part of something important. They want pride in their jobs, their associates, their supervisors and their company. A wise supervisor should, therefore, welcome the new employee, giving him the feeling of belonging and then make certain that his job conditions continue to give him the same feeling.
When company executives are asked about what they have done within the past six months to keep their best employees from becoming dissatisfied and leaving, they usually reply that they have been given a raise in their salaries. This is good, but what is more important is that the supervisor speaks to the employee on a person to person basis, enquires sincerely about his family, communicates that the company is proud of him and is pleased to count him as part of the organisation. The individual who is thus recognised is less likely to slacken his efforts or to seek employment elsewhere.

The social aspects of the job like work groups, leadership and organisation structure of the company all add up to a psychological climate for a person to work in the organisation. It is known, for example, that work groups which are cohesive and which have a sort of pride in the group, have higher morale than those who are not cohesive.

It is well known that people get together only in certain groups where they derive satisfaction. They are happy to belong to a particular group and leave it only with reluctance. This is because people find the climate suitable to their individual needs. The other members of the group help a person to satisfy his desires for
recognition and status, his feelings of being wanted and most important of all, his feeling of security. When these needs in the individual members of the group are satisfied, group cohesiveness produces higher morale and in turn, high productivity, especially where leadership and company loyalty are also a positive part of the psychological climate.

(iii) Identification with the company:

People identify themselves with the company they are working for when they believe in the management's integrity and its concern for employee welfare, adequacy of personnel policies, friendliness etc. They take pride in their company and interest in its future. There is a sense of belonging and participation in the company's affairs. This leads to competence of higher levels of management, efficiency of company operations and cooperation among various departments.

(iv) Interpersonal relations with the boss:

A superior's capability of being friendly with his managers, giving credit for their good work, listening to their suggestions, showing concern for their welfare, following up promises made, giving them freedom to express their opinions and suggesting improvements, and in short, training them, go a long way in building up morale.
(v) Security:

This factor deals with the steadiness of employment. It is positive, when the manager feels that he has a reasonably good chance of working under conditions of company's stability. The man with security feels that he is valued by his company and that he has the abilities and the opportunity to keep the job. Security is a strong reason for liking the job and is generally said to contribute to job satisfaction.

Security is also a job attitude factor which increases slightly in importance with an increase in age. It seems to be equally important to employees regardless of their dependants, with the possible exception of the single man who is entirely on his own. There is evidence to suggest that security is less important to employees with more education.

(vi) Growth and advancement opportunities:

The possibility of getting ahead ranks high in importance in a manager, particularly in a person who is striving for upward mobility. Opportunity for advancement is quite a different problem for persons at opposite ends of the economic scale. The professional or the corporate executive has this factor primarily within his own
individual control. To the person in the middle management level, however, the problem of opportunity is of great concern, for his future is largely tied up with what happens to and within his company.

The results of many attitude surveys show that lack of opportunity for advancement is frequently a strong reason for disliking a job, but rarely is the opportunity for advancement mentioned as a contributor to satisfaction. Men are much more expressive in giving importance to this factor than women. There seems to be a decrease in importance of the advancement factor with increasing age. Once a person has reached his opportunity level and has become adjusted to his situation, other factors, such as length of service become more important. Intelligence and education are substantially related to the opportunity factor. As a matter of fact, one serious problem for the bright and ambitious college graduate is to realise that promotional opportunities are often slower in coming than he would like it to be. Some studies show that college seniors select their jobs largely because they think that they will have a good opportunity for advancement.
(b) Behaviour

Behaviour may be thought of as coming from the decisions and choices made by the individuals. This is the approach of several authors like Simon (1957), March and Simon (1958), Cyert and March (1963) and March and Olsen (1976). By behaviour it is meant behaviour at work. Behaviour at work may be considered as concrete manifestations of choice, namely, activities and decisions of managers which are relatively visible or which can be clearly identified. Behaviour at work includes all activities and decisions that are directly or indirectly associated with organisational results. Social and nonwork behaviour within the organisation is also included as this too can affect organisational results.

Behaviour is an activity that can be seen, measured or described. Although the idea of managing behaviour change is anathema to many managers, they are engaged in this technique everyday whether they are aware of it or not. Changing employee behaviour encounters both intellectual and emotional resistance. An effective manager, however, is one who is able to change positively the behaviour of those who come into contact with him so that they are supportive of both the tasks that must be accomplished and his
objectives. The indicators of changed behaviour are many and often complex. It is generally believed that the yardsticks of changed behaviour are:

- changes in job-performances of the participants,
- changes in the job-performance of the subordinates of the participants and
- changes in end operational results.

Evaluation of training programmes in terms of on-the-job-behaviour is very difficult since it requires a scientific approach and many complex factors are to be considered and several guide posts are to be followed. A systematic appraisal should be made on the job-performance before and after the training and this appraisal of performance should be made by more than one person such as the person receiving the training, the person's superior, the person's subordinates and the person's peers or other people thoroughly familiar with the person's performance. A statistical analysis should be made to compare performance before and after the training and to relate changes to the training programme. The post training appraisal should be made three months or more after the training so that the trainees have an opportunity to put into practice what they have learnt. Subsequent appraisals may add to the validity of the study. Finally a control group, not receiving the
training, should be used.

Changes in behaviour after training has been studied by several authors. Fleishman (1955) developed a study design and research instruments for measuring the effectiveness of training. Seven paper-and-pencil questionnaires were used and the trainees, their superiors and their subordinates were surveyed. To supplement the finding of Fleishman, Harris (1955) conducted a follow up study in the same organisation. He measured job performance before and after the training and worked with experimental and control groups and obtained information from the trainees themselves as well as from their subordinates.

As explained in detail by Mann and Dent (1954) the Survey Research Centre of the University of Michigan has contributed much to evaluation of training programmes in terms of on-the-job-behaviour. To measure the effectiveness of a human relations programme conducted at the Detroit Edison Company and to measure the results of an experimental programme called 'feedback', a scientific approach to evaluation was used. On-the-job-performance was measured before and after the training with experimental as well as control groups. The supervisors receiving the training as well as their subordinates were all surveyed in
order to compare the results of the research. The instrument used for measuring these changes was an attitude and opinion survey designed and developed by the centre itself.

Lindholm (1953) also carried out a similar study. A questionnaire developed as part of the research programme of the Industrial Relations Centre of the University of Minnesota was used. It was given on a before-and-after basis to the subordinates of those who took the training. No control group was used. A statistical analysis of the before-and-after results of the attitude survey determined the effectiveness of the programme in terms of on-the-job behaviour.

Blocker (1955) used a different approach in his study. Fifteen supervisors who took a course on democratic leadership were analysed during the three month period following the course. Eight of the supervisors were classified as authoritarian on the basis of their behaviour prior to the programme. During the three month period immediately following the programme, the changes in behavior of the supervisors were also analysed through interview records. Standard printed forms were used which had provisions for recording the reason for the interview,
attitude of the employee, comments of the supervisor, and action taken, if any. Each supervisor was required to make a complete record of each interview. They did not know that these records were to be used for evaluation study. The interview records were classified as authoritarian or democratic. The changes in interview approach and techniques were studied during the three month period following the course to determine whether the on-the-job-behaviour of the supervisors have changed or not.

The study conducted by Tarnopol (1957) on the employee attitude survey given on a before-and-after basis using control as well as experimental groups stresses that in his experience five employees are a good minimum for measuring the behaviour of their supervisor. He further points out that although canned questionnaires are available, it is advisable to use measuring instruments that are specifically suited to the requirements of both the company and its training programme. In his employee attitude approach, he has further suggested inserting some neutral questions which do not relate to the training being given. This is an added factor in interpreting the results of the research.

The staff of the General Electric Company was assisted by a representative of the Psychological Corporation. Two years after the adoption of a new appraisal and training programme, a decision was made to attempt to evaluate its effectiveness. It was felt that the opinion of the subordinates about changes in the manager's attitudes and behaviour would provide a better measure than what the managers themselves thought about the benefits of the programme. Thus a questionnaire was designed to obtain the subordinates' views about changes in their managers' attitudes. Nevertheless, it was felt that the opinions of the manager would add to the picture. Accordingly, they were also surveyed. The questionnaire asked the respondents to compare present conditions with conditions two years ago. In other words, instead of measuring the attitude before and after the programme, the subordinates and the managers were asked to indicate what changes had taken place during the last two years.

Buchanan and Brunstetter (1959) also attempted to measure the results of a training programme in terms of changed behaviour. A questionnaire was used and an experimental and a control group were measured. The experimental group had received the training programme during the past year, while the control group was going to receive it during the
following year. The subordinates of the supervisors in each one of these groups were asked to complete a questionnaire which related to the on-the-job-behaviour of their supervisors. After answering the questionnaire in which they described the job-behaviour of their supervisors, they were asked to go over the questionnaire again and to place a check opposite any terms which they thought are more effectively done now than a year ago and which they thought are less effectively done now than a year ago. Subordinates were thus asked to indicate what changes in behaviour had taken place during the last year.

