

**PHENOMENOLOGICAL EVALUATION OF A
MANAGEMENT TRAINING COURSE : A STUDY
OF THE PARTICIPANTS' EXPERIENTIAL
STRUCTURE**

by

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DECLARATION

No portion of the work referred to in this study has been submitted in support of an application for another degree or qualification in this or any university or other institution of learning

Chapter 1

INTRODUCTION

The Rationale And An Overview

This thesis evaluates a supervisory management training course using a phenomenological approach. To initiate the process of investigation, this chapter, first underscores the rationale for studying the topic, and then provides the reader with an overview of the thesis. The chapter contains six sections. The first section presents the topic and states the research problem. The second section highlights the need for the study. The third section presents the objectives of the study. The research approach is considered in the fourth section. The fifth section provides an overview of the thesis in terms of the content in each chapter and finally, the last section summarizes the chapter.

1.1 The Research Problem

Why study management training evaluation? Apart from researcher's personal interest and preference, there is a general awareness of, and an information need for, management training and its evaluation. It may be fruitful to consider the importance of management training evaluation in terms of the significance attached to human resources in general.

It is almost axiomatically accepted that human resources are one of the most important contributors to the goals and objectives of an organization. Consequently, the priority attached to the improvement of the quality of human resources, through training and development, is also paramount. The reports published over the past decade in the UK. such as, *The Mant Report* (Mant, 1969), *The Owen Report* (Council for Industry of Management Education, 1970), *Competence and Competition* (Institute of Manpower Studies, 1984), *A Challenge to Complacency* (Coopers and Lybrand, 1985), *The Mangham and Silver Report* (1986), *Developing Directors* (Mumford et. al., 1987), *The Making of Managers* (Handy Report, 1987) and *The Making of British Managers* (Constable and McCormick, 1987) all emphasized the importance of management

development, and indicated their concern for its improvement. More recent literature stresses the importance of management training and development, and includes works by Deloitte et. al., (1989) and the Harbridge Consulting Group (1991). Harbridge Consulting Group (1991 : 22) inferred, after a comparison of observations made in 1982 and 1991, that the large UK business organizations (who are considered to be at the forefront of management development) had adopted,

'... a more thoughtful, professional approach to management development, with the function more closely integrated with corporate needs. There was more top management involvement.'

Harbridge Consulting Group further reported that all the firms it had studied had taken extensive and impressive management development action around total quality management. For the most part, this had comprised of multi-level management training, linked to the development of cross-functional teams.

Given the importance attached to management training and development, the concerns and the interests of various stakeholders in a management training course and its evaluation, are not difficult to understand. The stakeholders include, the trainees, the managers, the consultants, the course providers, the course designers, the trainers, the teachers and the academic researchers in the area of human resource development. These stakeholding groups have their own investments (time, money, technology, skill, knowledge, emotional attachment, power and influence, etc.) in a training and development programme which may be put to jeopardy in the event of inappropriate decision making. Therefore, it is only logical to expect that relevant decisions made by the stakeholders should be based on critical and informed judgements. An evaluation exercise is expected to serve stakeholders needs for information so as to facilitate critical and informed decision-making.

So far the issue seems straightforward and non-problematic. The problem begins when one considers questions such as the following: What constitutes an acceptable piece of information? Acceptable to whom? How does one know that one has arrived at a piece of acceptable

information? Given the complexity and diversity of the evaluation setting, is it possible to establish definite causal linkages between training and its 'results' (internal validity)? Is it possible to use this information to predict and control future outcomes (external validity)? These questions surpass the technicality of research methodology, and focus on the broader issues of epistemology and ontology. Of course, there is an extensive body of conventional research, conducted within the positivist tradition, that offers 'definite' answers to these questions. However, as can be seen in Chapter 2 of this thesis, researchers in various disciplines are increasingly suspicious of the answers offered by positivism. Far from being resolved, these issues continue to be problematic aspects in social science research in general, and in evaluation research in particular. Additionally, the utilization of evaluation findings, and the superficial level of current evaluation practice, are also matters of concern in management training evaluation. In summary, the problem of evaluation of management training has three dimensions. First, the substantive problem, i.e., the appropriateness of an approach which addresses the concerns of evaluation; for example the recognition of the complexity and diversity of the setting, democratization of the evaluation process, subscription to holistic view, and process orientation rather than product orientation etc. Second the methodological problem, i.e., the appropriateness of the methodology in terms of paradigmatic consistency, rigour, robustness, and practical application. Finally, the problems associated with practice. These include offering organization specific recommendations, and ensuring the utilization of the findings. It will be noted that all these problems are not mutually exclusive, they are entwined with each other but in order to facilitate understanding, they are shown separately.

1.2 The Need For The Study

A review of the literature suggests that there is a serious research gap in the substantive and methodological areas of the alternative approaches in management training evaluation. An up-to-date (i.e., December, 1993) search of the major data bases such as ABI INFORM, ANBAR, revealed that no work on evaluation using phenomenological approach had been

published over the past five years. The only major study (Mmobuosi, 1983) using a phenomenological approach was conducted ten years back. Although Mmobuosi's study had some relevance to evaluation, its primary focus was on the problems of the re-entrants in learning transfer. In addition to the absence of direct relevance to evaluation, Mmobuosi's study also suffered from some paradigmatic disjunctions. These limitations are highlighted in Chapter 4, Chapter 8 and Chapter 9. Apart from the lack of published work in the phenomenological tradition, the predominant state of recent publication, in terms of research quality, is not very encouraging. The bulk of the published materials are written in a popular and journalistic style, and offer an over-simplistic presentation of a complex phenomenon. These materials lack the necessary rigour and robustness. One extreme example of a cook-book-recipe-type prescription is, '*Six Ways To Make It Work At Work*' (Friedman, 1990).

Evaluation at the practitioner level is also not very encouraging. Smith and Piper (1990: 3) observed that major providers of management training offer little or no evaluation service to their clients beyond the "ubiquitous post course 'happiness sheet' ". Smith and Piper (1990: 3) further commented that,

'programme evaluation, as conducted by the majority of the training centres today, consists of the end-of-course questionnaire administered by the centre, completed by the delegates. While some providers collate the results for a course review, others, after swift and scant perusal, file briefly until the next course. This cavalier attitude reflects the low value of the exercise. Once it has been established that the delegates' views are generally positive-- and the questionnaire is designed to do this (Smith, 1990)-- evaluatory procedure cease.'

Smith and Piper (1990) interviewed representatives from four organizations, such as business schools and consultancy groups, that provided different types of training. They sought to ascertain attitudes towards evaluation and gain an understanding of the level and degree evaluation undertaken in practice. Data gathered from the interviews

supported their views mentioned earlier. Smith and Piper (1990: 28) held that,

'It is, in effect, a useful form of advertising. Interviews with the organizations showed that while some evaluation is implemented, it lacks depth and is not transferred to any great degree to the work place. Put crudely, evaluation in practice seems to have parallels with audience applause for a stage performance and press reviews. The high degree of product orientation means that provider attitude towards training largely remains at the level of trainee enjoyment rather than trainee effectiveness and the term 'happiness sheet' is, thus, more than apt.'

Similarly Harbridge Consulting Group (1991 : 24) also noted that,

'There is greater awareness of the need for evaluation than we found in 1982, but it still remains a neglected area. The 'reactions' end-of-course questionnaire, in various guises, remains the most used tools, although there is universal understanding of its limitations.'

The foregoing discussion illustrates the need for the study to be conducted not only in terms of substantive and methodological issues, but also in terms of evaluation practice. This study aims to contribute in all these areas. At the *substantive level*, it seeks to develop and refine the phenomenological evaluation approach. It empirically shows how phenomenological evaluation addresses the concerns against the conventional approaches. It recognizes the need for democratization of the evaluation process, the necessity to be responsive to the stakeholders' information needs, the complexity and diversity of the evaluation setting, and the necessity to adopt a holistic view and process orientation. This study also recognizes that learning-application is a co-constitutional process. Co-constitutionality, in the learning application process, implies that a myriad of shapers, including learning and application, mutually and simultaneously co-constitute one another. It rejects the positivist's deterministic notion of learning transfer. The co-constitutional process of learning and application rests on the phenomenological assumption of a dialectical synthesis of determinism and indeterminism. Since evaluation

is carried out in terms of the experiential structure of learning-application process, and since this process is characterized by a synthesis of determinism and indeterminism, evaluation is also characterized by a synthesis of determinism and indeterminism. This means that, to be meaningful, evaluation has to be an on-going process.

At the level of *evaluation methodology*, the study aims to contribute in three possible areas. First, it shows that it is possible to adopt a rigorous but practically workable evaluation methodology which, at the same time, can avoid paradigmatic disjunctions. Second, it offers insights about the mode of presentation and interpretation of data and finally proposes some criteria of trustworthiness of a phenomenological inquiry.

Finally at the level of *evaluation practice*, this study aims to help practitioners recognize knowledge as subjective and relative. This recognition relieves them of the stress of seeking the unachievable-- i.e., 'the objective' truth. In addition, it offers them a simple and inexpensive method for conducting evaluation study. Furthermore, the recommendations emanating from this empirical investigation will constitute specific practical contributions. The concerned decision makers will be able to consider them for the improvement of similar courses in future.

1.3 The Objective Of The Study

It all began with a tacit and vague impression of the problem. As one of the characteristics of emergent research, this tacit and nebulous impression of the problem gradually gave way to the more focused objectives.

The primary objectives of this study are--

To evaluate a management training course in terms of the participants' experiential structure, to understand the shapers that facilitate or restrict the application of learning and to serve the information needs of the interested stakeholders.

These primary objectives necessitated the formulation of three sub-objectives. They are as follows--

- 1 To develop and refine phenomenological evaluation.*
- 2 To adopt a methodology that is paradigmatically consistent with the chosen evaluation approach (i.e., phenomenological approach).*
- 3 To refine the adopted evaluation methodology through the practical conduct of this research.*

It might be judged that the focus on the participants' experiential structure, to the exclusion of the experiential structures of other stakeholders, is less than comprehensive and non-democratic. In response to this concern, it may be mentioned that the focus was determined through negotiations between the principal stakeholders.

1.4 The Research Approach

Evaluation may be defined as a process of making critical and informed judgement about a phenomenon. The verb 'making' indicates that evaluation is basically action-oriented. So long as evaluation involves action, its concern remains methodological. It will be recalled from the first section that the problem areas identified actually overlap with each other. Furthermore, the substantive areas of evaluation are also substantive methodologically. Hence, the problem of evaluation is predominantly methodological. The phenomenological approach offered one possible alternative to deal with the paradigmatic difficulties of positivism. Therefore, phenomenology is adopted as the appropriate research approach for this study.

1.5 The Structure Of Thesis

The thesis is structured in ten chapters. The content of each chapter will be outlined now.

Chapter 1 Introduction: The Rationale And An Overview

Chapter one discusses the research problem, the need for the study, the objectives of the study, the research approach and offers an overview of the content of the thesis.

Chapter 2 Paradigm Of Inquiry : A Critique Of Conventional Paradigm

The methodology adopted for a study is contingent upon the paradigm an inquirer implicitly or explicitly holds. Hence, it becomes necessary to examine the paradigmatic issues before any methodological decisions can be made. These issues are considered in Chapter 2 and Chapter 3. Chapter 2 offers a critique of the conventional paradigm (logical positivism) from ontological, epistemological and methodological points of view. In view of the weaknesses of the conventional paradigm, this chapter argues that the positivist approach is inappropriate for research in general and social science research in particular.

Chapter 3 The Alternative Paradigms : Constructivism And Phenomenology

It is not sufficient just to assert that a particular paradigm is inappropriate. In addition, it is equally important to consider alternative paradigms that will, on one hand, help overcome the difficulties of the paradigm rejected and, on the other, offer a viable basis for conducting this study. Chapter 3 undertakes the task of facilitating the selection of a paradigm for this study and considers constructivism and phenomenology. This chapter also introduces the key concepts of the phenomenological paradigm. These

concepts include, consciousness, intentionality, noema, noesis, experience, life-world, natural attitude, stocks of knowledge, and intersubjectivity. Chapter 3 shows how constructivism and phenomenology overcome the difficulties of the conventional paradigm posed at ontological, epistemological and methodological levels. The chapter argues that the phenomenological paradigm offers a better alternative for this study. This is principally because phenomenology recognizes the possibility of 'relative knowledge' through its assumption of a dialectical synthesis of determinism and indeterminism; while, constructivism's emphasis on indeterminism makes it difficult to sustain the idea of continuity of knowledge.

Chapter 4 Literature Review : Inquiry Paradigm And The Evaluation Approach

Since the problem of evaluation is primarily methodological, a paradigmatic disjunction is clearly unacceptable. To avoid disjunction, one is required to adopt an evaluation approach that is congruent with the phenomenological paradigm. Chapter 4 undertakes the task of examining the consistency of the evaluation approaches. The chapter first considers Easterby-Smith's (1986) classification framework of the schools of evaluation. Given the limitations of Easterby-Smith's (1986) classification, an alternative framework is used. The classification references, in alternative framework, include paradigmatic disposition (implicit and explicit assumption held on the nature of reality, generalization, causality, researcher-researched relationship and influence of value), design orientation, theoretical orientation, methodological features, typical research instruments, evaluator control and the stakeholders served. These classification references help categorize the nine major evaluation approaches into three categories. These categories are, the *conventionalists*, the *transitionalists* and the *revisionists*. The conventionalists (which include the scientific approach, the cost-benefit approach and the systems approach) implicitly and explicitly hold the assumptions of conventional paradigm. Despite their departure at the methodological level, the transitionalists remain somewhat loyal to the

epistemological and ontological assumption of conventional paradigm. The approaches in this category are, utilization-focused evaluation, goal-free evaluation and illuminative evaluation. Responsive evaluation, fourth generation evaluation and phenomenological evaluation all fall within the group of the revisionist approaches because their departure from the conventional paradigm is fundamental and paradigmatic. While responsive evaluation appears to be an earlier version of fourth generation evaluation, the latter is authentically grounded in the paradigmatic assumptions of constructivism. The discussion in Chapter 4 reveals that only phenomenological evaluation is consistent with the paradigmatic posture of this study. Finally, the chapter explores phenomenological evaluation in some depth.

***Chapter 5 Phenomenological Research Methodology :
A Discussion Of The Study Specific Aspects***

Chapter 5 focuses on the phenomenological research methodology so that guide-lines for conducting the field study can be derived from it. The chapter discusses epoché, eidetic reduction, phenomenological method, the conventional and phenomenological criteria for trustworthiness. From these discussions the chapter then lays down the methodological details of this study.

***Chapter 6 Presentation And Interpretation Of Data :
Participants' Experiences Of 'Training-Event'***

Chapter 6 is devoted to the presentation and interpretation (i.e., transformation and synthesis) of experiential data on the training-event. The chapter begins with guide-lines on the presentation and interpretation process adopted. After reading the protocols, several questions are developed to facilitate the process of interpretation. These questions address evaluation from varying depths of meaning ascription. The first of these questions addresses evaluation through the elucidation of 'straight-forward-ascription-of-value' in terms of the valued ends. The

second question looks at a deeper level of experience. It attempts to elucidate the value of the course ascribed by the respondents through their experiences of relationships between the shapers with the valued ends. Finally, the third question elucidates the process of consciousness used by the respondents to ascribe meaning. This question addresses evaluation because the processes of consciousness testify the ascription of meaning. Furthermore, these processes of consciousness offer evidence that the respondents avoided *prima facie* acceptance of assertion of value of the course. While maintaining epoché, the interpretations are carried out using the technique of imaginative free variation.

Chapter 7 Presentation And Interpretation Of Data : Participants' Experiences Of Post-Course Event

Chapter 7 presents and interprets the experiential data on the post-training event. This chapter follows similar structure as that of Chapter 6. Three questions are also developed in this chapter to facilitate the interpretation process. The first of these addresses evaluation through the elucidation of 'straight-forward-assertion-of-application' which indicated the ascription of value of the course. The second question, as that in the previous chapter, attempts to elucidate the value of the course ascribed by the respondents through their experiences of relationships between the shapers with the application process. Finally, the third question elucidates the process of consciousness used by the respondents to ascribe meaning. In this instance also, epoché is maintained and the interpretations are carried out using the technique of imaginative free variation.

Chapter 8 Evaluation Of Group Leader Training Course : Discussion Of Participants' Experiential Structure Of The 'Training-Event'

This chapter discusses participants' experiential structure of the training event and thereby addresses their evaluation of it. The pattern in which the synthesized transformations (elucidated in Chapter 6) are constituted

in the consciousness of the respondents represent their experiential structure of the training event. The chapter discusses the categories of synthesized transformations (i.e., the valued ends, the valued end shapers and the processes of consciousness used to ascribe meaning) and attempts to compare them with other available literature.

Chapter 9 Evaluation Of Group Leader Training Course : Discussion Of Participants' Experiential Structure Of The Post-Course Event'

In this chapter, post-training evaluation is addressed by discussing participants' experiential structure of the post-training events. Participants' experiential structure of the post-training events refer to the pattern in which the synthesized transformations (elucidated in Chapter 7) are constituted in the respondents' consciousness. The categories of synthesized transformations (i.e., the elements of the course, the learning-application-process shapers and the processes of consciousness used to ascribe meaning) are considered and the available literature compared.

Chapter 10 Conclusion: Implications And Recommendations

This chapter concludes the study. After providing an overview, the chapter revisits phenomenological evaluation and discusses the implications of the study on the substantive, methodological and practical aspects of phenomenological evaluation. The chapter highlights the limitations of this study, offers clues regarding the possible areas of future research, summarizes the major findings and finally offers suggestions and recommendations for the concerned decision makers.

1.6 Summary

The aim of this chapter was to introduce this research to the readers. The chapter examined the research problem, the need for the study, the

objective of the study, the research approach and finally sketched the structure of the thesis. The following chapter begins to look at the paradigmatic issues and offers a critique of the conventional paradigm as a groundwork for facilitating methodological decisions.

Chapter 2

PARADIGM OF INQUIRY

Conventional Paradigm And Its Critique

This chapter sets the backdrop for the selection of the appropriate methodology for this study. The methodology adopted in any inquiry is contingent upon the paradigm an inquirer implicitly or explicitly holds. Thus, it becomes necessary to look closely at the paradigmatic issues before any methodological decisions can be made.

It is argued that methodologically as well as philosophically, the conventional paradigm (used interchangeably with the terms 'logical positivism' or simply 'positivism') has severe weaknesses for research in general and for social science research in particular. The key point that this chapter seeks to establish is that, when the conventional paradigmatic position is untenable in case of 'hard' sciences like physics (as shall be seen later in this chapter), its appropriateness becomes altogether volatile in case of social sciences.

The issue is not merely (as some would suggest) that, since social science and physical science are different from each other, what is appropriate to the study of physical science is not appropriate to the study of social science (Huczynski and Buchanan, 1991; Sanders, 1982; Morgan & Smircich, 1980). Essentially, the concern runs deeper into the philosophical assumptions regarding the nature of reality and the ways of knowing it than the simple incompatibility of the methods of study resulting from the differences of discipline.

Given the limitations of the conventional paradigm it becomes imperative to look for alternative ways of doing research, ways that take into account the relevant philosophical considerations. The task of examining the conventional paradigm and its alternatives (i.e., the constructivist and the phenomenological paradigms) is considerable. The treatment of all these paradigms in a single chapter seems hardly justified. This chapter, therefore, offers a critique of the conventional paradigm setting up the rationale for exploring the alternative paradigms. The consideration of the alternatives follows in the subsequent chapter.

The conventional paradigm is examined in this chapter with its ontological, epistemological and methodological considerations. It may be noted that these considerations form a hierarchical set of belief structures, in which each belief is being shaped by the one before. Hence, the chapter focuses first on the ontological issues, then on the epistemological ones, and finally on the methodological ones.

The reader will find that the various arguments and interpretations provided in this chapter (and in the subsequent one) are similar to ones to be found in the recent work by Guba and Lincoln (1989) and Lincoln and Guba (1985). The researcher is grateful to these authors for their excellent work and acknowledges that some of their material has been drawn upon in preparing these chapters.

The chapter begins with the definitions of the concepts used throughout this thesis. Concepts such as 'paradigm', 'ontology', 'epistemology', and 'methodology' are dealt with. The second section discusses the conventional paradigm. The third section provides a critique of the paradigm. Apart from the limitations, this section also examines some of its strengths in studying specific disciplines under specific conditions. Finally, the last section summarizes the chapter.

2.1. Some General Terminologies Used

Before going into the meat of the chapter it is necessary to define the major terms to be used. Terms such as, *paradigm*, *ontology*, *epistemology* and *methodology* will be considered.

2.1.1 Paradigm

A paradigm is a basic set of beliefs or assumptions that govern one's activities. This may be considered to be a distilled version of the view one holds about the world around him/her. All the actions of an individual are grounded in such a belief structure including those actions that one undertakes as a researcher. According to Patton (1978 : 203),

'A paradigm is a world view, a general perspective, a way of breaking down the complexity of the real world. As such paradigms are deeply embedded in the socialization of adherents and practitioners: paradigms tell them what is important, legitimate and reasonable. Paradigms are also normative, telling the practitioner what to do without the necessity of long existential or epistemological considerations. But it is this aspect of paradigms that constitute both their strength and weakness—their strength in that it makes action possible, their weakness in that the very reason for action is hidden in the unquestioned assumptions of paradigms.'

The crucial point that this definition stresses is that paradigms are belief systems. As such, paradigms are metaphysical in nature and cannot be proved or disproved. They are the fundamental positions that form the base line and which are taken for granted.

'They represent the ultimate benchmarks against which everything else is tested, for if there were something more fundamental against which a test might be made, then that more fundamental entity would become the basic belief whose truth ... must be taken for granted.' [emphasis in original] (Lincoln and Guba, 1985 : 15)

Although a paradigm cannot be proved or disproved, questions can be asked about the usefulness of a particular paradigm.

2.1.2 Ontology

Ontology is that branch of philosophy that deals with the metaphysical issues concerning the nature of existence or being or, as in logic, the set of entities presupposed by a theory. The ontological issue relevant to the current discussion involves the nature of reality.

2.1.3 Epistemology

Epistemology is that branch of philosophy that deals with the origin, nature and limits of human knowledge. The epistemological issue concerning the current discussion is how one can be sure that one knows what he knows.

2.1.4 Methodology

Methodology is an applied branch of philosophy. It is concerned with the methods, systems, principles and rules of conducting an inquiry. Put simply it deals with the ways about finding out things.

2.2 The Conventional Paradigm

The belief structure of the conventional paradigm is outlined in the Table 2.1. This structure is being elaborated in this section.

Table 2.1 The Conventional Belief Structure

REALIST ONTOLOGY asserts that there exists a single reality that is independent of any observer's interest in it and which operates according to immutable natural laws, many of which take cause-effect forms. Truth is defined as that set of statements that is isomorphic to reality.

DUALIST OBJECTIVIST EPISTEMOLOGY asserts that it is possible (indeed, mandatory) for an observer to exteriorize the phenomenon studied, remaining detached and distant from it (a state often called "subject-object dualism"), and exclude any value consideration from it.

INTERVENTIONIST METHODOLOGY strips context of its contaminating (confounding) influences (variables) so that the inquiry can converge on truth and explain nature as it really is and really works, leading to the capability to predict and to control.

(Based on Guba and Lincoln, 1989)

2.2.1 The Realist Ontology

The adherents of realist ontology believe that there exists an objective reality 'out there' that is independent of the inquirer's interest and the ways in which he seeks to know it. According to this posture, the task of science is to discover nature 'as it really is' and 'as it really works'

Often 'objective reality' and 'perceived reality', which are basically similar postures of realist ontology, are being differentiated by some authors (see Lincoln and Guba, 1985). The former posture, (often called naive realism) holds that there not only exists a single tangible reality (a whole that is the sum of the parts) but also that such a reality can be fully known. With sufficient time and good principles of investigation, inquiry can converge physical, temporal and social realities (parts of the whole) into a single entity although individual studies may be only approximations.

A softer position is held by the adherents of perceived reality. They assert that although there exists a reality 'out there' it cannot be fully known. It is believed that no one person or group of persons at any point of time can know all of reality. Reality is at best only partial picture of the whole and will continue to be so.

Although there is a disagreement between the naive realist and perceptual realist as to the extent to which knowledge of reality is possible, there is a solid agreement between them on the ontological plane as to the belief that there exists a reality external to the inquirer that is independent of his interest in it. This agreement brackets them within the conventional ontological belief structure.

Alongside the belief that there is a reality external to the observer, the adherents of realist ontology further believe that such reality is also governed by certain immutable natural laws that again are independent of the observer's interest in them. Therefore, the task of science (Huczynski and Buchanan, 1991), is to describe the nature of reality and to uncover its driving mechanisms to explain, predict and control nature to the advantage of humankind. Once the nature of the laws is discovered they form a body of knowledge, i.e., certain generalizations. These

generalizations are isomorphic to the reality and thereby constitute truth in the conventional sense.

The key to prediction and control according to realist ontology is the belief that in many cases the entities of a reality are causally linked. Identification of the causal laws helps explain, predict and control the changes in the dependent variable following the changes in the independent variable.

2.2.2 A Dualist Objectivist Epistemology

The ontological posture of an inquirer dictates the epistemological stance adopted. The adherents of conventional paradigm address the epistemological question, (how can one be sure that one knows what one knows?) by adopting a dualist objectivist position. If one maintains the ontological posture that there exists an objective reality 'out there' independent of the observer's interest on observation of it, it becomes quite logical for the inquirer to maintain an objective distance from what is being studied. For, without a dualism, it is impossible to maintain objectivity. Absence of objective distance and separateness implies that individual subjectivity would vitiate against the discovery of reality 'as it really is' and 'as it really works.' The characteristics of conventional epistemology derived from its ontological beliefs can thus be categorized into, *researcher-researched relationship* and *value freedom*.

a. *Researcher-Researched Relationship*

The dualist epistemology is characterized by the 'separateness' in the researcher-researched relationship. This implies that the observer and the observed are independent of each other and that it is possible to study a phenomenon adopting an 'exteriorized posture'. It is, therefore, believed that an observer standing behind a thick glass can ascertain how the observed entity 'really is' and how 'it really works' in itself without being contaminated by anything else.

b. Value-Freedom

The goal of science according to conventional belief structure is to generate generalized knowledge which is applicable in appropriate circumstances. One cannot develop generalizations if the findings are value laden. The fundamental characteristics of conventional epistemology is the belief that one can know reality objectively. Maintaining an exteriorized posture as a part of dualism, it is believed that the influence of the observer's values (for that matter anyone else's) and other contaminating influences can be eliminated. By maintaining such a posture it is thus possible to derive generalizations which are 'absolutely' acceptable and are free from any possible taint of subjectivity, bias or disjunctive values. Thus, conventional epistemology asserts that an inquiry can be both objective and value-free.

2.2.3 The Interventionalist Methodology

Epistemology is shaped by ontology, and both of these shape methodology. The methodological question- How can one go about finding out things?- is addressed by the conventionalist by adopting an interventionist strategy. According to this strategy, objectivity and value-freedom is ensured by designing the study in such a way that the context is stripped off and thus, the possibility of contamination is eliminated. Given the aim of securing objective knowledge, the adherents of interventionist methodology find it perfectly legitimate to adopt covert means of observation, providing misleading instructions to subjects, and also to deceive them if required. The reactivity of the subjects is thus eliminated, and the 'real' behaviour of a particular phenomenon is unveiled. The essence of this methodology is control. To its adherents, a controlled inquiry can help to explain the causes or reasons for something. Thus, it is believed that through sound control mechanisms it is possible to reach unequivocal conclusions about causalities. Control may be designed in the form of physical or statistical manipulations, and is regarded as a necessary intervention. Although this methodology is interventionist in its character, it is nevertheless very popular. The popularity is perhaps due to the fact that most of the researchers have received training in this

methodology and apparently it offers a sense of certainty, security, control and power.

2.3 Conventional Paradigm : A Critique

The belief structure of the conventional paradigm has a profound implication for research, particularly research in social science. Although one intuitively feels that the conventional paradigm serves the purpose of research in physical and natural sciences, closer scrutiny reveals that one should perhaps be sceptical of its claims.

Entities in physical and natural science do not possess minds of their own. These inanimate entities are thought to have some order, organized according to some structure, possess mechanical dynamics, have defined boundaries and discrete features- a description which is characteristic of the disciplines in natural and physical sciences. In short, these disciplines view the world in terms of a mechanical model. Even under these premises, one is dubious about the appropriateness of the conventional paradigm to the study of the inanimate entities of physical and natural sciences. If this is the case with physical and natural sciences, the level of scepticism is even greater in case of social science. This is because, unlike entities in physical and natural science, the entities in social science are themselves possessors of mind (i.e., humans) and/or are products of mind (ideas).

The failure of the conventional paradigm to address the issues of social science appropriately has tormented the researchers in the field. The inadequacy of conventional paradigm in social science research for a practising researcher is most serious at the methodological level. This has led to the re-examination of the methodological, and to some extent the epistemological issues, in an attempt to formulate a different belief structure for the purpose. The crucial point is that the formulation of a different belief structure is not merely a reaction to the inadequacies of conventional paradigm. The post-positivist thinkers, recognizing the difference between the physical-natural sciences and social sciences, have attempted to make adjustments in their methodologies to meet the specific needs of social science and in so doing retained the very

ontological substance of positivism (see Lincoln and Guba 1985). It will be seen that the retention of the positivist ontological substance does not help one to resolve the difficulties faced. Resorting to a quest for an alternative paradigm is not merely a reaction to the methodological concerns of researchers to get the job (at hand) done, but is deeply rooted to the epistemological and ontological issues. It is thus maintained that the ontological and epistemological issues of the alternative paradigms (i.e. the constructivist paradigm and the phenomenological paradigm) are by themselves substantive enough for one to make a paradigm shift and adhere to it whether or not there are methodological problems associated to conventional paradigm.

A survey of the literature reveals that an exhaustive list of challenges have been mounted against positivism. However, in this section an attempt is made to highlight just the salient ones. Following a similar pattern, the challenges and criticisms are categorized in terms of ontological, epistemological and methodological postures. Having said this, for the purpose of balance, it is fair to consider the strengths and popularity of positivism, which is addressed later in this chapter.

2.3.1 Challenges At The Ontological Level

At this level the challenges and the criticisms are discussed by focusing on the assertions of reality, generalizations and causality.

a. Reality

It has been mentioned earlier that paradigms are belief structures which can neither be proved nor disproved. However, certain questions may be asked about a given paradigm. This applies particularly to the idea of the existence of reality which is so fundamental that it has to be regarded as axiomatic. Indeed, serious questions have been raised against the positivist assertions that 'there is a single reality', that 'reality is out there' which is 'objective' (i.e., independent of the observer, methods of observation, and so forth). The arguments put forward in this part are entwined with both the ontological and epistemological postures.

According to Skagestad (1981 : 77-78) *'the world of which we have knowledge exists independently of our knowledge of it.'* However, the history of science is replete with examples showing that the nature of reality is ever changing. This contradicts the positivist's assertion of the existence of a 'single' reality. For example, Galileo's formulation of heliocentric universe clearly refuted the nature of reality held by his predecessors that the universe was geocentric. Lavoisier's oxygen-based theory also reverted the nature of reality regarding combustion and calcination held by the phlogiston-based theory.

Let us now turn to the contemporary period. In physics it was thought that an atom consists of discrete parts. Once these parts were discovered, one would be able to construct a model of atom isomorphic to reality. The sub-atomic structure consisting of electrons, protons and neutrons turned out to be very simplistic with each discovery of ever smaller particles such as positrons, neutrinos etc. It appears thus that with every increase in the power of microscope, the nature of reality changes. One would agree that these criticisms perhaps are not so fundamental. Positivists like Skagestad (1981) argue that what is happening in such a situation is that one is approximating reality more closely or moving towards a more perfect understanding of the reality that exists outside ourselves and independent of the knower. Skagestad (1981 : 87-88) further asserted that,

'... the drift toward consensus in science; that is, the fact that independent investigators, starting from different assumptions and different observations, tend ultimately to arrive at the same conclusion. This fact . . . is explained by the hypothesis that their different inquiries are directed toward one and the same reality'.

Both the claims made by Skagestad can be called to question when one considers the phenomenon of light. In 1803 it was shown in a 'definitive' experiment that light is a wave. Later, Einstein conducting a photoelectric experiment 'proved' that light is composed of particles called photons or quanta of light. What is interesting is that, the double-slit experiment led to the conclusion that light is a 'wave' while the photoelectric experiment concluded that light was a 'particle.'

What is then the nature of reality? Light seems to be an experiment-bound 'wave' or an experiment-bound 'particle'. Skagestad's first claim regarding 'approximating reality more closely' or 'moving toward more perfect understanding of *the* reality' does not hold because neither experiment could be said to be an improvement over the other. So far as his second claim is concerned, one can intuitively state that these two experiments did not converge onto a single reality. The nature of reality is shaped according to the experimenter's choice of apparatus for conducting the experiment. The choice of apparatus makes the idea of 'objective reality' redundant.

The idea of objective reality has been rejected by a number of researchers. For example, Wolf (1981) in explaining the nature of reality mentioned that one has to make a drastic departure from the usual meaning of the concept when dealing with quantum mechanics. Authors such as Wolf (1981) and Romanyshyn and Whalen (1989) referring to the Copenhagen position (also called the Bohr Complementarity Principle) asserted that no reality is a reality until it is perceived by the inquirer.

Contemporaneously with the Copenhagen position, Werner Heisenberg formulated the Indeterminacy Principle which shook the very foundation of the positivist's assertion of objective reality. Heisenberg showed that we cannot know both the momentum of a particle and its position at the same time. The act of experimentation to find the state, determined the observed state, if one wished to know one, the other could not be known. Therefore, it can be concluded that the nature of reality, as this experiment suggested, is indeterminate and is conditioned by the choice of the method of experimentation. Hence, the existence of objective reality is rather illusive.

Zukav (1979:28) maintaining even a stronger position asserted that,

'Philosophically, however, the implications of quantum mechanics are psychedelic. Not only do we influence our reality, but, in some degree, we actually create it' [emphasis in original].

Using the same Indeterminacy Principle, he went to say that by our choice of what we want to determine, we actually create realities. Zukav (1979 : 29) quoted John Wheeler, a particle physicist at Princeton University.

"May the universe in some strange sense be 'brought into being' by the participation of those who participate? . . . The vital act is the act of participation. 'Participant' is the incontrovertible new concept given by quantum mechanics. It strikes down the term 'observer' of classical theory, the man who stands safely behind the thick glass wall and watches what goes on without taking . . . part. It can't be done, quantum mechanics says."

Thus, when the positivist's claim of 'single reality' and 'objective reality' is untenable in the case of 'hard' sciences like physics, the nature of positivist reality becomes altogether volatile in social science. For example, the things like motivation, learning, satisfaction, culture, and so on have different meanings for different individuals at different times in different places and different perspectives. The reality of these phenomena is shaped by the meaning ascribed by the individuals. Clearly, the nature of these realities contradicts the positivist conception of reality

b. Generalization

Given the level of scepticism about the very existence of objective reality, the positivist's assertion of the existence of immutable natural laws seems to be standing on shifting sand.

The positivist's goal is to discover immutable natural laws (i.e., generalizations which are time and context free) from a set of data so that phenomena can be predicted and controlled. Therefore, from the point of utility, generalizations form the core of a positivist inquiry. Generalizations, according to Kaplan (1964) must be incontrovertibly universal, they must be time and context free and must be capable of replication provided only that the appropriate conditions are satisfied.

The critics of positivism maintain that time and context free generalization is not possible and that the only generalization that is possible is 'there is no generalization'. Let us consider the matter.

Five major criticisms against the concept of generalization, in its classical form, can be identified (see Lincoln and Guba, 1985). The criticisms are, *dependence on the assumption of determinism, dependence on inductive logic, dependence on the assumption of freedom from time and context, entrapment in the nomothetic-ideographic dilemma and entrapment in a reductionist fallacy.*

It is believed that these criticisms provide substantive arguments and evidence regarding the inappropriateness of the concept of generalization, hence, their arguments are summarized below.

i. *Dependence On The Assumption Of Determinism.*

The bedrock of generalization is determinism upon which the concept has been built. Determinism implies that the elements of reality possess certain fixed and reliable linkages, or that reality is governed by certain immutable laws independent of our wishes and preferences. Unless one assumes that there exists a definite pattern of relationships or fixed and reliable linkages among the entities of a reality, one cannot derive statements (laws) that will be found to hold in 'truly universal' ways.

The positivists believed that the universe is governed by natural laws as if it were a great machine. Marquis de Laplace, the French scientist, maintained that the universe is governed by the laws of cause and effect and if a mind is sufficiently vast it could comprehend all the forces of nature and thereby evolve a formula that could equally explain the movements of the greatest bodies of the universe and those of the lightest atoms. Nothing would then be uncertain (see Wolf, 1981).

Similarly, Schwartz and Ogilvy (1979) pointed out that the positivist, in principle, believes that if one knew the position and velocity of all the particles in the world at any point in time, one could predict the entire

future state of the world provided one had the means to perform sufficiently complex computations.

Schwartz and Ogilvy argued that the Indeterminacy Principle has refuted the simplistic notions of determinism. It means that ambiguity is a condition of nature and that it is indeterminate. Without the base of determinism, the possibility of generalization comes into serious question. Generalizability becomes, at best, probabilistic.

ii *Dependence Of Inductive Logic.*

Sets of data do not automatically form generalizations. Generalizations are the products of human reflection and are not available in nature in itself. Inferences are developed by the generalizer after observing a limited number of particulars as opposed to 'all and every particular in a class'. These inferences are then applied to each and every other particulars in the same class including the ones that generated the inferences.

Besides induction, one can arrive at a conclusion through the process of deduction. Deduction is considered to be closed; it implies that given certain premises it is possible to derive an inference that is absolutely true and is compelling and binding. As opposed to deduction, induction is an open process, where the possibility of falsifying an inference always remains open. This is because it is not ever practically possible to take into account 'all and every' particular in a class in formulating the inferences. Some of the particulars will always be out of account at least because the future is always yet to unfold. In a discussion on the distinction between induction and deduction, Resse (1980) suggested that induction may be viewed as probable inference and deduction as necessary inference.

Hesse (1980) suggested that theories are underdetermined by facts. Underdetermination, also called the problem of induction, implies that,

"the inference of theories from observations, . . . cannot be made logically conclusive [because] : there are in principle always an indefinite number of theories that fit observed fact more or less adequately". (Hesse, 1980 : vii-viii).

Underdetermination might hold for generalization as well since it could sometimes be said to be the components of theories. Hence, it could be said that generalizations, like theories, are also constrained by facts. There is no single necessary generalization that must emerge to account the particulars. In principle, there are always a number of possibilities for different generalizations to be induced to account for any set of particulars. Thus, according to Hesse (1980), the inescapable consequence of reliance on induction is that generalizations are at best relativistic expression, and certainly not an absolute expression.

iii. *Dependence On The Assumption Of Freedom From Time And Context:*

Positivists assert that generalization must be time and context free. From the foregoing analysis, one finds that generalizations are probabilistic and relative. This logically makes the claim of time and context freedom difficult to sustain. It has been argued that the simplistic notion of determinism is untenable because the world around us is indeterminate and complex. Further, that the enormous diversity among the particulars even within a given class, could not be tackled by inductive reasoning with all its ever increasing conditional strings. Metaphorically speaking, the diversity among particulars could call for such enormous number of conditional strings that the generalization could turn out to be a particular!

The world is complex, ever changing, and with full of diversity. Under these conditions, inferences which are free from spatio-temporal characteristics are short lived, even shorter in the case of social science. Cronbach (1975 : 122-123), for example wrote,

"Generalizations decay. At one time, a conclusion describes the existing situation well, at a later time it accounts for rather little variation, and ultimately it is valid only as history. The half-life of an empirical proposition may be great or small. The more open the system, the shorter the half-life of relations within it are likely to be.

Propositions describing atoms and electrons have a long half-life, and the physical theorists can regard the process of the world as steady. Rarely is a social or behavioural phenomenon isolated enough to have this steady state property. Hence the explanation we live by will perhaps always remain partial, and distant from real events . . . and rather short lived. The atheoretical regularities of the actuarial table describing human affairs changes from science into history before it can be set in type" [emphasis added].

Cronbach's notion strongly supports the idea that generalizations cannot be free from spatio-temporal considerations. The notion that generalization in the end become 'history' refutes the positivist claim for time free assertion, also the need for sufficient 'isolation' indicates that the assertions are context bound. What is more interesting to note is that Cronbach maintained that although 'hard' sciences i.e., physical/chemical/biological sciences do have a steady state, the generalizations nevertheless have half-life. Further, his notion of the more open the system the shorter the half-life, confirms the assertion that generalization about phenomena in social and behavioural science are more time and context bound than those in physical and natural science. This is because entities in social science are part of open systems which are constantly changing.

iv. *Entrapment In The Nomothetic-Ideographic Dilemma.*

The term nomothetic implies 'based on law' while ideographic implies 'based on particular individual'. Generalizations are nomothetic i.e., law-like. The dilemma arises when such nomothetic generalizations are used to control and predict particulars. According to the positivist, generalizations should be isomorphic to realities by which any particular can be perfectly explained. Isomorphism between particulars and generalizations, as we have seen, is hardly possible. Generalizations suffer from inductive loss in their formulation and could not be counted upon to be determinately or absolutely true. The problem arises because the generalizations are always inductively underdetermined, hence

probabilistic, and are spatio-temporally relative. One is thus faced with the dilemma of whether to force a generalization (which is not isomorphic) onto a particular, or to take into account the idiosyncrasies of the particular concerned. Such a problem is especially acute in social and behavioural science. For example, the doctor trying to treat patients simply on the basis of symptoms which are indicative (through inductive generalizations) of a particular disease, or a teacher trying to get a pupil to learn by using only general pedagogical principles.

v. *Entrapment In A Reductionist Fallacy*

Positivists attempt to reduce all phenomena of a given class into a single or a single set of generalization(s). Such an attempt is termed as reductionism. Gödel's Incompleteness Theorem, in a way, proved the fallacy of reductionism i.e., attempting to formulate a single frame of reference, a single or a single set of generalization. Although Gödel's Theorem was developed in relation to number theory in mathematics, it can also lead to a better understanding of fields other than mathematics. The theorem as Hofstadter (1980:17) puts it, is that "*All consistent axiomatic formulations of number theory include undecidable propositions.*" Lincoln and Guba (1985:118) interpreting the theorem suggested that,

"that there exist no consistent set of statements (reduced to their most basic undergirding axioms) that can ever hope to deal with all propositions; some propositions will inevitably fall outside its purview"

They further asserted that,

"there can be no set of generalizations, consistent with one another, that can effectively account for all known phenomena [Laplacian 'grand equation' is at best an idle dream!]". (Lincoln and Guba, 1985:118)

c. Causality

Causality implies a deterministic "if-then" relationship. Given the goal of science, i.e., prediction and control, it is almost an impulsive drive for the positivist to find out the causal links of the phenomenon observed. In so far as science is deterministic, the knowledge of cause and effect is central. The knowledge of cause and effect apparently helps one to eliminate the possibility of the extraneous variables effecting changes in the phenomena. This knowledge, therefore, ensures prediction and control.

However, the concept of causality is not free from criticisms. A number of formulations of the concept of causality along with their inadequacies can be observed in the literature (see Lincoln and Guba, 1985). These formulations include the billiard-ball notion of causality including the Humean formulation; Karl Popper's 'deductive-nomological' formulation; John Stuart Mill and J. L. Mackie's 'essentialist' approach; the 'activity' or 'manipulability' approach, proponents of which are Bertrand Russell, R. G. Collingwood and Michael Scriven; the 'counterfactual' formulation espoused by advocates such as David Lewis and Robert Stalnaker; and finally, the 'probabilistic' approach espoused by epistemologist like Wesley Salmon, Hans Reichenbach and Patrick Suppes.

The analysis of the formulations show that it is impossible to divest the concept of causality of the influence of human experience, judgement and insight (see Lincoln and Guba, 1985). In support of this assertion the following points may be made:

- Correlation does not imply causality, that is, recurrent regularity does not itself support a causal presumption unless and until some human supplies a logical reason to account for the connection.
- Human judgement is required to determine when a condition is necessary and sufficient to be taken as a cause and to know that no other causes are present that might account for the presumed effect.

- Human judgement is required to judge when a law is applicable and if the initial specified conditions are present and adequate to support the causal imputation.
- Causal imputation is usually made with a specific human purpose in mind.

If the concept of causality cannot be divested of the influence of human experience, judgement and insights, then the formulation of deterministic and immutable relationship (laws) seems to be in vain. Consequently, the existence of 'objective' reality 'out there' appears to be difficult to defend. In social science the concept of causality is more volatile because such influence seems to be even greater in social science.

2.3.2 Challenges At The Epistemological Level

It was noted earlier that the positivist handles the epistemological question by asserting that knowledge is possible by maintaining a respectable distance from the object of study. Dualism is an extension of the ontological claim of the existence of an objective reality. Unless one adopts a distinct and separate posture, one will distort reality 'as it is' and produce findings that are not isomorphic with objective reality-- a reality that is uncontaminated by values and possess causal linkages. If the findings are not isomorphic with reality 'as it really works', they cannot be used for prediction and control. Thus, the entire epistemological concern revolves round the issues of the relationship between the researcher and the researched and influence of values. In the following section we shall consider the feasibility of these two issues, particularly in the context of social science research.

a. The Researcher And The Researched Relationship

It is argued that the positivist position of maintaining a dyadic relationship characterised by mutual independence is untenable, particularly in social science research. It is not possible to ensure water-tight controls so as to eliminate or even out contamination. Further, the

very nature of the researcher and researched relationship is mutually interdependent, or at least the later is influenced by the former. The positivist claim of the independence of the researcher and the researched will be examined in terms of issues such as *reactivity, indeterminacy* and *interaction*.

i. *Reactivity*

The issue of reactivity is not troublesome for the positivists undertaking investigations in the physical sciences. However, when the investigations concern human beings, who are conscious and are able to ascribe meaning to a thing, then the matter is different.

Reactivity is a positivist connotation which refers to the contamination of data through the errors generated by the 'subject' as a reaction to his very knowledge of participation in the study. Apart from the awareness of being involved in a study, which may alter a respondent's reaction to the investigator's queries, there are other forms of reactivity. For example, the act of measurement, as in case of pretest, may also influence the test results in subsequent testing (Campbell & Stanley, 1971). Respondents may respond in a way that is expected of them or that pleases the investigator. A well documented instance of reactivity is the 'Hawthorne effect'.

Campbell and Stanley (1971) made exhaustive efforts to identify and categorize the sources of reactivity. They used the term 'threats to internal validity' to connote reactivity. According to them one can eliminate or even out the effects of the threats through the use of statistical and/or field controls. Hence they suggested that experimental designs, particularly the Solomon Four-Group Design, can effectively handle the threats. Expressing scepticism regarding these methods, Lincoln and Guba (1985 : 96) commented that,

"Aside from the obvious impracticality of such a complex design (the number of instances in which its use is reported in the literature is tiny; its main virtue seems to be as an intellectual tour de force to demonstrate that, in principle, the problem can

be solved), it is dubious whether all sources of reactivity are in fact dealt with adequately" [emphasis in original]

They went on to argue that even in cases where very tight field controls are maintained, there are some sources of reactivity which cannot be accounted for. For example, they considered the reactivity in the samples produced by the characteristics (such as sex, ethnicity, age, and dress for instance) of the person administering the treatment and argued that the comparison between experimental group 1 and control group 1 cannot separate out such reactive effects. Further, they went on to argue that it is possible to handle these reactive effects when experimental group 1 and control group 2 are compared, but then it re-introduces the possibility of pretest reactivity.

It is not practically possible to study a phenomenon objectively by maintaining a complete segregation of the 'subject' from all possible 'contamination'. Therefore, the positivist assertion of control and of objective distance stands on vulnerable grounds.

ii. *Indeterminacy*

Heisenberg's Indeterminacy Principle, as mentioned earlier, provided the proof of the proposition that it is impossible to determine both the mass and the momentum of a particle simultaneously. If one is determined, the other remains indeterminate forever. Hiesenberg (1958 : 58) wrote, "*what we observe is not nature itself, but nature exposed to our method of questioning*". It is suggested that the world to-be-known virtually remains indeterminate. The arguments that follow from the indeterminacy principle are not merely limited to physics. When phenomena in social science are considered, the arguments appear to be even more relevant. It is, virtually, a characteristic of substantive theories in all fields and at all levels (Schwartz and Ogilvy, 1979). Finally, Trannel (1981 : 427) commented that,

"If in physics one cannot observe without distorting the object of observation, it seems all the more apparent that distortion must occur when both the observer and the observed are human

persons about whom predictability is precluded by virtue of the uniqueness of each. Without an awareness of the distortion one might be causing by the method of observation, or even an awareness that distortion is possible, one is open to false conclusion." [emphasis added].

Apart from what has been quoted above, Glaser and Strauss's (1967) argument for grounded theory appears to support the state of indeterminacy in social science. An indeterminate state implies that a researcher attempting to study a phenomenon with *a priori* questions, hypotheses, theory or research design, is doomed to set the stage for obtaining a certain observation while truncating a whole lot of other observations.

The state of indeterminacy demonstrates that not only is the researcher not independent of the researched, but they mutually shape each other. Thus, the indeterminate state of nature, invalidates the possibility of the positivist assertion of dualistic relationship, by showing that the researcher and the researched stand in a mutually interacting relationship.

iii. *Interaction*

In discussing the indeterminate state, it has been shown that the researcher and the researched actually shape each other. Here the issue will be elaborated little further. It may be noted that the degree of interaction is far greater in social science than in physical science. Emphasizing the interdependence Romanyshyn and Whalen (1989:29) noted,

'That which is studied is not totally separable from the manner in which it is studied, and the researcher participates in defining the researched'.

The aspect of mutual interaction is explicit in the case of a face-to-face interview or observation. In the process of such an interview or observation, both the researcher and the respondent influence each other's expressed or implied behaviours and responses. No matter who is

in control, it is difficult to imagine a situation where some degree of mutual influence is not present. Even the verbal briefing at the beginning of an highly structured interview influences the respondent and the researcher to some degree. Lincoln and Guba (1985:100) maintained,

"In a very real sense, then, investigator and respondent create the data of the research. Each influences the other and the direction that the data gathering will take in the next moment is actually dependent upon what data have already been collected, and in what manner. There is in the investigator-respondent dyad a transitivity, a continuous unfolding, a series of iterations. Each shapes the other and is shaped by the other". [emphasis in original]

Having considered the issues of reactivity, indeterminacy and interaction, we can assert that in social science, at least, the researcher and the researched relationship does not exist in the sense that the positivist would like to see it.

b. Value-Freedom

From the positivist point of view, a study is not worth doing if it is 'contaminated' by values, because 'objective findings' (i.e., value-freedom) is at the top of positivist agenda. The positivist claims that it is possible to maintain a value-free posture by devising a methodology that can isolate and remove all 'subjective' elements from the inquiry. The underlying assumption for such a claim is that facts and values are separate entities. According to a positivist, values can be isolated from facts by adopting appropriate methodology.

The foregoing section shows that reactivity, indeterminacy and interaction are inevitable in research. Hence, 'value contamination' (as the positivist would like to coin) is inescapable. Further, a number of criticisms may be raised against the claim of value-freedom including the underlying assumption of the separateness of values from facts.

First, the positivist claim is based on the idea of a bifurcated view of reality. It is held that what is determined by facts is a 'real' reality while what is influenced by values is an 'apparent' reality. The dichotomous expression (real and apparent reality) has largely been discredited by the modern epistemologists. Further, the existence of a 'real' reality is dubious not only in hard sciences but also certainly in the social/behavioural sciences (Lincoln and Guba, 1985).

Second, the positivist claim of 'objective reality' is based on the assumption of the existence of separate theoretical and observational languages. A theoretical language is a language for expressing propositions while an observational language is the one used for empirically testing those propositions. The objectivity of a reality will be substantiated if propositions expressed in theoretical language is confirmed by an independent observational language. Hesse (1980) suggests that it is impossible to maintain different sets of languages in conducting an inquiry. This implies that facts are theory-laden i.e., it is impossible to recognize a 'fact' except within the framework of some theory. Theories are themselves constructions which rest on their own axioms and assumptions and thereby they are value determined. If theories are value-determined and facts are theory-laden then facts must also be value-determined.

Third, a number of examples may be found in the history of science that attest to the assertion that inquiries are influenced by values. The examples include, as Guba and Lincoln (1989 : 100) stated,

"the conflict between Galilean astronomy and biblical ascriptions; the influence of British/French politics on the dissemination and acceptance of Lavoisier's oxygen theory in the eighteenth century; the ad hominem attacks on one another by Darwinian and Lamarckian evolution theorists while presumably mounting scientific arguments over the merit of their positions; the particular interpretation of certain experimental data made by North American psychologists which seemed to their British counterparts to reflect political and cultural biases rather scientific judgements"

Even the loyalists of conventional paradigm attest to the fact that an inquiry cannot be value free. Examples of authors include, Bahm (1971), Homans (1978), Kelman (1968), Krathwohl (1980), Morgan and Smircich (1980), and Scriven (1971). These authors make the case that values are determinative of decisions about what to study, how to study it and what interpretation to make (see Lincoln and Guba, 1985; and Guba and Lincoln, 1989).

It is maintained that as long as the act of knowing involves human mind, human subjectivity cannot be eliminated. Nature cannot be viewed as 'it really exist' (if it exist at all in this sense) but can only be viewed through some value window. Values can influence a study in a number of different ways. First, values enter through the person's interest, choice of problem, and focusing of that problem. Second, values enter via the choice of paradigm that guides the investigation. Third, values enter through the choice of the substantive theory used to guide the study among other possible alternative theories. Finally, values enter through the context of the study. Further, choices are to be made regarding the instruments of data collection; the tools and techniques of data analysis; the interpretations of the findings; and the conclusions drawn from such interpretations(Lincoln and Guba, 1985).

Apart from the objections mentioned above, Schwandt (1980) discussed a number of undesirable consequences generated by the positivist claim of value-freedom. These undesirable consequences, in effect, form a second level of objections against the claim of value-freedom. Table 2.2 summarises the consequences. Thus, the foregoing analysis strengthens the position that inquiries in social sciences are destined to be value-bound and the positivist claim of value-freedom is far from being mere possibility.

Table 2.2 The Undesirable Consequences Of The Claim Of Value-Freedom

- *The ritual of method:* Truth becomes defined as the result of an appropriate inquiry methodology, namely, the experimental conduct in a value-free context.
- *Restriction on range of admissible knowledge:* Only those facts accessible to the approved value-free method can count as knowledge.
- *Misdefinition of coherence:* Value-free inquiries are said to display coherence because of their putative imperviousness to any values that might "bias" them. But it is likely that coherence results from nothing more than stability (reliability).
- *Moral inversion:* The fact that value claims precede the selection of designs, instruments, and so on (point 3 above) is obfuscated; values are seen as coming into play only during the interpretation phase of a study.
- *False imputation of normative force:* The claim of value-freedom is seen as a licence to the investigator to tease out the normative implications of findings while legitimizing them as "facts".
- *Forcing political decisions into a technical mode:* Scientific findings are said to have a special claim on decision makers precisely because they are free from value implications; persons engaging in political decision making are especially pressed to be "rational" in giving scientific data top priority.
- *Inappropriate legitimation:* Putatively value-free facts must be taken at face value; they represent the way "things really are" rather than the way "we would like them to be."
- *Obscuring the balance:* Perspectives that do not accord precisely with the scientific "facts" are dismissed as irrelevant; they are unfairly said to represent mere bias.

2.3.3 Challenges At The Methodological Level

So far, various objections to positivism at the ontological and epistemological level have been considered. Now, objections at the methodological level will be examined. The objections at this level principally generate from the positivist goal of prediction and control. The following objections are considered.

a. That The Positivist Methodology Rests On The False Claim Of The Dualism Of Theory-Fact Relationship

The positivist believes that, by virtue of designing methodology, he can pose the questions directly to nature in an objective and natural way and receive nature's undistorted responses. It rests on the claim that theories and facts are independent of each other. The problematic aspect of the dualism of theory-fact relationship has two facets- one, the underdetermination of theory (sometimes called the problem of induction) and the other, the theory-ladenness of facts.

Underdetermination implies that a number of theories can be generated from a given set of data. In the case of induction, there are always many conclusions that can reasonably be related to certain premises. Thus, there are always a large number of theories that can fit observations more or less adequately, hence there cannot be any ultimate theory.

The assertion that facts are theory-laden imply that it is impossible to conceive separate theoretical and observational languages. Facts themselves can be construed as facts only within some theoretical framework; facts in and of themselves have no absolute meaning. Schütz (1962 : 5) wrote,

"All our knowledge of the social world, in common-sense as well as in scientific thinking involves constructs, i.e., a set of abstractions, generalizations, formalizations, idealizations specific to the respective level of thought organization. Strictly speaking, there are no such things as facts, pure and simple. All facts are from the outset facts selected from a universal context by the activities of our mind. They are, therefore, always

interpreted facts, either facts looked at as detached from their context by an artificial abstraction or facts considered in their particular setting. In either case, they carry along their interpreted inner and outer horizon"

Thus, it is impossible to conceive of any conclusive theory without an infinite number of facts, and vice-versa. As Lincoln and Guba (1985 : 26) put it :

"... truth of propositions (facts on trial) cannot be determined except in relation to a true theory, ... [again] ... true theories cannot be derived because of the problem of underdetermination. Hence the reasoning is entirely circular".

The positivists, on the contrary, believe that independent empirical tests can be performed since there exist separate observational and theoretical languages. The theoretical language expresses propositions while the observational language empirically tests those propositions. The idea is that, through the observational language, empirical tests can generate facts from data, which testify to the truth or falsity of the propositions that were generated through the theoretical language. Guba and Lincoln (1989 : 65) averred that,

"the whole point in insisting on operational definition of concepts is to assure that such a distinction will exist. Otherwise, the test may be biased and may result in a tautology- a circular argument."

They went on to mention that the major reason for the formation of the Vienna Circle of Logical Positivists in the early part of this century was to devise a system of doing science that was independent of the concepts used by scientists to cast their ideas into propositional or theoretical form.

As facts and theories cannot be independent, the positivist claim of a methodology that ensures objectivity is an impossible claim. The lack of independence of theory and fact makes whatever is to-be-known indeterminate i.e., one can never hope to 'know' anything conclusively but only persuasively.

b. That Conventional Methodology Is Unable To Guarantee Its Own Claims Of Generating Findings Which Is Isomorphic With Reality

The ultimate test of validity according to realist ontology is one-to-one correspondence i.e., isomorphism of findings with 'reality'. It is, however, impossible to establish such isomorphism because correspondence of the findings with the 'reality' cannot be established. If correspondence were to be established, then one has to know the 'reality' in order to compare it with the findings, and if the 'reality' is known the whole point of conducting a study is meaningless.

A hypothesis can at best be falsified but can never be verified (Popper, 1959). For this reason one observes the use of null hypothesis. Rejection of a null hypothesis does not necessarily imply the acceptance of any alternative hypothesis. Falsifications undoubtedly falls short of the sort of claim positivism makes. The potency of positivist methodology is thus called into question by the very lack of its ability to guarantee the claims it makes. Furthermore, in conventional methodology, the assumption of randomness adopted by the statistical models is diametrically opposite to positivism. This assumption implies that reality is a series of *chance, random and unrelated happenings*. To assert, as the result of a statistical test, that the 'null hypothesis' is rejected, is simply to assert that the proposition of randomness is not tenable, but it does not assert that, therefore, reality must have such-and-such a form.

c. That Operationalism, As An Overwhelming Methodological Predisposition Of The Conventionalist, Has Been Increasingly Judged To Be Inadequate

It was mentioned in the preceding paragraph that the propositions developed through the theoretical language had to be expressed in operational terms before they could be empirically tested.

The problem of operationalism has been vividly captured by Julienne Ford (1975: 149) who, in describing operationism in terms of Percy Bridgman, said that,

*"Bridgman's argument is quite simply that to be meaningful a variable must be defined in terms of the measurement operation that would be involved in detecting it in reality. This view is usually termed **operationism** (though it is sometimes referred to as **operationalism**) and it amounts to the methodological assertion that any variable which cannot be directly represented by a measurement operation has no place in science. Thus a hypothesis like 'Those rabbits will be afraid' is regarded as meaningless. However, the statement, 'those rabbits will be seen to be emitting more faecal boluses per hour than is normal for rabbits' is perfectly meaningful as far as Bridgman and his men are concerned. Fear, then, is meaningless to the operationist but an observably increasing defecation rate does have a meaning"*

Thus operationalism entirely depends on sensation for its 'facts'. It is a lower order mental activity, and utterly refuses to take account meanings or implications.

One would intuitively realize that there are innumerable aspects of one's psycho-social milieu which cannot be expressed in measurable terms! The positivists would reject these non-measurable aspects as meaningless.

As Horkheimer and Adorno (1976 : 6-7) noted,

"Whatever does not conform to the rule of computation and utility is suspect; and whatever cannot be reduced to numbers - and ultimately to the one - becomes illusion"

Although, as mentioned above, the aspects of psycho-social milieu cannot be expressed in terms of numbers they are in fact extremely meaningful and enormously significant to an individual, a group, or an organization.

Furthermore, as facts are theory laden, operationally defined facts cannot escape being theory laden as well. Despite their efforts to devise a sound scientific language, the Vienna Circle of Logical Positivists and their adherents, have been unable to rid science of its metaphysical underpinnings (Lincoln and Guba, 1985).

The strict practice of operationalism results in a meaningless fragmentation of the world. To the instrument centred operationalist nothing exists except what an instrument measures. Consequently, even such conceptually close entities as two IQ scores measured by two different IQ tests must be asserted to be different despite a high correlation between them.

Finally, it can be stressed that by attempting to reduce everything to measurable terms, the positivists both make an enquiry increasingly complex while disregarding a significant chunk of knowledge. Consequently, they produce findings that are insignificant and largely meaningless.

d. That Conventional Methodology Disregards The Humanness Of The Respondents

The respondents are treated as a 'thing' to be studied by the conventionalists. It is not at all surprising to encounter such terms as 'subjects' in the positivists literature as if the respondents were guinea pigs. The notion of 'subject' in the literature can be described using a metaphorical situation. Imagine a neatly dressed investigator with a cool and calculating brain maintaining a discrete distance and objectively looking into the anatomy and physical characteristics of his 'subjects'. The 'investigator' appears to be the only intelligent being armed with a water tight methodology to extract data from inert, mindless, motionless 'subjects' with his probing questions. Such maltreatment of humans, by reducing them to objects of study under conventional methodology, has not only ethical but also validity implications.

Let us first consider the ethical implications. Apart from treating humans (who are intelligent, have dignity, and self-respect) as objects of study, conventional methodology finds itself justified in deceiving the respondents. Deception is inherent in positivism. This is not surprising since positivist ontology asserts the existence of an 'objective reality', and seeks to uncover the 'truth' which is supposedly masked by contaminating and confounding influences. It therefore adopts whatever

means it feels necessary (including deception) in order to arrive at the 'hidden truth'.

Guba and Lincoln (1989 : 120) criticizing positivism stated that,

"In order to accomplish rendering the study as confounding- or contamination-proof as possible (and, therefore, to approximate 'reality' ever more closely), it is thought sometimes appropriate, or even necessary, to deceive the 'subjects' (humans who are, by that very term, dehumanized and objectified, that is made into objects), to invade their privacy without their prior knowledge, to place them at physical or psychological risk, or otherwise to exploit them for the researcher's or evaluator's own private or professional ends".

Deception occurs in a wide variety of ways. Examples include the concealment of the purpose of research; providing misleading information; lying; not informing the respondents that they are being studied (e.g. by the use of one-way mirrors) and so forth. The positivist would stress that 'debriefing' remedies the harm done. Debriefing hardly redresses the intense sensitivity of a respondent who has felt that he has been duped. It fails to return to the respondent his dignity and confidence, and ultimately undermines the credibility of all social science research (Baumrind, 1979, 1985).

There is another ethical problem against which conventional methodology cannot ensure safeguards. Respondents who are also stakeholders, cannot be protected from their loss of power and freedom. If information is power, withholding information from one and providing it to the other amounts to the reduction of power in case of the former while enhancement of it in case of the latter. As a consequence of the loss of power, freedom is also likely to be lost. Voting from the position of power (i.e., possessing information and knowledge) is likely to carry more weight than voting without. Furthermore, through the process of manipulation of power and freedom, the findings of the study can be used to fix the blame where it is politically expedient to do so. Thus the accountability for the failures are fixed upon the weakest links, while they are indeed *collective* products!

The possibility of such an occurrence is wide open in the conventional methodology because everything in the study (as we shall see later) is determined either by the researcher or by the researcher in association with his client. The respondents, therefore, lack control over the study and are unable to secure any safeguards against a loss of power or freedom.

As mentioned earlier, disregarding the humanness of respondents also implies that the validity of the study can be suspected. This draws attention to the researcher controlled preordinate designs of the conventional methodology. All aspects of research are researcher determined and these include, problem identification; choice of theory; development of proposition and hypothesis; operationalizing the variables; instrumentations; collection, analysis and interpretation of data; generation of findings and finally the use of the findings. The respondents play no role other than being a passive provider of data. Being researcher controlled, the study lacks relevance to the respondents' needs, concerns, interests or problems. The respondent does not have the ownership of the findings. Therefore the validity of the findings, which do not bear any relevance to respondents' needs etc., can be called into question.

e. That Conventional Methodology Strips Off Context In The Name Of Discovering Reality Objectively

The world, as viewed by the conventionalist, is made up of all sorts of contaminating features which confound and contaminate the phenomena under research. The task is, therefore, to enforce control either statistically or physically, in order to steer a way through the jungle of these influences in order to uncover the 'objective reality'. Therefore, it does not appear unreasonable to strip away the context so as to uncover the bare 'objective reality' under the methodology designed for conventional inquiry.

It can be argued that the excessive preoccupation with internal validity (ensured by isolating the contextual influence) renders a study to be increasingly less externally valid. Highly controlled, laboratory like

investigations will produce results that are only applicable to laboratory like situations and not to the actual world! Even the researchers whose principal allegiance is to the conventional paradigm are troubled by context stripping and have called for the conduct of research in a more natural setting.

Devising ways (which simultaneously ensure both internal and external validity) of doing research in a more natural setting, are viewed as a mere technical problem. However, when Schwartz and Ogilvy's (1979) 'New Paradigm'¹ is taken into account, it becomes apparent that such a problem is something more than merely technical. In support of the point just made, some of Schwartz and Ogilvy's characteristics are considered in the following paragraphs.

According to these authors-

- Diversity and interactivity are characteristics of reality and in principle it is impossible to separate a thing from its interactive environment. The environment consists of different elements in which the whole is more than its parts.
- The order in nature is not hierarchic, but heterarchic. This means that multiple orders exist side by side. Which order is predominant at any moment depends on a number of interacting and rapidly shifting factors.
- The images of system are metaphorically, *holographic* i.e., everything is interconnected like a vast network of interference pattern, having been generated by a dynamic process and in which complete information of the whole is contained in the parts.

1 The term "New Paradigm" represents the characteristics of 'disciplinary world views' and has not been used in the sense of an "Inquiry Paradigm". These authors analyzed the emerging concepts in various disciplines and sub-disciplines (like Physics, Chemistry, Brain theory, Ecology, Evolution, Mathematics, Philosophy, Politics, Psychology, Linguistics, Religion, Consciousness and the Arts) and developed certain characteristics of the new paradigm. These characteristics are at stark variance with the "Old Paradigm". It may be stated that positivism has the ingredients of "Old Paradigm".

- The future state of systems is in principle indeterminate and unpredictable.
- The entities are not related in terms of linear causation, rather they are related in terms of mutual causation. For example, in symbiosis, where entity A and entity B evolve and change together, each affects the other in such a way as to make the distinction between cause and effect meaningless.
- The systems can no longer be viewed in mechanical terms as assembly of parts. Rather they are *morphogenetic*. This implies that an open and complex system (composed of elements that interact by mutually causal and indeterminate process) can evolve spontaneously into a new form which is unpredicted by any of its parts.

The characteristics of the 'New Paradigm' suggest that the issue of ensuring both internal and external validity cannot be addressed technically by adopting some ways of doing research. In fact, the whole question of internal and external validity (in the positivist sense) becomes redundant.

Thus, what follows from the above analysis is that the attempt to strip off the context from the phenomena under study in the name of control for uncovering 'objective reality' is not only inappropriate, but is also counter-productive.

2.3.4 Why Is The Conventional Paradigm So Popular?

Having discussed the limitations of the conventional paradigm, it is only fair to explore why it is so popular. Some ground work is necessary to answer such question

As indicated in the introduction of this chapter, the task undertaken could have been addressed from two perspectives of sophistication. First, from a lower perspective, based on the argument that social science and physical science are different and therefore what is appropriate in physical

science is not appropriate in social science. Second, from a more sophisticated perspective, involving the philosophical concerns which run deeper than mere incompatibility of methods. Since, the criticisms levelled against positivism basically relate to the second perspective, one is inclined to maintain that positivism has very little to offer when its philosophical underpinnings are considered. However, Table 2.3 shows that adopting a practical perspective (thereby deviating from the hard-line philosophical position to a more liberal one) and suspending the philosophical criticisms for the time being while moving to the first perspective, one would not fail to notice the strengths of positivism in *specific-disciplines*. When these disciplines are considered, the utility of the 'pragmatic criteria' (i.e., prediction and control) of positivism provides some meaningful purpose.

Table 2.3 A Table Showing The Hard Line And The Liberal Position Of Conventional Paradigm

Conventional Paradigm	
Hard liner	Liberal
Objective Reality	Perceived Reality
Nomic Generalization	Probable inference/ time & context relative generalization.
Linear Causality	Functional relationship
Researcher/Researched dualism	Researcher/Researched dualism
Value-freedom	Aims at value-freedom but recognizes the influences of values
This position suffers from severe limitation philosophically and is practically impossible to achieve.	Does have similar philosophical limitations but in specific disciplines its goals are achievable.

While all areas of inquiry are critical, some are more critical than others. Setting aside areas like quantum physics, molecular biology or social science, positivism demonstrates some degree of success in predicting and controlling phenomena. Disciplines or areas that fall in what Schwartz

and Ogilvy (1979) term as the "old paradigm", are best suited for positivist inquiry. Using some of the elements of Schwartz and Ogilvy's framework the characteristics of those disciplines or areas may be summarized as follows:

a. *Simple Realities*

Areas or disciplines in which diversity and interactivity are not characteristics of reality; and in order to study a phenomenon it is possible to single out one or a few elements while holding everything else constant. In these cases the whole is regarded as simply the sum of its parts.

b. *Mechanical Image*

Metaphorically speaking, the disciplines that portray the image of a machine fall into this category. This implies that the working of a phenomenon may be understood in terms of the working of a machine as if it were made up of various parts, each connected to the other in a definite pattern. Any change in one part would lead to a predictable change in the other part(s).

c. *Determinate State*

Disciplines that exhibit the characteristics mentioned above also exhibit a state of determinism. This assumes that the elements in a phenomenon have fixed and reliable linkages and, therefore, the present and the future states can be predicted and controlled.

d. *Functional Relationship*

Disciplines that resemble a deterministic and mechanical model also exhibit the properties of functional relationship between the various elements.

e. Operationalization

Apart from what has been said in the above paragraphs, disciplines that offer the possibility of ease of operationalization of the various concepts are more suited for conventional inquiry. The concepts such as space, mass, time etc., on final analysis are mental constructions (abstract ideas). Nevertheless they have been expressed in operational terms by devising scales for measuring length, weight and time with remarkable success. To a lesser degree of success, concepts such as currency value, demand, inflation etc. as in economics or concepts such as value of assets, owners equity, stock, depreciation etc. as in accounting, have been operationalized. Finally, the concepts such as fear, passion etc., as in psychology has been operationalized with little or no success. The point made is that the greater the success of operationalization, the greater the possibility of quantitative expression; greater the precision of the quantitative expression, and hence the greater the potential for manipulating variables for the purpose of prediction and control.

Having outlined some of the characteristics of the disciplines in which positivism might demonstrate some success, the strength of positivism may be summarized as follows.

a. Easy to perform

One of the strengths of conventional inquiry is that it is relatively easy to perform. The investigator, according to the rules of the game, does not have to indulge into the 'muddy' state of the context of the inquiry. The investigator knows what he does not know, thus he is able to formulate *a priori* hypotheses and collect data through the use of appropriate instruments, analyze data using statistical tools either to accept or reject the hypotheses. In most cases the data generated is quantitative in nature hence, computers can be used for data processing.

b. Quantitative Expression

In a conventional inquiry the measurement and quantitative expression of a phenomenon provide the advantage of the ease of description, explanation, prediction and control. The nature of the variables in the category of disciplines mentioned above lend themselves to successful operationalization and measurement making it possible to express in concrete terms.

c. Objective Knowledge

Essentially those disciplines, that deal with inert or mindless being incapable of ascribing any meaning, may quite reasonably maintain dualistic relationship between the researcher and the researched. Hence, conventional inquiry can arrive at a reasonably objective conclusion regarding the subject of study.

d. Explanation

When an area or discipline is characterized by the mechanical and deterministic model, conventional inquiry is successful in generating the possible functional relationships between variables in order to explain a phenomenon.

e. Generalization

Under conditions of determinism and a reasonably steady state, conventional inquiry may generate probable inferences which are time and context relative.

f. Prediction and Control

With the formulation of probable and relative generalizations concerning the functional relationships, the conventional inquiry may be successful in predicting a phenomenon and control it.

2.4 Summary

The basic aim of this chapter has been to set the rationale for the exploration of alternative ways for conducting this study. Hence, the conventional paradigm was critically examined in this chapter. Its limitations and also its strengths in specific areas under certain conditions were highlighted. It was argued that the conventional paradigm is inappropriate for research in social science. One is therefore in favour of rejecting the conventional paradigm for the purpose of this study. This implies that, ontologically, one rejects the idea of 'objective reality', time and context free generalization, and linear causality. Epistemologically, one rejects the idea of researcher-researched dualism and value-freedom. Methodologically, one rejects the idea of intervention and control and preordinate designs. The rejection of the philosophical and methodological assumptions of conventional paradigm does not necessarily provide the way for conducting any research. This calls for the simultaneous exploration of the alternatives. The following chapter therefore is geared towards that end. The constructivist and the phenomenological paradigms will be explored in the next chapter in an attempt to seek an alternative for conducting this particular research.

Chapter 3

THE ALTERNATIVE PARADIGMS

Constructivism and Phenomenology

The task of examining the paradigms of inquiry for the selection of appropriate methodology that was initiated in the preceding chapter takes its final form in this chapter. The previous chapter offered a critique of the conventional paradigm. It identified the difficulties associated with the philosophical and methodological assumptions of the conventional paradigm and thereby set up the rationale for this chapter. In view of the limitations of the conventional paradigm this chapter explores, in some detail, the constructivist paradigm and the phenomenological paradigm.

A number of reasons can be offered for considering constructivism and phenomenology in this chapter. First, both the paradigms demonstrate the inadequacy of positivism in social science research. Unlike the 'qualitative' approaches, such as participant observation, grounded theory (Glaser and Strauss, 1967), case study, unstructured interview that focus on the technique level, constructivism and phenomenology focus not only on that level but also upon the ontological and epistemological level. Second, besides offering criticisms, these two paradigms also provide alternative ways of conducting research that are grounded on such fundamental issues as the nature of reality and the ways of knowing it. Third, phenomenology has a long tradition that is firmly grounded. A wide range of theories were developed based on the phenomenological tradition. For example, the 'theory of personal constructs' (Kelly, 1955; Bannister and Fransella, 1980), the 'action theory' (Silverman, 1970), the 'symbolic interaction', (Blumer, 1969; Shibutani, 1973), the 'cognitive sociology' (Cicourel, 1973) and ethnomethodology (Garfinkel, 1967). Phenomenology's strong base as a research approach certainly justifies its consideration. Constructivism, on the other hand, is a recent development. Although the ideas of naturalistic inquiry that constructivism incorporates are not new, it is only recently that they have been articulated in a comprehensive system and been given a paradigmatic structure. This paradigm has contributed significantly to evaluation research (see Guba and Lincoln, 1989). It can, however, be applied to research in any field of social science. Constructivism, as a new paradigm, is evolving and

hence, it seems legitimate to explore its usefulness and to offer any criticisms. Its treatment, therefore, is not out of place.

The discussion of the paradigms reveals that both the paradigms persuasively offer alternatives to handle the limitations of conventional paradigm in undertaking social science research. Both seem to be appropriate in understanding the 'here and now' problems. Constructivism suspects the appropriateness of applying the findings of one study to other situations. However, experience suggests that there are some degree of continuity and some commonality of understanding in time and in place. We do not have to re-discover life at every encounter we may have. Hence, after assessing the paradigms, the author finds it appropriate to adopt the phenomenological methodology for this study.

The chapter contains the following sections. The first section considers the constructivist paradigm, and explores its position on the ontological, epistemological and methodological issues. It also shows how this paradigm addresses the limitations of positivism. The second section considers the phenomenological paradigm. After providing a brief discussion of phenomenology, the key phenomenological concepts are discussed for the purpose of ensuring clarity and appreciation of the paradigm. The third section then considers the phenomenological position in terms of the philosophical issues mentioned earlier and attempts to show how phenomenology resolves the difficulties of positivism. The fourth section assesses the paradigms for facilitating the choice between the two. In this section a critique of constructivism is offered. The inconsistencies and difficulties embedded in this paradigm are explored. In addition to this, the limitations of phenomenology are also considered in this section. Finally the last section summarizes the chapter.

3.1 The Constructivist Paradigm

The focus of this section is upon the constructivist paradigm. Apart from discussing the constructivist position this section also endeavours to address the criticisms of the conventional paradigm. The belief structure of the constructivist paradigm is outlined in the Table 3.1. This structure will now be elaborated.

Table 3.1 The Constructivist Belief Structure

<p>A RELATIVIST ONTOLOGY asserts that there exist multiple, socially constructed realities unguided by any natural laws, causal or otherwise. "Truth" is defined as the best informed (amount and quality of information) and most sophisticated (power with which information is understood and used) construction on which there is consensus (although there may be several constructions extant that simultaneously meet that criterion)</p> <p>A MONISTIC SUBJECTIVIST EPISTEMOLOGY asserts that an inquirer and the inquired-into are interlocked in such a way that the findings of an investigation are the literal creation of the inquiry process. Note that this posture effectively destroys the classical ontology-epistemology distinction.</p> <p>A HERMENEUTIC METHODOLOGY involves a continuing dialectic of iteration, analysis, critique, reiteration, re-analysis and so on, leading to the emergence of a joint (among all the inquirers and the respondents, or among etic and emic views) construction of a case.</p>
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(Based on Guba and Lincoln, 1989)

3.1.1 The Relativist Ontology

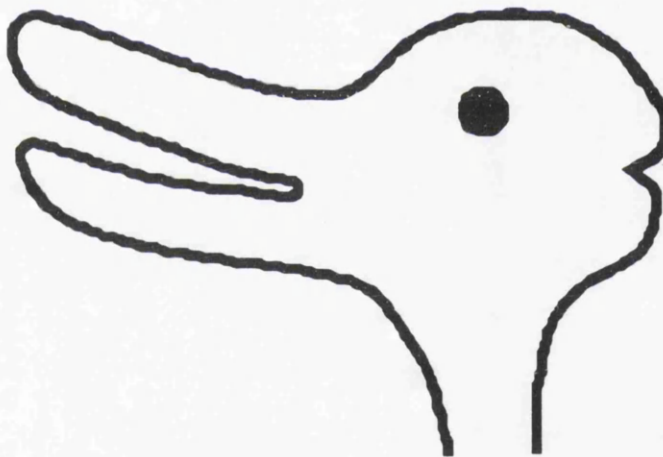
The constructivist position on the ontological issues and the ways in which it addresses the limitations of positivism is organized with categories such as reality, generalization and causality.

a. Reality

Following the criticisms of the realist ontology, the relativist ontology posits that there can be no reality as such that exists 'out there' independent of the observer. On the contrary, realities are the mental constructions of individuals. Since, there are numerous individuals, so too are there multiple realities. These multiple realities are socially constructed through the process of an individual's interactions with his environment. They are created as individuals attempt to make sense of their experience in such interactions. The realities are formed on the basis of the constructor's prior knowledge and his level of sophistication. The joint constructions (realities) evolve through

the dialectic negotiations of the constructors. For example, if two persons were asked what they see in the Figure 3.1, person A, who has never seen a rabbit, sees a duck; while person B, who has never seen a duck, sees a rabbit. For them, the reality they see is either a duck or a rabbit. Now each person, through a process dialectical negotiations, wishes to convince the other of his own position by providing information of what he himself knows about the animal. Depending on the level of information and their sophistication, they may settle for one animal, or agree that the figure is neither a duck nor a rabbit but a mixture of the two. Alternatively, they may have their original position reinforced through negotiations. They may disagree with each other. In the first two situations they achieve joint constructions of two realities, while the last situation illustrates equally informed and sophisticated constructions representing multiple realities that exist side by side.

Figure 3.1 **An Illustration Of Joint Construction**



All constructions must be considered as meaningful unless evidence to the contrary can be shown. Realities are not governed by *immutable natural laws* and since they are not governed by such laws, there cannot be *time-and-context-free generalizations*. If there is no objective reality, no natural laws (i.e., generalizations), then the *cause-effect relationships* are mental imputations.

In contrast to the realist ontology in which truth is considered to be isomorphic to reality, the relativist ontology asserts that 'truth' (as it were) is simply the most informed and sophisticated construction on which there is

consensus. Hence, 'truths' are never absolute. Certainly constructions are open to continuous alterations and challenges in order to formulate ever more informed and sophisticated constructions.

b. Generalization

As mentioned earlier, the type of generalizations that the positivists emphasize are nomic generalizations. These generalizations are considered to be time and context free. Further, it was indicated that positivist's generalizations are impossible to achieve, hence, they are rather illusive. Having said that, it becomes necessary to examine how the issue of generalization is handled by the constructivists.

Lincoln and Guba (1985) borrowed the term 'working hypothesis' from Cronbach (1975), to describe the constructivist's position on generalization. The essence of Cronbach's (1975) idea is that there are always elements unique in a given situation that make it fruitless to generalize. Hence, it is important for the inquirer to recognize these elements and take them into account. Cronbach (1975) further stressed that as the inquirer moved from situation to situation, his task was to describe and interpret the effect anew in each locale in the light of the uniqueness of each new situation. When proper weight to local conditions is given, any finding can at best be working hypothesis and not a conclusion.

The working hypotheses are tentative, both for the situations in which they are first uncovered, and also for other situations. Situations always differ from each other. Even the same situation changes over time. Associated with this idea of 'working hypothesis', there are two more concepts, *transferability* and *fittingness*. Transferability denotes the degree of application of the inferences generated from one context to another. Fittingness denotes the degree of congruence between the context from which inferences are generated and the context to which such inferences are intended to be applied. Transferability is a function of fittingness i.e., if the two contexts are 'sufficiently' congruent, then the working hypotheses from the originating context may be applicable to the receiving context.

To make a good judgement of transferability one needs information about both the contexts. It is unreasonable to expect the inquirer to provide the necessary information regarding the contexts in which working hypothesis might be transferred. This is because, the inquirer cannot possibly know the contexts in which someone might wish to use the research findings. However, it is reasonable to expect an inquirer to provide all the necessary information, i.e., a 'thick description' regarding the originating context. This would enable the person who is interested in such transfer, to compare his own context and judge the fittingness of the contexts involved.

c. *Causality*

In view of the difficulties with the concept of causality, the constructivists are in favour of abandoning it altogether and replacing it with the concept of '*mutual simultaneous shaping*'. It may be noted that, this concept has been used for the purpose of *understanding* and *management*¹ as opposed to 'prediction' and 'control', used in the positivist sense. Hence, mutual simultaneous shaping is not merely a replacement of the various concepts for causality, it rather involves a paradigmatic shift. The concept of mutual simultaneous shaping implies that everything influences everything else in the 'here-and-now'. Many elements are involved in any given action. Each element interacts with other elements in ways that change them while simultaneously changing it. There is no directionality of such change. The change occurs mutually and simultaneously involves all other elements. All elements are involved as "contingently necessary" (Nurmi, 1974) in the sense that they participate in a synergistic relationship that activates them all. Moreover, the resulting shaping is, "circumstance relative" (Nurmi, 1974) in that there are plurality of shapers, with each one becoming meaningful in a way that depends on varying circumstances or conditions.

According to Lincoln and Guba (1985) this formulation recognized that,

- All elements in a situation are in mutual and continual interaction.

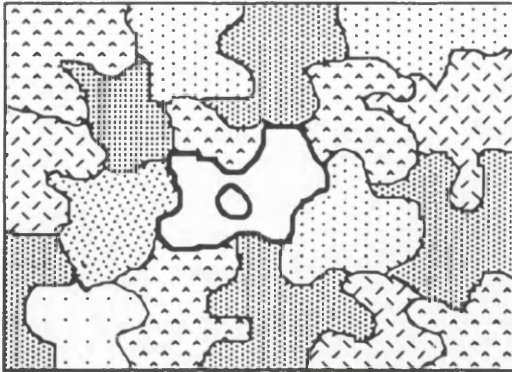
1 These concepts will be elaborated shortly.

- Each element is activated in its own way by virtue of the particular configuration of all other elements *-potential shapers-* that is assumed at that time in that place.
- Judgement about which potential shapers may be most plausibly implicated in explaining and/or managing whatever it is that the investigator wishes to explain or manage is a matter both for the circumstances that exist and of the investigator's purpose; the investigator asks him-or herself, "what is most plausible to invoke given that purpose?"
- The peculiar web or pattern of circumstances that characterize a given situation may never occur in just that same way again, so that explanations and management actions are in a real sense unique and cannot be understood as implying either predictability or control.
- Explanations are at best 'here-and-now' accounts that represent a 'photographic slice of life' of a dynamic process that, in the next instant, might present a very different aspect.

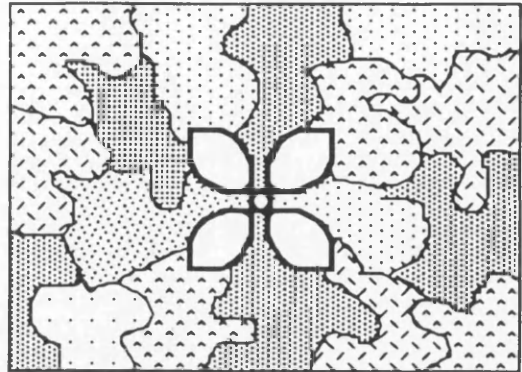
The idea of working hypothesis that evolves through mutual and simultaneous shapings is metaphorically illustrated in Figure 3.2. The notes at the bottom of the figure clarify it. Box A and the Box C represent different contexts (X and Y) where different sets of elements mutually and simultaneously shape every other element within each set. The shapings constitute an ongoing dynamic state. Each box in the figure represents a photographic slice of a stream of events. Box B represents a situation of context X where, as a result of the investigator's purpose, the problem and the ongoing shapings, the 'working hypothesis' evolves through a process of hermeneutic-dialectic negotiations. For example, the flower-like configuration 'D' evolves as the 'working hypothesis' in the context X which is shown as the central white piece in Box B. Although the contexts X and Y have similar (but not identical) problems shown by the similar white central piece in the boxes A and C respectively, the working hypothesis (the flower-like configuration shown in figure D) evolves from the context X and cannot be fitted (applied) to context Y because of the diversity of the two contexts. Note that Box A and Box B are different, and this expresses the differences of

Figure 3.2 An Illustration Of 'Working Hypothesis'

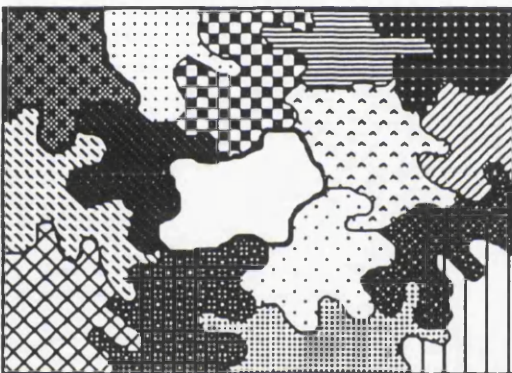
(Box A)
Context "X"
Before Investigation



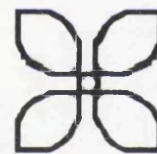
(Box B)
Context "X"
After Investigation



(Box C)
Context "Y"



(D)
Working Hypothesis



- Note:
- Each piece in the 'jigsaw puzzle-like' figures indicates a 'shaper'.
 - The different shapes & textures of each such piece indicate the diversity among the 'shapers' and as a result, between the contexts.
 - The irregularity of the pieces indicate a fluid state of 'mutual simultaneous shapings' in a given context.
 - The central white piece in the boxes 'A' and 'C' indicate the problems or the issues which emerged out of the process of 'mutual simultaneous shapings'. The problems are similar but not identical.
 - The central 'flower-like piece' in box 'B' indicate the 'working hypothesis' (the solution of the problem in box 'A') that emerged out of the 'Hermeneutic Dialectic Negotiations' among the 'shapers' involved.

the contexts involved. The differences are attributable to the different shapers (expressed by the different forms and textures of each jigsaw puzzle-like pieces) between the two contexts. As a result of the diversity (i.e., lack of fittingness), the constructivists argue, a different 'working hypothesis is likely to evolve from the context Y.

Lincoln and Guba (1985) argued that the adoption of the concept of mutual simultaneous shaping is necessary for two reasons. First, the need for explanation remains an important one, even for the constructivist. However, the term 'explanation' is used here in the sense of *understanding* a phenomenon and not in the positivist sense of specifying the causal links.

Second, the constructivist retain the need for and an interest in the management of human phenomena. Again, the term *management* is used in the sense that it is possible to shape human affairs in a desired direction, of course, with a great deal of uncertainty and not in the positivist sense of the deterministic control implied in the concept of causality.

Understanding involves ascribing a plausible meaning to a phenomenon with reference to the investigator's purpose. Such purpose forms the frame of reference for selecting and filtering those shapers (out of the on-going complex set of mutually interacting events in given setting) that provide a meaningful perspective. Lincoln and Guba (1985 : 152) held that,

'what we do in coming to an understanding is to impose an intelligible structure of discrete events upon the continuous stream of occurrences; we do it in the way that is most useful for our purpose.'

While the positivist connotation of the term implies the appreciation of the 'real' causal links, understanding refers to imposing a purposive structure that emerges from the interaction between the investigator and the phenomenon in order to generate insights from the innumerable mutually interacting shapers. Lincoln and Guba (1985 : 152) further mentioned that,

'What emerges from the interaction ... is a constructed reality that is shaped in equal proportion by the investigator's purpose and the phenomenon's presentational aspect. Understanding results from appreciation of the myriad mutual shapers that are synchronously

on-going and abstracting from the complexity a sub-system that serves the investigator's needs.'

The idea of 'management' is a combination of 'enabling' and 'blocking'/'masking' actions. Enabling refers to the introduction of elements into a context so as to make it possible for a desired adjustment or behaviour to express itself. It may be noted that, as opposed to the positivist notion of an engineered outcome, enabling implies the making of efforts to create an appropriate state so that the desired outcome may manifest itself under conditions of innumerable simultaneous shapings in an on-going context. For example, a captain's effort, to win the football match by substituting a mid-fielder with an extraordinary striker (an enabling act). In this case, the desired outcome (winning the match) does not automatically follow from the intervention (substitution of player). As a result of a host of other elements, the striker may not be able to score goals. Hence, while enabling may make it possible for the desired outcome to express itself, it does not guarantee their occurrence. There are no infallible cause-effect linkages in the process. Nevertheless the 'native activity'² is shaped, directed, refracted and funnelled in particular ways through enabling acts. As mentioned earlier, the concept of management also contains the notion of blocking or masking. The expression of an enabled act may be prevented by the contextual constraints. Blocking or masking actions involve counter-acting the effects of contextual constraints on an enabled action. Thus in order to manage an outcome, one has to introduce minimum enabling elements and simultaneously block or mask the most obvious constraining forces. However, one can never exactly know all of the enablers or constraints. Therefore, what would constitute 'minimal enabling elements' or the 'most obvious constraints' are matters of judgement. This implies that there can never be any certain outcome, because it all depends on the number and nature of the enablers introduced, the blockers and/or maskers applied, the nature and the dynamics of the simultaneous shapers including the remaining constraining forces.

At this point one can notice the distinction between the positivist and the constructivist positions. Following the positivist position, it would be

2. By 'native activity' Lincoln and Guba (1985) refer to the baseline of activity or behaviour against which later activities or behaviours might be judged. In terms of management this is considered to be the state of activity or behaviour prior to management intervention.

natural to assume that the focus is on the manager who is in control of the situation and manipulates the outcome according to some invariant causal mechanisms. The object or the person affected is only a passive instrument in the positivist equation. In contrast, the focus in the constructivist position is on the object or the person affected. The object or person is in a constant flux or change and adjustment; a state in which multifarious contextual elements are engaged in simultaneous shapings. In this given situation, all that the manager can do is to provide some of the known enabling factors and block or mask some of the known constraining factors. In either case, what the manager cannot do is to institute any 'cause' to obtain a desired effect. This implies that whatever statements of understanding one can make are only assertions of plausible relationships based on apprehended (constructed) enablers and constraints.

Finally, two further complications merit attention. First, the manager loses control over the enablers, blockers or maskers immediately after they are introduced. Soon after such elements are injected into an on-going dynamic context, they themselves become caught up in the mutual shaping process and produce unpredictable changes. For example, management training programmes produce results that were not anticipated beforehand. As indicated earlier, such interventions influences all other elements while simultaneously being influenced by them. Hence, the outcomes are rather morphogenetic, and the manager has no control over them. Second, such enablers, blockers and maskers may produce unanticipated (but important) side effects. For example, the provision of incentives (enabler) may interact with the context and produce job stress along with or instead of producing increased work efficiency.

3.1.2 Monistic Subjectivist Epistemology

In this section, the epistemological position of the constructivist paradigm will be considered. In addition, the ways in which it overcomes the criticisms of positivism will also be discussed. The structure of the discussion is based upon the issues of *the researcher-researched relationship*, and *the influence of values*.

a. *Researcher-Researched Relationship*

It was argued earlier that the positivist claim of 'objective' knowledge is impossible to meet. Hence, the assumption of the dualistic relationship between the researcher and the researched is inappropriate. Therefore, the constructivists are in favour of rejecting this dyad. In response to the criticisms of the conventional paradigm, the constructivists hold the view that the inquirer and the inquired into are intertwined. They suggest that the relationship is determined through continuous inputs from both ends. It is therefore impossible to insulate one from the other to maintain so called 'objectivity'. They further argue that it is precisely this interaction that generates improved and sophisticated constructions. Thus, the constructivist position eliminates the ontology-epistemology distinction. Since reality does not exist independently of the researcher, or put in other words, since reality is created in the process of inquiry, it is impossible to ask independently what is the nature of reality, and what is its relationship with the researcher.

b. *Influence of values*

It was observed that the influence of values was an inescapable consequence of any study. Inquiries are conducted by human beings, and in case of social science, in a human setting. For a human being, it is impossible to transcend either his own humanness and human subjectivity or that of others. It is precisely this humanness and human subjectivity that make a human being what he/she is. Values are closer to the core of humanness than any other characteristics of human beings. Unlike the positivists, the constructivists maintain that values cannot simply be regarded as distracters or nuisances that interfere with the efficient conduct of an inquiry. Instead, they must be acknowledged and accorded a central place in human study. Values provide the basis for ascribing meaning and reaching understanding. An interpretative, constructivist paradigm cannot do without them.

3.1.3 Hermeneutic Methodology

As an extension of the ontological and epistemological belief structure, the constructivist proposes a hermeneutic methodology. It claims to be capable of overcoming the methodological limitations of the conventional paradigm. The constructivist asserts that an inquiry must be set out in such a way that it will-

- expose the constructions held by various individuals involved in the study,
- provide an opportunity for the exposed constructions to be subjected to criticisms by competing constructions in the light of new information and level of sophistication, and,
- provide an opportunity to emerge revised or altogether new constructions as a result of the challenges by the competing constructions or new information and level of sophistication.

The methodological aim is to arrive at a shared and sophisticated construction(s) so that consensus (or as near to consensus as possible) is achieved. The key element in the constructivist methodology is to develop an increasingly better *understanding (verstehen)* of the process under study. The constructivist thus proposes the adoption of a hermeneutic-dialectic methodology.

The methodology is called hermeneutic because it aims to develop improved and joint constructions in the light of new information or level of sophistication, and dialectic in the sense that it involves a juxtapositioning of conflicting ideas, forcing a reconsideration of a previous position(s).

The methodology thus involves seeking the existing constructions held by various individuals who are participating in the study. Once the constructions are identified, they are then analyzed and expressed in plain and communicable language in order to solicit critiques from the holder of other constructions. This process of seeking constructions and subsequently, the critiques, is reiterated with an intention of evolving further new information or new levels of sophistication until consensus (or as near to consensus as possible) is achieved. However, it is unrealistic to expect that

consensus or near consensus will be achieved in every case. According to this methodology, it is considered equally important if, as a result of this process, the stakeholders become aware of, and understand clearly, the competing constructions held by others.

Following its own paradigmatic position, the constructivist methodology addresses the methodological criticisms directed against conventional paradigm. The following paragraphs clarify the constructivists' position with respect to each criticism mentioned earlier.

a. *The Dualism Of Theory-Fact Relationship*

It was argued earlier that theory and fact cannot be independent of each other. Rather a fact is a fact with respect to theory and vice versa. The constructivists do not recognize the distinction between theoretical and observational languages. For them, objectivity in the positivist sense is impossible to achieve. Consequently, the constructivist methodology emphasizes that it is impossible to divest an inquiry of human judgement. Human judgement is thus called for in ascertaining what can be regarded as persuasive and what cannot. Constructivists assert that human judgement can be relied upon so long as the methodology ensures that the inquirer is able to interact with the phenomena under study over a longer period of time so that its etiology, including its history and its present context, can be fully understood and appreciated. The hermeneutic-dialectic methodology promises such an engagement. Hence, the joint constructions that involve human judgement can be regarded as persuasive.

b. *Findings Not Isomorphic With Reality*

It was observed that positivism is unable to guarantee the isomorphism of its findings with reality. However, from a constructivist stand point, hermeneutic-dialectic methodology is able to ensure isomorphism of the joint constructions with the multiple realities as constructed by the respondents. The constructivist methodology does not rely on an *a priori* hypothesis. Consequently, whatever joint constructions (findings) are reported, evolve through the hermeneutic-dialectic process of negotiations between different

respondents' initial and subsequent constructions. The user of the study is able to verify the isomorphism between the joint constructions and the respondents' constructions going through the interpretations, formulations and re-formulations of constructions recorded in the field diary, field notes, transcripts etc.

c. *Operationalism, Judged To Be Inadequate*

It may be recalled that conventionalists lay significant emphasis upon operationalism. The preceding chapter argued that this was inadequate for social science research. The constructivists do not recognize the distinction between the theoretical and the observational languages, their study is not geared towards the verification or falsification of any *a priori* propositions. Hence, the need to express theoretical propositions in operational terms is absent. Furthermore, since constructivists realize the inadequacy of expressing socially constructed realities in measurable terms, the concept of operationalism is redundant for them.

d. *The Humanness Of The Respondents, Disregarded*

Conventional methodology, as argued in the preceding chapter, disregards the humanness of the respondents by treating them as 'passive objects' of study and by adopting deceptive techniques. In Contrast, the hermeneutic methodology considers respondents as active partners in research, and seeks their active involvement and contribution to the research process.

From the perspective of constructivist methodology, deception is not only unwarranted but also in direct conflict with its goals. When the goal of constructivist is to seek the respondents' constructions, the respondents are unable to contribute meaningfully if they are confused or misled. Consequently, deception is not only unethical but also counter-productive in the constructivist approach. Furthermore, the active involvement of the stakeholders (respondent) in the research ensures protection against their loss of power and freedom.

e. Context Stripping

Finally, it was argued that to generate findings isomorphic with the 'objective reality' the conventional methodology instituted physical and statistical controls. As a result, it stripped off the context (of the phenomena under study) so that the influences of various confounding variables can be eliminated. Since, the constructivist rejects the idea that values contaminate an inquiry, the necessity of instituting control in whatever manner is, therefore, absent. As a result of this and Schwartz and Ogliviv's 'New Paradigm' idea, the constructivist methodology approaches to study a particular phenomenon holistically, albeit recognizing its context in operation.

3.2 The Phenomenological Paradigm

In the previous section, the constructivist paradigm was examined. It was argued that constructivism offers an alternative way to conducting research in social science and promises to overcome the limitations of the conventional paradigm. However, it will be seen in section 3.3 that the constructivist paradigm is also beset with certain other difficulties. Hence, another alternative, i.e., the phenomenological paradigm is examined in this section.

First, however, it is necessary to introduce the phenomenological approach and the concepts relevant to it. This section, therefore, introduces the phenomenological approach and then goes on to consider its key concepts. It concludes by examining its ontological, epistemological and methodological positions along with the ways it addresses the limitations of conventional paradigm.

3.2.1 The Phenomenological Approach: An Exordium

The central concern of phenomenology is to study the phenomena of our consciousness. A phenomenon refers to that which gives itself directly through the acts of consciousness (Natanson, 1962a). Consciousness, on the other hand, involves all forms of cognition such as perception, attitudes, reflection, comparison, remembering, evaluation as well as effects and

emotions (Huczynski 1991; Huczynski and Mmambuosi, 1982). Man according to phenomenology, is viewed as possessing consciousness and being intentional, temporal, and in-the-lived-world. He shapes his world and at the same time is shaped by it (Lynch-Sauer, 1985).

It may be stressed that there is no 'one' phenomenology and, as a philosophy, it embraces great complexity and diversity (Spiegelberg, 1976). Although the diverse strands of the phenomenological movement disagree over certain issues, in most respects they complement each other. Despite this diversity, Edmund Husserl (1859-1938), a German philosopher, is regarded as the primary proponent of phenomenology (Farber, 1966; Phillipson, 1972; Spiegelberg, 1976; Valle et. al., 1989). To Husserl, phenomenology meant the rigorous and unbiased study of the things *as they appear* so that one might come to an essential understanding of human consciousness and experience (Valle, et. al., 1989). To Husserl, it referred to the study of the 'essences' or the 'ideal types' and to the clarification of the various relationships between them. It investigated the essential structures of presentation, perception, judgement, feelings etc. (Pivcevic, 1975). Thus, the goal of phenomenology is to study the experiential reality-- i. e., the essence of consciousness or experience. Transcendental phenomenology, as propounded by Husserl, rests on the idea that the essential core of consciousness-- the 'ideal types' or the 'pure essences' -- are same for all men. According to him, experience/consciousness has an universal and necessary structure even though in each instance one lives that experience individually (Kohák, 1978). Husserl's search for the ultimate or absolute grounds of being, in a sense, can be seen as an attempt to refute relativism.

The views of authors concerning the philosophical aspects of the 'pure essences', with which transcendental phenomenology is concerned, seems to be divergent. Schütz (1962) in his discussion on 'Husserl's importance for social sciences' showed how the views on such aspects held by Max Scheler (1874-1928), Maurice Merleau-Ponty (1908-1961) and Ortega y' Gasset differed from those of Husserl. In contrast to Husserl, Merleau-Ponty held a relativistic position on the question of 'pure essence'. To this effect, Phillipson (1972 : 130) wrote that,

'... [To Merleau-Ponty] *A recognition of the historicity of the phenomenological search for essences suggests that there are no literal absolute essences beyond the facts of experiences . The description of essences is always temporally grounded ...* ' [Emphasis added]

Rejecting the idea of transcendental phenomenology as a foundation for social sciences Schütz (1962 : 149) mentioned that,

'We may say that the empirical social sciences will find their true foundation not in transcendental phenomenology, but in the constitutive phenomenology of the natural attitude.'

Schütz (1962 : 145) believed this was because,

'... these [social] sciences do not have to deal with the philosophical aspects of intersubjectivity [of pure essences], but with the structure of the Lebenswelt [life-world] as experienced by men in their natural attitude [i.e., that the world is pre-given and its existence is taken for granted] by men, that is who are born into this socio-cultural world, have to find their bearings within it, and have to come to terms with it.' [Emphasis in original]

The phenomenological goal of social sciences, according to Schütz (1962 : 53) is to *'obtain organized knowledge of social reality.'* The 'social reality' refers to the features of the commonsense world of everyday life *as experienced* by individuals. The constitutive phenomenology of natural attitude provides the methodological tool for the study of the social sciences by clarifying their methods, concepts and assumptions. While it shares some of the aims and techniques of transcendental phenomenology, the constitutive phenomenology of natural attitude focuses on the constitution of the natural attitude, its implication for investigation in social sciences and on the issues of mundane intersubjectivity (i.e., the common grounds in the life-world).

The substance of this discussion is that individual's *subjective experience* of the everyday world --i.e.,' ... *the way in which the things or experiences show themselves in, or as, consciousness'* (Sanders, 1982)-- constitute a valid source of knowledge. Consequently, the role of constitutive phenomenology of the natural attitude is to make explicit the implicit content and structure of

human experience of consciousness. Finally, Curtis summarizes the following philosophical viewpoint as the distinguishing features of phenomenology. These features are generally and closely agreed upon by phenomenologists (Curtis and Mays, 1978 : xiii). They include:

1. *A belief in the importance , and in a sense the primacy, of subjective consciousness.*
2. *An understanding of consciousness as active, as meaning-bestowing.*
3. *A claim that there are certain essential structures to consciousness of which we can gain direct knowledge by a certain kind of reflection.'*
[emphasis in original]

The foregoing discussion provides only a brief introduction of the subject matter. However, for the task of examining how it addresses the limitations of conventional paradigm and how it offers a sustainable alternative to doing research, it is necessary to gain greater insights into the phenomenological paradigm. To do so the key phenomenological concepts are considered next.

3.2.2 The Key Concepts In Phenomenology

Phenomenology concerns itself with the subjective social world and attempts to understand and describe its structure as construed by individuals (Hoper and Powell, 1985; Putnam, 1982). The everyday social world is treated as a 'subject world' and is a product of human activity, interaction and intention (Smart, 1976). It is also a linguistic and cognitive world. Man is shown to live in a world created through consciousness (Huczynski, 1991).

The concept of consciousness is at the core of phenomenology, while other concepts aid to develop its structure. Table 3.2 provides a very brief summary of the concepts involved. Implicit in the summary is that these concepts cannot be understood in isolation, i.e., without the reference to the other concepts. Natanson's remarks stress the point. Natanson (1962a : 19) stated that,

'... [For] ... Husserl the central terms of phenomenological discourse are all bound to each other, imply each other, and require each other for

a meaningful interpretation of the method and the task of phenomenological philosophy.'

This applies not only to Husserl but also to phenomenology in general. The author (of this thesis), thus believes that the reader can profit more by treating the entire discussion as a unit, rather than progressing sequentially to build up the picture. Having said that, let us turn to the treatment of the concepts in some detail.

Table 3.2 Summary Of The Concepts In Phenomenology

In phenomenology-

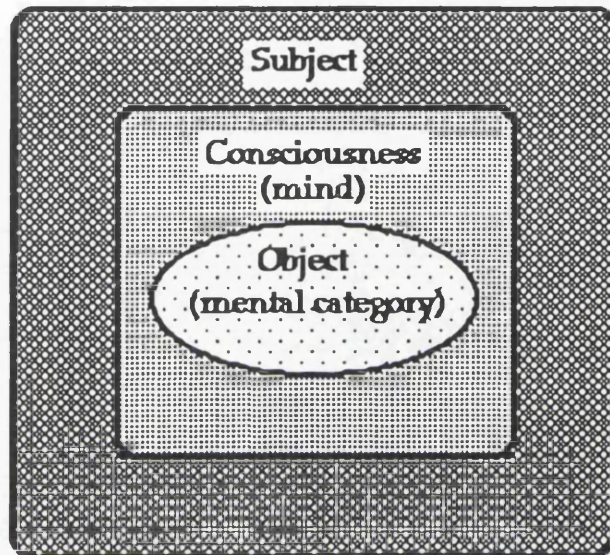
- the *Consciousness* forms the basis of all knowledge,
- the *essences* are the abstracted forms of entities in consciousness,
- the consciousness is characterized by *intentionality*,
- the experience of a phenomenon constitute a valid source of knowledge
- the consciousness grounds its existence on the surrounding world of everyday life called *Life-World* or *Lebenswelt*,
- the life-world is *intersubjective*, it refers to what is common to individuals,
- the life-world is intersubjective because of *natural attitude*. An attitude in which one suspends doubt about the existence of the world and its objects,
- an individual conducts his life in the life-world on the basis of some typifications. The reservoir of the sedimented typifications refers to the *stock of knowledge*,
- *epoché* refers to the method of bracketing the natural attitude for the phenomenological study
- *eidetic reduction* refers to the process adopted in a phenomenological study for abstracting essences from experiences.

a. *Consciousness, Intentionality, Noema And Noesis*

A human being is a conscious being, i.e., he is a reflective being or a thinking ego. 'Being conscious' indicates the possession of 'consciousness'. Cartesian maxim 'Cogito ergo sum' recognizes consciousness (cogito) as a basic

irreducible fact about which man could be certain. Consciousness in the Cartesian sense, is a mental category of the mind-body dualism. Thus, the 'tree' I see is in my mind rather than 'out there' in the world. The Cartesian formulation of consciousness could be represented in Figure 3.3.

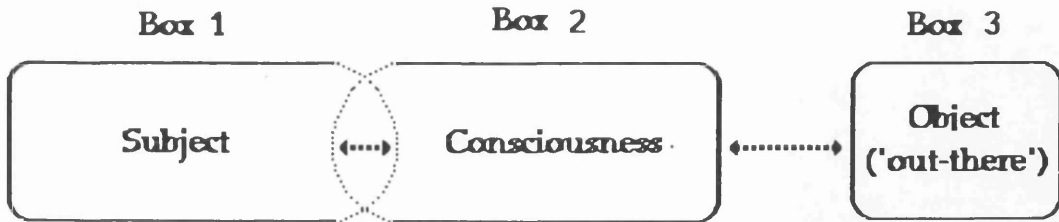
Figure 3.3 Cartesian Formulation Of Consciousness - Object Relationship



Taking the Cartesian position as a starting point, Husserl's formulation of consciousness incorporates the object of consciousness (the cogitatum). In Husserlian formulation, consciousness is that forum in which phenomena show themselves or are revealed (Valle et. at., 1989). The subject³ interacts with an object (person, place, document, idea, or situation), interprets it and acts in accordance with the meaning assigned (Huczynski, 1991). According to phenomenology, consciousness is experiential. It is a stream of experience, i.e., experiences are on-going rather than disjointed or discrete. Consciousness extends to cover all actual or possible experiencing. The relationship of the subject, consciousness and the object experienced may be represented in Figure 3.4.

3 Unlike the conventional usage, in phenomenological literature the word 'subject' generally implies 'person'.

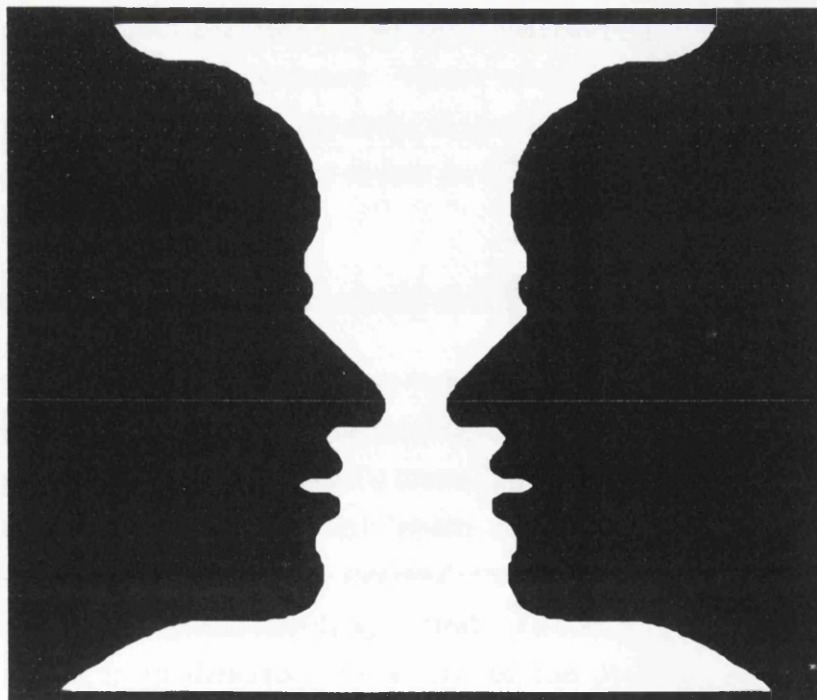
Figure 3.4 Subject - Consciousness - Object Relationship



In figure 3.4, Box 1 and Box 2 are separate because the 'subject' and the 'consciousness' are separate entities. However, the two boxes overlap because the consciousness is that of the subject. Further, Box 2 and Box 3 interact with each other. The object 'out there' presents itself in consciousness for its meaning to be ascribed. The crucial element indicated in the figure is this two-way relationship between the consciousness and the object 'out there'. The figure, however, fails to capture the complexity involved.

Consciousness and object 'out there' co-constitute each other. The idea of co-constitutionality can be illustrated by the Figure 3.5.

Figure 3.5 The Co-constitutionality Of Consciousness And The World 'Out-There'



In this illustration, one can either treat the white portion as the 'figure' and the black portion as the background or vice versa. In the first case one sees a vase and in the later case one sees two human faces facing each other. The crucial point that is illustrated in Figure 3.5 is that the 'vase' and the 'faces' cannot exist without one another. In fact, they co-constitute each other, if one is removed the other has no meaning. For example, remove the vase and all that remains is a black box. The faces cease to exist! Similarly, there is no world 'out there' without a consciousness to perceive it, and no consciousness without a world to be conscious of (Valle et. al., 1989). The existence of one refers to the directedness towards the other.

This leads to another important concept in phenomenology; the concept of *intentionality*. Intentionality, here, does not mean 'purposiveness', rather it refers to the fundamental directional character of conscious act. A conscious act always points towards some object that is either physical or mental. Hence, all thinking, perceiving, remembering, imagining, willing respectively is thinking, perceiving, remembering, imagining, willing of something (Atkinson, 1972; Natanson, 1962a). In short, all consciousness is consciousness *of something*. Merleau-Ponty (1964b : 57) described how the world is an intentional object of consciousness,

'If we actually reflect on our situation, we will find that the subject, ... situated in the world and submitting to its influences, is at the same time he who thinks the world. No world whatsoever is conceivable that is not thought by someone. Hence while it is true that the empirical subject is a part of the world, it is also true that the world is no more than an intentional object for the transcendental subject'
[Emphasis added]

Intentionality, thus implies the directional character of consciousness.

The intentionality of consciousness has two complementary aspects. Rogers (1983) referred to them as 'consciousness of objects' and 'objects of consciousness'. According to Husserl's formulation, the former is called *noesis* -- a term derived from the Greek verb 'noein' meaning 'perceive', 'think'; and the latter as *noema* -- a term also derived from the Greek word meaning 'perception', 'thought', 'understanding', 'mind'. To focus on the consciousness of a given object is to describe the *noesis* of the act (i.e., the subjective

perceiving, reflecting, remembering etc.). When the focus is laid upon the given 'object of experience', the description is about the *noema* of the act, i.e., the object that is being perceived, reflected upon, remembered (Huczynski, 1991). Noesis can be described to have a 'process' character while noema a 'product' character of consciousness. The following remark by Kohák (1978 : 127) seems to support it.

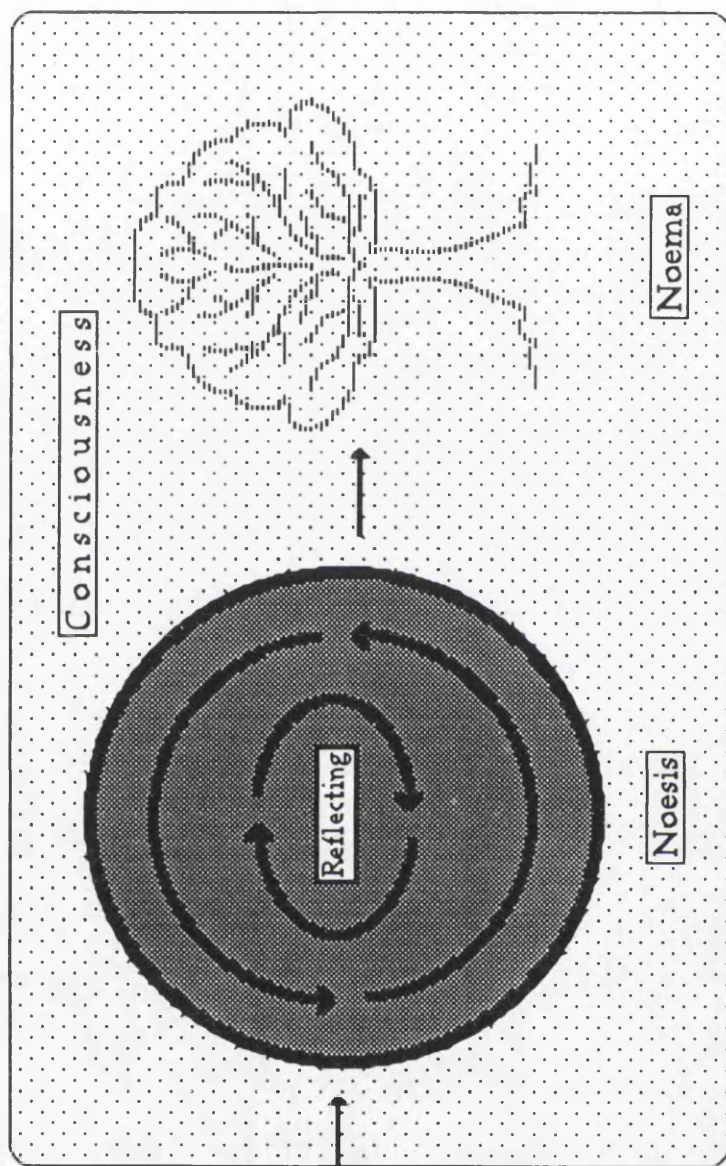
'... [Noesis] is the experience as meaning-giving or, more strictly, as constituting its data as meaningful. ... [while Noema] is the experience as meaningful or, strictly speaking, as constituted as ... meaningful in the act.' [Emphasis in original]

Similarly, Sajama and Kamppinen (1987 : 85-87) noted that '*the noesis ... shapes the formless stuff [hyle] into a full-blown intentional mental act.*' Noema on the other hand is an ideal/abstract entity, just as the idea contained in the inscription of the number '5' on a piece of paper. According to Sajama and Kamppinen (1987), it is the noema that gives, to the act of consciousness, its reference to an object by becoming realized in the noesis. Each noema has a 'content' and is related through it (the content) to 'its' object.

The noetic-neomatic process may be depicted by the Figure 3.6 based on Zener (1970). Zener pointed out that adopting a reflective stance towards this process we become aware not of the two separate poles *per se* but of a complex affair, *the process of consciousness*, with its specific object. In Figure 3.6 the 'tree out-there' is captured by the noetic process of the consciousness. The circle represents the noetic process, and the arrows within it represent the intentional activity (e.g., reflecting) involved in bestowing meaning to the object. It is through these activities the 'idea' or 'meaning' of the tree-- the noema-- emerges in the consciousness. It may be noted that the idea, or the meaning of the tree, is not the same as 'the tree out there'. The tree out there can burn up, be resolved into its chemical elements, etc. The idea (noema) of the tree, however, cannot burn up, it has no chemical elements, no force, no real properties (Husserl, 1982). The 'tree-figure', shown in Figure 3.6 as noema represents the idea evolved in the seeing-of-the-tree-as-seen (i.e., noesis). Considering the complexity of the noetic-neomatic process, Zener (1970 :134) asserted that,

Figure 3.6 The Noetic - Noematic Complex

Reflected on



Based on Zener (1970)

"My reflecting, then is by no means a seeing of the tree, nor simply a grasping of the seeing alone. It is rather an apprehension of the entire noetic-noematic complex. Most striking about this complex is just this correlation . The most generic feature, we shall say, of any possible consciousing⁴ is that it is 'intentional' to objects, and these objects are 'intended by' the consciousing."

Thus, one is not only reflecting on the object 'out there' as presented in one's consciousness through the noetic process, but also on the entire noetic-noematic complex, along with the intentionality embedded in it. Another feature of the consciousness-object relationship as Zener (1970 :134) further noted is that '... [different] consciousings can have the same or different objects and the same type of consciousing can have the same or different objects.'

Finally, an individual always perceives an object within a context or a *horizon*.

We have an inborn tendency to 'see', more than is in fact given to us on the basis of our sensation at any given stage. The horizon refers to the network of the possibilities associated (total of what is 'seen' and what is expected to be 'seen') with an act, e.g., perception (Sajama and Kamppinen, 1987). For example, we see a facade of a house and interpret it as a 'house' not a 'stage setting'. We do so because in addition to what we see (e.g., a facade of a house), we anticipate other properties (such as, sides, back, roof, windows etc.) of the object that are not presented before our eyes and thus we constitute meaning i.e., 'house'. In this respect Sajama and Kamppinen (1987 :99) stated that

'People interpret their sensations in the light of their previous experience; therefore, they anticipate aspects of the object that are not in fact given in the full sense in the experience itself.' [emphasis added]

The point of relevance of this to the current discussion is that the aspects (of the object/idea) that are not presented directly in our sensation, but that which we select (because of previous experience) shape the meaning we ascribe to the object/idea. This applies particularly to social phenomena. Thus, for example, the idea that 'lecture as a training method is less effective'

4 Zener uses this term to describe the process of consciousness.

is an element of the meaning-complex associated with the training process, that has to be *understood in the context of a range of individual experiences and meanings* . The horizon would then include our interpretations of our experiences, our knowledge of the training process, ideas and attitudes expressed by others, problems faced during and after training and finally, our own reflections of all these exposures. Horizon functions as a fluid encapsulating 'boundary of meaning' that any act of consciousness can provide to the individual.

To summarize thus, it may be stated that human consciousness emerges as a result of a dialogue with the physical and the social world. It is a unity of opposites; of subjectivity and objectivity, body and mind, positivity and negativity, determination and indetermination (Marsh, 1977). Consciousness is intentional. The noesis and the noema are two complementary aspects of its intentional character, it provides meaning (i.e., noema) through noetic correlates and operates within the horizon of meaning.

b. Experience

Apparently, a phenomenological emphasis on experience as the basis of knowledge might seem to be susceptible to charges of subjectivism. Experience is always a subject's experience, but it is not private. Although experience is subjective, it is also shareable and hence it can be non-arbitrary. In the discussion on intersubjectivity it will be shown, in greater detail, that experience is not private.

To Husserl, experience as lived, is an absolute datum. The awareness of I, and its lived experiences, is given absolutely. Reality is always reality-in-experience. Even if all objects of our experience were fictitious, they would still be the reality to which we responded. The mental process of imagination of eating a delicious dish can lead one to salivate!

Husserl stressed that experience as *Evidenz* , is a primordial intelligible given. Its intelligibility is not contingent upon reflection. If experience were a buzzing, booming confusion until ordered by a reflective judgement, then all knowledge would become conjecture, distorting and concealing as it revealed. On the contrary, since experience is *Evidenz*, primordially

intelligible as lived, knowledge can be faithfully articulated and grounded in immediate awareness. Phenomenology, after all, is a *process of bringing to awareness*, hence, the intelligibility of experience needs only to be brought to a thematic awareness; it does not have to be created or imposed by reflection. Experiencing, Husserl insisted, is intrinsically intelligible, hence, it is a valid source of knowledge (Kohák, 1978).

In our daily life we are immersed in an on-going flow of experience. Once it has been lived, it becomes potentially available for reflection, although most of it remains unnoticed and unreflected upon (Huczynski and Mmambuosi, 1982). From this perspective Luckmann (1983 : 62) defined experience as '*those events in the stream of consciousness which stands out as topics to which the self attend and which are memorable.*' It is the backwards 'reflective glance' of consciousness which makes aspect of the stream discrete and well defined (Brewer, 1984 : 743). The punctuated stream of conscious experience contributes to meaning and understanding (Huczynski, 1991).

Experience thus provides the raw material for understanding the everyday world which is organized as an universe of meaning through a series of typifications.

c. *Life-World*

The life-world or *Lebenswelt* is the mundane world that encompasses our everyday living as a commonsense man. It is the world which is taken exactly as it is presented to us in our daily life. Put simply, it is the whole sphere of everyday experiences, orientations and actions through which individuals pursue their interest and affairs by manipulating objects, dealing with people, conceiving plans and carrying them out (Wagner, 1970). The life-world is extended indefinitely both in time and in space (Gurwitsch, 1966). This implies that it is present in our immediate surroundings and beyond them. Also, it was present prior to our birth and shall remain after our death. We have our existence within it and act within and upon it (Natanson, 1962b).

Pettit (1975) noted that the life-world according to Husserl and Schütz has three main features. It is the *given world*, the *practical world* and the *social*

world. First, the world is given in the sense that it is pretheoretical and prepredicative⁵; how anything appears to an individual does not depend on his theorizing or even his judgement. Hence, it is not a construction, but is given directly and immediately in human experience (Spurling, 1977). It is the ground towards which the intentional consciousness is directed and, therefore, is the basis of all meaning for all sciences and for phenomenology (Phillipson, 1972). It is also the world taken for granted. Its existence is never doubted or questioned, and its simple acceptance proves an essential precondition of every activity (Gurwitsch, 1966). Rogers (1983) also identified this as an essential feature and stated that it emphasized a continuity and coherence to a range of fundamental and universal features of daily life, e.g., greeting, walking, waiting etc.

Second, the pregivenness of the life-world implies that we make sense of the features of this world through a series of prestructured and preinterpreted constructs. The life-world is practical in the sense that our practical interest (i.e., system of relevance) bestows significance to these preselected and preinterpreted constructs through which we experience the reality of our daily lives (Schütz, 1962).

Finally, the life-world is social in the sense that each individual assumes, as a matter of practice, that the constructs which shape how he sees things also shape how others see them. This reciprocity of perspectives that form the epistemological basis for the knowledge of social reality will be discussed in greater detail in the treatment of intersubjectivity which follows shortly. However, it suffices to mention here that the life-world is social in the sense that it is bounded by history, culture and language (Rogers 1983). The phenomenologically based social science is thus interested in the life-world as the meaningful ground of human action, to describe and show how this world is constituted.

5 Terms such as 'prereflective', 'prestructured', 'prescientific', 'pregiven', 'preexistent', 'preselected', 'preinterpreted' are widely used in phenomenological literature to describe this feature.

d. *The Natural Attitude*

The natural attitude is an essential structure of our life-world. It refers to the attitude in which we suspend doubt, that the world and its objects (including other persons) otherwise might be than as we experience them and believe them to be, in the light of our prevailing stock of knowledge at hand (Cox, 1978). Schütz (1966 : 116) held that,

'In this attitude the existence of the life-world and the typicality of its contents are accepted as unquestionably given until further notice.'

This implies that the world is accepted as unproblematic, taken for granted and independent of consciousness (Spurling, 1977). Schütz and Luckmann (1973 : 5), capturing the total essence of this pre-reflective acceptance of the life-world wrote,

- a. *the corporeal existence of other men;*
- b. *that these bodies are endowed with consciousness essentially similar to their own;*
- c. *the things in the outer world included in my environs, and that of my fellow men, are the same for us and have fundamentally the same meaning;*
- d. *that I can enter into interrelationships and reciprocal actions with my fellow man;*
- e. *that I can make myself understood to them;*
- f. *that a stratified social and cultural world is historically pre-given as a frame of reference for me and my fellow men, indeed, in a manner as taken for granted as the 'natural world';*
- g. *that therefore the situation is which I find myself at the moment is only, to a small extent, purely created by me."*

The inherent sociality of the natural attitude is clearly apparent. It emphasizes the taken-for-grantedness; the existence of the conscious others, the reciprocity of perspectives; the constancy of the structure of the world;

the constancy of the validity of experience; and the constancy of our ability to act upon and within the world (Schütz : 1966). Hence, the ways in which we govern and direct our activities in daily life are determined by the natural attitude.

f. Stocks Of Knowledge

People are born and grow up in a socio-cultural world which is characterized by the pervasiveness of a vast array of subjective meanings and interpretations. In our daily interaction with the life-world we come to grasp such subjective meanings and interpretations through a series of typifications.

The typifications and the subjective interpretations are not of our own making. Through the process of growing up in this world, we acquire a certain language that embodies these typifications and interpretations. The typifications are handed down to us from parents, teachers, friends and the anonymous world (such as, newspapers, radio broadcasts, hearsay etc.) in general. The typified interpretations that prevail in a society are accepted as patterns to be followed unquestioningly until further notice (see Natanson, 1974). This enables us to see the world as familiar, ordinary mundane and typical (Brewer, 1984). All acquisitions-- language, multiple typifications embodied in language, the recipes of all sorts, the rules of handling and manipulating things, the modes of conduct, behaviour and actions in typical situations-- together form the 'stock of knowledge at hand'. This is the 'sediment' of the whole history of our life, it comprises of what was passed on to us by others (parents, teachers, friends etc.) and also what we acquire on the basis of our personal biography through the intercourse with the life-world. Hence, the stock of knowledge is never complete, rather it enlarges as we live on. Luckmann (1983) described the forms of knowledge through which we organize our daily experiences as *elementary and tacit; routine*, such as basic skills, practical and recipe-like knowledge; and *explicit*.

The stock of knowledge, thus, not only provides an interpretive framework to understand the past experience but also gives the basis by which possible actions can be set up, as we work towards our goals (Cox, 1978). Therefore, it allows us to organize the everyday events into meaningful lived experiences

thereby enables us to handle the specific and the general situations we encounter in the daily life.

g. Intersubjectivity

Intersubjectivity refers to the intersection and agreement of simultaneous and different intendings (of consciousness) of the same object or the state of affairs (Carr, 1985). Put simply, it is used to describe the plurality of subjectivities making up a community sharing a common world (Spiegelberg, 1976). Epistemologically, intersubjective validity of knowledge seeks a non-arbitrary common ground shareable by any subject qua subject. This requires some clarification.

Phenomenologically, reality is viewed as experiential reality. That is, the realities of our lives consist of lived experiences and not natural entities. The phenomenological recognition of experiential reality, on the face, appears to be problematic-- is reality then a 'reality-for-me', entirely private and individual? Further, since no two experiences duplicate each other precisely, is the knowledge of such reality unshareable with others? The problem of intersubjectivity can be posed as follows, how can two or more actors share common experience of the natural and social world? How can they communicate about them? (Heritage, 1984)

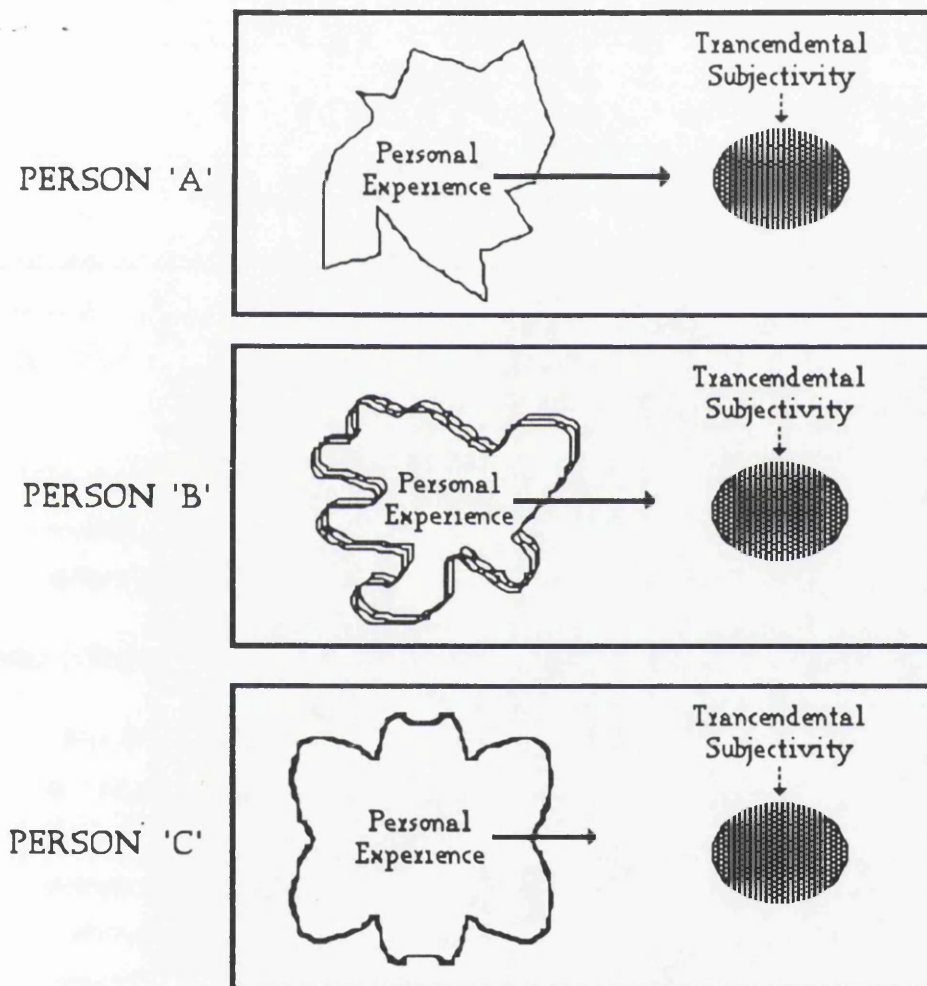
Husserl sought to answer this by posing that although the content of individual's particular experience is contingent and particular, it exhibits an analogous structure. For example, Kohák (1978 : 5-6) mentioned that,

'Love poems translated from ancient Egyptian hieroglyphics are not in the least dated. Even though a modern suitor is more likely to bring roses and chocolates than a lotus and a pomegranate, the sentiment is the same. ... Facts may be culturally variable, but the basic structure of human experience does appear to be profoundly common'

Husserl held that after the application of phenomenological bracketing and reduction to an experience (which contain the features specific to the individual), what remains is the transcendental subjectivity. To him, as Figure 3.7 shows, the basis of intersubjectivity is the transcendental

subjectivity, where lived experience as *Evidenz*⁶ (a primordial intelligible given) presents itself in its own necessary and universal structure. This implies that subjectivity does not consist solely of contingent particularity but has a transcendental dimension as well. One that is valid for any subject qua subject, i.e., subject-in-principle (see Figure 3.7). The recognition that $2+2=4$ or that unprovoked injury creates an obligation to repay is a subject act but not subject specific. It is transcendental.

Figure 3.7 Metaphoric Presentation Of Transcendental Intersubjectivity



Note: The irregular figures metaphorically represent 'Personal Experience with all its particularities', while the shaded elliptical figures represent the 'Trancendental Subjectivity experienced by any subject in-principle.

6 See the discussion on 'Experience'

The recognition that the subject is capable of transcending the primacy and relativity of his natural subjectivity (contingent particularity) by virtue of the universal and necessary dimension of (any) subject's experience is somewhat analogous to Kant's formulation. Husserl however, like Kant, did not claim that the human mind imposes necessary categories upon reality. Unlike the latter, he claimed that experience as such is necessarily structured in a particular way. Subjectivity, though always individual in act, has a transcendental dimension (Kohák, 1978).

Schütz (1966), however, viewed intersubjectivity not in its transcendental realm but at a mundane level-- the world of everyday life. In an elaborate critique of Husserl's formulation, Schütz showed that the constitution of transcendental intersubjectivity leads to solipsism. Therefore, he maintained that Husserl's line of attack on the problem of intersubjectivity was misplaced. Put in simplistic terms, what Schütz argued was that in the transcendental sphere, one's transcendental subjectivity cannot enter into a transcendental 'we-relationship' with the other's transcendental subjectivity. Schütz (1966 : 76) argued that,

' ... each transcendental ego has now constituted for himself, as to its being and sense, his world , and in it all other subjects, including myself, but he has constituted them just for himself and not for all other transcendental egos as well' [emphasis in original]

Schütz (1966 : 76) went on,

'Nor is (unless one relapses into the natural attitude) communication between a plurality of transcendental subjects and hence the institution of a communicative intersubjectivity possible in the transcendental sphere, since all communication requires events in the natural world and, ... already presupposes intersubjectivity viz., the we-relationship.'

Schütz thus rejected Husserl's idea of the constitution of transcendental intersubjectivity in terms of operations of the consciousness of the transcendental ego. According to Schütz intersubjectivity is not a problem of constitution which could be resolved in the transcendental sphere, but rather as a characteristic of the life-world. The world of everyday life 'is from the

outset an intersubjective one ...' (Schütz, 1962 : 312). Intersubjectivity, therefore, is the fundamental ontological category of human existence, a precondition of all immediate human experience in the life-world, to be accepted as something which is unquestionably given.

According to Schütz, the term intersubjectivity is used to describe the aspects of our mutual interrelatedness as being in the life-world. It highlights the inherent sociality of consciousness and the experience of the world by self and others as a common world. Schütz (1966 : 28-29) stated that,

'We could not be persons for Others, not even for ourselves, if we could not find with Others a common environment as the counterpart of the intentional interconnectedness of our conscious lives. This common environment is established by comprehension, which in turn is founded upon the fact that the subjects reciprocally motivate one another in their spiritual activities. Thus, relationships of mutual understanding (Wechselsehverständnis) and consent (Einverständnis) and, therewith, a communicative common environment originate. ... Sociality is constituted by communicative acts in which the I turns to the Other, apprehending them as persons who turns him, and both know of this fact.' [emphasis in original]

Similarly, Strasser (1963 : 84) noted, ' ... man's essence is an orientation to others ... he cannot exist as a conscious being without others'. Emphasizing the sociality of intersubjectivity, Welsh (1972) asserted that the everyday communicative world is constructed by its members, as a universe of meaning in the form of reciprocal typifications.

The intersubjectivity of the commonsense knowledge is based on two idealizations collectively called 'the general thesis of reciprocal perspectives'. First, *the idealization of the interchangeability of stand points*. According to this idealization, people take for granted that one's ways of experiencing the world will be identical with another person's (also another person's ways of experiencing the world would be identical with one) if their places are transposed. Second, *the idealization of the congruence of system of relevance*. It is taken for granted that within our current situation, and with a view to our current purposes, the variations and the uniqueness in our biographically determined situations and stocks of knowledge, are irrelevant for our usual

practical purpose. Each of us possess a system of relevance having enough in common to permit communication and interaction in everyday life. We interpret the actually or potentially common objects, facts and events in an 'empirically identically' manner.

Consciousness or experience becomes shareable through socialization effects (Lauer and Handel, 1977), the influence of 'significant others' (Berger and Luckmann, 1967) and the effects of background similarities in generating common perceptions and motivations among people (Huczynski, 1991). Hence, the intersubjectivity of the social world is a guarantee that the meanings of others can be comprehended (Silverman, 1972).

With these idealizations (i.e., reciprocity of perspectives) in place, the communicative interrelatedness is established through language. Language acts as a tool which cement people together (Huczynski and Mmobaosi, 1982) and through it thoughts becomes public and accessible (MacQuarrie, 1973). Thus, as Phillipson (1972 : 140) mentioned, it '*is the most sophisticated means through which social realities and meanings are intersubjectively constituted and communicated.*' For Schütz, it is a set of constructs and typifications inherent in the language through which common sense knowledge is socially created and distributed.

Stressing the importance of this ontological assumption as a basis for social science research Schütz (1966 : 82) wrote--

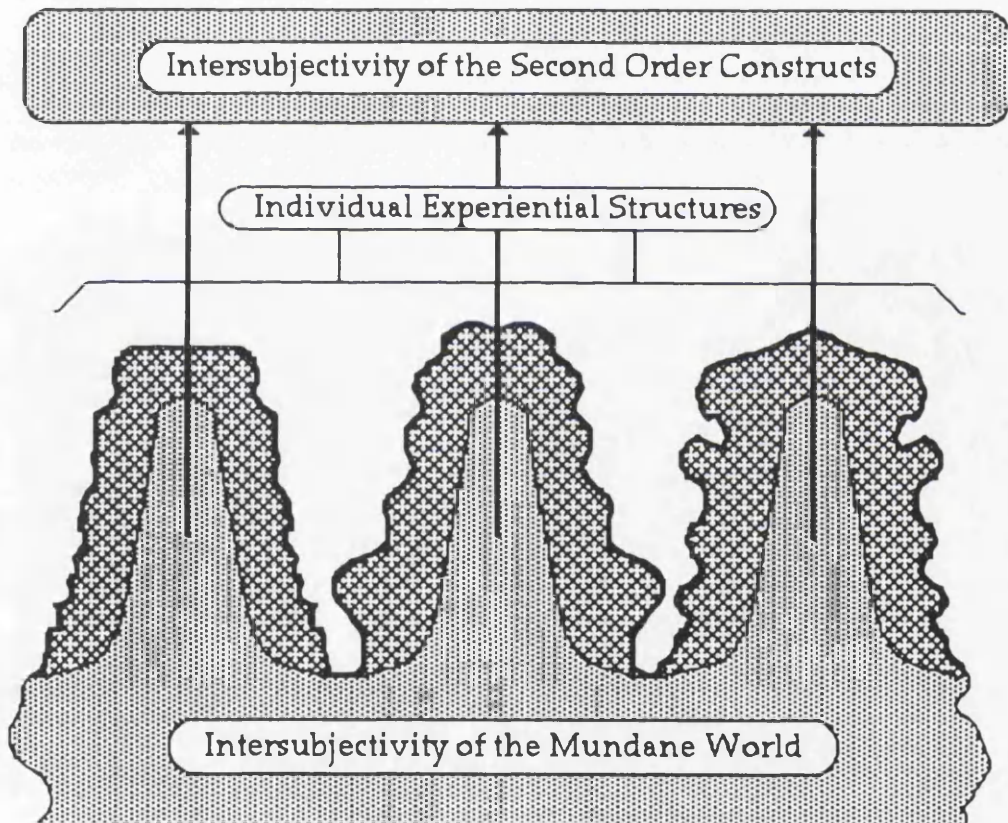
'It can, however, be said with certainty that only such an ontology of the life-world ... can clarify that essential relationship of intersubjectivity which is the basis of all social science ... '

If intersubjectivity is ontologically given, then does it not make a phenomenological study (that seek intersubjective validity) redundant? To answer this question it needs to be stated that mundane intersubjectivity is prereflective and prepredicative. We, in our natural attitude, understand each other and communicate with each other without reflecting the structures of mutuality and commonness of the constructs and typifications. We just do it by an inherent process of socialization. Schütz (1966 : 84), stressed the role of phenomenology by stating that,

'The clarification of the sense-structure of intersubjectivity and of the life-world occupied-by-me-as-objective is, and remains, a legitimate task for phenomenological constitutional analysis.'

Therefore, the task of phenomenological research in social science is (through epoché and eidetic reduction) to make explicit the implicit intentional interconnectedness of consciousness in the life-world. The essences thus obtained become the second order constructs (i.e., constructs of constructs). As shown in Figure 3.8, these constructs retain the intersubjectivity of the first

Figure 3.8 Metaphoric Presentation Of Mundane Intersubjectivity



(Based on Huczynski and Mmibuosi, 1982)

Note: The darker shade of each column indicates the contingent particularity of the individual experiential structures. The lighter shade indicates intersubjectivity of the mundane world. In each column the shades are shown as separate because of the difficulty of expressing a blend. They are actually intermingled.

order constructs (constructs held by men in the life-world) while removing the individualized interpretations (contingent particularity) of the lived experience. Hence, phenomenological research provides the means to elucidate themes, abstractions and idealizations, in short construct theoretical understanding of the commonsense world.

h. Epoché And Eidetic Reduction

Epoché refers to the suspension or the putting in brackets of one's natural attitude. Since, phenomenology emphasises 'seeing' rather than 'speculating', it is essential for the researcher to suspend his presuppositions, before he can have a clear 'grasp' of the phenomena presented. *Eidetic reduction* refers to the ways in which essences are abstracted from consciousness or experience. Epoché and eidetic reduction are particularly relevant to the methodology of a phenomenological inquiry. Hence, their treatment in a greater detail is postponed until the discussion of phenomenological methodology in Chapter 5.

To summarize, it may be stated that phenomenology contains a body of concepts which help us to understand the reality-in-experience as we live our life. It defines the structure and content of conscious experience. Meaning evolves through the intentional character of consciousness as it focuses on objects/ideas. The life-world forms the ground for our experiential existence and becomes conspicuous through the natural attitude. Life-world is intersubjective, we understand it through a series of typifications which thereby constitute meaning and relevance of our experiential reality.

3.3 The Phenomenological Approach: Its Paradigmatic Assumptions

Having discussed the phenomenological approach along with its key concepts, we shall now turn our attention to the discussion of its paradigmatic position. Additionally, attention will be focused on the ways in which phenomenology handles the questions raised against positivism. The belief structure of the phenomenological paradigm is outlined in the Table

3.3. Consistent with the structure of similar discussions made earlier, this discussion will also consider the ontological, epistemological and methodological issues in turn.

Table 3 . 3 The Belief Structure Of Phenomenological Paradigm

<p>AN EXPERIENTIALIST ONTOLOGY asserts that realities are experiential and multiple that are not independent of consciousness. Although realities are experiential, they are nevertheless shared and non-arbitrary, hence, intersubjective. Intersubjectivity of social realities is a pregiven category of the life-world. Realities are not governed by causal laws but they contain 'essential structures'.</p> <p>A SUBJECTIVIST EPISTEMOLOGY asserts that lived-experiences as presented in the consciousness, form the basis of knowledge. Experiential reality is co-constituted by the dialectical interaction of the researcher and the researched (i.e., self and the other). Hence the realities are value bound. Adopting the stance of a disinterested observer, the non-arbitrary character of realities can be elucidated.</p> <p>A DESCRIPTIVE INTERPRETIVE METHODOLOGY involves elucidating the themes, meaning structures of the lived experiences through the adoption of epoché and eidetic reduction.</p>

3.3.1 Experientialist Ontology

In the following section the ontological position of phenomenology will be discussed in terms of its conception of reality as experiential, generalization as intersubjectivity and causality as 'essential structures' of experiential reality.

a. Reality

Phenomenology rejects the positivist idea of reality as external to us and independent of our modes of knowing. The social world does not constitute a reality *sui generis* divorced from the human beings who constitute its membership. Rather, the social world is the existential product of human

activity and is sustained and charged by such activity (Welsh, 1972). It is through the acts of consciousness that reality is created. In an earlier discussion on the co-constitutionality of consciousness, it was indicated that reality is constituted through the process of dialogue between the 'self' and the 'other'. Consequently, according to phenomenology, reality is not something 'out there' existing independent of me. Neither it is something 'in here' in my mind, a product of my fanciful imagination. The whole point of such a dichotomy is rejected by the phenomenological conception of reality as 'experiential'-- formed through the process of dialectical interaction of the self and the other. Stressing the nature of reality Kohák (1978 : 134) stated that,

*'The crucial phenomenological recognition is that reality is not material or mental but experiential, the reality of human praxis whose ultimate structuring is intentional and teleological. Thus, what we need to explain are not objects but experiences; and to explain means to grasp the intentional structures of an experience in principle, as necessary pattern of subject experience.'*⁷

Therefore, ontologically, the world constitutes a '*stream of consciousness; it is experiential; the subjective is the source of all objectivities*'. (Burrell and Morgan, 1979 : 233).

In phenomenology, concepts such as 'objectivity' and 'subjectivity' are given significantly different connotations than that of positivism. Table 3.4 presents the connotations of the terms for phenomenology as well as positivism. What appears is that, in contrast to positivism, phenomenology regards reality as subjective because it is the subject's experience that constitutes reality. As shown in the Table 3.4, phenomenological subjectivity has two dimensions-- the *transcendental* and the *natural* (personal). The transcendental dimension of subjectivity refers to the necessary and universal structure of experience and not the positivist connotation of the term implying 'individual subjective preference'. In the transcendental sense, the experiential reality is regarded as being objective in the sense that it is non-arbitrary and common, but not in the positivist sense as shown in the Table 3.4

7 The reference to the meaning of 'explanation' indicate another distinction between phenomenology and positivism. We shall come to it later in the discussion on causality.

In contrast to Husserl, who sought 'pure essence', i.e., single reality, Schützian phenomenology rejects the idea of single reality. Schütz subscribed to the idea of a multiple reality. According to him, the social world is a world of multiple realities, Each of these worlds (or different orders of realities) can be

Table 3.4 Positivist And Phenomenological Connotations Of Objectivity And Subjectivity

	Objectivity	Subjectivity
Positivism	<p>Something is considered to be objective, if it is --</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • free from the influence of values • independent of the researcher 	<p>Something is considered to be subjective, if it is --</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • only accessible through reflective introspection • dependent on experience • essentially private • characterised by uncritical and untrained observation • relative to individual preferences • contextual
Phenomenology	<p>Something is considered to be objective, if it is --</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • non-arbitrary and common (recognizes the influence of values and the monistic relationship of the researcher and the researched) 	<p>Something is considered to be subjective, since it is based on experience. Subjectivity has two connotations-- the transcendental and the natural (personal).</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • In the transcendental sense, experience is subjective as it is subject's experience in principle. The focus is on the necessary and universal structure of subject experience. It recognizes that originally all phenomena are essentially private but experiences of them are shareable. Hence, it is non-arbitrary and common. * • In the natural sense subjectivity refers to something if it is-- <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • relative to individual preferences • characterised by uncritical and untrained observation • contextual
<p>* Note that the traditional dichotomy of subjectivity and objectivity collapses in phenomenology</p>		

described as 'finite provinces' of meaning. An individual experiences everyday life alternatively from a first-person perspective, a second and a third person perspective (Collins, 1974). The finite provinces of meaning are different experiential spheres. The first-person yields the inner reality of the stream of consciousness. The second-person is dialogue between two people

who continuously reconstruct a reality that is both shared and private. The third-person is that of people engaged in institutional life. Hence, reality in phenomenology is experiential and subjective but non-arbitrary and multiple. It is created by our intentional consciousness.

b. Generalization

The relation between multiple realities and intersubjectivity apparently seems to be problematic. The question is that, if multiple realities are created by the ways in which we attend to certain things then, how can such realities be intersubjective? Carr (1985) in a discussion on 'Phenomenology and Relativism' stated that,

'World is always world as perceived from a particular, even if intersubjective, point of view.'

In the case of Heidegger and Merleau-Ponty, it is important to stress ... the intersubjective character of the as-structure⁸ of experience. In their discussion of every day experience, taking-as is not to be regarded as something like a personal accomplishments, ... The sense of the world and its constituents is from the start a shared sense, But even though it is shared and thus intersubjective, the sense structure of the experienced world is pretheoretical in the sense that it exists prior to the explicit appeal to the categories of objectivity and the explicit aim of intersubjective agreement.'

What is clear from this is that multiple realities (the as-structure of experience) are not essentially private but they are intersubjective. Metaphorically, it can be conceived of more than one stream or tributary of consciousness from which the individual is held to draw his 'share of experiential structure' (Huczynski, 1991).

While positivism stresses generalization, phenomenology stresses intersubjectivity as something that constitutes knowledge. However, there are significant differences between the positivist's conception of

8 Understanding something as something.

generalization, and the phenomenologist's conception of intersubjectivity. As mentioned earlier, generalization constitutes determinism, which assumes that reality possesses certain fixed and reliable linkages. These linkages constitute certain immutable laws that are independent of our wishes and preferences. Intersubjectivity, on the other hand, is essentially the 'common ground' of our experiential reality. Intersubjectivity of the experiential reality is the meaning that is shared and understood. It does not take the form of an immutable law explaining causality.

Unlike positivism, phenomenology does not depend on the inductive method to generate knowledge of the social world. It recognizes that the life-world is intersubjective. Thus the first-order constructs are also intersubjective. Through epoché and eidetic reduction, phenomenology evolves the second-order constructs which retain the intersubjective character of the first-order constructs.

Phenomenology recognizes the possibility of the formulation of concepts and theories. Methodologically, social science based on phenomenology sets about the task of exploring '*the general principles according to which man in daily life organizes his experiences*' (Schütz, 1966 : 59). Unlike positivism, the 'exploration of the general principles' is geared towards facilitating understanding (*verstehen*) of the social realities and not for explaining causal mechanisms. Unlike positivism, phenomenology claims that the general principles explored are tentative. Hence generalization is 'problematic' and not universal (time and context free) (Kohák, 1978). Cairns (1940) provided the testimony that phenomenological statements are at best tentative. Cairns (1940 : 7) wrote that,

' ... *Strictly phenomenological statements are to be used as guides for observation, much as one might use a previous observer's description of a landscape as an aid in distinguishing its features while all the time it lies before one's eyes ...* '

The tentativeness of the phenomenological generalization might be attributable to the difficulties of instituting 'brackets' in 'absolute' terms and also in performing 'complete reduction' for constituting the pure essence. Valle et. al., (1989 : 11) noted that,

'This process of bracketing is one that never ends, and so complete reduction is an impossibility'

Merleau-Ponty underscored that the difficulty associated with reduction was due to the temporal flux of the social world. Merleau-Ponty (1967 : 365) wrote that,

'The most important lesson the reduction teaches us is the impossibility of complete reduction. ... If we were absolute mind, the reduction would present no problem. But since, on the contrary, we are in the world, since indeed our reflections are carried out in the temporal flux on which we are trying to seize ... there is no thought which embraces all thought' [emphasis added]

Hence, complete elimination of all presuppositions is not possible. Consequently, thematic expressions do not necessarily flow from the phenomena just presented in the consciousness because the presuppositions preclude such thematic expressions.

The crucial point in this discussion is that, unlike the positivist claim of time and context free generalizations, phenomenology makes only a modest claim by recognizing that generalizations are tentative and problematic.

c. Causality

The positivist's notion of reality governed by some sort of deterministic mechanism that is expressed in the form of causal laws is rejected by the phenomenologists (Valle et. al., 1989). Hence, the phenomenological analysis of the subjective experience of everyday life refrains from making any ontological assertion regarding causal connections (Berger and Luckmann, 1967). It was argued in the preceding chapter that causality is a mental imputation that cannot be empirically validated. It is not a property of any phenomena. Husserl (1965 :106-107) wrote that,

"A phenomenon is no 'substantial' unity; it has no real properties, it knows no real parts, no real changes, no causality. ... To attribute a nature to phenomena, to investigate their real component parts, their

connections-- that is pure absurdity, no better than if one wanted to ask about the causal properties, connections etc., of numbers."