A new training programme called the 'Personal Factor in Management' was evaluated at the Bell Telephone Company of Pennsylvania by Stroud (1959). Several different approaches were used to compare the results and obtain a reliable indication of on-the-job-behavioural changes that resulted from the programme. The first step was the formulation of a questionnaire to be filled out by four separate groups namely conferees, controllees (supervisors not taking the course), superiors of the conferees and superiors of the controllees. The first part of the questionnaire was the consideration scale taken from the questionnaire on leader behaviour description developed by the Ohio State leadership studies. The second part of the questionnaire was called
the 'critical incident' section where the conferee and controllee groups were asked to describe four types of incidents that had occurred on the job. The third and final section of the questionnaire applied to the conferees only. They were asked to rate the extent to which they felt the training courses had helped them to achieve each of its five stated objectives. As it was decided to conduct an extensive evaluation of the training programme after the programme had begun, it was not possible to make a before-and-after comparison. In this study, an attempt was made to get the questionnaire-respondents to compare on-the-job-behaviour before the programme with that following the programme. Stroud thus measured the behaviour prior to the programme and then compared it with the behaviour after the programme. This he thought was more realistic. The various evaluation results were compared and concrete interpretations were made.

One of the most comprehensive research studies that has been done to evaluate the effectiveness of a training programme in terms of the on-the-job-behaviour was made at the General Electric Company by Sorenson (1958). It was called the 'observed changes enquiry'. The purpose of the enquiry was to find out whether the manager graduates of General Electric's advanced management courses have changed
in their manner of managing and whether any inference could be made from similarities and differences of changes observed in graduates and non-graduates. In this study, the managers (graduates and non-graduates alike) were first asked to indicate changes they had observed in their own manner of managing during the previous twelve months. The subordinates were then asked to describe changes they had observed in the managers during the past twelve months. Their peers were also asked to describe changes in behaviour. And finally, the superiors of the control and experimental groups were asked to describe changes in behaviour. This gave Sorenson an excellent opportunity to compare the observed changes of all four groups. Sorenson thus used experimental as well as control groups. He also used four different approaches to measure observed changes. These include the person, his subordinates, peers and superiors. In this research, he did not use the before-and-after measure, but rather asked each of the participants to indicate what changes, if any, had taken place during the last year.

Kirkpatrick (1969) conducted detailed studies to evaluate supervisory behaviour for foremen and supervisors. The study covered six topics namely, order giving, training
employees, appraising employee performance, preventing and handling grievances, decision making and initiating change. A questionnaire was completed by each participant to obtain information on the participant, the company, and the participant's relationship with his immediate supervisor. Specific information was obtained on the participant, the job, experience, education, age, reasons for attending the programme and what he hopes to learn, and also the participant's boss, years spent as boss, and climate he sets for change, and the involvement in sending the person to the institute. Interviews were conducted with each participant within two to three months following the course. The interviews were conducted in the participant's company to obtain information regarding the changes in behaviour that had taken place on the job. Interviews were also conducted with the participant's immediate supervisor as another measure of change in the participant's behaviour. In addition to measuring changes in behaviour, an attempt was also made to determine what results were achieved. Both the participant and his boss were asked questions. Although the design of this evaluation was relatively simple, it no doubt provided data to indicate that significant changes in both behaviour and results were achieved.
Bettman (1989), while suggesting twenty tips for management development programmes, says that it is true there are many objectives for management training programmes like for example to inform, to reward, and to improve morale. But the most important objective is usually to change on-the-job-behaviour. The effectiveness of training, then, is measured by how much managers change the way they manage. Getting managers to manage differently is never easy. Often many of the factors are out of control like for example what the company president does, the existence of a crisis, and even the budget one has to work with.

In the twenty steps he has suggested one can notice that he has not listed things like good trainers, proper class rooms, the use of television, etc. These elements, he believes, are only peripheral. The quality of the leader or the features of the training also, he believes, have relatively little impact as people who know they need to know will learn under the worst of the circumstances. The author further goes on to say that management training is not an end in itself; it is a means to an end. The desired end is on-the-job-behaviour as it has been taught. If the trainer structures the complete participant experience in the ways described in his twenty tips and if change is important to the participant, the on-the-job-behaviour
change is almost inevitable.

The twenty tips Bettman suggests for management development programme are:

- to make certain that there is a real need to change behaviour and that behaviour change will affect the bottom line,
- to be sure that the training content fits the need,
- to give the participants' feedback,
- to get senior managers to begin each meeting and support the training,
- to make the programme mandatory,
- to make sure the training links the content to the payout,
- to make sure that the content is practical and works,
- to make sure the content is relevant to each participant,
- to be sure that the content and existing systems are consistent,
- to let trainees participate in the learning,
- to let the participants solve a real problem during the training,
- to give ample opportunity for questions,
- to end the training with an on-the-job-assignment,
- to get their supervisors to review participants' on-the-job-application plans,
- to have their superiors review the success of trainees' on-the-job-applications,
- to support participants as they try out new methods,
- to hold follow up meetings,
- to recognise trainees who exhibit the desired behaviour,
- to have participants share their responses with those who originally provided feedback, and finally
- to track success and achievement of the group and report it back to trainees.
(c) Performance

Unlike morale and behaviour which can be evaluated through directly correlated factors, the evaluation of performance has to be necessarily through an indirect assessment of the qualities of leadership acquired by an executive through participation in the development programmes. Performance cannot be quantified directly in relation to the development programmes because of the fact that it has to be achieved in the midst of several conflicting factors such as labour demands, foreign competition, governmental intervention, vendor and market situation, manpower turnover, quality control community involvement etc.

Further, performance is a very complex mechanism and is dependant on a number of factors such as the climate of industrial relations in the organisation, Government policies, the availability of inputs etc. Performance measurement can also vary from organisation to organisation depending upon the goods and services produced by the organisation. Evaluation of performance in quantitative terms is, therefore, quite difficult on a universal basis. However, if the premise that leadership leads to performance is accepted, the change in leadership qualities of executives would provide a reasonably accurate
evaluation of performance. Such an approach also appears to be justifiable in view of an overall perception that the leaders create the required climate in the organisation for excellence in performance.

(1989)
According to Dr. R. Sitaraman's skills in leadership qualities may be classified under three categories, namely, personal qualities, interpersonal qualities and qualities of vision and action.

(i) Personal qualities broadly consist of:
- moral courage in holding on to certain essential values under great odds and challenges and capacity to face realities and accept responsibility for one's actions,
- will power to be resolute in the pursuit of one's goals,
- integrity in one's words and actions that are mutually consistent,
- being prepared for sacrifice if the occasion demands it,
- vitality and endurance to bear physical and mental stress and strain,
- enthusiasm which should be infectious,
- good memory which tremendously increases one's
potential (if it is not good, one should devise ways and means to compensate for it),
- a sense of humour and
- emotional control.

(ii) The interpersonal qualities consist of:
- knowledge of men, their motives, needs, fears, strengths, weaknesses, peculiarities, ways of response etc.,
- ability to put oneself in the other person's shoes,
- a good self understanding,
- fairness to the best of one's feelings and judgement,
- friendliness,
- tolerance and patience to a certain limit,
- humour at times of need diffusing situations and preventing demoralisations and
- communication.

(iii) Qualities of vision and action include:
- capacity to visualise the destination, know the route and take the group on the charted path to the destination and never to lose sight of one's goals and objectives,
- to conceptualise, plan and structure the organisation,
- to seek and analyse suggestions, advice and recommendations and pick the right or the best ones, weighing the pros and cons of the risks involved and decide and take action at the right time,
- capacity to improvise, adapt to unfamiliar situations and changing circumstances,
- technical competence to comprehend the various technical matters that come up and their relevance to the organisation goals (as the person moves up in the organisation he will come to deal with different disciplines for which there will experts. The leader cannot hope to master all those disciplines and match the respective experts. He will be foolish if he tries to do so and will lose his basic objectives. However, he must have the capacity to understand and relate those experts' opinions to organisational goals and needs).

Each of the above three categories, namely, personal qualities, interpersonal qualities and qualities of vision and action, has a role to play. The personal qualities are required to gain and hold the respect of the people in the organisation. This is a basic requirement, without which the leader cannot achieve anything worthwhile in the organisation. If people are not going to respect and like
their leader they are not going to respond to him in any great measure. The second category of qualities namely interpersonal qualities is the capability to get the best out of the people in the organisation. Sometimes it is staggering as to how many so called leaders demotivate (may be unconsciously) their subordinates by their attitudes and conduct. The third category of qualities namely, vision and action gives the very meaning to organisational leadership. Without these qualities the other two categories by themselves do not do any good to the organisation. All these categories of qualities are essential for a leader to raise his organisation to one of excellence.

It is not possible to quantify the different attributes. All that we can say is, the more the better. It is also not possible to give the order of priorities among the categories of qualities. In fact it is the totality of all these that matters. All these must be integrated within oneself. Two things will characterise the greatness of a leader namely, the majority of the people are happy to accept him and follow him wholeheartedly and he generally succeeds in achieving results and objectives.
Charles Renold (1979) says that management is about getting 'things' done through the agency of a community. This view has been shared and repeated by many well known writers including Drucker (1975) and Reddin (1970).

The work of many academics in recent years also points out that most managers are involved most of the time in dealing with people at all levels both inside and outside the organisation. Managerial performance is, therefore, strongly related to achievement of results through other people. The central issue in assessing managerial performance is, therefore, to determine how effective the manager is in achieving results. According to Bennet (1983) the three main components of the managerial effectiveness are:

- the manager as a person, in terms of make up and exhibited characteristics, attitudes or orientations to work, skills, knowledge and general experience. Such aspects are concerned with personal or individual effectiveness.