Although phenomenologists reject the idea of causality, they still retain their interest in *describing* the 'rule-governed character' of social action (Welsh, 1972) or the 'essential structure' (Valle et. al., 1989) of a phenomenon. The crucial distinction is that such 'rule-governed character' or 'essential structure' does not reflect the positivist concern of deterministic control and prediction. Hence, these concepts do not imply attempts to pin down a specific event as a 'cause' of another specific event -- the 'effect'-- that are bonded by a 'necessary connection'. The phenomenologist's idea of relational aspect implied in the 'rule-governed character' or 'essential structure' of social reality is somewhat closer to the constructivist's idea of 'mutual simultaneous shaping'. In the life-world a myriad of events mutually and simultaneously shape each other. For example, the phenomenologist's idea of relationship between events in the life-world, as co-constitutional rather than the causal (Valle et. al. 1989) seems to be contained in constructivist formulation of it.

It might seem somewhat paradoxical to subscribe, at the same time, to the ideas of 'mutual simultaneous shaping' and 'rule-governed character' or 'essential structure'. The question might be asked, if the social world is so indeterminate as implied by the continuous flux of mutual simultaneous shapings, how can there be a 'rule-governed character' or 'essential structure'? The answer to this lies in the features of the life-world. One can answer this question in two ways. First, the 'essential structure' of a phenomenon of the life-world could be considered to be a formation (pattern) emerging out of the interaction of myriad of events, ideas, and things, all mutually and simultaneously influencing all others in time and in space. This formation bears a structure, in the same way as the ocean current bears a structure, despite the constant changes brought about by a world of water particles each influencing the other in time and in space. Second, as indicated earlier, we in our natural attitude take it for granted that the world is constant, despite the continuous change as exemplified by mutual simultaneous shaping. Therefore, we attribute stable structure to our experiential reality.

The structure of experiential reality (expressed in the form of first order construct) transpires in the second-order constructs obtained through the

phenomenological reduction. However, as the generalizations in phenomenology are tentative, the essential structures of the second-order constructs are also tentative.

The *tentative relational view* of 'essential structures' or the 'rule-governed' character of social action seems to be in stark contrast to with the positivist's notion of causality. It seems pointless and impossible to isolate, establish and explain which water particles 'cause' changes (in position, direction, velocity etc.) in which other water particles in the ocean when all such particles are in continuous interaction in every bit of time and space. Rejecting such atomistic and reductionist approach, phenomenology focuses on understanding and describing (but not explaining) the tentative relational character of the ocean current instead.

3.3.2 Subjectivist Epistemology

It was mentioned in the preceding chapter that ontological issues shape the epistemological ones, and the phenomenological paradigm is also no exception. From the stand-point of 'subjectivity' and 'objectivity' of the experiential reality in phenomenology, the epistemological issues such the researcher-researched relationship and the influence of values will be considered below.

a. The Researcher-Researched Relationship

The phenomenological version of researcher-researched relationship diverges significantly from the positivist version which was discussed in the previous chapter. Unlike positivist reality, phenomenological reality is experiential, hence it is subjective. Further, such reality is also objective in the sense that it is non-arbitrary and common. Consequently, the researcher-researched relationship in phenomenology has two dimensions, the 'subjectivity'⁹ dimension and the 'objectivity'¹⁰ dimension.

9 In the 'Natural' sense see Table 3.4

10 Objectivity in the sense of 'Transcendental Subjectivity' see Table 3.3

Let us first consider the 'subjectivity' dimension. The common man as a knower, experiences the objects and the ideas in the life-world in a dialectical relationship and the meaning of the experiential reality is co-constituted. Here, the researcher and the researched are inseparable from each other, hence, the relationship is monistic.

Turning now to the 'objectivity' dimension of the relationship, as noted earlier, phenomenology's concern is with the study of reality as experienced by the subject. Its focus is on having a clear grasp of the phenomenon as a thing-in-itself as presented in the consciousness of the experiencer. A researcher's presuppositions preclude him from grasping a phenomenon as a thing-in-itself as presented in the consciousness. Hence, a phenomenon cannot be looked at as a thing-in-itself if the researcher does not adopt a disinterested stance of the scientific attitude, i.e., if he does not temporarily suspend all his presuppositions. In other words, the disinterested stance is adopted for the purpose of objectivity, in order to grasp the non-arbitrary character of the essential structure of the experiential reality. The suspension of the researcher's input in the construction of reality to allow the phenomenon to show itself, implies a temporary separation of the researcher from the researched. This temporary dualism emanates from the phenomenological interpretation of objectivity as *non-arbitrary, common* which should not be confused with the positivistic dualism emanating from the interpretation of objectivity as *reality out there existing independently of subject's experiences*.

It appears from the preceding discussion that, as a logical extension of the idea subjectivity and objectivity of the nature of reality, each paradigm defines differently the role of, and the relationship between, the researcher and the researched. For example, following the conception of 'objective reality out there' (independent of individual's experiences), the positivist researcher assumes the role of a discoverer and verifier of the meaning of reality 'out there', while the researched is perceived to be a passive provider of data. The relationship between them is characterized by dualism. In the constructivist paradigm, on the other hand, following the rejection of traditional dichotomy of objectivity-subjectivity and viewing them through the prism of dialectics, the researcher and the researched jointly take up the role of constructing the meaning of reality through a dialectical interaction.

Consequently, the relationship is characterized by monism. Finally, following the phenomenological interpretation of 'subjectivity' as subject's experiences, meaning is co-constituted by the researched out of his lived experiences through a dialectical interaction of his consciousness and the intentional objects and ideas. Following the conception of objectivity as 'non-arbitrary and common', the researcher's role remains limited to the elucidation of the experiences that are presented in the consciousness of the researched. The relationship is characterized by a temporary separateness.

One can conclude from this discussion that, in phenomenology, the relationship between the researcher and the researched is essentially monistic. While at the same time, the maintenance of epoché for the purpose of phenomenological reduction necessitates a temporary separation of the researcher and the researched. Although, ideally the researcher would like to suspend all his interpretations, in practice it cannot be completely avoided (Huczynski and Mmobiusi, 1982). Silverman (1972 :167) noted "*Its ...[phenomenology's]... dependence on language makes attempts at 'presuppositionless philosophy' ultimately unattainable*". Hence, total separateness of the researcher and the researched, even temporarily, is not possible.

b. Influence Of Values

Following the discussion of researcher-researched relationship, the influence of values can be considered at two levels. First, at the level of first-order constructs and then, at the level of second-order constructs.

The first-order constructs are the description of the reality as experienced by the common men in their daily lives. It was noted earlier that, at this level, reality is co-constitutional meaning that individual values and subjectivities play a significant role in its constitution. As a human being cannot transcend humanness, then human experiential reality cannot therefore be value free. This strongly refutes the positivist notion of value-freedom of reality.

Having said that, let us consider the second-order constructs. It was mentioned earlier that phenomenology strives to study phenomenon as a thing-in-itself, hence, this calls for bracketing the researcher's presuppositions

which precludes the researcher's values from entering into the first-order constructs. As noted earlier, complete bracketing may not be possible in practical terms, leaving the second-order constructs exposed to the influence of a researcher's values. This limitation points to the rationale for the phenomenologist to maintain that 'generalizations are problematic.'

Finally, since second order constructs are the constructs of the first order constructs, and the first order constructs too are value bound, in the ultimate analysis, the second order constructs too are value bound. Thus the influence of values is an inescapable characteristic of experiential reality. Hence, phenomenologist rejects the positivist claim of value freedom.

3.3.3 Descriptive Interpretive Methodology

It was mentioned that the task of phenomenology is to make explicit the implicit content, structure and the intentional interconnectedness of experience or consciousness in the life-world. The essence ^{of} experiential reality is elucidated by using methodological tools such as epoché and eidetic reduction. A detailed treatment of these methodological devices will be undertaken in Chapter five. It will be seen that the methodology involves abstracting the essences of lived-experiences adopting the descriptive and interpretive process of eidetic reduction. Phenomenology, with its methodological apparatus, helps social science to explore the general principles according to which man in daily life organizes his experience, and hence facilitates *theorization*.

In the foregoing discussion an attempt was made to clarify the ontological and epistemological concerns of phenomenology in relation to positivism. Given the paradigmatic posture of phenomenology, discussion that follows is geared toward addressing the issues that were identified as methodological criticisms of positivism. Attempts will be made to explore how phenomenology redresses such concerns.

a. *The Dualism Of Theory-Fact Relationship*

It was stated in the preceding chapter that the positivists' methodology rests on the assumptions of the separateness of theoretical and observational languages. Consequently, on the assumptions of independence of theories and facts. It was mentioned that in positivism theoretical language expresses the propositions while observational language empirically tests those propositions. It was also indicated that positivism purports to devise a methodology that utilises the observational language. Applying such language, empirical tests can generate facts from data, which testify to the truth or falsity of propositions expressed through theoretical language. The positivist's claims that his methodology is capable of ensuring the objectivity because its observational and theoretical languages are independent of each other.

However, it was argued that theoretical and observational languages are not independent of each other, and hence, the entire edifice of the positivists' methodological claim to objectivity using such languages collapses.

Phenomenology subscribes to the idea of the theory ladenness of facts. Schütz's remarks in this respect (quoted in the corresponding section of the preceding chapter) may be recalled. Hence, as a result of phenomenology's concern to grasp things as they are presented in the consciousness, it is not interested in formulating *a priori* propositional statements (using theoretical languages) and empirically validating them (using some sort of observational language). Instead, phenomenological methodology empirically elucidates the experiences with a view to abstracting the themes. These themes are already embedded in experiences as an intersubjective category.

b. *Findings Not Isomorphic With Reality*

It was argued that positivist methodology is unable to generate findings which are isomorphic with reality. The strength of phenomenological study is that it is capable of establishing such isomorphism. The clue to such isomorphism lies in the phenomenological injunction to '*get back to*' and '*be true to the things themselves*'. The methodological task of phenomenology is to faithfully reveal and describe '*the things themselves*'. One of the fundamental

requirements of phenomenological reduction is that the second order constructs (findings) have to remain consistent with the first order constructs (experiential reality) of common sense men. (Schütz, 1962). The research report of a particular study adopting phenomenological methodology must be capable of demonstrating that the researcher's interpretations (i.e., the findings), generated through reduction, is translatable back into the terms which the members themselves used to give meanings to their actions.

c. Operationalism, Judged Inadequate

The phenomenological concern with understanding subjective experiences clearly negates the positivist's concern for operationalism, which was earlier argued to be inadequate in studying social reality. The phenomenologist shares the constructivists' position on the issue. As the constructivist position was discussed earlier in the corresponding section, the restatement of the same position is therefore considered as a needless repetition.

d. The Humanness Of The Respondents, Disregarded

Positivistic methodology, as argued in the preceding chapter, disregards the humanness by maltreating respondents as passive providers of data, and by inflicting losses of power and freedom. Phenomenology's concern to study respondents' experiential reality as the 'things themselves' implies that methodologically it not only refrains from disregarding the humanness, but also provides the respondents with the full charge of expressing the realities they experience and bestow meaning upon. Remaining truly faithful to the data, the methodological task of the phenomenological researcher is to elucidate the experiences of respondents. Thus, disregarding the humanness of the respondents becomes counter productive to establishing the validity claims of phenomenological research.

e. Context Stripping

Phenomenology does not subscribe to the positivist idea of objectivity. Hence context stripping too becomes counter productive to its methodology,

because it reduces a complex phenomena to simplistic terms. Attig (1985 : 175) writes,

"The anti-reductionism of phenomenology together with the methods of exploring and describing the intentionality of experiences, the modes of appearance of the phenomena, the synthetic structure of experience, and the constitutional process within which objects came to be established in experience promote our appreciation of the complexity of human experience".

The context with all its complexity is manifested in the lived-experiences of common men as they interact in the life-world. The methodological focus of phenomenology on the experiential reality of men in the life-world recognizes such contextuality and adds to the richness of phenomenological description.

3.4 An Assessment Of Constructivism And Phenomenology

Constructivism and phenomenology share a similar position in terms of the criticisms to positivism. Although they share a common ground there remain some distinctions between the two. Basically, these emanate from their respective ontological assumptions, particularly from the conception of reality and generalization. Consequently these distinctions are reflected into the epistemological and methodological realm of each paradigm. Before a decision can be taken as to which paradigm should be adopted one needs to attend to such distinctions.

From the point of view of generating an understanding of a 'here-and-now' problem, both the approaches successfully offer alternative ways of doing research in social science. However, the need for choice becomes a crucial issue when the possibility of theorizing is considered. The constructivist paradigm tends to suffer in this respect. The author maintains that on this issue, phenomenology offers a better alternative compared to constructivism. Therefore, the current discussion assesses the paradigms and offers a critique of constructivism with respect to its conception of reality and generalization. The first part of this section is devoted towards this end. Having said this, it is also logical to examine some of the limitations of phenomenology. This is considered in the second part of the section.

3.4.1 A Critique Of Constructivist Paradigm

The author's unease with the constructivist paradigm arises from its categorical claim of the impossibility of generalization, thereby the impossibility of theorization, abstraction, or idealization of the findings of research. The readers would recall the discussion on 'working hypothesis' and 'mutual simultaneous shaping' which imply that as a result ^{of} the contextual diversities every time one wishes to know something one has to undertake the laborious task of research.

In other words, this means that one cannot use past experiences in doing anything that one does-- all the way from each moment of living in daily life to organization life. This seems to contradict our experiences of life. Our experiences tell us that we do not have to undertake research every time we want to know that Pussy is a cat, Sana is a baby girl, Volvo is a car or genuine praise encourages a worker. Guba and Lincoln, however, did recognize that the constructor uses past experiences in constructing reality. Guba and Lincoln (1989 : 143) wrote that,

"Constructions came about through the interaction of a constructor with information, context, settings, situation and other constructors (not all of whom may agree) using a process that is rooted in the previous experience, belief system, values, fears, prejudices, hopes, disappointments and achievements of the constructor ... Constructions come about by virtue of the interaction of the knower with the already known and the still knowable or to-be-known."

Belief system, values, fears, prejudices, hopes, sense of disappointment and achievements are always abstracted forms of our previous experiences. Guba and Lincoln's remark clearly contradicts their claim of the impossibility of generalization. There is no difficulty in agreeing with Guba and Lincoln in rejecting generalization as 'nomic generalization', but generalization also mean 'abstractions', 'idealizations', 'themes', 'essences' of the lived experiences-- a meaning that we in our every day living formulate, carry through and successfully utilize in the conduct of numerous activities of our daily life. We do not have to know anew each 'photographic slice' of life for performing practical tasks. This abstracted knowledge is not only personal but is also shared.

The constructivist's position on generalization emanates from their conception of reality. Such conception tends to be too iconoclastic to be meaningful to a common man in his natural attitude. The conception of reality together with the claim of the impossibility of generalization tends to provide an impression of solipsism, or at best a confusion.

Guba and Lincoln maintained that realities were mental construction that evolved through the dialectical interaction of the self and the objects, events and ideas that are beyond self. Guba and Lincoln (1989 : 70) mentioned,

"Constructions represent the efforts of people to make sense out of their situation, out of the states of affair in which they find themselves. They are interpretations based primarily on experience - to 'see it with my own eyes' or to 'hear it with my own ears' is the best evidence that any one can muster to demonstrate to him or herself the validity of his or her own constructions". (emphasis in original).

On a different occasion Guba and Lincoln (1989 : 265) added,

'the stuff of our realities is what we make of that physical world, and the social constructs we utilize to make sense of it and to impose order on it.'

These remarks along with the position on generalizations (which is the extension of the conception of reality expressed in these remarks) conveys a solipsistic impression that all that one can know is -- ' know something only for oneself'. This impression becomes strengthened when the following remark is considered. This appears that individual with their personal knowledge are rather 'disjointed islands'. Guba and Lincoln (1989 : 144) stated,

"There are as many constructions as there are individual constructors. That is the case not only because the several constructors are likely to differ in their available information and their ability to handle that information, but also because of the problem of underdetermination".

One would certainly be at fault in considering the constructivist's conception of reality as *entirely* solipsistic because these authors did assert the possibility of shared constructions. However, their emphasis on individual and the

claim of impossibility of generalization negate their idea of constructions as shared conveying the solipsistic impression of the nature of reality.

Further, there seems to be no difficulty in accepting that constructions are private and at the same time many of them are shared. However, the confusion arises when one faces the difficulty of reconciling the idea of shared constructions with the constructivist claim of the impossibility of generalization that appears to be an extension of the idea of constructions as private.

The constructivists' methodology is caught in the paradox of seeking the joint constructions while at the same time rejecting the possibility of generalization. Constructivism recognizes the possibility of shared construction but does not tell us how it is shared. How do we typify and communicate meanings? What are the assumptions of such communications. In short, it does not say anything like Schütz's reciprocity of perspective.

Reality as conceived by the constructivist does not have to be followed by such position on generalization, i.e., the impossibility of abstraction and theorization. The crucial missing link is the constructivist's conception of reality and generalization lies in the phenomenologist's conception of the intersubjectivity of life-world and natural attitude.

The working hypothesis with its underpinning emphasis on contextuality and indeterminacy, disregards the preexistent, prepredicative life world that we find ourselves placed in after birth. It disregards the natural attitude of common sense man, that is, the taken for grantedness of the life-world that forms the basis of continuity and history. It also disregards the inherent sociality, the intentional interconnectedness of being, and the intersubjectivity of the life -world that is a fundamental ontological category of human existence and a precondition for all immediate human experience in the life-world.

Like constructivism, phenomenology recognizes that reality is multiple, experiential, private and shared; and that the social world is indeterminate. Unlike constructivism, it also recognizes that despite indeterminacy, the commonsense man with his natural attitude assumes that there are some stable structure of social reality. Since, the life-world is ontologically

intersubjective, generalization --in the form of abstraction, or thematic expression--is possible.

Apart from this, the constructivist notion of researcher-researched monism in formulating constructions (joint) also poses some difficulties. First, the constructivist paradigm seeks to understand phenomena in a natural setting but the assumption of such a monistic relationship appears to be self-defeating. While constructivism is critical of *a priori* theory which introduces presuppositions, it does not guard against presuppositions brought in by the researchers' etc constructions. Such presuppositions vitiate the understanding of phenomenon as they are experienced by the respondents in natural settings.

Second, one questions the appropriateness of the researcher's role as a co-creator of the respondent's experiential reality. This is not to imply that such a relationship should be characterized by a dualism (as espoused by the positivists). In fact, the realities of the social world, as expressed in the form of first order constructs, are generated by commonsense men in their natural attitude from their lived experiences through monistic interaction. There seems to be no difficulty in accepting this position. What seems problematic is that the researcher, who has only the theoretical interest (or may be some practical interest in sense of providing consultancy) in the problem/issue, is an outsider to the natural setting in which the problem is embedded. As an outsider, the problem is not lived by him in the natural setting. The respondent, in his natural attitude, co-constitutes (through the dialectical relation between him as a knower and what he hopes to know) the reality. The researcher's task is simply to understand the experiential reality as lived by the respondent, and not to co-construct the experiential reality which he (researcher) has not lived. Therefore, in order to see phenomena 'as they are' in the natural setting, the researcher has to adopt the stance of the disinterested observer by bracketing his own presuppositions.

If constructivism incorporates the idea of intersubjectivity of the life world as an ontological given, and also the idea of epoché and eidetic reduction, then it can overcome the fluidity of 'working hypothesis' enabling one to formulate viable knowledge of everyday life. This will enable one to gain theoretical insights into the problems of study.

3.4.2 The Limitations Of The Phenomenological Approach

The phenomenological paradigm was discussed in some degree of depth. Its appropriateness and strengths were underscored. However, it is unreasonable to expect that there are no difficulties associated with it. The picture would therefore remain incomplete if its limitations were not highlighted. Hence, some of its principal limitations will be considered now.

One of the common charges against phenomenology is that it is subjective. If 'subjectivity' implies a knowledge based on experience, then instead of being a limitation, this subjectivity appears to be a strength of phenomenological approach. If, however, it means individual idiosyncrasy then it only needs to be said that such charge is due to a misconception of the approach. The foregoing discussion pointed out that such a charge was unfounded. However, there are difficulties that are more substantive.

First, epoché poses some difficulty in conducting phenomenological research. As indicated earlier, it involves suspending temporarily all presuppositions in such a way that everything except the phenomena and consciousness cease to exist. It involves suspending the entire external world, that includes the physical and social world, researcher's personal biography, stock of knowledge, values, beliefs and all other presuppositions, so that only the phenomenon as a-thing-in-itself can be present in the consciousness. Bracketing at that level is extremely difficult to perform. The noetic process, e.g. thinking, involves the use of language (we always use some form of language while thinking) and language brings with it the typifications, constructs that are taken for granted. Hence all that could be achieved is a thematic awareness not the elucidation of 'pure essences'.

Second, phenomenology seeks to gain knowledge through consciousness. The contents of consciousness are in a continuous flux; they cannot be easily grasped. Consciousness is an activity, not an object, and it presents itself as a fleeting trace or indication, a mere wisp (Polkinghorne, 1989).

Third, as Polkinghorne (1989) noted, access to consciousness is problematic, and the data a researcher collects is several times removed from actual flow of experience. The initial non-reflective, direct engagement with the flow of experience is replaced by the self's relocation to a point of observation. This

relocation is one step removed from experience. Further, such observation of experience (by the respondent) is required to be described in a language. The verbal or written report is not a duplication of what was seen; it is a culturally conventional system of signs that indicates or points towards the prereflective reality. Hence care must be taken to interpret the reports of experiences.

The crucial point that these difficulties indicate is that there are no perfect answers to the methodological concerns of research. The important issue is that which of the paradigms suffer least. In this respect phenomenology seems to rank highly.

3.5 Summary

In the preceding chapter, the rationale for the exploration of the alternative paradigms was set. This chapter, therefore, sought to examine the alternative paradigms of constructivism and phenomenology. The in-depth discussions on the paradigms revealed that both offer suitable alternatives for conducting a 'here-and-now' study in social science. It was further observed that, from the perspective of conducting studies with a theoretical interest, phenomenology offers a better alternative. Hence, the author finds it appropriate for this particular study. To avoid paradigmatic disjunction, it is now necessary to adopt a congruent evaluation approach. The following chapter explores the evaluation approach to this end in view.

Chapter 4

LITERATURE REVIEW

Inquiry Paradigm And The Evaluation Approach

The foregoing chapters provided the rationale for adopting phenomenology as the research paradigm. Having selected the paradigmatic posture, it is necessary to adopt an evaluation approach that is congruent with phenomenology, thereby avoid any paradigmatic disjunction. This chapter examines various evaluation approaches and assesses their explicit and implicit philosophical assumptions to ascertain whether or not they are consistent with the posture adopted by this study.

The chapter is divided into five sections. Given the need to understand the evaluation approaches in terms of some structure, the first section reviews Easterby-Smith's (1986) framework for classifying the evaluation 'schools' and addresses the difficulties associated with it. In view of the limitations, an alternative basis for classification is proposed in the second section. It is useful to look at the approaches using the 'alternative basis' to decide the coherence of the approaches from the paradigmatic standpoint of this study. The approaches are categorized as the conventionalist, the transitionalist and the revisionist approaches. In this section, the features of each approach are first discussed and then the explicit and implicit philosophical assumptions are highlighted. The third section assesses the paradigmatic consistency of the approaches discussed in the preceding section in terms of the posture adopted by this study. The fourth section considers phenomenological evaluation and shows its paradigmatic consistency. The final section summarizes the chapter.

4.1 Review Of Easterby-Smith's Classification Framework

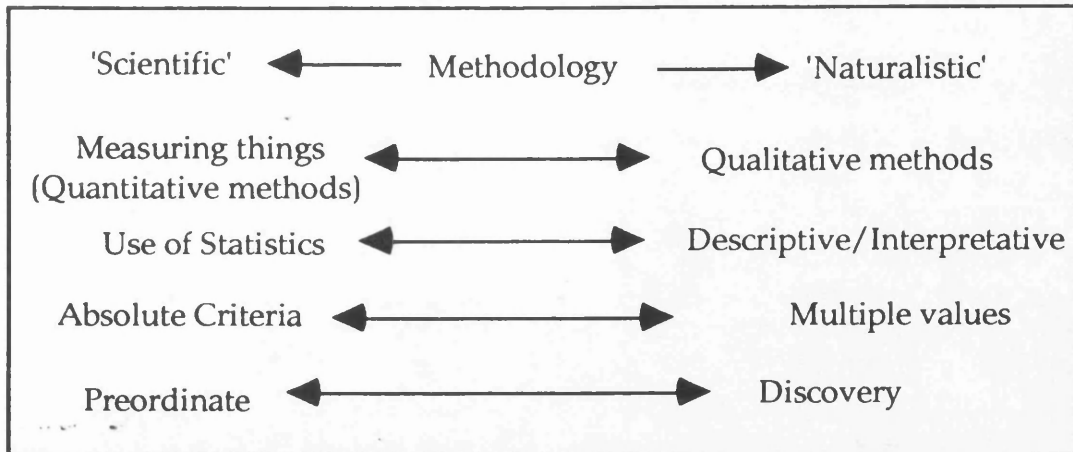
The task of exploring the approaches to evaluation is facilitated by using some classification framework. While a number of authors (see Mahler, 1953; Mackinney, 1957; Brambley, 1991; and Smith and Piper, 1990) have classified the approaches, that offered by Easterby-Smith, (1986) is particularly thought provoking. Although Easterby-Smith's classification framework offered some insights, it also suffered from certain limitations.

Before highlighting the difficulties, it is necessary to discuss the framework.

Easterby-Smith (1986) considered various 'schools' of evaluation (i.e., experimental research, illuminative evaluation, systems model, goal-free evaluation, and interventionalist evaluation) and related them to two underlying dimensions. The first dimension concerned methodology while the second dimension concerned style. He termed these dimensions 'scientific-naturalistic' and 'research-pragmatic' respectively. He mentioned that the first dimension represented two 'research paradigms' at two extremes of a continuum. Quoting Filstead (1979) he acknowledged that these two paradigms represented distinct, and largely incompatible, ways of seeing, and understanding, the world. However, he argued that in practice most evaluations contained elements of each stream, and therefore may be seen to reside somewhere on a more-or-less continuous dimension (Easterby-Smith, 1986). The 'scientific' methodology was described as the one that favoured the use of quantitative methods and attempted to operationalize all variables in measurable terms. Data were analyzed by statistical techniques and assessed against absolute criteria. In particular, the scientific approach preferred preordinate designs. 'Naturalistic' methodology was described as the one that emphasized the importance of discovering significant and important foci for investigation as the study progressed. Correspondingly, this type of methodology emphasized the use of qualitative methods for collecting data, thus enabling focusing and analysis at some later stage in, or after, the study. Data may be assessed against many different value systems. A summary of the characteristics of scientific and naturalistic methodologies is shown in Table 4.1.

In contrast, the second dimension concerned the 'style' of conducting evaluation research. Similar to the first dimension this one was also viewed as a continuum with the 'research' and the 'pragmatic' styles representing the two opposite extremes. The research style was described as the one that stressed the importance of rigorous procedures, whether the methodologies were essentially scientific or naturalistic. It stressed that the direction and emphasis of the evaluation study should be

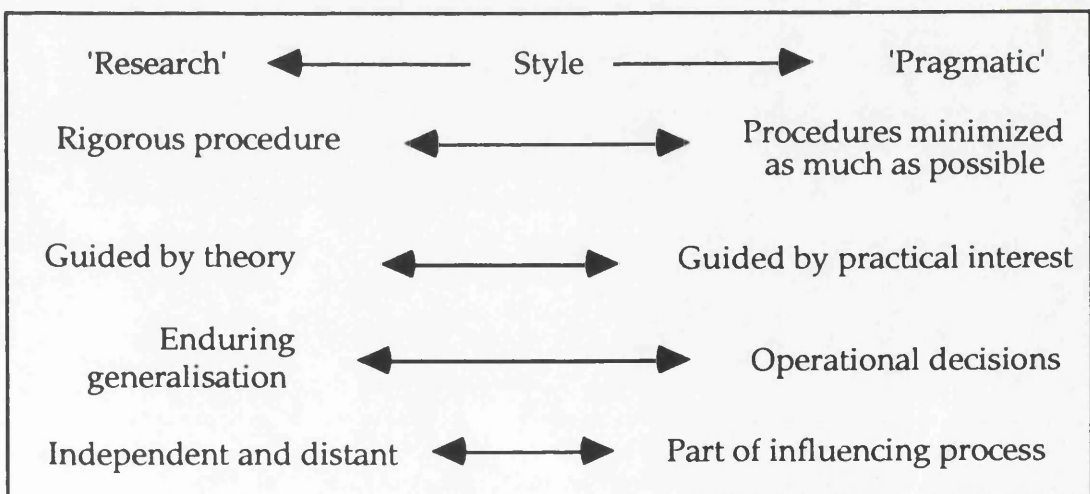
Table 4.1 **Contrasting Methodologies**



(Adopted from Easterby-Smith, 1986)

guided by theoretical considerations, and these considerations were aimed at producing enduring generalizations and knowledge about the learning and developmental process involved. The evaluator, who is normally assumed to be an independent person, is expected to maintain as much objectivity as possible about the courses under investigation. The pragmatic style emphasized reducing data collection and other time consuming aspects of the evaluation to the minimum possible level. The focus of the evaluation was determined by the practical interests of those who were involved in sponsoring it (Easterby-Smith, 1986). The summary of the characteristics of the two styles is shown in Table 4.2 .

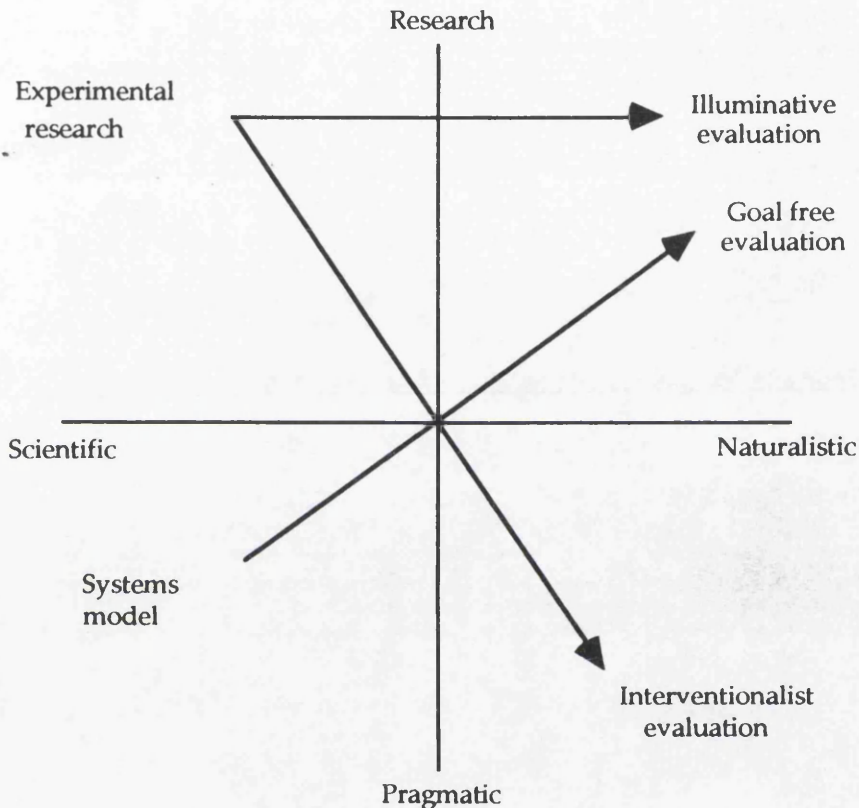
Table 4.2 **Contrasting Styles**



(Adopted from Easterby-Smith, 1986)

Easterby-Smith then formulated a graph with these two dimensions in two axes placed at right angles and plotted the various 'schools' according to their underlying characteristics. The graph is adopted here for reference (Figure 4.1).

Figure 4.1 Models And 'Schools Of Thought' In Evaluation



(Adopted from Easterby-Smith, 1986)

4.1.1 Assessment Of Easterby-Smith's Framework

Although he did not make any claim as to the scientific validity of this graph, he nevertheless argued that this graph did have pragmatic value in distinguishing the main features of the five schools of evaluation. It is the contention of the author of this thesis that this graph does not help much even in the pragmatic sense. It is rather artificial and creates much confusion. As we shall see in the following discussion, it is like putting a straight-jacket to fit the schools into a definite pattern.

Given the characteristics of each category in the two dimensions, one does not fail to observe a number of deficiencies. First, while Easterby-Smith uses the phrase 'distinct paradigms', the way in which he describes 'naturalistic' research, it does not convey the impression of a paradigmatic shift. His description of naturalistic research merely shows a 'softer' approach to conducting research. For example, he argues that both scientific and naturalistic studies with a research style seek to produce *enduring* generalizations. Readers might wish to refer to Chapter 2 of this thesis, where it was mentioned that enduring generalizations, (i.e., time and context free generalizations) are one of the ontological assumptions of conventional (positivistic) research. If the term 'naturalistic' were to be used to refer to a paradigm which is distinct from positivism, then equating it with positivism in terms of generalization clearly creates confusion. Furthermore, even remaining faithful to the ontological and epistemological assumptions of conventional research, a study can (at the methodological level) adopt qualitative methods, use descriptive/interpretative mode of data analysis and presentation, and seek to discover deterministic relationships. In such a case, one does not make a paradigmatic shift, rather one adopts a 'softer' approach to research. Moreover, one notices a conceptual disjunction in the line of argument put forward by Easterby-Smith. Beginning the argument with 'distinct paradigm', using Filstead's (1979) position to substantiate it, and then moving to argue the case as a 'continuous dimension' marks such disjunction. From an ontological and epistemological standpoint the two paradigms are incompatible, hence there cannot be any blended category. In other words there cannot be any continuity. A continuity can only be imagined if one moved away from a philosophical standpoint and focused only upon methodology, remaining largely faithful to the conventional paradigm. In practice, the majority of the studies (as will be seen later in this section) that adopted the features of naturalistic methodology, remained faithful to the assumptions of conventional paradigm. The logical consistency of Easterby-Smith's argument seems to have been lost because of the leap of meaning of the term 'naturalistic' from the paradigm level to the methodology level.

Second, it appears to be simplistic to put scientific and naturalistic research under the research category using the same set of characteristics. While

both naturalistic and scientific studies may adopt rigorous procedures, some form of naturalistic studies attempt neither to generalize nor maintain independent or distant posture with respect to the phenomena under study. Fourth Generation Evaluation (Guba and Lincoln, 1989) is an example of such a form. Again, phenomenological evaluation does not have an identical concern for generalization and theory building as does scientific research. Furthermore, objectivity assumes a different meaning in the case of phenomenological research as compared to the scientific approach.

Despite such criticisms, if one wished to consider whether the approaches fit into the two dimensions mentioned, one is likely to encounter certain other difficulties. Each dimension will now be considered separately to substantiate the point.

a. Methodology Dimension

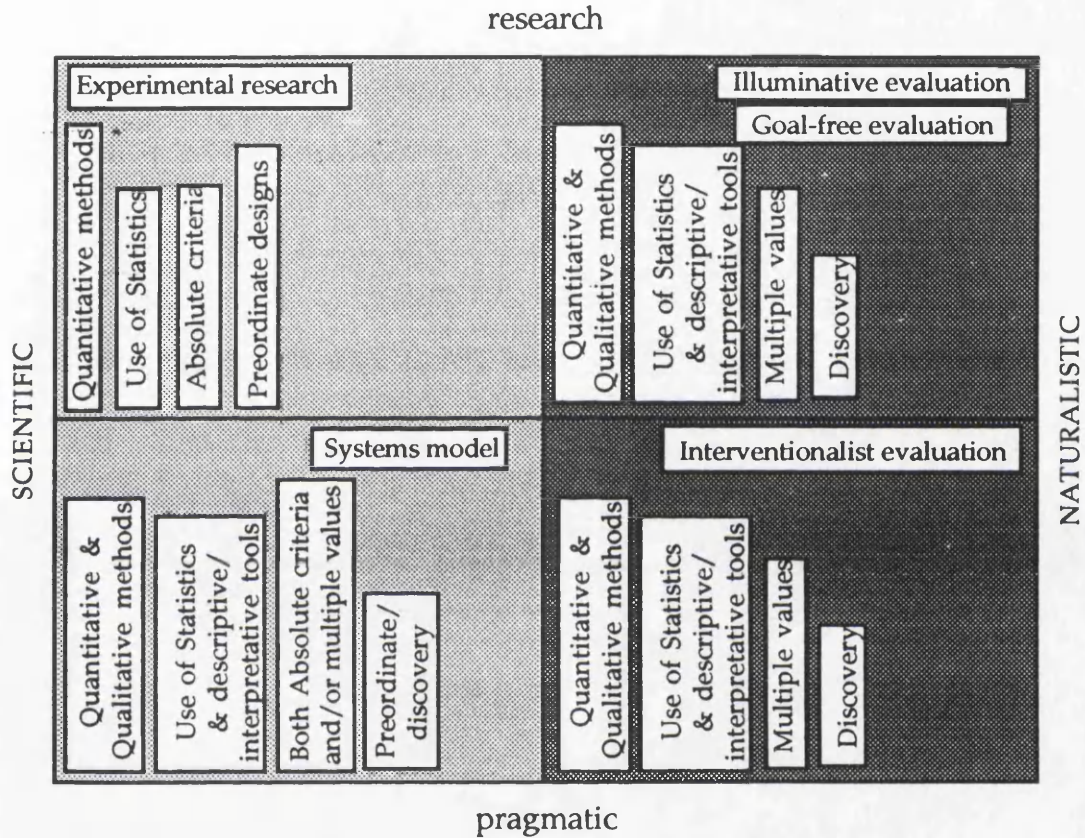
If the characteristics of the methodology dimension and the 'schools' are juxtaposed, something like Figure 4.2 might appear. Figure 4.2 shows that 'experimental research' clearly falls at the scientific end of the continuum, while 'illuminative evaluation', 'goal free' and 'interventionist' evaluations fall towards the 'naturalistic' end. However, the 'systems model' does not fit into the graph.

i. Systems model

In explaining the systems model, Easterby-Smith referred to Hamblin's model of evaluation. Methodologically, Hamblin's model has been developed in opposition to the 'scientific' approach to evaluation. Hamblin stated (1974 : 74), '... *the scientific approach is completely different from the evaluation approach which is recommended in this book.* In making his point, Hamblin contrasted a 'scientific experiment' approach from his 'discovery approach'. He stated that the purpose of the latter is not to determine if desired changes did occur, rather than to determine what should happen next, by discovering what changes (undesired as well as desired) have occurred and are occurring. The focus

is on the ways in which these events relate to the desires, values, expectations and objectives of the various parties involved. It may be noted that Easterby-Smith used terms such as 'discovery' and 'multiple values' as characteristics of naturalistic methodology.

Figure 4.2 Juxtaposition Of The Characteristics Of Methodology Dimension And The Schools Of Evaluation



Hamblin further stated that if one adopted an open-ended approach to evaluation, one could hardly ever set up a scientifically controlled research experiment. It is necessary to adopt a much more discursive, exploratory approach to evaluation in which one is not trying to prove anything, but simply to find things out. Again speaking about statistical techniques, he stressed that such techniques were more useful in experimental research than in discovery. One will recall from Easterby-Smith's formulation that qualitative methods, descriptive/interpretative analysis are the characteristics of naturalistic methodology.

Clearly these points indicate that Hamblin's model is more naturalistic rather than scientific in methodology. This has also been affirmed by Hamblin (1974 : 73),

'Our choice of techniques will doubtless be criticized as being primitive and unscientific; but the aim, as we have said, is to provide usable information rather than scientific proof'.

Essentially, Hamblin (1974) stressed the need to adopt a tailor-made strategy to evaluation to meet situational needs and to generate findings which are immediately usable. Therefore, it is not surprising to note his acknowledgment of the use of quantitative methods. He mentioned (1974 : 69), *'The evaluator who uses both quantified and non-quantified techniques can combine both sets to advantage'*. Further, according to Hamblin (1974), the adoption of 'absolute criteria' may be appropriate in a training programme (such as operator training) where the objectives at different levels are narrow and precisely defined. He mentioned that in such a case, various 'factors' affecting training could be controlled and thus a 'preordinate' design could be adopted. However, as will be seen later in the chapter, the systems model shares the ontological and epistemological assumptions of positivism. From this perspective both experimental research and systems model may be put under the same umbrella of a conventional paradigm.

ii. *Illuminative and Interventionalist Evaluation*

Another disadvantage of Easterby-Smith's framework is that it does not accommodate illuminative and interventionalist evaluations properly. Putting them at the naturalistic end of the continuum, implies that they adopted qualitative methodology. However, as will be noticed in Figure 4.2 illuminative and interventionalist evaluations use both qualitative and quantitative methods. Writing about illuminative evaluation, Parlett and Hamilton, (1972 : 21) mentioned,

'While concentrating on observation and interviews [qualitative methods], the illuminative evaluator does not eschew paper and pencil techniques. Their advantage in

large scale illuminative studies is especially evident. Also survey-type questionnaire used late in a study can sustain and qualify earlier tentative findings. Free and fixed response formats can be included to obtain both quantitative summary data and also open-ended (and perhaps new and expected) comment'.

In discussing interventionalist evaluation, Easterby-Smith acknowledged Patton's (1978) views which recognized that there is a range of techniques, both quantitative and qualitative, which may be used to advantage in evaluation studies. These statements also support the view that these schools does not totally fit into the scheme provided by Easterby-Smith.

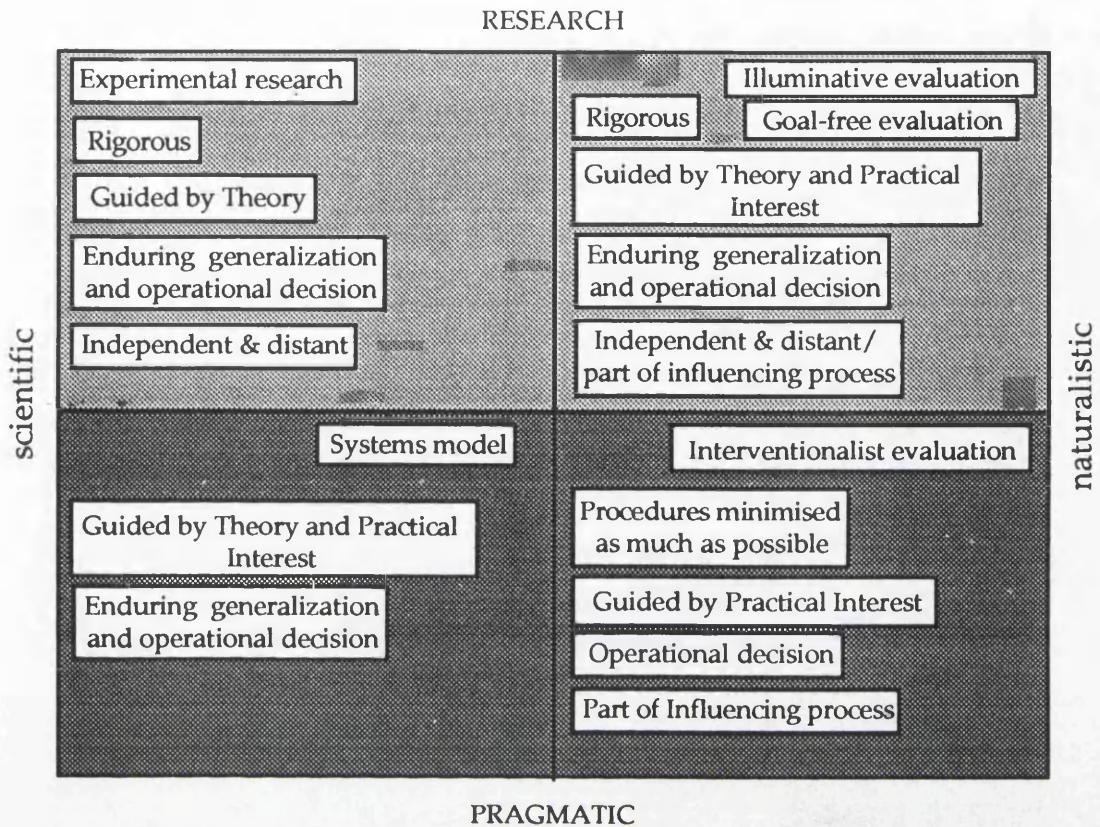
b. Style Dimension

The characteristics of the style dimension, in terms of the same schools, will now be considered. If the schools and their respective characteristics are juxtaposed one is likely to get Figure 4.3. From Figure 4.3, it appears that interventionalist evaluation and experimental research matches the characteristics of the 'pragmatic' and the 'research' ends of the dimensions respectively. However, apart from generating 'enduring generalizations', experimental research also aids in making operational decisions. Examples of experimental research used as 'summative' and 'formative' evaluation are common in the literature. The question of matching of schools such as 'illuminative evaluation', 'goal free evaluation' and 'systems model' with the given characteristics of 'research-pragmatic' dimension is rather uncertain. They will now be considered in turn.

i. Illuminative evaluation

Certain theoretical considerations do form the base of illuminative evaluation (Parlett, 1981). However, the issues of practical interests do not become less important. At the 'negotiation' stage, the evaluator has contact with those commissioning the study (along with others such as participants in the programme) and tries to establish what questions and problems are of most concern.

Figure 4.3 Juxtaposition Of The Characteristics Of Style Dimension And The Schools Of Evaluation



Addressing such questions and problems of the parties of evaluation, necessarily indicates the importance of practical issues (characteristics of pragmatic style) in shaping the evaluative effort. The illuminative evaluator does not provide prescriptive recommendations for decision making. Nevertheless, he contributes to decision making by providing information, comment, and analysis designed to increase understanding of the programme under review (Parlett and Dearden, 1977a). The foregoing analysis points out that illuminative evaluation does not fit to the scheme provided by Easterby-Smith. While it bears certain characteristics of the 'research' end, it also shares some of the characteristics of the 'pragmatic' end.

ii. *Goal-free evaluation*

Let us now turn our attention to 'goal-free' evaluation. Easterby-Smith acknowledged that one might find it a gross generalization to put

'goal-free' evaluation nearer to research end. However, he argued that goal free evaluation should be towards the research end because the evaluator in a goal free evaluation would normally be an outsider. He further argued that this was because those individuals closely involved with the programme would theoretically find their roles to be incompatible with the conduct of goal free evaluation. It is not clear from his argument that how 'role incompatibility' affects style or determines whether it should be towards the research or the pragmatic end. It is possible to imagine the likelihood of generating results of pragmatic importance even when evaluation is carried out by an outsider. This leaves one to a state of uncertainty as to whether goal-free evaluation should be located at the 'research' or the 'pragmatic' end.

iii. Systems Model

Finally, the examination of the systems model also reveals that it does not categorically fit at either the 'research' or the 'pragmatic' end of the style dimension. The procedures proposed by Hamblin (1974) are neither too rigorous as in case of experimental design, nor is too superficial (i.e., non-rigorous), as in case of interventionalist evaluation. Certainly, Hamblin's model is guided by theory. The concept of levels, the concepts relating to the linkages between the levels and the issues of external factors are examples of theoretical considerations. Apart from Hamblin's model, other models such as Brown and Somerville (1977), Smith and George (1984a and 1984b), Brethower and Rummler (1979) make extensive use of systems concepts such as 'inputs', 'processing', 'outputs', 'corrective action' and so forth which undoubtedly are theoretical considerations. These models, however, take into consideration the matter of practical importance in their conduct of the study, and in terms of the use of their results by the decision makers. Likewise, these models, although focusing primarily on the operational decision, also seek to explain phenomena and attempt to formulate generalizations.

4.2 The Alternative Framework

The survey of literature revealed nine different approaches to evaluation research such as scientific approach, cost-benefit approach, systems approach, utilization-focused evaluation, goal-free evaluation, illuminative evaluation, responsive evaluation, fourth generation evaluation and phenomenological evaluation. Table 4.3 provides a simplified summary of the features and the paradigmatic assumptions of each evaluation approach. Of these approaches, the first three are based on the assumptions of conventional paradigm, i.e., they are explicitly grounded in realist ontology, and positivist epistemology and methodology. Hence, they are categorized here as the 'conventional' approaches. Utilization-focused evaluation, goal-free evaluation and illuminative evaluation were developed to overcome some of the difficulties of the scientific approach. However, they sought to resolve such difficulties from a methodological standpoint. Some of the implicit paradigmatic assumptions of these approaches are confusing and contradictory. Hence, these approaches are categorized as transitionalist approaches. Finally, approaches such as responsive evaluation, fourth generation evaluation and phenomenological evaluation entail a revisionist approach to evaluation research. They mark a significant departure from the assumptions of realist ontology and positivist epistemology. Hence, they are categorized as revisionist approaches. Table 4.4 provides some examples of the theoretical and empirical studies conducted using each approach. Table 4.5 shows some examples of the instruments used in the various studies at different points in the evaluation process. The following discussion explores the evaluation approaches and their explicit / implicit paradigmatic assumptions.

Table 4.3 The Features And The Paradigmatic Assumptions Of The Evaluation Approaches

Approaches	Conventionalists			Transitionalists			Revisionists		
	Scientific Approach	Cost-benefit Approach	Systems Approach	Utilization-focused Evaluation	Goal-free Evaluation	Illuminative Evaluation	Responsive Evaluation	Fourth Generation Evaluation	Phenomenological Evaluation
Period	1950s	1970s	1970s	1970s	1970s	1970s	1970s	1980s	1980s
Emphasis	Scientific rigour	Quantitative financial measurement	Hierarchy of levels/Input, process, output, feed-back	Utilization of evaluation results	Ascertaining intended, unintended, anticipated & unanticipated outcomes	Holistic & process orientation	Responsiveness to stakeholders informational needs	Responsiveness & process orientation	Responsiveness, holism & process orientation
Expected outcomes	Scientific proof	Scientific proof in financial terms	Improvement /understanding	Scientific proof, improvement, understanding	Proof, improvement, understanding	Understanding	Understanding	Understanding & management	Understanding & management
Paradigmatic disposition	Explicitly positivistic	Explicitly positivistic	Explicitly /implicitly positivistic	Implicitly positivistic	Naturalistic /implicitly positivistic	Naturalistic (but inconsistent)	Naturalistic (but inconsistent)	Constructivist	Phenomenology
Ontological Assumptions	Objective, Singular	Objective, Singular	Objective, Singular	Perceived	Objective, Singular/negotiated, multiple	Negotiated, multiple	Negotiated, multiple	Mentally Constructed, multiple	Experiential, multiple
b. Generalization	Time & Context free	Time & Context free	Time & Context free	Probable	Time & Context free/ Probable	Probable	Probable	Working hypothesis	Problematic intersubjective
c. Causality	Deterministic	Deterministic	Deterministic	Recognizes Causality	Recognizes Causality	Recognizes Causality	Causal imputation	Mutual simultaneous shaping	Essential structure

Table 4.3 Contd. ...

Table 4.3 Contd. ...

Approaches	Conventionalists			Transitionalists			Revisionists		
	Scientific Approach	Cost-benefit Approach	Systems Approach	Utilization-focused Evaluation	Goal-free Evaluation	Illuminative Evaluation	Responsive Evaluation	Fourth Generation Evaluation	Phenomenological Evaluation
Epistemological Assumptions a. Researcher-researched Relationship b. Influence of Values	Dualistic	Dualistic	Dualistic	Dualistic	Dualistic/monistic	Dualistic/monistic	Monistic	Monistic	Monistic
Design bias	Value freedom	Value freedom	Value freedom	Value laden	Value freedom/Value laden	Value laden	Value laden	Value based	Recognizes influence of values
Theoretical orientation	preordinate	preordinate	preordinate/emergent	preordinate/emergent	Emergent	Emergent	Emergent	Emergent	Emergent
Methodological features	<i>a priori</i> hypothesis	<i>a priori</i> hypothesis	<i>a priori</i> hypothesis	<i>a priori</i> hypothesis	Emergent hypothesis	Emergent hypothesis	Emergent hypothesis	Emergent working hypothesis	Emergent essence & experiential structure
Typical research instruments	Measurement, controls, statistics	Financial measurement, controls, statistics	Measurement, controls, statistics. Focus on events & feedback	Use of both qualitative & quantitative methods	Use of both qualitative & quantitative methods	Primarily use of qualitative methods, progressive focusing	Primarily use of qualitative methods,	Use of Hermeneutic-dialectic method	Use of epoche, eidetic reduction, protocol analysis
Evaluator control	Closed questionnaire, test, grading	Closed questionnaire, cost-benefit exercise	Questionnaire interview, appraisal test, appraisal	Questionnaire interview, appraisal, observation	Interview, questionnaire observation	Indepth-interview, questionnaire observation	Indepth-interview, questionnaire observation	'Human instrument'	Phenomenological interview
Stakeholders served	Retained	Retained	Retained	Shared	Retained	Shared	Shared	Shared	Shared
	Sponsors	Sponsors	Trainers/Sponsors	Decision makers & information users	Sponsors	All stakeholders	All stakeholders	All stakeholders	All stakeholders

Table 4.4 Some Examples Of Theoretical And Empirical Studies Conducted In Each Approach

Approaches	1940s	1950s	1960s	1970s	1980s	1990s
Pre-Scientific Approach	T. W. I., (1945) Walker (1949)		Meigneiz et. al. (1963)			
Scientific Approach	Solomon, (1949)	Mahler, (1953) Mckenney, (1957) Buchanan, (1957a, 1957b) Sorensen, (1958) Stroud, (1959)	Underwood, (1965) Hesseling, (1966) Fredlander, (1967) Bird, (1969) Campbell and Stanley, (1971)	Whitelaw, (1972) Bank, (1975) Fitz-Gibbon and Morris, (1975) Easterby-Smith et. al. (1977) Schwendiman and Albertus, (1977) Bentler and Underwood, (1978) Linn, (1978) Popham (1978) Schutz, (1978) Wilcox (1978) Wiley, (1978) Braun, (1979)	Schwarzkopf et. al. (1980) Cooper, (1981) Maher, (1982) Salinger and Deming, (1982) Blake, (1983) Brook et. al. (1983a, 1983b, 1983c) Easterby-Smith and Tanton, (1985) Dean and Schwartz, (1986) Koehorst and Verhoeven, (1986a, 1986b, 1986c)	Ban and Faerman, (1990) Warner, (1991)
Cost-benefit Approach				Gibb, (1972) Anon (1978) Brown and Somerville, (1977)	Blake, (1983) Urban et. al., (1985) Koehorst and Verhoeven, (1986a, 1986b, 1986c) Bentley, (1987a, 1987b, 1987c) Paquet et. al., (1987) Merlo, (1988)	

Table 4.4 Contd. ...

Table 4.4 Contd. ...

	1940s	1950s	1960s	1970s	1980s	1990s
Approaches Systems Approach			Kirkpartick, (1967) Hamblin, (1968)	Warr et al., (1970) Hamblin, (1974) Brown and Somerville, (1977) Williamson et. al, (1978) Brethower and Rummel, (1979)	Kirkpartick, (1983) Smith and George, (1984a, 1984b) Birnbauer, (1987) Hearn, (1988)	
Utilization-focused Evaluation				Patton, (1978)	Patton, (1978) Patton, (1980) Patton, (1981) Patton, (1982) Patton, (1987)	
Goal-free Evaluation			Scriven, (1967)	Scriven, (1972) Scriven, (1974) Deutscher, (1976)	Jameson, (1980)	
Illuminative Evaluation				Parlett, (1971) Parlett and King, (1971) Parlett, (1972) Parlett and Hamilton, (1972) Parlett, (1975a, 1975b, 1975c) Dearden and Laurillard, (1976) Jamieson et.al., (1976) Parlett and Dearden, (1977a, 1977b)	Reynolds and Hodgson, (1980) Hodgson and Reynolds, (1981) Parlett, (1981) Taylor and Bogden, (1984)	

Table 44 Contd. ...

Table 4.4 Contd. ...

Approaches	1940s	1950s	1960s	1970s	1980s	1990s
Responsive Evaluation				Stake, (1975)	Stake, (1980)	
Fourth Generation Evaluation					Lincoln and Guba, (1985) Guba and Lincoln, (1989)	
Phenomenological Evaluation					Reynolds and Hodgson, (1980) Hodgson and Reynolds, (1981) Burgoyne and Hodgson, (1982) Mmubuosi, (1983, 1985, 1987a, 1987b) Tanton and Fox (1987)	

Table 4.5 Some Examples Of Empirical Studies Using Various Instruments At Different Points

Instruments	Pre-Course	During Course	End of / Post Course	Longer term Post Course
Questionnaire	Ban and Faerman (1990)	--	Ban and Faerman (1990)	Ban and Faerman (1990)
	--	Dean and Schwartz, (1986)	--	--
	Brook et. al. (1983)	--	Brook et. al. (1983)	Brook et. al. (1983)
	Merlo, (1988)	--	Merlo, (1988)	--
	Braun (1979)	--	Braun (1979)	Braun (1979)
	Schwendiman and Albretus, (1977)	--	--	Schwendiman and Albretus, (1977)
	Long and Jinks (1982)	--	Long and Jinks (1982)	Long and Jinks (1982)
	--	--	Cooper (1981)	Cooper (1981)
	Schwarzkopf et. al. (1980)	--	--	Schwarzkopf et. al. (1980)
	Salinger and Deming, (1982)	--	Salinger and Deming, (1982)	--
Testing	Easterby-Smith et. al. (1977)	Easterby-Smith et. al. (1977)	Easterby-Smith et. al. (1977)	Easterby-Smith et. al. (1977)
	--	--	--	Blake (1983)
Appraisal	Dean and Schwartz (1986)	Dean and Schwartz (1986)	Dean and Schwartz (1986)	--
	Salinger and Deming, (1982)	--	Salinger and Deming, (1982)	Salinger and Deming, (1982)
Observer	Dean and Schwartz (1986)	--	Dean and Schwartz (1986)	Dean and Schwartz (1986)
	Maier (1983)	--	--	Maier (1983)
Interview	--	Tanton and Fox (1987)	--	--
	Ban and Faerman (1990)	--	--	Ban and Faerman (1990)
	Blake (1983)	--	Blake (1983)	Blake (1983)
Cost-benefit exercise/ bottom line	--	--	Salinger and Deming, (1982)	--
	Merlo (1988)	--	Merlo (1988)	--
Critical Incident technique	Brook et. al. (1983)	--	--	Brook et. al (1983)
	--	--	--	Salinger and Deming (1982)
Informal measures	--	--	--	Walker, Jr. (1949)
	--	--	--	Beaulieu (1978)

4.2.1 The Conventionalist Approaches

The scientific approach, the cost-benefit approach and the systems approach are discussed in this category. All these approaches explicitly or implicitly hold the assumptions of the realist ontology and the positivist epistemology.

a *Scientific Approach*

One of the earliest example of training evaluation document is the Training Within Industry (T. W. I.) report (1945). Despite the scale of training effort (more than one million supervisors were trained by some twelve thousand trainers) the evaluative effort was rather rudimentary. To this effect, Hesselning (1966 : 45) wrote--

'In the given situation the measured results of T.W.I. at any rate proved a good selling argument it is unfair to judge this evaluation on the basis of what we know now'

It was against the back drop of the pre-scientific evaluative attempts that the experimental and quasi-experimental approach emerged. Out of the dissatisfaction with the pre-scientific studies, researchers in evaluation adopted the natural science model to establish causal linkages between a training programme and its effects. The model sought to control various threats to internal and external validity so that data obtained were value free, objective and neutral. The proponents of the scientific approach argued this would enable them to make enduring generalizations and valid predictions about the social phenomenon under study. Campbell and Stanley (1971), Campbell et al (1970), Hesselning (1966), and Suchman (1967) were among the best known representatives of experimental research in evaluation studies. Apart from these names, some other researchers in this tradition who contributed methodologically or conducted empirical studies or subscribed to the ideas of this approach included Solomon, (1949); Mahler, (1953); Buchanan, (1957); McKenney, (1957); Sorensen, (1958); Stroud, (1959); Underwood, (1965); Fredlander, (1967); Bird, (1969); Whitelaw, (1970); Burgoyne and Cooper, (1975); Fitz-Gibbon and Morris, (1975); Kearney, (1975); Bentler and Underwood, (1978); Linn, (1978); Popham, (1978); Schutz, (1978); Wilcox, (1978); Wiley, (1978); Schwarzkoff et. al., (1980); Maher, (1982); Salinger and Deming, (1982); Blake, (1983); Brook et. al., (1983); Koehorst and Verhoevan, (1986a, 1986b, 1986c); Ban and Faerman, (1990). In experimental research, the evaluator carries out a scientific experiment to prove or disprove a hypothesis about the effects of training (Hamblin, 1974). The research designs in experimental research are geared to ensure rigorous control of

various factors and variables so that the effects of training can be isolated and attributed to it. The threats to internal and external validity (Campbell and Stanley, 1971) are encountered by a random selection of participants in a training programme along with a random selection of control groups which are identical to that of the treatment (training) group except that they do not undergo training. Ideally, elaborate designs (see Campbell and Stanley, 1971; Kearney, 1975) with before and after test are recommended. One such design is the 'Solomon-Four-Group Design' (Solomon, 1949). It consists of one experimental and three equivalent control groups in which individuals are randomly assigned to each group. Evaluation is carried out on the basis of preordinate designs with prespecified and concrete criteria. Apart from preordinate methodological designs, authors in this tradition, such as Fitz-Gibbon and Morris, (1975) and Bank (1975) stressed the need for evaluation based on some *a priori* theory or model. Emphasis is placed upon precise and quantitative measurements for conducting sophisticated statistical manipulations (see Hoepfner, 1971); Bentler and Underwood, (1978); Chi and Glaser, (1978); Linn, (1978); Popham, (1978); Schutz, (1978); Wilcox, (1978); Wiley, (1978). The objectives of the training programme are determined precisely by analyzing the needs for the training. These objectives are compared to the actual outcomes of training expressed in precise terms. Comparison is also made using before and after treatment data to ascertain the impacts of treatment. If the objectives/goals of training are denoted by 'G', effects by 'E', pre-training state by ' t_0 ' and post training state by ' t_1 ', given that all extraneous variables are controlled then, $E-G=0$ and $E-G>0$ will indicate that training was effective while $E-G<0$ is partially effective if $t_1-t_0>0$. This school endeavours to seek objective reality, formulate generalizations and build theory.

The elitist status (Gowler and Legge, 1984) of this tradition is reflected in Patton's (1978) work. He commented that evaluation research was dominated by the natural science paradigm that assumed quantitative measurement, experimental design and multivariate, parametric statistical analysis to be the epitome of 'good' science. However, the emphasis on expressing the objectives and effects of training in precise and quantitative terms presents itself to the obvious difficulty of handling complex organizational phenomena. Many complex issues are not

amenable to precise and concrete measurement and comparison. Attempts to concretize measurement and comparison often lead to the emphasizing of superficial issues of a trivial nature. Furthermore, a true experimental design may be theoretically elegant (given the yardstick of conventional paradigm) but in practical terms may be hardly achievable. For instance, the studies conducted in this tradition as reported by Hesseling (1966 : 113) invariably ended with such disclaimers as--

'... the instruments we used have to be tested in more situations and to be refined before we can attain the accuracy and validity needed for drawing conclusions about the effectiveness of training.'

Similar observations were also made by other researchers in this tradition. For example Linn (1978), after reviewing some studies on the evaluation of education programmes under U. S. Office of Education observed a trade-off between rigour and feasibility. Another author, Burstein, (1978 : 7) stressed that,

'To derive the most tenable analytical models for educational research and evaluation, emphasis should be placed on quasi/non-experimental methodology coupled with more intensive examination of within-class-room process.'

Quasi-experimental designs compromise rigour in preference to feasibility. This implies that quasi-experimental designs, as compared to their experimental counterparts, lack the ability to control the sources of threats to internal and external validity. This deficiency is due to the complexity of the social setting, the constraints of ensuring equivalent control groups, and the inability to take pre-test measures. Hence, such designs fail to establish definitive causal links between a treatment and its effects.

Studies adopting 'softer' designs to suit practical situations abound in the literature. One such example is the evaluation conducted by Easterby-Smith et. al. (1977). In this study, the experimental group consisted of participants from one company while the control group constituted participants from five different companies. However, the authors believed that there were some degree of similarity between the

two groups. In another recent study of a training programme called AHRDP (the Advanced Human Resource Development Programme) for first-line supervisors, Ban and Faerman (1990 : 278) arguing their case for pre-test , post-test design mentioned,

'the literature on training evaluation may be too optimistic in recommending experimental or quasi-experimental design for many field situations. While such an approach is certainly desirable, a careful pretest-posttest designs may be adequate for most purposes'.

Another example is the study conducted by Brook et. al. (1983a, 1983b, 1983c). To summarize therefore, a substantial portion of the evaluation literature represent studies that principally used pretest-posttest or simply post-test designs instead of elaborate designs. Examples include Jones and Rogers, (1978); Aiken, (1980); Schwarzkopf, (1980); Maher, (1982); and Blake, (1983). Furthermore, Easterby-Smith and Tanton, (1985) commented that many practitioners remain contented by 'dishing out happiness sheet' (questionnaire administered to assess participants' reaction to the aspects of the training programme just attended).

Paradigmatic Assumptions

Irrespective of the degree of rigour, all these studies (ranging from the formal experimental research to the more informal studies) explicitly or implicitly conform to the assumptions of realist ontology and positivist epistemology. The scientific approach's concern for uncovering 'objective truth', 'causal relationship', seeking enduring generalization for valid prediction, highlight its faithfulness to realist ontology. The statistical and physical control and manipulations (i.e., randomness and control groups) testify to the dualistic relation between the inquirer and the inquired into. Such a design also demonstrates the concern for generalizing findings which are free from value bias. The paradigmatic connection between quasi-experimental, pretest-posttest (without control groups) or post test only, and the assumptions of conventional paradigm, is not as clear and evident as it is in case of experimental design. This is because these design

make a considerable departure from the 'proper' methodology which is consistent with the positivist epistemology and realist ontology. Consistency is impaired by these designs' inability to generate objective and value free findings, establish causal linkages or make enduring generalization. Nevertheless, the researchers using such a design, implicitly hold that there is an objective reality which is governed by causal linkages, about which it is possible to evolve general statements. They further maintain that knowledge about such reality can only be gained by maintaining a dualistic relationship between knower and the known, and by ensuring value freedom. However, they recognize that what they achieve is something which is imperfect and which falls short of what is ideally required. The disclaimers such as the one quoted earlier go to support the point just made.

b. Cost Benefit Approach

The cost benefit approach is basically an extension of the scientific approach. While the scientific approach attempts to establish deterministic causal linkages between a training programme (for example) and the post training changes, the cost benefit approach stresses the need to know whether those changes are cost effective. Ideally, evaluation in terms of cost effectiveness involves ascertaining the cost of a training programme, establishing the causal linkages between training and post training changes; ascertaining, financially, the amount of benefit derived from the training and finally, subtracting the cost from the benefits to determine the value of the training programme. Basically, this approach is geared to serve the sponsor's need to justify the cost of a training programme. Studies conducted in this tradition may adopt a design such as the experimental, quasi-experimental pre-test/post-test or post test only, depending on the situational constraints and the degree of rigour aimed. Apart for the generic difficulties of conventional paradigm (discussed in chapter 2), another limitation of this approach is the difficulty of identifying the benefits of training in financial terms.

Paradigmatic Assumptions

Since the cost benefit approach is an extension of the scientific approach, the researchers in this tradition share implicitly or explicitly the assumption of the realist ontology and the positivist epistemology.

c. System Approach

Unlike the scientific approach that emphasizes proving or disproving the effects of training, the systems approach stresses the improvement of the quality of the training. In response to the boom in the demand for management development in the late 1960s and early 1970s, the system approach evolved to help trainers to refine their products (Smith and Piper, 1990). The scientific approach, having a different focus, was clearly inappropriate. Evaluation in this approach is carried out at various points and information is fed back for monitoring the training effort. Within the systems approach, one observes two groups of researchers. First there are those who emphasize evaluation in terms of a hierarchy of levels or steps. Second are those who view training and evaluation in terms of an input-output framework. The prominent researchers belonging to the first group are Kirkpatrick, (1967); Warr, et. al., (1970); Boydell, (1970) Stufflebeam, et. al., (1971); Hamblin, (1968, 1974); Thurley, et. al., (1975); and Hearn, (1988). While the researchers belonging to the second group include Brown and Somerville, (1977); Williamson, et. al., (1978); Brethower and Rummler, (1979), Smith and George, (1984a, 1984b) and Brinbraur (1987). The two trends are considered below.

i. Hierarchy Of Levels

The Table 4.6 provides a summary of the levels proposed by some of the researchers. Brewster (1980) noted that such classifications of levels have been put forward on the basis of the point in the training cycle at which judgement is made. Table 4.6 reveals that different authors have used different words to refer the same level. However some clarification may be necessary.

Table 4.6 Some Classifications Of The Levels Of Evaluation

Thorndike 1947, 1949	Kirkpatrick 1967	Boydell 1970	Warr, et. al., 1970	Stufflebeam, et. al., 1971	Hamblin 1974	Thurley, et. al., 1975	Hearn 1988
-	-	-	Context	Context	-	Organizational Context Objectives	Need Assessment
-	-	-	Input	Input	-	Process	-
-	-	-	Reaction	Process	Reaction	Reaction	-
Immediate	Learning	Knowledge	Immediate	Product	Learning	-	Reaction Assessment
-	-	Understanding Application	-	-	-	-	Learning Assessment
Intermediate	Behaviour	Transfer	Intermediate	-	Job Behaviour	Content	Job Behaviour Evaluation
Ultimate	Result	Medium Term Long Term	Ultimate	-	Organization Ultimate	-	-
-	-	-	-	-	-	-	Institutionaliza -tion*

Based on Brewster (1980)

* The 'Final Stage' (i.e. Institutionalization) does not fit in the table

Context: What training should be done? In this type of evaluation, data are collected on the situation to ascertain training needs of participants and the type of training best suited.

Input: How should training be conducted? Data on various inputs to training (such as the trainees, contents of training, resources, methods and media of training) are examined to determine what will be included in the training and how, when, and by whom it will be done.

Process: How well is the training being done? Evaluation is conducted to ascertain the effects of training as it is progressing. It is geared to assess the causes of such effects in measurable terms for the purpose of modifying the programme as it is being conducted.

These levels of evaluation take place before or during the training. Other levels have been termed generically as 'outcomes' evaluation.

Reaction level: What did the trainees think of it? This overlaps the process level. It can occur during training or immediately after the training and assesses the trainees' views of the training.

Learning/ Immediate level: What has the trainees learnt? This form of evaluation can take place at the end of the training programme or some time later. It deals with such issues as the acquisition of new skills, knowledge or attitude as a result of training.

Behaviour/ Intermediate level: What changes have occurred in the way the trainee carries out his or her job? At this level the evaluation is concerned with the effects of the training back at the work place. It assesses whether the participant is doing his or her job better.

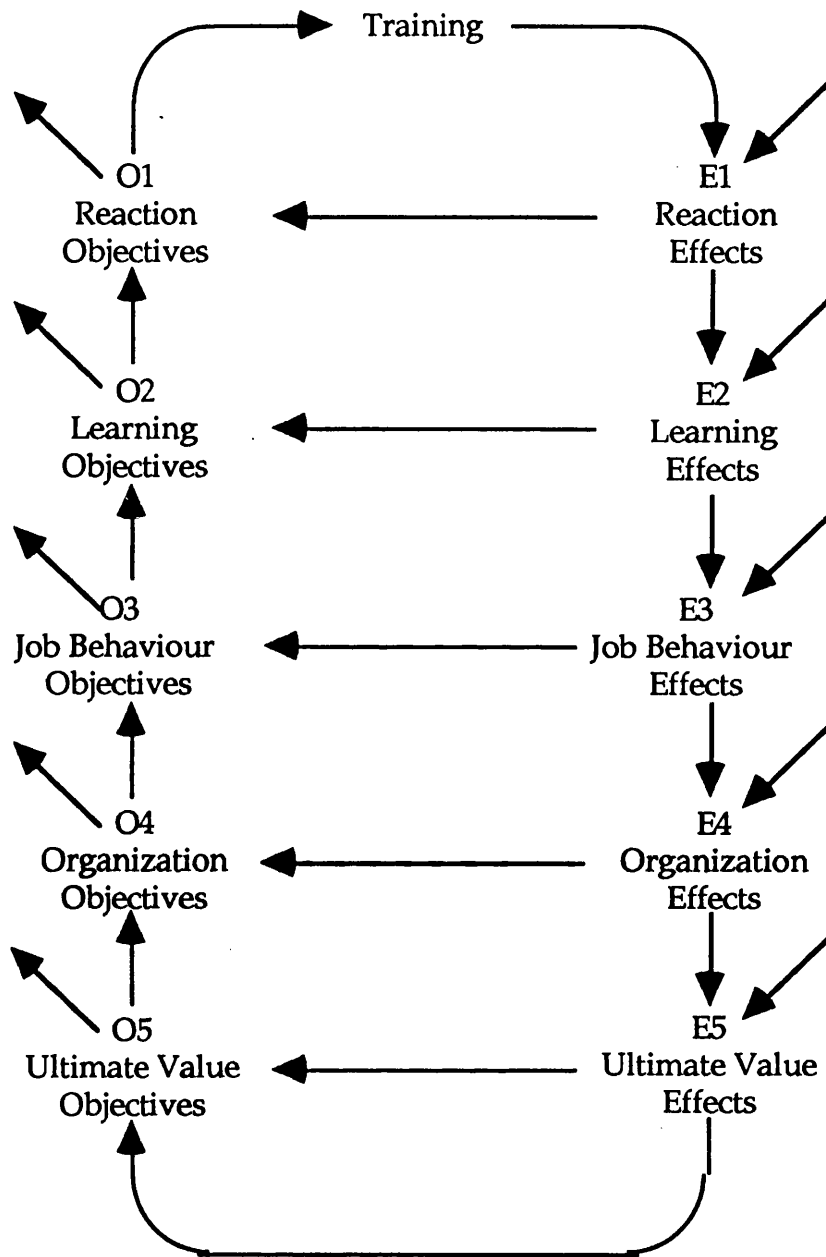
Results/ Ultimate level: Is the organization functioning better? This level of evaluation examines whether the changes brought about by training have contributed to the overall operation of the organization in which the participants works.

Various authors such as Kirkpatrick (1967), Warr, et. al., (1970) and Hamblin, (1974) have acknowledged that establishing the effects of training beyond the learning level becomes progressively more difficult. Kirkpatrick's (1967) 'steps of evaluation' and Hamblin's, (1974) 'cycle of evaluation' largely concern the post-course evaluation. Warr, et. al., (1970) address the area of needs assessment and the planning stage in addition (Smith and Piper, 1990). However, as there are significant similarities among these different works, those of Hamblin's and Hearn's (1988) work, will be considered.

Hamblin's model proposed to evaluate the effects of a training programme in terms of objectives set at five levels, which included (as shown in Figure 4.4) reaction, learning, job behaviour, organization and ultimate value. According to him, evaluation of training follows a cycle of events/ activities. First objectives at the ultimate level are set which lead to objective setting at the organization level and so on to reaction level. All these objectives determine the nature of training effort. Training leads to effects at each of these levels starting from reaction. Each level of effect is then evaluated against corresponding objectives. The results are fed back to redefine the objectives at each level. In his model, Hamblin assumed a deterministic 'cause-and-effect chain' that linked the five levels of training effect. He recognized that the links may snap at any level due to the effects of factors external to training. Therefore, he suggested that any evaluation at the higher levels should be preceded by evaluation at the lower levels in order to ascertain the effects of training at the stated level. Further, he recognized that the goals at each level could also be achieved by means other than training. Therefore, performing a water-tight evaluation would mean setting up an integrated control system, which is likely to outweigh the benefits derived from evaluation. Hamblin suggested that the problem was to find the right amount of evaluation to fit the situation, as he believed that one is faced with a 'fragmented system of control' (Woodward 1970).

Hamblin was inclined to adopt qualitative techniques of data collection and proposed a heuristic and 'discovery' approach. However, he endorsed the use of quantitative research techniques as well. He asserted that the

Figure 4.4 The Cycle Of Evaluation



(Adopted form Hamblin, 1974)

evaluator who uses both quantified and non-quantified techniques can combine both sets to advantage (Hamblin, 1974).

In the 'process model', as proposed by Hearn (1988), evaluation forms a wider framework in which the transfer of training and institutionalization were also included. While transfer of training implied the extent to which learning (from training) was used on the job,

the term institutionalization (see, Michalak, 1981) was used to imply the long-term maintenance of newly acquired skills. Hearn argued that by combining the elements from transfer, evaluation and institutionalization research, his model served as a means of overcoming their individual weaknesses. He wrote (Hearn, 1988 : 23) that,

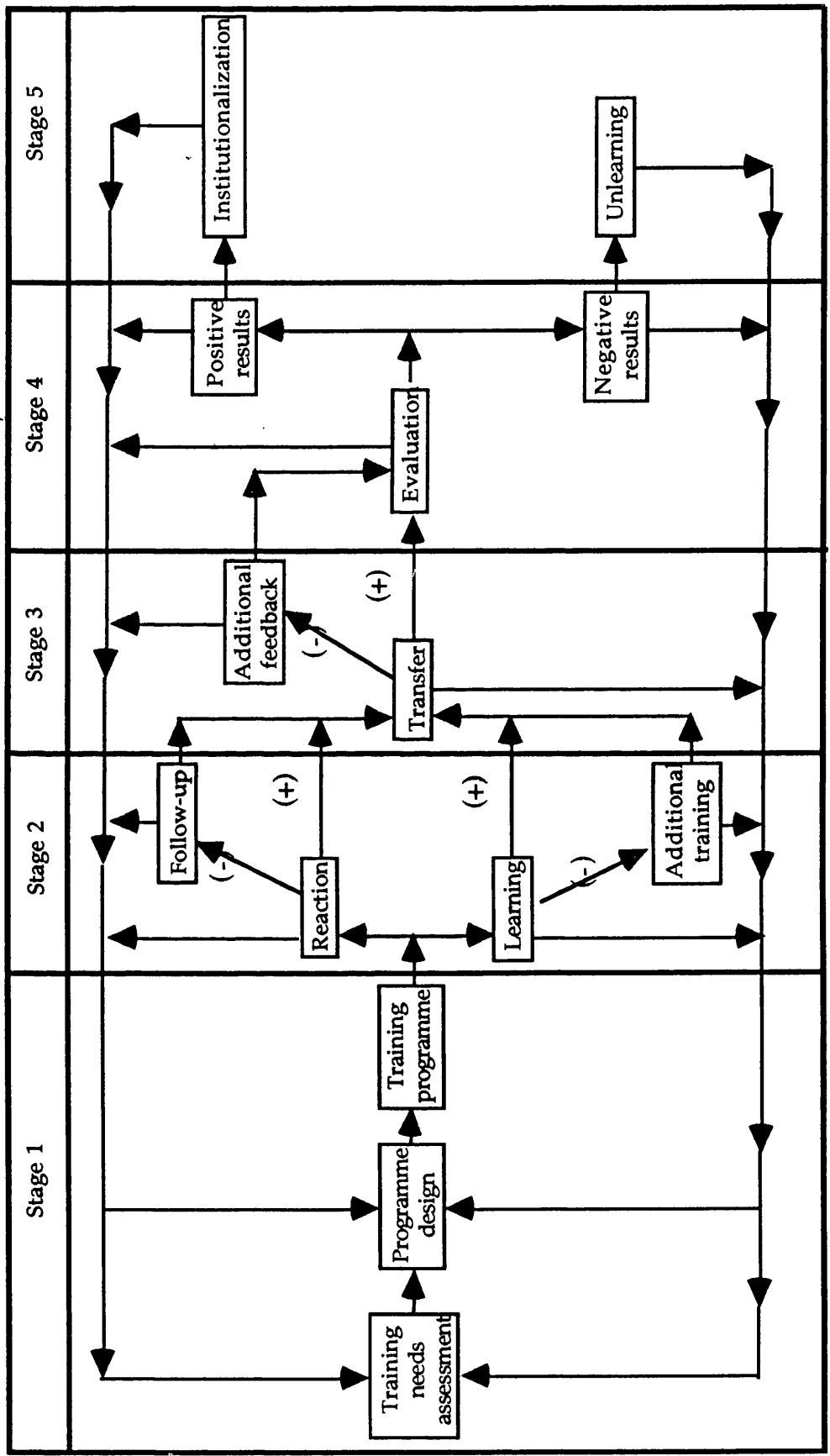
'It is not sufficient to discuss the transfer of training to the job without planning for its evaluation and possible institutionalization. Likewise, the evaluation of training without first transferring the training to the job is intuitively lacking in validity. Finally, the institutionalization of training which has not been transferred to the job and evaluated there is comparable to 'counting one's chickens before they hatch'. Each of these elements needs to be used in conjunction with the others.'

Figure 4.5 represents the process model which includes the following five stages:

- Stage 1: The determination of organization's training needs, designing and conducting a training programme.
- Stage 2: Assessing whether or not training was learned and what the trainees' attitudes are towards training.
- Stage 3: Assessing whether or not training was transferred to the job.
- Stage 4: The evaluation of training for on-the-job positive as well as negative results.
- Stage 5: The institutionalization of positive results plus the unlearning of techniques with negative consequences.

Although the author viewed only stage 4 as evaluation the earlier stages conveniently fit in the broader spectrum of the term 'evaluation' as used by others (see Table 4.6). According to Hearn, the entire process is

Figure 4.5 Five-stage Process Model of Training



(Adopted from Hearn, 1988)

cyclical in which negative effects of training are taken into account for corrective measures while the positive are ultimately institutionalized.

ii. *Input-output Framework*

The authors in this group made explicit use of systems concepts. Examples of terms such as 'input', 'process', 'output', 'feedback', 'processing system', 'receiving system', 'training system', 'general organization system' are common in their work. One observes a high degree of similarity in the works of various authors in this group. Of course there are also variations, modifications, some improvements and differences of emphasis. For example, Brown and Somerville (1977) emphasized the cost effectiveness of training programmes, while Williamson, et. al., (1978) had a definite bias towards ensuring internal validity, goal-outcome congruence, external validity, and construct validity. Nevertheless, both the studies remained faithful to systems perspective. Given the high level of similarity among the various models, the works of Brown and Somerville (1977) and Brethower and Rummler (1979) will be considered below.

Brown and Somerville (1977) proposed a goal based evaluation with feedback mechanism integrated into a systems framework. They claimed that a control system based on measurement lay at the heart of the evaluation concept. Actual performance is compared with predetermined standards to highlight any variances and, therefore, any modifications that may be needed. In addition, the authors attempt to quantitatively determine the effectiveness of each management development programme and the overall performance rating of the management development department. Figure 4.6 represents the model.

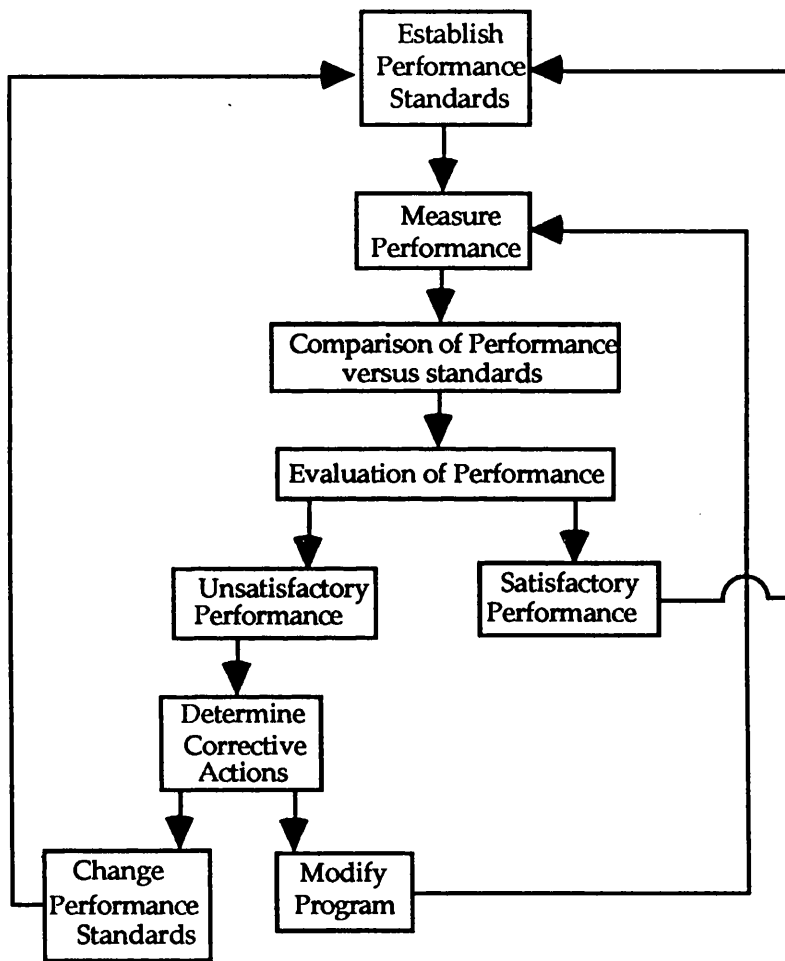
According to the authors, this quantitative approach to evaluation involved four steps-

1. Establishment of performance standards.
2. Actual performance measurement.
3. Comparison of actual performance with an established standard, and finally,

4. Evaluation of performance and the determination of corrective action.

This model suggested that the application of this process yields an 'effectiveness index' that measures the success of a programme and that of the total function of training.

Figure 4.6 Evaluation And Feedback Process

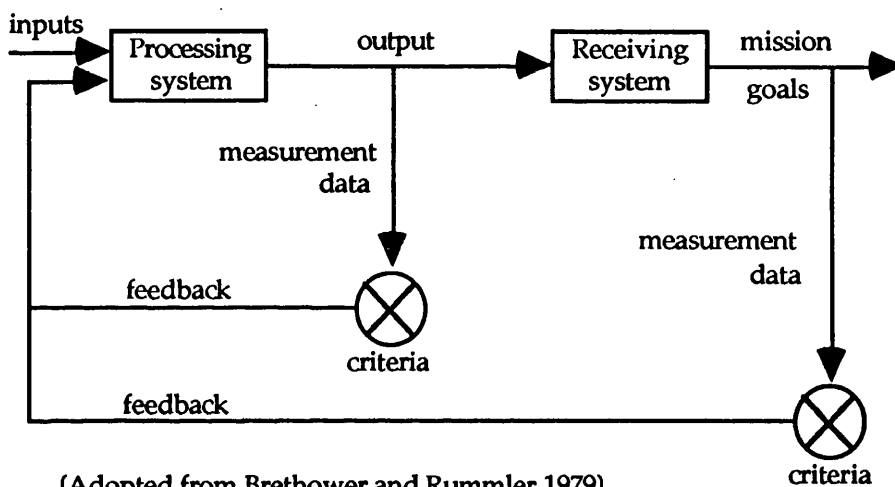


(Adopted from Brown and Somerville, 1977)

Brethower and Rummler (1979) adopted a much wider systems perspective in their model of evaluation. According to them, training is a sub-system of the general organizational system. The ideal training system consists of two sub-systems the 'receiving system' and the 'processing system'. They have identified a number of systems

components in dealing with the model. These components (shown in Figure 4.7) include the inputs, the processing system, the output of the processing system, the receiving system, the goals or mission of the receiving system, the evaluation of accomplishment of mission goals in terms of stated criteria, the evaluation of the outputs of the processing system in terms of product criteria, and finally, the feedback of results of evaluation into the processing system for corrective action. Figure 4.7 represent their model.

Figure 4.7 A Model Of General System Applied To Education



From this model, they have generated four levels of evaluation which are essentially similar to the stages of evaluation proposed by Kirkpatrick (1967). These levels address questions such as whether the trainees are happy with the course? Does the training course teach the concepts? Are the concepts used on the job? Finally, does the application of the concepts positively affect the organization? To implement evaluation, Brethower and Rummler (1979) devised an 'evaluation matrix' aimed to help the evaluator in terms of issues such as-- What we want to know? What might be measured? It included measuring dimensions, sources of data, alternative data gathering method, and evaluation criteria for each level of evaluation.

While some models of the system approach suffer from the difficulties of measurement (e.g., Brown and Somerville, 1977), others suffer from the

inability to handle unintended and unanticipated outcomes of training (e.g., Kirkpatrick, 1967; Brethower and Rummler, 1979). They all suffer from the generic difficulties of the conventional paradigm (discussed in Chapter 2)

Paradigmatic Assumptions

Despite the shift in emphasis between the scientific approach and the systems approach, the latter subscribes explicitly or implicitly to the assumptions of the conventional paradigm. Therefore, one observes that evaluation in this approach is both goal-based and advocates (where possible) the use of scientific research methods such as experimental, quasi-experimental and pretest-posttest research designs. One also notes that this approach does not preclude the possibility of using qualitative methods of data collection. However, qualitative methods are used principally to support quantitative methods, or are used where the application of quantitative methods is constrained by situational factors.

Let us explore now the paradigmatic assumptions of the models in this approach. From Williamson, et. al., (1978) one gets a clear indication that their model was based on the assumptions of a realist ontology and a positivist epistemology. For instance, the authors asserted the need to evaluate whether a programme had internal validity (i.e., that training and its effects were causally connected), and external validity (whether the effects were generalizable). It was mentioned earlier that causality and generalization are the assumptions of a realist ontology. Smith and George (1984a, 1984b) based their model on Williamson, et. al., (1978). In an abstract of an article, Smith and George (1984a : 189) mentioned that, '*This article discusses a behavioural science approach to the evaluation of training programme*'. Clearly a behavioural science approach subscribes to the assumptions of a realist ontology and a positivist epistemology. Smith and George (1984a : 191) further held that, '*The goals should be stated in terms of observable events*'. This is a requirement for avoiding subjectivity, and thereby ensuring objectivity in positivist epistemology. Smith and George (1984a, 1984b) also asserted that the evaluation procedure, basically, consisted of testing the assumptions of

their model. Preordinate models, hypotheses or assumptions, and their testing, are the features of a conventional paradigm. The authors' attempt to test assumptions indicate their subscription to the idea of a deterministic causal connection (as in realist ontology). The assumption of causality is more explicitly maintained in another statement. Smith and George (1984a : 191) stated that,

'The next step is to determine how the employees who have gone through the system have changed and whether the change resulted from the training programme or some other factor'.

In addition, the authors' concern for generalizing the programme's effects indicates their attestation to a realist ontology. Furthermore, the proposition to use control groups, quasi-experimental designs, and criterion-referenced tests, all bear testimony that their model heavily subscribes to the assumption of a realist ontology and a positivist epistemology.

Warr, et. al., (1970) and Kirkpatrick, (1967) also share the assumptions of the conventional paradigm. In both models, the authors assume a deterministic causal linkage between the adjacent levels/steps. Further, Warr, et. al., (1970) used a control group (see Case G in Warr et. al. 1970) which clearly indicates the authors' intention to establish causality and objectivity. Besides their emphasis on questionnaire and measurement, and their use of before-after-tests, demonstrates their reliance on the assumptions of a realist ontology and a positivist epistemology. The use of interviews, observations, and other qualitative techniques should not dissuade one from drawing the conclusion just mentioned. Although these techniques were used at the cost of precision, they do show that quantitative instruments do not yield relevant data. The underlying assumption is implicit in their concluding comment. They wrote (Warr, et. al., 1970 : 87)--

'But unless the attempt is made, useful lessons may go unlearned, the planning of future programmes may suffer, and valuable resources in terms of managerial time and effort may be wasted'.

Planning future programmes so as to prevent wastage implies knowing the deterministic causal connections, and drawing generalizations from past programmes. Similar observations may also be made in case of Kirkpatrick (1967). The following statements illustrate the point. Kirkpatrick (1967 : 315) asserted that, '*To determine effectiveness, attempts should be made to measure in objective terms*'. Kirkpatrick (1967 : 315) also noted that,

'A difficulty in the evaluation of training is evident at the outset, technically called 'the separation of variables'; that is, how much of the improvement is due to the training as compared to other factors? This is the problem that makes it very difficult to measure results that can be attributed directly to a specific training programme.'

Finally, Kirkpatrick (1967 : 315) suggested that,

' ... it is worthwhile if training programmes are going to increase in effectiveness and their benefits are to be made clear to top management.'

The point is that the inclination to 'separate variables' and 'attribute results directly to training' demonstrate the adherence to the assumptions of the conventional paradigm.

As Hearn's (1988) process model is an extension of Kirkpatrick's (1967) work, he may also be said to be an adherent of the conventional paradigm. Brown and Somerville's (1977) work may also be bracketed within the conventional paradigm. The idea of deterministic causality is a crucial element in their model. Commenting on the indicators of measurement, Brown and Somerville, (1977 : 32) wrote,

'Perhaps these measurement factors monitor a larger portion of the programmes output (testing more of the programme's objective) or exhibit more of a direct 'causal' relationship with programme's objectives.'

Besides, the Brown and Somerville's (1977) emphasis on measurement, cost-effectiveness and systems control gives a clear impression that their

model belongs to the stable of conventional paradigm. The allegiance to conventional paradigm is also apparent in the model proposed by Brethower and Rummel, (1979). Brethower and Rummel's proposition to use research designs such as control groups, reversal (ABA), multiple baseline and before-and-after measurements indicates such underlying paradigmatic assumptions.

Finally, despite the rejection of the scientific approach and the adoption of a discovery approach, Hamblin's (1974) model remained loyal to the assumptions of the conventional paradigm. Although he acknowledged, '*the very great difficulty of drawing cause-and -effect relationships between the different levels of evaluation and between them and the training process*' (Hamblin, 1968 : 74), he nevertheless assumed that, '*there is a cause-and -effect chain linking the five levels of training effects*' (Hamblin, 1974 : 15). This assumption clearly puts Hamblin in the camp of the conventional paradigm. His inclination for the naturalistic methods seems to have emanated from his position that, '*objectivity is in practice unattainable*' (Hamblin, 1968 : 77) and his (Hamblin, 1968 : 74) realization that,

'*... we can hardly ever set up a scientifically controlled research experiment, which has a beginning, a middle and an end, and at the end of which we can confidently state that certain statements have been proved true and others false.*'

Hence, he is seen to advocate that, '*the evaluator who uses both quantified and non-quantified techniques can combine both sets to advantage*' (Hamblin, 1968 : 74). His emphasis on a more flexible discursive, exploratory research designs incorporating a heuristic approach may be termed what Guba and Lincoln (1989) called the 'domain of discovery' as opposed to the 'domain of verification or justification' in the methodology of conventional inquiry. Discovery, in the language of conventional paradigm, is best regarded as the precursor to inquiry. It is the phase from which theory, or at least hypotheses and questions, emerge and which are then verified. Guba and Lincoln (1989 : 166) maintained that, '*both discovery and verification are essential to the pursuit of conventional inquiry*'. These arguments indicate that Hamblin's

departure from the scientific approach was only at the methodological level and not at the ontological and epistemological levels of the conventional paradigm.

4.2.2 The Transitionalist Approaches

Utilization-focused evaluation, goal-free evaluation and illuminative evaluation fall into this category. These approaches attempt to overcome the difficulties of evaluation research in the conventionalist tradition. However, one observes a certain degree of confusion and contradiction in their implicit philosophical assumptions. These confusions and contradictions demonstrate a paradigmatic disjunction. Hence, one is inclined to infer that these approaches have attempted to resolve the difficulties of the conventionalist approaches at a methodological level without authentically exposing themselves to the questions of ontological and epistemological position. Therefore, they are categorized as transitional approaches.

a. Utilization-Focused Evaluation

The utilization-focused evaluation emerged in response to the non-utilization or under-utilization of the findings of evaluation research conducted in the scientific tradition. In the scientific tradition, all aspects of research are researcher determined. They include, the identification of the problem; determination of the focus of the study; choice of theory; development of proposition or hypothesis; operationalization of variables; formulation of research design; instrumentation; collection, analysis and interpretation of data; generation of findings and finally, the utilization of findings. Patton (1978) realized that researches conducted in the scientific tradition are less likely to be relevant to the decision makers and information users. His concern ran far deeper and he wrote "*In my judgement, the utilization of evaluation research, represents a 'crisis' in institutional arrangements*" (Patton, 1978 : 12). To address this crisis, he proposed that evaluation research needed to be responsive to decision makers and information users. He argued that, by involving them in the

research process, one could ensure utilization. Emphasizing collaboration, Patton, (1978 : 289) stated that,

'Utilization-focused evaluation brings together evaluators, decision makers and information users in an active-reactive-adoptive process where all participants share responsibility for creatively shaping and rigorously implementing an evaluation that is both useful and of high quality.'

According to Patton, (1978) the researcher, using the utilization-focused approach, has no intrinsic right to unilaterally make critical decisions regarding research design and data collection. As such, an evaluator does not attempt to mould or manipulate the decision makers or information users to accept the evaluator's preconceived notions of what constitutes 'useful' or 'high quality' research. In essence, the approach attempts to identify what questions potential users wish the evaluation to answer and to design a study that will provide answers to those questions (Gowler and Legge, 1984).

Therefore, the prime concern of utilization-focused evaluation is the need of the decision makers and other information users. Every effort in this approach is moulded to fit this perspective. Patton (1978) maintained that there are only two fundamental requirements in this approach and everything else is a matter for negotiation, adaptation, selection, and matching. First, relevant decision makers and information users must be identified and organized. They are real, visible, specific, and caring human beings and not ephemeral, general nor abstract 'audiences', organizations or agencies. Second, evaluators must work actively, reactively and adaptively with these identified decision makers and information users to make all other decisions about the evaluation e.g., decisions about research focus, design, methods, analysis, interpretation and dissemination. What follows from the above is that, the primary concern of this approach is not the issues of methodological rigour and correctness, but rather the problem of getting the question right from the utilization point of view (Easterby-Smith,1986). According to Patton (1978), once the evaluation questions are identified, the evaluation

methods are selected on the basis of their appropriateness for generating the type of information required to answer those questions. For example, a question about the impact of a programme on dependent variables would call for some form of quasi-experimental (or weaker positivistic) designs, while a question pertaining to the programme processes might be best dealt with by a qualitative design (Gowler and Legge, 1984). Thus, Patton (1980) suggested that, to be active-reactive-adaptive, the evaluator must have a large repertoire of research methods and techniques available to use on a variety of problems. Patton (1980 : 18) asserted that,

'Thus, today's evaluator may be called on to use any and all social science research methods, including analyses of quantitative data, questionnaire results, secondary data analysis, cost-benefit and cost-effectiveness analysis, standardized tests, experimental designs, unobtrusive measures, participant observation, and indepth interviewing.'

To search for methods that are appropriate to the nature of evaluation question, Patton (1978) suggested to consider the strengths and weaknesses of alternative methodologies in terms of the following issues:

- i) Quantitative and qualitative methods;
- ii) Hypothetico-deductive objectivity or subjectivity versus holistic-inductive objectivity or subjectivity;
- iii) Distance from versus closeness to the data;
- iv) Fixed versus dynamic designs;
- v) Relative emphases on reliability or validity;
- vi) Holistic or component units of analysis; and
- vii) Inductive versus deductive procedures.

Evaluation designs that are credible to decision makers, information users and evaluators are adopted. The variables are operationalized in such a way that, 'face validity' rather the 'scientific validity' is ensured because 'face validity increases the believability of data to decision makers (Patton, 1978). Finally, the reports are written using, as Easterby-Smith puts it, 'user friendly' everyday language avoiding the dry scientific jargon of traditional reports.

There are a number of potential weaknesses of the utilization-focused evaluation. First, this form of evaluation can become too flexible, adapting and changing to every passing whim and circumstance and therefore producing weak results or conclusions. Second, the evaluator's close involvement with the stakeholders may result in the loss of impartiality and thereby the credibility of its findings (Easterby-Smith, 1986).

Paradigmatic Assumptions

If one agrees that the methodological decisions are based on the epistemological assumptions which in turn are guided by the ontological assumptions; and further, if one subscribes to the idea that the conventional and the alternative paradigms are but contrasts and incompatibles, then logically one may argue that the use of both quantitative and qualitative methods is possible only if one remained loyal to the ontological and epistemological assumptions of either paradigms and not both. While the use of quantitative methods, closed questionnaires, tests, etc. are incompatible with the interpretative paradigm that emphasizes emergent theory, the use of qualitative methods in conventional research (with some degree of liberalization of hard-line positivist stand) may not seem so incompatible. Although Patton (1978, 1980) remained critical of the claims of the conventional paradigm, his suggestion to use both qualitative and quantitative methods seems more like his implicit subscription (of course, with certain degree of liberalization) to the realist ontology and positivist epistemology, than integrating and utilizing the advantages of both the paradigms in what he called a 'paradigm of choice'. Patton's position seems to be congruent with the liberal posture in conventional paradigm as shown in Table 2.3 in Chapter 2. Let us examine the point. For example, Patton (1978 : 218) argued that,

... it is not possible for us to view the complexities of the real world without somehow filtering and simplifying those complexities. ... The observer carries around perceptual filters based on past experiences that intervene

between the real world and his or her observations of it. In the final analysis, this means that we are always dealing with perceptions, not facts in some absolute sense''

He then quoted Petrie, (1972 : 49) who asserted that, "*the very categories of things which comprise the 'facts' are theory dependent.*" What seems to be clear is that Patton disagreed with the hard-line positivists that facts are value-free (i.e., not theory dependent) and that 'objective reality' can be known. Nevertheless, what he seems to share with them, at an ontological plane, is the belief that there exists a reality (whether or not that can be fully known) which is external to the inquirer, and that is independent of him. This brackets Patton with the conventionalists. Although one observes in Patton the emphasis on the here-and-now understanding of a particular programme, he does not rule out the possibility of generalization. For example, Patton (1978 : 231) held that,

'... generalizations may later emerge in the course of analyzing the content of case materials but the initial focus is on fully understanding individual cases before combining or aggregating those unique cases.'

Likewise, Patton appears to share the realist's ontological assumption regarding causality. For example, Patton (1978 : 181) maintained that,

'The evaluator's task is to delineate and test the theories held by identified decision makers and information users. The causal model to be tested is the causal model upon which programme activities are based.'

However, he recognized that delineating either programme implementation or programme outcomes is a complex task, while establishing the linkages between implementation and outcomes is even more difficult. Despite this difficulty, he (Patton, 1978 : 180) asserted that there was

'... no reason not to ask the question. We cannot provide definitive answers but we can arrive at some reasonable

estimation of the likelihood that particular activities have had an effect.'

This also goes to show that Patton implicitly subscribed to the idea that reality was governed by causal connections, although the linkages may have been difficult to discover definitively.

However, Patton (1978) made a significant departure from the positivist epistemology in the question of value-freedom. Patton (1978 : 203) expressed that the, '*fundamental assumption of utilization-focused evaluation is that there are no value-alternatives.*' He recognized a need to get closer to the subject to understand the meaning of the phenomena under study, while maintaining a dualistic relationship between the researcher and the researched. The maintenance of dualistic posture became apparent when Patton (1978 : 203) expressed that,

'For certain questions and practical situations involving large groups, distance is inevitable, but for others face-to-face interaction is both necessary and desirable.'

Such face-to-face interaction does not necessarily indicate a monistic relationship between the researcher and the researched. It only goes to show that he is prepared to sacrifice some objectivity in favour of utilization. The foregoing analysis points out Patton's inclination towards the ontological position of the conventionalists. However, while subscribing to such an ontological stance, he seems to have realized that the ideals of realist ontology are not achievable in practical terms. His subscription to the assumptions of a conventional paradigm, and his views on perceptual reality, probabilistic causality, value-ladenness of facts all convey an impression of paradigmatic transition.

b. Goal-Free Evaluation

Goal-Free evaluation evolved as a reaction to the limitations of goal based, pre-specified criteria focused evaluation. Scriven (1972) is credited with the proposition of this radical view. He (1972 : 2) mentioned,

It seemed to me, in short, that consideration and evaluation of goals was an unnecessary but also a possibly contaminating step. I began to work on an alternative approach-- simply the evaluation of actual effects against a profile of demonstrated needs. I call this Goal-Free Evaluation ...

The less the external evaluator hears about the goals of the project, the less tunnel-vision will develop, the more attention will be paid to looking for actual effects (rather than checking on alleged effects)

He further wrote (1974 : 1),

'All that should be concerning us, surely, was determining exactly what the effects of this product had (or most likely had), and evaluating those, whether or not they were intended ... The rhetoric of intent was being used as a substitute for evidence of success'.

According to goal-free evaluation, the evaluator is required to obtain two sets of information. First, an assessment of actual effects, and then a profile of needs against which the importance or salience of these effects might be assessed. In this approach, the evaluator makes deliberate attempts to avoid all rhetoric related to programme goals: there is no discussion about the goals with the staff and no programme brochures or proposals are read. Only the programme's outcomes and measurable effects are studied. Patton (1978) identified the following reasons for doing goal-free evaluation,

1. To avoid the risk of narrowly studying stated programme objectives and thereby missing important unanticipated outcomes.
2. To remove the negative connotations attached to the discovery of unanticipated effects, because "the whole language of 'side-effect' or 'secondary effect' or even 'unanticipated effect' tended to be a put-down of what might

be a crucial achievement, especially in terms of new priorities' (Scriven, 1972 : 1-2).

3. To eliminate the perceptual biases introduced into an evaluation by knowledge of goals.
4. To maintain evaluator objectivity and independence through goal-free conditions.

A similar perspective was adopted by Deutsher (1976) who pointed out the dangers of basing evaluation studies on the formal goals which were often framed to attract funding or participants. The refusal to consider goals in evaluation necessarily meant negation of the role of prespecified criteria and thereby implied the abandonment of preordinate designs of experimental research. As Deutsher (1976) maintained, goal-free evaluation adopts an alternatively process oriented approach which focuses on the interplay of various forces in operation. Angrist (1973 : 15) wrote,

The input-output model is not enough; what we need to keep track of is what happens in the black box '.

Deutsher (1976 : 256) distinguished the 'input-output' from 'process' approach and stated that,

'exploring the process involves analysis of an ongoing social act-- one which is seen as constantly in flux and constantly amenable to new definitions of the situation'.

He further argued that, by assuming that something was changing as a consequence of the programme, the major research effort shifted from preordained goals to the discovery of processual consequences (Deutsher, 1976). His emphasis on the discovery of processual consequences (intended, unintended, anticipated, unanticipated) necessarily implies the adoption of qualitative research methods. Alongside the qualitative slant, Deutsher favoured the application of the logic of experimental design. He differentiated between experimental methodology (a logic of procedure) and the current experimental techniques. He argued that the experimental techniques implied the manipulation of static variables

employing doubtful measures of unlikely goals. However, such manipulation was not inherent in experimental logic. Referring to Max Weber, he further argued that it was possible to think experimentally in an effort to establish *causation* by comparing two or more phenomena through time.

A number of criticisms have been made of goal-free evaluation. For example, it has been argued that 'goal free' evaluation is not really 'goal free', and that it is the evaluator who decides which goals are to be pursued. Patton (1978: 111) wrote,

Scriven replaced staff objectives with more global goals based on societal needs and basic standards of morality. The real cunning ... is that only the evaluator knows for sure what those needs and standards are ...'

Patton (1978) further argued that goal-free evaluation simply replaced the goals of the programme staff for those goals of the evaluator. Besides, goal-free evaluation failed to come to grips with the question of what effects to look at or even how to identify them. The question of what needs to assess was also left unanswered (Guba and Lincoln, 1981). By removing the stated goals, Scriven had actually empowered the evaluators at the expense of other stakeholders (such as trainers, trainees and management.) The evaluator assumed the sole responsibility for being an arbiter. In this sense, goal-free evaluation is not much different from the scientific approach. Given the premium placed on the evaluator, Guba and Lincoln (1981) expressed their concern over the studies conducted by an incompetent evaluator. They argued that while Scriven insisted that evaluators should assume the burden of making judgements, the goal-free model did not take up the question of how judgemental standards were to be derived. Finally, Scriven admitted that goal-free evaluation was best as an auxiliary, parallel activity to goal-based evaluation (see Guba and Lincoln, 1981). Scriven (1972: 40) argued,

Planning and production require goals, and formulating them in testable terms is absolutely necessary for the manager as well as the internal evaluator who keeps the manager informed. That has nothing to do with the question of

whether the external evaluator needs of should be given any account of the project's goals.

On the question of the internal evaluator, Patton (1978) criticized Scriven for maintaining a double standard in that while the programme staff must clarify their goals, the external evaluator does not have to.

Paradigmatic Assumptions

Although both Scriven and Deutsher rejected stated goals, one observes certain differences of emphasis on the way in which goal-free evaluation should work. While Scriven emphasized assessing effects against demonstrated needs, Deutsher recommended the carrying out a process analysis. Consequently, one observes certain differences in the paradigmatic assumptions implicitly held by these two proponents. Let us examine the issue.

At the operational level, Scriven had not been very helpful in describing how goal-free evaluation should actually be carried out (Guba and Lincoln, 1981). Despite the rejection of preordinate designs in assessing the actual effects of a programme Scriven seems to have remained conceptually close to the ontological and epistemological assumptions of positivism. His view of goal-free evaluation as an auxiliary to goal-based evaluation indicates his inclination to conventional paradigm. His emphasis on measurement also support the point. Furthermore, the independent and distant posture of the external evaluator bears the assumption of researcher- researched dualism of positivist epistemology.

However, Deutsher's position on the paradigmatic issues seems somewhat confusing and contradictory. On one hand, he emphasizes the processual analysis favouring the use qualitative and ethnographic methods and subscribes to the logic of experimentation and causation. On the other hand, he recognizes multiple reality and value pluralism. Deutsher (1976 : 256) states that,

'The ideal method of avoiding the goal-trap is to find alternative ways of thinking about evaluation-- way which do not hinge on measurable outputs ...'.

He argued that current experimental techniques were inadequate to deal with the dynamic character of the evaluation setting. Hence, he favoured the use of ethnographic methods of data collection. However, it appears that such qualitative and ethnographic slant do not entail a departure from the assumptions of conventional paradigm. For example, it was noted earlier that he subscribed to the idea of experimental thinking to *establish causation* . In addition, his leanings towards the conventional paradigm may also be noted in his acknowledgment that quasi-experimental designs are capable of handling processual analysis. Subscribing to Campbell's (1969) definition of 'process analysis Deutscher argued (1976 : 257),

'Even the interrupted time series designs, one of the quasi-experimental approaches advocated by Campbell (1969 : 247), takes into account the processual quality of social change.'

Deutscher's allegiance to conventional became more explicit when he (1976 : 258) expressed,

'My emphasis on social process and the suggestion to seek alternative methodologies to conventional variable analysis in no way implies an abandonment of experimental methodology.'

However, it is difficult to reconcile his allegiance to 'experimental methodology' and to 'experimental thinking' with his views on reality. In his discussion on negotiation, he mentioned that realities are negotiated and are multiple. He wrote (1976 : 262)--" ... *what we consider to be 'reality' is the consequence of negotiations among interested parties.*" Deutscher further stated (1976 : 262),

'There are, of course, other sets of equally accurate data dealing with the same kinds of phenomena which also reflect reality, but then there are many realities.'

However, he did not consider this as a significant departure as he mentioned (1976 : 261),

... there is another solution [negotiation] which does not require such a great departure from our conventional modes of thinking about evaluation.

Despite these views, it is the contention of the author of this thesis that an adherence to experimental methodology and the view of realities as being multiple are incompatible. Hence, Deutsher's paradigmatic posture may at best be viewed as transitional.

c. Illuminative Evaluation

Illuminative evaluation, with its social anthropological slant, has been developed to overcome the difficulties associated with experimental research. It considers the wider context in which the educational programmes function. It focuses primarily on description and interpretation, rather than the measurement and prediction of social phenomena (Parlett and Hamilton, 1972). Illuminative evaluation aims to generate an 'authentic' understanding of the complex issues of evaluation rather than discovering 'objective reality'. Although the predominant emphasis is upon naturalistic and qualitative research, it makes use of questionnaires to sustain or to qualify the earlier tentative findings derived from qualitative methods. Illuminative evaluation is not a standard methodological package but rather a general research strategy.

Illuminative evaluation is conducted in three stages -- *negotiation*, *progressive focusing* and *explaining* within a broader explanatory context. The first stage, *negotiation*, is basically exploratory in nature. The problems to be studied are identified through an intensive familiarization with the issues and the characters of the programme under study. In this

stage, the evaluator attempts to develop a full understanding of the nature of the questions on peoples' minds, and seeks to accomplish a thorough appraisal of the full organizational, human and political complexity of a setting (or a group of settings) by using various investigative probes (Parlett, 1981).

In the second stage, *progressive focussing*, the key issues, phenomena, occurrences, groups of opinions, contradictions, widespread attitudes are identified in order to carry out a more sustained and intensive study. In this stage, the quest is more focused; communication is more coherent and relaxed; and in general, observation and inquiry become more directed, systematic and selective (Parlett and Hamilton, 1972). Parlett (1981 : 223) noted,

'Without such progressive focusing on selected phenomena there would be wastage of investigatory time likelihood of an irrelevant and rambling report'.

The third stage, explaining, consists seeking the general principles which underlie the organization of the programme; spotting of the patterns of cause and effect within its operation; and placing the individual findings within a broader explanatory context (Parlett and Hamilton, 1972).

The evaluation of this school concentrates upon the 'process' within the learning milieu, rather than on the 'outcomes' of training. It strives to generate 'increased communal awareness'. The evaluator assumes the role of a 'natural outsider' without being partisan to any view point, outlook or set of beliefs. His responsibility is not to offer any prescriptive recommendation but to provide a comprehensive understanding of the complex realities of the programme under study.

A number of criticisms have been advanced against illuminative evaluation. First, the very nature of the investigation, dealing with multidimensional and complex issues, makes this school vulnerable to complexity. Data collection and interpretation are extremely time consuming and complicated. Second, because of the intensive involvement of the evaluator in this approach, he is likely to be come up in organizational politics. Third, it is alleged that there is a mis-match

between the expectations of the evaluators and those of their clients. Decision makers, for example, expect evaluation to simplify the task of decision making. Fourth, the simple language of the evaluation report which is used to ensure effective communication can often devalue the importance of the report among its users who place more credibility upon reports written in alien, scientific sounding language which might not be wholly comprehensible (Easterby-Smith, 1986).

Paradigmatic Assumptions

Illuminative evaluation is characterized by its social anthropological slant. Embracing a holistic perspective, it recognizes the diversity and complexity of the evaluation setting. Despite these features, like other approaches in the transitionalist category, it evokes some confusion and contradictions in its ontological and epistemological posture. Let us examine these.

As noted earlier, illuminative evaluation evolved as a reaction to the limitations of the scientific approach. Comparing the scientific approach with the agricultural-botany paradigm, Parlett and Hamilton (1972 : 4) wrote that in such an approach

'Students--rather like plant crops-- are given pre-tests (the seedlings are weighted or measured) and then submitted to different experiences (treatment conditions). Subsequently, after a period of time, their attainment (growth or yield) is measured to indicate the relative efficiency of the methods (fertilizers) used. Studies of this kind are used to yield data of one particular type, i.e., 'objective' numerical data that permit statistical analysis.'

The scientific approach's use of prespecified criteria as a basis of evaluation was strongly criticized by the authors. Parlett and Hamilton (1972 : 4) argued,

... programmes rarely have clearly specified and commonly agreed 'desired goals'. Measurement of 'goal achievement' is never unequivocal. To speak of a 'true

implementation' is utopian, even nonsensical in terms of educational practice.'

Highlighting the limitations of the scientific approach, Parlett and Hamilton, (1972) asserted that the application of agricultural-botany paradigm is both cumbersome and inadequate. Therefore, they maintained that what was appropriate for the study of plants was not appropriate for the study of humans. Hence, they favoured the social-anthropological tradition in place of the agricultural-botany tradition. However, it is not clear whether the methodological departure implies a shift in the technical sense or involves a concern for deeper philosophical issues with their ontological and epistemological underpinnings. Parlett (1981 : 226) expressed,

'As is implied in the idea of a paradigm change, much more is entailed than a simple shift in methodological preference. What has resulted is a complete re-thinking of the whole purposes and rationale of 'evaluation', the very assumptions of which are usually based on ideas of experimental design, formalized criteria, and statistical comparison. The illuminative approach, as it has developed over nearly a decade, embraces a whole set of still unusual features -- assumptions, procedures, role definitions and investigative purposes that are nevertheless congruent with commitment to naturalistic methodology and a holistic perspective on human affairs.'

Their assumption of reality seems to be congruous with the posture expressed in the foregoing statement. As Parlett (1981 ; 224) held,

.'. . . there is no absolute and agreed upon 'reality' that has an objective 'truth'. Rather, there are numerous different perspectives, many of which-- in uncontentious realms-- enjoy consensual validity, but others which are not shared at all widely.'

Furthermore, the terms 'institutional system' and 'learning milieu' as used by Parlett and Hamilton (1972), to refer to the indeterministic

characteristics of the context of evaluation. Such an indeterministic view also supported these authors' posture on the paradigmatic shift. In addition, their recognition of the influence of values is also consistent with their paradigmatic posture. In response to the charge of subjective nature of illuminative evaluation Parlett and Hamilton, (1972 : 24) wrote,

'Behind such question lies a basic but erroneous assumption: that forms of research exist which are immune to prejudice, experimenter bias, and human error. That is not so. Any research study requires skilled human judgements and is thus vulnerable.'

Having said that one also fails to reconcile their viewpoints with their paradigmatic posture. For example, in their discussion of methods Parlett and Hamilton, (1972 : 21) asserted,

'While concentrating on observation and interviews, the illuminative evaluator does not eschew paper and pencil techniques. ... Free and fixed response formats can be included to obtain both quantitative summary data and also open-ended (and perhaps new and unexpected) comments.'

Parlett and Hamilton, (1972) also maintained that if necessary, qualitative data could be content analyzed to furnish further numerical results. A number of observations may be made on their proposal to use of questionnaire. First, the use of questionnaire runs counter to their avowed stance (based on social-anthropological tradition) that favours the use of description and interpretation rather than measurement and prediction. Second, the entire issue of questionnaire formulation (whether fixed response or open-ended) is based on the evaluator's *a priori* conception of reality which seems to contradict the idea of participant's view of reality. It may be argued, that through intensive familiarization and progressive focusing, the evaluator will have a fairly good idea of the participant's view of reality. Thus the evaluator's conception of reality will not be different from the participants'. This argument may be contested by maintaining that, if the evaluator had already found out what the participants' view of reality was then this automatically made the use of a questionnaire superfluous. Further, the

argument of progressive focusing does not hold up when the authors suggest the use of 'published' tests of attitude, personality and achievement. As published instruments, these tests did not evolve from a *specific context* and are not the outcome of *progressive focusing* in that context. Certainly those tests, constructed from an *a priori* conception of reality, are congruent with the paradigmatic posture of conventional paradigm. Third, given the emphasis on in-depth interpretation, furnishing further numerical results by content analysis is nothing but an attempt to seek and focus on trivial information. Finally, the use of an open-ended questionnaire appears to be a superfluous activity when methods such as interview and observation are in place.

The rationale for the use of questionnaire appears to be based on pragmatism rather than philosophy. Parlett and Hamilton, (1972 : 15) wrote,

'The choice of research tactics follow not from research doctrine, but from decisions in each case as to the best available techniques: the problem defines methods used, not vice-versa.'

If one accepts this, one may infer that the departure was merely a technical shift rather than a paradigmatic shift (with its ontological and epistemological underpinnings). In a later work, Parlett appears to have contradicted his own position (that research tactics do not follow from research doctrine), when he (Parlett, 1981 : 223) argued,

'Embodied in any investigative approach are characteristic working assumptions or theories that may or may not be spelled out or even known about consciously, but which affect how studies are made.'

Parlett then went on to discuss the assumptions underpinning illuminative evaluation based on a social-anthropological paradigm. Here Parlett appears to be saying that research tactics do follow from research doctrines! If one accepts that philosophical assumptions shape methodological decisions, then the use of a questionnaire is clearly inconsistent with the paradigmatic posture espoused.

Apart from the use of a questionnaire, the authors' position on experimental research raises serious questions about their claim that illuminative evaluation requires more than an exchange of methodologies, i.e., it is more than a mere technical shift. Parlett and Hamilton (1972 : 7) held,

'We are not, of course, arguing here against the use of experimental longitudinal or survey research methods as such. Rather, ... we submit that they are usually inappropriate, ineffective or insufficient for programme evaluation purposes.'

This statement conveys an impression that the authors did not reject the experimental longitudinal research on the philosophical grounds rather they suggested that this method was *usually* inadequate (perhaps implying that it could be adequate in some cases) in programme evaluation purposes. The problem thus is rather a technical one of substituting the techniques of studying 'plants' with the appropriate techniques of studying 'humans' in a complex and diverse context while remaining loyal to the ontological and epistemological assumptions of conventional research. Further, the suggestion of 'triangulation' is another source of confusion. Triangulation presupposes a singular and unchanging reality that can be verified by obtaining data from different sources and comparing them. The assumption of such a reality is maintained by the realist ontology. The suggestion to delineate cycles of cause and effect is yet another source of contradiction. Causality bears a deterministic connotation which is not congruent with an indeterministic view of the instructional system and learning milieu. Such determinism, (a feature of the conventional paradigm), is also inconsistent with the naturalistic paradigm that Parlett (1981) subscribes. Although illuminative evaluation subscribes largely to the philosophical assumptions of the naturalistic paradigm, in view of the disjunction, it may be considered as an example of the transitionalist approach.

4.2.3 The Revisionist Approaches

The approaches that made paradigmatic departures from the conventionalist tradition are categorized in this group. These approaches subscribe to different paradigms. As such, responsive evaluation, fourth generation evaluation and phenomenological evaluation are examples of this category. Although responsive evaluation is put in this category, it is rather a marginal case. While it largely subscribes to the naturalistic paradigm, one observes a certain contradiction in its paradigmatic posture. However, responsive evaluation does not suffer from such a paradigmatic disjunction as much as the other approaches in the transitionalist category do. Hence, it was considered appropriate to categorize it in this group.

a. Responsive Evaluation

Responsive evaluation is another brand of process evaluation which evolved as a reaction to the difficulties associated with experimental research. Stake (1975) is regarded as its pioneer. It gets its name because of its emphasis to cater the informational needs of various stakeholders. Stake (1975 : 13) wrote--

'.. there are different ways to evaluate programmes and no one way is the right way. I prefer to think of ways that evaluation can perform a service and be useful to specific persons. For an evaluation to be useful, the evaluator should know the interest and the language of his audiences. During an evaluation study, a substantial amount of time may well be spent in learning about the information needs of the persons for whom the evaluation is being done.'

Responsive evaluation focuses upon programme activities and not on programme goals. It takes into account different value perspectives (Easterby-Smith, 1986). According to Stake (1975) responsive evaluation involves a number of steps. For example--

- 1 The evaluator holds discussion with stakeholders to gain a sense of their posture with respect to what is being evaluated.

On the basis of such discussion, the evaluator defines the scope of the research.

2. The evaluator then familiarizes himself with the programme in an attempt to identify its purpose and the various stakeholders' concerns.
3. As he becomes more involved with these preliminary data, the evaluator begins to conceptualize the issues and problems that the evaluation should address.
4. Once the issues and problems have been identified, the appropriate design and data collection techniques are selected. This step occurs well into the evaluation activity. The design could not have been developed earlier. Although the evaluator may select whatever approaches are most useful, Stake favoured the use of observers or judges. Once such decisions are made, the evaluator proceeds to collect the necessary data.
5. The information is then organized into themes, and the evaluator prepares report in an everyday common language. A number of reports may be prepared on the basis of the informational needs of various stakeholders.

Stake (1980) took a flexible position in terms of evaluation methods and recognized that an emergent design could best cope with such process evaluation that addressed the stakeholders' informational needs. The central point in responsive evaluation is to generate useful findings rather than precise results. Stake (1975) argued that it was an approach that traded off some of measurement precision in order to increase the usefulness of the findings to stakeholders.

Paradigmatic Assumptions

Responsive evaluation appears to be closer to the naturalistic paradigm. For example, with its concern to cater for stakeholders' needs, it takes a pluralistic view of reality. It also recognizes that conflicting views of

realities may co-exist side by side. The adoption of an emergent design in place of preordinate designs is also a reflection of its recognition that social realities are diverse and complex. Further, it considers that such realities are negotiated, hence they are tentative and may be altered in the light of new information (Guba and Lincoln, 1981). The responsive evaluator's interactive relationship with the stakeholders characterizes a monistic relationship between the researcher and the researched. This relationship is a feature of naturalistic paradigm. To this effect Guba and Lincoln (1981 : 31) held that, *The evaluator is drawn into the activity as a full partner, no longer objective and aloof but interactive.* Further, the adoption of a monistic relationship necessarily indicates that responsive evaluation recognizes the influence of values as a necessary element in the understanding of social realities. Highlighting the differences between responsive and preordinate evaluations, Guba and Lincoln (1981 : 32) maintained,

'The differences between preordinate and responsive evaluation are so fundamental that they can be said to follow completely different epistemological paradigms'.

One can observe some contradictions in Stake's position. For example Stake, (1980: 86) mentioned that, *'the different styles of evaluation will serve different purposes'* Referring to Stake's position, Easterby-Smith (1986 : 39) reported,

'He [Stake] also recognizes that preordinate evaluations may be preferable to responsive evaluations under certain circumstances-- for example, if clients generally wish to check upon goal attainment'.

Subscription to the idea that preordinate designs are appropriate in a certain situation necessarily contradicts the naturalistic paradigmatic posture.

b. Fourth Generation Evaluation

Basically, Stake's 'responsive evaluation' achieved its full blown paradigmatic grounding in the hands of Guba and Lincoln (1989) assuming the title 'fourth generation evaluation' or 'responsive constructivist evaluation'. This approach evolved as a contrast to the evaluation approaches developed in the tradition of the conventional paradigm. It rests on two elements: *responsive focusing*-- determining the focus of the study on the basis of stakeholder's input-- and *constructivist methodology*-- carrying out the inquiry process with the ontological and epistemological presuppositions of the constructivist paradigm (Guba and Lincoln, 1989). The following two sections deal with responsive focusing and paradigmatic assumptions respectively.

i. Responsive Focusing

The responsive constructivist evaluation places the stakeholders at the forefront of the evaluation process. It asserts that the algorithm for any evaluation process must begin with a method for determining what questions are to be asked and what information is to be gathered (Guba and Lincoln, 1989). All stakeholders invest resources (such as time, money, technology, skill, knowledge, emotional attachment and power and influence etc.) in a training and development programme. These personal investment may be put to jeopardy by an evaluation exercise. Responsive constructivist evaluation recognizes that all stakeholders, put at risk by an evaluation, have the right to place their inputs on the table for consideration (response), irrespective of the value system to which they adhere. At the heart of responsive constructivist evaluation, lies the process of negotiation through which shared constructions¹ emerge. Therefore it requires an interactive process that involves all the stakeholders and uses their claims, concerns and issues as advance

1 It may be recalled from chapter 3 that in the constructivist paradigm realities are considered as social construction of mind. Such constructions evolve through the interaction of a constructor with information, contexts, settings, situations and other constructions (not all of whom may agree), using a process that is rooted in the previous experiences, belief systems, values, fears, prejudices, hopes, disappointments and achievements of the constructors (Guba & Lincoln, 1989).

organizers for evaluation. Guba and Lincoln (1989) defined a *claim* as an assertion introduced by a stakeholder that was *favourable* to what was evaluated while *concerns* as such an assertion that is *unfavourable*. According to the authors, an *issue* implied any state of affairs about which reasonable persons may disagree. The task of the evaluator was to ferret out the different claims, concerns and issues harboured by different stakeholders, and to address them in the evaluation. Essentially, the evaluation process involves generating (as far as possible) consensus from the diverse points of view of the stakeholders. Guba and Lincoln, (1989) argued that such consensus could be achieved through a dialectic process of negotiation in which each construction (i.e., a claim, concern or issue) was confronted and critiqued. This process was likely to yield new information and/or change the level of sophistication of the constructors so that consensus in the form of 'joint construction' would emerge. Unresolved claims, concerns and issues called for a fresh cycle of inquiry leading to an on-going process.

Fourth generation evaluation has four phases. These phases may be reiterated and may overlap. The phases, as mentioned by Guba and Lincoln (1989), include--

First Phase: In the first phase, the stakeholders are identified and are solicited for those claims, concerns and issues that they may wish to introduce.

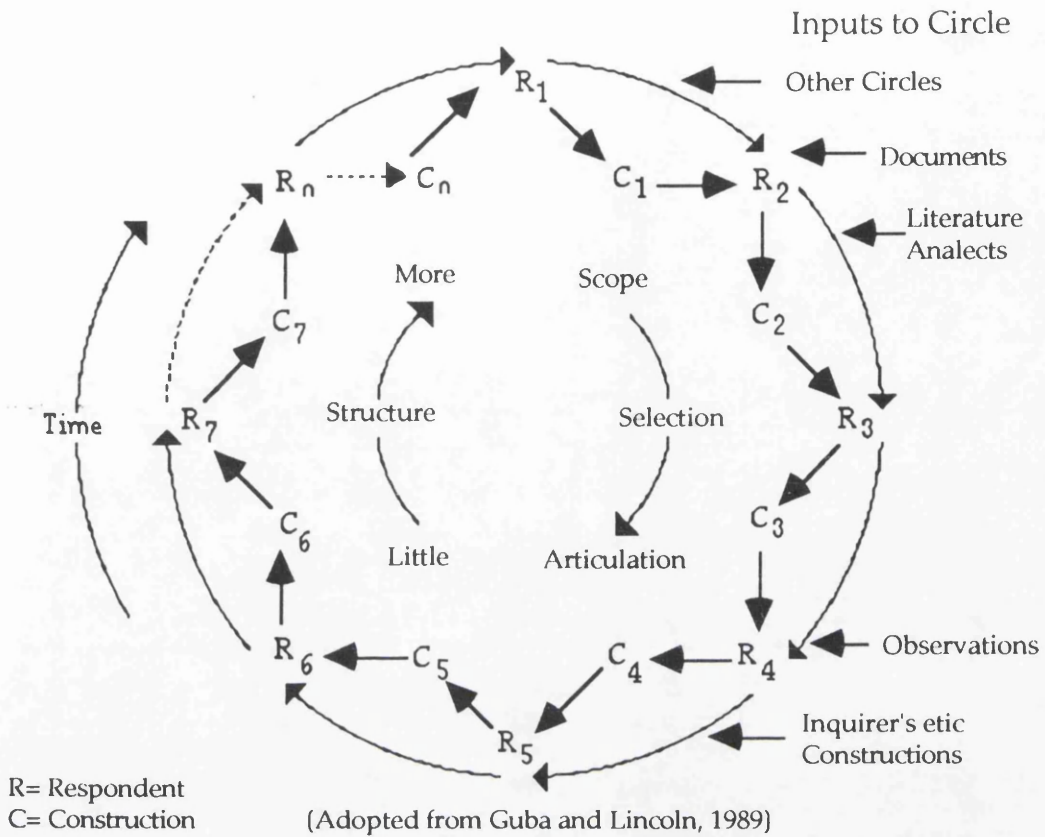
Second Phase: In this phase, the claims, concerns and issues raised by each stakeholder group are introduced to all other groups for their comment, refutation, agreement or whatever reaction may please them. In this phase, many of the original claims, concerns and issues will be resolved.

Third Phase In this phase, those claims, concerns and issues that have not been resolved become the advance organizers for information collection by the evaluator. The precise form of information collection will depend on whether the bone of contention is a claim, a concern or an issue.

Fourth Phase In this phase, negotiation among the stakeholders takes place under the guidance of the evaluator. Efforts are directed to reach consensus on each disputed item by utilizing the evaluative information that has been collected. Not all such items will be resolved. Those that remain, become the core for the next evaluation that may be undertaken when time, resources and interest permit.

As a way of implementing fourth generation evaluation, Guba and Lincoln (1989) proposed the use of the hermeneutic-dialectic cycle (see Figure 4.8). According to this cycle, initially a respondent, R_1 , is chosen on the basis of salience or convenience but not randomness. Given the focus of the inquiry, an attempt is made to elicit the respondent's emic (i.e. insider's view) constructions. In an open interview, the respondent is asked to describe and comment, on personal terms, the claims, concerns and issues that he feels are relevant to the focus of the evaluation. The respondent is then asked to nominate another respondent, R_2 , who maintains a very different view regarding the focus of the inquiry. At the end of the interview, the inquirer checks with the respondent member checking whether or not his interview notes authentically reflects what the participant mentioned. Once the first interview is complete, the central themes, concepts, ideas, values, concerns and issues proposed by R_1 are analyzed by the inquirer to formulate R_1 's constructions, designated as C_1 in Figure 4.8. R_2 is then interviewed. When R_2 has provided as much information as he possibly can, the inquirer then introduces C_1 , asking for his comments and criticisms. As before, the inquirer then solicits the nomination of R_3 and conducts member checking. Following this interview, the inquirer analyzes the data gathered from R_2 to evolve C_2 ; which is a more informed and sophisticated construction based on the two sources, i.e., R_1 and R_2 . Then, the third interview is taken, and the constructions from the earlier interviews are fed in for comment and criticism. The process is repeated until all possible constructions are revealed; or consensus (as far as possible) among the stakeholders is achieved; or the extent to which time and resources permit.

Figure 4.8 The Hermeneutic Dialectic Circle
(Within-Circle Process)



At the initial stage, the inquirer familiarizes himself with the phenomenon under study by trying to obtain as much information as possible. As the inquirer familiarizes himself, he can concentrate on the salient issues and may seek to interview those who can articulate the emerging salient themes. Further, as the field work progresses, the structure of the interview also changes. At the initial stage, the interviews tend to be very unstructured. As the emic constructions become clearer, the interviews become more structured, and the inquirer is able to ask more and more focussed questions. Apart from securing the emic constructions information from documents, observational data, and inquirer's etic (i.e., outsider's view) constructions (derived from theoretical literature) may be introduced for the respondent's criticisms in the dialectic process. It may be noted that the principal thrust of the inquiry is to evolve the emic constructions. The role of the etic constructions is only tangential. The etic constructions are only

introduced in the dialectic process with a view to increasing the level of sophistication. The respondents are free to judge whether or not such constructions are relevant to them and decide to deliberate on them accordingly.

The entire inquiry process is continuously shaped and the constructions are continuously tested through negotiations (dialectic interaction) between the inquirer and the respondents. Thus, simultaneous data collection and analysis through the on-going hermeneutic-dialectic cycle help one arrive at joint multiple constructions. Therefore, the joint constructions that emerge must reflect the emic view as well as the etic perspectives. Thus the design, the emergent theory and findings will all represent a unique combination of inquirer and respondents' values, judgements in a truly collaborative inquiry.

Although fourth generation evaluation addresses some of the difficulties of evaluation research by making a paradigmatic shift, it nevertheless exposes itself to some other difficulties. For example, the extent of its commitment to the field work may actually prove to be delimiting. The author of this thesis, who initially wished to adopt this methodology, experienced that the stakeholders lacked the time and energy to engage themselves in such an intense intercourse. Further, one of the preconditions of this methodology is '*a willingness on the part of all parties to share power*' (Guba and Lincoln, 1989 : 150). However, the difficulty is that the holders of power are more often than not reluctant to share power. The methodology deliberately exposes the inquiry process to the forces of power politics, hence, the stakeholders who fear a loss of power will likely to be resistive. Furthermore, Gowler and Legge's (1984a and 1984b) argued that the very ontological assumption of realities as ever changing defeats the purpose of formative evaluation.

They argued thus because, if it is assumed that the social world is created afresh in each encounter of everyday life, then it would be pointless to evaluate, as it will have no basis for comparison and no relevance to other

individuals or situations. Since, fourth generation evaluation maintains that there is no *steady-state* realities² it exposes itself to such criticism.

Paradigmatic Assumptions

As mentioned earlier, the constructivist methodology is one of the two elements upon which fourth generation evaluation rests. The constructivist methodology is based on the ontological and epistemological assumptions of the constructivist paradigm. The emphasis on evolving joint and multiple constructions in the hermeneutic-dialectic cycle is based on the assumption of multiple realities in the relativistic ontology. The meaning of construction, in the constructivist methodology, indicates that there cannot be, except by mental imputation, immutable natural laws governing construction, such as cause-effect. Evaluation in constructivism is geared to generating a here-and-now understanding in the form of a 'working hypothesis'. The inquiry, remaining consistent with the ontological posture, does not attempt to develop any generalization whatsoever. The hermeneutic-dialectic methodology also reflects the epistemological assumption of the constructivist paradigm. For example, as described in the foregoing, the joint constructions evolves through the mutual interaction of the evaluator and the stakeholders. This characterizes a monistic relationship between the researcher and the researched. Further, the methodology also consciously recognizes and utilizes the diversified influence of values.

4.3 Assessment Of Consistency: The Paradigmatic Posture Of This Study In Relation To The Evaluation Approaches Discussed.

In chapter 3 of this thesis, the rationale for the choice of the phenomenological paradigm was outlined. In an attempt to avoid a theoretical disjunction it is necessary to adopt an evaluation approach that

² see the discussion on 'working hypothesis' and the critique of constructivist paradigm in chapter 3

is congruent with the paradigmatic posture adopted. The preceding discussion reveals that none of the approaches is paradigmatically consistent with the phenomenological posture. For example, the conventionalist approaches, such as, the scientific approach, the cost-benefit approach and the systems approach remain loyal to the paradigmatic assumptions of positivism, and represent a contrast to phenomenology. In many ways the transitionalist approaches, such as, utilization-focused evaluation, goal-free evaluation and illuminative evaluation offer significant improvements over the conventionalist approaches. The recognition of the complexity and diversity of evaluation setting, the responsiveness to stakeholders' needs and the emphasis on processes rather than products, are examples of such improvements. Nevertheless, on the issue of paradigmatic posture, these approaches either implicitly lean towards positivism (e.g., utilization-focused evaluation) or are beset with contradictions and confusion (e.g., goal-free evaluation and illuminative evaluation). Consequently, they do not offer convincing reasoning so that theoretical disjunction can be avoided. Responsive evaluation, (a revisionist approach), appears to be more paradigmatically consistent than the transitionalist approaches. However, its allegiance is towards the naturalistic-constructivist tradition rather than to phenomenology. Fourth generation evaluation, as a revisionist approach, is an authentic product of the constructivist paradigm. Given the inconsistencies of these approaches, it becomes necessary to explore how phenomenological perspective can be of aid to address the issues of evaluation. The following section is devoted towards this end.

4.4 Phenomenological Evaluation

Although a very small number of studies have been conducted using phenomenological principles, the approach itself is not new. Some examples of studies that adopted phenomenological methods (or near-phenomenological methods) include, Burgoyne (1974), Burgoyne and Hodgson (1982), Reynolds and Hodgson (1980), Hodgson and Reynolds (1981), Mmobuosi (1983, 1985, 1987a and 1987b) and Tanton and Fox (1987). However, some of these studies do not appear to have adopted methodologies that are authentically grounded to the ontology and

epistemology of the phenomenological paradigm. For example, although Burgoyne (1974) used protocol analysis, he remained loyal to the assumptions of positivism. Burgoyne (1974 : 546) wrote,

'The study should however still be of interest even to those who reject protocol analysis as a scientific methodology, in that the study can be thought of as belonging to a pre-scientific stage of hypothesis formulation. As such this study should be judged a contribution if it leads to the formulation of hypotheses which can be tested by more conventional means.'

Despite the fact that protocol analysis is often used as a phenomenological method, Burgoyne's (1974) study is in sharp contrast to the phenomenological paradigm espoused in this study. Tanton and Fox's (1987) study used participant observation method in understanding the experiences of a training programme. Ontologically, this study remained closer to constructivism. It maintained that realities are jointly constructed by the evaluator and the stakeholders-- a view not subscribed by the phenomenological evaluator on ontological and epistemological grounds. One observes in Tanton and Fox (1987) the absence of epoché in elucidating the themes of experiences. Mmobuosi (1987) in his study used protocol analysis, while at the same time retaining the deterministic notion of 'causality'. The studies conducted by Reynolds and Hodgson (1980), and Hodgson and Reynolds (1981), seem to be more in line with the phenomenological tradition. However, none of these studies provided any explicit exposition of paradigmatic assumptions from which their methodologies were derived. Therefore, it is necessary to consider such issues.

Phenomenological evaluation, as used in this study, attempts to address the issues of evaluation by deriving its paradigmatic assumptions from an experientialist ontology, a subjectivist epistemology and a descriptive interpretive methodology. It argues that conventional approaches are inadequate. Hence, it recognizes the need for making a paradigmatic shift. Like the transitionalist and revisionist approaches to evaluation, it recognizes the complexity and diversity of the evaluation setting, the need

for democratization of evaluation process and the necessity to be responsive to stakeholders' information needs. It adopts a holistic view and focuses on the processes as they are experientially lived-through by individuals in a natural setting (life-world). However, unlike the transitionalist and revisionist approaches (but like fourth generation evaluation), it authentically derives its methodology from the paradigmatic posture it maintains. Before discussing the paradigmatic consistency, it is necessary to consider the phases in phenomenological evaluation. These phases may include *consultation, gathering descriptions of experiences, interpretation of data and reporting.*

a. Consultation

In this phase, the evaluator is required to initiate a process of consultation with various stakeholders to evaluation. This is carried out in recognition to stakeholders' right to be involved in evaluation process. It aims to ascertain the information needs of the stakeholders and the scope of the study. The process of consultation is likely to enhance the chances of utilizing the evaluation findings.

b. Gathering Descriptions Of Experiences

Having ascertained the stakeholders' information needs and the scope of the study, the evaluator identifies the data sources to gather naive descriptions of experiences. These descriptions may be obtained from written or verbal sources. Observational data may also be used. Respondents from the stakeholding groups are then selected on the basis of exposure to the experience of phenomena under study. Techniques such as the phenomenological interview³ and perceptual description⁴ may be used to elicit verbal and observational data respectively. In the case of the phenomenological interview, the prompts (statements or questions) are formulated in such a way so that the evaluator's presuppositions are carefully avoided. The descriptions may be collected continuously (in an

3 See methodology chapter for elaboration

4 See methodology chapter for elaboration

on-going process) or at vantage points (i.e., immediately after training and at a post training stage).

c. Interpretation Of Data

The naive descriptions of experiences contain idiosyncratic and contextual ingredients. These descriptions are transformed and synthesized using phenomenological techniques such as epoché⁵ and eidetic reduction⁶. Focusing on the meaning conveyed, respondents' original descriptions are transformed⁷ and synthesized⁸ to elucidate the essential structures or essences. An essence, elucidated through such a process, is a non-arbitrary common ground shared by the stakeholders. However, there may also be multiple non-arbitrary common grounds. i.e., multiple experiential realities.

d. Reporting

The report should provide vicarious descriptions of the experiential realities and address the information requirements of the stakeholders as delineated in the consultation stage. Remaining true to the data, the evaluator is required to present stakeholders' realities as they were experienced by them. The elucidated essences may then form a basis of informed decision making. However, conflicting experiential realities (essences) may also emerge. Although these essences are non-arbitrary common grounds that are shared by some, yet they may exist side-by-side as conflicting experiential realities. In such a case, they may form an informed basis (or agenda) for negotiation between and within the groups of stakeholders.

5 See methodology chapter for elaboration

6 See methodology chapter for elaboration

7 See methodology chapter for elaboration

8 See methodology chapter for elaboration

Phenomenological evaluation recognizes the non-deterministic character of social phenomena. Therefore, the essential structure of an experiential reality is tentative. The findings of a phenomenological evaluation may facilitate informed decision making but does not guarantee (given the non-deterministic character of social phenomena) that such decisions will definitively yield desired outcomes.

Paradigmatic Assumptions

Phenomenological evaluation derives its methodological stance from the ontological and epistemological assumptions of the phenomenological paradigm. As noted in Chapter 3, the experientialist ontology asserts that realities are experiential and multiple. They are co-constituted by the dialectical interaction of the 'self' and the 'other'. Consequently, the subjectivist epistemology asserts that lived-experiences form the basis of knowledge. These ontological and epistemological assumptions are reflected in phenomenological evaluation.

As experiential realities are co-constituted through a dialectical interaction of the 'self' and the 'other', phenomenological evaluation (by its emphasis upon lived-experiences as the basis of knowledge) recognizes the diversity, complexity, dynamicity, non-determinacy and multiple values and perspectives embedded in the settings (in which one is exposed to the process of training and working). This recognition indicates that phenomenological evaluation considers experiential realities as value based and subjective. In addition, phenomenological evaluation's concern for stakeholders' information needs also reflect its ontological assumption of the existence of multiple experiential realities. Further, the adoption of epoché and eidetic reduction reflects the epistemological assumption that only lived-experiences constitute a basis for knowledge. This epistemology requires 'eidetic grasping' of experiences as they appear in the consciousness of the stakeholders (as respondents). The evaluator, being external to the training process, is required to bracket his presuppositions so as to faithfully elucidate stakeholders' experiential realities. Furthermore, the ontological assumption that intersubjectivity is a pre-given category of the life-world, is also reflected in

phenomenological evaluation's emphasis on the elucidation of essences through eidetic reduction.

The suggestion to collect descriptions of experiences at vantage points (such as, immediately after training and at a post training stage) may superficially resemble the levels of evaluation in the systems approach. However, it is not so. The systems approach, with its paradigmatic grounding on the realist ontology, assumes deterministic causal linkages between training and its effects at various levels. Phenomenological evaluation does not subscribe to such determinism. The ontological and epistemological postures of phenomenology requires that before any experiential descriptions are collected, the phenomena under study must be experienced. The techniques such as 'stimulated recall' and 'thinking aloud' enable the evaluator to gather descriptions of past experiences at several vantage points.

4.5 Summary

It has been argued that to avoid disjunction it is necessary to adopt an evaluation approach that is congruent with the research paradigm of the study. Hence, the features of the various evaluation approaches and their paradigmatic assumptions were considered in this chapter. Except for phenomenological evaluation, all the other evaluation approaches were found to be incongruent with the paradigm of this study. The chapter highlighted phenomenological evaluation and argued that it was capable of addressing the issues of evaluation while maintaining the philosophical assumptions of phenomenology. Some of the methodological issues of phenomenological evaluation were mentioned in this chapter. A detailed exposition of these and other related issues will be considered in the subsequent chapter.

Chapter 5

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

A Discussion Of The Study Specific Aspects

The issues of inquiry paradigm and those of evaluation were discussed in the earlier chapters. Although those discussions provided some insights into the philosophical roots upon which to ground a phenomenological evaluation research, the question of how to conduct such a research still remains unanswered. This chapter focuses on the practicalities of conducting a phenomenological evaluation. After considering the general aspects of phenomenological research, this chapter aims to delineate the methodological details for this study. It is divided into a number of sections. The first of these considers the phenomenological methodology as a qualitative and descriptive approach. The second discusses the methodological prerequisites for phenomenological study. It considers epoché and eidetic reduction. The third section deals with the issues relating to research method in phenomenological evaluation. Issues such as, sources of data, selection of subjects, data gathering, data interpretation using protocol analysis method, and the appropriateness of *a priori* hypothesis are all discussed in this section. The fourth section deals with the criteria of trustworthiness. After highlighting the conventional criteria, this section discusses a set of proposed criteria for a phenomenological study. The fifth section discusses the specific aspects of the research method adopted for this study of phenomenological evaluation. The sixth section considers issues of trustworthiness as they relate to this study. The seventh section highlights the limitations of this study. Finally, the last section provides a summary of the chapter.

5.1 Phenomenological Methodology: A Qualitative And Descriptive Approach

Phenomenological research is descriptive (Idhe & Silverman, 1985; Farber, 1966) and qualitative (Bogdan & Taylor, 1975; Schwartz & Jacobs, 1979). However, unlike other descriptive and qualitative research it aims to understand the structures that produce meaning in consciousness. The term *descriptive research* usually refers to all those inquiries whose goal

is to give a neutral, close, and thorough account of the topic under investigation (Idhe & Silverman, 1985). Descriptive research seeks to discover the attributes of phenomena and then express the results in verbal portrait. In addition to phenomenological research, the case study (Yin, 1984) and field research (Crane & Angrosino, 1974) are included in the category of descriptive research. Descriptive research can also refer to studies whose findings are presented as taxonomic descriptions. Thus natural sciences, such as botany, whose practices include establishing classification schemes for the objects of their investigation, can be called *descriptive*.

In general the use of the term 'qualitative research', refers to a particular perspective on the nature of the human realm (Asworth, Giorgi, and Konig, 1986 : vii), and is not simply to a category of research design. From the qualitative perspective, the richness and the profundity of human reality is seen as closely related to the structures and meanings of natural language. Thus, in the broad context of research strategies, *qualitative* is identified with a commitment to the logic of natural language as the preferred form of understanding human affairs. Qualitative research uses natural language descriptions for its data and usually presents the results in natural language. The locus of phenomenological research is human experience, and it approaches the topics of interest to social science through their presence in conscious awareness. Although phenomenological research is identified with other 'descriptive' and 'qualitative' approaches, it differs from them because its focus is on the meaning of a subject's experiences instead of descriptions of his overt behaviour (Hultgren, 1982). Phenomenology maintains the critical distinction between what presents itself as a part of our awareness and what might exist as a reality 'outside' our experience. Hence, these terms ('descriptive' and 'qualitative') are to be used with caution, because their usual connotations do not necessarily reflect a paradigmatic shift from positivism. In phenomenology, the meanings ascribed to these terms require a basic reorientation in the ontological and epistemological assumptions underpinning a research.

5.2 The Methodological Prerequisites For Elucidating Meaning

The two methodological prerequisites of phenomenological evaluation are '*maintenance of epoché*' and '*performance of eidetic reduction*'. With their focus on extracting *meaning* of experiential reality as it presents in consciousness, these two tasks differentiate a phenomenological evaluation from a non-phenomenological one. According to phenomenology, knowledge is constituted through the study of meaningful lived experiences. The methodology aims to gather experiential data that is grounded in the respondent's understanding of his context. The basic premise is that people are '*active participants in the making of experience*' (Smircich, 1983 : 161). A respondent is considered to bring to a situation a system of meanings and knowledge to interpret and make sense of that situation, its events and people. In short, with his stock of knowledge he interacts with and operates within the life-world to constitute social reality (which is) infused with subjectivity, meaning and intention.

The characteristic feature of the phenomenological methods is that they allow one bring to the surface the hidden assumptions about, and meaning of, a phenomenon experienced, thereby allowing assumptions and meanings to be critically examined and reflectively clarified. Van Mannen (1979) stressed that the challenge of phenomenological methods is to make available the 'opportunity for seeing' through the surface structure of experience so that the pure phenomena can emerge from the simple experiences.

Concepts such as intentionality, noema/noesis, horizon and theme are employed by phenomenologists as aids in bringing out meanings, and unravelling implicit aspects contained in actual states of consciousness. They help to make meanings explicit as well as to disengage constituent elements in given meanings. Kockelmans (1967 : 145) noted,

'Noematically considered, the intentional analysis endeavours to make explicit in consciousness all meanings which were only implicitly indicated in the effectively given datum. In fulfilling this function, it takes into account all the

essential influences exercised by the internal horizon and the thematic field.'

To focus attention upon the way in which *meaning* is constituted in consciousness, the phenomenological methodology necessitates bracketing the researcher's natural attitude and extracting the essences from the experiential data provided by the respondents. The following discussion attempts to consider these two methodological prerequisites i.e., the maintenance of *epoché* and the performance of *eidetic reduction* .

5.2.1 Epoché

Epoché was briefly introduced in Chapter 3. It refers to the suspension of one's natural attitude, and is a necessary condition in all phenomenological procedures. By setting in abeyance or putting in brackets the commonsense belief in the existence of the 'real world', epoché helps to assure the neutrality of self-givenness of a phenomenon.

While 'epoché' refers to the explicit and deliberate suspension of natural attitude, the term 'phenomenological attitude' is used to refer to the resultant 'attitude' of continual and sustained refraining from the use of the believed-in existence of the world (see Cox, 1978; Gurwitsch, 1964; Zener, 1970). The researcher does not predicate the existence of things. He abstains from making any ontological judgement about the existence of reality (Grossmann, 1984).

However, in our natural attitude, we take for granted the existence of reality. The assumption of natural attitude is the unstated and implicit theme of our commonsense relatedness to reality. It ordinarily guides our total cognitive and emotional life. As phenomenological epistemology requires the suspension of the commonsense belief in reality, we cannot assume that the presentations (in consciousness) are of real things, or that they are occasioned by real events, or that they are psychic events having neurological accompaniments, or that they are part of the real world, or even that there is an external world outside of the perceptual stream of awareness within which such presentations arise. In other words, the phenomenological researcher must no longer simply accept the world (or

take it for granted) as existent, non-existent, probably existent, etc. This does not mean that one somehow can or should stop believing in the existence of the world. The suspension of natural attitude most certainly does not imply a denial of the reality of the external world or the validity of our ordinary experience within it. Rather, as Merleau-Ponty (1964b) noted, it merely involves a temporary suspension. As phenomenologists, we place in phenomenological doubt (which is not psychological doubt), the traditional commonsense (taken-for-granted) view of the very reality of the world within which things and events are noted and appraised. Suspension, then, involves a shift in the mode of attention. The same reality that was taken for granted in typical fashion in naive attitude is now re-viewed in phenomenological attitude. The real world, everyday existence, etc., do not mysteriously vanish under epoché; they are merely seen in terms of a perspective hitherto unimagined and even unimaginable in common-sense terms. Husserl (1931 : 110-111) wrote that,

We put out of action the general thesis which belongs to the essence of the natural standpoint; we place in brackets whatever it includes respecting the nature of Being: this entire natural world therefore which is continually 'there for us,' 'present to our hand,' and will ever remain there, is a 'fact-world' of which we continue to be conscious, even though it pleases us to put it in brackets. If I do this, as I am fully free to do so, I do not then deny this 'world,' as though I were a sophist, I do not doubt that it is there as though I were a sceptic; but I use the 'phenomenological' epoché, which completely bars me from using any judgement that concerns spatio-temporal existence.

Thus, Husserl's mathematical metaphor of 'bracketing' in no way denies what is naturally believed in or is posited by consciousness in natural attitude, it is rather a deliberate effort to 'suspend' or 'put in abeyance' that attitude in order to examine it in depth. In other words, epoché consists in making explicit to consciousness, the assumptions that unconsciously underlie every judgement made within ordinary life about

reality. This suspension means coming into awareness of the very meaning of the natural attitude. Therefore, epoché is an epistemological (consequently methodological) prerequisite for understanding experiential reality in its self-givenness.

Given its epistemological posture, methodologically the presentation of a phenomenon (in consciousness), and not its construction, becomes the central concern of phenomenology. Cairns (1940 : 4) noted,

The fundamental methodological principle of phenomenology may ... be initially formulated as follows: No opinion is to be accepted as philosophical knowledge unless it is seen to be adequately established by observation of what is seen to be itself given 'in person.' Any belief seen to be incompatible with what is seen to be itself given is to be rejected. Toward opinions that fall in neither class-- whether they be one's own or another's --one is to adopt an 'official' philosophical attitude of neutrality.