- the process of managing, in terms of the work carried out by the manager and the action he takes concerned with the process of job effectiveness.
- the process of managing, in terms of the end results achieved or targets achieved or targets reached. This may be thought of as output effectiveness.

All approaches to managing effectiveness leads us to conclude that many of them concentrate on one or two of the above three major components. By studying the experience of ten organisations for the preparation of a 'guide to assessing managerial effectiveness' it has been found that some companies concentrate only on the manager as an individual in terms of assessing his personality characteristics and other individual aspects such as what a manager is as a boss and what a manager does or achieves. But effective managers are change agents. They have developed over a length of period the required capabilities and skills to create, plan and implement changes through which organisations grow and develop.

Katz (1955) maintains that managerial performance is dependent upon three categories of skills namely, technical, human and conceptual skills,. As managers move upward in a company, the types of skills needed, change in importance. Guglielmino and Carrol (1979) in a survey at different levels of management in different organisations, found that forty seven percent of the skills needed for
entry level positions are technical in nature whereas only eighteen percent of the skills needed for top management positions were technical. The percentages were exactly reversed for the conceptual skills. It is obvious that the middle and top level managers need more of conceptual and human skills than technical skills.

In addition to the qualities of leadership enumerated above, according to Hickman and Silva (1984) a measure of the following managerial skills are also needed for successful leaders who perform:

(i) Creative insight:

Insight is something which helps one to spot and take advantage of opportunities. Successful executives unite insight with sensitivity and understanding. They act upon people's expectations and needs, to forge the required strategic cultural alloy from which excellence is created.

(ii) Sensitivity:

One should not judge a man until one has walked a mile in his shoes. This perhaps is a working definition for sensitivity. The art of getting inside another person is difficult to practice because true sensitivity does not merely involve crawling inside another person's head. It also includes action to fulfill the needs and expectations one finds there.
(iii) Vision:

Vision essentially is a mental journey from the known to the unknown, creating the future from a montage of current facts, hopes, dreams, dangers and opportunities. Clear vision results from a profound understanding of one's organisation and its environment. Successful executives with a vision spend a great deal of their time mentally residing in the future. No matter how complex their undertakings, the future lies a small step from 'here and now' for visionary managers.

(iv) Versatility:

Versatility is a capacity to embrace and participate in an ever changing world. This is a difficult skill to master. Versatility presumes that some goals other than those that immediately concern the business problem should also concern the executive. Unless the executive aggressively pursues interests outside his field, he will never be able to comfortably adapt to change.

(v) Focus:

Focus allows executives to exploit change. Versatile executives anticipate change. While versatility comes from full participation in an ever changing world, focus requires undivided attention to details. Focus enables
leaders to invest available resources towards implementing successful and lasting change. Focus can be defined as the ability to direct individual or organisational energy and resources towards one or a few details at a time. While creative insight and sensitivity help executives to lay the groundwork for excellence, versatility and focus help them to make the changes required for maintaining it.

(vi) Patience:

Successful executives must rise above the thoughts and actions of others and commit themselves to the long term perspectives of their enterprises. This does not mean abandoning immediate goals. It means focussing their mental relationship to a more distant future. If one has developed a thoughtful strategy and has fostered the kind of culture needed to implement it successfully, he must be patient enough to see his vision to its conclusion.

3. Training and Development

Hesseling (1971) defines training as a sequence of experiences or opportunities designed to modify behaviour in order to attain the stated objectives. Oatey (1970) defines it as any activity which deliberately attempts to improve a person's skill at a task. Both these definitions include education and development under training. Hamblin
(1974), however, defines training as any activity which deliberately attempts to improve a person's skill on a job as opposed to education which is mainly concerned with personal development and not related directly to the job. Nadler (1971) is of the opinion that training is concerned with the present job whereas development is concerned with future jobs.

A functional definition of training is the acquisition of concepts, theories, knowledge, skills and attitudes whereas development is the application of the acquired knowledge, theories, skills and attitudes to a job for increasing organisational effectiveness. It should be mentioned here that evaluation of training is an integral part of the total training process and, therefore, evaluation would include the wider activities of training and its application.

Since late 1940's when the top management began to be convinced that leadership training was useful for their managers, there has been a remarkable growth in training programmes. The content, methods and settings for these programmes have been different. The more traditional programmes had classrooms as setting, expert staff as trainers and lecture cum discussion methods as the primary medium. These programmes included information on
personality, motivation, attitudes, leadership, personal efficiency and interpersonal relationships. The trainee was primarily in a passive role. On the other hand the sensitivity training group and structured laboratory method involved the learner in an active learning and practicing process in interpersonal relationships using data gathered in the training sessions. Modern methods involve survey collection, feedback and team development approach. Here the interpersonal process data about the executives' organisation and his subordinates are gathered and the trainer then discusses these data as a means to the improvement of interpersonal functioning.

The past few years have been boom time for people in this business and there are no signs of slowdown. Today it appears that management training groups are growing faster than the industries themselves. There used to be a time when only a few venerable companies sent a venerable few to some venerable institutions for refresher courses. Changing perceptions and changing environment in recent years, however, have generated such a tremendous demand for training that the established trainers and training institutions seem to be overloaded and several new ones are coming up everyday. Management consultants go to the extent of saying that a great robbery is going on today in
the name of training.

If a lot of companies feel today that little or no change is visible in post training job-performance, it is largely their own fault. In most companies the senior management never seem to clearly set down organisational goals. Very little is done to find out what managers really need to learn. Consequently individual and organisational goals are not properly synchronised. Individuals, therefore, never know what is expected of them and where and how they should apply their training. Particularly vulnerable to these kinds of lacunae are the training programmes geared towards improving an individual's personal skills.

Shrikhande (1987) is of the opinion that the Personnel effectiveness programmes (PEPs) that are offered by different trainers today are essentially geared towards improving interpersonal communication with the aim of improving organisational performance. The training programmes themselves take many forms such as self awareness sessions, sessions to improve communication skills, both verbal and written, exercises to understand group processes and exercises to develop appropriate leadership styles, etc.

PEPs can be conducted through either completely structured sessions or completely unstructured sessions.
A blend of both the modes seems to be the most common approach. Completely structured programmes are generally run like grids where ten sessions stretched over five days with a task or case assigned to a team for every session. Participants are supposed to learn from the feedback they get on their performance. In the unstructured programmes on the other hand, participants are either asked or provoked into expressing their feelings about themselves, others, situations, etc. and the ensuring analysis and discussions are supposed to provide new insights and a better appreciation of one's environment. In the drive to improve productivity a lot of senior managers today seem to like the idea of PEPs.

It is believed that PEPs held in isolation, however, have a limited value. Unless they are supported by the culture of the organisation and mesh with its stated beliefs, not only do they fail to make any positive impact on the organisation but can also generate a lot of frustration particularly if the transfer of experience is blocked.

Voltas who initiated PEPs chose to have external facilities to conduct the training. They felt external facilitators are likely to be more objective and less threatening when it comes to training programmes like PEPs.
The content of each programme was decided to facilitate personality analysis and interpersonal communication was also included. The programme is said to have achieved the desired results. Participants expressed the opinion that the training helped them to understand themselves better and led to better interpersonal communication and there was less rigidity in their working environment and that they were able to resolve conflicts easily at their level. In the three years since PEPs have been run in Voltas, the programmes have been refined and organisational changes effected to allow people to be effective.

Larsen and Toubro has made real efforts to closely integrate PEPs with corporate planning. The exercise that the company conducts are directed towards improving communication, enhancing team work, coping with stress and increasing motivation. All these programmes have been conducted for almost a decade. A recent introduction has been programmes to improve lateral thinking or creativity. Larsen and Toubro's increasing involvement in novel and sophisticated engineering tasks perhaps prompted them to introduce these programmes. Larsen and Toubro is also rather unique in its approach to training, particularly PEPs. The programmes were designed by the in-house staff itself. The advantage of the programmes devised by in-house
staff is that the action strategies can be designed and related to the company's working culture and environment which the company knows better than any outsider and also it allows to monitor post training performance better. By paying attention to the results of training which is backed by established systems to recover much information, Larsen and Toubro seems to have been able to avoid a major pitfall of most training programmes of this kind.

A common gripe heard these days is that there are major gaps between the money and energy invested in management training and the actual gains in work performance of the trainees. To the extent the Larsen and Toubro's programmes are designed to address clearly stated objectives and the results monitored, it seems to be gainfully using its resources. But where trainees and other trainers take issue with the effectiveness of the company's programmes is its mode of selection of trainees.

Crompton Greaves also has an integrated approach to PEPs. Programmes are typically divided into three modules. The first module discusses self analysis exercises, the second discusses effectiveness and methods of improving achievement and the third is devoted to setting goals. And since it is a work team that attends a session, the goal setting is integrated and directed towards team
achievement. Performance is subsequently monitored by divisions through monthly reviews and the Human Resources Development department runs a one day refresher programme six to eight months after the original programme.

Richardson Hindustan is another company that believes that the team approach is more beneficial. As the programme conducted for loose grouping of personnel did not generate the desired results, the company felt it would be more beneficial to work with task groups and hold sessions to improve communication and interaction between members of these groups. The results of such exercises were believed to be normal.

It is necessary to point out here that tackling work teams is not fundamental to achieving good results from PEPs. Companies must design and use programmes best suited to their individual needs. What is fundamental is a clear understanding of what these needs are. To identify these needs, top management or the chief executive of an organisation must set down a mission statement about company goals and objectives so as to define the training needs cohesively. A prerequisite to PEPs is thus the top managements' commitment to people. Only if the managements are convinced that people make a difference, do they provide the requisite support in terms of time and resources. It
is necessary that the top management's style of functioning to be in consonance with PEPs, which focus on open and democratic modes of functioning. If that is not what the top management wants in an organisation then PEPs can only create problems.

Managers down the line must also recognise that PEPs cannot achieve results from a one-time-shot-in-the-arm approach. There have to be regular follow-ups and a lot of post training work done to ensure effectiveness. And if better team work is the goal, then performance appraisal and reward systems must also take cognisance of team achievements.

If there is one lesson that is to be learnt from the experience of several companies it is that the PEPs are not like other training programmes. Unless organisations are ready and willing for the gamut of changes that are necessary for PEPs to be effective, they would do better to steer clear of them. The money spent on five-star training would reap better returns elsewhere.

Another aspect of training which seems to be gaining importance among the trainers today is in preparing people for adapting to high technology introduction which is sweeping across countries. In this context it will be
useful to examine some of the renowned international approaches like those of Germany and Japan, the two nations which have dominated the world scene militarily in the past and economically today.

The worldwide acclaim achieved by the German companies has been due to the rapid adaptation to change and restructuring their training programmes accordingly. The common feature of this restructuring are:

- broad based training to start with, followed by specialisation leading to a reduction in the number of trades,
- development of multicraft skills,
- development of unique training modules and units,
- industry's lead and initiative in restructuring the training,
- change in complexion of the work force leading to more skilled workers,
- retaining programmes for skill upgradation of the existing work force, and finally
- the overall personality development of the work force through emphasis on 'key qualifications' which will equip the work force with the ability to cope with change (Figure 1).
KEY QUALIFICATIONS

![Diagram of the key qualifications process involving a lecturer and a trainee. The process includes tasks such as guidance, observation, assistance in decision making, and assessment of results, leading to the generation of a product through various experiences such as individual work, individual work in groups, and team work.]
The two important recommendations which emerged when there was an interchange of German and Indian experience, through a workshop organised by the Confederation of Engineering Industry are:

- the pattern of Indian training system needs to be overhauled. This is needed particularly in respect of offering broad training with limited number of trades and offering specialised modules in tune with high technology requirements. The multiskilled concept which is fast emerging as a response to high technology needs would necessitate this approach.

- at the operational level, the existing training programmes should be modified to include the allied elements. In particular, the maintenance aspect has to be stressed, whether it is mechanical, electrical, electronics or the processing sector.

To make training successful, the German experience also points out to the absolute necessity for developing good training materials and updating the instructors on their use.

In total contrast to the German approach, the Japanese place little accent on formalised institutional training. Instead they lay tremendous emphasis to on-the-job
training. The primary objective of job training is to bring about a change namely an increase in knowledge, the acquisition of a skill, or the development of confidence and good judgement. Job training is not successful unless the person involved can do something new or different or demonstrate a change in his behaviour.

In the Japanese approach, there are three dimensions in a job that an employee must master in order to perform effectively, namely, knowledge, skill and ability. Knowledge refers to the information that is needed to perform a set of activities efficiently and effectively. Skill refers to the technique, the approach and style of translating knowledge into action or practice. Ability refers to the intangible qualities or characteristics that are necessary for performance and are often referred to under 'motivation' or 'attitude'.

Job training is structured in terms of both formal and informal activities that address each of the above three dimensions namely knowledge, skill and ability and the goals of training made clear enough so that the trainee understands the outcomes or behaviour that is desired.

In trying to solve job related problems, Japanese employees are often encouraged to communicate their own
training needs so that these can be arranged. For example, through the participation as members of Quality Circles, in the process of problem solving, the employees may identify specific skill needs to improve product quality. These are then arranged to be provided. This in direct contrast to the practices prevalent in India wherein everyone participates in determining the training needs of a person except the person himself.

One of the recent German approaches for an effective diagnosis at the higher levels in an organisation is the method known as ZOPP*. This technique, one of the latest in the field of management, was pioneered by the German Wing for Technical Cooperation (GTZ). Since 1986, GTZ has applied this technique for all their overseas aided projects with considerable success. ZOPP is a group problem solving technique which considerably improves the quality of decision making and helps in the implementation of various tasks. This is also referred to as 'logical framework analysis' in some other countries.
The unique features of ZOPP are:

- it is an extremely powerful technique for synthesising the experience and expertise of senior managers, particularly to tackle strategic and key problem areas of the organisation,
- the authorities involved can determine objectives of strategic and operational decisions, estimate costs and risks and plan the contributions of each participant,
- ZOPP team work produces a recommendation ready for decision making and implementation,
- the ZOPP plan is amenable to periodic adjustment and updating,
- ZOPP planning analysis can be done at all stages namely, at the project stage or at the stage of ongoing activities,
- ZOPP provides a learning process which develops from analysing experiences jointly by all concerned.
- ZOPP team work produces a recommendation ready for decision making and implementation,
- the ZOPP plan is amenable to periodic adjustment and updating,
- ZOPP planning analysis can be done at all stages namely, at the project stage or at the stage of ongoing activities,

* ZOPP is the acronym of the German terms, Ziel, Orientierte, Projekct, Planung.
- ZOPP provides a learning process which develops from analysing experiences jointly by all concerned.

With suitable modifications, ZOPP approach has been found suitable for identifying problems and drawing up action plans in the Indian context. Varadhan (1991) points out the application of ZOPP in India for solving problems like:

- turn around of the electrical division of a renowned firm and the electronics unit of another firm,
- product management of an internationally known heavy electricals unit in India,
- customer service of an Industrial Systems Group,
- cost management of a process industry,
- business policy and diversification decisions,
- formulation of organisational objectives and perspective plan for an institution engaged in rehabilitation of the handicapped,
- improving quality of service of a nationally renowned training cum tool room setup and
- institutional framework for a World Bank assisted environment project to a State Government.

Training programmes based on ZOPP conducted so far have aimed at empowering managers with coping skill that would
help them face the challenges. The emphasis has been on improving managerial effectiveness, building teams and developing interpersonal effectiveness.

While ZOPP approach seeks to raise the manager to a higher level of competence and has proved useful, there is a new school of thought that focuses on removing the blocks that have hindered the manager's performance and competence. This concept referred to as the 'blockage concept' offers the manager a lucid and comprehensive process for assessing his current capabilities and finding concrete ways of developing personal and professional competence. When correctly applied through a proper training process, this concept helps the participants to identify and overcome these.

Table 1 summarises some of the new training tools like ZOPP, blockage concept, modular training and the new seven tools for quality that have appeared in recent years. These tools call for a high degree of participation by the trainees and correspondingly a high degree of skill for the trainers backed up with appropriate training materials.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Level</th>
<th>Tool</th>
<th>Use</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>Top &amp; Senior Levels</td>
<td>ZOPP</td>
<td>Realistic organisational diagnosis and action plans to overcome problems.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>Middle level managers</td>
<td>Blockage</td>
<td>Identifying and helping to remove blockage to competency, &quot;empowering&quot; greater effectiveness.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>Workforce</td>
<td>Modular</td>
<td>Adaptation to hitech integrated approach to operation and maintenance.</td>
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<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>Cross functional</td>
<td>The new seven tools of QC</td>
<td>To ensure better product quality and meeting customer expectations.</td>
</tr>
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4. Evaluation
(a) Definition:

The use of the term evaluation to cover a great variety of meanings and to describe many processes has caused considerable confusion. Several sources give a particularly narrow conception of evaluation and almost equate the term with measurement. Stanley and Hopkins (1972) believe that distinctions between measurement and evaluation, although often clarifying are not always sharp and meaningful. Evaluation usually seems to involve more subjectivity than measurement, but a little subjectivity occurs in the most objective measurement. A similar view is given by Thorndike and Hagen (1969). According to them the term evaluation is closely related to measurement. In some respects it includes formal and intuitive judgements and the aspects of valuing and saying what is desirable and good. Good measurement techniques no doubt provide a solid foundation for sound evaluation. If one views the educational evaluation in this manner, a mechanistic approach results, and evaluation becomes constrained owing to the lack of sophistication of available measuring instruments.

There are two other broader views of evaluation, namely the means-and-ends approach and the judgement approach. The
latter approach places a great deal of importance on the judgemental process and evaluation is looked upon as a professional or expert judgement. In the means-and-ends approach to evaluation, instructors establish objectives as ends to be reached, select subject matter and learning methods, organise the content and methods and finally evaluate their objectives to establish whether they have reached their objectives or not. Here the tutor sets forth the changes he seeks to effect and establishes the curriculum which he anticipates will make these changes possible. This approach enables evaluation to be carried out in relation to defined the objectives which may be used as criteria. This approach should also make it possible for evaluation to focus not only upon the learner but also upon the means of instruction. The means-and-ends approach has been adopted by many writers on the subject of curriculum.

A massive critique of this approach has also emerged in the field of evaluation.