This methodological principle become realised through the adoption of epoché. Since epoché entails the researcher making a deliberate and explicit decision to suspend all his personal beliefs, pre-conceptions, assumptions or hunches, he is forced to attend to what presents itself in the full range of his perception. It is only after this suspension has occurred that the researcher can grasp the meaning of the respondent's experiences reported in the protocols (The discussion of the protocol analysis follows subsequently). Finally, as Stevenson (1979 : 60) noted epoché provides '*an open mind to all possibilities*' so that a pure and unchallenged vision of what objects are 'essentially are' is maintained.

5.2.2 Eidetic Reduction

Eidetic reduction refers to the process of abstracting the essences from consciousness or experience. 'Eidos' means an idea or form (essence) which Husserl designated as a universal feature. Phenomenologically, essence refers to the basic irreducible element of lived experience. Unlike what has come to be known as 'reductivism' or 'reductionism' (e.g. in

positivism), the phenomenological notion has nothing to do with any attempt to simplify or economize, much less to try and explain one proposition by showing it to be reducible to another. Rather, the basic thrust is found in the literal meaning of the term 'reduction'. Derived from the Latin word *reducere*, reduction implies leading back to origins or beginnings of something which have become obscured, hidden, or covered over by other things (see Zener, 1975). The reduction is therefore a strictly methodological step to enable the researcher to make explicit what was all along implicit and taken for granted by each of us.

The eidetic reduction consists in moving from matters of fact to essences, and from empirical to essential universality. On the other hand, epoché fulfils an essentially negative function (Lauer, 1958) in that it prepares us for the appreciation of a purified field of consciousness. On the other hand, eidetic reduction has a more positive role to play in revealing the hidden features or structures of the intentional consciousness by extracting the essences of any noema and noesis. Hence, it is concerned with a residuum presented in the phenomenological orientation. It is the status of the elements of the residuum which now becomes of interest. The eidetic reduction is a method through which the phenomenological researcher traces phenomena back to how they show themselves in the consciousness of the subject; attends to the character of the given; sets aside that which is contingent and secondary, and notes that which shows itself as universal.

This process of elucidation of the essences is seldom instantaneous, automatic or straightforward. As the core of eidetic reduction is '*seeing: grasping clearly, in clear focus, as evidently given*' (Kohák, 1978 : 146); it involves careful, painstaking and repeated efforts to go beyond conventional patterns and structures of thought. Emphasizing the need for such effort Kohák (1978 : 23) wrote that eidetic reduction

' ... is a matter of looking, looking again, then again, each time with greater precision, until we reach a clear, evident grasp'.

In conducting phenomenological research, access to the respondents lived experiences is primarily gained through their spoken and recorded

statements. Having epoché in place (thereby preventing researcher's presuppositions from influencing either the respondent or the data) the process of eidetic reduction involves looking for the cues in those spoken and recorded language. Therefore, the spoken and recorded language forms the data base from which the phenomenological researcher eidetically elucidates the themes (invariants) of the respondents' lived experiences. Since language plays a vital role in eidetic reduction, the researcher must not only recognise the social importance of language, but must also understand how it is used by the respondent. Cicourel (1973 : 62-63) underscored the importance of language and mentioned that,

'When the speaker commits himself to linguistic and social categories, he provides the hearer, himself, and observer or researcher with information about what he intends (or intended or did) ... a world view is built into the message'.

The technique of 'imaginative free variation' is used to extract the essence of an experience (Huczynski, 1991). Its purpose is to discover the essential limits of the phenomenon in question by reflective means. The process requires the researcher to vary (in imagination) the constituent parts or features (cognitive, effective and connotative) of the object of experience. Taking the object of experience as a member of some class, it is varied through and through by systematically imagining each part as present or absent in it. However, the researcher must be careful to ensure that the object of experience always remains as an example of the sort or kind in question, as member of the same class of affairs. Whether the imagined variations exists in any sense other than that as imagined, is of no consequence for the purpose of this variation. By contextual comparison and elimination, one is able to reduce the descriptions to those parts (invariants) that are essential for the existence of conscious experience (Ianigan, 1979) and that constitute the object a kind of its class. Gurwitsch (1964 : 192) stated that,

"In the performance of the process of free variation, it appears that, as long as certain structures remain invariant, however thoroughgoing and deep reaching the variation might otherwise be, the resulting products of our

imagination are still conceivable as possible specimens of the class of the object chosen as the point of departure."

As an illustration of this method, consider the elucidation of the essences from a particular triangle. With epoché applied, the researcher sees a figure in a plane bounded by three sides. He then imaginatively varies the lengths of all sides in relation to each other, and therewith, the angles as well. Thus, various kinds of triangle can be captured in imagination: equilateral /equiangular, isosceles, right angle etc. In this variation, the triangle remains as a kind of its class as long as with the increase or decrease of any of its sides, the corresponding opposite interior angle stays less than 180° or more than 0° respectively. The presentation of a plane figure bounded by three straight lines where each of its interior angles is less than 180° and more than 0° , so that the sum of the interior angles equals to two right angles is the essence of a triangle. The object of experience (i.e., the triangle that the researcher saw) is an exemplar of the essence or the *eidos* which was extracted from it through the process of imaginative free variation. Finally, the illustration shows the two uses of eidetic variation. First, the discovery of further possible variants or exemplars (equilateral/equiangular, isosceles, right angle etc.) of the kind in question. Second, the discovery of the essential properties (e.g., the sum of the interior angles equals to two right angles), without which the thing in question will not be the kind it is.

Looking at the principle of epoché and the process of eidetic reduction, the idea of phenomenology as a descriptive discipline becomes clearer. Descriptions of the essential structure of a phenomenon is not something that is mentally constructed or created on the basis of what one 'thinks' the phenomenon is. Descriptions do not sever their connections with the phenomena as presented in consciousness. Phenomenological description is always a faithful description i.e., one that remains authentic through and through to the experiences. Brand (1967, 214-215) wrote,

'Intentional analysis is so unlike construction that Husserl calls it description. But just as constitution is not construction, neither is description depiction. ... Description is not something in itself but it gets its

determination from that which is to be described; and as description it is determined in such a way that it keeps at a distance everything that is not a determination showing what the thing is. Thus, in the description with which it uncovers functioning intentionality, intentional analysis is in its own way active and passive, receptive, descriptive and constitutive at the same time.

Idhe (1977) conceptualized this descriptive analysis as beginning with *what* happens, and then moving to reflect on *how* it happens in the consciousness. Sanders (1982) identified the four basic questions that the phenomenological researcher had to answer. These were,

- 1 How may the phenomenon under investigation be described?
- 2 What are the invariants of themes emergent in these descriptions?
3. What are the subjective reflections of these themes?
4. What are the essences present in those themes and subjective reflections?

Thus, to summarize the foregoing discussion, it may be stated that methodologically the description of the structure of a lived experience through the use of phenomenological methodology requires the performance of two tasks. First, the researcher has to bracket his 'natural attitude' thereby ensuring neutrality to allow the phenomenon to reveal itself in its self-givenness. Second, he has to elucidate the essences of the lived experience through eidetic reduction (using techniques such as imaginative free variation). Essentially, any research method belonging to the phenomenological stable must reflect its commitment to these two tasks.

5.3 The Phenomenological Research Method

Following the discussion of the methodological prerequisites, this section focuses on the issues of research methods in phenomenological evaluation. In this section it is argued that research methods in phenomenological evaluation can at best be viewed as guide-lines. Keeping this view as a point of reference, this section subsequently considers the issues such as *the sources of data, selection of subjects, data gathering, interpretation of data and the appropriateness of using a priori hypothesis*.

Before embarking upon a discussion of the methodological issues, it is necessary to clarify the terms *research* and *method*. These are frequently misinterpreted because of the divergence of meanings ascribed to them by phenomenological researchers and mainstream social science researchers reared in positivism. The term, *research*, usually connotes laboratory experiments, quantified data derived from complex instruments or questionnaires, and statistically described relationships among operationally defined variables. Meanwhile, *method* usually refers to a specific sequence of technical procedures or an algorithm, designed to protect the investigator from error and ensure the production of reliable knowledge. Research using phenomenological principles however involves searching out meaning units through the use of 'thought experiments' that often require working from transcriptions of long, open-ended interviews. The products are general descriptions of the structures of experience that are intersubjectively valid. The idea of method as an algorithm is therefore of limited usefulness when applied to the study of consciousness. Methods based on phenomenological principles function as general guide-lines or outlines, and researchers are expected to develop plans of study especially suited to understanding the particular experiential phenomenon that is the object of their study (Polkinghorne, 1989).

This point is underscored by the use of different methods in various phenomenological researches. A variety of methods may even be found in Husserl's own work. Ricoeur (1967 : 4) noted that even in the parts of his work where Husserl applied his method:

'They do not constitute one homogeneous body of work with a single direction of orientation. Husserl abandoned along the way as many routes as he took. This is the case to such a degree that in a broad sense phenomenology is both the sum of Husserl's work and the heresies issuing from it'

Referring to the work of philosophers such as Max Scheler, Martin Heidegger, Jean-Paul Sartre, Maurice Merleau-Ponty and Paul Ricour, Chamberlin (1974 : 126) asserted that *there is no one orthodox procedure which can be held up as the authoritative phenomenological method*. A similar argument may be found in Hultgren (1982) and Mill (1959). Hultgren (1982) reasserted that in the phenomenological sense, certainly no single methodology exists. Mill (1959) advised sociologist to avoid obsession with methods and techniques and urged every researcher to be his own methodologists and theorists. Any phenomenological method is likely to secure one's confidence as long as it adheres to the ontological and epistemological principles of phenomenology.

Huczynski (1991) noted that research methods such as the life history method, critical incident reporting, repertory grid and unstructured interviewing techniques conform, in varying degrees, to the phenomenological principles. He further commented that the phenomenological methods which have been used by researchers such as Omery (1983), Oiler (1982) Sanders (1982) Lynch-Sauer (1985) Van Manen (1979) Reinharz et al. (1983) bear an important similarity. All of them begin by examining the individual products of human conscious experience (phenomenon), and go on to analyze how and why these meanings develop in the process of consciousness and experience. Amongst the characteristics of phenomenological research methods that Georgiou (1973) identified were,

- i. there is a fidelity to the phenomena lived
- ii. the method respects the primacy of the life-world
- iii. through describing the phenomena as it is lived, phenomenology attempts to determine in a rigorous

manner the structure of meanings inherent in the description of the phenomena

- iv. the expression of the lived experience is given from the individual's point of view and includes his context
- v. the search for meaning emerges from the data of the subject's lived experience

From the foregoing one can conclude that a research method adopted for a phenomenological evaluation should be capable of focusing on the 'emic' orientation i.e., the respondent's view of reality, (Morey and Luthans, 1984) and then provide vicarious description of such experiential reality using epoché and eidetic reduction. Thus, keeping in view the characteristics just mentioned, a research method in phenomenological sense, denotes a general guide-line to search out 'meaning units' through 'thought experiments' for the purpose of elucidating the essences from the naive descriptions of respondent's experiential reality. This guide-line relates to issues involving sources of data, selection of subjects, data gathering and finally analysis and interpretation of data. The next sub-section will consider these issues.

5.3.1 Sources Of Data

A phenomenological researcher can draw on three sources to generate descriptions of experience. First, the researcher's personal self-reflection on the incidents of the topic that he has experienced. Second, on other participants in the study, who describe the experience under investigation either orally (in response to interview questions) or in written statements. Finally, depiction of the experience from outside of the context of research projects itself, for example, by novelists, poets, painters, choreographers, and by previous phenomenological investigators (Polkinghorne, 1989).

5.3.2 Selection Of Subjects

The logic of selection of subjects in phenomenological research differs from that of statistical sampling theory. The conventional research, based

on statistical logic, requires making inferences from a sample to a population. Hence, it is important that a large sample of subjects are chosen randomly from the population so as to ensure the representativeness of each sample, and thereby to demonstrate the trustworthiness of the findings. The purpose of phenomenological research is to describe the structure of an experience, rather than the characteristics of a group who have had the experience. Instead of seeking to describe superficial properties such as mean and standard deviation of a group as it relates to the experience, the phenomenological concern is with the nature of the experience itself. In phenomenological research, understanding the nature of experience involves 'eidetic seeing' and not deriving inductive inferences.

The purpose of selecting subjects in phenomenological research therefore is to generate a full range of variation in the set of descriptions to be used in analyzing a phenomenon for grasping the essential structure of the phenomena. Therefore, subjects are chosen on the basis of their ability to function as informants by providing rich descriptions of the experience under study. The persons selected are required to have experienced the phenomena being investigated. They are also required to have the capacity to provide a full and sensitive description of such an experience. Van Kaam(1969 : 328) proposed that this capacity required the subjects to have six important skills:

- a. the ability to express themselves linguistically with relative ease,
- b. the ability to sense and to express inner feelings and emotions without shame or inhibition,
- c. the ability to sense and to express the organic experience that accompany these feelings,
- d. the experience of the situation under investigation at a relatively recent date,
- e. a spontaneous interest in their experience, and
- f. the ability to report or write what was on within themselves

The last skill requires an atmosphere in which subjects can relax and thereby put sufficient time and orderly thought into reporting or the writing. However, Colaizzi (1978a : 58) stated that *'Experience with the investigated topic and articulateness suffice as criteria for selecting subjects.'*

The *number of subjects* selected for phenomenological studies varies considerably. However, compared to conventional studies it focuses on small number of subjects. For example, Stevick (1971) used 30 interviews in her study of the experience 'being angry', Mruk (1983) used 25 descriptions in his study of self esteem; and Konig (1979) took three subjects to generate the data for his study of the experience of 'being suspicious'. Sanders' (1982 : 356) advice is particularly relevant. She suggested that,

'The first crucial rule for the phenomenological researcher is: more subjects do not yield more information. Quantity should not be confused with quality. The phenomenologist must learn to engage in in-depth probing of a limited number of individuals ... approximately three to six.'

The rationale of the decision regarding the number of subjects in a phenomenological study is at stark variance with that of the conventional study. For the purpose of generalization this decision in conventional study is guided by the logic of induction and the theory of large numbers. By contrast, phenomenology holds that the intersubjectivity of the mundane world is ontologically given. Hence, the first order constructs are regarded to have intersubjective validity. Since the task of a phenomenological study is to elucidate the essences of the first order constructs the number of subjects do not play any significant role. Bannister and Fransella (1980 : 10) asserted that,

'While it (personal construct or a phenomenologically based method) does not argue against the collection of information, neither does it measure truth by the size of the collection. Indeed, it leads one to regard a large accumulation of facts as an open invitation for some far-reaching re-construction which will reduce them to a mass of trivialities'

In depth analysis using eidetic reduction makes a phenomenologically based study a viable means of generating credible findings.

5.3.3 Data Gathering

In a phenomenological study the purpose of data gathering is to collect naive descriptions of the experience under investigation. The descriptions provide specific instances from which the structure of consciousness can be extracted. The descriptions, that are used as raw materials in a phenomenological study can be in written, verbal or observational form. Consequently, the collection of each of these forms of data requires different techniques. While the collection of written data may be relatively straight forward, the verbal and observational data may demand extra care. Techniques such as the phenomenological interview and perceptual description may be used to collect verbal and observational data respectively. These techniques will now be considered in turn.

a. The Phenomenological Interview

The theory behind phenomenological interviewing differs from the theory behind survey-questionnaire interviewing. Survey interviewing may be considered as a stimulus-response interaction with the interviewer's question being the stimulus, and the subject's answer as the response. According to survey-interview theory, it is possible and desirable for the questioner to present a uniform stimulus to all subjects. Thus, the questions must be worded exactly the same way in each interview; they must be presented in the same order; and the interviewer must not respond in a manner that would bias responses. In contrast, the phenomenological interview is conceived as a discourse or conversation (Mishler, 1986). It involves an interpersonal engagement in which subjects are encouraged to share with the researcher the details of their experience. The researcher's behaviour although individualized, is also disciplined in its focus upon the research question.

Kvale (1983) outlined aspects of the phenomenological interview. The focus of the interview is on the life-world or the experience of the

interviewee and is theme-oriented not person-oriented. The interviewer seeks to describe and understand the meaning of the central themes of experience being investigated. The interviewer seeks a report of interviewee's experience as it actually appears in his consciousness without his opinions, assumptions or theoretical interpretation. Thus, it is important that the subject's awareness be directed towards his own experiencing. The way in which the researcher frames his questions can help the subject to report his experiences. For example by asking, 'What did you experience?' or 'What was it like for you?' instead of, 'What happened?' the investigator is more likely to elicit experiential data. To keep the focus on non-theoretical descriptions of the experience, the researcher takes care to remain open to the presence of new and unexpected constituents in the description. Rather than seeking general opinions, the interview focuses on specific situations and action sequences that are instances of the theme under investigation so that the essence or the structure of the theme will emerge and show itself. When the statements of the interviewee are ambiguous, it is the task of the interviewer to seek clarification. Fischer and Wertz (1979 : 138) reported that in their study of crime victims, the questions were restricted to requests for clarification or elaboration of what the subjects had already said. In a phenomenological interview, the researcher is required to adopt the stance of 'imaginative listening' (Sheridan, 1975; cited in Colaizzi, 1978a). This implies that the researcher fully attends to his subject with all his sensitivities and empathy to be able to grasp the meanings of the subjects' nuances of speech and gestures.

Another approach to gathering description from subjects includes Spiegelberg's (1976) procedure of 'cooperative group phenomenology'. Spiegelberg's group data-gathering procedure brought the subjects together in groups ranging in size from six to sixteen people and lasting from two days to two weeks. The researcher led the group, moving the process from individual written descriptions by each member to a final general structural descriptions reflecting the group as a whole.

Verbal data may be collected from subjects while they are experiencing a phenomenon as being engaged in an on-going activity or by asking them to recall the experiences of past incidents. Aanstoos (1986) used a

'thinking aloud' technique to study the thought processes of the subjects involved in the game of chess as an ongoing activity. This technique involves asking the subjects to 'think aloud' (as completely as possible) all the thoughts that they are having exactly as they occur to him while experiencing the phenomena of the study. The subjects' descriptions are tape recorded and later transcribed and analyzed.

The 'think aloud' technique may also be used together with the 'simulated recall' technique to collect data about past experiences. In recalling past experiences, a subject re-lives them in the present. Hence the subject is able to describe the past (recalled currently using simulated recall technique) by 'thinking aloud' as he re-lives it. Since a researcher's question is interpreted by his subject who then proceeds to remember his experiences, this method of collecting data is called a *stimulated recall* technique. As a technique of gathering data, stimulated recall is based on the concept of duration (or stream of experience) in phenomenology (Huczynski and Mmambuosi, 1982). In illustrating the technique the authors (1982 : 89-90) wrote that,

'When I have undergone a meaningful lived experience in space and time, I later in space and time, seem to forget it. In actual fact, the experience is not forgotten. It remains there, in consciousness (or in 'memory' if the reader prefers that label). I only seem to forget it because life is full of objects, events or phenomena which I continually or continuously experience. Therefore, I merely shift my attention from that particular lived experience to another lived experience which will also be retained (retention) in consciousness. The duration (or stream of experience) in the earlier time-space, flows into the subsequent duration of lived experience. Another event or a researcher's question, could make me undergo the process of recalling the earlier event. In a way, therefore, I look back (or my experience flows back), in this space and time, to the previous space and time so as to reproduce the former noematic and noetic contents in consciousness.

Retention of the past is now recollected and reproduced (retention → recollection → reproduction → being recorded by the researcher). What I am now, in this duration (this stream of consciousness), reproducing for the researcher, is a synthesis of the past noematic and noetic impression, the retention process and the 'here-and-now' reproduction itself which claims to be a replica of the original experience or the object of experience (see Spicker, 1973 : 237). The power of the synthetic process of retention, recollection and reproduction is often such as to make a person relapse into observable mental and physical disturbance, as he re-lives an earlier meaningful traumatic experience.

In effect, the subject stands out, so to say, from the stream of a lived experience in order to experience another noematic event. He thereby assigns time and space (place) to that experience. Thus the stimulated recall technique, in the protocol analysis method, becomes another lived experience which sends the subject back to the space and time of a past durational event. Stimulated recall thus re-draws the subject's 'attention' to an earlier, but continued, presence of lived 'object-in-experience'.

Besides collecting data relating to past experience, stimulated recall may also be used to collect data regarding experiences that are 'yet-to-be-manifested'. For example, a person who has earned a holiday after a year's hard work may actually live (or experience) 'now' the pleasures of holiday activities, of basking in the sun, of sights and scenery etc. The future is vividly present as a concrete 'here-and-now' experience because such imagined experience may shape his disposition and behaviour. The person could articulate his imagined experience for the researcher to interpret.

b. Perceptual Description

Having considered the methods of collecting verbal data, this section focuses upon the method of perceptual description that uses observation

of the lived-events as its data source. It is theoretically grounded in the philosophy of Merleau-Ponty (1962, 1964b, 1968; cited in Colaizzi, 1978). The method is valuable in the cases where access to data using other methods (such as protocol analysis) is constrained by a subject's lack of phenomenal awareness. There are many phenomena which are beyond human experiential awareness or are incommunicable. Examples include broad social events, infant, child and animal behaviour. These phenomena involve dimensions of which we have no thematic experience and yet they are not chaotic. For instance, while driving a car my hands, legs, eyes and ears 'know' what to do in different situations. They operate as if they are independent of my conscious awareness. I do not have to tell (consciously) my leg to brake when someone jumps in front of my car. My body does the work without me being able to verbalize the experience, and I cannot articulate this knowledge which my body has. Ricoeur expressed the point profoundly. He stated that '*I do not know how I do what I know how to do*' (cited in Bujtendijk, 1974). These behaviours escape phenomenal awareness. Nevertheless, they can be observed, they are beneath the level of explicit awareness, are pervaded by blind spots and obscurities, but can still be observed. However, to observe them and then to describe our observation of them, demands that we describe what we see not what we think we see (Colaizzi, 1978a). This observation necessarily requires suspension of presuppositions. For example, in observing dancing we can describe this percept either as 'two people dancing' or 'a dance which is danced by two people.' The first is analytic, dispersing the perceived event into isolated entities which are reassembled by thought, while the second is 'physiognomic' (prereflective perception, see McConville, 1978) sustaining contact with the original perceptual unity. In the former case, we are satisfied with what we think we see. In other words, we presuppose that the event can be grasped by adding its elements. In the later case, we desire to faithfully express what we see. The method of perceptual description avoids, as much as possible, observing and then adding discrete perceptual facts. On the contrary, it strives to contact synthetically a perceptual event as a whole. Colaizzi (1978a) noted that only by physiognomic observation can we perceive and describe social behaviours, corporeal activities, lived-events. Jager's (1978) study on passion illustrate the use of this method.

5.3.4 Interpretation Of Data: Protocol Analysis Method

The data collected from respondents consists of naive descriptions of their experiences which contain idiosyncratic and contextual ingredients. These descriptions, expressed in commonsense language, often mask the essential structure of experience. Further, they usually contain implicit and blended references to the experience. Therefore, for theoretical purposes it is important to go beyond the words that have been said, to the meanings to which they point. The process through which the researcher moves from naive descriptions to structural descriptions or essences of experiences is basically a process of transformation and synthesis. The method of protocol analysis is geared towards this end. This method uses protocols as raw data. Protocols are verbatim transcripts of the respondents. They are the, '*original recording of a subject's introspective notes*' (Drever, 1972 : 227), the 'thinking aloud' articulation of a subject about his experience or what he is experiencing 'here-and-now' (Burgoyne, 1974; Burgoyne and Hodgson, 1982). The movement from protocols to an accurate, clear and informative structural description can be a complex and difficult process. This is because, a whole protocol or a collection of protocols cannot be analyzed simultaneously. They have to be broken down into manageable units and a process of sequential steps must be delineated that can assist the researcher in developing general structural descriptions. Polkinghorne (1989) attempted to understand the type of steps involved in transformation and synthesis of a subject's descriptions by reviewing the development of the method of protocol analysis. The three studies he considered were Van Kaam's (1969) study of 'Really feeling understood', Colaizzi's (1978a) study of 'Being impressed by reading something to the point of modifying one's existence', and Giorgi's (1975 a, 1975 b) study of 'What constitutes learning for ordinary people going about their everyday activities'. Table 5.1 summarizes the steps followed in these studies.

Table: 5.1 A Table Showing The Sequence Of Steps Followed By Van Kaam (1969), Colaizzi (1978a) And Giorgi (1975 a, 1975 b)

Van Kaam (1969)	Colaizzi (1978a)	Giorgi (1975 a, 1975 b)
<p>Step 1</p> <p><i>The Classification of the data into Categories:</i> A list is developed that contains basically every different statement made by the subjects. The list consists of the concrete, vague, intricate and overlapping expressions as they occur in the protocols</p> <p>Step 2</p> <p><i>The reduction and linguistic transformation of the selections into more precisely descriptive terms:</i> This involves moving from a statement (subject's original description) to its referent --the experience to which it points-- and re-describe that experience. This step is aimed at reducing the list of the original statements to a list of elements, as transformed by the researcher, that might be parts of the experience.</p>	<p>Step 1</p> <p>This step involves reading all the protocols to acquire a feeling for them, a making sense out of them.</p> <p>Step 2</p> <p>Each protocol is re-read and the phrases or sentences that directly pertain to the investigated topic are extracted from them. Several protocols may contain the same or nearly the same statements, thus repetitions can be eliminated. Furthermore, statements referring to particular aspect of the situation may be transposed from their situations-specificity to a more general formulation.</p>	<p>Step 1</p> <p>The first step involves reading completely through the protocols to get the sense of the whole.</p> <p>Step 2</p> <p>The second step involves reading through the protocols once again and dividing the transcripts into units (blocks) that seem to express self-contained meanings. This step requires the researcher's judgement. Care must be taken to treat the text as naive and non-theoretical presentation of the subject's experience and not to impose researcher's expectation. Each block is referred to as a 'meaning unit' that retain the contextual aspects of subject's experience.</p>

Table: 5.1 Contd ...

Table: 5.1 Contd ...

Van Kaam (1969)	Colaizzi (1978a)	Giorgi (1975 a, 1975 b)
<p>Step 3</p> <p><i>The elimination of those reduced statements developed in step 2 that are not inherent in the experience:</i></p> <p>Elements that merely express aspects of the experience that relate to a specific situation and also the elements that are a blending of several parts are removed from the list</p>	<p>Step 3</p> <p>Attempt to formulate the meaning of each significant statement. Using creative insights this step requires the researcher to 'grasp' what the subjects mean rather than what they say. Colaizzi (1978a : 59) wrote-- <i>'This is a precarious leap because, while moving beyond the protocol statements, the meanings he arrives at and formulates should never sever all connection with the original protocols; his formulations must discover and illuminate those meanings hidden in the various context and horizons of the investigated phenomenon which are announced in the original protocols.'</i></p>	<p>Step 3</p> <p>This step involves restating the meaning that dominates the natural unit in researcher's own language. This transformation retains the situated character of the original expression.</p>
<p>Step 4</p> <p><i>The first hypothetical identification:</i></p> <p>After the first three operations-- classification, reduction and element elimination-- are completed, the resulting list is taken as first hypothetical identification and description of the experience.</p>	<p>Step 4</p> <p>Step 3 is repeated for each protocol and the formulate meanings are organized and aggregated into 'cluster of themes (invariants)'. As noted in step 3, the difficulty involved in this step is even greater as one is attempting to articulate themes common in all subjects' protocols. The identified cluster of themes are referred back to the original protocols to validate them. Such validated clusters may contain themes that are contradictory or incongruent. The researcher is required not to impose congruence or ignore them because <i>'what is logically inexplicable may be existentially real and valid'</i> (Colaizzi, 1978a : 61)</p>	<p>Step 4</p> <p>This step involves sorting meaning units (step 2) and the theme (first transformation i.e., step 3) that are relevant to the specific topic of the study and re-describe the themes in a language appropriate to the discipline (e.g., psychology or management training) while retaining the situated character of the initial expression.</p>

Table: 5.1 Contd ...

Table: 5.1 Contd ...

Van Kaam (1969)	Colaizzi (1978a)	Giorgi (1975 a, 1975 b)
<p>Step 5</p> <p><i>Application:</i> The hypothetical description of step 4 is applied to randomly selected protocols to determine if it contains more that necessary and sufficient constituents of the topic under investigation. The hypothesis may have to be revised several times to be sure that no element (inherent to the experience) contained in the protocols is left out of the hypothetical description or that the description do not contain aspects not inherent to the experience.</p>	<p>Step 5</p> <p>The results of the previous steps are integrated into an 'exhaustive description' of the investigated topic.</p>	<p>Step 5</p> <p>In this step the researcher aims to describe the structure of the phenomena as presented in-itself to the subject in the specific situation. Once the meaning units have been transformed in step 4 the researcher works to synthesize and tie them together into a descriptive statement of the essential and non-redundant meanings. The transformed meaning units are related to each other and to the sense of the whole protocol.</p>
<p>Step 6</p> <p><i>Valid identification:</i> When the previous steps have been carried out successfully, the hypothetical description can be considered to be a valid identification and description of the experience. However, van Kaam (1969 : 327) reminds that 'it is evidently valid for the population represented by samples'. The validity lasts until new cases of the experience can be shown not to correspond to the necessary and sufficient constituents contained in the formula.</p>	<p>Step 6</p> <p>An exhaustive description of the investigated topic is formulated into a 'statement of identification' of the fundamental structure of these experiences. This step is accomplished through a reflection on the themes contained in the fundamental experience and constitutes the final reduction of the data into its components-- its essences.</p>	<p>Step 6</p> <p>After completing the situated descriptions (i.e., step 5) this transformation involves constructing a general description of the situated structure that leaves out the particulars of the specific situation reported in the protocols. It centers on those aspects of the experience that are transsituational or the description of the phenomena in general. Although such description does not claim to be an universal structure of consciousness, it does claim a general validity beyond the specific situation of the subject.</p>

Table: 5.1 Contd ...

Table: 5.1 Contd ...

Colaizzi (1978a)	Giorgi (1975 a, 1975 b)
<p>Step 7</p> <p>As a final validating step this involves returning to the subjects for them to assess whether the description formulated in step 6 accurately reflect their experiences. Any relevant data that emerges from such process must be worked into the final product of the research.</p>	<p>Step 7</p> <p>This step is necessary when dealing with more than one protocol to produce a single general structural description. In such cases the researcher may skip step 6 and directly synthesize the transformed meaning units from various protocols into a final general description that transcends the situated aspect of the phenomena.</p>

Polkinghorne (1989) concluded that these studies basically employed a similar series of steps. Table 5.2 lists the steps summarized by Polkinghorne and shows the similarity between these and those identified by Burgoyne and Hodgson (1982).

Table 5.2 A Table Showing The Sequence Of Steps As Summarized By Polkinghorne (1989) And Suggested By Burgoyne And Hodgson (1982)

Polkinghorne's (1989) summary of the three studies (See Table 5.1)	Burgoyne and Hodgson (1982)
The original protocols are divided into units.	Break down the experience into its natural meaning units that are interpreted as a part of the whole description.
The units are transformed into meanings that are expressed in psychological [for that matter any other discipline] and phenomenological concepts.	Classify the natural meaning units so that the sense of the whole (which they imply) is discovered.
These transformations are tied together to make a general description of the experience.	Provide a comprehensive description of the structure which serves as the basis for dialogue with the subject to which the researcher returns.

Transformation appears to be the most difficult of the steps mentioned so far. As indicated before, the transformations are necessary because the original descriptions of the respondents are naive regarding the structure of experience and often include multiple and blended references. Transformations are not accomplished through abstraction or formalization. Transformations do not remain at the level of linguistic expressions, as does traditional content analysis with its use of word counts (Krippendorff, 1980). They focus on the experiences to which the language refers. The transformation 'goes through' the everyday linguistic expressions to the reality they describe, and then it re-describes this reflective reality in a language appropriate to phenomenologically based social science (Polkinghorne, 1989). The transformations which are based on 'seeing through' the concrete expressions to the meaning of the experience are accomplished by two thought processes: *reflection* and

imaginative free variation. The process of reflection involves a careful and sensitive reading of an expression to answer, what is truly being described in the meaning unit? What is absolutely essential to understand the experience? The researcher then tests the answers he first proposes by imaginative free variation. As mentioned earlier, the imaginative free variation is a type of mental experimentation in which the researcher deliberately alters the aspects of the experience through his imagination either by adding to or subtracting from the proposed transformation. The proposed transformation is thus stretched imaginatively to a point until it no longer describes the experience underlying the subject's naive descriptions. This process enables the researcher to produce transformations on which there is consistent intersubjective agreement. A test of the appropriateness of transformation is that one can work backwards from the transformed expression to the original naive expressions.

Another important step in data analysis is synthesis. While transformation is a process of re-description of the meaning units, synthesis involves integrating the transformed meaning into a consistent and systematic general description of the structure of experience being investigated. The phenomenological process of synthesis is in sharp contrast to the inductive generalization procedure in which elements are added or listed. Synthesis is a process of eidetic reduction. It involves an intuitive 'grasping' of the essential that incorporate the re-described meanings. It requires an eidetic seeing of the whole. In grasping the whole, its constituent elements are understood.

The procedure of synthesis requires the researcher to read through the transformed meaning and then formulate what might be a general description of the structure of the experience contained in those transformed meanings. Employing the technique of imaginative free variation, the researcher then generates a proposed formulation that contains the essential features of the experience. This formulation is then compared to the transformed meanings to see if it is supported by such meanings. A number of iterations (involving comparison of the two and re-formulation of the proposed general description) may be necessary before a final general description (that is clearly supported by the

transformed meanings) can be obtained. As with transformation, the synthesis can be tested by other researchers. Examining the re-described meanings along with the final general description, other researchers should be able to agree that the product of the synthesis is accurate and clearly represents a possible description of the essential structure of the experience.

5.3.5 The Appropriateness Of A *priori* Hypothesis

Within the phenomenological methodology, it is possible to formulate a *priori* hypothesis and then bracket it before proceeding to data collection and reduction. The findings can then be considered in the light of the hypothesis formulated. Although hypothesis formulation does not contradict phenomenological methodology, there seems to be some concern over the use of hypothesis in such a study.

First, the purpose of hypothesis is either verification or falsification of propositions. These propositions are researcher's conception of the nature of reality. No doubt, in principle, epoché segregates the researcher's conception of reality and the experiential reality as lived by the respondents, thereby allowing the expression of the latter 'as it is' without being influenced by the researcher's presuppositions. However, in the discussion of the findings, the respondent's experiential reality is used to support or refute the hypothesis. That is, the researcher's conception is given the central focus, while the respondent's experiential reality merely assumes a supportive role. If this is to be resolved, then the central focus must be given to the respondent's experiential reality, as it stands alone by dint of its own merit. This position necessarily renders the formulation of hypothesis a superfluous activity.

Second, hypothesis are generated principally from the existing literature. If hypothesis are constructed from phenomenologically based studies conducted earlier, then there seems to be less problem. However, it is hardly the case. Most prior studies in various disciplines were conducted using a positivist standpoint. Formulating hypothesis for phenomenological research from such studies results in a theoretical disjunction. One suspects the findings of a positivist study as representing

the experiential reality. Through the formulation of a hypothesis that is based on positivistic studies, one is likely to carry forward the conception of reality not rested in the lived-experience. Therefore, the appropriateness of hypothesis formulation is certainly suspected.

5.4 The Criteria Of Trustworthiness

Although the foregoing discussion may have provided some insights in the practical conduct of a phenomenologically based research, it did not address the concern over the extent of confidence one can have on the reported findings. Therefore, the focus of this section is on issues the involving trustworthiness of the findings of such a study. Conventionally, the trustworthiness of the findings of mainstream research is ascertained using criteria such as internal validity, external validity, reliability and objectivity. These criteria are grounded in the ontological and epistemological foundations of positivism. They no longer remain useful to a phenomenological researcher who rejects the underlying philosophical assumptions of positivism. He/she is then faced with the problem of demonstrating trustworthiness of the findings of a study that is based on a different set of ontological and epistemological assumptions. To address the concern over trustworthiness some criteria are proposed in this section. They include *authenticity*, *isomorphic validity*, and *intersubjective validity*. These criteria are grounded in the phenomenological ontology and epistemology. Beside these, one may also add *dependability* as another criterion. However, dependability (as will be seen later in this section) may be subsumed in other criteria. Therefore, it was decided to exclude dependability as a separate one. The proposed criteria were developed by remaining conceptually close to the conventional criteria while simultaneously altering their philosophical basis. Since the proposed criteria are formulated as counterparts to the conventional ones, to understand their rationale, it is necessary to understand the rationale of the conventional criteria. Therefore, it seems appropriate to consider the conventional criteria in brief.

5.4.1 The Conventional Criteria

In this section the conventional criteria are considered. The aim of this discussion is to understand the rationale underlying each criterion. This will serve as a point of reference for the subsequent discussion.

a. Objectivity

Objectivity refers to the positivist's requirement for neutrality. Studies must ensure that the findings are not contaminated by the investigator's biases, values, prejudices, motivations, interests and perspectives. Objectivity is ensured by designing methodologies that render a particular study impervious to human distortions.

b. Reliability

Reliability refers to the degree a study or an instrument consistently measures what it purports to measure. This is a precondition for validity because by definition anything that is unreliable cannot be valid. Hence if an instrument or its equivalent is reliable, it will produce identical or similar results with high degree of consistency, predictability or accuracy on every repetition or replication. However, instruments can never be perfectly reliable. Commenting on this, Patton (1982 : 263) maintained that '*... statisticians can never develop a test that is 100 percent reliable*'. A number of factors jeopardize the reliability of an instrument. These may include carelessness in the measurement or assessment process, instrument decay, insufficiently long (or intense) assessment and ambiguities.

c. Internal Validity

Internal validity implies the degree of confidence with which it can be claimed that the independent variable really did cause the observed changes in the dependent variable. In other words, it represents the extent to which the variation in the outcome can be attributed to the controlled variation in the independent variable. Hence, central to the theme of

internal validity is the claim of causal linkages between the independent and dependent variables. For example, referring to it as an approximate validity (the best available approximation of the truth or falsity of a statement) Cook and Campbell (1979 : 37) maintained that --

' ... it is the degree to which one can infer that a relationship between two variables is causal or that the absence of a relationship implies the absence of a cause.'

Hence, the methodological task is to design the study in such a way that the extraneous variables do not influence the outcome.

d. External Validity

External validity refers to the degree of generalizability of the research findings. According to Cook and Campbell (1979 : 37) it was the

'approximate validity with which we infer that the presumed causal relationship can be generalized to and across alternate measures of the cause and effects and across different types of persons, settings and times'.

External validity is contingent upon the degree of representativeness of the samples, which is ensured by randomized sampling. If the chances of every element of the population to be included in the sample are known, then within given confidence limits, it is possible to assert that the findings will also hold for the population. It is very difficult to ensure both internal and external validity simultaneously. Research designs that are strong on internal validity tend to have poor external validity and vice-versa (Guba and Lincoln, 1989). The control of variables help ensure internal validity at the expense of external validity.

5.4.2. The Phenomenological Criteria

As against the conventional criteria of trustworthiness, this study proposes authenticity, isomorphic validity, and intersubjective validity, as criteria of trustworthiness for a study based on phenomenological

principles. In addition, dependability as a criterion parallel to reliability, will also be discussed below. However, it may be emphasized that phenomenological research approaches the issues of trustworthiness from a more general perspective-- a conclusion that inspires confidence because the argument in support of it is persuasive (Polkinghorne, 1989).

a. Authenticity

Authenticity is proposed as a parallel criterion to objectivity. In conventional inquiry objectivity is ensured by generating findings that are uncontaminated by values, biases, motives, interests, prejudices, ideologies and political inclinations. It may be noted that, according to phenomenology, the subjects' accounts are the descriptions of realities as experienced by them in their daily lives. A phenomenological researcher, using methods such as epoché, and eidetic reduction, elucidates the essences from the subject's naive descriptions. While epoche implies suspension of all presuppositions, eidetic reduction involves achieving transformations and syntheses using techniques such as imaginative free variation. The subject's experiential realities are co-constitutional (Valle et. al., 1989), i.e., realities are co-constituted through a dialectical interaction of the 'self' and the 'Other'. There is no world 'out there' without a consciousness to perceive it, and no consciousness without a world to be conscious of. They co-constitute one another (Valle et. al., 1989). This implies that one's values and subjectivities play a significant role in co-constitution of realities. As a human being cannot transcend humanness, then human experiential realities cannot therefore be value free. Hence, the subject's naive descriptions of his/her experience or the first order constructs are essentially value laden. Consequently, the transformed descriptions or the second order constructs that are derived from the first order constructs also retain the influence of values. Since phenomenology's position on the influence of values is at sharp variance with the corresponding positivist stand, with a shift in paradigmatic posture, the idea of objectivity does not serve any purpose for the phenomenologist. However, a phenomenologist retains an interest in grasping a phenomenon as a thing-in-itself. This requires him/her to suspend all his/her presuppositions (including values biases, motives,

interests, prejudices, ideologies, political inclinations etc.) and to remain faithful to the descriptions of experience provided by his/her respondents. Therefore, one is not concerned with the positivist's notion of objectivity but rather with the idea of authenticity. This criterion may be satisfied by showing that the researcher's re-descriptions (i.e., transformations and syntheses) do truly reflect an authentic and undistorted account of respondent's reported descriptions of experience as is presented in his/her (respondent's) consciousness. In other words it involves the assessment of the application of epoché in data collection and analysis. The way in which the questions are framed indicate whether or not the researcher has effectively suspended his presuppositions in collecting data. Further using member checks, a researcher may ensure that the transcripts reflect exactly what has been described by the respondents. The authenticity of the transformations and syntheses may be assessed by scrutinizing them to see if they flow from the naive descriptions or have been imposed by the researcher.

b. Dependability

Dependability may be considered as a criterion parallel to reliability. It was mentioned earlier that in conventional inquiry a study is considered to be reliable if (on replication or repetition) it consistently measures what it purports to measure. Reliability may be threatened in two ways. First, by the changes brought about in the research method adopted or in the hypotheses and constructs used. Second, by instrumental decay (Lincoln and Guba, 1985). In the first case, the demonstration of reliability depends on the assumption of naive realism, i.e., there is something tangible 'out there' that can be measured and explained accurately. With the departure from the idea of naive realism (for that matter positivism) the idea of reliability does not cater for the needs of a phenomenology based study. Changes and shifts in constructs/hypotheses that are made through the transformation process, far from being threats, are essential requirements for eidetic reduction to formulate constructs that bear the essential and necessary character of the phenomena investigated. Hence, one is confronted not with reliability but with dependability to ensure that the

choice of re-descriptions are sound and reasonable in the light of respondent's descriptions.

Now let us consider instrumental decay. An instrument (e.g., a questionnaire) in a conventional study is based on a *a priori* relationship between certain variables. To measure this relationship the variables are operationalized, i.e., expressed in the form of certain empirical indicators. A questionnaire (either in a written format or in a verbal format or both), for example, is developed using these indicators. Since phenomenology rejects all presuppositions (which includes the use of hypothesis for developing questionnaire), instrumental decay from this perspective is not relevant. However, even with epoché in effect the researcher does act (and is required to) as a recipient of the descriptions provided by the subject about his/her experience. Therefore, viewing the researcher as a recipient (a human instrument) for collecting data, the question of instrumental decay may not seem irrelevant because researcher may impose (intentionally or unintentionally) his/her views on the subject, become fatigued, bored and make mistakes. The issue is not then the reliability of an instrument but the dependability of the way in which the researcher collects phenomenological data. The principle of epoché provides some safeguards, as it prevents the researcher to impose his presuppositions in any form. This is facilitated by providing minimum but appropriate leads or prompts. The human error, associated with the role of a researcher as a recipient, can be eliminated by the use of tape recorders to record the verbal descriptions in exact form. However, as far as non verbal expressions are concerned a phenomenological study is likely to suffer from instrumental decay if the researcher fails to receive the expressions as a result of lack of experience, fatigue, or boredom. One may overcome this problem by using a video recorder instead of audio tapes. Of course such an alternative may be very expensive and the respondents are likely to resist its use. The assessment of dependability may be carried out by judging the adequacy of the transformation and synthesis, the accuracy of transcriptions and the appropriateness of the questions or prompts used to bring out the subject's experiences.

c. *Isomorphic validity*

Isomorphic validity is proposed as parallel criterion to internal validity. The idea of internal validity is founded on the ontological assumption of the existence of objective reality that is governed by causal laws. Therefore, the ultimate test for internal validity is the demonstration of isomorphism between the findings of the study and that reality. The idea of internal validity becomes redundant to one who rejects the assumptions of objective reality 'out there'. A reality to the phenomenologist is experiential. Thus, replacing 'isomorphic validity' for 'internal validity', the trustworthiness of a phenomenological study may be ascertained by assessing the degree of isomorphism between the *meaning* of respondent's experiential reality and the *meaning* described in the findings of the study that were arrived at using the process of transformation and synthesis. Isomorphic validity of a study may be publicly assessed if it enables the reader to trace the meaning backwards from the transformed and synthesized description of experiential reality (i.e., the results of the study) to the subject's own original naive descriptions of the experience. This calls for the researcher first to present the respondent's description of experience intact, i.e., without any alteration, modification or editing; and then to report the interpretations, transformations and synthesis in such a way that enable the reader to trace the researcher's thought processes. In this way the readers can judge, considering the initial descriptions of the respondent, the contents and connections of the conclusions derived, and thereby assess the isomorphic validity.

d. *Intersubjective validity*

Intersubjective validity can be considered as a criterion parallel to external validity. To ensure generalizability, according to the conventional paradigm, it is a fundamental requirement to generate strong internally valid findings by taking a sample that is representative of the population. Hence, in principle, the conditions of representativeness enable the researcher to apply the generalizations that were generated (through an inductive process) from the sample to the population. However, it is not

only paradoxical to achieve both internal validity and external validity even by remaining within the conventional paradigm but also the entire issue of induction is inconsistent with the ontological and epistemological assumptions of phenomenology. Phenomenology's task of 'grasping' the essential structures of experiential reality do not depend on the 'additive characteristics' (i.e., the logical inference based on adding examples present in the sample) of the inductive method. Instead, it uses eidetic reduction to extract the essence of the experience investigated. According to phenomenology, reality is not established by compilation of evidence but rather by evident insight. Kohák (1978) succinctly argued the point using an example of a mundane expression of experience-- 'Sure, when your kid gets killed, you don't feel like doing much of anything'. He wrote (1978 : 75)--

"It is clearly presented as intersubjectively valid: for any subject, it is the case that the loss a loved one produces a temporary paralysis of habitual interests. Yet neither is it presented or understood as an inductive generalization. The speaker does not claim, 'I have observed that all of my friends who suffered a grievous personal loss exhibited a decline of interest in their hobbies and I expect to encounter a similar correlation in future incidents', as if he were simply observing behaviour without any grasp of inner logic. He knows intimately how it fits together. The principle appears to him as evident. If you suffer a loss, you lose other interest as well. His entire commonplace observation is in fact a pure eidetic description of a necessary structure of human experience".

Consequently, such ideas as 'population', 'sample', 'representativeness' and 'randomness' are not relevant to phenomenology. It may be noted that phenomenology stresses intersubjectivity and not generalization as something that constitutes knowledge. Generalization implies determinism, it assumes that reality possesses certain fixed and reliable linkages. These linkages constitute certain immutable laws that are independent of our wishes and preferences. Intersubjectivity, on the other hand, is essentially the 'common ground' of our experiential reality. Intersubjectivity of our experiential reality is the meaning that is shared

and understood. It does not take the form of immutable law explaining causality. Further, intersubjectivity of the life-world is ontologically given (Schütz, 1962). This implies that the naive descriptions of experiences, i.e., first order constructs, are intersubjective. In a phenomenology based study, these prereflective and prepredicative first order constructs are transformed into second order constructs. The intersubjective character of the first order constructs will be retained by the second order constructs insofar as transformations are done properly. With epoché in place, this largely depends on the success of applying eidetic reduction for transforming the naive descriptions to second order constructs. Hence, intersubjective validity concerns the assessment of whether eidetic reduction was successfully used by the researcher for transforming the first order constructs to second order constructs. To facilitate the assessment, the researcher is required to present his interpretations and transformations in such a way that enables readers to 'grasp' the structure of experiential reality reported as necessary and sufficient. This implies that any alternative transformations that may have been formulated would not have constituted the essential structure of the phenomena under study. The researcher is also required to demonstrate that he has considered various alternative transformations that were found to be less adequate and to set forth the reasoning why he considered those alternatives as less adequate. Apart from following through the researcher's thought process, the intersubjective validity of a phenomenology based study may also be assessed by reading its findings. If the descriptions of the essential structure of experience invoke in the reader a sense of personal identification with the descriptions, then the study can be said to have intersubjective validity. This is because the reader seems to have discovered the common ground (the essential structures) between his experience and the respondent's experience. Giorgi (1985) reported that when the transformation was carried out on the same protocol by different individuals and the results were compared, the degree of intersubjective agreement was surprisingly high.

To sum up, the trustworthiness of the phenomenological research is concerned with whether or not the general structural descriptions provide an accurate portrait of the common features and structural connections that are present in the examples collected. It was argued that the

assessment of such trustworthiness may be facilitated by using criteria that are grounded in the ontological and epistemological foundations of phenomenology. These criteria included authenticity, dependability, isomorphic validity and intersubjective validity. Authenticity indicated that the researcher had effectively suspended all his/her presuppositions in data collection and analyses. Dependability showed that the interpretations or re-descriptions were sound and reasonable and that one could have confidence in the way in which data were collected. Isomorphic validity implied the correspondence of meaning contained in the conclusions of a research and that of the meaning contained in the naive descriptions of respondent's experiences and finally, intersubjective validity implied that the reported structure of experiential reality was necessary and sufficient.

A number of observations are in order. First, although these criteria have been proposed as phenomenological alternatives by employing the philosophical rationale that is parallel to that of the conventional criteria, in effect, dependability can be subsumed partly in intersubjective validity and partly in authenticity. The extent of reasonableness of the re-descriptions and interpretations can be ensured by assessing whether or not the reported structure of experiential reality is necessary and sufficient. Furthermore, the dependability of a researcher as a 'human instrument' may be assessed by assessing the extent of authenticity.

Second, the distinctions between the criteria need to be emphasized. While authenticity concerns the suspension of researcher's presuppositions and not the transformations and syntheses; isomorphic validity and intersubjective validity, on the other hand, directly relate to such transformations and syntheses. Further, the idea of elucidation of the necessary and sufficient structure of experiential reality, is contained in intersubjective validity and not in isomorphic validity.

Third, from the second observation it may be concluded that ensuring authenticity does not automatically imply ensuring isomorphic validity, also that ensuring the latter does not automatically imply ensuring intersubjective validity. However, in a reverse order, ensuring intersubjective validity does imply that a study possess isomorphic

validity and authenticity; while ensuring isomorphic validity implies that it possess authenticity.

Finally, trustworthiness of a phenomenological study may be viewed from three levels. At the lowest level, assessment of authenticity; at the middle level, assessment of isomorphic validity; and at the highest level, assessment of intersubjective validity. The Table 5.3 provides a sample of the questions that may be asked to assess the trustworthiness of a phenomenology based study.

Table 5.3 A Table Showing A Sample Of Questions That May Be Asked To Assess Trustworthiness

Sample questions	Criteria involved
1 Do the respondent's descriptions truly reflect his/her actual experiences? Are they influenced by the researcher in any way?	Address authenticity and isomorphic validity
2 Is the transcription accurate--a verbatim representation of respondent's descriptions? Does it carry the meaning conveyed by the respondent?	Address authenticity and isomorphic validity
3 Do the transformations and syntheses flow from the respondent's original descriptions or have been imposed by the researcher?	Address authenticity and isomorphic validity
4 Is it possible to evolve conclusions other than those presented by the researcher? Did the researcher explore alternative transformations and syntheses and provide the reasoning as to why they are less likely alternatives?	Address intersubjective validity
5. Is it possible to follow the researcher's thought processes and go from the general structural description to the specific contents of respondent's naive descriptions of experiences? Is it possible to follow the links?	Address authenticity, isomorphic validity, and intersubjective validity
6 Are the conclusions specific to the context?	Address isomorphic validity
7 Does the conclusion hold as a general structural description of experience that is applicable to other situations?	Address authenticity, isomorphic validity, and intersubjective validity

However, it may be noted that phenomenology's dependence on the linguistic expressions and their meanings necessarily put certain limits on its capacity to generate reader's confidence. The conventional studies, 'empowered' by the apparent 'strength' of figures and statistics, might seem more appealing in inspiring reader's confidence. However, the paradigmatic difficulties of these studies have been extensively dealt with in the literature (see Guba and Lincoln, 1989). Therefore, the assessment of trustworthiness requires a significant shift from the conventional modes of thinking. It may be argued that the task of a phenomenological research suffices if it can demonstrate reasoned and convincing responses to the questions that a responsible reader might wish to ask.

5.5 The Research Method Adopted

On the basis of the foregoing discussion this section attempts to highlight the specific aspects of the research method adopted for this study. Such specific aspects will be considered in terms of sources of data, selection of subjects, data collection technique, interpretation of data and the issues of trustworthiness. However, prior to that, it is felt necessary to restate the purpose of the research in brief so that the methodological specifics can be appreciated in appropriate perspective.

5.5.1 The Purpose Of This Research

The readers will recall from Chapter 1 that the purpose of this research was to evaluate a training programme from the participants' point of view and understand the 'shapers' that contribute to the learning-application process. With this aim in view two batches of a three-day training course was studied. The training course was organized for a newly created position called 'Group Leader' in a Scotland based semiconductor facility of a multinational company. The position was created to co-ordinate individual manufacturing area ('cell') activity so that production targets can be easily achieved. The group leader's job required working partly as supervisory personnel (without any disciplinary powers), partly as a 'technical support operator' and partly as an operator. The duties included, organizing and scheduling people, product and equipment;

carrying out the duties of an operator and technical support operators; communicate production and quality targets; general administration and training the operators. The training programme was based on a prior study of training needs for the group leaders. The programme focused on the aspects of motivation, leadership, communication and handling awkward situation. For evaluation purposes, the inquiry focused on participants' experiences regarding pre-course, on-course and post-course situation while for understanding the shapers contributing towards the process of learning and application, participants' post course experiences were taken into account. The necessary protocols were collected in two phases-- one, at the end of each training batch and the next after approximately six months from the end of the training programme. The time gap was arbitrarily decided after the discussion with the course facilitator, training manager of the plant and the participants of the training course.

5.5.2 The Formulation Of Protocol Gathering Questions

Colaizzi (1978a) suggested that the first step towards formulating questions involves engaging in a process of self reflection. This allowed the researcher to uncover the *prima facie* dimensions of the topic of investigation. The second step involved conducting interviews in a manner close to a pilot study. These interviews helped to formulate questions with appropriate focus. The author of this thesis took the following steps to generate questions for gathering protocols.

- 1 The relevant literature on evaluation and learning transfer were studied
- 2 Informal meeting were conducted with the course facilitator, the training manager of the plant and the participants of the first batch of the training programme
- 3 The researcher participated in the first batch of the training programme
- 4 The course materials were studied.

- 5 Company documents such as company fact sheets, job description of the group leaders, a report on the training needs assessment for the group leader (Fraser, 1990) were also studied.
- 6 The manufacturing facility was visited.

All these steps facilitated the process of 'self reflection' of the researcher. On the basis of these steps preliminary questions were formulated. The appropriateness of the questions were assessed in a trial interview conducted with the participants of the first training batch. These interviews helped determine the 'demand characteristics' -- i.e., the 'clues' that make a question a 'leading' one. For example, the one initial formulation read like this--

Please recall the events that occurred when you attended the course. Could you please comment on the experiences you had before, during and after the course?

It was realized during the trial interviews that the question was not adequately focused. The respondents were not sure as to what they were supposed to talk about. They tended to concentrate on all events and experiences which took place at that time, whether or not those were related to the training course. Furthermore, it introduced presuppositions in the respondents' descriptions. The word 'comment' prompted the respondents to offer their opinions and not experiences. As the use of this word diminished the likelihood a phenomenon being expressed in its full self-givenness, it was felt appropriate to drop it. Thus the questions were re-formulated by eliminating the presuppositions while simultaneously keeping them as sharply focused as possible. Furthermore, emphasis was laid to keep the questions as non-technical and non-theoretical as possible. Use of terms such as 'evaluation', 'factors' or 'shapers' were carefully avoided. With the re-formulated questions two cards were prepared for actual data collection. The first card focused on eliciting descriptions of pre-course, on-course, and end-course experiences, while the second card concentrated on generating descriptions of the experiences related to the application of course ideas in work situation. The re-formulated questions that appeared on the cards are as follows--

Card 1

Question: I would like you to recall the course related experiences that you had before, during and after the course and describe me your experiences as they actually occurred to you.

Card 2

Question: I would like you to recall your post-course experiences and describe them as they actually occurred to you. As you recall, I would also like you to describe the things that helped or hindered you in trying out (in your job) whatever you learnt in the course.

5.5.3 Sources Of Data

The group leaders who participated in the second and the third batch of the training programme were the principal source of data. The questions were designed to tap their experiences of the training programme and of the application of training ideas back to work situation. The data obtained from the course participants using phenomenological interviews are used for formal analysis. Apart from that the informal interviews with the course facilitator, the training manager, the participants of the first batch of the training programme (not audio recorded), the tape recordings of the training sessions (all batches), relevant documents such as job descriptions, report on training needs assessment etc. provided a pool of rich information. These information helped the researcher to appreciate participants' experiences in their proper context.

5.5.4 Selection Of Subjects

The criteria of selecting subjects were mentioned in the preceding discussion on phenomenological research methods. All the participants satisfied the requirement of '*recent exposure to experience under investigation*'-- one of the criteria of selecting subjects. However, of the 29 members who participated in the two batches (the second and the third batch) nine were selected for interview. As a result of severe work pressure and lack of availability for interview (some of them worked in off shifts) the participants were selected on the basis of 'convenience of access'. The criterion of 'articulateness' did not play any role in the selecting participants for interview because of the inability to assess before the interviews which participants were articulate and which were not. However, once the interviews were transcribed, seven protocols were short listed on the basis of articulateness of the descriptions provided. These seven participants were also interviewed in the second phase of data collection. In all fourteen protocols (seven from the first phase and seven from the second phase) were used for formal analysis.

5.5.5 The Method Of Data Gathering

This study used phenomenological interview for collecting naive descriptions of participants experiences regarding training and the shapers of learning-application process. For the second phase of data collection, a written description of the experiences of implementing course ideas to work situation was sought from all the participants. They were requested to keep a record of the ideas they would try plus the record of the 'shapers' they may experience to have helped and hindered their implementation efforts. Only two such written descriptions were returned. However, these two descriptions could not have been used because they hardly contained any useful information. Consequently the study had to rely on the interviews to collect protocols. In collecting such verbal descriptions, the study simultaneously used such techniques as 'stimulated recall' and 'think aloud'. These techniques were discussed in section 5.3.3 (a) of this

chapter. At the beginning of each interview, the participants were given brief description of the study and a complete assurance of confidentiality and anonymity. This helped to build a level of understanding and trust allowing them to talk freely without any fear or apprehension. The participants were then given the cards (containing the prompt or question) and allowing them some time to articulate they were requested to talk. All the interviews were audio taped. The protocols generated in both the phases of data collection were transcribed and interpreted using protocol analysis method.

5.5.6 The Interpretation Of Data

Having bracketed researcher's own presuppositions the meaning units contained in the protocols were interpreted i.e., transformed and synthesized. The transformations and synthesis were carried out using imaginative free variation technique. The following steps were undertaken for accomplishing the task.

- i. The tape recordings were transcribed but not edited in any way (except for concealing the identity of the participants which was done as a measure to honour confidentiality and anonymity). The protocols were typed on the left hand side of the page leaving the right hand side available for interpretations.
- ii. Each protocol was studied. The articulations were categorized into meaning units and the researcher's interpretations were attached.
- iii. The interpretations were stated showing the noema and noesis in the blank, right side column beside each meaning unit.
- iv. Extracting the noematic elements from all the protocols, they were grouped together in a table. A similar table was constructed for the noetic elements.

- v. Epoché was then suspended. The noetic and neomatic elements were discussed in relation to the references from related literature, other research findings, researcher's own ideas and pre-study assumptions. The central focus of such discussion was laid on the experiential reality of the subjects under study.

5.6 The Issues Of Trustworthiness

Various issues involving trustworthiness were discussed in the preceding section. In the light of such discussion, this study attempted to satisfy the criteria of trustworthiness as far as possible. The interpretations (i.e., transformations and synthesis) are presented in such a way as to enable the reader to trace the links between the raw data and the transformed formulations. This should enable the reader to assess isomorphic validity, intersubjective validity, and authenticity. The examination of the way in which the questions were formulated will also provide an indication of authenticity. Further, to ensure isomorphic validity the technique of 'member check' was used. The author of this thesis recognizes that this technique is not infallible. It was possible for the respondent to endorse the transcripts to please the researcher. However, given the level of trust and confidence that prevailed between the researcher and the respondents this possibility was minimum. In essence, the trustworthiness of the findings of this study are to be assessed in terms of whether they inspire reader's confidence. The readers can judge that by their own subjective measures.

5.7 Methodological Limitation Of the Study

This research is constrained by the method chosen. It is likely that the absolute requirement of epoché could not have been achieved. Although all-round efforts were made to suspend presuppositions, some of it may have crept in while formulating questions, transforming respondent's descriptions and synthesizing the transformed meanings. The transformations and synthesis that were formulated were the most plausible ones that could be achieved by the researcher using imaginative

free variation. However, such transformations and synthesis remain exposed to open endedness. Further, as with any other form of research method (irrespective of paradigmatic stance), this research was also exposed to respondents' censorship, fronts, lies and deceptions. It is impossible to detect the extent of such practices (Huczynski, 1991). However as Huczynski (1991 : 452) wrote that,

" ... one might argue that the protocol analysis technique of prompts rather than questions, 'thinking aloud', audio taping and detailed analysis of responses is more, rather than less, likely to elicit a subject's true experience. ... The themes raised, the words used, the imagery employed, all provide the researcher tell-tale clues to the way the respondent experiences the phenomenon'.

5.8 Summary

The aim of this chapter was to delineate the methodological details of this study. With this aim in view, the chapter considered the methodological prerequisites, such as epoché and eidetic reduction, for elucidating meaning of respondent's experiences. Having discussed that, the issues involving phenomenological research methods, the appropriateness of *a priori* hypothesis in a phenomenological study, the criteria of trustworthiness for a phenomenological inquiry were considered. On the basis of this discussion the specific details of the research method adopted for this study were considered. The issues of trustworthiness of the findings and the limitations of this study were also attended to. Within this methodological framework, the 'training-event' and 'post-course-event' data will be presented and interpreted in Chapter 6 and Chapter 7 respectively. The essences elucidated in these two chapters will be discussed in Chapter 8 and Chapter 9.

Chapter 6

PRESENTATION AND INTERPRETATION OF DATA

Participants' Experiences Of 'Training-Event'

The purpose of this chapter is to display and interpret the data collected for this study so that essences of participants' experiences can be discussed in a subsequent chapter. The experiential descriptions, i.e., the protocols or the descriptive data, presented herein relate to the training-events that occurred before, during and after the course. Although these protocols could have been placed in an appendix, it was found more appropriate to incorporate them in the main body of the thesis. One author has argued that in a phenomenological study, the experiential articulations represent consciousness, the genesis of analysis, and are thus too important to be put in the appendix. Furthermore, the juxtaposition of interpretation (as will be seen later) with the protocol units, implies that the interpretations (along with the protocols) will also have to be relegated to appendix (Mmobuosi, 1983). Since interpretation is considered to be a significant research activity, such a measure is likely to undermine its importance. Hence, the protocols are placed in this chapter as a part of the main body of the thesis. This chapter contains three sections. The first section offers some guide-lines on the mode of presentation and interpretation used, the second section presents the protocols and offers interpretations of the experiential data, while the third section briefly summarizes the chapter.

6.1 Some Guide-lines On Presentation And Interpretation

The aim of this section is to facilitate readers' understanding of the mode of presentation and interpretation. Hence a few points, some of which were discussed earlier while others made anew, need to be emphasized. It may be noted that some repetitions are inevitable in a discussion like this.

The methodological guide-lines used for this study were discussed in the previous chapter. As mentioned earlier, techniques such as 'stimulated recall' and 'thinking aloud' were used to collect the necessary protocols.

In the interviews, the respondents were first given a complete assurance of confidentiality and anonymity; and then they were given a card that contained a prompt. The text of the card is reproduced here for reference.

Card 1

I would like you to recall the course related experiences that you had before, during and after the course and describe to me your experiences as they actually occurred to you.

Allowing some time to think, the respondents were subsequently requested to provide their verbal articulations. All interviews were audio taped.

The verbatim transcripts of the interviews were used for the interpretation. Respondents' original expressions were typed-up on the left hand side of the page so that the indexed interpretations could be put on the right hand side. Suspending the researcher's presuppositions (i.e., maintaining epoché) each protocol was read several times to acquire a feeling of what was expressed. Having read them closely and carefully, a number of questions were formulated to facilitate interpretation. The questions are presented in Table 6.1 below.

**Table 6.1 Questions Formulated To Facilitate Interpretation
Of Training-Event Data**

A1	What is ascribed as a valued end? (Noema)
A2	What is ascribed as a shaper in realizing a valued end? (Noema) Does the shaper appear in the consciousness as positively/negatively contributing towards a valued end?
B	What process of consciousness is involved in the ascription of such meanings? (Noesis)

These questions highlighted *what* and *how* the respondents evaluated the course as they experienced it. The first question focused on the issue of meaningfulness of the course to the participants. A course is likely to be meaningful and will be evaluated positively, if it contains elements that are valued by the participants. The second question underscored the value of a course in terms of the shapers. Respondents' awareness of the value of the course was reflected in their identification (implicitly or explicitly) of these shapers, and also in their ascription of relationship between the shapers and the valued ends. Here one is looking into the depth of experience. The value of the course, which may be apparent at the superficial level of experience, is further deliberated through an in-depth experience of some patterns of relationships between the shapers and the perceived valued ends. Finally, the third question drew attention to the process of consciousness used for ascribing meaning. Such processes are important because they help us avoid the *prima facie* acceptance of an assertion of a meaning. For example, if an expression indicated reflection (a process of consciousness) then the ability of the course to rouse that reflection would be a credit to it, thus strengthening the factuality of the meaning ascribed.

The first two questions in Table 6.1 explored the noematic elements (designated here by the letter 'A'). The last question explored the noetic elements (designated here by the letter 'B'). A similar alpha-numeric (A1, A2 & B) referencing was also used in indexing the interpretations in the protocols. This will enable readers to relate a particular element to a particular question and to ascertain whether that particular element is a noematic element or a noetic element or a valued end or even a shaper. In addition, colour codes were also used to further facilitate referencing process. The expressions in the protocols that contained noematic elements and their corresponding references (i.e., the interpretations marked A1 or A2) were highlighted in yellow. The expressions that contained noetic elements and their corresponding references (i.e., the interpretations marked B) were highlighted in green. However, maintaining such clear-cut distinctions was not always possible. In a number of instances (as may be observed in the protocols) a particular

expression lent itself to being interpreted as containing both noematic and noetic elements. This is because, as readers will recall from the discussion in Chapter 3, the noematic and the noetic process in consciousness constitute a complex whole where one is inseparable from the other. In these instances, the expressions and their corresponding references, were highlighted in pink. Furthermore, where a part of an expression indicated either a noematic or a noetic process, and the remaining part suggested both, two colours (yellow and pink or green and pink) were used. At this point, a caveat regarding the colour coding is in order. As with all interpretations, the ascription of a particular code to a particular expression was carried out with the best judgement of the researcher. Certainly, the final arbiters of which are the individual readers.

Apart from referencing and coding, attempts were also made to standardize the format of presentation of interpretations. For example, in cases of expressions that indicated a noetic processes the following format was used--

- B. [The noetic process
--Additional Interpretations (if any)];

while in cases of expressions that indicated valued ends the following format was used--

- A1. [The valued end
--Additional Interpretations (if any)];

and finally, in cases of expressions that indicated shapers the following format was used--

- A2. [The shaper (+/-)
(descriptions/interpretations of qualification)
--Additional Interpretations (if any)
Related to the overall course/method(s)]

It may be noted that the '+/-' signs in the last format indicated whether a shaper appeared in the consciousness as positively or negatively contributing towards a valued end. These signs are supported by

respondents' descriptions such as 'helpful', 'excellent', etc. or researcher's interpretation (where no such explicit words are available from the expressions) as qualifiers of positiveness or negativeness. The information enclosed within the asterisks indicated whether a shaper is related to the overall course or to training methods used, i.e., lecture, exercise, video or discussion.

Throughout the interpretation process, care has been taken to maintain epoché. As mentioned earlier in Chapter 5, the interpretations (i.e., transformations and syntheses) were carried out by employing the technique of imaginative free variation. After formulating the questions (See Table 6.1), first transformations were achieved. These transformations were then referred back to the original expressions. This enabled the researcher to ensure that the transformations accurately reflected the meanings expressed by the respondents. At this stage, the transformations bearing a similar meaning were grouped together and second transformations were synthesized. Imaginative free variation was also used in synthesizing earlier transformations. For example, first transformations such as 'assemblage of diverse experience', 'brought out diverse perspectives in problem solving', 'exchanges of ideas and experiences' etc. were synthesized as 'cross-fertilization of ideas and experiences'. The synthesized transformations were also referred back to the original expressions to check their accuracy. Over 200 categories were obtained in the first phase of transformation. Given the restrictions on the overall length of thesis, presentation of the first transformations was not possible. Hence, the synthesized transformations were presented here. Having outlined these general remarks, the protocols along with the interpretations, are now presented.

6.2 Presentation And Interpretation Of Protocols

The following seven protocols were collected from the participants of a management training programme. The programme focused on the aspects of motivation, leadership, communication and handling awkward

situations. It was organized for the group leaders of a Scottish semiconductor manufacturing facility of an American multinational corporation. The protocols were collected at the end of the training programme. As mentioned earlier, they relate to participants experiences of pre-training, on-training and end-training situations.

6.2.1 CASE 1

Respondent's Original Expressions	Indexed Interpretations
<p>About the pre-course situation-- as I remember, I would say that I was given plenty of notice when the course was due. Having said that, I really didn't know much about the course. I only knew it was a group leader course, but I had no idea about what it would actually entail, what in actual fact it was.</p>	<p>B. Recalling</p> <p>A2. Pre-course communication [PcC](-) ('no idea') --inadequate *overall*</p>
<p>This has been a new job. There are some work areas, shall we say, they aren't 100% defined, because they can't. To me it is a type of job that grows. There are certain-- not rules and regulations-- fields that are laid out. It is like saying, 'I want you to do this and there are other things which will come into it as you are doing the job'. You know it is one of those jobs that grows as you are actually doing it. But at the moment, I was explained properly and fully what I am expected to do.</p>	<p>B. Reflecting</p> <p>A2. Job Exposure [JE] (+) ('properly', 'fully') -- adequate *overall*</p>

Respondent's Original Expressions

Indexed Interpretations

I found the course very very beneficial, I thoroughly enjoyed it. I found out quite a bit about myself, you know, the way you see things-- or the way you think you see things. And having been on the course, I can look at things differently now. Had I not been on the course then I would have said 'no,' right. If you just told me, 'right, you have got the group leaders job, do you fancy going on the course?' I would say definitely 'no, I am not bothered' because I felt so that I have enough experience. Having been on the course, yes definitely, it is a necessity to have the course. That's how beneficial I found the course.

- A1. Usefulness
--beneficial
- A1 Satisfaction
--enjoyment
- A1 Acquisition of knowledge
--about self
- B Reflecting
- A1 Change of attitude
- B Comparing
--hypothetical situation

Aamm ... The exercises, that wee task, we have done I found that very helpful. I have also been a trainer within [*the company*]. I felt I was a good trainer till I got one of these tasks. I then saw all of the things I had done was wrong. You think you have explained something, because you know in your mind what you are wanting done or wanting it to be done, you think it was of that. But actually knowing what you want and explaining what you want is entirely different. It is not until you've been in that situation that you realize. I find that excellent.

- A1 Usefulness
--beneficial
- A2 Communicativeness [Cn] (+)
(helpful, excellent)
exercise
- B Comparing
--pre/post-training
- A1 Acquisition of insight
-- awareness of effective communication

Respondent's Original Expressions

Indexed Interpretations

The videos were good from the point of view that we were split into two groups. And it was amazing how people chose different people and for different reasons. And to the group I was in, the one person-- oh! it was so obvious, you know, --there was no way of not-- it couldn't be the other. They were quite shocked when we discarded-- I think it is choosing the other person-- I wouldn't have done it -- they were saying the same about the person we chose. You know, it lets you see how differently people do things, what they take out of things, you know, so that was very good and I enjoyed the discussion that allowed everybody to say what they are thinking-- 'oh no! I don't think so'; and explaining why you disagree. And so you are really getting other persons point as well and you can make a judgement then on your own. I found that very very good.

Aamm ... I feel the tasks-- because it was something you are really doing, you know, and the same with the group discussions-- we were really entering into it. The lectures and videos-- they were good but they weren't, to me, as good as were the tasks and the group discussions were. Because then you are really in it. The lectures, you were sitting and watching; and the videos,

- A2 Involvement [I] (+)
(good) *videos*
- B Comparing
- A1 Acquisition of insight
--awareness of individual
difference
- B Reflecting
- A1 Acquisition of insight
--awareness of individual
difference
- A2 Control over learning [COL] (+)
(enjoyed)
--freedom to decide *discussion*
- B Reflecting
- A2 Cross-fertilization of ideas and
experiences [CfIE] (+)
(good)
discussion
- A2 Involvement [I] (+)
exercise
- B Reflecting
- A2 Involvement [I] (+)
discussion
- B Recalling
- A2 Involvement [I] (moderately+)
--(good)
lectures
- A2 Involvement [I] (moderately+)
--(good)
videos
- B Comparing
--different training methods

Respondent's Original Expressions

Indexed Interpretations

again, you are sitting and watching. When I sit down I lose interest, I don't mean it that way. I just feel -- I get very very tired if somebody just sit and talk, no matter how interesting it is. I just don't find it holds my concentration to the same extent that of actually doing, of actually speaking.

B Comparing
--with pre-established inferences

I found that the course taught me a lot about myself. Naturally, of course you know, something I hadn't realised before. That way I feel it helped me develop. I hope it will also help me do my job better because what I gained from it I will be following this in area.

B Reflecting
A1 Acquisition of knowledge
--about self
B Reflecting
A1 Usefulness
--helpful
B Reflecting

We have so many different shifts here and quite often you don't get a chance to chat with people from the other shifts. You just see them in the morning. And it is just basically for a hand-over-- and to tell them about work status when they are coming in. I enjoyed actually being with them for those three days. Listening to them in the group discussions, you know, and also in the lunch time being with them, you can see the personal side of them too. I think that was very good. It was important because it helped create better liaison. It means that when you are handing over to a person you know, you feel on better terms.

A1 Satisfaction
--enjoyed
A2 Cross-fertilization of ideas and experience [CfIE] (+)
(very good)
--social interaction
beyond formal session
B Reflecting
A2 Relevance [R] (+)
(better terms with co-worker)
--interaction with co-workers
overall

Respondent's Original Expressions

Indexed Interpretations

<p>Umm ... it opened my eyes. It really helped me. I saw myself in a different light, you know. It helped me to be more understanding, you know, in trying to say something to someone or explaining something to them. I personally felt really, really a great deal and hope for-- you know, go towards the job.</p>	<p>B Reflecting A1 Acquisition of insight A1 Usefulness --helpful A1 Acquisition of knowledge --interpersonal interaction A1 Gain of motivation B Reflecting</p>
<p>When we were split into groups it was very competitive. We were actually split in different rooms and I was in the room-- when we came back [???] straight away they wanted to see what we have done, which was very natural. You know, you want to do better. A very healthy competition. It was good for learning. I think doing the tasks-- I found them terrific.</p>	<p>B Reflecting</p>
<p>I think it was a good idea for personnel to come and speak with us on the course. Some of the girls could get rid of the things that were annoying them. And one of the things for personnel is to come out in the area lot more; which I think would be great. Because they got to be seen. The girls never see anyone from personnel. That's wrong. It was also a good idea for [the Director] to come. I feel he appears to be one hundred percent behind this and that you can get all support you need. It was</p>	<p>A1 Satisfaction --good idea A1 Acquisition of knowledge --company's personnel practices B Reflecting A1 Satisfaction --great A2 Nature of learning climate [NLC] (+) (good idea) --top management support *overall*</p>

Respondent's Original Expressions

Indexed Interpretations

good that he came at the start and also at the end, rather than just coming at the end, you know, and you feel if he had come just at the end as a complementary trip. Instead he came at both times. He explained what is expected of us, for instance, and coming at the end to see if you have enjoyed or if you have any queries or anything like that. It was very good, you know. We obviously have his backing.

B Reflecting

MAM--Thanks very much for sharing your experience.

6.2.2 CASE 2

I thought the course was very good. I was unsure of what I am going into, because I didn't know much about the course or even about the job I shall be doing. I know how I felt when I walked in-- some people you know and some you don't know, you knew faces, but you didn't know a name. It didn't take long to feel as part of the group; which makes you feel a lot easier. You could relate as one group as opposed to different areas. I feel as if I know them now because we worked and learned together. I felt alienated going in, but as

A1 Satisfaction

--very good

A2 Pre-course communication [PcC](-)

(unsure) --inadequate

overall

A2 Job exposure [JE] (-)

(didn't know) --inadequate

overall

B Recalling

A2 Nature of learning climate

[NLC] (+) (lot easier)

--supportiveness

overall

B Reflecting

A1 Acquisition of knowledge, insight
skill and change of attitude

Respondent's Original Expressions

Indexed Interpretations

the morning went on I felt more at ease. I am constantly on my feet in my job. I found it difficult to sit all day. As the day progressed, I felt better because [course facilitator] had your attention.

- B Comparing
--pre/post course
--job/course
- A2 Involvement [I] (+)
(implied appreciation)
--interesting
overall

Now I know I enjoyed the course. If it had been before I would have been uncertain whether to go or not because I don't like going to things where I don't know what I am going into. I enjoyed the course so much that if I knew other courses were like that, I would have no hesitation about going. You could go to a course and think this is rubbish, but in the back of your mind there is something that is beneficial and you think something good has come out of it. A lot of the courses, I haven't been on many, there was more emphasis on the training end of it. This was a lot more interesting than I thought it would be.

- A1 Satisfaction
--enjoyment
- B Comparing
pre/post course
- B Eidetic grasping
- A1 Usefulness
--helpful
- B Comparing
--other courses
- A2 Involvement [I] (+)
(lot more)
--interesting

The course was helpful. The way he displayed the car and the video-- they brought it to light-- because this is exactly what happens. It makes you stand back and think, 'well, may be they think differently than I do of myself'. I think the way it went with the task, you learnt from your mistakes. His presentation was also very good. He carried us along with him. You felt as if

- A1 Usefulness
--helpful
- A2 Relevance [R] (+) (brought it to light) --revealed job situation
exercises and video
- A1 Acquisition of insight
--awareness of individual difference
- B Reflecting
- A2 Nature of learning climate [NLC] (+) (learnt)
--non-threatening
exercises

Respondent's Original Expressions

Indexed Interpretations

<p>he was on your level, not like a teacher. You understood him. The discussions were-- well, may be, we didn't say a lot; but what was said people were not afraid to say it. They could say what they thought without feeling-- 'oh! is somebody watching me to see what I'm up to?' There was no one actually looking over your shoulder, so you could say what you wanted to say. And [course facilitator] would laugh and everyone would. You realised people felt the same as you did in certain situations. In bringing it out, you feel, that someone else has had the same experience.</p>	<p>A2 Communicativeness [Cn] (+) (very good) *lecture*</p> <p>B Reflecting</p> <p>A2 Nature of learning climate (+) [NLC] (not afraid) --non-threatening *discussion*</p> <p>B Illustrating</p> <p>A2 Nature of learning climate (+) [NLC] (would laugh) --supportiveness, *discussion*</p> <p>B Reflecting</p> <p>A2 Cross-fertilization of ideas and experience [CfIE] (+) (implied appreciation) *discussion*</p> <p>A1 Gain of confidence</p>
<p>It is good for people to go on something like that. To experience what happens in different areas and to find out that other areas are having the same problems as you. You hear this area is doing so well, and you find out that they really have the same problems as all the other areas. No matter how big or small your area is, the problems are more or less the same. I think that listening to the girls, you realised that you experience the same problems.</p>	<p>A1 Satisfaction --good</p> <p>A2 Relevance [R] (+) (implied appreciation) *lectures, exercises videos and discussion*</p> <p>A2 Cross-fertilization of ideas and experience [CfIE] (+) (implied appreciation) *lectures, exercises videos and discussion*</p> <p>B Reflecting</p> <p>A1 Gain of confidence</p>
<p>The examples that were used were quite familiar. Like motivation-- sometimes you feel to get the girls to work for you-- there is always the one that won't work.</p>	<p>A2 Relevance [R] (+) (familiar examples) *lectures and discussions*</p> <p>B Illustrating</p>

Respondent's Original Expressions

Indexed Interpretations

And the way that everybody spoke, I feel that I now have a good shift of girls. There was one that I would let away with things; because I felt uneasy about approaching her. **Listening to the issues and problems and the different ways of motivation, and seeing that may be the girl could have a problem; and listening to that I felt, well may be, I should get closer to her and just find out what the situation is. May be there is something holding her back and if I do get closer to her, may be, I could find out. And it would help both of us. Then I would have everyone behind me.**

A1 Acquisition of knowledge
--of motivation

B Reflecting

Being a TSO you felt, 'oh! now I'm boss,' and I thought that I should have felt a different way, rather than how an operator feels. **After the course I felt that I shouldn't have to change, just because I'm a boss. I should stay more the way I was when I was an operator and try to share it with the girls, so that I'm not 'up there' and they are 'down there'. I would rather that we all worked together. Some bosses tell you that you can't be like that and other bosses want you to be like that. I would rather not have too much of a difference. May be, to be slightly above them and not to much in charge. I would like them to tell me all what they thought and if they thought that I**

A1 Change of attitude
--towards subordinates

A1 Acquisition of knowledge
--interpersonal interaction

B Reflecting

Respondent's Original Expressions

Indexed Interpretations

was doing something wrong. It depends what they have to hide, whether they tell you or not because you are management. I would like to be in a position where they feel they can come to me.

Now, I stand back and I look at the problem, and think about it. Before, I would just say things to girls. But now, I explain why I want them to do things. The course did stress the need for effective communication.

I feel more confident as a result of the course. I feel-- like in the tasks, I felt that I could do this. I do tend to hold myself back, but now I think that I did get on quite well in the course. And I feel that I should go out and show that I can do the job. It has increased my motivation. I always feel that I want to do my job well. I thought I had quite a good level of motivation before. I am already enthusiastic. I like my job and like to do it well.

The course atmosphere was good for learning. You do learn, you will always learn, no matter how much you think you know, there always is something there that you can gain from it.

A1 Acquisition of skill
--problem solving

B Comparing
--pre/post course

B Recalling

A1 Gain of confidence

B Illustrating

B Reflecting

A1 Gain of motivation

B Reflecting

A2 Nature of learning climate
[NLC] (+) (good for learning)
--supportiveness
overall

B Eidetic grasping

Respondent's Original Expressions

Indexed Interpretations

I think that other people's actual experiences were the most helpful and to find out that you weren't alone. When I got back from the course, the girls asked how I got on. I was telling them that it was very good.

- A2 Cross-fertilization of ideas and experience [CfIE] (+) (helpful) *lectures, exercises videos and discussion*
- A1 Gain of confidence
- B Recalling
- A1 Satisfaction --good

MAM- Thanks very much for sharing your experiences with me.

6.2.3 CASE 3

Before we came on the course, we were told nothing about the course. We had no idea at all. I was informed on Friday that the course will start on the following week. I knew that it will cover the three days, and that was all.

- A2 Pre-course communication [PcC] (-) (no idea at all) --inadequate *overall*
- B Recalling

At the job interview we were asked what we thought the job entailed. I told them what I thought was entailed. They didn't confirm nor deny. So far, I still haven't had anything official telling me what the job entails, so it is only my own perception of what the job is. So, I felt sometimes removed, because I didn't know exactly what I should be taking from the course. Although it was certainly very interesting and very well put forward in that, I was just taking in as much as I could about everything. Because I

- B Recalling
- A2 Job exposure [JE] (-) (removed) --inadequate communication *overall*
- B Recalling
- A2 Involvement [I] (+) (certainly very) --interesting *overall*
- A2 Course composition [CC] (+) (very well) *overall*
- B Recalling

Respondent's Original Expressions

Indexed Interpretations

didn't know what I was really needing. Because I never had the luxury of knowing what to take from the course. I had to sit and cram in everything. It is confusing. Obviously, I feel uneasy about it until I actually know what the job entails. But on saying that, I feel perfectly capable of doing it if it is what I perceive the job to be. I should manage it no problem. As long as they don't change the rules, I'll be o.k.

- A2 Job exposure [JE] (-)
(luxury of knowing, confusing, uneasy)
--inadequate communication
overall
- B Recalling

I have had a few reactions from other girls on the course. One of the girls in particular was going for the same job. So, I think, she is upset that she didn't get it. Obviously there is that bit of competition in that, 'why did you get it, and not me'. I think in general the girls themselves don't know what the job of Group Leader entails. Everybody thinks, 'well you're not telling me what to do'. Because they don't know really just what they are going to be doing. It is ignorance right down the line, like myself. Because I don't know exactly what the job entails and the girls don't. So until that is clarified, I think you will have this sort of ill-feeling.

- B Reflecting
- A2 Job exposure [JE] (-) (ill feeling)
--inadequate communication
overall

- B Illustrating

The course, however I thought, was good. I found that lecturing wasn't formal. It was a flexible way of putting

- A1 Satisfaction --very good
- B Reflecting
- A2 Nature of learning climate [NLC]
(+) (better)--informal *lecture*
- B Reflecting

Respondent's Original Expressions

Indexed Interpretations

<p>over points; which I felt was better than someone saying 'this is how to do it'. The exercises were very beneficial because everyone participated. I found that excellent. The videos again were very good because, again it got everyone thinking and participating. We all had our own view points and shared them. Group discussions were also very beneficial because, again, we all participated. I wouldn't change a thing.</p> <p>We were all made to feel very welcome in participation. The programme was well laid out. We all communicated well together. The course was quite relevant in all areas. But because I did not know what the job involved, how would the course itself relate to the job--you knew it was relevant but you weren't sure where it would fit in. That was a problem. We could draw on each other's experiences. My level of confidence has increased as a direct result of the course. I certainly felt more confident that I could handle the job of Group Leader, then what I felt beforehand. The environment, being relaxed, was good. It helped to learn. You did not feel under any great pressure in that. It was quite informal and you felt relaxed and willing to join in. In the exercises, we were involved in motivating ourselves as opposed to</p>	<p>A2 Control over learning [COL] (+) (better) --non-imposition *lecture*</p> <p>B Comparing</p> <p>A2 Involvement [I] (+) (beneficial, excellent) --participation *exercise*</p> <p>B Reflecting</p> <p>A2 Involvement [I] (+) (very good) --collective mental activity --ownership of ideas *video*</p> <p>B Reflecting</p> <p>A2 Involvement [I] (+) (beneficial) --participation *discussion*</p> <p>A2 Course composition [CC] (+) (implied appreciation) *overall*</p> <p>A2 Nature of learning climate [NLC] (+) (very welcome) --supportiveness *overall*</p> <p>A2 Course composition [CC] (+) (implied appreciation) *overall*</p> <p>A2 Nature of learning climate [NLC] (+) (well)--mutual understanding *overall*</p> <p>A2 Relevance [R] (+) *overall*</p> <p>A2 Job exposure [JE] (-) (not know) --inadequate *overall*</p> <p>B Eidetic gapping</p> <p>A2 Cross-fertilization of ideas and experience [CfE] (+) (could draw) *lecture, exercise, video, discussion*</p> <p>A1 Gain of Confidence</p> <p>B Comparing --pre/post</p> <p>A2 Nature of learning climate [NLC] (+) (good, helpful) --relaxed *overall*</p> <p>B Reflecting</p> <p>A2 Nature of learning climate [NLC] (+) (quite) --informal, relaxed *overall*</p> <p>A2 Involvement [I] (+) (willing to join) --disposition to learn *lecture, exercise, video and discussion*</p>
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<p>sorting out the problem. I found the course to be beneficial for the short-term. As I said, I came out more confident. In the long-term, I felt the course to be even more beneficial because I feel that once I am in the position and I am actually doing hands-on, dealing with people and problems, I feel I will be more effective in time.</p>	<p>A2 Involvement [I] (+) (implied appreciation) --intrinsic motivation *exercise*</p> <p>B Comparing</p> <p>B Reflecting</p> <p>A1 Usefulness --beneficial short & long term</p> <p>B Reflecting</p>
<p>Looking back on it, I would say that the important thing for me was to learn how to motivate people. Because it is o.k. learning how to motivate a small group but when you are expanding that, to nearly three times your amount, it certainly helps if you know how to make them feel like part of a team rather than like three different sections; which we really are just now. I would say, it was a positive thing that the course showed how to work as a team. Again, I feel that if I had known more about the job beforehand I could have picked out more relevant parts-- things that would have been more relevant to my job. But at the time, I was just totally unaware. I think my main problem is going to be having the group meetings. Again, I hold meetings with my own group. But to hold it over a wider range and therefore having to cover more in the same amount of time-- I think that will be one of my</p>	<p>B Reflecting</p> <p>A1 Acquisition of knowledge --of motivation</p> <p>B Reflecting</p> <p>A2 Relevance [R] (+) (implied appreciation) *overall*</p> <p>A1 Acquisition of knowledge --of team work</p> <p>B Reflecting</p> <p>A2 Job exposure [JE] (-) (could have picked) --inadequate *overall*</p> <p>A2 Relevance [R] (+) (reference to job) *overall*</p>

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problems in trying to condense my agenda and really watch my time. Because you don't want to run overtime. Obviously the more time you hold the meeting the less work is getting done on the shop floor. I don't see it as a big problem, because on the course it was so well laid out-- 'set your stage,' 'set your chairs,'-- everything like that-- 'have your agenda,'-- things like that on the course were so well laid out that I think the course is going to help me in that.

To me [*the course facilitator*] came up with all the training and the way the course was set up, it was great in that. You are able to get in there and learn as much as you could and take as much as you could from the course. Again, with the hands-on experience on the course you have the benefit of hindsight in that. I have had this and I have heard that so-and-so has had that problem, and therefore you would be more inclined to deal a situation better. Again, we never really hit on communication problems. We did, once or twice, hit on it. But things like that I feel certainly that with hands-on experience it would be much better the second time round. Then you could be

B Reflecting

A1 Acquisition of skill
--managing meetings

A1 Usefulness
--helpful

A2 Course composition [CC] (+) (great, learn as much, take as much)
--provided learning opportunity
overall

B Reflecting

A2 Cross-fertilization of ideas and experience [CfIE] (+)
(benefit, better)
--exposure to potential problems and solutions *exercise*

B Reflecting

A2 Relevance [R] (-) (never really hit) --inadequate coverage of specific topics *overall*

B Reflecting

A2 Job exposure [JE] (-) (could be ...)
--inadequate *overall*

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more involved. I felt like a back seat driver in that. I felt like I was sitting there and saying, carry on and I could join in at the relevant bits, but there were some parts that I felt quite irrelevant to my experience. I felt that if I would have had the hands-on experience, at that point, I would certainly have been able to gain more or take more from the course.

- B Illustrating
- A2 Control over learning [COL] (-)
(back seat driver) --loss of control
overall
- A2 Relevance [R] (-)
(implied displeasure)
--to personal experience
overall
- B Reflecting
- A2 Job exposure [JE] (-) (would have)
--inadequate *overall*

Aamm ... I think that's about it.

MAM - Thanks a lot for sharing your experiences

6.2.4. CASE 4

I did know well in advance that I will be on the course but I got the dates mixed up. I have done the T.S.O training in November. After Christmas I was given the group leader's job so I am still new at both really.

- A2 Pre-course communication[PcC] (+)
(know well in advance)
overall
- B Recalling

I was sent on the course. Even if I were not asked to go, I think, I would still have been interested in it. It is a good experience. I am interested to know. I want to learn.

- A1 Usefulness
- B Reflecting

I am quite happy with the course. I took a lot from it -- how to handle people,

- A1 Satisfaction --happy

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how to motivate, the leadership thing, how to communicate effectively. You know, it was quite interesting to get to know other peoples' experiences, their problems, and issues.

- A1 Acquisition of knowledge --interpersonal interaction, motivation, leadership and communication
- B Reflecting

I enjoyed doing the exercises very much, enjoyed the videos and also the discussions and the lectures. I felt, they have done the job that they meant doing. You do learn from them, they were very effective. No one particular thing was more emphasized than the others. Quite a good mix of different techniques.

- A2 Communicativeness [Cn] (+) (enjoyed, very effective) --helped learn *lecture, exercise, video and discussion*
- B Reflecting

The way the course went-- it was also quite informal. Everybody was encouraged to participate and we were all very much involved both physically and mentally. He made everybody feel welcoming. You get a confidence to speak out. It was more like a team effort. I just felt quite comfortable and enjoyed the course. You do learn more in a relaxed situation.

- A2 Course composition [CC] (+) (quite good mix) *overall*
- B Reflecting

I think the course was really relevant in dealing with different people and the aspect of different people. That helped me, made me think the way to handle people, the way to just go and tell them to [??] getting to understand and get to know other people and take their point

- B Recalling
- A2 Nature of learning climate [NLC] (+) (implied appreciation) --informal, facilitator support and empathy *overall*
- A2 Involvement [I] (+) (implied appreciation) -- Physical and mental participation *lecture, exercise, video and discussion*
- A2 Nature of learning climate [NLC] (+)(quite comfortable, enjoyed) --facilitator support and empathy, belongingness *overall*
- B Comparing

- B Reflecting
- A2 Relevance [R] (+) (really) --interaction with others in the job *overall*

- A1 Usefulness --helped

- A1 Acquisition of knowledge --interpersonal interaction, communication

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of view of how would they feel, you know.

The exercises stimulated to observe and think independently. They made me think more about things I was doing, and the things I shouldn't be doing. I am getting more confident now because I am thinking about it now more. By understanding people you are going to grow personally as well. If I start thinking more about other people's point of view, it's going to help me. The course highlighted that.

It was very relaxed, everybody was relaxed, everybody was saying what they thought. It was good everybody was putting all their interest. All the energies were flying about. Before I was really worried, you know, what it was going to be like. But as the course progressed I became more and more relaxed. I think if people work in a relaxed atmosphere, they can feel freer to talk about things that are bothering them. The course provided such an opportunity. You learn from other people's experiences and others learn from you.

About the physical aspects of the course, the lecture room was too hot, or too cold whatever. The adjoining room was not ideal either. It was too small.

A2 Control over learning [COL] (+)
(implied appreciation)
--independent, control over
observation and thought
exercise

A1 Acquisition of knowledge
--about self

A1 Gain of confidence

B Reflecting

B Reflecting

A1 Usefulness

A2 Nature of learning climate [NLC]
(+) (implied appreciation)
--relaxed *overall*

A2 Involvement [I] (+) (good)
--spontaneity, enthusiasm
*lecture, exercise, video and
discussion*

B Comparing
-- pre/post

B Comparing
-- pre-established inferences

A2 Cross-fertilization of ideas and
experience [CfIE] (+) (learn)
*lecture, exercise, video and
discussion*

B Recalling

A2 Physical facilities [PF] (-)
(implied displeasure)
--Uncomfortable rooms, inadequate
space * overall*

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The sitting arrangement was good. One could see others and talk with them without having to turn awkwardly. But the video was not conveniently placed. Vision was obstructed by the board and other participants. Lounge facility was rotten, it took us ages to get served. No telephone. I wanted to use the telephone I had to go to Mos 1. Transport was highly desperate.

- A2 Physical facilities [PF] (+) (good) --sitting arrangement facilitating interaction*overall*
- A2 Physical facilities [PF] (-) (not convenient, rotten, disparate) --improper placement of teaching aid; poor lounge, communication and transport facilities *overall*
- B Recalling
- B Recalling

MAM -- Would you like to add anything else?

No. I can't think of anything else.

MAM-- Thanks for your cooperation.

6.2.5 CASE 5

I thought the course was good, very informative. Aamm ... it helped a lot. The problem being ... aamm ... I came in blind; which is a [company] policy as it were. By the time you see you are in a new job they walk away and leave you. You find that you are all with yourself. This is ok sometimes, but not ideal. You have got a lot when they are starting to give you authority. Aamm ... it's difficult if you are left to your own. I don't know if I can do this or not or I don't know if I should be

- B Reflecting
- A1 Satisfaction --good, informative
- A1 Usefulness --helped
- A2 Job exposure [JE] (-) (problem, came in blind, not ideal) --inadequate *overall*
- B Comparing --pre-established inference
- B Reflecting

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doing it this way. And they are not very forthcoming and giving you back-up. So it was good to have the course to explain how awkward situations can be handled, for example, you know it's really difficult, ... aamm. It's ok saying, 'put yourself--' you end up in an awkward situation. You can't really say 'oh! hold on, I have to go and see my boss first'. In fact it's a nonsense.

- A2 Job exposure [JE] (-)
(implied displeasure) --lack of management's interest and support
overall
- A1 Acquisition of knowledge
--interpersonal interaction
- B Illustrating

I was told-- a course is going to be run. Aamm ... it was three-day management course but that was all.

- B Recalling

Just a generalization 'it's a management'. I think a bit of information before we went on the course would have prepared me a bit more for it. If I had a better understanding of what was going to be involved then I would have gone into the course perhaps with questions I wanted to ask or issues I wanted to bring up. You tend to try and imagine more what it's going to be like. It could easily build up your expectations. You go in there thinking 'they are going to tell me how to do my job,' but as a matter of fact it didn't tell you how to do your job it encouraged you to use your own initiative to do your job.

- B Reflecting
- A2 Pre-course communication [PcC] (-)
(implied displeasure)
--unpreparedness, ambiguity, speculation and mismatch of expectation
overall
- B Recalling
- A1 Acquisition of insights
--importance of personal initiative

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I was a group leader anyway and I knew man-management course is obviously going to-- it indicated me that it is going to give me some knowledge of how to manage people and I knew I have to manage people. So, I wanted to go on a course like that to try and better what I do. Personally, I believe that [*the company*] certainly do not actively involve people in courses. It is very difficult to get it. Now after the course, I found out there is actually someone down in personnel you can come to and say 'what course do you run up.' Until that point of time nobody knew it. It is really difficult to get information. So any course, obviously within reason, I would be quite willing to join. The title of the course would tell me if there is any good to me, right. There is no point going to a car mechanics course. It is not going to do any good in managing people. I knew it was relevant to what I was doing. Although I didn't know the contents of it I knew that man-management is going to give me some idea, it may be too much for me or it might be too of higher level but it is going to [??] something I could take out of that.

I wanted to go on the course because I want to get on. I am not-- I would say, ... aamm ... career minded as such. I

A2 Relevance [R] (+) (wanted to go on the course) -- correspondence of perceived needs and course coverage *overall*

B Recalling

A1 Acquisition of knowledge -- company's training practices

B Comparing --pre/post course

A2 Relevance [R] (+) (implied appreciation) --Correspondence of perceived training needs and course coverage, *overall*

B Reflecting

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mean, I don't say I have to be there by next year. But the job I am doing, I want to do it better. I am not saying I want to do it because if I had that course it will take me up the ladder. Its not for that purpose. Because I am really not-- I don't see me saying 'I want [*the Director's*] job by the end of 1995' or anything like that. Its only for the job, there are much more to just coming in everyday plodding on and really at the end of the week somebody saying 'No you are not really doing anything for us'.

I found the presentation very effective. I wouldn't say it was really very formal. He was getting it across what he wanted to say. It wasn't a sit down get you notebooks out and write everything down as it is. The tasks I found beneficial, very beneficial. Aamm ... it highlighted how people work differently sitting up in a team. Especially the one where we came out and had boxes of answers. Aamm ... it showed that, even though from my point of view, looking at it from my area, me going back into the area, I could sit down with my team on day shift and we could decide on something we could agree that it is really a good idea and go ahead and implement it. And [*Sharon*], who works in twilight

- A2 Nature of learning climate [NLC] (+) (very effective) --informal *lecture*
- B Reflecting
- A2 Communicativeness [Cn] (+) (implied appreciation) *lecture & discussion*
- A2 Control over learning [COL] (+) (implied appreciation)--active not passive recipient *lecture*
- A2 Cross-fertilization of ideas and experience [CfIE] (+) (beneficial) --brought out diverse perspectives in problem solving *exercise*
- A1 Acquisition of insights --awareness of individual difference
- B Reflecting
- A2 Relevance [R] (+) (implied appreciation) *exercise*
- B Illustrating

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shift in my area, could come up with a completely a different idea with valid reasons for it. And you have got to understand that what you agree is not necessarily always going to be what everybody agrees. We also just have to -- if not just my team on day shift-- we have got a twilight and a night shift and following on from that there is a weekend days and weekend nights shift, that's all have to come together as well. So it's ok, me thinking 'ok right, I have this idea bouncing off my people' and they say 'yes, it sounds good, it will work here, it will work there, great!'

But I have also got to say 'right ok, let's hold that'. Because I have now got to go and bounce off the other group leaders because it got to work on all shifts through out the area. That is because of-- I think we tend to be under the impression of that if you have an idea and other people round about you agree with your idea, you tend to think that everyone will agree with what you are saying. So you can go ahead, do what you think is right and then suddenly someone comes and says 'oh no, no way! I wouldn't do that, I would do this' and you start to see the reasons why they would do the things. It can knock your confidence if you are not aware of that, you know. What you say

A1 Acquisition of insight
--awareness of individual
difference

A1 Acquisition of insights
--the importance of the awareness
of individual difference

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is not 'the end of'. It can really knock you right off. You think 'Ah! isn't it a great idea! everybody agrees, its brilliant! want to go ahead and do it'. And then twilight have a completely different issue, they think 'no it is not going to work'. Then you think 'god! everybody agreed with me.' I thought 'this was a brilliant idea' and now feeling really depleted. I feel really low now because I have got it wrong. You didn't get it wrong, it just didn't agree with everybody else. I think that the tasks really showed that up.

B Reflecting

The videos were helpful ... aamm ... but personally I think videos tend to make you fall asleep. Don't know what is. I think, if you set people in a room set a television on and that's that. Not enough. That sort of thing. They are helpful. You do get some information out of that but I don't think you pull every thing right out of them. Its like putting a television on just for the sake of it. Not really watching it. The group discussion, was also very beneficial. And probably the same idea as the tasks - everyone sitting down and sharing different opinions, different ideas. You tend to think you have some great idea coming in to your head and someone could give you good reasons why it is not a good idea or vice-versa. Someone

A2 Communicativeness [Cn] (+)
(helpful) *video*

B Reflecting

A2 Communicativeness [Cn] (+)
(moderately helpful) *video*

B Illustrating

A2 Cross-fertilization of ideas and
experience [CfIE] (+)
(beneficial) *discussion*

B Comparing
--exercise and discussion

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comes up with this idea others could say 'oh no! what about this?' I think it is really a good idea to get every one involved. Although, quite occasionally we tended to get side-tracked and it went on and on and on and the bottom line was we couldn't do anything about it. Nevertheless things flowed smoothly from one issue to the next. He was understanding our issues and it was great that we could discuss it but we were getting side-tracked too much. It was to a certain extent our own fault, we couldn't see where to stop-- I would say, rather than ... aamm ... asked about to say 'wait a minute, that's enough'. You don't want to embark on that situation where you have got to pitch up people 'that's enough children, change the subject'. It flowed reasonably well.

The course was highly relevant. Again, because we have been doing the job and the Mos 9 people have been doing the job; so it was helpful. So, from the job point of view I find the course was very relevant. I could always relate back to situations, ... aamm ... that would come up or had come up already. One of the things I find was really relevant was, ... aa ... aa ... having meetings. You can have a meeting or some of us have already been having

- B Reflecting
- A2 Control over learning [COL] (+/-) (smoothly but with reservation, too much side tracked) *discussion*
- A2 Nature of learning climate [NLC] (+) (great) -- facilitator support and empathy *discussion*
- B Reflecting
- A2 Control over learning [COL] (+) (Implied appreciation) --facilitator sharing control with the participants *discussion*
- A2 Relevance [R] (+) (helpful) *overall*
- B Reflecting
- A2 Relevance [R] (+) (implied appreciation) --holding meetings *overall*
- B Recalling

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meeting down there. And you go in, you have to hold a meeting, you are not taught how to do it, you are not told what to say, you just go in and think 'oh! I will do that' and you think it's alright because you don't know any difference, and the people round about don't know any difference too. They are quite happy whether you plod on. The very first thing we brought up, we actually discussed it between us afterwards was-- when we are having a meeting bring up issue by issue and let them ask questions about those. Everyone of us agreed in that. What we do is go in just battle through everything we have got to say and say 'right any questions?' Basically end of all. And everyone of us said 'that's how we did it,' we tried to get across every thing we wanted to say first. And then looks like 'oh! here we go!' the barrage of questions, right, huge questions. The course did really show how we can have meetings in an organized and systematic way.

[The course facilitator] kept going back. You would have a situation, or an exercise, ... aa ... and he would always relate it back to the actual work and he would ask you could you relate that back to what you are doing. He was always, all the time, going back to say to

- B Illustrating
--the importance of relevance implied in the phrase 'plod on'
- A2 Relevance [R] (+) (implied appreciation) --expressed in the urgency and enthusiasm espoused and the importance underscored by active engagement *overall*
- A1 Acquisition of skill
--managing meetings
- B Reflecting
- B Comparing
--pre/post course
- B Reflecting
- A2 Relevance [R] (+) (implied appreciation) --use of actual job situation to illustrate an idea/concept *exercise*
- A2 Involvement [I] (+) (implied appreciation) --ownership of idea *exercise*

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think of this from my job point of view.	
Ok we have fixed car here, it feels fine now. But how do that fit in your work place? And you could in fact put things together. You think 'oh! yeah yeah, right.' The things that came up the issues that came up could really be related straight back into things that either happened to you or the situations you think will-- you know. Look at what happened while we were doing the exercise. That could quite easily happen to me in the area situation. Aamm ... I find this very good, it was very effective. I found the course to be highly valuable because, this is a general point, the fact that it was a course they were willing to sent us on, ... aamm ... but taken the contents, for one, which makes you more willing to go and try harder and develop yourself. You have the course backing behind you.	<p>B Recalling</p> <p>A1 Acquisition of insight --of theoretical concepts and relationships</p> <p>B Reflecting</p> <p>A2 Relevance [R] (+) (good, effective) *exercise*</p> <p>B Illustrating</p> <p>A1 Usefulness --valuable</p> <p>B Reflecting</p> <p>A1 Gain of motivation --interesting course content --course's support</p>
It was great to have people from other areas on the course. From this point also the course was highly valuable. It provided a very good opportunity to get in touch with them. The situation, with Mos 1 being there and Mos 9 being there, was excellent. It really highlighted a lot of things and also gave us the opportunity to go and see each	<p>A2 Cross-fertilization of ideas and experience [CfIE] (+) (great, valuable, good, excellent) *lecture, exercise, video and discussion*</p> <p>B Reflecting</p> <p>A1 Acquisition of knowledge --the issues and problems influencing work</p>

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<p>other's areas. I have now been over to Mos 1 and [Fiona], who is my equivalent in Mos 1, is going to give me a phone when she has the time to come to Mos 9. And its good to see the different issues because [the company] is like two separate plants, Mos 9 and Mos 1, it's a bad idea. The problems that Mos 9 come across, could quite easily have been cut across Mos 1. I imagine, the majority problems that we come across must have hit them in Mos 1 in the early days. And there is absolutely no communication. Mos 9 would never think to go to Mos 1 and say 'we have this problem, did you have this?' 'How did you fix it?'. They are left on their own. It is as if we are in America and Mos 1 is in Scotland and it is not feasible to go and talk to them. We have processes where couple of problems that could have happened years ago in Mos 1 that they have got down. And if one of the guys said 'look at this problem did you ever have it, 'yeah we had it, this what we did'. Ok they may not be able to do that in Mos 9 but it still can highlight. They could try along the same line instead of standing over there and trying to sort it out by themselves and taking a lot longer on it. Prime example, when I walked through Mos 1, one of the coordinators</p>	<p>A2 Relevance [R] (+) (good) *overall*</p> <p>B Reflecting</p> <p>B Reflecting</p> <p>A1 Acquisition of insights --necessity to change present company practices</p> <p>A2 Relevance [R] (+) (implied appreciation) *overall*</p> <p>B Reflecting</p> <p>B Illustrating</p> <p>B Reflecting</p> <p>B Illustrating</p>
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was absolutely shocked that I was in there -- 'Mos 9 people', 'never seen in months', 'don't let them in here'. To me it was really pre-historic attitude they have-- 'them' and 'us'. We don't come in here we have our own little group here rather than solving problems jointly, sorting things out.

I think the course gave me a lot.

A1 Usefulness
--gave a lot

Although we are not considered as managers, but I think I have been an efficient manager I think the general idea of someone who manages other people, ... aamm ... got to try and given the recognition that we do. They would never say that the group leaders are managers. You are back to the general attitude where a manager is someone who is your boss. Aamm ...

B Reflecting

then you do have to have management skills if you have even one person underneath you. You have got to be able to manage that person. Aamm ...

A2 Relevance [R] (+)
(implied appreciation) *overall*

so I think really the course did help a lot. It gave a lot of generalized

A1 Usefulness
--help a lot
B Reflecting

management ideas that you can set into practice in your area. Because you definitely have people, you have got to manage, and you got to know how you can do that. Somebody may say 'here you go' but people just can't handle that.

A2 Relevance [R] (+)
(set into practice)

overall

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I think I will use a lot of things from the course. It has given me a lot of guidelines to go by; given something to fall back on all the time. The notes I have, I can always refer back to those notes. I can always think back to the exercises we did any time I want to do anything ... aamm ... [???] what came out of the exercises and what came out of the discussions.

- A1 Usefulness
--use a lot of things
- B Recalling
- A1 Course materials as reference

MAM--Thanks very much for your support and cooperation.

6.2.6 CASE 6

The job was advertised, we applied for it and got the job. I knew nothing about what was expected. There was no discussion about the job or the course. The other Group Leaders felt the same. No-one knows what the job will entail.

- B Recalling
- A2 Job exposure [JE] (-)
(implied displeasure)
--inadequate
overall
- B Reflecting

I felt as if, we went to the course and did not know what was expected of us. We therefore didn't know what to look out for on the course. We didn't really know what would be relevant to us. We were just trying to listen to everything, take it all in, and probably miss a few things that were very

- B Reflecting
- A2 Pre-course communication [PcC] (-)
(miss, not good, nothing like that)
--inadequate *overall*
- B Recalling
- B Reflecting
- A2 Job exposure [JE] (-) (not good)
--inadequate
overall

Respondent's Original Expressions

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- important. It wasn't a good situation. We should have had a discussion with the immediate management to find out exactly what was expected. There was nothing like that.
- In the interview, I was asked what I thought a Group Leader is. I told what I thought I would be doing but there was no come-back as if to say 'yes that's right' and 'no that's not right.' We have not been formally communicated of the job.
- I am happy that I went on the course. I need all the help I can get. The course offered one such opportunity.
- The lectures were not very helpful and not practical. I feel, it is a lot easier to say-- 'this is how it is done, go and do it,' then a person watching you do it and saying-- 'yes, that is how it is done' or 'its not how to do it' and show it. The videos were good because you could see it happening. I took a lot from it. It definitely helped me. The group discussions were good because it was great to get your feelings out in the open and realise that other people felt the same way. You are not the one and only. If you can motivate your team through group discussion, I think that's good.
- B Reflecting
- B Recalling
- A2 Job exposure [JE] (-)
(implied displeasure)
--inadequate
overall
- A1 Satisfaction --happy
B Reflecting
A1 Usefulness
- A2 Communicativeness [Cn] (-)
(not helpful)
--lack of practical demonstration
lecture
- B Reflecting
- A2 Communicativeness [Cn] (+) (good)
--visual *video*
- B Reflecting
- A1 Acquisition of knowledge, insight,
skill/change of attitude
- A2 Nature of learning climate [NLC]
(+) (good, great) --non-threatening
discussion
- B Reflecting
- A1 Gain of confidence
- B Reflecting
- A2 Involvement [I] (+) (good)
--enthusiasm, team work
discussion

Respondent's Original Expressions

Indexed Interpretations

It was a friendly situation, everybody had the opportunity to participate. Some of them weren't wanting to say much, but they should have. The opportunity was there. Everyone didn't participate equally. There were some quieter ones, possibly due to shyness or lack of interest. The opportunity was there to participate. A lot of it was near to what I could see happening, quite realistic.

- B Recalling
- A2 Nature of learning climate [NLC] (+) (friendly) --supportiveness *discussion*
- B Recalling
- A2 Involvement [I] (-) (implied displeasure) --inadequate participation despite the opportunities *discussion*
- B Reflecting
- A2 Relevance [R] (+) (quite realistic) *discussion*

I don't think the course will get us anywhere in the organisation. It is too easy to send everybody on a course and expect miracles. I can't see us going higher due to this course. You have to

- A2 Relevance [R] (-) (implied displeasure) *overall*

be good at your job to go higher. [The management] wanted us to be seen to be doing something rather than them communicating to us what they want us to do. [The course facilitator] didn't even know. He was just covering the general issues, like motivation and leadership. A lot of the course was relevant. It was good as a general course. But We were looking for specifics. It will help us but it won't be highly helpful. The programme dragged on about certain issues. I feel it was pretty low in terms of mixing with different individuals. You still stuck to your little group.

- B Reflecting
- A2 Relevance [R] (+/-) (will help but not highly helpful) --general focus, lack of specific focus *overall*
- B Reflecting
- B Reflecting
- A2 Involvement [I] (-) (pretty low) --inadequate participation *lecture, exercise, video and discussion*

Respondent's Original Expressions

Indexed Interpretations

We were already doing the job as group leader on a small scale, now we are to be acting as a bigger group leader. The course will help us, but I don't think that as a direct result of the course we will all turn into really great Group Leaders. We will just do our job the way we have always done it.

A1 Usefulness
--moderate

B Reflecting

There was a good age range. The course did bring out participants' personal experiences. I have had many of the experiences that people who had been there for a long time have had. You could draw on that. It was very relevant.

A2 Cross-fertilization of ideas and experience[CfIE] (+) (did bring out)
lecture,exercise, video and discussion

B Recalling

A2 Relevance [R] (+) (implied appreciation) *overall*

The course did help with my confidence but if it is not in you it is not there. He said he could teach people how to be a leader or a great motivator and I disagree with that. Some people may believe that they are great leaders, but they are not. That is my own opinion.

A1 Gain of confidence

B Reflecting

May be some of the things, he could have spent more time on, like holding meetings. Fine, we had the video at the end. That is an aspect of the job that we are going to have to be competent in and do it without even thinking about it. It is one of the hardest things about my job. He covered everything very well. His style was good. He did as well

B Reflecting

A2 Relevance [R] (-) (implied displeasure) --inadequate coverage of the topics specifically related to the job *overall*

A2 Communicativeness [Cn] (+) (well, good) *lecture and discussion*

Respondent's Original Expressions

Indexed Interpretations

as he could do with a group of people who were quite unhappy about not knowing what we were supposed to be doing. It wasn't anybody's fault. It didn't make me any more aware of my job at [*the company*] because it was very general, not specific. I feel I have a lot to learn technically about the job and that will have nothing to do with the course. He showed us how to motivate people, but immediately we are not going to be doing a lot about that but eventually, I think, we will. Because we will go through the experiences that he talked about. We will be able to look back on our notes and pull it out in the long term.

- A2 Job exposure [JE] (-) (unhappy ... not knowing)
--inadequate
overall
- B Reflecting
- A2 Relevance [R] (-) (implied displeasure) --lack of specific focus
overall
- B Reflecting
- A1 Usefulness
--long term
- B Reflecting
- A1 Course materials as reference

The fact that I wanted to learn was an important thing. A lot has to come from yourself and you take what you need to know. The video about the meeting helped me. I have put that into action. That certainly helped me. He went on about awkward situations for 10 minutes. I know that I am going to have an awkward situation. He said that you do it this way; it is easy to say but I worry about that situation. Aamm ... I think that's all I have to say at the moment.

- A2 Involvement [I] (+) (implied appreciation) --disposition to learn
overall
- B Reflecting
- A1 Acquisition of skill
--managing meetings
- A2 Relevance [I] (-) (implied displeasure) --inadequate coverage of the topics specifically related to the job
overall
- B Reflecting

MAM- Thank you very much for your help.

6.2.7 CASE 7

I had an interview before I got the job. In the interview we talked through the job description. Before giving the job description they asked me what I thought the job would be and then read out the job description and explained everything on it and then asked what my qualities were that would make me want the job and what my qualities were that they should give me the job. Which was fair enough. I was told that I wasn't selected for the job. Aamm ... I have already been doing the tasks of a group leader for the last six months. I was given an impression that I will get the job when it is formalized. I was a bit unhappy. Then they changed their mind, I got a phone call saying 'no, no, no, if you want the job it's yours', and I was told about the course on the Tuesday just before the course started. I got a letter with the map and that was it. I went there without knowing what I might be experiencing. There were people on the course but they were on the weekend shift. The girl I knew, who was on the course, was on the weekend shift. I didn't have a chance to speak to her. As a result, I didn't have any preparation for the course. If I had

B Recalling

A2 Pre-course communication [PcC] (-)
(implied displeasure)
--inadequate
*overall*B Recalling
B Reflecting

Respondent's Original Expressions

Indexed Interpretations

some idea, I think it would have let me think about the things, get things straight in my own head. Naturally, you ask yourself, What am I going to do on the course? What is it I am expected to take from it? What is it I am required to do in my job? How does the course relate to what I am expected to do in my job? What are my strengths and weaknesses as far as the role of group leader is concerned? I didn't get the answers from what I was told about the job or the course. Well, ok, I have been doing the job of a group leader for sometime. I only had a vague idea of what it is. The interview I had was not of any help really.

But the course, as it happened, wasn't too bad. [The course facilitator], who took the course, was very good at doing that anyway-- explaining what he was doing and gave you plenty of opportunity to bring up your own points. It wasn't too formal, I think. It wasn't a formal course like the ones I have been on before, in strict logs. It was an easy type of course. In fact, things became clearer once I was on the course. I could see how the issues covered on the course were related to what I should be doing.

A2 Pre-course communication [PcC] (-)
(implied displeasure)
--inadequate
--uncertainty/ambiguity
--unpreparedness
overall

A2 Job exposure [JE] (-) (didn't get answers)
--inadequate
--uncertainty/ambiguity
--unpreparedness
overall

B Reflecting

A1 Satisfaction

--wasn't too bad

A2 Communicativeness [Cn] (+)(very good, explaining)
lecture and discussion

B Reflecting

A2 involvement [I] (+) (plenty of opportunity) --participation, ownership of ideas *lecture, exercise, video and discussion*

A2 Nature of learning climate [NLC] (+) (implied appreciation)
--informal *overall*

B Comparison

A2 Course composition [CC] (+) (easy type) --flexibility *overall*

A1 Acquisition of knowledge
--facets of the job

B Reflecting

A2 Relevance [R] (+) (implied appreciation) *overall*

Respondent's Original Expressions

Indexed Interpretations

<p>The course did help me. I got motivated more because I know from the course-- I think I can do the job. My confidence was zero before the course and now the course boosted my confidence. Every one had the same doubt as you have ... aamm ... in that way it helped.</p>	<p>A1 Gain of motivation B Reflecting A1 Gain of confidence B Comparing --pre/post-course B Eidetic grasping</p>
<p>I think the lecture was middle of the road. As far as communicating to people, it is good but for a short time. After a while you tend to lose concentration because you can only sit and listen to some one not for long. Aamm ... exercises, because you are participating ... aamm ... you are seeing the pitfalls, you are seeing the good points. I find it very helpful.</p>	<p>A2 Communicativeness [Cn] (+/-) (good ... not for long) --concentration diminishes of prolongation *lecture* B Reflecting B Reflecting A2 Involvement [I] (+) (helpful) --participation *exercise*</p>
<p>Videos -- again, I think most of the videos you get to see in courses that are made especially for them-- a bit better, a bit more visual so you can sit and watch them longer sometimes than a lecture.</p>	<p>A2 Communicativeness [Cn] (+) (better) --visual *video* B Reflecting B Comparing --lectures</p>
<p>Group discussions, I think, were really very good because you get everyone's opinion and you don't necessarily agree with it but you get other side of the story. I find that as highly valuable. I find that because there was a lot of opportunity to participate. Aamm ... again [the course facilitator] had put the course- did use situations personal to</p>	<p>A2 Cross-fertilization of ideas and experiences [CfIE] (+) (good, valuable) --brought out varied perspectives *discussion* B Reflecting A2 Involvement [I] (+) (lot of opportunity) --participation, use of examples experientially close, ownership of ideas *discussion* A2 Relevance [R] (+) (implied appreciation) --personal experience *discussion*</p>

Respondent's Original Expressions

Indexed Interpretations

<p>you and you could discuss or expand it well. You also had the opportunity to listen to other peoples experiences. There was no major pitfalls or anything. The course progressed smoothly. Again, I think on the last day the flow was upset. It halted the progression. As it happened, everybody turned up again on to go over that big pitfall they had just before. That was really the last day.</p>	<p>B Reflecting</p> <p>A2 Cross-fertilization of ideas and experience [CfIE] (+) (implied appreciation) *discussion*</p> <p>B Reflecting</p> <p>A2 Control over learning [COL] (+/-) (smoothly, upset) --some interruption of flow *discussion*</p>
<p>The course itself was an excellent ground for meeting different people from other areas. You tend to get a bit cut off, you feel a bit into everything in your department. And I thought the contact was there. It was good because they have the same problems as you, although they were from different areas. And again I think that it is really valuable to hear what other people are thinking. Aamm ... I found the course was also very good because [<i>the course facilitator</i>] was approachable. He encouraged to discuss personal ideas and problems. I have never been on a course that had as much discussion time. Again I suppose it is the nature of the course that you got to happen. As I said, the course was very relevant. The concepts actually helped to change my mind about something and gave me a better insights into myself someway,</p>	<p>A2 Cross-fertilization of ideas and experience [CfIE] (+) (excellent ground, good, valuable) *lecture, exercise, video & discussion*</p> <p>B Reflecting</p> <p>B Reflecting</p> <p>A2 Nature of learning climate [NLC] (+) (good) --facilitator support and empathy *overall*</p> <p>B Comparing --other courses</p> <p>B Reflecting</p> <p>A2 Relevance [R] (+) (very) *overall*</p> <p>A1 Acquisition of insights --about self</p>

Respondent's Original Expressions

Indexed Interpretations

and again the theories I have never heard of. I liked how he started with a theory and then expand it and then went on to another theory 'no this might be better'. A nice progression of that. Again the practical work-- like you see the motivation and leadership and communication all tied in nicely. I think again, most people were at ease and they did follow and understand and if they didn't he would ask -- which is important. Everything was brought out to common everyday terms and most of the time I thought it was nice that he tried to give you an example. He gave you a personal example -- which helps. Aamm ... the course brought out the personal knowledge and experience of the participants. He was always asking for your own input and circumstances. You could discuss anything you wanted to. The thing I didn't like was the physical side of the course setting. People trod up and down the stairs and the room was a bit cramped in that. I think that was it. I don't think there was anything other than that. On the whole, Aamm ... I found the atmosphere was set for learning by the people on the course and by [the course facilitator]. He got everyone on his side right away and I think everyone was there to learn. There was nobody that

- B Reflecting
- A2 Communicativeness [Cn] (+) (nice progression) --comprehensible links between ideas *lecture and discussion*
- B Illustrating
- A2 Communicativeness [Cn] (+) (nice) --comprehensible links between ideas *lecture and discussion*
- A2 Nature of learning climate [NLC] (+) (ease) --relaxed *overall*
- B Reflecting
- A2 Communicativeness [Cn] (+) (important) *lecture & discussion*
- B Reflecting
- A2 Involvement [I] (+) (nice, helps) --examples experientially close *lecture, exercise, video & discussion*
- A2 Cross-fertilization of ideas and experience [CfIE] (+) (implied appreciation) *lecture, exercise, video & discussion*
- B Reflecting
- A2 Involvement [I] (+) (implied appreciation) --ownership of ideas *all four methods*
- A2 Control over learning [COL] (+) (implied appreciation) -- freedom to decide *overall*
- B Recalling
- A2 Physical facilities [PF] (-) (didn't like) --noisy and uncomfortable setting *overall*
- B Reflecting
- B Reflecting
- A2 Involvement [I] (+) (implied appreciation) --disposition to learn, enthusiasm and spontaneity *overall*

Respondent's Original Expressions

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'oh! I am not here' or 'I can't learn anything'. And he didn't put any course member off or anything. It was quite permissive and there was no real hard and fast rule laid down; which was nice. It wasn't listen to [*the course facilitator*] 'well this is my experience and that's the way it has to be.' His style was very good, I liked his manner. I liked the way he conducted the sessions. I liked the way how he gave a bit of lecture, a bit of participation. You are just been in, you didn't need to be waking up and get out there, and then a wee bit of video, I liked the way he set it, the way he chopped and changed different methods and then having the exercises, they were interesting and they were appropriate. They did give you insights. First you look at the jigsaw puzzle and the cars and you think how can they possibly be relevant, but they were very relevant.

Hopefully, the course will help me develop in my job. Aamm ... I think it is early days yet I have not really the chance to work it out and try it out. This week I had my first chance to take a meeting I suppose that is one thing. And it certainly gave me the confidence to go out. I think there is a lot of ground to be covered before I could

- B Recalling
- A2 Nature of learning climate [NLC] (+) (didn't put off, nice) --non-threatening, supportiveness, informal *overall*
- A2 Control over learning [COL] (+) (implied appreciation) --non-imposing facilitator *overall*
- A2 Course composition [CC] (+) (good, liked) *overall*
- B Reflecting
- A2 Involvement [I] (+) (been in) *lecture, exercise, video & discussion*
- B Reflecting
- A2 Course composition [CC] (+) (liked, interesting, approachable) *overall*
- B Reflecting
- B Recalling
- A1 Acquisition of insight --of theoretical concepts
- B Illustrating
- A2 Relevance [R] (+) (implied appreciation) *overall*

- B Recalling
- A1 Gain of confidence

definitely tell how far it helped me in the job. I thoroughly enjoyed it I think it was beneficial.

MAM -- Thank you very much.

6.3 Summary

The purpose of this chapter was to present and interpret the 'training-event' data to facilitate subsequent discussions of the categories thus emerged. Prior to the presentation and interpretation some guide-lines were offered to assist the readers through the chapter. The elucidation and interpretation process generated a number of synthesized transformations. These included the elements of the course ascribed as valued ends, the elements ascribed as shapers that contributed positively/negatively towards the valued ends and finally, the processes of consciousness used in ascribing such meaning. These categories will be discussed in Chapter 8.

Chapter 7

PRESENTATION AND INTERPRETATION OF DATA

Participants' Experiences Of Post-Course Events

Like the preceding chapter, the purpose of this chapter is also to display and interpret data in order to facilitate discussion of the essences thus emerged. The discussion of the essences will be carried out in Chapter 9. This chapter considers the experiential descriptions or protocols relating to the post-course events. The chapter is divided into three sections. The first section contains a brief note to facilitate readers' understanding of the mode of presentation and interpretation. The second section presents the protocols and offers interpretations of the experiential data. Finally, the third section summarizes the chapter.

7.1 Some Guide-lines On Presentation and Interpretation

The procedures used to collect, present and interpret post-course data are similar to the ones mentioned in Chapter 6. As before, the 'stimulated recall' and 'thinking aloud' techniques were used to collect the necessary protocols at this phase. Also, the respondents were first assured of confidentiality and anonymity before they were given the prompt. The prompt read--

Card 2:

I would like you to recall your post-course experiences and describe them as they actually occurred to you. As you recall, I would also like you to describe the things that helped or hindered you in trying out (in your job) whatever you learnt in the course.

The respondents verbal articulations were audio taped. The interviews were transcribed verbatim and used for interpretation. Using a similar format as before, the respondents' original expressions were typed-up on the left hand side of the page so that the indexed interpretations could be put on the right hand side. Having maintained epoché, all the protocol were read thoroughly several times to acquire a feeling for what was being

expressed. These close and careful readings enabled the researcher to formulate a number of questions to help him through the interpretation process. The questions are presented in Table 7.1.

Table 7.1 Questions Formulated To Facilitate Interpretation Of Post-Course Data

A3	What element, acquired from the course, was actually used? (Noema)
A4	<p>What is ascribed as a shaper contributing towards the application process? (Noema)</p> <p>Does the shaper appear in the consciousness as positively/negatively contributing towards the application process?</p>
B	What process of consciousness is involved in the ascription of meaning? (Noesis)

The foregoing questions highlighted *what* and *how* the respondents evaluated the course as they experienced it. A course is likely to be evaluated positively, if the elements gained from the course are of some use to the trainee. One of the ways to judge if something is of use, is to see if that was actually used or not. The first question addresses the application of course elements to the job and explores participants' ascription of value to the course. The second question delves deeper into participants' evaluation of the course. It explores the patterns of relationships between the shapers and the application process. The consideration of shapers in relation to the application process affirms the ascription of value to the course. For example, a positive contribution of a particular shaper indicates that either some course elements were actually used, or are capable of being used, the in future. In other words, this implies an ascription of a positive value to the course. Finally, the third question focuses on the process of consciousness used for ascribing

meaning. An exercise of the process of consciousness (e.g. recall or comparison) further substantiates the meaning ascribed, thereby helping us to avoid a *prima facie* acceptance of an assertion of a meaning.

The first two questions (designated by 'A3' and 'A4') in Table 7.1 explore the noematic elements, while the last question (designated by 'B') explores the noetic elements. Similar to Chapter 6, alpha-numeric (A3, A4 & B) references and colour codes (yellow, green and pink) are used to index the interpretations and mark the corresponding expressions in the protocols. A format of presentation of interpretation, also similar to the one in Chapter 6, is used in this chapter. Hence, in cases of expressions that indicated a noetic processes the following format was used--

- B. [The noetic process
--Additional Interpretations (if any)];

while in cases of expressions that indicated application of the elements acquired from the course, the following format was used--

- A3. [The application of elements acquired
--Additional Interpretations (if any)];

and finally, in cases of expressions that indicated shapers the following format was used--

- A4. [The shaper (+/-)
(descriptions/interpretations of qualification)
--Additional Interpretations (if any)
Related to superiors/co-workers
(where applicable)]

It may be noted that the '+/-' signs in the last format indicate whether a shaper appeared in the consciousness as positively or negatively contributing towards the application process. These signs are supported by respondents' descriptions such as 'helpful', 'excellent', etc. or researcher's interpretation (where no such explicit words are available from the expressions) as qualifiers of positiveness or negativeness. As can be observed from the protocols, the shaper 'Supportive/Non-supportive Disposition' (SNsD) is related to the superiors or co-workers. The

information enclosed within the asterisks indicated whether this is related to the superiors or co-workers.

Care has been taken to ensure that epoché is maintained throughout the interpretation process. As in previous chapter, the interpretations were carried out in two stages using the technique of imaginative free variation. After the first transformations were achieved, they were referred back to the original expressions. This was done to verify that these transformations accurately reflected the meaning contained in the original expressions. In the second stage, the transformations that bore similar meanings were synthesized and then the synthesized transformations were again referred back to the original expressions to check their accuracy. For example, 'use of negative measures', 'lack of appreciation', 'coercion', 'financial incentive', 'consideration' etc. were synthesized as 'Reward/Non-reward Orientation' (RNrO). Only the synthesized transformations are presented here.

7.2 Presentation and Interpretation of Protocols

The following seven protocols were collected from the participants of a management training course. The course was organized for the group leaders of a Scotland-based semi-conductor manufacturing facility. The protocols were collected approximately six months after the end of the course. They relate to participants' post-course experiences.

7.2.1 CASE 1

Respondent's Original Expressions

Indexed Interpretations

The job has turned out a lot better than what I thought it would. It is sort of on-going and it is growing as time progresses it is becoming more and more-- we are getting more and more

Respondent's Original Expressions

Indexed Interpretations

<p>involved. We are getting a lot of help and a lot of support from the M.Es. They have been very good. At that time-- because we did not know what the actual job or anything was going to be, but now well yes when I think back on various things that we did and it was relevant it was very necessary. I suppose it would be good now that we are doing the job - six months or more-- if there is a follow up one. Possibly something like that and we would maybe find it even more beneficial.</p>	<p>A4 Supportive/Non-supportive Disposition [SNSD] (+) (‘a lot of help’, a lot of support) *Superiors*</p> <p>B Recalling</p> <p>A4 Relevance [R] (+) (very necessary)</p>
<p>I suppose the course has made me a bit more assertive. I suppose I could be a lot more if I were on the course now. Now we are actually doing the job for sometime. Now we see the difficulties and the challenges more than before. But I felt the course was very good -- very necessary. Like when you are trying to explain something to somebody you think that you have put it over properly. But like being on the course-- I remember, the two examples -- at some point you have to be the trainer and at other times you have to be the person being trained or an observer and you think you see somebody else and their pitfalls so when it comes your turn you think well I'll make sure you don't do that, and you don't but you do at other times. When you really sit back and look at it</p>	<p>B Reflecting</p> <p>A1 Gain of Confidence</p> <p>B Reflecting</p> <p>A1 Satisfaction</p> <p>A1 Usefulness</p> <p>B Illustrating</p> <p>B Recalling</p> <p>A1 Acquisition of skill -- learning to learn</p>

Respondent's Original Expressions

Indexed Interpretations

<p>you can see the mistakes and hopefully having done the course I can make myself more explicit. The course has definitely helped me in understanding myself better. I can put across my ideas more clearly. Aamm ... obviously, we can always continue to improve but yes it did. Personally I felt that it made a big difference. One of the best courses I have been on. I don't know whether it was the context of the course or the way it was put over. I did find it very interesting and very enjoyable.</p>	<p>B Reflecting</p> <p>A1 Acquisition of skill – communication</p> <p>A1 Acquisition of knowledge --of self</p> <p>A3 Application of knowledge/skill acquired [AKSA] – communication</p> <p>B Reflecting</p> <p>A1 Satisfaction</p>
<p>My boss and the people above him are very good. They listen to you whatever you have. If I was to make a decision or anything like that they would back me. They would agree with my decision. When I say right or wrong-- if I was the only person there to make that decision, in all good faith, I made it, even if it was the wrong one-- they would still say "Well we put her in that job and that's what she is paid for". You know, it may have been the wrong decision but that's what she is suppose to do. And I think from that point of view they would support me. I find them very helpful, anything at all that they can do. This is the people above us - they are very keen for this job to take off so they definitely give us the support and help that we require. It helps, you know, you feel encouraged to try out your course experiences.</p>	<p>A4 Supportive/Non-supportive Disposition [SNsD] (+) (‘they listen to you) *boss and other superiors*</p> <p>B Illustrating</p> <p>B Reflecting</p> <p>A4 Supportive/Non-supportive Disposition [SNsD] (+) (help, support, keen for the job to take off) *boss and other superiors*</p>

In our particular area we have a meeting once every two weeks with the Group Leaders from all the other shifts. Our immediate boss is there and the chap above him again is there often. And it is good to hear the problems from other shifts as well. Quite a lot of the time it is the same problem that we are all bringing up but at other times we each have something different ...

Aamm ... at times some of the people I work with annoy me. Aa ... aamm ... I try not to let personalities come into it because, let's face it, I suppose it is only natural you can't like everybody and, on the same token, everybody can't like me and in the job that I do it is something that I have to work out. Aa ... aa ... it is up to me ... more than the other person not to let it affect me. Because of the position I am in--because I feel that if you have a bit of authority, you could use that very wrongly, and I would not like to think that I did that. I suppose, that is one of the things that did come out in the course as well. There is a sort of fine line and you have to be careful not to be seen either to favour somebody or to be very much against someone else because that would not be right. Purely on personalities I am speaking, you can

A4 Supportive/Non-supportive Disposition [SNsD] (-) (annoy me) --hostile attitude *co-workers*

B Reflecting

B Recalling

A1 Acquisition of knowledge -- interpersonal relations

Respondent's Original Expressions

Indexed Interpretations

only judge them on how they do the actual job. In some cases it is more that they just want to do it the way they want to do it, no matter how often you say or how you would show them and explain that 'it has got to be done this way because this is the reason for it.' Some people just want to do it their own way. Sometimes these people can be difficult to handle. Where I am at the moment, I would say-- it is not usually that bad. But with something like that-- at times, it really annoys you-- it really gets to you and holds you back in trying your ideas.

A4 Supportive/Non-supportive Disposition [SNsD] (-)
(difficult to handle)
--hostile attitude
co-workers

B Reflecting

Now ... other points-- right, I am not very tensed while I am working. But that is not to say that people do find it easy. Day shift is one of the worst shifts because everybody is in. You get all of the managers and they are all sitting in the area, they are always about and they can come walking in on us at any time. And on the off-shifts you just have the shift in whereas we have people coming in and out all the time. It could put pressures on you but it doesn't really bother me. Possibly I am used to it. Being relaxed it helps me do my job better and try out the things I want to try. A lot of things are going around in the area. Sometimes I have managed to implement some ideas, in being more assertive and saying "Right, that's what

A4 Application skills [AS] (+)
(helps)
--ability to relax [ARUP]

B Reflecting

B Recalling

A4 Application skills [AS] (+)
(managed)
--ability to assert [AA]

Respondent's Original Expressions

Indexed Interpretations

<p>is to be done and that's it". But yes I would say that at other times you just don't get the chance because you are that busy, you just cannot bring it into your normal every day job. I would say a lot of the time it holds you back.</p>	<p>B Reflecting A4 Pressures of production [PP] (-) (holds you back) -- meeting targets</p>
<p>Aamm ... I feel that I am quite interested to get my job going. I enjoy what I do and if you feel good within yourself you find it lot easier to do things that you want to do. ... I suppose the reward that I get is my wages at the end of the week. I feel that they get their money's worth. I feel that I earn every penny of what I get. I am pleased that I have a job because there is so much unemployment. It would be hard to say that I am not motivated by money because everybody really is but the fact that I enjoy the job does make a big difference. Obviously, I wouldn't be coming out to do this if I wasn't getting paid, so, obviously, money does make a difference. As you know there was quite a bit of bad feeling when we got the job because it wasn't the amount - the salary wasn't as great as what a lot of people expected it to be but I think that has all calmed down now and hopefully, having done the job, when it comes for us to be assessed at the end of the year then we should reap the benefits after having done the job. But the rewards for initially taking it</p>	<p>B Reflecting A4 Motivation [M] (+) (enjoy, feel good, lot easier) --intrinsic B Reflecting B Reflecting A4 Motivation [M] (+) (enjoy, make a big difference) --intrinsic B Reflecting A4 Reward/Non-reward Orientation [RNrO] (-) (make a difference) --inadequate financial incentive B Reflecting</p>

Respondent's Original Expressions

Indexed Interpretations

weren't as great as what people would have liked to believe. The rewards of actually doing the job and actually trying to make sure that it is done properly and efficiently and the self-satisfaction in that is great and that gives you, well it picks you up to do better again and again. I feel very happy about it.

A4 Motivation [M] (+)
(great, picks you up)
--intrinsic

You can approach any of your superiors and speak to them and tell them what you think and what you feel and even how you could make it better or how it could be made better. Whether they act on it is a different story - but you can still tell them. It is a good thing that you can do that. I would have felt really bad if I couldn't. I don't have any problem. It is very good. The fact that you can, is another thing that encourages you to try course ideas. But it is a very bad point that sometimes they do nothing. Sometimes you feel as though you are hitting your head off a brick wall because it is the same things over and over again that you are trying to get fixed or sorted or whatever and at times it makes you feel - what is the point in complaining if nothing will be done about it. What is the point in saying if they will just say - "Oh, here she comes again moaning". But it is not actually moaning. If people weren't

A4 Supportive/Non-supportive
Disposition [SNsD] (+)
(very good, encourages)
--approachable
superiors

B Reflecting

A4 Supportive/Non-supportive
Disposition [SNsD] (-)
(bad point, hitting head off a
brick wall)
--management's failure to follow-
up *superior*

B Reflecting

B Reflecting

Respondent's Original Expressions

Indexed Interpretations

interested or if they didn't care about their jobs they wouldn't keep telling them the same sort of thing. It is because they are interested that they are saying things because if they didn't care they would say - "Well, it doesn't bother me". So, yes, it can have a dampening effect, definitely.

A4 Motivation [M] (+)
(interested)
--intrinsic

B Reflecting

Another plus point is that I have some flexibility in doing my job I suppose it does have an effect on my implementation of course ideas because it keeps me very, very interested because it is not the same thing that we are doing all the time. It is a plus thing.

A4 Job autonomy [JA] (+)
(encouraged)
-- flexibility

B Reflecting

MAM-Well, thank you very much!

7.2.2 CASE 2

When I attended the course I was a TSO. I was later promoted to a Group Leader. Before I got this job I had to attend a meeting. This was the first one that I ever attended aamm ... this was for TSOs only and I was the guinea pig to do it. I felt nervous. Although remembering of the course and how things went - if one person did it then it could only get better because you learnt from that persons mistakes. The course went well and there were 16 TSOs there

A1 Satisfaction

Respondent's Original Expressions

Indexed Interpretations

and looking back the word was that they	B	Recalling
did a good job [<i>the course</i>]. That made	A1	Satisfaction
me feel as if I was learning something.	A1	Acquisition of knowledge
On the line I have been told that my	A1	Acquisition of skill
attitude towards the operators is good. I		--interpersonal
have a good relationship with them. I		
don't think that anyone has stopped	A1	Satisfaction
talking about this group leaders course		
since we done it. The comments are		
still coming up about the course. It		
seems to have been the best course that	B	Comparing
anyone has ever been on. We all		
attended another course after that and it		
seems to have been a downer because		
they don't have the same style as [<i>the</i>		
<i>facilitator</i>]. He made us feel		
comfortable. Aamm ... a couple of		
months after the course I took my notes	B	Comparing
down and read over them just to see if I		
was doing it right and some of it was	A1	Usefulness
positive. Again I have been told by the	B	Reflecting
other TSOs that I am doing well and	A1	Gain of confidence
this also gives me confidence. Before	B	Comparing
the course I was lacking in confidence		
and I think now I am gaining		
confidence with management, I can talk		
to them and before I didn't feel that I		
could speak to them. I held myself back		
but now I feel that I can give my point		
of view without feeling that I am		
inferior in any way. They are changing		
my shift so the girls that I am now	A4	Supportive/Non-supportive
working with are sorry to see me go.		Disposition [SNsD] (+)
Aamm ... it is a case of the two shifts--		(sorry to see me go)
they would like me to be working with		*co-worker*

Respondent's Original Expressions

Indexed Interpretations

- them ... that makes you feel that you are doing the job right because people want you there. I think it is helping me in trying out what I learned from the course.
- I feel there was a bit confusion initially about this group leader thing. I have a good idea of what we are expected to do. Some may have been a bit unsure in the past. Especially because the Group Leader has only been in our section for the past three or four weeks and there is not one on every shift - there are only three and there are five shifts. A lot of people were unsure at first what exactly we are to do but it is coming together now.

- B Reflecting
- A4 Application skills [AS] (+)
(helping)
--ability to assert [AA]
- A4 Role definition [RD] (+/-)
(confusing)
--lack of clarity (others)
--clearly defined (self)
- B Reflecting
- A4 Role definition [RD] (+/-)
(unsure first)
--lack of clarity
--gradually becoming clearer

Sometimes you feel that people say "Oh group leader all they do is walk around with a piece of paper". They do have their ideas on what we do. There is a lot of work involved in it. In different areas the Group Leaders are doing different jobs but my main job is running the line and the co-ordinators are there if I need help but it is my line and it is my shift. People mean it in a joke but I think it is a good idea. At the weekend [*shift*] I feel that I was doing that sort of job anyway because I was the one that was running the line with no co-ordinator and I was doing it on the weekend although now I am moving

Respondent's Original Expressions

Indexed Interpretations

on to day shift. There will be co-ordinators on the day shift but it is still my line and they are purely there for back up. The position is new and the confusion about it tends to put you down but this is not a big problem. People will get used to it and I feel I can communicate better now. The course helped me on that. Every day now I take my two TSOs and then I take the operators on the line and I tell them what is going on during the day so I feel that before the meeting I start to think what am I going to say, but now I feel that I am coming out and the way that I am feeling about my job is just coming out and I know what I want to say and I am saying it. It is also getting through to them. I feel good communication helps implementing what you want to implement.

I feel that I get on with the people. It helps. The girls like me. They are very supportive. You find it very difficult to try out new things if they don't support you. Because you cannot work all by yourself, you got to get others working with you. You got to have a team working together. I also have a good relationship with everyone of the bosses and above them. I don't find anything awkward. Aamm ... you may find some things that you don't want to hear sometimes but that is all

- B Reflecting
- A4 Role definition [RD] (-)
(put you down)
--lack of clarity
- A4 Application skills [AS] (+)
(better)
--ability to communicate [AC]
- B Comparing
- A1 Acquisition of skill/knowledge
--communication
- A3 Application of skill/knowledge acquired [AKSA]
--communication
- B Reflecting
- B Reflecting
- A4 Application skills [AS] (+)
(coming out)
--ability to communicate [AC]
--gradually improving
- B Reflecting
- A4 Application skills [AS] (+)
(helps)
--ability to communicate [AC]
- B Reflecting
- A4 Application skills [AS] (+)
(get on with)--ability to relate [AR]
- A4 Supportive/Non-supportive disposition [SNsD] (+)
(if they don't support you)
Co-workers
- B Reflecting
- A4 Supportive/Non-supportive disposition [SNsD] (+)
(good relationship)
boss and other superiors
- B Reflecting

Respondent's Original Expressions

Indexed Interpretations

part and parcel of the job. Overall they are very supportive-- 100 per cent.

A4 Supportive/Non-supportive disposition [SNsD] (+)
(very)*boss and other superiors*

Again the fact that I like my job is also another important thing. I am staying on here past my working hours because I like the job that I am doing and I have been criticized that I am too much that way but I do enjoy the job and at the moment I really like my job. It is good. When we talk about cycle time we see that we are getting the product out in two days instead of four days. You can see it going which makes you want to do it all the more. The fact that I enjoy doing my job, in general, makes me more interested to try the course ideas.

B Reflecting

A4 Motivation [M] (+)
(interested)
--intrinsic

MAM--Thanks for your help

7.2.3 CASE 3

The course was very enjoyable. I remember dealing with awkward people and how to try and bring people around to your way of thinking and I have a lot of things going around in my head just now. The communication side of it ... the goals, the tasks and everyone taking a shot of being the group leader.

I A1 Satisfaction

A1 Acquisition of knowledge/skills
--interpersonal relations
--communications

B Recalling

Respondent's Original Expressions

Indexed Interpretations

<p>I remember most of it. I would say 85-90%. We had a lot of discussions following the course and I remember about the tasks ... watching how people trying to communicate and getting the message across to your staff. I remember talking about how we rated ourselves. I remember talking about the grey areas and the golden areas. I can also remember it all quite clearly, because it was so enjoyable. I thought it was very good- the way it was put across and the course was great you know and there was not any real pressure involved in it and I feel that we went in as strangers and ended up as friends and it was very helpful. I think you go in a course that you enjoyed and remembered. Courses which involve pressures from start to finish, you are quite happy to forget them. They are good for nothing. The tasks as well were good highlighting competitive spirit and things like that. I find the course to be very effective.</p>	<p>B Recalling</p>
<p>It's communication ... I always liked to think that I was a good communicator. Dealing with awkward people is something that everyone has nightmares about. It has made it easier for me to understand other peoples' points of view and why people are being awkward. I would also say that with the bosses I am certainly a lot more</p>	<p>A1 Satisfaction A1 Usefulness A2 Communicativeness (+) A2 Nature of learning climate (+) A1 Usefulness B Comparing A3 Application of knowledge/skill acquired [AKSA] --communication B Reflecting A1 Acquisition of knowledge/skills --interpersonal relations A3 Application of knowledge/skill acquired [AKSA] --interpersonal relations B Reflecting</p>

Respondent's Original Expressions

Indexed Interpretations

<p>assertive now. I realize that my job is as important at the end of the day as theirs -- if not more so because I am totally in control of the line. I feel that I am more confident. I definitely feel more confident and feel happier with myself about the job. I feel that I will argue my point more on behalf of the group that I am in charge of. Trying to actually organise as well I felt a bit more of a benefit from that. They covered organization quite a bit as well. I always thought I was not a bad in organizing but I can see certain areas where may be I lacked. The course helped me overcome that. I am much more aware of the quality of everything I am putting out work-wise now as well and trying to get across the message. I have quite a lot of meetings now with the girls that I work with to explain to them what I want from them rather than just expecting them to know quality wise, moves- production wise and trying to get them more involved in the work so that they understand the problems and then I go back to them and speak to them individually to let them know about their performance as well and if they have any problems they can talk about to me now. It was too general before the course but now it is more one to one. They are more willing to talk about their problems. I will definitely try to encourage them to work as a team</p>	<p>A1 Gain of confidence --assertiveness, control</p> <p>B Reflecting</p> <p>A3 Application of knowledge/skill acquired [AKSA]--self confidence</p> <p>A4 Application skills [AS] (+) (argue my point) --ability to assert [AA]</p> <p>A3 Application of knowledge/skill acquired [AKSA]--organizing</p> <p>A1 Acquisition of knowledge/skills --organizing</p> <p>B Reflecting</p> <p>A3 Application of knowledge/skill acquired [AKSA] --quality awareness</p> <p>B Recalling</p> <p>A3 Application of knowledge/skill acquired [AKSA] --communications --interpersonal relations</p> <p>B Comparing</p>
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Respondent's Original Expressions

Indexed Interpretations

as opposed to working individually. That is starting to come together and I am starting to see the benefits in production. There are still a lot of things happening and in the future more will come again to light but in the past few months things have been coming together.

At first I did not feel that there was any great change whatsoever. It was more gradual. Usually with any kind of job in here, you are just left to get on with it and think for yourself. I think that was-- I think I have become more matured and experienced. Initially, I tried to follow exactly what was covered on the course. I learned from the pitfalls of following course ideas exactly. I thought -- 'what was it I did wrong in this situation?' and 'what was it I did right?' I got new ideas each time and avoided my mistakes next time. That way I find I am growing inside. The course was as it were a seed. I got some very important but general ideas. As I am putting them into practice they are getting better every time.

Now I think what has helped me is that I do feel more confidence in myself. I can communicate with people more easily. I can sit, get all the girls together and feel fine. Before I used to feel apprehensive, you know. The course

- A1 Acquisition of knowledge/skills -- general management ideas
- A3 Application of knowledge/skill acquired [AKSA] --general management ideas
- B Recalling
- A4 Application skills [AS] (+) (more, more easily, feel fine) --ability to assert [AA] --ability to communicate [AC] --ability to relate [AR]
- B Comparing
- A1 Gain of confidence

Respondent's Original Expressions

Indexed Interpretations

<p>helped me gain a bit of confidence because there were a lot of things that I watched. I watched that other way, other people get active in situations who are, may be, group leaders. That's the way I would do, as well, myself. I am not as bad as I think. I feel now that I have something to offer and I feel happier with myself in this respect. I feel my confidence is helping me try out the course ideas.</p>	<p>B Reflecting</p> <p>B Reflecting</p> <p>A4 Application skills [AS] (+) (helping) --ability to assert [AA]</p>
<p>Again, I have to be honest to say I have a lot of back-ups from my bosses. I felt I can go and speak to them although at the end of the day I have dealt with such situations. I can go and say I have got this situation and I am not exactly sure how to deal with it-- Could you help me, could you give me some advice and they have sat down and spoke and given me few ideas you know and said see how you go on and if it still does not work come back, speak to me again. That has happened to me recently, I had few situations like that. You can try a few different approaches and they may not work. I have found as well that they have been good in giving me back ups. A few situations came up recently and I have managed to sort them out. I have treated them in different ways. It is positive when I feel that I need help and they are there to help me, to support me. Specially at</p>	<p>B Reflecting</p> <p>A4 Supportive/Non-supportive Disposition [SNsD] (+) (back ups) --approachable, helpful *superior*</p> <p>B Illustrating</p> <p>B Recalling</p> <p>A4 Supportive/Non-supportive Disposition [SNsD] (+) (positive) *boss*</p> <p>B Eidetic grasping</p> <p>B Recalling</p> <p>A4 Supportive/Non-supportive Disposition [SNsD] (+) (positive) *boss*</p>

Respondent's Original Expressions

Indexed Interpretations

this initial stage of the job, it's very important. I am starting to see things coming together, it's giving me a lot of satisfaction to see things coming off. We are really trying hard just now. The girls are all trying hard too. And now I get a lot of satisfaction because it's something important to achieve. I do get a lot of enjoyment from it. The one thing that I feel unhappy about. I have to distance myself away more from people, you know but I feel that's part of a job. But I am definitely getting lot more satisfaction. I have a bigger part to play and I have a lot more control over these things whereas before you were just told about and you were not happy. I find satisfaction is very important, it helps a lot.

A4 Motivation [M] (+)
(trying hard, enjoyment satisfaction, helps a lot)
--knowledge of achievement
--greater responsibility
--greater control

B Reflecting

B Comparing

I find it is also important that other people who work for me are also happy. Sometimes they [*the company*] want to put people on jobs that people don't particularly want to do. There are pluses and minuses. At the end of the day I feel I want people to be happy who work for me. That's important to me. Sometimes people have jobs that they don't like. I had a few problems in my area when I came. I feel I was able to find a nice compromise with people. They are doing their jobs they don't want to do but they are taking it as it is everybody's job. That way not one

A4 Application skills [AS] (+)
(nice compromise happy)
--Ability to treat fairly [ATF]

Respondent's Original Expressions

Indexed Interpretations

person is left unhappy. It is made an entire group thing. There was one job and they wanted to put a girl in it but she didn't want to do it. She felt that she had a lot to offer and she was quite unhappy about it. So I spoke to the management and I said well at the end of the day somebody has to do this job. I would not mind one week about and that way the job is get done and nobody feels unhappy, everybody is happy about that. They backed down, and they accept that. And so now I feel that I have gained more respect from the girls as well. You are only as good as the people you have got working for you.