Taba (1962), gives both a narrow and a broad definition of evaluation. He defines evaluation as marking and reducing everything that is known about the progress of students to one single mark. At the other extreme, evaluation is described as an intricate and complex process which begins with the formulation of objectives, which
Involves decisions about the means of securing evidence on the achievement of these objectives, process of interpretation to get at the meaning of this evidence and judgements about the strengths and weaknesses of participants and which ends in decisions about the needed changes and improvements in curriculum and training. Taba's definition on evaluation thus comprises four main stages. Firstly, objectives need to be clarified to the extent of describing which behaviours represent achievement in a particular area. Secondly, various methods need to be developed and used for requiring evidence as to the changes in the learner's behaviour. Thirdly, the evidence obtained needs to be summarised and interpreted by appropriate means. Finally, the data collected on the progress of participants should be used to improve the curriculum, training and guidance.

In his attempt to distinguish between assessment and evaluation, Wheeler (1967) adds to Taba's interpretation by introducing the concept of judgement. According to him, assessment is a prerequisite to evaluation; it should answer the question whether change occurred or not and if it did occur, how much and in what direction. The broader term, evaluation, includes not only the processes of determining what the educational outcomes are, and of
comparing them with the expected outcomes, but it also involves judgement about the nature and desirability of any demonstrated changes. For Wheeler, the aims of the evaluation phase is to produce evidence about the nature, the direction and the extent of behavioural changes which arise from educational endeavours and to use this evidence as a guide to modification in any phase of the curriculum process.

Possibly the most comprehensive definition is that given by Bloom and coworkers (1971). Their view of evaluation is very broad and encompasses many aspects. According to them evaluation is a method of acquiring and processing the evidence needed to improve the student's learning and teaching. Evaluation includes a greater variety of evidence beyond the useful paper-and-pencil examination. Evaluation is an aid in clarifying the significant goals and objectives of education and is a process for determining the extent to which students are developing in desired ways. Evaluation is a system of quality control in which it may be determined at each step of the teaching and learning process, whether the process is effective or not, and if not, what changes must be made to ensure its effectiveness before it is too late. Finally, evaluation is a tool in education practice for ascertaining whether alternative
procedures are equal or not in achieving a set of educational ends.

The lack of consistency and the contradictions evident in the evaluation literature stems partially from the fact that the definitions of evaluation are not derived from any conceptual framework which must focus attention on the essentials of meaningful learning and curriculum designing. Sankar (1978), while suggesting such a conceptual framework for the evaluation of management development programmes says that since the instructional plans of an executive development programme is based on a set of hypotheses regarding learning, the methodology for evaluation of these learning programmes, must also reflect on these hypotheses of learning.

According to some experts on the evaluation of training, one should distinguish between validation (the assessment of whether the training has achieved its laid down objectives) and evaluation (the measurement of the total effects of the training programme). In practice, however, this distinction is not always meaningful, since it may be impossible to obtain information on the total effects of training which may be extremely complex. Therefore, any evaluation exercise involves selection between evaluation
criteria and thus the establishment of training objectives.

The term evaluation of training, however, is used here in this thesis in a broad sense, to mean any attempt to obtain feedback information on the effects of a training programme, and to assess the value of the training in the light of that information.
Devising effective methods for evaluating training and development programmes is difficult and there is general agreement in this point. Several authors speak of the discouragement and disillusionment experienced by researchers in this respect. Some of them believe that the difficulty arises from what they regard as the almost impossible task of determining what results are attributable to training and what to other causes. A few others are of the opinion that the human resources aspect defies direct quantifiable measures. Lundberg, Bunbar and Bayless (1973) in a survey found that many of the organisations no doubt place a high value on their training programmes but express doubt and uncertainty concerning the reliability of the measurement methods adopted. The difficulty of evaluation thus explains at least in part as to why current practices are characterised as superficial. Kirkpatrick (1975) in a review of evaluation research points out that subjective post training evaluation by participants, constitutes most measurement efforts.
There are three levels at which supervisory human relations training are usually evaluated:

- evaluation at the classroom level where one usually relies upon paper-and-pencil tests of knowledge gained,
- evaluation of the behaviour of supervisors after returning to the job where one relies on reports of superiors and the opinion of subordinates and
- evaluation in terms of the behaviour of the employees supervised where one relies on measurements made on productivity, accident rates, judgements concerning morale and the like (the third level is perhaps the highest level of evaluation).

Evaluation at each of these three levels has its critics. Some authors warn that in the first level it is tempting to forget the behaviour one wants the trainees to learn and to retreat to the knowledge test. Others criticise the second level and say the ultimate behavioural changes particularly in a dynamic organisation, can seldom be related to a specific training programme. Marrow, Ballard and Seashore (1967) point out the weakness of the
third level, namely, evaluating the training of supervisors in terms of the behaviour of the subordinates. This, they believe, rests upon the questionable assumption that training effects are felt immediately and that there are no delayed effects and other change elements are not active.

Rizzo (1967) views development as a before-and-after situation that calls for the recording of changes in five variables namely, knowledge, attitude, ability, performance and operational end-results. Young (1973) contends that training results can only be assessed in terms of organisational end-results, namely, profit on sales, return on assets, ability to set and meet schedules and cost targets, employee turnover and sales volume. House (1967) believes that developmental results must be evaluated in terms of changes in either learner knowledge or learner performance.

Tracey (1968) advocates the use of both internal and external measures. According to him, the former consists of devices as programme comparisons and self audits and the latter consists of employee grievances and increases in on-the-job-attitudes that are desirable.
Lawrie and Boringer (1971) have devised a comprehensive seven step approach to evaluation of training at both the input and output stages. Although adaptable to field conditions, it requires a high degree of perseverance. The organisation is to the practitioner rather than the researcher.

According to McGehee and Thayer (1961) evaluation methods can be classified as objective (related to overt behaviour) or subjective (dependent upon expressions of belief, opinion and judgement), indirect (accomplished through others) or direct (accomplished independently), intermediate (occurring relatively soon after the training) or ultimate (occurring much later), and specific (dealing with the entire job). The most likely pattern of categories involved in the measurement of supervisory human relations training is perhaps a combination of subjective, indirect, intermediate and summary methods.

There appears to be a consensus among researchers on the worth of evaluation of training programmes. Mixed views, however, are expressed on what is the best method and whether such evaluation is worth the time, effort, and money necessary to test results.
The first large scale supervisory training efforts was perhaps made in the United States. This was an off shoot of the war effort known as Training Within Industry (TWI). Under this programme more than one million supervisory staff was trained by some twelve thousand trainers. The House Appropriation Committee, however, was not satisfied with these impressive figures and asked for information to back up TWI's budget statements about reduction in the break in time and increase in production. Such information required the measurement of the results which resulted in the evaluation of these programmes. The official report indicated that as a result of these programmes two thirds of the plants reported production increase greater than twenty five percent. Evaluation of TWI was based only on a questionnaire which was administered after the training, and it was directed to the results of the overall increases in production, reduction of scrap and other savings. Such an approach made it difficult to consider other factors, which might have contributed to increased production. Evaluation was not specifically equated with the level of
ultimate goals. In explaining the TWI approach to evaluation it was pointed out by experts that managers used training methods only in so far as they were convinced that these methods assisted in achieving the objectives.

It was only during the early 1950s evaluation reports started appearing in specialised journals. Upto late 1950s the general practice was to assess the effectiveness of training after the training had actually been carried out. No effort was made to develop the evaluation plan along with the training programme itself. This was perhaps due to the fact that the criteria and instruments used for judging training were not suitable. Most of these studies were confined to the measurement of immediate effects of training. In other words, these studies measured only the changes in attitudes and behaviour on the part of the trainees at the end of the training programmes. No attempt was made to follow up, which required evaluation after return to work environment.

The literature on evaluation is extensive but in general most of the work published falls into four broad categories:

- publications with methodological bias providing a
framework for effective evaluation,
- publications which look at the effectiveness of individual courses or group of courses,
- reviews of literature on evaluation and
- general publications like the current status of management education and the need for training etc.

Two clear ideas emerge from all these literature out of which one is discouraging to the evaluator and the other is encouraging. The encouraging factor is the existence of a framework which can be used by the evaluator as an aid for the development of more effective evaluative approaches. The discouraging factor is that most attempts to evaluate management development programmes have not provided the required objectives, namely, systematic and comprehensive evidences which one requires from these studies. House (1965) after examining the results by over four hundred experimental studies on the evaluation of management development programmes, for example, indicates that the general reaction is one of disappointment and disillusionment. The reasons given are that the nature of a
manager's task is often non-repetitive and complex and hence it is difficult to determine the existence of any measurable course relationships. Further, there exists only a few techniques in social sciences which can provide completely objective measures of the effectiveness of educational programmes.

Enough has already been written about the need for and the difficulty in measuring the value of training and development programmes conducted. It is generally believed that evaluation of the effectiveness of executive development and training programmes call for elaborate and time consuming procedures. Williams (1969) is of the opinion that a management training programme can be evaluated if it has specific aims. However, the task of providing information to enable this evaluation to take place is far from easy. It must cover three areas which can have a vital influence on the success or failure of the training programmes. These are the people in the organisation, the structure of the organisation and environment within which the organisation exists. Any evaluation which covers less ground can never reach a valid
conclusion. All this information gathering would involve expenditure of a great deal of money and time. It is true that evaluation is not likely to be worthwhile for short term training programmes. However, when an organisation decides on a long term comprehensive programme of change, it becomes necessary to have reliable information as to the effect of training. Without proper evaluation, executive development programmes rapidly becomes one of blind leading the blind and this situation can be dangerous.

There is a developing body of opinion among the evaluators on some of the general principles of evaluations. These opinions are based on the theoretical expositions of authors such as Besco, Buchanan, Flieshman, Castel, Goodacre, Johado, Kirkpatrick, Korb etc. Some of these principles are briefly mentioned below with supporting evaluation studies:

- the changes in the attitude of an individual trainee on the acquisition of new knowledge and aptitudes may be observed and measured during the training and immediately afterwards. This is referred to as the 'immediate criteria' by Goodacre (1957).
- the evaluation of the changes in the behaviour and the attitudes of the individual should be observed in the work situation. This is referred as the 'intermediate criteria' by Besco and others (1959). This should be carried out after the training programme and several times at short intervals.

- the evaluation should also be carried out in the organisation to observe and assess the influence of the training on improvements. This is referred to as the 'ultimate criteria' by Besco and others (1959). This evaluation requires the agreement and participation of the organisation, since without this participation and agreement the evaluation is impossible because it concerns the staff morale, the communication network and objective measurements of the functions of the organisation like productivity indices, costs, labour turnover, accident and absenteeism, etc.

Goodacre (1957) attaches considerable importance to the immediate and ultimate criteria, which he believes are more valuable than a subjective evaluation. However, according
to Buchanan (1955) the ultimate criteria is very important as training is one of the several programmes or procedures undertaken by an organisation for attaining its objectives. The ultimate criteria may include productivity indices, turnover, etc. A fairly detailed list of these criteria has been suggested by Buchanan and Korb (1955) to judge training aspects of an organisation. It is considered essential by many writers on evaluation that the criteria chosen for judging the effectiveness of an executive development programme should be measured before the programme is started and again after it is finished. Further, the experimental groups which undergo the training should be compared in terms of the above criteria with a control group which has not undergone training but which is matched with the experimental group in terms of its general characteristics. Comparison will make it possible to determine to what extent the change shown by the experimental groups is attributable to the training.

The theoretical and experimental designs suggested above may appear ideal but it is difficult to carry them out in practice. Buchanan (1955) has pointed out that it is
practically impossible in most organisations to find matched groups of which only some will be given training. Experimental evaluation requires that the evaluator should first find two groups large enough in the organisation to provide conclusive statistical results which are matched among other things, regarding age, education, skills, functions, etc. and for which the permission of the management to train only one of the groups may be obtained.

According to McKinney (1957) the most perfect level of evaluation is the controlled experimental study, which includes the trained group and a control group, with before-and-after measures for both the groups. Next he rates evaluation by means of the trained group with before-and-after measures for both the groups. Lastly, the least desirable level, the evaluation of the training group only with measures taken after training, but not before it.

Several authors have stressed that the evaluation procedures must be built into the training programme from its very inception. Goodacre (1957) for example, states that the design of any experimental evaluation, including criteria, controls and statistics should be developed as an
integral part of the training programme and should not be done as an afterthought.

Bellows (1953) is of the opinion that planning should begin with a study of the training needs which will help establish the aims of the training programmes. Once these objectives are known, instruments can be developed to measure the criteria chosen to judge the results obtained. When the needs of the training are clearly stated, it is easier to set up the criteria for evaluation. General statements such as improving supervision as a training need is vague. More specific terms such as the elimination of bottlenecks due to communication channels breakdown would be more effective, and an examination of the facts would make it possible to tell whether training has been effective to meet this need.

It is also interesting to note that some authors feel that evaluation should not cover the whole of the training programme, but should be confined to judging the effectiveness of a specific part of the programme. To them it is more important to find out why some individuals change and others do not, or whether certain training
programmes or certain aspects of a training programme are more suited to certain individuals than to others, than it is to evaluate the whole of the training programme. Such evaluation will help to decide clearly which members of the staff of an organisation should be trained, and in what order, if the training is not simultaneous for all.

Pillsbury, Mills, Huttner and Zimmerman (1956) who made a purely descriptive evaluation of the conference method of developing supervisors without using any control group or pre test and post test instruments, say that they saw desirable changes in the attitude on the part of the trainees.

A closer look at the literature on evaluation of executive development programmes also reveals that there seems to be some unwillingness on the part of trainers to evaluate. Perhaps such unwillingness is due to the feeling that no objective evaluation of a training programme is possible. Planty and Freeston (1954), point out that training is one kind of education in which educators in general are not called upon to prove the exact value of their wares. No one questions the value of
reading, writing, and arithmetic and no one asks for evaluation to prove the value of these that enables one to think well, speak clearly and forcefully or reason soundly. If we accept all these things on faith, as part of the wisdom derived from human experience, the training personnel see no reason as to why they should have to prove the value of their particular methods and accomplishments.

Kirkpatrick (1976) who planned, coordinated and taught many management development programmes and conducted several research studies on the evaluation of training programmes, is of the opinion that evaluation though complicated and elusive, can be broadly broken down into four steps, namely reaction, learning, behaviour and results. Reaction may be defined as to how well the trainees liked a particular programme (and evaluation in terms of reaction is the same as measuring the feelings of the trainees). Learning refers to how effectively did a programme accomplish its objectives of increasing knowledge, improving skills and changing attitudes. Behaviour refers to what extent the on-the-job-behaviour of the participants improved as a result of a particular
programme and finally, results refer to the impact of a particular development programme on the organisation's bottom line, namely profits, costs, productivity, quality, turnover and morale.

Kirkpatrick (1976) also made a detailed evaluation study on the 'Institute of developing supervisory skills' conducted at the University of Wisconsin, to measure the changes in behaviour that took place on the job because of attending the institute. Personal interviews were held with participants as well as their immediate supervisors. Each participant knew that his boss was also going to be interviewed concerning changes in behaviour. The study indicated that positive changes in behaviour had taken place in nearly all phases of the job that were related to the subject content of the institute. These changes were reviewed by participants as well as by supervisors. The participants tended to indicate slightly more positive changes than did their supervisors. The study also indicated significant positive results in terms of quantity and quality of production, safety, house keeping, employee attitudes and morale. Some positive results were also
indicated in the reduction of employee absenteeism, tardiness and turnover.

Hamblin (1974) also seems to agree with Kirkpatrick and says that the process that occurs as a result of a successful training programme can be divided into four levels:

- the reaction level wherein trainees react to the training and form opinions and attitudes about the trainer, the method of presentation, the usefulness and interest of the subject matter and their own enjoyment and involvement,

- the learning level wherein the trainees acquire knowledge, skills and attitudes about the subject matter of the training which they are capable of translating into behaviour within the training situation,

- the job behaviour level wherein the trainees apply the training in the form of changed job behaviour back on the job and finally,

- the functioning level where the changed job behaviour affects the functioning of the firm.
These four levels can be seen as a chain of cause and effect. Ideally evaluation should be done at every level and the choice of evaluation criteria depends on the objectives of training. Post-training evaluation is intimately connected with pre-training evaluation. Hamblin, further believes that there is a wide possible range of techniques at each level of evaluation. The selection of a correct technique for a particular situation depends on the nature of the training objectives, the design of training, the training methods and the relationship between the trainers, trainees and their superiors. All evaluation techniques excepting, perhaps, some at the functioning level are thus variations of the two broad themes of watching and asking, namely, observation and questionnaire or interview. The advantages and the limitations of these two techniques are complimentary to each other and they should be employed together wherever possible. Hamblin further emphasises that one should not evaluate by any method unless one foresees the use to which the evaluation data can be put to and judges that this usefulness makes the evaluation worthwhile.
Cowell (1972), who studied the effectiveness of evaluating a management development course, however, believes that the above conventional approach to evaluation, namely, reaction level, learning level, job behavior level and organisation level are difficult to evaluate with reaction level being the least difficult to assess and the organisational level being the most difficult to assess. His study indicated some of the problems faced by the evaluators in coming to hard and concrete evidences regarding the effectiveness of management programmes. The author, however, agrees that any evaluation is better than no evaluation and unless attempts are made to evaluate, useful lessons may go unlearnt and the planning of the future programmes may suffer.

Sredl and Rothwell* have developed a hierarchy (Figure.2) to present the approaches of both Kirkpatrick and Hamblin. These authors also report that evaluation can

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<th>HIERARCHY OF EVALUATION (Hamblin)</th>
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<tr>
<td>How do results affect the organisation or individual over time?</td>
<td>ULTIMATE VALUE</td>
<td>Evaluation of organisation strategy: evaluation career progress.</td>
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<td></td>
<td>(Kirkpatrick)</td>
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<td>What are the results produced by behavioural change?</td>
<td>RESULTS</td>
<td>Experimental research.</td>
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<tr>
<td>How much participant change subsequently affected job behaviour or performance?</td>
<td>BEHAVIOUR</td>
<td>On-the-job demonstrations.</td>
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<tr>
<td>How did participants change by the end of a programme?</td>
<td>LEARNING</td>
<td>Tests.</td>
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<td>What did participants like or dislike?</td>
<td>REACTION</td>
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Figure 2. A Hierarchy of evaluation methods combining the work of Hamblin and Kirkpatrick.
be accomplished not only from a value added focus but also from a philosophy approach.

They report five such philosophical approaches:

- goal focussed evaluation that focusses on charting trainee progress and the value of instructional innovation,

- decision focussed evaluation that assumes that the chief purpose of evaluation is to furnish useful information to decision makers so that they can make informed policy choices,

- transactionally focussed evaluation that assumes evaluating how instruction is carried out. In other words, the evaluation process itself, rather than results, should be the chief aim of evaluative activity.