B Illustrating

There is more of-- I don't know-- I think the fact that when you are speaking to the management, they are really listening to you. A lot times now, not in every single issue, I think I can see now myself, they are interested in hearing it. I definitely think that management have an active interest for this job to take off. We absolutely know what work they want from us. Before, they took it whatever came, they just made up a job and put somebody in it, without even knowing what they were really doing. This time it's clear, you get an idea what they expect from you. Obviously it's progressive, becomes more sort of an established job. But at

B Reflecting

A4 Supportive/Non-supportive Disposition [SNsD] (+)
(active interest) *Superiors*

A4 Role definition [RD] (+)
(clear) --clarity of roles

B Comparing

A4 Role definition [RD] (+)
(get) --clarity of roles

B Reflecting

Respondent's Original Expressions

Indexed Interpretations

<p>the moment I can go in the morning and know what is expected of me exactly. I now have a job description and we have a lot of meetings with all the group leaders so the communication side has improved. I have to say that they have a positive attitude towards it and they are trying to make it work.</p>	<p>A4 Role definition [RD] (+) (clear) --clarity of roles</p> <p>B Reflecting</p> <p>A4 Supportive/Non-supportive Disposition [SNsD] (+) (positive attitude) *Superiors*</p>
<p>I had to distance myself from the people who work for me. I think at the end of the day no matter how well you go on, nobody likes ... aamm ... obviously, I hear every now and then ... aamm ... I mean, you get people who are late for tea breaks and things like that. When I was first doing the job I used to sit beside the girls and it became quite awkward. I felt awkward at tea breaks. Now I feel that I get more respect, people are coming back. Nobody likes to be pulled out. They felt awkward, I felt awkward. The distance has got to be there. People get confused seeing me socializing and gossiping in the tea breaks, and then again seeing me telling them what to do and what not to do--telling them what they are doing right and what they are doing wrong. Either they don't take you seriously or start to dislike you. So I had to stop gossiping to gain their respect. I had to do that because everybody likes to be liked. Nobody likes to be disliked. But at the</p>	<p>A4 Role definition [RD] (+) (more respect) --assertion of a clear identity</p> <p>B Reflecting</p> <p>B Illustrating</p> <p>B Recalling</p> <p>B Reflecting</p>

Respondent's Original Expressions

Indexed Interpretations

end of the day people believe you are very friendly. You treat everybody the same. I have distanced myself to certain extent. Not to the extent that nobody can come in and talk, obviously it's not like that after all, we all work together. I think I had to do that. At the end of the day it's not much of the choice really. I think, as I said, I have gained more respect. That way I have been able to do what I wanted to do.

MAM--Thanks very much for sharing your experiences

7.2.4 CASE 4

I plan better since the course. In the course it was explained that you should take time out to try and get things done. So as a result I have consciously made an effort to try and do that. Since I started the group leaders course I did not really have a lot of experience. So I have tried to set myself targets. To learn another machine or to work on it just to get more experience. Yes, I think the course has helped.

The course highlighted the need to get things organized. I now set aside time on the weekend to try and organize

A4 Application skills [AS] (+)
(able to do)
--ability to relate [AR]
--Ability to treat fairly [ATF]
--friendliness, approachable

A1 Acquisition of knowledge/skill
--planning
B Recalling
A3 Application of knowledge/skill
acquired [AKSA] --planning
A4 Application skills [AS] (+)
(made an effort)
--ability to assert [AA]
B Reflecting

B Illustrating
B Reflecting
A1 Usefulness

B Recalling
A1 Acquisition of knowledge/skill
--organizing

Respondent's Original Expressions

Indexed Interpretations

myself. I also go around all of the girls before the group meeting and ask them if they have any points that they wish me to raise with management or any problems that they have-- I try and involve them as much as I can and afterwards I report back to them and tell them exactly what is happening. I try and keep them informed.

I think I also learned that from the course to try and work with the girls better to get their support and I think that things work well. On our shift we pull together and everyone was praised as a result of this. I feel that the girls are supportive.

Again it is not always easy. There are few people who see you as interfering with them and there are other people who say yes all of the time and I have noticed that and I try and draw them out more and find out exactly how they feel. That is quite hard at times. On the whole, the girls with whom I work are good, but sometimes I find it quite hard to communicate with one person in particular. At times it is difficult to get on with a new idea. I find also that I am getting round this and it is getting better. So it is not very bad.

When we did get back these record moves, I went to my boss and said "I think you should praise the girls up for

A3 Application of knowledge/skill acquired [AKSA]
-- organizing, interpersonal relation

A4 Application skills [AS] (+) (I try)
--ability to assert [AA]
--ability to relate [AR]

B Reflecting

A3 Application of knowledge/skill acquired [AKSA]-- communication

A4 Application skills [AS] (+) (I try)
--ability to communicate [AC]

B Reflecting

A1 Acquisition of knowledge/skill
--interpersonal relations

A3 Application of knowledge/skill acquired [AKSA]
-- team work, interpersonal relations

A4 Application skills [AS] (+) (pull together)--ability to relate [AR]

A4 Supportive/Non-supportive Disposition [SNsD] (+)
(work well) *Subordinates*

A4 Supportive/Non-supportive Disposition [SNsD] (-)
(difficult to get on)
Co-worker

B Recalling

A4 Application skills [AS] (+) (find out)
--ability to relate [AR]
--ability to assert [AA]

B Reflecting

A4 Supportive/Non-supportive Disposition [SNsD] (+)
(good, getting better)
Co-worker

B Reflecting

B Recalling

Respondent's Original Expressions

Indexed Interpretations

doing these record moves". She arrived and praised them all and then she went to her boss and he said that at some point we could have cakes and coffee so she said that we were going to have a meeting and serve this just to thank them. It was quite good.

- A4 Reward/Non-reward Orientation [RNrO] (+)
(quite good)
--appreciation
- B Recalling

Sometimes, like any other job, I think wires cross because I only work on the weekend shift and everything is organized during the week so when I arrive on a Friday all of the decisions are made and sometimes they do not consult me so I have to pick up on a Friday but I suppose that is the drawback of working the odd shift. Sometimes I come in and the other group leaders will say something and I will say, "I didn't know that". So you find yourself somewhat alienated. It is confusing, it discourages you, you feel 'what is the point trying new things'. But then again, it happens just occasionally. I try and sort it out. I also highlighted these problems.

- A4 Communications [C] (+)
(drawback)
--lack of consultation

- B Reflecting

The idea of group leader is new and I don't think that the people around know clearly what it is. Sometimes you arrive and you are expected to be an operator, again you are expected to be leading the group, you are expected to know everything. But if there is one person off you are covering their job and I don't think that it is clearly

- A4 Role definition [RD] (-)
(don't know clearly)
--lack of clarity
--lack of management's awareness of role definition
--lack of distinction between roles
i.e., operator and group leader

- B Reflecting

Respondent's Original Expressions

Indexed Interpretations

- enough defined what the job of a group leader is. I really don't, you are either one thing or another. They expect you to be everything all the time and I find this difficult. I don't know how they see this in terms of the future and I don't even think they know themselves. Sometimes I feel that it is just a name they have given someone just like a Senior Operator but I would like to know how they think the job is going to go.
- My boss also gives me certain other jobs above my own job to do and being on this shift there is a real change in staff so that you are covering a lot of different jobs and they are expecting you to do these other jobs as well. I realize that it will eventually settle down but sometimes it is quite hard. I remember it was mentioned in the course that one has to avoid being in Ostrich position i.e. head buried-- and you don't see what is around. If you are covering the operators job all the time or you are constantly on the machines you don't see what is going on around, you can't effectively handle situations or manage them. Then you think what is the point of being a group leader and going on to the course. You are not working as a group leader you are working as an operator. No one likes to be on a fifth shift for too long. It is good when you
- A4 Role Conflict [RC] (-)
(difficult)
--conflicting expectation
- B Reflecting
- A4 Pressures of production [PP] (-)
(quite hard)
-- shortage of staff.
- B Reflecting
- B Recalling
- B Reflecting
- A4 Pressures of production [PP] (-)
(can't effectively handle)
-- meeting targets
--shortage of staff
- B Reflecting

Respondent's Original Expressions

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have a young family but it is an unsociable shift working Friday and Saturday and Sunday. Most people want off it and on to day shift. A lot of our staff haven't any family so they just start that job to get their foot in the door but they don't really want to stay on this shift. As soon as they get in they are trying to get another shift so you have a constant change of staff; constantly training them up. Sometimes you get fed up because even today my boss came in and said that some of the girls were not trained up well in one aspect of the job. But with there being such a constant change they are not getting the experience, they are not settling down. But hopefully it will settle down.

A4 Pressures of production [PP] (-)
(fed up, inadequate)
-- shortage of staff

B Recalling

B Reflecting

B Reflecting

I enjoy what I'm doing and am quite chuffed to get the job but I wouldn't like to go any further. I am quite happy. Work-wise I do feel motivated. Financially, well I am not getting paid yet for it and I have been doing it for six months. I have not been given the scale for the job yet. I am still a TSO because you have to do the job for six months before you get paid for it. I feel terrible, because you are doing the job and they are giving you the responsibility of the job but not the responsibility of the extra money. I find this a bit unfair. Well, I am not entirely happy about it. I feel that if they have

A4 Motivation [M] (+)
(quite happy)
--intrinsic

A4 Reward/Non-reward
Orientation [RNrO] (-)
(feel terrible)
--inadequate financial incentive

B Reflecting

the confidence in you to make you a Group Leader they should pay you for it. When I think of this it puts me off in taking any initiative. But, yes, it is nice that they give you a cake for it!

MAM-- Thanks a lot for talking about your experiences of the course.

7.2.5 CASE 5

Initially I tried some of the ideas from the course, but I tended to be snowballed in. It is a very very hectic environment and things change from hour to hour never mind day to day which makes it very difficult to implement a lot of the things that I learned. Just as an example I have a routine. First thing in the morning I get a change over from the Group Leader on the night shift. I check over everything that he has told me and make sure that everything is OK and see what I have to manufacture on the shelves and then I can check what I have. It seems to be OK to that point. I then check on what is coming to me. That is me advance planning and that is a good theory but you can advance plan for that and then when you expect your work to come in, it does not appear.

A3 Application of knowledge/skill acquired [AKSA]
-- advance planning

A4 Pressures of production [PP] (-)
(very difficult
-- unpredictable
-- fast changing
-- loss of control
-- intensiveness

B Illustrating

Sometimes you feel as if you are best going in blind in the morning and say well that is what I have got and that is what is coming and then wait and see but you cannot afford to do that either because you could have too much chopping and changing which costs time so sometimes you feel as if you go through the motions of advance planning but it doesn't always work out. Another thing that I try to do is every hour go around and check what is coming so that I can keep a close eye on what is happening so that I know instantly. You may be pulled away and it drags on. It is a very very difficult environment to work in. I think advance planning-- I would not take it as gospel. I would go through the motions of advance planning but otherwise I would not depend on it. You do not treat the course ideas as recipes, they need to be adjusted to the situation, you begin to see things in a different light and possibly learn more about it.

After the course you think - well I really feel good and I feel that I know what I am doing and I feel better about the job which I am to do and you go in and try to implement things but trying to implement them and when you see that it is not working I wouldn't say that you just pull back from it and say

B Reflecting

A4 Application skills [AS] (+)
(go in, try to implement)
--ability to assert [AA]

B Reflecting

Respondent's Original Expressions

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forget it. I would say that you say well I can't expect that to happen all of the time but I will try to do it when it is possible. It is just such a high pressure environment as well that it is just not possible to say wait I want to do this now. They just say no you can't do that - you can't afford to do that in this situation. Everything the Japanese do is so perfect. We are really in competition to do things. To keep up with them is so difficult but they [*Management*] just have to keep the pressure on all the time. Basically time is money to them [*Management*].

A4 Pressures of production [PP] (-)
(not possible)
-- high pressure

Personally, I would not say that I was not cut out for the job. I don't think that it is the pressure, as much as I think that ... aamm ... you know, it is very very difficult to get praise when there is so much more pressure on when there is wrong-doing. There is always more pressure on you when things are going wrong. The pressure is on you because things are not going well.

B Reflecting

A4 Reward/Non-reward
Orientation [RNrO] (-)
(very difficult)
--lack of appreciation
--coercion

B Eidetic grasping

On the occasions when they do praise, they make a really big issue of it. One of the bosses told one of the TSO that if she could move 2600 wafers that he would buy them dinner. So they moved more than that amount and then out came tea and cakes. If he was not prepared to give dinner he should never have said it he should have

A4 Reward/Non-reward
Orientation [RNrO] (-)
(should never have said)
--inadequate appreciation
--increasing expectation and failing to honour it

B Reflecting

Respondent's Original Expressions

Indexed Interpretations

made it clear at the start that it was tea and cakes. No apology was made about it. On another occasion they said that if we emptied the shelves of work that they would give us £500 for it spread out between us and we did it and I got a manufacturing engineer to verify that we had clear the shelves. They came back and said that they meant the micro as well. There is nothing more demoralizing than going in and saying to people if we do this we will be rewarded and that does not happen. People become discouraged. This has happened a few times.

B Illustrating

A4 Reward/Non-reward Orientation [RNrO] (-) (demoralizing)
--inadequate appreciation
--increasing expectation and failing to honour it

My team members also do not take the job seriously. To them it is just a job. They come in, do their work and go home. I don't think that they realize their responsibility, which is big. If something goes wrong on the machine, something has gone wrong. They don't care. They are not all like that. Some are very conscious of their targets and if their machine goes down and they can't get parts they are concerned. They may come and say right away or they may report it 15 minutes later. But some do not seem to be aware of the importance of their job. Some of them have come from different backgrounds like clothes manufacturers etc. A lot of the work there is piece work so basically if you do not do the work you don't get paid.

A4 Supportive/Non-supportive Disposition [SNsD] (-) (do not take the job seriously)
--passive
co-workers

B Reflecting

A4 Supportive/Non-supportive Disposition [SNsD] (+) (they are concerned)
--active
co-workers

Perhaps with this job they feel whether they work or not they still get paid. I would say that it really is bad. Basically the people who are working are really worried about their targets and they would just as well not be because they are not compensated enough. They have a set target, some people can reach it and some can't. If everyone had the same consciousness it would be fine. I have just come from a meeting about an operator error. We do not lose money but we lose time in this case. Sometimes it may be a days worth of time lost. They brought everyone together to discuss the issue and it is always doom and gloom. It could be a major issue and they all left feeling bad. They do go to the person who made the mistake initially. But they do not make a major issue out of it at the time. Fourteen batches may be standing untouched because of what someone else has done. The individual person is not made to feel responsible enough for it. The group feels responsible for it. I think that they should single out the one person and work with that one person to get it right. Word goes round that someone has done something wrong fast enough. I really don't know what happens around all the shifts but there is too much emphasis put on everyone ... *[The interview had to be*

B Recalling

A4 Reward/Non-reward
Orientation [RNrO] (-)
(doom and gloom)
--coercion

stopped at this point because of tape recorder malfunctioning. The interview could not be resumed as it was not possible to arrange a subsequent appointment]

7.2.6 CASE 6

I do believe that the course was given at the wrong time. I did believe it then and I still believe it now. I think we should be going through the course possibly now when we have actually been doing the job for six months now. If I went now, I would be taking an awful lot more out of it, but at that time, it was all skimming over me and I really did not know what was expected of me. So, what I got out of the course was very minimal, really. I felt that it was a good course and I did understand when I was there and I could make sense of what he was saying and I could make sense of everything, really. But I found it very hard to relate to the work of a group leader because, at that point, I had not actually worked as a group leader. We should actually be going through the course now.

I was just an operator and I did not have any responsibility at all. I applied for the job and got the job as group

B Reflecting

B Recalling

A1 Usefulness
-- marginal

B Recalling

A4 Relevance [R] (+)

B Reflecting

Respondent's Original Expressions

Indexed Interpretations

leader. They didn't know what they expected of us, so we didn't know what to give them. They then sent us on a course and we didn't know, at that stage, what was expected of us. So, I feel that they have gone about it the wrong way. They should have let us do the job for a while and then passed us to the course.

- A4 Role definition [RD] (-)
(didn't know)
--lack of clarity
--lack of management's awareness of
role definition

I did not take an awful lot from the course. No, I must admit, not a lot. The only thing that I got from the course is-- if a problem arises you deal with it. You do not let it build up. You deal with it there and then and get it out of the way and if you can't handle it you pass it on. I have tried out that type of thing but everything else I feel that I have taken it from myself and not from the course.

- B Recalling
- A1 Usefulness
--marginal
- A1 Acquisition of knowledge
--problem solving
- A3 Application of knowledge/skill
acquired [AKSA]
- problem solving

Aamm ... I am not a very confident person. I am quite shy and to deal with people that I have worked with for two years and all of a sudden, to be like, I need to tell them what to do. I found that very awkward but you have to get on with it. They know that it is my job and I have to do it. But I don't go about saying "you've to do this!" I make sure that they understand why I'm telling them to do that. I think that was dealt with in the course as well. 'People related', the 'personality type' thing. I found that easier than what I thought I

- B Reflecting
- A4 Supportive/Non-supportive
Disposition [SNsD] (+)
(they know) *co-workers*
- A3 Application of knowledge/skill
acquired [AKSA]
-- interpersonal relations
- A1 Acquisition of knowledge/skill
--interpersonal relations

Respondent's Original Expressions

Indexed Interpretations

would find it. I don't really think that there was anything else on the course which I have taken. Like you had tasks to explain yourself properly. Either you do explain yourself properly or you don't. It is just taking the time and doing it properly. I didn't really take anything from the course on that point. We seem to have been there for a long time and I can't remember an awful lot about it.

B Reflecting

Now, I suppose, a number of things have affected me in trying out whatever I took from the course. I think it is a fact that the people with whom I work--we all get on. It is really good. I don't know what the management think of our shift but our shift seems to be the most together shift. We all talk to each other. If we have a disagreement with one another we deal with it and get it out of the way. That goes for operator to operator as well. That is the way it used to work before there was any group leaders anyway. I feel that is just the way the shift is. It isn't anything that has been put there it is just something that is there.

B Reflecting

A4 Supportive/Non-supportive Disposition [SNsD] (+)
(get on well)
--good interpersonal relation
--group cohesiveness, *co-worker*

B Reflecting

B Reflecting

Even if I have a problem with one of my managers. I don't feel as though I must keep that to myself. They are all part of the problem if I am not happy. They will want to know to see if they can help. We all work together as a

B Reflecting

Respondent's Original Expressions

Indexed Interpretations

- team and everyone enjoys working like that. We have absolutely a good team work. It is exceptional. I would say that management don't think so but we certainly do because we all go out together. It is more like a social event coming to work. If I want to take any initiative they will back me up. The girls have taken to me easily. They all said that I was the person for the job on the shift. I tell them as much as I know. I very rarely hold anything back from them. If I am relayed information and then if I don't think it is confidential then I pass it on. But if I am told something in confidence then obviously it doesn't go back to them. I tell them what they need to know and I think they appreciate that because I don't treat them differently.
- They have changed everything from the last time. The group leaders were supposed to take over the M.E's work so that they can do other things. They are still there. I feel this very negative. They should not be there. I don't know what they do. We are doing their jobs as far as I am aware. So instead of having one immediate boss, we have three responsible for our area. There are too many bosses, far too many people to report to. Whereas before we only had one. You could handle one because you knew you only reported to
- A4 Supportive/Non-supportive Disposition [SNsD] (+)
(enjoys)
--group cohesiveness
co-workers
- B Eidetic grasping
- A4 Supportive/Non-supportive Disposition [SNsD] (+)
(back me up)
--group cohesiveness
--mutual respect, trust and confidence
co-workers
- B Reflecting
- A4 Application skills [AS] (+)
(don't treat differently)
--Ability to treat fairly [ATF]
- B Reflecting
- A4 Role definition [RD] (-)
(very negative)
--lack of clarity
--multiple reporting relationships
--lack of distinctions between the roles of MEs and GLs
- B Reflecting
- B Comparing

Respondent's Original Expressions

Indexed Interpretations

one person, now we have three people to report to plus a manager. So it is out of hand. There are too many chiefs in that place. A positive thing - apart from the shift, there is real cooperation on the shift - apart from that it is all negative. It is all--'you're not doing this properly', 'you're not doing that properly', 'you should be doing that'-- that is all you get from upstairs. You never ever get-- 'oh! well done'. You never get it. Because you have too many people to answer to, too many people to listen to and you don't know what to take from it. If one says 'do this' the other says 'do that'. I think this is a very bad thing when it comes to trying out new ideas.

- B Reflecting
- A4 Supportive/Non-supportive Disposition [SNsD] (+) (positive)
 - cooperation & teamwork
 - *co-workers*
- B Reflecting
- B Recalling
- A4 Reward/Non-reward Orientation [RNrO] (-)
 - (never get)
 - coercion
- B Reflecting
- A4 Role Conflict [RC] (-)
 - (very bad)
 - ambiguity
 - conflicting role expectation

Too many meetings. I go to a meeting once a fortnight. My TSO goes to a meeting once a fortnight. This means that she is being told different things from what I am being told. It is out of hand. I believe the bosses are now chasing us to get the work done whereas we have management chasing us. I don't mean the bosses, but the bosses above them are chasing us to get the work done. Then again we are chasing ourselves to get the work done. All of the group leaders that I know have committed themselves to this job. We are in there to do the best that we can. If we can get a furnace running we

- A4 Communications [C] (+)
 - (out of hand)
 - lack of consistency
- B Reflecting
- B Reflecting

Respondent's Original Expressions

Indexed Interpretations

don't need a boss coming behind us to tell us to get it running. We know ourselves that we have to get it running and I feel that them coming to tell us is delaying us. They shouldn't be there. Today I got no boss on in diffusion and it is running so smoothly it is not real. Apart from this morning because we had a problem with furnaces-- but that is all fixed out now. The boss who is on shift is actually from another area so he is away working on his other area. There is no actual diffusion boss on and it is great. I saw him first thing this morning and I saw him at dinner time and he says "How are things going" and I said "alright", so off he goes. Whereas if you constantly have a diffusion boss on your back you just think 'Why am I here?' Because there is no need for two doing the same job. That is what they are doing. We are going around checking furnaces. 'Why are they available?' 'Why aren't they not available?' 'Is an Engineer looking at them?' We have done all that. Two minutes later a boss does that or even two minutes before. 'You think why?' They are getting paid a lot more than us. You wonder why am I doing his job? He is getting paid more for it and all he is doing is following my tracks. You just wonder why?

A4 Job autonomy [JA] (-)
(shouldn't be there)
-- interfering

B Comparing

B Reflecting

A4 Role definition [RD] (-)
(no need)
--lack of distinction between the
roles of MEs and GLs

Respondent's Original Expressions

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It isn't necessarily a question of salary.	B Reflecting
They were meant to be doing other jobs.	
We were meant to be group leaders and they were meant to be doing the manufacturing engineering and I do not know exactly what that is. I think it is to go away and try and make the process better. That is what the whole idea was. They were to go away and try to improve it. They aren't. They are standing over you making sure that you are doing your job properly.	<p>A4 Role definition [RD] (-) (they were to go away) --lack of distinction between the roles of MEs and GLs</p> <p>B Recalling</p> <p>A4 Job autonomy [JA] (-) (standing over you) - close supervision --interference</p>
The attitude of the Manufacturing Engineers is negative. They are not interested. They think that we are there to do their jobs. If anything goes wrong in the area I need an engineer to fix it, if I can't get an operator to fix it. They feel as if you are telling them. And their attitude is 'yes, I will get around to it.' They feel that because I am asking them. So you have machines down and you shouldn't have machines down. They feel that someone from below is asking them or telling them to do something. So this is probably why the conflict is there. Again, this should be explained to them. Perhaps explained to them what our job is. The management expect us to have machines running 100% of the time and if we do not have the machines running 100% we need to have them fixed by the Engineers. That is why we	<p>A4 Supportive/Non-supportive Disposition [SNsD] (-) (negative) --passive, apprehensive *Superiors*</p> <p>B Reflecting</p> <p>A4 Communications [C] (-) (should be explained) --inadequate</p> <p>B Reflecting</p>

Respondent's Original Expressions

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chase them and bother them. You get an attitude from them. If you spend a good 15-20 minutes trying to find an Engineer you then tell them in a hurry that they will need to come and fix this for me. They come two hours later to fix it. You feel - why did I have to run and get him. We have told the management this as well and they haven't changed their attitude. No improvement whatsoever.

The management is now pin-pointing if you break a wafer. They are pin-pointing who broke it. Why was it broken, that type of thing. Putting names down on shift notice boards to make sure every other shift knows about it. I think that is very negative.

They are putting bosses in charge of different shifts - like one boss is in charge of day shift, the other boss is in charge of night shift. Another boss is in charge of twilight. You have one shift against each other and you have conflict between bosses so we don't know what the other bosses are telling their shift. They feel as if they have been pulled that way as well.

Management making decisions and not telling us. Bosses making decisions - not even the boss in charge of my shift - another boss taking somebody off of my shift and putting them on another shift.

A4 Reward/Non-reward
Orientation [RNrO] (-)
(very negative)
--coercion
B Reflecting

A4 Communications [C] (-)
(not)
--inadequate

Respondent's Original Expressions

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<p>They don't tell me or my manager. They shouldn't have had three bosses. One is quite sufficient. They feel that it is too big of an area for one boss to handle but since we have been group leaders we have made a lot of things move, we have a lot of things up and running. The targets have improved drastically and we feel as if we are just getting laid on and laid on and laid on and not getting any credit for it. We are just getting "Oh well, it would have happened anyway". We have improved the job and we should be getting some feed-back on it. You go and have your meeting with your other five group leaders and all you get told by the manager is this is what we want etc. How do you think it is running? We can all say our own little bit but they don't listen so you think "Why am I here". As I said we have committed ourselves to the job we are there to do it 100%. I walk in at 7.45 am on a Friday, Saturday, Sunday morning and it is 100% to the job until I leave and even when I leave I still worry about it but you receive no credit for it. You just think why. I just feel that they should get their finger out and tell us how good we are doing or how bad we're doing. If we're doing bad, tell us how bad we're doing. What do they want us to improve on. We haven't had any feed-back on how other shifts are doing. We</p>	<p>A4 Reward/Non-reward Orientation [RNrO] (-) (laid on) --lack of appreciation</p> <p>B Reflecting</p> <p>A4 Reward/Non-reward Orientation [RNrO] (-) (don't listen) --lack of appreciation</p> <p>B Reflecting</p> <p>A4 Reward/Non-reward Orientation [RNrO] (-) (no credit) --lack of appreciation</p> <p>B Reflecting</p> <p>A4 Communications [C] (-) (should get their finger out) --in adequate</p>
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Respondent's Original Expressions

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make targets but there is a thing on the notice board telling us that we don't make targets. I looked today and could not believe it. That was from [Bill] who is the head. It says, weekend shifts very poor. We make targets more often than day shift and we get no credit for it. You wonder why.

A4 Reward/Non-reward
Orientation [RNrO] (-)
(wonder why? couldn't believe)
--coercion

B Reflecting

You would like to know, even if it is only a pat on the back to say "Well done". Not necessarily from the boss but more from the management. The boss is on shift and sees what a good day is. Record moves, normal moves in our area is approximately 4,500, record moves are 6,600. We were the first shift to go above 6,000, we were the first shift to go about 6,500. Night shift has beaten our moves by 30 or 40 moves but they have an extra hour on the shift which is not accounted for. No one comes back and says 'Well done', or 'Yes, you are consistently good' or 'I feel as if you are doing the job as well as can be done or I feel that you could be doing better here if you would have spent more time doing this'. I suppose these were some of the things that somehow affected my initiatives to try out course ideas. But on the whole, I believe that the course was given at a wrong time. I think I can get a lot more if I have it now. If there is a follow up course I would definitely like to go on it.

A4 Reward/Non-reward
Orientation [RNrO] (-)
(would like to know)
--lack of appreciation

B Recalling

A4 Reward/Non-reward
Orientation [RNrO] (-)
(no one says)
--lack of appreciation

MAM--Thanks very much for the help.

7.2.7 CASE 7

The course has helped me understand -- aamm ... how to organize your goals and how to help you achieve your goals, ... aamm ... how do you think you work with people in the best possible ways, ... aamm ... how you can coordinate your activities, how to deal with people. These are some of the things I remember better. I think because of the different task that were involved. Aamm ... some of the group games, you remember them better, mainly because we were actually physically doing something and experiencing it. Whereas the videos and notes, I tend not to remember that as much. I really don't know why I don't remember them in great detail. I mean ... I do not know whether it is because you just forget and just get on with what you are doing or whether it is because unconsciously you are incorporating it in what you are doing, you just go in and do the things on a day to day basis and you don't think about it.

A1 Acquisition of knowledge/skill
--interpersonal relations
--planning and organizing
--communication

B Recalling

One of the things that the course helped me is that if I have got a problem I do not jump in with both feet, especially for any reason, emotionally or when I am particularly in anger. I leave it until

B Recalling

A3 Application of knowledge/skill
acquired [AKSA]
-- interpersonal relation

Respondent's Original Expressions

Indexed Interpretations

the next day. I go home and tackle it the next day.

It reminds you-- I think it makes you think more and think of other people and why they are reacting the way they are reacting. I had a crisis the other week day. My supervisor was away on holiday. It was all over overtime. People fighting for overtime. I had to say the system wasn't fair. I said no, 'we are doing a rota'. And they didn't want to do the rota. It got pretty heated but I actually waited till the next day, held a meeting, so they could say their part and I could say my part. It's just that people won't speak up. So I told them why I was doing what I was doing. And they didn't agree, so I asked them why they didn't agree, at the end of the day I was able to sort it out. I could see why they reacted the way they reacted. I think before the course, I would have jumped in, you know. On the afternoon when it happened, everybody shouting at each other's face. I just had been in, whereas I didn't engage right away. I just took things in perspective and said right we will have a meeting and we did first thing in the morning. This was a course idea. I think, it is so easy to go into the situation and say we have the authority, I am the authority and it's going to be the way I want it to be. The course

B Recalling

A1 Acquisition of knowledge/skill
--interpersonal relations

B Illustrating

A3 Application of knowledge/skill
acquired [AKSA]
-- interpersonal relations

B Comparing

A3 Application of knowledge/skill
acquired [AKSA]
-- interpersonal relations

B Reflecting

Respondent's Original Expressions

Indexed Interpretations

brought out that the difficult people are going to be difficult anyway. And a lot of it has to do with their personality rather than any thing else. If you treat them fairly you could, I would say, handle them better. Aamm ... I think that the course brought out that more than anything. It certainly stressed fairness, I would say that was, I think, a strength. I think--because I treated them fairly, I was able to do what I intended to do.

A1 Acquisition of knowledge/skill
--interpersonal relations

B Reflecting
A3 Application of knowledge/skill
acquired [AKSA]
--interpersonal relations

B Reflecting
A4 Application skills [AS] (+)
(able to)
--Ability to treat fairly [ATF]

I feel I am doing an awful lot less then I first perceived I would be doing in the role of a group leader, I would say, 80-90% of my day is still spent on the machine and it's very difficult to get away from running the machine. Aamm ... a lot of the time the job I take over from them are not the thing I want to do. There is no one there and obviously production comes first. Aamm ... first thing in the morning I take the time in order to organize the day find out what we have to do what are the priorities-- machine priorities. I check the equipment to find out if there are any faults. I find out if there are any problems since the machine was last used. Then when that's organized, I run just the machine. Given the job, there hasn't been much change for me. I have to do a lot of different things. Although the tasks are varied, they are

B Reflecting

A4 Pressures of production [PP] (-)
(get away)
-- meeting targets
--staff shortage

Respondent's Original Expressions

Indexed Interpretations

routine, very routine. Because, it becomes so rigid, you don't see things, you don't see things going on around, and it affects you, it becomes so rigid that you blank and a lot of the things I should be doing, and could be doing, I can't because I am tied to production.

- A4 Pressures of production [PP] (-)
(blank out)
--routine, rigid
- B Reflecting

I think in the beginning I was very motivated, and I think it was a strength. I am not as motivated. I think probably because, in the beginning its all new or you think it's going to be all new and now it's not, it's just, like I said before, it's routine and ... aamm ... once things become routine-- I mean, on the whole I am fairly a motivated person which gives me the urge to take initiatives. But aamm no other things are motivating me, no new things coming in to my job that would motivate me. These are the things I have been doing on.

- B Reflecting
- A4 Motivation [M] (+/-)
(gives me the urge)

In the job, what I thought I was going to be doing, that was very relevant. In the job I am doing just now, I would say it is not quite as relevant. We are not doing all the time what we should be doing and there is a very gradual change. The job itself is evolving, since it is not fully evolved you don't find the course to be very relevant. I obviously find that if you wish to use anything it has got to be relevant to what you are doing. Some of the things

- A4 Relevance [R] (-)
(not quite)
--evolving
- B Reflecting

Respondent's Original Expressions

Indexed Interpretations

were, of course, relevant and I have used them. Aamm ... again it's so difficult to actually say that I have covered this in the course and I am going to use it, I don't think on the whole now I consciously do that. I think this is because of the nature of the course and the nature of the job, both things, its not physical skills and you can actually see yourself doing. Then again when you sit back and think you say 'oh! this is the one I have taken from the course'.

In the beginning I was enthusiastic. ... B Reflecting

Aamm ... the things are slackened off, you just sort of slip back to you old routine and they think themselves 'hey

A4 Motivation [M] (-)
(slip back)

I shouldn't be doing this myself, she should be doing it for me'. Its difficult B Reflecting

for them as well. It is a condition in which you don't consciously feel the need to try new things, you just let yourself go.

We are given a job description -- not really too well at all-- aamm ... there has been other problems, the head count problems, we have lost an operator on my shift. Everyone is doing more. It also means that as we are running production more and we are doing daily --it's just as much as could be-- I am not becoming involved as involved as I would like to. Aamm ... I think it is very much having to say

B Recalling

A4 Role definition [RD] (-)
(not too well)
--lack of clarity

A4 Pressures of production [PP] (-)
(holds you back)
-- staff shortage

Respondent's Original Expressions

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look this is the course we are creating, people are going to go out to it and need to learn things. But putting it all on too wide a time scale or they don't have a time scale. Whereas they should, may be, say 'by the end of three months this person should be capable of doing X and at the end of six months this person should be capable of doing X, Y, and Z' and eventually they will be able to do the job gradually because of the process. Fair enough. But they don't have a plan. A lot of the time, it was that 'just put in there and that's it'. You have got a new title and that's not really much help other than that you have got the course you did yesterday. You are left to your own. Problem is --I was a TSO before, I was just below the senior one in my group. Obviously I was doing the bulk of this job beforehand daily and lot of us were doing this in that position. Whereas now we have got the title, the job description, again we are not doing the things, we should be doing because of the problem of head count. This is really very bad. As I said, I don't find that they planned the job well. If it were planned better then we would have been more involved.

We have two bosses, on a day to day basis, I would say, involving processes. I would go and see the manufacturing

B Illustrating

B Eidetic grasping

A4 Role definition [RD] (-)
(not really much help)
--lack of clarity

A4 Supportive/Non-supportive
Disposition [SNsD] (-)
(left to your own)
Superiors

B Reflecting

A4 Role definition [RD] (-)
(not doing the things we should)
--lack of clarity
--lack of distinction between the
roles of GLs & TSOs

A4 Pressures of production [PP] (-)
(problem)
-- staff shortage

B Reflecting

Respondent's Original Expressions

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engineer who is my supervisor and I have got a very good relationship with him. But when I went to the interview for the job my manager told me I work for him. I am very detached from him ... aamm I don't see him. I see him like in the morning and that's it. We have monthly meetings with other group leaders. I think one of the problems I have identified before--having gone to see him about anything I would see the manufacturing engineer first. Again reporting to two bosses is confusing. Because it is much easier to report to one person, you have one person involved. Because of different ideas, you get tired all the time. Their ideas are different. It makes it more difficult to put course ideas to practice, because one thinks it is a good idea the other doesn't.

At times I find it difficult to handle the girls. Aamm ... there is one of them--although I always have some authority, she saw my job as being threatening, I suppose. She didn't know what to do. Aamm ... some days it is very good some days it is bad. I have got to cool them up at tea breaks, daily in the mornings. Work wise, there is a lot of resentments. If I got to hold a meeting I say 'alright you decide' and ask for their comment. I do run the machine as well. They tend not to see me as being a

- A4 Role Clarity [RC] (+)
(confusing)
--multiple reporting relationships
--conflicting role expectations
- B Reflecting
- B Reflecting
- A4 Supportive/Non-supportive Disposition [SNsD] (-)
(difficult)
co-worker
- A3 Application of knowledge/skill acquired [AKSA]
-- interpersonal relations and communications
- B Reflecting
- A4 Role definition [RD] (-)
(tend not to see)
--lack of clarity
--lack of distinction between the roles of the operators and GLs.

Respondent's Original Expressions

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person to be taken seriously. This makes it difficult to try out course ideas.

The majority of the course work have been about dealing with other people, how to best handle situations. I think that's what I have used. I know it must be hard for the girls as well but that's difficult for me at times. So I would say that's one of the most frustrating area. I hope with time it will get better. Aamm ... it's a difficult one though. There are so many personalities involved within, it is difficult to make them better because that has been there before-- the same situations they are now.

A3 Application of knowledge/skill acquired [AKSA]
-- interpersonal relation
B Reflecting

B Reflecting
A4 Supportive/Non-supportive Disposition [SNSD] (-)
(frustrating)
co-workers

B Reflecting

I think they have put us in a position where they want us to go and motivate people. They want us to be a lot strong, they want us do other things involving people but they don't give you the time to do it and also they don't always give you the tools to do it. Aamm ... People should see you as the first person in the chain. That does not always happen because there are two TSOs, they are doing the same as me for the bulk of the day. So they would go and report directly to the engineering or whatever, rather than come to me. I would say that the group leader's position is not as formal as it should be. I think it is a very informal position. I

B Reflecting

A4 Pressures of production [PP] (-)
(don't give you)
-- meeting targets
--lack of time

A4 Formal power [FP] (-)
(not as should be)

Respondent's Original Expressions

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think that's why a lot of the downfalls are and I think part of making it formal would be to take you off production and say this person is here to do XYZ whatever on a daily basis. It is difficult to-- in some ways it might not be enough to keep you going by taking off production. I am sure you could find other things, find other duties in it. Yes, you could say, it is a very informal position with no disciplinary powers. Which means if I go to speak to someone about, for example, say that they are not coming their way, I can only say look you are not coming your way, I have noticed you not coming your way, I would like you to do XYZ or whatever and then see how things go. I can't take that any further. If that person then still continues to -- to be a bad influence on other people in whatever they are doing, I think I got to see the manufacturing engineer. And its them who would decide on any disciplinary action required, or really just shout the person out for what they are doing or may be affect their appraisal. Its not me-- its me who is to deal with it on a daily basis. But to get thing done about it I have to go one above. Whereas it would be much --its pulling you back quietly, it will be a tell tale, whereas if you could deal with them immediately, its much easier. Its so conflicting. You are expected to

B Reflecting

B Reflecting

A4 Formal power [FP] (-)
(pulling you back quietly)
--lack of disciplinary power

B Illustrating

B Reflecting

A4 Formal power [FP] (-)
(conflicting)
--lack of formal power

Respondent's Original Expressions

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- supervise and encouraged to take initiative, but when it comes to the real point of being effective you don't have much freedom much choice -- you do have to go to somebody else. We should definitely have some formal powers. When it comes down to odd people you are not in your position. They push you to see how far you could be pushed and just to see the extent of your powers. On the whole there is not a lot, there are some people in there always going to push you. You have to take a different line with them.
- The people around you don't always appreciate the initiatives you take. People, I have seen going to a course this week, they come back the following week and come up with something that's different. Others will say 'Oh! well she was in the course last week'. I think because people don't know what you are doing in the course I would say that this is definitely unhelpful. They do really react badly because nobody asked me 'what was it that I was doing in the course', 'did I enjoy' or 'did I get anything out of it'. These are small things-- were you happy in the course? Did you enjoy the course? Will it be of any help? Tell me about it? What did you learn? Do you think it was useful? You think in doing that, to a certain extent, you get some appreciation. This
- A4 Job autonomy [JA] (-)
(don't have much freedom)
-- lack of choice
- B Reflecting
- A4 Supportive/Non-supportive Disposition [SNsD] (+)
(push you)
co-workers
- B Reflecting
- A4 Supportive/Non-supportive Disposition [SNsD] (-)
(don't appreciate, unhelpful)
--resistance to change
Superiors, co-workers
- B Reflecting
- B Recalling

Respondent's Original Expressions

Indexed Interpretations

applies to people who are above, below and around me.

But my boss, I would say, is nice and he encourages to try new things. There is no great clash of personalities. Compared to my manager, he is slightly more authoritarian and not always willing to listen and then may be eventually he will listen. He wouldn't turn out and say well you are right. On the whole, I don't have too much of a problem with him because the person with whom I am in constant touch is OK.

A4 Supportive/Non-supportive Disposition [SNsD] (+)
(encourages)
--consideration
Superiors

B Comparing

Sometimes I find that the way this place is run is not very good. Aamm ... a lot of the time, I could be doing things ... aamm ... whereas the engineers could be tied up doing this and I could do it for them. Same with the TSOs. They are trained up to certain levels and they lose their training, they are so busy operating the machines. Aamm ... it seems a waste of people so much to me. This happens all the time.

Everything is very ad hoc -- as long as we keep things moving it is OK. If there is a problem, all you have is a quick fix, and then if any disaster happens -- it just don't go ahead because they have not done it properly. It may be six months that you have contacted. Its not that they can't do it and are not capable of doing it. This situation

A4 Pressures of production [PP] (-)
(ad hoc)
-- meeting targets

Respondent's Original Expressions

Indexed Interpretations

definitely affects. You don't get the opportunity to put your learning to use as much as you like to. You feel you are not doing your job all of the time and you are doing other things, you are not getting the chance to put into practice the things, you know. There is no opportunity for it. When a crisis arises you are not getting the opportunity to try them out.

- B Reflecting
- A4 Pressures of production [PP] (-)
(not getting a chance)
-- meeting targets
- B Reflecting

I would probably say the type of course it is, the way it is run we really should have a follow up course, not really a too structured a follow up course which is where people have session of getting off with their worries and fears and anxieties.

MAM--You have enlightened me very much with the descriptions of your experiences. Thanks very much for that.

7.3 Summary

The aim of this chapter was to present and interpret the post-course data. Prior to the display of data, a brief note related to the mode of presentation and the process of interpretation was offered. The elucidation and interpretation process generated a number of synthesized transformations. These included the elements of the course that were applied, the elements ascribed as shapers that contributed positively/negatively towards the application process and finally, the processes of consciousness used in ascribing such meaning. These categories will be discussed in Chapter 9.

Chapter 8

EVALUATION OF GROUP LEADER TRAINING COURSE Discussion Of Participants' Experiential Structure Of The Training Event

This chapter discusses the participants' experiential structure of the training event and thereby addresses their evaluation of it. The experiential structure of the training event represents the pattern in which the essences are constituted in the consciousness. In Chapter 6, the essences were elucidated from participants' descriptions of the training event. They include three categories of synthesized transformations, which are the valued ends (noema), the valued end shapers (noema) and the noetic processes. This chapter contains three sections. The first section deals with the participants' experiential structure. The synthesized transformations are discussed in this section. The second section discusses the findings of this study in relation to other studies and finally, the third section summarizes the chapter. Epoché is being de-suspended while carrying out the discussions and comparisons

8.1 Evaluation Of The Training Event

Before embarking on the discussion of the experiential structure it is important to consider two questions. First, can participants' evaluation be addressed by considering their experiential structure? Second, is the experiential structure intersubjective¹? To answer both the questions, one has to focus on the naive descriptions offered by the participants. These are the descriptions of phenomena in the life-world as experienced by the participants in their natural attitude. In their natural attitude, the participants ascribed value to the course. Thus, their evaluations (i.e., ascription of value to the course or constitution of meaning in consciousness) are embedded in the naive descriptions they offered. In

1 Detail discussion on intersubjectivity, natural attitude and life-world can be found in Chapter 3

addition, participants' evaluations, made in their natural attitude, were also intersubjective. This is because the intersubjectivity of the life-world (or mundane intersubjectivity) is ontologically given. Through the phenomenological methods (i.e., epoché and eidetic reduction), participants' evaluations (that were originally implicit and embedded) were brought to the surface and were made explicit. Hence, the categories transformed and synthesized from the original descriptions retain their original meaning, and thus their evaluative significance. In addition, these second-order constructs (i.e., the transformed and synthesized categories) also retain the intersubjectivity of the first-order constructs (i.e., the original meaning ascribed) while removing the contingent particularities. Therefore, participant experiential structure is not only intersubjective, but also reveal their evaluation of the course.

It will be recalled from Chapter 6 that the interpretations of the protocols were guided by a set of questions. Each question attempted to address evaluation from a different perspective and this helped to categorize the synthesized transformations in terms of those perspectives. The following discussion is structured by those categories. The first discussion focuses on the synthesized transformations categorized as valued ends; the second discussion considers the transformations categorized as shapers contributing towards the valued ends (valued end shapers), and the third discussion takes into account those that reveal the process of consciousness.

8.1.1 The Noematic Elements : The Valued Ends

This category of synthesized transformations were elucidated to ascertain whether or not the course was viewed by the participants as meaningful in some way. As mentioned in Chapter 6, a course is likely to be meaningful and evaluated positively if it contains elements that are considered as valued ends. According to the data, a number of elements were ascribed by the participants as valued ends. These elements are considered as noematic elements because they are intentional objects (ideas) in respondents' consciousness. They include, *satisfaction ; usefulness; acquisition of knowledge, insight, skill and change of attitude; gain in*

motivation, gain in confidence; and course materials as reference. Table 8.1 displays the valued ends mentioned by respondents.

Table 8.1 Noematic Table : Valued Ends

Valued ends	Case 1	Case 2	Case 3	Case 4	Case 5	Case 6	Case 7
Satisfaction	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
Usefulness	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
Acquisition of knowledge, insight, skill/ change of attitude	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
Gain of Confidence	--	*	*	*	--	*	*
Gain of Motivation	*	*	--	--	*	--	*
Course materials as reference	--	--	--	--	*	*	--

a. Satisfaction

Satisfaction refers to the contentment obtained from the course. It connotes well being and happiness obtained from the realization of some needs or desires. Usually, we tend to avoid anything that is unpleasant, uncomfortable or painful, and instead seek the opposite. It is the experience of happiness or pleasure that makes satisfaction an aspired and desirable end in itself. Table 8.1 shows that all respondents reported satisfaction as a valued end. Phrases such as ‘good’, ‘very good’, ‘enjoyed’, ‘happy’, ‘good idea’, ‘great’ conveyed the meaning of satisfaction. The ability of the course to help realize participants' needs and thereby to provide an experience of personal pleasure, was viewed by the respondents as a positive aspect of the course. However, it may be observed from the expressions in Table 8.2 that the ‘needs’ which seem to have been realized, somehow remained obscured.

Table 8.2 Some Examples Of Articulations Expressing Obscured Needs

Case 1	1	'I thoroughly enjoyed it [the course]' p. 235.
	2	'I enjoyed actually being with them for those three days' p. 237.
	3	'I think it was a good idea for personnel to come and speak with us' p. 238.
	4	personnel is to come out in the area ... I think would be great p. 238.
Case 2	5	I thought the course was very good. p. 239.
	6	Now I know I enjoyed the course. p. 240.
	7	It was good for people to go on something like that. p. 241.
	8	I was telling them that it [the course] was very good. p. 244.
Case 3	9	The course ... was very good. p. 245.
Case 4	10	I am quite happy with the course. p. 249.
Case 5	11	The course was very good very informative. p. 252.
Case 6	12	I am happy that I went on the course. p. 264.
Case 7	13	But the course wasn't too bad. p. 269.

These expressions conveyed an overall impression of contentment and pleasure without being specific about what needs were realized and how contentment was derived. The respondents knew it-- a gut-level understanding.

It can be observed in the subsequent discussion that an element of satisfaction is also apparent in other expressions which are not categorized under 'satisfaction'. Those expressions were interpreted in terms of other valued ends (such as usefulness, acquisition of knowledge etc.) because other valued ends were more conspicuous than satisfaction. From this point of view, satisfaction may be considered as a meta-valued end. Finally, according to the descriptions offered, it is reasonable to infer that the participants evaluated the training programme favourably in terms of this valued end.

b Usefulness

Usefulness, as used here, imply gaining something from the course that can be used to improve job performance. Table 8.1 exhibits that all respondents judged usefulness as another valued end. Phrases used such as 'beneficial', 'helpful', 'valuable' etc., indicate usefulness. The expressions (see Table 8.3) that convey a generic meaning are categorized under the heading 'usefulness'.

Table 8.3 Some Example Of The Expressions Conveying The Meaning Of Usefulness

Case 1	1	'I found the course very very beneficial p. 235.
	2	I feel it helped me develop. I hope it will help me do my job better. p.237.
Case 2	3 some that is beneficial and you think something good has come out of it. p. 240.
Case 3	4	I found the course beneficial for the short term In the long term, I felt the course to be even more beneficial. p. 247.
Case 4	5	It is going to help me. p.251.
Case 5	6	I found the course highly valuable. p.260.
		I think I will use a lot of the things from the course. p.263.

These statements bear no concrete references as to what was gained, but they certainly indicate that the respondents somehow knew that the course was useful. To sharpen the focus, expressions that indicate specific gains are put under the headings of other valued ends. Finally, respondents' articulations signifying usefulness as a valued end also stress that the training programme was evaluated favourably by them.

c. Acquisition Of Knowledge, Insight, Skill/ Change Of Attitude

Table 8.1 expresses that all respondents reported some gain of knowledge, insight, skill or change of attitude as a result of the course. The respondents viewed these gains as valued ends. Table 8.4 presents the relevant articulations.

Table 8.4 Acquisition Of Knowledge, Insight, Skill / Change Of Attitude

Case 1	1	'I found out quite a bit about myself'. p. 235.
	2	' ... the course taught me a lot about myself '. p.237.
	3	It helped me to be more understanding, you know, in trying to say something to someone or explaining something to them. p. 238.
	4	Some of the girls could get rid of the things [company's personnel practices] that were annoying them. p. 238.
	5	But actually knowing what you want and explaining what you want is entirely different. p. 235.
	6	And it was amazing how people chose different people and for different reasons. p. 236.
	7	it lets you see how differently people do things, what they take out of things. p. 236.
	8	it opened my eyes ... I saw myself in a different light ... p. 238.
	9	And having been on the course, I can look at things differently now. p. 235.
Case 2	10	... we worked and learned together. p. 239.
	11	Listening to the issues and problems and the different ways of motivation ... I felt ... I should get closer to her and just find out what the situation is. p. 242.
	12	I would rather not have too much of a difference. May be, to be slightly above them and not to much in charge. I would like them to tell me all what they thought and if they thought that I was doing something wrong. p. 242.
	13	It makes you stand back and think, 'well, may be they think differently than I do of myself'. p. 240.
	14	Now, I stand back and I look at the problem, and think about it. p. 243.
	15	After the course I felt that I shouldn't have to change, just because I'm a boss. p. 242.
Case 3	16	the important thing for me was to learn how to motivate people. p. 247.
	17	it was a positive thing that the course showed how to work as a team. p.249.
	18	... on the course it was so well laid out-- 'set your stage,' 'set your chairs,'-- everything like that-- 'have your agenda,'-- things like that on the course were so well laid out p. 248.

Table 8.4 Contd. ...

Case 4	19	I took a lot from it -- how to handle people, how to motivate, the leadership thing, how to communicate effectively. p. 249-250.
	20	... made me think the way to handle people, the way to just go and tell them to [??] getting to understand and get to know other people and take their point of view of how would they feel, you know. p. 250-251.
	21	They made me think more about things I was doing, and the things I shouldn't be doing. p. 251.
Case 5	22	So it was good to have the course to explain how awkward situations can be handled. p. 253.
	23	I found out there is actually someone down in personnel you can come to and say 'what course do you run up.' p. 254.
	24	bring up issue by issue and let them ask questions about those. p. 259.
	25	It really highlighted a lot of things and also gave us the opportunity to go and see each other's areas. p. 260-261.
	26	it encouraged you to use your own initiative to do your job. p. 253.
	27	it highlighted how people work differently sitting up in a team. p. 255.
	28	And you have got to understand that what you agree is not necessarily always going to be what everybody agrees. p. 256.
	29	It can knock your confidence if you are not aware that, you know. What you say is not 'the end of'. p. 256.
	30	And you could in fact put things together. You think 'oh! yeah yeah, right.' p. 260.
	31	And there is absolutely no communication. Mos 9 would never think to go to Mos 1 and say 'we have this problem, did you have this?' 'How did you fix it?'. They are left on their own. It is as if we are in America and Mos 1 is in Scotland and it not feasible to go and talk to them. p. 261-262.
Case 6	32	I took a lot from it. It definitely helped me. p. 264.
	33	The video about the meeting helped me. I have put that into action. p. 267.

Table 8.4 Contd. ...

Case 7	34	I could see how the issues covered on the course were related to what I should be doing. p. 269.
	35	As I said, the course was very relevant. The concepts actually helped to change my mind about something ... gave me a better insights into myself someway ...p. 271.
	36	They did gave you insights. First you look at the jigsaw puzzle and the cars and you think how can they possibly be relevant, but they were very relevant. p. 273.

Before examining the gains, some remarks are in order. First, the distinctions among the items of knowledge, insight, skill or attitude, as conveyed by respondents, remained rather blurred.² Relinquishing some definitional refinement, the items of knowledge, insight, skill and attitude are discussed here as a group. This is considered appropriate because, the current discussion is about valued ends rather than the clarity of definitions. Second, the articulations do not contain reports of gain in exact details. Rather they reflect a considerable degree of non-specific tone. The expression '*I found out quite a bit about myself*' [Case 1 (1)] provides an example of such tone. However, on the whole, these expressions do contain some definitional features. Hence, it is possible to categorize them into broad themes. Table 8.5 summarizes the themes from the articulations shown in Table 8.4. Third, some authors (see Megginson and Pedler, 1975) maintain that discretionary jobs (i.e., managerial and supervisory) require knowledge, insights and skills that can be applied in a variety of situations. Hence the task of supervisory training is to expose participants to a broad based knowledge. The relative non-specific tone of

² If knowledge be regarded as assimilation of information, idea, concepts or relationships; and insight be considered as a personal rediscovery of an idea or relationship (already known but obscured in consciousness), an awareness through mental penetration, a flash of light; then to acquire an insight also implies acquisition of knowledge and vice-versa. Similarly, a skill is not a skill unless the relevant piece of knowledge is put into practice; also change of attitude requires gain of knowledge or insight. Hence, one may find an element of each in the rest.

the expressions tend to support such a view. Alternatively, it could also be said that the ambiguity in the reports indicate a lack of gain (or learning). The following discussion of the themes of gains (of knowledge, insight, skill, and attitude) will indicate that it is not so.

Table 8.5 Various Themes Of Gain (Of Knowledge, Insight, Skill, And Attitude) Mentioned By Respondents

Gain of knowledge and insight of--	Case and Quote Nos. from Table 8.4
i. self	Case 1 (1, 2, 8), Case 4 (21), Case 7 (35).
ii. communication	Case 1 (5), Case 4 (19, 20).
Gain of knowledge of--	
i. interpersonal interaction	Case 1 (3), Case 2 (12), Case 4 (19, 20), Case 5 (22).
ii. the work place	Case 1 (4), Case 5 (23, 25), Case 7 (34)
iii. motivation	Case 2 (11), Case 3 (16), Case 4 (19).
iv. leadership and team work	Case 3 (17), Case 4 (19)
Gain of insight about--	
i. individual difference	Case 1 (6, 7), Case 2 (13), Case 5 (27, 28, 29)
ii. importance of personal initiative	Case 5 (26)
iii. theoretical concepts and relationships	Case 5 (30), Case 7 (36)
iv. necessity to change present company practices	Case 5 (31)
Gain of skill	
i. problem solving	Case 2 (14)
ii. managing meeting	Case 3 (18), Case 5 (24), Case 6 (33)
Change of attitude	Case 1 (9), Case 2 (15), Case 7 (35)

Knowledge And Insight Of Self

A gain of self knowledge was reported by Case 1 (1, 2) and Case 4 (21) [see Table 8.4 and Table 8.5]. Case 4 (21) held that the course enabled her to contemplate on her job practices and thereby, acquire a better

understanding of them. An acquisition of knowledge, through such contemplation, can be very useful in dealing with the diverse situations which a discretionary job is exposed to. A gain of insight about self was reported by Case 1 (8) and Case 7 (35). Case 1 (8) acquired a new perspective about herself and said-- '*it opened my eyes ... I saw myself in a different light.*' This dramatic expression manifests a profound implication of the training programme, suggesting that the participants evaluated the programme favourably.

Knowledge And Insight Of Communication

A gain of knowledge of communication was reported by Case 1 (5) and Case 4 (19, 20) [see Table 8.4 and Table 8.5]. The communication skills used by the course facilitator, helped Case 1 (5) gain insights about the limitations of her own practices as a trainer. She realized that one does not automatically communicate better even if one knows what needs to be done; better communication requires deliberate efforts.

Knowledge Of Interpersonal Interaction

The knowledge of interpersonal interaction, as a gain, was reported by Case 1 (3), Case 2 (12), Case 4 (19, 20) and Case 5 (22) [see Table 8.4 and Table 8.5]. They learned the importance of becoming more sympathetic and understanding toward others and to appreciate others point of view.

Knowledge Of The Work Place

Case 1 (4), Case 5 (23, 25) and Case 7 (34) [see Table 8.4 and Table 8.5] mentioned about acquiring some knowledge of the work place by being on the course. For Case 1 and Case 5 the course offered an opportunity to acquire knowledge of the company's personnel policies and practices. They appreciated the personnel staff's contribution in the course. Various issues of specific and general interest, including training, were discussed. Further Case 3 reported gaining knowledge of work practices in other areas of the plant through on-course and post-course interactions among the

participants. Being new in the group leader's job, Case 7 realized that the course helped her to clarify her understanding of the job requirements.

Knowledge Of Motivation

Reports of the acquisitions of knowledge of motivation will be found in Case 2 (11), Case 3 (16), and Case 4 (19) [see Table 8.4 and Table 8.5]. Given the necessity of collective effort in Case 3's job, she perceived motivation as something of considerable value. For Case 2, the course helped her develop a solution to the motivational problems she was having with one of her co-workers. The crucial point that emerges from her expression is that the course enabled her to ascribe a meaning (of the process of motivation) through internalization of the concepts in terms of the problem personally experienced. This strongly reflected that Case 2 positively valued the course. To Case 4 (19), the course was also valuable as she gained considerable knowledge of motivation from it.

Knowledge Of Leadership And Team Work

Case 4 (19) also reported gain of knowledge of leadership. A gain of knowledge of team work was mentioned by Case 3 (17) [see Table 8.4 and Table 8.5]. As mentioned earlier her (Case 3) job involved collective effort, hence, she considered the issues and problems of team work as of considerable value.

Awareness Of Individual Difference

Case 1 (6, 7), Case 2 (13) and Case 5 (27, 28, 29) all reported gains of insight of individual difference [see Table 8.4 and Table 8.5]. To them, individual difference reflected difference of opinion, difference in reasoning pattern, difference in meaning ascribed, difference in action and difference in perspective. The realization demonstrated a profound implication for them. Expressions such as '*amazing*' [Case 1(6)], '*makes you stand back and think*' [Case 2 (13)], '*have got to understand*' [Case 5 (28)], '*can knock your confidence*' [Case 5 (29)] convey such an implication.

Awareness Of The Importance Of Personal Initiative

The realization of the importance of personal initiative was reflected in Case 5 (26)'s expression [see Table 8.4 and Table 8.5]. She discovered that the course was not meant to provide recipes to improve job performance, but instead it aimed to assist participants to take personal initiative towards problem solving.

Awareness Of Theoretical Concepts And Relationships

The gain of insights into various theoretical concepts and relationships were reported by Case 5 and Case 7 [see Table 8.4 and Table 8.5]. The expressions '*Oh! yeah yeah, right*' [Case 5 (30)]; '*did give you insights*' [Case 7 (36)] dramatically convey the profundity of such realization. Both the Cases reported to have gained such realization through the establishment of linkages between the learning activities and the aspects of the work place.

Awareness Of The Necessity To Change Company's Existing Practices

Case 5 (31) highlighted the lack of communication and interaction between the manufacturing areas as a dysfunctional aspect of the company's practices [see Table 8.4 and Table 8.5]. The expressions '*one of the co-ordinators was absolutely shocked that I was there*', '*don't let them in here*', '*pre-historic attitude*', '*them and us*', strongly suggest that the problem is ingrained in the company's culture [see protocol p. 261-262]. The metaphor used, i.e., '*we are in America and Mos 1 is in Scotland*', remarkably highlighted the degree of isolation between the manufacturing areas [see protocol p. 261]. The course elevated her awareness as to the need to change such practices.

Acquisition Of Skills For Solving Problems

A shift of approach in problem solving was reported by Case 2 (14) [see Table 8.4 and Table 8.5]. She mentioned that, as a result of the course, she

learned to think and plan carefully before she actually engaged to solve any problem. She further reported that after the course she communicated better while dealing with a problem.

Acquisition Of Skills For Managing Meeting

Case 3 (18), Case 5 (24) and Case 6 (33) [see Table 8.4 and Table 8.5] considered the skill of managing meeting as of considerable value. To them the course highlighted some ways of effective and efficient management of meetings.

Change Of Attitude

Reports of change of attitude can be found in Case 1 (9), Case 2 (15), and Case 7 (35) [see Table 8.4 and Table 8.5]. It may be recalled from the foregoing discussion that the course helped Case 1 (8) to acquire a new dimension of self knowledge. She [Case 1 (9)] further reported that such an acquisition also enabled her to change attitude towards things around her. A similar change of attitude may be observed in Case 7 (35)'s articulation. The phrases '*change my mind*' reflects such meaning. Case 2 (15) mentioned a change of attitude towards her subordinates. Instead of maintaining distance from the subordinates, she felt more confident to move closer to them.

The respondents' expressions (containing illustrations of relatively specific items of gain) demonstrate that they considered 'acquisition of knowledge, insight, skill and change of attitude' as a valued end. Hence, this suggests that the participants evaluated the training programme favourably in terms of these gains.

d Gain Of Confidence

The articulations of Case 2, Case 4, Case 6 and Case 7 reveal gain in confidence as another valued end [see Table 8.1 and Table 8.6]. All respondents were newly appointed to a post that was also new to the company. As will be seen later (in the discussion of job exposure), the

participants had a vague idea of the job requirements. In addition to providing a theoretical exposure, the course also offered an opportunity to work out participants' apprehensions and concerns (of the new job). From this perspective the respondents viewed the course as a significant exercise. The expressions, such as Case 2 (3), Case 3 (5), Case 4 (6), Case 6 (8), and Case 7 (9), bear explicit testimony of strengthening one's belief in one's ability as a result of the training programme. The expressions-- '*... someone else has had the same experience*' [Case 2 (1)], '*... you realized that you experience the same problems*' [Case 2 (2)]; '*... to find out that you weren't alone*' [Case 2 (4)]; and '*realize that other people felt the same way. You are not the one and only*' [Case 6(7)]-- also indicate that confidence was gained by establishing mental solidarity through the identification of one's own experience with that of other participants. Therefore, the expressions, as provided by the respondents, signify a positive evaluation of the training programme through identification of gain of confidence.

Table 8.6 Gain Of Confidence

Case 2	1	In bringing it out, you feel that someone else has had the same experience. p. 241.
	2	listening to the girls, you realised that you experience the same problems. p. 241.
	3	I feel more confident as a result of the course. p. 243.
	4	... to find out that you weren't alone. p. 244.
Case 3	5	My level of confidence has increased as a direct result of the course. p. 246.
Case 4	6	I am getting more confident now. p. 251.
Case 6	7	realise that other people felt the same way. You are not the one and only. p. 264.
	8	The course did help with my confidence. p. 266.
Case 7	9	My confidence was zero before the course and now the course boosted my confidence. p. 270.
	10	it certainly gave me the confidence to go out. p. 273.

e. Gain Of Motivation

Motivational gain also emerged from the articulations provided by the respondents as another valued end [see Table 8.1 and Table 8.7]. The expressions in Case 1 (2) and Case 7 (4) categorically conveyed an increase of motivation. However, the expressions-- *'felt really really a great deal and hope for ... go towards the job'* [Case 1(1)] and *'the contents ... makes you more willing to go and try harder and develop yourself'* [Case 5(3)] -- convey an implicit recognition of such increase. The expressions denote that the participants evaluated the training programme favourably.

Table 8.7 Gain Of Motivation

Case 1	1	I personally felt really, really a great deal and hope for ... go towards the job. p. 238.
Case 2	2	It has increased my motivation. p. 243.
Case 5	3	... but taken the contents, for one, which makes you more willing to go and try harder and develop yourself. You have the course backing behind you. p. 260.
Case 7	4	The course did help me. I got motivated morep. 270.

f. Course Materials As Reference

This is the final category of valued end to emerge from the collected protocols [see Table 8.1 and Table 8.8]. Case 5 (1) and Case 6 (2) considered the course materials and the course notes as valuable. Something is preserved when it is believed to be of use in the future. Case 5 and Case 6 preserved the course materials perceiving them as guide-lines to which they could refer back when such needs arose. From this perspective they evaluated the course favourably.

Table 8.8 Course Materials As Reference

Case 5	1	The notes I have, I can always refer back to those notes. I can always think back to the exercises we did any time I want to do anything ... aamm ... [??] what came out of the exercises and what came out of the discussions. p. 263.
Case 6	2	We will be able to look back on our notes and pull it out in the long term. p. 267.

8.1.2 The Noematic Elements : The Valued End Shapers

So far, evaluation has been addressed from the perspective of the valued ends. The discussion now addresses evaluation from a different perspective, i.e., that of the shapers. It was mentioned earlier in chapter 6 that the identification (implicit or explicit) of the shapers and the ascription of certain relationships (positive / negative contribution of the shapers towards valued ends) also indicated respondents' awareness of the value of the course. Therefore, going beyond the simple ascription of meaning of valued ends, this discussion now addresses evaluation at the depth of experience through the exploration of the ascribed relationships between the shapers and the valued ends. It can be noted that, to the respondents, these valued end shapers (as perceived by them) form an integral part of the training process. The valued end shapers are viewed as elements that mould³ the training milieu so that the perceived valued ends may (or may not) be achieved. Like the valued ends, the valued end shapers are also the intentional objects (relationship) in their consciousness. Hence, they are categorized as noematic elements. Table 8.9 highlights the valued end shapers that were perceived by the respondents as contributing positively or negatively towards the valued ends. The ten shapers were *job exposure (JE)*, *pre-course communication (PcC)*, *relevance (R)*, *communicativeness (Cn)*, *involvement (I)*, *nature of learning climate (NLC)*, *control over learning (COL)*, *cross-fertilization of*

³ The phrases 'mould' and 'shaper' are not used here to imply a deterministic causal connection between the shapers and the valued ends. Rather, they merely carry a meaning of a pattern of relationship as ascribed by the experiencer, albeit non-deterministic. This non-deterministic relationship will be explored in greater detail in Chapter 9.

ideas and experiences (CfIE), course composition (CC) and physical facilities (PF). Each shaper will now be discussed below in turn.

Table 8.9 Noematic Table : Shapers Perceived By The Respondents As Contributing Positively/ Negatively Towards The Valued Ends

Shapers	Case 1	Case 2	Case 3	Case 4	Case 5	Case 6	Case 7
a. Job Exposure (JE)	+	-	-	-----	-	-	-
b. Pre-course Communication (PcC)	-	-	-	+	-	-	-
c. Relevance (R)	+	+	+?	+	+	+?	+
d. Communicativeness (Cn)	+	+	-----	+	+	+?	+?
e. Involvement (I)	+	+	+	+	+	+?	+
f. Nature Of Learning Climate (NLC)	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
g. Control Over Learning (COL)	+	-----	+?	+	+	-----	+
h. Cross-fertilization Of Ideas And Experience (CfIE)	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
i. Course Composition (CC)	-----	-----	+	+	-----	-----	+
j. Physical Facilities (PF)	-----	-----	-----	-?	-----	-----	-

Note : The note of interrogation indicate reservations or mixed perceptions

a. Job Exposure (JE)

Job Exposure (JE) refers to the degree of familiarity with the job. The expressions in the protocol suggest that the participants evaluated the training programme negatively in terms of job exposure. The majority of participants were yet to take up the job of group leaders, and were not familiar with it. Table 8.9 shows that, except for Case 4, all the respondents reported about job exposure. The expressions referring to JE are presented in Table 8.10.

Table 8.10 shows that Case 1 (1) perceived JE to be adequate and reported that she was briefed 'properly' and 'fully' as to what she was required to do in her job at that moment. Other respondents (Case 2, Case 3, Case 5, Case 6, Case 7) perceived JE to have been inadequate. According to respondents'

Table 8.10 Articulations Referring To Job Exposure (JE)

Case 1	1	But at the moment, I was explained properly and fully what I am expected to do. p. 234.
Case 2	2	I didn't know much about the course or even about the job I shall be doing. p. 239.
Case 3	3	I told them what I thought was entailed. They didn't confirm nor deny. So far, I still haven't had anything official telling me what the job entails, so it only my own perception of what the job is. So, I felt sometimes removed. p. 244.
	4	I never had the luxury of knowing what to take from the course. p. 245.
	5	the girls themselves don't know what the job of Group Leader entails. p. 245.
	6	But because I did not know what the job involved, how would the course itself relate to the job-- p. 246.
	7	I feel that if I had known more about the job beforehand I could have picked out more relevant parts-- things that would have been more relevant to my job. But at the time, I was just totally unaware. p. 247.
	8	I feel certainly that with hands-on experience it would be much better the second time round. Then you could be more involved. p. 248-249.
	9	I felt that if I would have had the hands-on experience, at that point, I would certainly have been able to gain more or take more from the course. p. 249.
Case 5	10	The problem being ... aamm ... I came in blind; which is a [<i>company</i>] policy as it were. By the time you see you are in a new job they walk away and leave you. You find that you are all with yourself. This is OK sometimes, but not ideal. p. 252.
	11	And they are not very forthcoming and giving you back-up. p. 253.
Case 6	12	I knew nothing about what was expected. There was no discussion about the job or the course. p. 263.
	13	It wasn't a good situation. We should have had a discussion with the immediate management to find out exactly what was expected. There was nothing like that. p. 264.
	14	there was no come-back as if to say 'yes that's right' and 'no that's not right.' We have not been formally communicated of the job. p. 264.
	15	He did as well as he could do with a group of people who were quite unhappy about not knowing what we were supposed to be doing. p. 266-267.
Case 7	16	I didn't get the answers from what I was told about the job or the course. p. 269.

descriptions, the lack of job exposure was due to management's lack of clarity about the job requirements. Phrases such as '*they didn't confirm or deny*' [Case 3 (3)] or '*there was no come back*' [Case 6 (14)] indicate the point just made. In addition, communication problem was also identified. Expressions such as '*I never had the luxury of knowing*' [Case 3 (4)], '*they walk away and leave you.*' [Case 5 (10)], '*not very forthcoming*' [Case 5 (11)] and '*no discussion about the job*' [Case 6(12)] indicate the problem.

Having highlighted the perceptions, let us consider the relationship between JE and the valued ends. This relationship remained largely implicit in the articulations. However, explicit remarks were also found. For example, the articulations offered by Case 3 (7, 8, 9) indicate a perception of a relationship between knowing-the-job-better (i.e., JE) and gaining-more-from-the-course (valued ends). The articulations in Table 8.10 also indicate that JE was perceived to have negatively contributed towards the valued ends. The ascription of negative value was conveyed by such phrases as '*removed*' (Case 3), '*never had the luxury of knowing*' (Case 3), '*uneasiness*' (Case 3), '*confusing*' (Case 3), '*came in blind*' (Case 5), '*quite unhappy about not knowing*' (Case 6), '*didn't get the answers*' (Case 7). The foregoing analysis illustrate that the timing of the course was not evaluated favourably from the point of view of JE. The ^{phrase} '*second time round*' in Case 3 (8) highlights the point.

b. Pre-course Communication (PcC)

Pre-course communication (PcC) refers to the training related communication among the stakeholders prior to the commencement of the programme. The aim of PcC is to sort out mutual expectations and to provide an orientation to the participants. PcC emerged from the protocols as another element shaping the valued ends. In terms of this valued end shaper, the training programme was also evaluated negatively by the participants (see Table 8.9). The reference to PcC can be found in the articulations provided by all the respondents. Table 8.11 lists the articulations.

**Table 8.11 Articulations Referring To Pre-course
Communication (PcC)**

Case 1	1	I really didn't know much about the course. I only knew it was a group leader course, but I had no idea about what it would actually entail, what in actual fact it was. p. 234.
Case 2	2	I was unsure of what I am going into, p. 239.
Case 3	3	we were told nothing about the course. We had no idea at all. p. 244.
Case 4	4	I did know well in advance that I will be on the course, p. 249.
Case 5	5	Just a generalization 'it's a man-management'. I think a bit of information before we went on the course would have prepared me a bit more for it. If I had a better understanding of what was going to be involved then I would have gone into the course perhaps with questions I wanted to ask or issues I wanted to bring up. You tend to try and imagine more what it's going to be like. It could easily build up your expectations. You go in there thinking 'they are going to tell me how to do my job,' but as a matter of fact it didn't tell you how to do your job it encouraged you to use your own initiative to do your job. p. 253.
Case 6	6	I felt as if, we went to the course and did not know what was expected of us. We therefore didn't know what to look out for on the course. We didn't really know what would be relevant to us. p. 263.
Case 7	7	I went there without knowing what I might be experiencing. p. 268.
	8	I didn't have any preparation for the course. If I had some idea, I think it would have let me think about the things, get things straight in my own head. Naturally, you ask yourself, What am I going to do on the course? What is it I am expected to take from it? What is it I am required to do in my job? How does the course relate to what I am expected to do in my job? What are my strengths and weaknesses as far as the role of group leader is concerned? p. 268-269.

Although Case 4 knew that she was to attend the training programme, her articulation [Case 4 (4)] does not provide any clue as to how detailed the communication was (see Table 8.11). Table 8.11 further highlights that the remaining respondents overwhelmingly perceived the state of PcC to have been inadequate. Inadequate PcC left the participants unprepared

[see Case 7 (8) in Table 8.11]. They remained uncertain as to what to expect from the course [see Case 2 (2) and Case 6 (6) in Table 8.11] and had difficulty in identifying the contents that were relevant to them [see Case 6 (6) in Table 8.11]. Case 5 and Case 7 indicated that one was likely to speculate in such a state of unpreparedness and uncertainty. Furthermore, speculation increases the possibility of a mismatch between expectation and actual experience, thereby leading to dissatisfaction.

The articulations in Table 8.11 provide clues about the relationship between PcC and the valued ends. The remark by Case 5 (5) highlights such a relationship [see Table 8.11]. She emphasized that adequate information (PcC) would have enabled her to prepare herself better for the course, and would thus have contributed more towards her learning. The articulations suggest that inadequate PcC negatively contributed towards her learning (acquisition of knowledge, insight, skill and change of attitude -- a valued end). Phrases (for example, '*no idea*', '*unsure*', '*no idea at all*', '*not good*') also support a negative assessment of the relationship. Therefore, it may be inferred that the respondents evaluated the training programme negatively from the point of view of pre-course communication.

c. *Relevance (R)*

Relevance refers to the correspondence between job requirements and course contents. The training programme was evaluated positively by the participants in terms of relevance. All respondents reported that the course was relevant to their job (see Table 8.9). Respondents also ascribed relevance as a shaper contributing towards the achievement of the valued ends. Table 8.12 lists the articulations provided by the respondents.

Table 8.12 shows that these expressions are diverse. Articulations provided by Case 2 (3); Case 3 (5); Case 5 (11, 12, 14, 18, 21, 22); Case 6 (23, 26); and Case 7 (30, 31) indicate that the course contents were, on the whole, relevant to the job. Case 1 (1); Case 3 (6, 7); Case 4 (10); and Case 5 (13, 15, 20) identified specific contents of the course with specific aspects/ problems of the job. The specific aspects of the job that were identified were, *interaction with co-workers* [Case 1 (1)], *managing meetings* [Case 3 (6)],

Table 8.12 Articulations Referring To Relevance (R)

Case 1	1	It means that when you are handing over to a person you know, you feel on better terms. p. 237.
Case 2	2	the car and the video-- they brought it to light-- because this is exactly what happens. p. 240.
	3	To experience what happens in different areas and to find out that other areas are having the same problems as you. p. 241.
	4	The examples that were used were quite familiar. p. 241.
Case 3	5	The course was quite relevant in all areas. p. 246.
	6	it certainly helps if you know how to make them feel like part of a team rather than like three different sections; which we really are just now. p. 247.
	7	I hold meetings with my own group. p. 247.
	8	Again, we never really hit on communication problems. We did, once or twice, hit on it. p.248.
	9	There were some parts that I felt quite irrelevant to my experience. p. 249
Case 4	10	I think the course was really relevant in dealing with different people and the aspect of different people. p. 250.
Case 5	11	I was a group leader anyway and I knew man-management course is obviously going to-- it indicated me that it is going to give me some knowledge of how to manage people and I knew I have to manage people. So, I wanted go on a course like that to try and better what I do. p. 254.
	12	I knew it was relevant to what I was doing. p. 254.
	13	Aamm ... it showed that, even though from my point of view, looking at it from my area, me going back into the area, I could sit down with my team on day shift and we could decide on something we could agree that it is really a good idea and go ahead and implement it. And [Sharon], who works in twilight shift in my area, could come up with a completely a different idea with valid reasons for it. p. 255-256.
	14	The course was highly relevant. Again, because we have been doing the job and the Mos 9 people have been doing the job; so it was helpful. So, from the job point of view I find the course was very relevant. p. 258.
	15	One of the things I find was really relevant was, ... aa ... aa ... having meetings. p. 258.

Table 8.12 Contd. ...