- goal free evaluation that assumes a criteria different from those inherent in a programme, such as instructional objectives that should be used for evaluation.

- critically focussed evaluation that uses an adversary approach, assuming that the best instructional methods and objectives can be relieved in the heat of informed debate.
These authors, further, point out the evaluation is worthwhile for the following eight reasons:

- verify that formal instruction is the best way to meet the need,
- verify that achieving instructional objectives will lead to an ability to perform as intended,
- improve the content and methods of an instructional package prior to widespread use,
- ensure, as delivery is carried out, that presentation and group facilitation methods are being used effectively,
- assess how well learners achieved pre-established instructional objectives,
- determine how well learners enjoyed the instructional experience,
- demonstrate the value of training, education and development efforts to managers outside the human resources department and
- judge the economic impact of instructional initiatives on the organisation and on increasing the value of human 'capital' or 'inventory'.
While suggesting a model for evaluation, Virmani and Seth (1985), point out that the post-training evaluation may be done in terms of reaction evaluation, learning evaluation, job improvement plan, on-the-job evaluation and follow up after one year. The reaction evaluation may be done immediately after the training when the reactions of participants to the course are obtained through an evaluation proforma which elicits information about the course inputs and the impression about the course in general. The trainer's keen observation of the participants' reactions through his association with them forms another useful though not very objective device for evaluating training. From the reaction evaluation the trainer is able to gauge the frame of mind of the participant when he leaves the training institutions. If a trainee leaves with a negative reaction towards the course he will hardly be motivated to learn and even if he has learnt something he may not be committed to transfer it to the job situation.

The learning evaluation is done by administering again at the end of the course the test questionnaire which was prepared for assessing participants' knowledge and skills.
and administered before the training. This measures the degree of learning acquired through the programme by arriving at the change score, namely, the post-training score minus the pre-training score.

Evaluation of the trainee's improved performance on the job while he is still in the training institution poses a problem to the evaluator because he is trying to measure the improvement without providing an opportunity for the participant to put his training into practice. Other problems that confront the evaluator are the nature and diversity of management tasks, the different manner in which managers do the same job and the same manager doing the same job adopting different skills on different occasions. One of the techniques tried by the researchers to overcome the above problem is the preparation of the job improvement plan. This is an action plan prepared by each participant for improving his job performance on the basis of what he has learnt during the course. The preparation of the job improvement plan by each individual is a stimulating opportunity for planning the transfer of
training to the job by enabling him to do the following:

- providing an opportunity to the trainee to evaluate his own learning,
- enabling him to perceive the relevance of the training to his job,
- providing him an opportunity to adapt to advanced management concepts and techniques in his day-to-day functions,
- helping to identify favourable and unfavourable conditions in the organisation which will help or hinder the transfer of training to the job,
- after identifying these conditions, helping in finding suitable ways of overcoming them, and finally
- encouraging the trainee to return to his organisation with confidence, commitment and a positive attitude towards introducing changes.

Thus the job improvement plan does not merely remain a tool for evaluation but becomes an important element in the learning process.

The on-the-job evaluation step is not purely evaluative but needs to be integrated with the training process since
it involves gathering information about constraints in transfer of training and offering guidelines to the organisation for facilitating transfer. It could be suggested to the organisation to re-brief the trainee on his return about the learning and the improvements he envisages. The boss can even encourage the trainee to further modify, change or delete certain aspects of the job improvement plan in the light of the organisational requirements. This kind of discussion is likely to increase the sponsoring organisation's receptivity to new ideas that the executive has acquired through training.

The training institution apart from imparting knowledge is interested in the transfer of this knowledge to the job on the return of the executive. The progress of the executive is monitored normally by the method of follow up. This is done either by sending questionnaires and through personal interviews and discussion with the trainee. The follow up consists of checking on the implementation of the action plan prepared by the executive. To ensure a more conducive climate for introducing changes the researchers may involve the boss of the trainee also at the follow up stage. In addition, to increase the commitment, of the top
management towards training, a questionnaire is also sent to the chief executive of the sponsoring organisation about the general impact of training on the executive and the organisation.

An important element that is to be investigated at this stage is the climate of the organisation. A follow up of the transfer process would identify the factors that help or hinder the application of learning to the job. The organisation sponsoring the executive and expecting him to improve organisational performance has to be made aware of factors within the organisation which hinder the transfer of training. Knowledge of the factors which contribute to a supportive climate within the organisation is essential for improvements.

Warr (1969) believes that evaluation should be an ongoing process geared to the improvement of training. He describes the stages of this ongoing process as context, input process and output evaluation. Each form of evaluation is important but it is better to incorporate more than one form into a programme.

Dubin and coworkers (1974) stress that for any
evaluation attempt to be successful it is essential that the objectives should be stated clearly in measurable terms from the beginning of the development training programmes and an appropriate experimental design selected.

Hoy and coworkers (1981) are of the opinion that after the conclusion of any management programme the trainee and his supervisor should sit down and evaluate the programme using the objective statement. During the session they should discuss frankly the implementation of any skill or techniques learnt during the development programme. The purpose of this, they say, is to prevent any negative results from appearing when the newly trained person seeks to improve his job performance. The same procedure needs to be duplicated after some delay to allow for readjustments. This comparison of before-and-after performance defines the success or failure of a development programme. From the perspective of the manager, evaluation ultimately has a bearing, directly or indirectly, as rewards and punishments. From the organisation's perspective evaluation provides information that may be used to revise objectives, describe current position and redefine the objectives of the development programmes.
Moon and Hariton (1958) who studied the effectiveness of personnel development programmes conducted at the General Electric Company conclude that although other factors definitely exist which were not examined, the results definitely indicate that the programmes had a positive impact on the engineering managers and the subordinates. They also suggest areas of improvements.

Digman (1980) who studied how major companies evaluate the effectiveness of their developmental efforts, points out that large companies analysed by him are either less advanced in this area and have perhaps concluded that the benefits of these sophisticated measures do not warrant the costs involved in their use. These companies also very often use only the basic evaluation measures and half of them feel that there is not urgent need for change.

Ghosh (1980) who attempted to develop an approach to the evaluation of the results of training programmes at the corporate level believes that a suitable approach to evaluation should be the cost benefit approach namely the ratio of the benefits to the costs of training, is to be estimated. This necessitates the estimation of costs of training and its benefits separately. Measurement of costs of training should go beyond the mere monetary expenses for
the training. It should be a more complicated exercise and included not only the salaries of the instructors, wages of the supporting staff, direct costs of training such as books, audiovisual aids etc., but also overheads of maintenance of repairs of machinery, equipments, security etc. As regards the benefits of the training programmes a proper output per trainee before and after the training should be made.

Long and Jinks (1982), however, believe that the evaluation process should not be seen as a relationship between the cost of the training and the financial value of any improvement in productivity. Grey areas of behavioural and attitudinal changes can never be equated in financial terms. The real arbiters of the worth of a training programme are the persons attending the programmes and the line manager. The authors view based upon their experience is that management education and training are directly related to coping with change, the former dealing with awareness of the business and the external forces which affect it and the latter aimed at providing the necessary skills to manage changes in technology and techniques.

Hamblin (1974) also is of the opinion that a cost benefit approach cannot be carried out for evaluating a
training programme because evaluation at the organisational level is very difficult as organisational objectives are very often vague. It is true that a cost benefit approach no doubt provides techniques for expressing virtually every kind of benefit in monetary terms. But, in the opinion of this author, there is a large element of guess work involved in estimation in this method. There is, therefore, a real danger that these guess estimates may be mistaken for hard facts. There is magic in numbers and anything that is expressed in figures is thought to represent the whole truth.

Stroud (1959) believes that the common method of evaluating a training course, namely to ask people about the usefulness of a course they have taken very often leads to misleading conclusions, because most people invariably respond favourably. A more accurate method of assessing the value of training programmes should be to compare the kind of on-the-job-behaviour that is expected to result from this training with the behaviour changes that actually have taken place. He describes an approach called the 'personal factors in management' whose aim is believed to enable the supervisors to handle the human relations aspects of their jobs more effectively. His study appears to furnish an
Ahmed (1983) conducted a detailed study on the impact of management training by the questionnaire method. The questions were categorised to find out the impact the training had on the individual, the working of the department and working of the particular division as a whole. The purpose of the questionnaire was explained at the beginning and the managers were required not to disclose their names. Questions were worded in simple English and respondents were asked to "agree", "disagree" or "don't know". "Agree" was interpreted as indicative of positive impact, "disagree" as negative. Ahmed concludes that the training programmes not only had high impact on individual effectiveness and the competence on the job but also the relationships and the team spirit within the company. However, as regards interpersonal trust across the department, relieving work items and owning responsibility for mistakes, the impact has been very low.

Banerji (1981) evaluated a supervisory training course conducted by a multinational organisation using both the
questionnaire and the interview methods involving the participants and their immediate supervisors. The two types of data that emerged, namely, the statistical data from questionnaires and the analytical data from interviews, were analysed in detail and it was concluded that evaluation of the programme has given many insights. The author, however, feels that before setting up training programmes, an analysis of the training needs should be clearly made. He is of the opinion that educational, training and development programmes should be a response to the required needs and not a reaction to a problem. The training need may be a performance gap, a motivational issue, a morale problem, a challenge to the organisational development or a combination of some or all of these.

Moffie and coworkers (1964) conducted an experimental study to evaluate a training course in problem solving and decision making skills at three levels of management. The evaluation involved three distinct methods of appraisal. A course-end questionnaire was used to obtain the reaction of the trainees. A controlled experiment was used to determine the effect of the training on learning. In addition, observations were also made of trainee participation in the
practical work periods during the course to determine any relation between learning and the amount and types of participation. The results of the course-end questionnaire indicated that the trainees felt that the course was worthwhile and the material learnt could be used on the job. In the controlled experiment the criteria of the learning employed were performance on the 'Watson-Glaser critical thinking appraisal' and on problems similar to those used in the training programme. The control group used in the experiment were members of the top three levels of management. The effect of training on learning, however, showed no significant improvement. The observation of trainee participation during the practical work periods added little to the overall results of evaluation. It did, however, substantiate some of the suggestions for improving the training.

Miner (1965) who examined thirty eight research studies of a variety of management development techniques says that contrary to the general implications of much of the literature on management development, there has not only been a considerable amount of research done in the field, but the results have also been almost always positive. Practically, every published report indicates that some
change has occurred, although generally some of the pre-
test, post-test comparisons do not reveal a reliable
difference. He further adds that even if one takes into
consideration that studies producing negative results are
less likely to be published, the evidence for the positive
effects of management education is impressive. Miner thus
summarises his findings and conclusions with a very
positive outlook on the impact of management development
efforts on managerial effectiveness.

In their major review of empirical studies, Campbell,
Dunnette, Lawler and Weick (1970) classify the studies into
two groups namely those which attempt to demonstrate some
change in behaviour relevant to the training itself and
those which are directly concerned with changes in on-the-
job behaviour. In the former category are such criteria as
attitude measures, tests of decision making ability and
general opinions concerning whether the training was
successful. These are internal criteria that measure the
effect indirectly. External criteria constitute the latter
category and include such objective measures of a manager's
performance as turnover of grievances in the manager's unit
and ratings of job performance by superiors, peers, or
subordinates. In the latter case an attempt has been made
to directly estimate the effects of training in actual job
behaviour. With regard to the former judgement, it remains
to be demonstrated whether the behaviour changes observed
have anything to do with managerial effectiveness. The
authors also add a third classification scheme to the
studies they reviewed on the basis of programme content
like general management programmes, general human relations
programmes, problem solving and decision making, speciality
programmes etc. The authors' findings are:
- about eighty percent of the general management and
human relations programmes showed results on most of
the criteria used and these types of programmes, the
authors conclude, lead to results in a variety of
settings. Yet twenty nine of the thirty five studies
in these categories used measures based on internal
criteria. Over one half of these were concerned with
particular attitudinal content rather than job
behaviour. Thus, one cannot say for sure that an
attitudinal change is accompanied by a change in job
behaviour.
training based on T-group* and laboratory methods do produce behavioural changes in the work environment but that it is difficult to identify the nature of these changes. Further, these changes are not easily related to actual job effectiveness,

generally negative results were indicated in the studies on programmes to improve problem solving and decision making. The studies of this nature, however, were so few that the authors could not draw any conclusion.

too few studies comparing two or more development methods or techniques were available to make any generalisation as to the superiority of one technique over another (each having the same intent or change goal).

These authors conclude their review of research studies by commenting that the empirical literature available to

* T-group training comprises of a situation where trainees meet for the purpose of communicating directly with one another about how they see each other's behaviour. An advantage of this unusual name (as T stands for only training) is that it successfully communicates that the method is something different.
them does not demonstrate conclusively that what is learnt in a training programme makes an individual a better manager. They are not as optimistic as Miner concerning the impact of management development training programmes on managerial effectiveness.

Kearney (1975) after reviewing evaluation research suggests some research designs that might be used for evaluation research that range from those that are inadequate and unacceptable to those that are adequate and acceptable. He further states that as academicians continue to perform more research and evaluation studies, business organisation can help by,

- requiring that all management development programmes incorporate an evaluation of their effectiveness,
- ensuring that all evaluation efforts utilise an acceptable research design so that the findings and conclusions merit confidence. Recognising the limitations of some global result oriented measures in making judgements about managerial effectiveness and supplementing these with behaviourally anchored rating scales and
- publishing in appropriate business journals the results of all evaluation research so that they may be
widely shared and may serve to increase our fund of knowledge.

Truskle (1982) while suggesting guidelines for getting the most from management development programmes says organisations should decide during the initial planning stages which levels of evaluation are to be conducted and the methods to be used for evaluation. It is important to obtain a broad based agreement from the management because cooperation and input may well be required from managers at various levels throughout the organisation for measuring behavioural or organisational changes.

The author, further, goes on to say that one should not expect managers to improve their performance if the organisation in which they work is fraught with problems and poor conditions.

Brush and Licata (1983) who studied the impact of skill learnability on the effectiveness of management training and development programmes define skill learnability as the degree to which a particular managerial skill can be acquired and modified through training and development. This skill learnability and its relation to training
effectiveness and resource allocation strategies remains a relatively unexplored area both by the researcher and the practitioner. The limited theoretical and empirical literature on this justifies further research on the measurement of skill learnability and its effect on development programmes.

Leidecker and Hall (1974) studied the impact of management development programmes on attitude formation based on the 'public opinion questionnaire' developed by Schein (1967) consisting of the 'profile of organisational characteristics' developed by the Survey Research Centre at the University of Michigan. Their study pointed out that programmes need not be designed to change attitude of managers as managers do have positive attitudes towards group effectiveness and team efforts. Instead programmes may be tailored to help managers to put up their best positive attitudes to work. These authors further believe that in many companies successful training programmes do exist and effective criteria are available to measure exactly what changes take place. However, all too often, this is where the involvement of training personnel ends. In addition to formulating measures of programme effectiveness, these people need to concentrate more effort on
developing follow on techniques. Many times training personnel look at their departments as ends in themselves, thinking that their responsibility ends when the programme does. What participants do after the programme, how they apply what is learnt, and the permanence of desired change are not considered high priority objectives. Too much importance is given to internal measures of success, such as the number of people processed, size of staff and budget and the intrinsic rewards of a job well done. Instead they should ask themselves that the attitude change and skill development that took place were actually being used by the participants to improve their own performance and increase the organisation's effectiveness. In other words, it is time for management development programmes to change the traditional focus from intellectual learning and attitude change to concept application.

Dwivedi (1982) conducted a study to obtain information about the morale and related factors with a view to using this information in a programme called the management by trust. This programme theoretically seeks to analyse the various factors associated with morale and determine its relationships among them. While interpreting his findings, Dwivedi says that morale is a complex of several attitudes
which, in turn, are the results of several factors within and outside the plant. Perhaps, morale and attitudes influence, as well as are influenced, by absenteeism and turnover, likes and dislikes, production, union membership, supervisory leadership, salary and other allied factors. They can be improved by improving these factors which in turn will reinforce each other.

Lynton and Pareek (1990) while discussing evaluation of training impact and post training factors talk of three major questions for each, namely, for whom is the evaluation, when should it be done and how (Table 2). According to them, for evaluating the total training programme the basic question that should be asked is simply to what extent did the programme achieve what it set out to achieve. This is a large scale version of the question that trainers ask of every programme. The programme started with a set of objectives, namely that by its end the participants should know certain information, be able to do certain things to a certain standard and have developed a certain outlook. Now that the programme is over, to what extent did it succeed in these terms and how far participant learning had in fact been carried over into improved performance at work. Evaluation at the end of the programme
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Objectives</th>
<th>For whom</th>
<th>When</th>
<th>How</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>To increase learning by individual participants</td>
<td>Participants</td>
<td>Concurrent</td>
<td>Objective tests, skills tests, analysis of assignments</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To contribute data to organisational effectiveness</td>
<td>Work</td>
<td>After 3 months</td>
<td>Unobstrusive measures of conflict, collaboration, productivity, motivation, customer reaction, etc.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Organisation</td>
<td>periodically therefore</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To help the organisation change</td>
<td>Training systems</td>
<td>Once every 3 or 4 years</td>
<td>In depth action research and consultation.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>and work organisation</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To ensure post-training support at work</td>
<td>System and work</td>
<td>Once a year</td>
<td>Questionnaires, interviews, feedback, discussions.</td>
</tr>
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<td></td>
<td>organisation</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To identify helping and hindering factors</td>
<td>System and work</td>
<td>Once a year</td>
<td>Questionnaire, interviews, feedback, discussions.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>organisation</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Table 2
Evaluating training outcome/impacts and post training
reveals what new knowledge, understanding and skill the participants gained during training. The same kind of data at various stages of the post-training phase shows how stable these gains are, and to what extent they have survived transfer to the work situations.

The authors also believe that impact evaluation is still a touchy subject and that training system and work organisations usually settle for opinions about impact which is a very indirect and erratic guide. Instead evaluators should collect hard data about actual performances. This preference for soft data cannot be attributed to excessive methodological difficulties. More likely the two constituents quietly collude because impact is the sum of training plus organisational preparedness and support, and so raises questions about both the system and the organisation as well as their collaboration. In fact, the impact on individual performance, immediate work group, and units can be measured quite economically, if a major change strategy is in focus. Measures can also be developed for the organisation's growing capacity for further developments in the future.