	16	The very first thing we brought up, we actually discussed it between us afterwards was-- p. 259.
	17	You would have a situation, or an exercise, ... aa ... and he would always relate it back to the actual work and he would ask you could you relate that back to what you are doing, p. 259.
	18	The things that came up the issues that came up could really be related straight back into things that either happened to you or the situations you think will-- you know. p. 260.
	19	I have now been over to Mos 1 and [Fiona], who is my equivalent in Mos 1, is going to give me a phone when she has the time to come to Mos 9. And its good to see the different issues. p. 261.
	20	And there is absolutely no communication. Mos 9 would never think to go to Mos 1 and say 'we have this problem, did you have this?' 'How did you fix it?'. They are left on their own. It is as if we are in America and Mos 1 is in Scotland and it is not feasible to go and talk to them. p. 261.
	21	Aamm ... then you do have to have management skills if you have even one person underneath you. You have got to be able to manage that person. p. 262.
	22	It gave a lot of generalized management ideas that you can set into practice in your area. p. 262.
Case 6	23	A lot of it was near to what I could see happening, quite realistic. p. 265.
	24	I can't see us going higher due to this course. p. 265.
	25	[The course facilitator] didn't even know. He was just covering the general issues, like motivation and leadership A lot of the course was relevant. It was good as a general course. But We were looking for specifics. It will help us but it won't be highly helpful. p. 265.
	26	It was very relevant. p. 266.
	27	May be some of the things, he could have spent more time on, like holding meetings. Fine, we had the video at the end. That is an aspect of the job that we are going to have to be competent in and do it without even thinking about it. It is one of the hardest things about my job. p. 266.
	28	It didn't make me any more aware of my job at [the company] because it was very general, not specific. p. 267.
	29	He went on about awkward situations for 10 minutes. I know that I am going to have an awkward situation. p. 267.

Table 8.12 Contd. ...

Case 7	30	I could see how the issues covered on the course were related to what I should be doing. p. 269.
	31	As I said, the course was very relevant. The concepts actually helped to change my mind about something and gave me a better insights into myself someway, and again the theories I have never heard of. p. 271-272.
	32	but they were very relevant. p. 273.

Case 5 (15)], *interpersonal relations* [Case 4 (10)] and *individual difference* [Case 5 (13)]. The problems included, *lack of team work* [Case 3 (6)] and *lack of communication* [Case 5 (20)]. Certain reservations may also be observed in the articulations. Although Case 3 and Case 6 found the course largely relevant, but certain elements of it, which they considered to be more relevant, in their view, received inadequate coverage [Case 3 (8), Case 6 (27, 29)]. These topics included communication, managing meetings and handling awkward situations. Case 6 expressed the view that she expected the course to concentrate on specific issues, whereas, it actually focused on general ones [Case 6 (25)]. Hence the course did not make her more aware of her job [Case 6 (28)]. Both Case 3 (9) and Case 6 (24) found some parts of the content not to be relevant to their experience or future positions in the company. Finally Case 2, Case 5 and Case 7 commented on the training methods which used materials perceived by them as relevant. For Case 2, the examples used in lectures and discussions were familiar. She [Case 2 (2)] also perceived that the exercises and video reflected the work situation and mentioned that '*the car ... [exercise] ... and the video-- they brought it to light-- because this is exactly what happens.*' Case 5 and Case 7 found the exercises particularly relevant.

Having identified the perceptions on relevance, let us consider the perception of relationship between relevance and the valued ends. While the signs of relationship remained largely implicit in the expressions, explicit references may also be traced. For example, in Case 5 (14) [see Table 8.12] one gets a distinct indication of such a relationship. The term 'relevant' conveys a correspondence between the job requirements and

the course contents. The phrase *'So it was helpful'* expresses the realization of a valued end (i.e., usefulness) as a result of such correspondence. Put in another way, it may be argued that something which is not relevant to the job is not also useful for it. Hence, one can interpret relevance as a shaper contributing towards the valued ends. As the articulations in Table 8.12 suggest, the contribution of relevance towards the valued ends were largely perceived as positive. However, in most cases, [as illustrated by Case 5 (18)] the positive value remained implicit in the expressions. Stronger evidence of positiveness may also be found in the articulations. For example, in Case 5 (16) the positive value of relevance was expressed by the urgency and enthusiasm espoused, and also by the importance underscored through the active engagement of the participants (to sort out a job problem in the light of the course ideas). Besides, phrases such as *'certainly helps'*, *'quite'*, *'highly'*, *'gave a lot'* etc. also indicate positiveness. Therefore, the forgoing discussion suggests that the participants evaluated the course favourably from the point of view of relevance of the course contents.

d. Communicativeness (Cn)

Communicativeness (Cn) refers to the state of communication during a training session, i.e., whether or not messages are well received by the individuals addressed. Communicativeness also emerged, as a valued end shaper, from the articulations offered. According to the articulations, the course was evaluated favourably by the participants in terms of communicativeness. Table 8.9 shows that except for Case 3, all respondents referred to communicativeness. The articulations expressing communicativeness are shown in Table 8.13.

Table 8.13 shows that while references to communicativeness remained implicit in a number of expressions, some contained explicit clues. Using the phrase *'getting it across'*, Case 5 (4) highlighted an unhindered state of communication. More evidence of unhindered communication included, *'He carried us along with him'* [Case 2 (2)], *'explaining what he was doing'* [Case 7 (11)], *'videos a bit better, a bit visual'* [Case 7 (11)]. Two other expressions [Case 7 (12, 13)] referred to an unhindered state of

Table 8.13 Articulations Referring To Communicativeness (Cn)

Case 1	1	The exercises, that we task, we have done I found that very helpful. p. 235.
Case 2	2	His presentation was also very good. He carried us along with him. You felt as if he was on your level, not like a teacher. You understood him. p. 240-241.
Case 4	3	I enjoyed doing the exercises very much, enjoyed the videos and also the discussions and the lectures. I felt they have done the job they meant doing. You do learn from them they were effective. p. 250.
Case 5	4	He was getting it across what he wanted to say. p. 255.
	5	The videos were helpful ... personally I think videos tend to make you fall asleep. Don't know what is. I think, if you set people in a room set a television on and that's that. Not enough. That sort of thing. They are helpful. You do get some information out of that but I don't think you pull every thing right out of them. p. 257.
Case 6	6	The lectures were not very helpful and not practical. p. 264.
	7	The videos were good because you could see it happening. I took a lot from it. p. 264.
	8	He covered everything very well. His style was good. p.266.
Case 7	9	[The course facilitator], who took the course, was very good at doing that anyway--explaining what he was doing. p. 269.
	10	I think the lecture was middle of the road. As far as communicating to people, it is good but for a short time. After a while you tend to loose concentration because you can only sit and listen to some one not for long. p. 270.
	11	Videos -- a bit better, a bit more visual. p.270.
	12	I liked how he started with a theory and then expand it and then went on to another theory 'nc this might be better'. A nice progression of that. p. 272.
	13	the motivation and leadership and communication all tied in nicely. p. 272.
	14	they did follow and understand and if they didn't he would ask -- which is important. Everything was brought out to common everyday terms. p. 272.

communication. This suggests that the contents and ideas were tied together in such a way that the links between them were comprehensible. It will be noticed from the descriptions, that this shaper was related to the training methods. The respondents experienced that the exercises, discussions, videos, and lecture all helped to communicate concepts, ideas,

etc. They particularly emphasized the exercises and discussions. While Cases 5, 6 and 7 maintained reservations regarding lectures and videos, others found these methods helpful in fostering communications. According to Case 5, videos are helpful but not enough. She indicated a disruption of communication when she said '*... they tend to make you fall asleep*' [Case 5 (5)]. Similarly, Case 6 (6) and Case 7 (10) experienced that communications, to some extent, were impaired by the lecture method.

The relationship between communicativeness and the valued ends can be observed in a number of articulations. The expression '*they have done the job they meant doing, you do learn from them*' [Case 4 (3)] strongly suggests that better communication facilitated her learning (i.e., a valued end). Further evidence can be found in Case 6 (7). The phrase [in Case 6 (7)] '*could see it happening*' convey the meaning that something was communicated and the phrase [also in Case 6 (7)] '*I took a lot from it*' conveyed a gain or a valued end (e.g., usefulness). The two statements taken as a whole, indicate the relationship between communicativeness and valued ends. The expressions cited above, also reveal that, as a shaper, communicativeness largely contributed positively towards the valued ends. The expression, '*His presentation was also very good ... You understood him*' [Case 2 (2)], provided another example that strongly suggests a positive contribution. Besides, a positive contribution may be inferred from phrases such as '*excellent*', '*very effective*', '*well*', '*better*', '*nice*', '*important*', '*helpful*', '*very good*', '*enjoyed*' etc.

The foregoing discussion suggests that the participants evaluated communicativeness as one of the strengths of the training programme.

e. Involvement (I)

Involvement refers to a participant's state of physical and mental attachment with the course. The expressions offered by the respondents indicated that the participants evaluated the degree of involvement in the course activities as one of its strengths. Involvement was perceived to be positively contributing towards the attainment of the valued ends. All respondents (see Table 8.9) reported of being involved in the course

activities. Table 8.14 highlights the expressions made in relation to involvement.

Table 8.14 Articulations Referring To Involvement (I)

Case 1	1	The videos were good from the point of view that we were split into two groups. p. 236.
	2	I feel the tasks-- because it was something you are really doing, you know, and the same with the group discussions-- we were really entering into it. p. 236.
	3	The lectures and videos-- they were good but they weren't, to me, as good as were the tasks and the group discussions were. p.236.
Case 2	4	[course facilitator] had your attention. p. 240.
	5	This was a lot more interesting than I thought it would be. p.240.
Case 3	6	it was certainly very interesting. p.244.
	7	The exercises were very beneficial because everyone participated. I found that excellent. p. 246.
	8	The videos again were very good because, again it got everyone thinking and participating. We all had our own view points and shared them. p.246.
	9	Group discussions were also very beneficial because, again, we all participated. p. 246.
	10	and willing to join in. p. 246.
	11	In the exercises, we were involved in motivating ourselves. p. 246.
Case 4	12	Everybody was encouraged to participate and we were all very much involved both physically and mentally. p. 250.
	13	It was good everybody was putting all their interest. All the energies were flying about. p. 251.
Case 5	14	He was always, all the time, going back to say to think of this from my job point of view. p. 259-260.
Case 6	15	If you can motivate your team through group discussion, I think that's good. p. 264.
	16	Everyone didn't participate equally. p. 265.
	17	it was pretty low in terms of mixing with different individuals. You still stuck to your little group. p. 265.
	18	The fact that I wanted to learn was an important thing. A lot has to come from yourself and you take what you need to know. p. 267.
Case 7	19	gave you plenty of opportunity to bring up your own points. p. 269.

Table 8. 14 Contd. ...

20	exercises, because you are participating ... aamm ... you are seeing the pitfalls, you are seeing the good points. I find it very helpful. p. 270.
21	I find that because there was a lot of opportunity to participate. Aamm ... again [<i>the course facilitator</i>] had put the course- did use situations personal to you and you could discuss or expand it well. p. 270-271.
22	most of the time I thought it was nice that he tried to give you an example. He gave you a personal example -- which helps. p. 272.
23	He was always asking for your own input and circumstances. p. 272.
24	I found the atmosphere was set for learning by the people on the course and by [<i>the course facilitator</i>]. He got everyone on his side right away and I think everyone there to learn. There was nobody that 'oh! I am not here' or 'I can't learn anything'. p. 272-273.
25	You are just been in, you didn't need to be waking up and get out there, p. 273.

Table 8.14 suggests the degree of involvement. For example expressions such as -- '*we were really entering into it.*' [Case 1 (2)]; '*[course facilitator] had your attention.*' [Case 2 (4)]; '*lot more interesting*' [Case 2 (5)]; '*willing to join in*' [Case 3 (10)]; '*very much involved both physically and mentally*' [Case 4 (12)]; '*All the energies were flying about*' [Case 4 (13)]; '*You are just been in, you didn't need to be waking up and get out there*' [Case 7 (25)] indicate a high degree of involvement and participation. However, one also notices some reservation in the expressions. Although Case 6 (15, 18) acknowledged some degree of involvement, she felt that the degree of involvement was not adequate [see expressions 16, 17 in Table 8.14]. Finally all respondents [except Case 2 (5, 6)] provided expressions of involvement which contained references (implicit or explicit) to the training methods. The respondents perceived that the methods which were used, ensured a high degree of involvement. According to the respondents, exercises, discussions, and videos ensured the most involvement. The lecture was not explicitly mentioned as ensuring involvement. However, it would not be fair to conclude that the presentation was totally a one-way communication (i.e., the facilitator talked and the participants listened). Despite the lack of explicit reference to lectures, the expressions in Table 8.14 overwhelmingly suggest that a

high degree of involvement prevailed in general including when the lectures were going on. For example --'You are just been in, you didn't need to be waking up and get out there' [Case 7 (25)] indicates that, on the whole, the participants were involved. The very nature of lecture (i.e., a teacher-based activity) may be attributable to its low profile in securing participant's involvement.

The relationship between involvement and the valued ends may also be discerned from the articulations offered by Case 2 (4), Case 3 (7, 9) and Case 7 (24). For example, consider the statement offered by Case 7 (24). The phrase *'He got everyone on his side right away ... '* is indicative of involvement. One also observes some elements of participants' dispositions to learn, enthusiasm, spontaneity and an immersion of oneself in the process in the remaining part of the expression (i.e., *"There was nobody that 'oh! I am not here' or 'I can't learn anything'"*)--[Case 7 (24)]. A relationship of involvement and learning (i.e., acquisition of knowledge, insight, skill and change of attitude--a valued end) can be inferred from the whole statement. Other examples of relationship include--*I felt better* [satisfaction-- a valued end] *because [course facilitator] had your attention* [involvement]' [Case 2 (5)]; and *'The exercises were very beneficial* [usefulness-- a valued end] *because everyone participated* [involvement]' [Case 3 (8)]. These illustrations further indicate that involvement was perceived to be contributing positively towards the valued ends. In addition, the respondents also used phrases such as 'good', 'excellent', 'nice', 'helpful', 'been in', 'certainly very interesting' etc. to convey a positive contribution.

A recognition of the high degree of involvement and the ascription of its positive contribution towards the valued ends suggest that the participants evaluated the course favourably.

f. Nature Of Learning Climate (NLC)

The nature of learning climate (NLC) refers to the character of the milieu within which the experience of learning takes place. As a valued end shaper, NLC also emerged from the articulations offered. The articulations indicated that the participants evaluated NLC as one of the

strengths of the training programme. Table 8.9 shows that all respondents referred to NLC. It was perceived to be contributing positively towards the attainment of the valued ends. The relevant articulations are shown in Table 8.15.

Table 8.15 Articulations Referring To Nature Of Learning Climate (NLC)

Case 1	1	It was also a good idea for [<i>the Director</i>] to come. I feel he appears to be one hundred percent behind this and that you can get all support you need. p. 238.
Case 2	2	It didn't take long to feel as part of the group; which makes you feel a lot easier. p. 239.
	3	you learnt from your mistakes. p. 240.
	4	what was said people were not afraid to say it. They could say what they thought without feeling-- 'oh! is somebody watching me to see what I'm up to?' There was no one actually looking over your shoulder, so you could say what you wanted to say ..p. 241.
	5	And [<i>course facilitator</i>] would laugh and everyone would. p. 241.
	6	The course atmosphere was good for learning. p. 243.
Case 3	7	lecturing wasn't formal. p. 245.
	8	We were all made to feel very welcome in participation. p. 246.
	9	We all communicated well together. p. 246.
	10	The environment, being relaxed, was good. It helped to learn. p. 246.
	11	It was quite informal and you felt relaxed. p. 246.
Case 4	12	it was also quite informal. p. 250.
	13	He made everybody feel welcoming. You get a confidence to speak out. It was more like a team effort. I just felt quite comfortable and enjoyed the course. p. 250.
	14	It was very relaxed, everybody was relaxed, everybody was saying what they thought. p. 251.
Case 5	15	I found the presentation very effective. I wouldn't say it was really very formal. p. 255.
	16	He was understanding our issues and it was great that we could discuss it. p. 258.
Case 6	17	The group discussions were good because it was great to get your feelings out in the open. p. 264.

Table 8.15 Contd. ...

	18	It was a friendly situation, p. 265.
Case 7	19	It wasn't too formal, I think. p. 269.
	20	I found the course was also very good because [<i>the course facilitator</i>] was approachable. He encouraged to discuss personal ideas and problems. p. 271.
	21	most people were at ease. p. 272.
	22	he didn't put any course member off or anything. It was quite permissive and there was no real hard and fast rule laid down; which was nice. p. 273.

The expressions in Table 8.15 suggest that NLC was perceived by the respondents to be *supportive, relaxed, informal* and *non-threatening*. Respondents' articulations contain both implicit and explicit references to NLC. Perception of learning climate as supportive can be found in the articulations of Case 1 (1); Case 2 (2, 5, 6); Case 3 (8, 9); Case 4 (12, 13); Case 5 (16); Case 6 (18); Case 7 (20, 22). For example Case 3 (8) felt that they were made to feel very welcome. Other expressions, such as '*a friendly situation*' [Case 6 (18)] or '*It was quite permissive ... which was nice*' [Case 7 (22)], also provide evidence supporting such a perception. In addition, Case 2 (1) perceived top management's support for the course and also for the new job. Case 2 (5); Case 4 (12, 13); and Case 7 (20) highlighted course facilitator's support and empathy. Comments such as-- '*would laugh*' [Case 2 (5)], '*feel welcoming*' [Case 4 (13)], '*understanding our issues ... we could discuss it*' [Case 5 (16)] and finally, '*was approachable*' [Case 7 (20)] all indicated the facilitator's support and empathy. The presence of mutual understanding and belongingness (indicating a supportive climate) may also be inferred from Case 3 and Case 4's articulation. Case 3 (9) reported, '*we all communicated together*' and Case 4 (13) mentioned, '*it was more like a team effort*'. These expressions convey a sense of togetherness and mutuality of understanding among the participants. The articulations of Case 3 (10, 11); Case 4 (14); and Case 7 (21) indicate that the respondents also perceived the climate of learning as a relaxed one. For example, '*It was very relaxed, everybody was relaxed, everybody was saying what they thought*' [Case 4 (14)] and '*most people were at ease*' [Case 7 (21)] support the point just made. The respondents also viewed the learning climate as informal. Case 3 (7, 11); Case 4 (12);

Case 5 (15); Case 7 (19, 22) provided the necessary indications that highlighted the informal state of the learning climate. Finally, the learning climate was also perceived as non-threatening. This may be inferred from the articulations of Case 2 (3, 4), Case 6 (17) and Case 7 (22). Case 2 (3) mentioned *'you learn from your mistakes'*. This conveys the impression that the participants did not feel threatened after having made a mistake. Experimentation was encouraged by removing threats; thus, enabling the participants to learn from their mistakes. The non-threatening aspect of learning climate was vividly described by Case 2 (4) in another statement. She remarked--

'what was said people were not afraid to say it. They could say what they thought without feeling-- 'oh! is somebody watching me to see what I'm up to?' There was no one actually looking over your shoulder, so you could say what you wanted to say'

Table 8.15 reveals that references of training methods were made by the respondents in conveying their experiences of NLC. The respondents perceived that discussion, in particular, helped most to ensure a climate congenial for learning. Apart from discussion, lectures and exercises also played significant roles.

While most of the expressions listed in Table 8.15 implicitly indicated a positive relationship between NLC and the valued ends, one also observes an explicit indication in some of the articulations. For example, the expressions--*'The course atmosphere was good for learning'* [Case 2 (6)] or *'The environment, being relaxed, was good. It helped to learn'* [Case 3 (10)] clearly indicate that the respondents attributed learning (a valued end) to *'course atmosphere'* or *'relaxed environment'* (NLC). The contribution of the learning climate towards the valued ends was perceived to be positive. In addition, various phrases such as *'good idea'*, *'lot easier'*, *'good'*, *'well'*, *'feel very welcome'*, *'relaxed'*, *'enjoyed'*, *'great'*, *'friendly'*, etc. also conveyed an impression of positive contribution.

Thus, the perception of the learning climate as supportive, relaxed, informal and non-threatening and the ascription of its positive contribution towards the valued ends suggest that the participants evaluated the course favourably.

g. Control Over Learning (COL)

The degree to which a participant is being in-charge of her own learning refers the extent of her control over learning (COL). The descriptions in the protocols also suggested that COL was another valued end shaper which contributed positively towards the valued ends. These reports show that the participants recognized COL as a strength, and thereby evaluated the training programme favourably. Table 8.9 exhibits that Case 1, Case 3, Case 4, Case 5, and Case 7 referred to COL. It was also perceived to be contributing positively towards the attainment of the valued ends. The pertinent articulations are presented in Table 8.16.

Table 8.16 Articulations Referring To Control Over Learning (COL)

Case 1	1	I enjoyed the discussion that allowed everybody to say what they are thinking-- 'oh no! I don't think so'; and explaining why you disagree. p. 236.
Case 3	2	It was a flexible way of putting over points; which I felt was better than someone saying 'this is how to do it'. p. 245-246.
	3	I felt like a back seat driver in that. I felt like I was sitting there and saying, carry on and I could join in at the relevant bits, p. 249.
Case 4	4	The exercises stimulated to observe and think independently. This made me think more about the things I was doing, and the things I shouldn't be doing. I am getting more confident now because I am thinking about it now more. p. 251.
Case 5	5	It wasn't a sit down get you notebooks out and write everything down as it is. p. 255.
	6	Although, quite occasionally we tended to get side-tracked and it went on and on and on and the bottom line was we couldn't do anything about it. Nevertheless things flowed smoothly from one issue to the next. p. 258.
	7	You don't want to embark on that situation where you have got to pitch up people 'that's enough children, change the subject'. p. 258.
Case 7	8	The course progressed smoothly. Again, I think on the last day the flow was upset. It halted the progression. p. 271.
	9	It wasn't listen to [<i>the course facilitator</i>] 'well this is my experience and that's the way it has to be.'p. 273.
	10	You could discuss anything you wanted to. p. 272.

As Table 8.16 highlights, the articulations offered by Case 1 (1); Case 3 (2, 3); Case 4 (4); Case 5 (5, 6, 7); Case 7 (8, 9 10) point out that the respondents enjoyed certain degree of COL. For example expressions such as -- '*You could discuss anything you wanted*' [Case 7 (10)] and '*the discussion ... allowed everybody to say what they are thinking*' [Case 1 (1)] indicate certain degree of participant's control over the issues and problems that were considered in the course. The protocols also contain examples of facilitator-sharing-control-with-the-participants. Referring to the facilitator's role, Case 5 (7) mentioned that the course facilitator allowed the participants to discuss the issues which they felt important even to the extent of getting 'side-tracked'. Participants' control was also ensured by the 'non-imposing' attitude of the course facilitator. Expressions such as "*... was better than someone saying 'this is how to do it'*" [Case 3 (2)] and "*It wasn't ... 'well this is my experience and that's the way it has to be.'*" [Case 7 (9)] confirm such attitude. Further, as Case 5 (4) reported, the participants did not assume the role of passive recipients of information. Instead, in their active participation (the references to such participation will be found in the discussion on involvement made earlier) they demonstrated some exercise of control over their own learning. However, the respondents also expressed some reservations. Case 3 (3) mentioned that she felt like a '*back-seat driver*' indicating a loss of control. She attributed such a loss to inadequate job exposure, as a result of which she experienced some difficulty in relating to the course content. Although Case 5 (6) and Case 7 (8) perceived that control over the flow and progression of the course was largely ensured, they also experienced occasional disruption. This indicated that both the participants and the facilitator lost some degree of COL. Despite these reservations, the articulations in Table 8.16 reveal that the participants exercised some degree of COL. Finally, some of the expressions indicating COL also had reference to training methods. These expressions indicated that training methods such as discussion, exercises and lectures offered certain degree of control to the participants over their own learning [see Case 3 (2); Case 4 (4); Case 5 (5); and Case 7 (9, 10) in Table 8.16].

The relationship of COL and the valued ends can be inferred from Case 4's articulation. The phrase '*independent*' in Case 4 (4), is very instructive. It

indicates an exercise of control over one's own observation and thought, hence, control over one's learning. The statement strongly suggests a relationship between a gain of confidence (a valued end), and such control. This statement also discloses an ascription of positive value to COL. In addition, other articulations [Case 1 (1), Case 3 (2), Case 4 (4), Case 5 (5, 6, 7), Case 7 (8, 9, 10)] in Table 8.16 implicitly convey a similar ascription. Besides, the phrases 'better' and 'smoothly' also highlight an ascription of positive value. Therefore, the recognition of COL and the ascription of its positive contribution towards the valued ends, suggest that the participants evaluated the course favourably.

h. Cross-fertilization Of Ideas And Experiences (CfIE)

In this specific context, cross-fertilization of ideas and experiences (CfIE) refers to an exchange of information in a learning situation. CfIE was also brought to light as another valued end shaper through the descriptions offered by the respondents. It was perceived by the respondents as contributing positively towards the valued ends. Table 8.9 shows that all the respondents referred to CfIE. The participants experienced CfIE as one of the strengths of the training course, and hence, evaluated it favourably. This may be observed from the reports (see Table 8.17.) provided by the respondents.

While all the statements in Table 8.17 relate to CfIE, some provide clearer indications than others. Expressions such as '*the course did bring out participants personal experiences*' [Case 6 (12)], '*You also had the opportunity to listen to other people's experiences*' [Case 7 (14)], '*the course was an excellent ground for meeting different people from other areas ...*' [Case 7 (15)], '*the course brought out the personal knowledge and experience of the participants*' [Case 7 (17)], '*everyone sitting down and sharing different opinions, different ideas*' [Case 5 (10)] etc. clearly demonstrate exchange of ideas and experiences. Case 1 (2) reported social interaction beyond formal sessions. She felt that such interaction helped create a better liaison. Case 2 (3, 4) indicated discovering common issues and problems. The exposure to potential problems and solutions was

attributed by Case 3 (7) as a '*benefit of hindsight*' . Case 5 (9) and Case 7 (13) appreciated the course for bringing out diverse perspectives in problem

Table 8.17 Articulations Referring To Cross-fertilization Of Ideas And Experience (CfIE)

Case 1	1	you are really getting other persons point as well and you can make a judgment then on your own. I found that very very good. p. 236.
	2	Listening to them in the group discussions, you know, and also in the lunch time being with them, you can see the personal side of them too. I think that was very good. It was important because it helped create better liaison. p. 237.
Case 2	3	people felt the same as you did in certain situations. p. 241.
	4	You hear this area is doing so well, and you find out that they really have the same problems as all the other areas. No matter how big or small your area is, the problems are more or less the same. p. 241.
	5	I think that other people's actual experiences were the most helpful. p. 244.
Case 3	6	We could draw on each other's experiences. p. 246.
	7	with the hands-on experience on the course you have the benefit of hindsight in that. I have had this and I have heard that so-and-so has had that problem, and therefore you would be more inclined to deal a situation better. p. 248.
Case 4	8	You learn from other people's experiences and others learn from you. p. 251.
Case 5	9	The tasks I found beneficial, very beneficial. Aamm ... it highlighted how people work differently sitting up in a team. p. 255.
	10	The group discussion, was very beneficial. And probably the same idea as the tasks-- everyone sitting down and sharing different opinions, different ideas. p. 257.
	11	It was great to have people from other areas on the course. p. 260.
Case 6	12	There was a good age range. The course did bring out participant's personal experiences. I have had many of the experiences that people who had been there for a long time have had. You could draw on that. p. 266.
Case 7	13	Group discussions, I think, were really very good because you get everyone's opinion and you don't necessarily agree with it but you get other side of the story. I find that as highly valuable. p. 270.
	14	You also had the opportunity to listen to other peoples experiences. p. 271.

Table 8.17 Contd. ...

	15	The course itself was an excellent ground for meeting different people from other areas. p. 271.
	16	It was good because they have the same problems as you, although they were from different areas. And again I think that it is really valuable to hear what other people are thinking. p. 271
	17	the course brought out the personal knowledge and experience of the participants. p. 272.

solving. It will be noticed that CfIE had its reference to the methods of training. In some instances reference was explicitly made in relation to specific method or to a number of methods. In other instances, the references were implicit. Since, the course used four methods, it might be reasonable to infer that implicit references applied to all the methods used. Explicit references show that discussions and exercises were perceived to offer greater opportunities for cross-fertilization of ideas and experiences.

That CfIE was ascribed as a valued end shaper, can be observed from the expressions in Table 8.17. Explicit ascription of relationship between CfIE and the valued ends can be found in the expression '*we could draw on each others experience*' [Case 3 (6)]. The phrase '*draw on*' indicates a synthesis (e.g., gain of knowledge, insight, skill change of attitude-- a valued end) derived from the exchange of experience. Case 4 (8) is even more explicit. She reported '*you learn ...[a valued end]... from other people's experience ...[CfIE]... and others learn ...[a valued end]... from you ...[CfIE]...*'. Similar conclusions may also be drawn from other expressions, such as '*could draw in that*' [Case 6 (12)], '*you can make a judgment then on your own*' [Case 1 (1)]. CfIE was also perceived to be contributing positively towards the valued ends. The expressions cited above strongly suggest an ascription of positive contribution [e.g., '*you learn*' in Case 4 (8) is very instructive]. Besides, other phrases also indicate the ascription of positive value. These phrases include-- '*good*', '*helpful*', '*could draw*', '*benefit*', '*better*', '*beneficial*', '*great*', '*valuable*', '*excellent*', '*did bring out*', '*excellent ground*' etc. Therefore, the awareness of cross-fertilization and

the attribution of its positive contribution towards the valued ends denote that the participants evaluated the course favourably.

i. Course Composition (CC)

Course composition (CC) refers to the ways in which various elements of a course are organized. CC also emerged as valued end shaper from the protocols. The respondents perceived CC as contributing positively towards the valued ends. Table 8.9 reflect that Case 3, Case 4 and Case 7 referred to CC. The following discussion point out that the course composition was regarded as another strength of the training programme. This implied a favourable evaluation of it. The narrations signifying CC, as furnished by the respondents, are listed in Table 8.18.

Table 8.18 Articulations Referring To Course Composition (CC)

Case 3	1	very well put forward in that. p. 244.
	2	I wouldn't change a thing. ... The programme was well laid out..p. 246.
	3	' ... the way the course was set up, it was great in that. You are able to get in there and learn as much as you could and take as much as you could from the course'. p. 248.
Case 4	4	No one particular thing was more emphasized than the others. p. 250.
Case 7	5	It was an easy type of course. p. 269.
	6	His style was very good, I liked his manner. I liked the way he conducted the sessions. I liked the way how he gave a bit of lecture, a bit of participation. p. 273.
	7	then a wee bit of video, I liked the way he set it, the way he chopped and changed different methods and then having the exercises, they were interesting and they were appropriate. p. 273.

As mentioned earlier, the ways in which various course elements were organized referred to CC. However, with the exception of reference to methods, the articulations do not provide any direct clue as to what these elements might be. For example, in Case 3 (2) [see Table 8.18] no indication

is available as to what '*a thing*' is, the phrase '*change a thing*' and '*laid out*' certainly indicate the existence of a number of things which are organized in a certain manner, thus indicating a state of composition. In another expression, Case 3 underscored the relationship between CC and a valued end (i.e., acquisition of knowledge, insight, skill and change of attitude). She [Case 3 (3)] mentioned, ' ... *the way the course was set up ...[CC]..., learn as much as you could and take as much as you could ...[a valued end]...*'. All respondents who mentioned CC, viewed it as contributing positively towards the valued ends. The expressions in this category, including the ones mentioned above, support the view. The clues of positive contribution can also be found in the phrases used by the respondents. Examples of such phrases include-- '*very well*', '*great*', '*liked*' etc. Besides, the composition of the course in terms of training methods [Case 4 (4) and Case 7 (6, 7)] and flexibility of the course (a characteristics of composition) was also observed as having positive value. The identification of this shaper and the view of its positive contribution, reveal that the course was evaluated favourably.

j. *Physical Facilities (PF)*

The descriptions in the protocols also implied PF as another valued end shaper that contributed negatively towards the valued ends. These reports depict that the participants identified physical facilities as a weakness, hence implied an unfavourable evaluation the training programme. Table 8.9 display that Case 4, and Case 7 referred to physical facilities. The relevant articulations are presented in Table 8.19.

These articulations in Table 8.19 largely connote dissatisfaction with physical facilities. Case 4 (1, 3) expressed displeasure about room temperature, the placement of training aids (video equipment), lounge facilities, telephone and transport. Case 7 (4) was disappointed with over crowded room and the external noise distraction. However, Case 4 expressed satisfaction about the sitting arrangement which enabled smooth communication among the participants (and facilitator) sitting around the table. The expression of dissatisfaction, in these articulations, appears to be the key to the understanding of the relationship between

Table 8.19 Articulations Referring To Physical Facilities (PF)

Case 4	1	the lecture room was too hot, or too cold whatever. The adjoining room was not ideal either. It was too small. p. 251.
	2	The sitting arrangement was good. One could see others and talk with them without having to turn awkwardly.p. 252.
	3	But the video was not conveniently placed. Vision was obstructed by the board and other participants. Lounge facility was rotten, ... No telephone. ... Transport was highly desperate. p. 252.
Case 7	4	The thing I didn't like was the physical side of the course setting. People trod up and down the stairs and the room was a bit cramped in that. p. 272.

physical facilities and valued ends. Dissatisfaction was attributed to the physical facilities. Such an attribution makes 'physical facilities' a shaper. Thus, as a valued end shaper, physical facilities may be said to have negatively contributed to satisfaction (a valued end). Phrases such as 'too hot', 'too cold', 'not ideal', 'rotten', 'desperate', 'didn't like' also reveal the ascription of negative value. Therefore, the manifestations of inadequate physical facilities and the participants' perception of its negative contribution, portray an unfavourable evaluation of the training programme.

8.1.3 The Noetic Process

The foregoing discussions explored participants' evaluations from two levels, i.e., the valued ends and the valued end shapers. This discussion examines the third level i.e., the noetic process. It may be recalled from Chapter 3 that the noetic process is a thought process through which meaning is ascribed to a noemata. The noematic elements in this study constitute the valued ends and the valued end shapers. This section explores the thought processes through which meanings (of lived-experiences) were ascribed as valued ends and shapers. It provides additional support to the valued ends and the shapers by indicating that the meanings were not ascribed superficially, i.e., *prima facie*. This is because the deliberations (of a lived experience) in consciousness (through the noetic processes) show that the experience stood out, as significant,

from numerous other lived experiences. The thought processes, i.e., the noetic processes that emerged from the protocols include-- *reflecting, recalling, comparing, illustrating, and eidetic grasping*. Table 8.20 exhibits the noetic process.

Table 8.20 Noetic Table : The Thought Processes Used To Ascribe Meaning

Noetic process	Case 1	Case 2	Case 3	Case 4	Case 5	Case 6	Case 7
a. Reflecting	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
b. Recalling	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
c. Comparing	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
d. Illustrating	--	*	*	--	*	--	*
e. Eidetic grasping	--	*	*	--	--	--	*

a. Reflecting

Table 8. 20 shows that all respondents ascribed meaning by the process of reflection. Reflection, as used here, connotes a generic meaning. The expressions in this category indicated a process of interpretation, i.e., a mental act of construing meaning, but did not provide sufficient clues to achieve finer distinctions. Hence, those expressions that indicate mental activities such as thinking, deliberating, describing, reasoning, rationalizing, contemplating, cogitating, analyzing etc., are all categorized under the heading of *reflecting*. This definition encapsulates all the other types of noesis. In other words, an element of reflection is also held to be present in recalling, comparing, illustrating, and eidetic grasping. However, to sharpen focus, the expressions in which these noetic process are more pronounced are categorized under their respective headings.

The reflecting process can be inferred from the pauses in speech, such as, 'aamm', 'umm', 'aa ... aa' etc., These pauses are used by a speaker to switch off verbal expressions. Thus, allowing her to concentrate more on the reflecting process, they help the achievement of mental articulation. Having mentally articulated, the speaker then resumes verbal expressions.

Besides incomplete expressions also indicate an on-going reflecting process. For example Case 1 (p. 236) reported --

'Aamm ... I feel the tasks-- because it was something you are really doing, you know, and the same with the group discussions-- we were really entering into it.'

Case 1 reflected to ascribe a meaning, i.e., tasks and group discussion secured involvement (a shaper) which in turn positively contributed towards the valued ends. Similar examples can be found in other protocols. Some of the phrases used by the respondents also indicate a process of reflecting. They include 'Again', 'As I said', 'Could have', 'I don't see it', 'I feel', 'I found that', 'I know', 'I think', 'I wouldn't say', 'May be', 'To me', 'Well', 'You know,' and 'You realize'. These phrases refer to a personal interpretation achieved, through a reflecting process, of things experienced. The expressions in the protocols show that respondents reflected to describe a thing, an event or a situation or to elaborate a point that was made earlier and thereby ascribed meaning. For example Case 4 (p. 250) mentioned-- *'I think the course was really relevant in dealing with different people and aspects of different people'*. The phrase 'think' indicates reflecting process used to ascribe a positive ('really') relationship between relevance (a shaper) and acquisition of knowledge of interpersonal interaction (a valued end). A number of similar examples can be found in other protocols.

b. *Recalling*

Table 8.20 exhibits that all respondents ascribed meaning through recalling, which refers to a process of bringing past experiences back to the mind. Hilgard (1962) described recall as a form of remembering in which a person demonstrates retention by repeating what was earlier learnt. Bono de (1969) stressed that when memory is powerful, it requires no effort of interpretation at all. This is because memory actually recreates the events experienced. The process of recall demonstrates respondents' conscious awareness of the reality experienced. This is because, this process highlights (after memory scan) the elements considered significant for the attribution of meaning of the experiential reality.

The protocols reveal that recalling was used to ascribe various meanings. The negative contribution of 'pre-course communication' towards the valued ends was ascribed by all respondents (except Case 4) through recalling. '*I didn't know much about the course*' (Case 2, p. 239) is an example. Case 2, Case 3, and Case 6 attributed 'job exposure' as negatively contributing towards the valued ends using the same noetic process. The expression-- '*I didn't know exactly what I should be taking from the course ...*' - (Case 3, p. 244)- illustrates the point.

Among the relationships (of the shapers with the valued ends) ascribed through recalling were, nature of learning climate's positive contribution (Case 4, Case 6 and Case 7); involvement's positive (Case 1 and Case 7) and negative (Case 6) contribution; physical facilities' negative contribution (Case 4); relevance's positive contribution (Case 5), cross-fertilization's positive contribution (Case 6); and control over learning's positive contribution (Case 6). In addition, acquisition of skill (Case 2), acquisition of insight (Case 5 and Case 7), satisfaction (Case 2), usefulness (Case 5), and gain of confidence (Case 7) were also ascribed as valued ends through recalling.

c. *Comparing*

The comparing process refers to the mental juxtaposition of two things, events or situations where one serves as a point of reference for the other. Hence, meaning for one is attributed in relation to the other. Table 8.20 shows that all respondents used comparing process to ascribe meaning. The expressions suggest that a number of different points of reference were used by the respondents. These include-- *pre-course state, other courses, various training methods, pre-established inferences* and *hypothetical situation*.

Except in Case 6, all respondents used the pre-course state as a marker against which to ascribe value to the course. Employing this type comparison, awareness of effective communication (Case 1), satisfaction (Case 2), gain confidence (Case 3 and 7), acquisition of knowledge of company's training practices and skill of managing meeting (Case 5), were ascribed as a valued ends. In addition, using similar noetic process,

involvement (Case 2 and Case 4) was ascribed as a shaper which positively contributed towards valued ends.

Other courses, as points of reference, were used by Case 2 and Case 7. They ascribed involvement (Case 2), course composition (Case 7) and nature of learning climate (Case 7) as shapers contributing positively towards the valued ends. The training methods were compared by Case 1, Case 5, Case 6, and Case 7. Case 1 concluded, after comparing lectures with exercises and group discussions, that the former moderately secured participants' involvement. After she had compared lectures with 'supervised hands-on experience', Case 6 found lectures to be poor in communicativeness. Similar ascriptions can be found in Case 7, who compared lectures with video. Finally, on comparing exercises and group discussions, Case 5 found them both to be high in cross-fertilization of ideas and experiences. Pre-established inferences were used as points of reference by Case 1, Case 4 and Case 5. They referred to the conclusions drawn from the previous experiences. These inferences may be considered as norms or standards that are taken as appropriate criteria of judgment. For example the expression '*You do learn more in a relaxed situation*' (Case 4, p. 250) or '*When I sit down I loose interest*' (Case 1, p. 237) are pre-established inferences. The relationships between 'relaxation' and 'learning' or 'sitting down' and 'loosing interest' were known to the respondents from previous experience. Case 4 compared the course with her pre-established inference (i.e., '*You do learn more in a relaxed situation*') and attributed the nature of learning climate as positively contributing towards the valued ends. Case 1 compared lectures with videos with one such inference (i.e., '*When I sit down I loose interest*') and attributed 'involvement' as moderately contributing towards valued ends. Case 5 compared the course with another such inference (i.e., '*By the time you see you are in a new job they walk away and leave you*' Case 5, p. 252) and attributed job exposure as negatively contributing towards the valued ends. Finally, comparison with a hypothetical situation was used by Case 1 to ascribe value to the course. She imagined herself not being on the course and compared this with actually being on the course, thereby ascribed usefulness as a valued end derived from the course.

d. Illustrating

Case 2, Case 3, Case 5 and Case 7 used illustrating as a noetic process (see Table 8.20). Illustrating involves the use of examples. It is a process of exemplification through which the meaning of experiential reality are formed, clarified and brought to sharp focus. The protocols reveal that in a number of occasions the respondents relied on illustration to ascribe meaning. Case 3, using an analogy, ascribed control over learning as a shaper that negatively contributed towards the valued ends. She said *'I felt like a back-seat driver'* (Case 3, p. 249). Communicativeness was ascribed by Case 5 and Case 7 as a shaper that positively contributed towards the valued ends. Using a similar analogy, Case 5 stressed that videos were moderately positive in communicativeness. She mentioned that-- *'It is like putting a television on just for the sake of it. Not really watching it'* (Case 5, p. 257). In addition, the positive contribution of relevance (Case 2, Case 5 and Case 7), the positive contribution of NLC (Case 2), and the negative contribution of JE (Case 3), towards the valued ends were ascribed by the use of different examples. Furthermore, gain of confidence (Case 3) and acquisition of knowledge of interpersonal interaction (Case 5) were ascribed as valued ends using similar processes.

e. Eidetic Grasping

It is a process though which the essence of experience is extracted. The expressions in the protocols bearing intersubjective connotations indicate the operation of a process of eidetic grasping. The respondents eidetically ascribed meaning to their experiences through the elucidation of essences of those experiences. Things became known to them from their past experiences (including that of the course) both intimately and intuitively. A description of knowing eidetically can be found in Kohák (1978). He illustrated the point using an expression -- *'Sure, when your kid gets killed, you don't feel like doing much of anything'*-- and wrote (1978 : 75)--

"It is clearly presented as intersubjectively valid: for any subject, it is the case that the loss a loved one produces a temporary paralysis of habitual interests. ... He knows intimately how it fits together. The principle appears to him as evident. If you

suffer a loss, you lose other interest as well. His entire commonplace observation is in fact a pure eidetic description of a necessary structure of human experience”.

Similar expressions, indicating knowing through commonplace observation, can be found in the protocols offered by Case 2, Case 3 and Case 7. For example Case 2 (p. 243) reported--

You do learn, you will always learn, no matter how much you think you know, there always is something there that you can gain from it.

The protocols show that using the process of eidetic grasping, Case 2 ascribed 'usefulness' and Case 7 ascribed 'gain of confidence' as valued ends. Furthermore, Case 2 ascribed 'nature of learning climate' as contributing positively and Case 3 ascribed 'job exposure' as contributing negatively towards the valued ends using similar processes.

Every meaning ascribed by the respondents, evolved through the employment of some noetic processes. The employment of noetic processes such as reflecting, recalling, comparing, illustrating and eidetic grasping indicated a deep involvement of the respondent's existential and experiential self. Therefore, these processes authenticated that the meanings (ascribed by the respondents), rather than being superficial and inconsequential, were a genuine evaluation of the course.

8.2 Discussion Of The Findings Of This Study In Relation To Other Studies

Literature on training course evaluation using phenomenological approach is scanty. However, it is possible to trace some empirical studies that may be used in this comparative discussion. The noematic and the noetic elements evolved from this study, will now be considered separately. In each discussion, the results from other studies will be compared.

8.2.1 The Noematic Elements: Valued Ends

Table 8.21 lists the valued ends emerged from three studies in relation to the current study. Table 8.21 suggests a considerable similarity of findings of this study with the earlier ones. Acquisition of knowledge, insight, skill and change in attitude was reported as a valued end by all the studies. 'Self-respect' as an 'aggregate category' (Burgoyne, 1974) subsumes knowledge, skill, insight (Mmobuosi, 1983, 1987a); Change in attitude, acquisition of skill, increased awareness, improved skill, improved staff relationship (Long and Jinks, 1982); and usefulness, Acquisition of knowledge, insight, skill, change in attitude, gain of confidence, gain of motivation (this study). Similarly, usefulness (this study) as a generic category subsumes 'occupational choice, entry and opportunity (Burgoyne, 1974). With the exception of Long and Jinks, the other two authors who have also reported satisfaction as a valued end. Certain difference may also be observed. First Burgoyne (1974) reported 'financial' as a valued end, which does not tally with the valued ends that emerged from this study. One possible interpretation is that, unlike Burgoyne's respondents, the group-leaders' (respondents of this study) salaries were not contingent upon attending the course and they were not required to pay for being on the course-- the company paid for the course as a part of an on-going employee development activity. Hence, the group leaders did^{not} perceive financial return as a valued end. Second, it is not very clear from Mmobuosi's (1983) discussion whether 'motivation' is a valued end or a shaper. Mmobuosi (1983 : 241-242) wrote ' ... *relevance and satisfaction or motivation can be said to embrace the valued ends of knowledge, skill and insight*'. This indicates that 'motivation' as a valued end, was interpreted as a generic category. Then again indicating that satisfaction, knowledge/insight/skill and relevance as inter-related, Mmobuosi (1983 : 241) mentioned, ' ... *all of them do constitute the motivation to learn in order to obtain the transferable*'. Clearly the phrase, 'in order to obtain the transferable' indicates that 'motivation' is more like a shaper contributing positively or negatively towards a valued end (i.e., acquisition of knowledge/skill/insight), than a valued end in itself. Third, the present study differs from Mmobuosi (1983, 1987a) on the point that 'relevance' is a valued end. As indicated earlier, the significance of relevance is that it is likely to facilitates learning or its absence is likely to

Table 8.21 The Valued Ends That Emerged From This Study In Relation To The Ones Emerged From Other Studies

Long and Jinks (1982)		Burgoyne (1974)	Mmobousi (1983, 1987a)	This study
Participants	Line managers	Financial	-	-
-	-	Intrinsic enjoyment of the course	Satisfaction/Dissatisfaction Intrinsic and extrinsic	Satisfaction
-	-	Occupational choice, entry and opportunity	-	Usefulness
Change in attitude	Improved skill	Self respect based on respect of others, exercise of competence, understanding, skill and confidence in self, feeling of being in control of own influence on the world.	Knowledge, skill, insight	Acquisition of knowledge, skill, insight; change of attitude
Acquisition of skill	Improved staff relationship			Gain of confidence
Increased awareness	Increased awareness			Gain of motivation
-	Improved confidence			-
-	-		Relevance	-
-	-			Course materials as reference

hinder learning. It is not something that a participant desires to obtain from a course. However, relevance is important (i.e., valued), not as an end aspired and achieved by a participant by being on a course, rather as a shaper expected by him to contribute towards his aspirations, goals or ends. Finally, 'course materials as reference', as Table 8.21 reveals, was not reported as a valued end by the prior studies.

Having underscored the similarities and differences, it is now necessary to highlight some caveats. First, although the study conducted by Long and Jinks (1982) focused on the experiences of the participants and the line managers, it adopted a conventional methodology and used questionnaires to collect data. As this study (Long and Jinks, 1982) did not depart from the ontological and epistemological grounds of positivism, emphasis on its findings in drawing comparison would mean theoretical and methodological disjunctions. Second, despite the use of protocol analysis method, Burgoyne's (1974) study was geared to rehabilitate 'opinion' to a certain degree of 'scientific respectability'. This study also remained in the domain of the conventional paradigm. Burgoyne (1974 : 546) maintained,

' ... the study can be thought of as belonging to a pre-scientific stage of hypothesis formulation. As such this study should be judged a contribution if it leads to the formulation of hypothesis which can be tested by more conventional means'.

Further, the study did not use phenomenological methods of eidetic reduction and epoché. Instead, it used content analysis and inductive reasoning to generate findings. Hence, like Long and Jinks (1982), emphasis on Burgoyne (1974) for a comparative discussion would also mean theoretical and methodological disjunctions. From this perspective the only studies that lend themselves to viable comparison are the ones conducted by Mmobuosi (1983, 1987a).

8.2.2 The Noematic Elements : The Valued End Shapers

While evaluation remained the central focus of this study, the investigations led to the emergence of certain relationships of theoretical interest that relate to the phenomenon of learning. These relationships

emerged from the participants' experiences as they ascribed value to the course. It was found that certain elements (as valued end shapers) facilitated learning (ends valued by the participants) while others inhibited it. Before considering earlier studies, it is necessary to examine these relationships (i.e., the elements of the course and the valued ends). The term 'shaper', as used here, connotes non-determinism, i.e., a dialectical synthesis of determinism and indeterminism (see Chapter 9, section 9.22 for an elaborate discussion on non-determinism and non-reductionism). Hence, this term is not merely used as a substitute for terms such as 'variable', 'factor' etc. that are based on the notion of deterministic causal relationship. The concept of a 'shaper' reflects a relationship that is grounded on the assumption of relativism of phenomenological ontology and epistemology.

One will find numerous examples of published work (empirical and non-empirical) that study the relationships between 'factors' and 'outcomes' of training. However, the literature search did not reveal any empirical study in the phenomenological tradition that reported explicit treatment of the elements as 'shapers', and the relationships as non-deterministic. Therefore, no study could be used as a basis for comparison. For example, Burgoyne (1974) and Mmobuosi (1983, 1987a) studied the relationships between 'variables' using 'phenomenology based'⁴ protocol analysis method. Burgoyne (1974) and Mmobuosi (1983, 1987a) emphasized a deterministic causal connection between 'variables'. Burgoyne (1974 : 559) claimed,

'Nine different ways of establishing causal connections have therefore been found in six protocols. ... It is interesting to note that mental analogues of modestly sophisticated research designs do emerge, ... This suggests the hypothesis that there is the capacity to make this sort of sophisticated test for causality in the judgment process, ... '

⁴ They do not truly reflect phenomenological ontology.

Mmobuosi (1987a : 147) asserted,

'My findings suggest that adult training techniques are the sufficient aspect of causality, in managers awareness, for a course to be experienced as fruitful or not'

In addition to the assertion of determinism, there is another aspect the renders comparison difficult. To Burgoyne (1974) the course itself was related to the valued ends and to Mmobuosi (1983, 1987a) the training techniques were. According to this study, the course or the techniques are the constellation of elements. These elements were identified as shapers and were found to be related to the valued ends.

In the absence of empirical studies, explicitly emphasizing the non-deterministic relationships between valued ends and the elements (as identified in this study), it may be interesting to consider literature close to 'experiential/existential' (Megginson and Pedler, 1975; Boydell, 1976) approach to learning. Although the expression 'experiential' has been used to designate a wide variety of ideas, methods and techniques of learning and training -- many of which are not necessarily consistent with relativism; the experiential/existential approach to learning predominantly emphasizes relativism and indeterminism (see Boot and Reynolds, 1983; Pope, 1983). The assumptions about how learning is constituted provides some clues about the relationships between the elements and learning (i.e., valued ends). Some examples from the literature will be examined to sift out the elements assumed to be facilitative towards learning. However, at this point it is necessary to briefly consider experiential/existential view of learning. According to this view an individual is seen as purposive, goal oriented, curious and sensitive. It recognizes that an individual has the freedom of choice and action, has the capacity to initiate rather than respond to circumstances, has intrinsic capabilities of developing and learning that leads to self-actualization and autonomy (Rogers, 1969; Burgoyne and Stuart, 1977; Jones, 1979). Experiential learning tend to emphasize on the whole existential self by focusing both on emotional and intellectual contents of the learner's experiences and actions (Burgoyne and Stuart, 1977).

Let us now return to the issue of relationships. Boydell (1976) offered a summary of some basic conditions for a type of experiential learning that leads to self-actualization. He called this type autonomous learning. The conditions for autonomous learning have been proposed by various writers in areas of education, philosophy and psychology. Some of these conditions contain implicit assumptions that certain elements contribute towards the valued ends. Table 8.22 (based on Figure 21 in Boydell, 1976) summarizes the conditions and those elements that were implicitly held to contribute towards autonomous learning. Table 8.22 suggests that elements such as control over learning, involvement, relevance, cross-fertilization of ideas and experience and nature of learning climate were assumed by various writers to be facilitative towards autonomous learning.

Other writers on experiential learning also held similar assumptions of relationships between the elements (as found in this study) and the valued ends. Some examples of themes, concepts, conditions assertions indicating such relationships are highlighted in Table 8.23

Table 8. 23 reveals that various writers assumed communicativeness, nature of learning climate, cross-fertilization of ideas and experiences, involvement, control over learning, relevance and physical facilities to be elements which contributed towards learning. Hence, the literature extracts presented in Table 8.23 offer some support to the relationships of the shapers and the valued ends evolving from this study.

Table 8.22 Some Of The Conditions Of Autonomous Learning And The Assumptions Of Elements Contributing Towards Valued Ends,

Conditions of autonomous learning	Elements (as found in the current study) that seems to be reflected in the conditions as facilitative to learning
Learner being responsible for own learning:- --setting own goals (ASCD, 1962; Rogers, 1969; Wight, 1970) --planning own programmes (ASCD, 1962; Knowel, 1970, 1973; Wight, 1970) --discovering, identifying, using own resources for learning (ASCD, 1962; Rogers, 1969; Harrison and Hopkins, 1967; Knowels, 1970, 1973)	Control over learning, Involvement
Learning by doing (Roger, 1969)	Relevance, on the assumption that learners are goal-directed
Learners must discover meaning for themselves (Combs, 1962; ASCD, 1962; Knowels, 1970, 1973; Roger, 1969; Wight, 1970)	Involvement, Relevance
Learners helping each other (ASCD, 1962; Wight, 1970; Knowels, 1970, 1973; Harrison and Hopkins, 1967)	Cross-fertilization of ideas and experience.
Safe, warm, accepting, permissive climate (ASCD, 1962; Knowels, 1970, 1973; Dewey, 1928; Wight, 1970)	Nature of learning climate
Value of individuality (Dewey, 1928; ASCD, 1962)	Nature of learning climate
Freedom from extrinsic threats, rewards, punishments (ASCD, 1962, Roger, 1969)	Nature of learning climate

**Table 8.23 Some Examples Of Assumptions Of Relationships
Between Elements And Valued Ends As Held By
Various Writers On Experiential Learning**

Extracts From The Literature	Elements (As Found In The Current Study) That Were Apparently Assumed By Various Writers To Be Facilitative To Learning
<p>Learning community: (Boydell, 1976; Megginson and Pedler, 1975) "To help us all to learn those things which are most important to us, we use what we call a 'learning community' approach. This is a loosely connected set of ideas, but it does include a concept of progressive stages of community development. These stages are--</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Climate setting-- establishing full communications and openness between members; trust, mutual interdependence and equality 2. Identifying needs-- establishing the uniqueness and legitimacy of individual needs-- the principle of personal responsibility for meeting one's own needs. 3. Identifying resources-- Identifying all resources within and without the group; human and material -- the principle of everyone's responsibility to be a resource to every one else. 4. Programme planning -- Jointly establishing a programme to meet the identified needs, using resources ... " (Megginson and Pedler, 1975: 271) 	<p>Communicativeness, nature of learning climate, cross-fertilization of ideas and experiences Nature of learning climate, involvement, control over learning Cross-fertilization of experience. Control over learning</p>
<p>Gibb (1976)-- "There are some evidence that a supportive climate maximizes the learning in the classroom. Certain kinds of behaviour on the part of the teacher and of the student in a classroom tend to produce supportiveness. the behaviours that produce what has been called a 'supportive climate' are a shared problem-solving attitude, feeling of acceptance, empathy towards other group members, and listening to the remarks of others." (Gibb, 1976 : 52-53)</p>	<p>Nature of learning climate</p>
<p>Jenkins (1976) ' ... the most efficient learning situation is one in which the satisfaction which comes to the student come directly out of the learning activity itself. The material is meaningful to him-- he sees in it some relationship to himself; and the activity or</p>	<p>Involvement, relevance</p>

Table 8.23 Contd. ...

<p>methods he uses to gain the material are also satisfying to him.</p>	
<p>Formulating his experiential learning model, Kolb (1976: 22) wrote-- ' ... he [learner] must be <i>able</i> to <i>involve</i> himself fully, openly, and without bias in new experiences ... ; he must be <i>able</i> to reflect on and observe these experiences from many perspectives ... ; he must be <i>able</i> to create concepts that integrate his observations into logically sound theories ... ; and he must be <i>able</i> to use these theories to make decisions and solve problems'</p>	<p>Control over learning, involvement and relevance</p>
<p>Working on Kolb's ideas Kilty (1982) wrote -- 'A ... deliberate and conscious process of learning through experience is to reflect upon past experience(s) with the aim of puzzling out significant learning' (Kilty, 1982 : 3) 'Facilitate ... [learning] ... by : asking leading/following, open/closed questions, reflecting, summarizing, appreciating, affirming, challenging supportively, suggesting, advising, giving opinions counselling, releasing stress (giving them to explore/express feelings) giving information, interpreting ... giving more responsibility to managing the process [experiential learning] each time' (Kilty, 1982 : 4)</p>	<p>Relevance, involvement</p> <p>Communicativeness Nature of learning climate Involvement Control over learning</p>
<p>Jones (1979) mentioned 'Learning, not teaching, becomes the important focus, since the learner must be allowed the freedom to actualize his unique potential. He, not somebody else, must set his goals' (Jones, 1979 : 23) 'This involves for the trainer an unqualified acceptance of the worth of the learner and a non-authoritarian, emphatic relationship' (Jones, 1979 : 23) 'Experimental learning, self-directed learning and interaction in learning is encouraged' (Jones, 1979 : 23) 'We aimed to create a climate in which course participants would be aware of the resources available to them, and of their responsibilities for their own learning and that of the group (Jones, 1980 : 18) 'One member remarked that each participants seemed to be entering into a contract with the group, which emphasized the seriousness of the commitment at this early stage' (Jones, 1980 : 18)</p>	<p>Control over learning Setting personal goals implies involvement and relevance</p> <p>Nature of learning climate</p> <p>Involvement, control over learning, cross-fertilization of ideas and experiences. Nature of learning climate</p> <p>Involvement</p>
<p>French (1981)-- 'It accepts that the individual is well equipped to learn all he needs to learn for himself if he is given the space and freedom to do so. The mechanism to do this lies in himself. The less</p>	<p>Nature of learning climate (emphasis on both intellectual and emotional dimensions</p>

Table 8. 23 Contd. ...

<p>imposed the direction and structure the less the distortion in the learning process. It is more concerned with listening than with talking and equates self-awareness with human growth and development. The individual discovers the freedom to become aware of his unique personal construct of the world and is invited to develop and extend this construct at both the feeling and thought level of consciousness. The learner accepts full responsibility for his own learning and in this process realises that the structure as presented must be broken down and reconstructed by himself if it is to be of any real value, like destroying and digesting an apple in the digestive system.' (French , 1981 : 10-11)</p>	<p>imply providing empathy and support) Control over learning, involvement & relevance (personal constructs) Control over learning</p>
<p>Boot and Reynolds (1983) "And the only significant learning is that which is self-discovered 'truth that has been personally appropriated and assimilated in experience'. The role of the teacher changes to that of 'catalyst' or 'facilitator'. He/she is no longer the guardian of wisdom but is 'authentically' available as another person in dialogue. Knowledge is created and negotiated in the classroom, not transmitted" (Boot and Reynolds, 1983 : 4) 'Writers like Goodman (1971), and Rogers (1969) maintain that emotions and values are as involved in any learning as are facts and ideas and that approaches to education that deny this are a distortion of learning. In fact the nineteenth century philosopher Kirkegaard, whom Rogers acknowledges as a major influence on his own thinking about education, maintained that nothing can be truly known without emotion, learning is a passionate affair.' (Boot and Reynolds, 1983 : 7) Boot and Reynolds, (1983 : 7) went on and quoted Kirkegaard, 1959 : 73)-- 'One may have known a thing many times and attempted it; and yet it is only by the deep inward movements, only by the indescribable emotions of the heart, that for the first time you are convinced that what you have known belongs to you, that no power can take it from you; for the only truth which edifies is truth for you'. "Inevitably those concerned with democracy in education see learning as a collective activity. Thus people like Knowles (1970) value groups as a means of 'sharing responsibility in the process of mutual inquiry'. Similarly Thelen (1960) saw</p>	<p>Involvement, relevance, control over learning Involvement Involvement Cross-fertilization of ideas and experiences</p>

Table 8.23 Contd. ...

<p>group investigation as the basis of learning. Learning is a part of development and development is a social process.' (Boot and Reynolds, 1983 : 9)</p> <p>"Self expression and the disclosure of self to others is seen by some as a fundamental part of personal growth. Other people obviously are required for this kind of 'basic encounter' as Rogers (1973) terms it. But since this kind of learning is likely to be threatening or anxiety provoking a great emphasis is also placed upon the group providing a 'safe' and supportive environment in which the individual feels capable of taking risks". (Boot and Reynolds, 1983 : 9)</p> <p>Pope (1983)-</p> <p>'The pupil or student can be active in the physical sense when conducting a closed-experiment but the learning derived from such an experiment will be limited if the person can see no relevant links between the activity and their personal concerns.'</p> <p>'Learner-based learning is self initiated, has the quality of personal involvement and is evaluated by the learner'</p> <p>' ... personal knowledge is facilitated by a specific type of interpersonal encounter between the teacher and the student-- one in which the teacher has due regard for the concerns of the individual student, where status is given to student's views and an atmosphere of mutual trust is established so that students feel free to express <i>their views</i> rather than regurgitate imposed knowledge'</p>	<p>Cross-fertilization of ideas and experiences, nature of learning climate.</p> <p>Relevance, involvement</p> <p>Involvement, control over learning</p> <p>Nature of learning climate.</p>
<p>Marsh (1983)in her study on boredom wrote--</p> <p>"The learners' description of their feelings were of awareness of something which was disabling, which somehow stopped their participation, and which left them without energy. Most of all I was concerned that there was no evidence that any learning had taken place" (Marsh, 1983 : 126)</p> <p>'This was a typical of comments where boredom is attributed to a lack of mental agility and/or inability to relate theory with the practice' (Marsh, 1983 : 127)</p> <p>'This is boredom that can be classified as being unreceptive, distanced' (Marsh, 1983 : 127)</p> <p>'People described boredom coming from fears and insecurities: fear of risk-taking and the inability to cope with uncertainty; and also fear of revealing their feelings to the group or to the tutor.' (Marsh, 1983 : 128)</p>	<p>(Boredom was found to be inhibiting learning)</p> <p>lack of relevance</p> <p>lack of involvement</p> <p>Nature of learning climate (Lack of trust and confidence)</p>

Table 8.24 The Noetic Processes Reported By Mmobuosi, Burgoyne And This Study

Mmobuosi		Burgoyne	This study
1983	1987a	1978	
--	--	Assertive	--
Recalling	--	Recall	Recalling
Reflecting	Reflecting	--	Reflecting
Comparing	Comparing	Comparative	Comparing
--	--	--	Illustrating
Generalizing	Generalizing	--	Eidetic grasping

Table 8.24 shows that these studies reported similar thought processes through which the meanings of lived experiences were ascribed by the respondents. Reservations regarding Burgoyne's (1974) study were highlighted earlier in the comparison of the valued ends. Despite the similarity of the thought process (used by the respondents to ascribe meaning) his study does not offer a sound basis for comparison. However, Mmobuosi's (1983, 1987a) studies do not suffer from these inadequacies. The noetic processes evolved from this study confirm all but one of the noetic processes reported by Mmobuosi (1983, 1987a). This study differs from Mmobuosi (1983, 1987a) on the categorization of generalization as a noetic process. Generalization, as Mmobuosi (1983, 1987a) rightly subscribed to is an inductive process of arriving at general or universal proposition from particulars. Mmobuosi(1987a : 145)mentioned,

"It is the Case 2 manager who exemplifies the logical process of generalization. Using his experience of the particular course, he uses a generalization to express his valuing the course, 'Therefore all such courses should be encouraged' "

In phenomenology knowledge is constituted through eidetic reduction and not induction (see Kohák, 1978). Intersubjectivity of the mundane world is ontologically given. Hence, it is not necessary to investigate every particular to arrive at the general statement. The essence emerged from a

single experience may be adequate to constitute intersubjective validity. Kohák (1978 : 75) asserted,

" ... yet neither is it presented or understood as an inductive generalization.' The speaker does not claim, 'I have observed that all my friends who suffered a grievous personal loss exhibited a decline of interest in their hobbies and I expect to encounter a similar correlation in future incidences', as if he were simply observing behaviour without any grasp of its inner logic. He knows intimately how it fits together. The principle ... appears to him as evident If you suffer a loss, you lose other interest as well ... His entire commonplace observation is in fact a pure eidetic description of a necessary structure of human experience.'

Therefore, this study prefers to interpret the expression offered by Mmobuosi's (1987a) respondent--'*Therefore all such courses should be encouraged'* -- as eidetic grasping rather than inductive generalization.

8.3 Summary

This chapter has attempted to address evaluation by examining the participant experiential structure of the training event. The categories of synthesized transformations which constituted participants' experiential structure, were discussed and evaluation was addressed from different perspectives. Evaluation was considered, from the first perspective, by taking into account the synthesized transformations called valued ends; from the second perspective, by discussing another category of synthesized transformations called the valued end shapers; and finally, from the last perspective, by examining yet another category of synthesized transformations called the noetic processes. The participants' experiential structure reveals that the participants have gained some satisfaction, usefulness, confidence and motivation from the course. Their experiential structure also show that they have acquired knowledge, insight, skills, and changed some attitudes. These acquisitions include gain of knowledge of self, communication, interpersonal relations, work place, motivation, leadership and teamwork; gain of insight about

individual difference, personal initiative, theoretical concepts and relationships; gain of skills of problem solving and managing meetings. The participants' experiential structure demonstrates that some of the valued end shapers have contributed positively towards the valued ends while others have contributed negatively. The positive valued end shapers include, relevance, communicativeness, involvement, nature of learning climate, control over learning, cross-fertilization of ideas and experiences and course composition. The negative valued ends shapers are, job exposure, pre-course communication and physical facilities. Finally, the findings were also compared with the available literature. This revealed some similarities and differences. In the following chapter a further evaluation of the post training event will be addressed. The synthesized transformation (emerged from Chapter 7) constituting participant experiential structure of the post training events will be discussed there.

Chapter 9

EVALUATION OF GROUP LEADER TRAINING COURSE

Discussion Of Participant' Experiential Structure Of Post-Course Events

This chapter discusses the participants' experiential structure of the post-training events in order to address their evaluation of it. As mentioned in Chapter 8, the experiential structure of the post-training events represents the pattern in which the essences are constituted in consciousness. In Chapter 7, the participants' descriptions of the post training events were interpreted and their essences elucidated. Three categories of synthesized transformations emerged from Chapter 7. They included elements of the course applied to the job, the application process shapers and the noetic processes involved in ascribing meaning. The chapter is divided into three sections. The first section considers the participants' experiential structure in terms of the aforementioned categories. The second section discusses the findings of this study in relation to other studies, and finally, the third section summarizes the chapter. Epoché is being de-suspended while carrying out the discussions and comparisons.

9.1 Post-Course Evaluation

Like the previous chapter, participants' evaluations of the post-course events are also being addressed here by examining their post-course experiential structure. The rationale of focusing on the experiential structure in an evaluation exercises was set out in Chapter 8. It was mentioned that the categories transformed and synthesized from original descriptions (employing epoché and eidetic reduction) retain their original meaning while at the same time remove the contingent particularities. That is, the value ascribed to the course by the participants in their natural attitude is also retained in the transformed categories. It was further mentioned that the transformed categories are also intersubjective because intersubjectivity of the mundane world is ontologically given. Therefore, the evaluative significance of the original expressions is retained in the synthesized transformations.

It will be recalled that participants' experiential structure of the post-training event represented the pattern in which the synthesized transformations were constituted in the consciousness. Therefore, the consideration of experiential structure for evaluation implies consideration of transformed and synthesized categories. Further it will be recalled from Chapter 7 that the interpretation of the protocols was facilitated by a set of questions. The questions attempted to address evaluation from different perspectives and offered a basis for the categorization of the synthesized transformations. The following discussion is structured around the categories emerging from the protocols. Hence, the course elements applied to the job, the application process shapers and the processes of consciousness used to ascribe meaning, will now be discussed in turn.

9.1.1 The Noematic Elements : The Elements Applied

A course is likely to be evaluated favourably if the elements acquired from the course are put to use. This category of synthesized transformations was elucidated to ascertain whether or not the participants applied the things which they acquired from the course. The elements of the course applied to the job were categorized as noematic elements because they represented intentional objects (ideas) in respondents' consciousness. As can be observed from the protocols, all respondents reported 'Application of knowledge/skill acquired' (AKSA) from the course. The articulations offered by the respondents on AKSA are presented in Table 9.1

Table 9.1 Articulations Referring To The Application Of Knowledge/ Skills Acquired (AKSA)

Case 1	1	... I can make myself more explicit. The course has definitely helped me ... I can put across my ideas more clearly. ... it made a big difference. One of the best courses I have been on. p. 280.
Case 2	2	... I feel I can communicate better now. The course helped me on that. Every day now I take my two TSOs and then I take the operators on the line and I tell them what is going on during the day ... p. 288.

Table 9.1 Contd. ...

Case 3	3	It's communication ... I always liked to think that I was a good communicator. Dealing with awkward people is something that everyone has nightmares about. It has made it easier for me to understand other peoples' points of view and why people are being awkward. p. 290.
	4	I feel that I am more confident. I definitely feel more confident and feel happier with myself about the job. I feel that I will argue my point more on behalf of the group that I am in charge of. Trying to actually organise as well I felt a bit more of a benefit from that. They covered organization quite a bit as well. ... The course helped me overcome that. p. 291.
	5	I am much more aware of the quality of everything I am putting out work-wise now ... p. 291.
	6	... to explain to them what I want from them rather than just expecting them to know quality wise, moves- production wise and trying to get them more involved in the work so that they understand the problems and then I go back to them and speak to them individually to let them know about their performance as well and if they have any problems they can talk about to me now. ... I am starting to see the benefits in production. p. 291-292.
	7	I got some very important but general ideas. As I am putting them into practice they are getting better every time. p. 292.
Case 4	8	I plan better since the course. ... I have consciously made an effort to try and do that. p. 297.
	9	The course highlighted the need to get things organized. I now set aside time on the weekend to try and organize myself. I also go around all of the girls before the group meeting and ask them if they have any points that they wish me to raise with management or any problems that they have-- I try and involve them as much as I can and afterwards I report back to them and tell them exactly what is happening. I try and keep them informed. p. 297-298.
	10	... I also learned that from the course to try and work with the girls better to get their support and I think that things work well. p. 298.
Case 5	11	Initially I tried some of the ideas from the course, but I tended to be snowballed in ... That is me advanced planning ...p. 302.
Case 6	12	The only thing that I got from the course is-- if a problem arises you deal with it. ... I have tried out that type of thing ...p. 308.

Table 9.1 Contd. ...

	13	... I don't go about saying "you've to do this!". I make sure that they understand why I'm telling them to do that. I think that was dealt with in the course as well. 'People related', the 'personality type' thing. p. 308.
Case 7	14	One of the things that the course helped me is that if I have got a problem I do not jump in with both feet ... I leave it until the next day. I go home and tackle it the next day. p. 317-318.
	15	... at the end of the day I was able to sort it out ... p. 318.
	16	... when it happened, everybody shouting at each other's face, I just had been in, whereas I didn't engage right away, I just took things in perspective and said right we will have a meeting and we did first thing in the morning. This was a course idea. p. 318.
	17	It certainly stressed fairness, I would say that was, I think, a strength. I think--because I treated them fairly ...p. 319.
	18	I have got to cool them up at tea breaks, daily in the mornings. Work wise, there is a lot of resentments. If I got to hold a meeting I say 'alright you decide' and ask for their comment. p. 323.
	19	The majority of the course work have been about dealing with other people, how to best handle situations. I think that's what I have used. p. 324.

The use of the course elements was conveyed by phrases such as '*I can put across my ideas more clearly. ... it made a big difference.*' (Case 1 : 1); '*... I have consciously made an effort to try and do that.*' (Case 4 : 8); '*... I have tried out that type of thing ...*' (Case 6 : 12); '*I think that's what I have used.*' (Case 7 : 19). A noematic table (i.e., Table 9.2) is constructed showing the themes that have emerged from the articulations presented in Table 9.1.

Table 9.2 Noematic Table : The Elements Applied

Themes	Case and Quote Nos. from Table 8.4
Interpersonal Relations	Case 3 (3, 6); Case 4 (9, 10); Case 6 (13); Case 7 (14, 15, 16, 17, 18 and 19).
Communications	Case 1 (1); Case 2 (2); Case 3 (3, 6); Case 4 (9); Case 7 (18).
Organizing	Case 3 (4); Case 4 (9); Case 5 (11).
Planning	Case 4 (8); Case 5 (11).
Self-confidence	Case 3 (4)
Quality Awareness	Case 3 (5)
General Management Ideas	Case 3 (7)
Problem Solving	Case 6 (12)

Table 9.2 reveals that the knowledge/skill of interpersonal relations was used by Case 3, Case 4, Case 6 and Case 7. For example, Case 6 (13) attributed her practice of interpersonal interaction to the course -- i.e., the 'people related thing' covered in the course. A sense of 'beneficiality' and 'effectiveness' is implicit in the articulation. This indicated a positive evaluation of the course. Table 9.2 also suggests that the knowledge/skill of communication was used by Case 1, Case 2, Case 3, Case 4, and Case 7. The respondents have attributed their communication practices to the course. For example, the expressions such as '*The course has definitely helped me*' (Case 1 : 1); '*The course helped me on that*' (Case 2 : 2); '*It has made it easier ...*' (Case 3 : 3) etc. confirm the point just made. While phrases such as '*more explicit*', '*better*', '*easier*' etc. convey a favourable note, a positive evaluation is both explicit and implicit in the articulations. For example, Case 1 (1) said-- '*... I can make myself more explicit. The course has definitely helped me ...*', Case 2 (2) mentioned -- '*... I feel I can communicate better now. The course helped me on that.*' and Case 3 (6) stated-- '*... I am starting to see the benefits in production.*' Table 9.2 further shows that Case 3, Case 4, and Case 5 used knowledge/skill of organizing; Case 4 and Case 5 used knowledge/skill of planning; Case 3 used her self confidence, awareness of quality and general management ideas; and finally Case 6 used problem solving skills. Like interpersonal relations and communication, the respondents' expressions

also reveal that they have perceived the course as contributing towards the use of knowledge and skills just mentioned. For example Case 3 (7) mentioned -- '*I got some very important but general ideas. As I am putting them into practice they are getting better every time*' and Case 4 (9) said-- '*The course highlighted the need to get things organized. I now set aside time on the weekend to try and organize myself.*' The respondents have also evaluated the course favourably in terms of the use of these knowledge and skills. Case 3 (5) expressed-- '*I am much more aware of the quality of everything ...*' while Case 4 (8) noted-- '*I plan better since the course. ... I have consciously made an effort to try and do that.*' Although only a few examples were cited in the foregoing, every articulation presented in Table 9.1, either explicitly or implicitly, conveyed an ascription of positive value. This overwhelmingly indicated a favourable evaluation of the course. Case 1 (1)'s expression appears to support the point strongly. She asserted-- '*One of the best courses I have been on*' Recommending for a follow-up course she stated--

'I suppose it would be good now that we are doing the job-- six months or more-- if there is a follow up one. Possibly something like that and we would maybe find it even more beneficial.' (see Protocol 1, p. 279)

Table 9.3 compares the end-course and post-course reports of valued ends. It is interesting to observe a high degree of consistency in the reports of valued ends even after six months. This consistency also indicates that the reports of the experiences were well considered and offer support to the favourable evaluation made earlier. As these valued ends were discussed at length in the previous chapter, it is not appropriate to re-examine them here.

Table 9.3 Comparison Of The End-Course And Post-Course Reports Of Valued Ends

Valued ends	Case 1	Case 2	Case 3	Case 4	Case 5	Case 6	Case 7
Satisfaction	* (Δ)	* (Δ)	* (Δ)	*	*	*	*
Usefulness	* (Δ)	* (Δ)	* (Δ)	* (Δ)	*	* (Δ)	*
Acquisition of knowledge, insight, skill/ change of attitude	* (Δ)	* (Δ)	* (Δ)	* (Δ)	*	* (Δ)	* (Δ)
Gain of Confidence	-- (Δ)	* (Δ)	* (Δ)	*	--	*	*
Gain of Motivation	*	*	--	--	*	--	*
Course materials as reference	--	--	--	--	*	*	--

Note: The asterisks and the triangles refer to the end-course and the post-course reports of valued ends respectively. Also note that Case 5's interview had to stopped premature because of tape recorder malfunctioning. Hence caution has to exercised in interpreting the lack of report as lack of consistency.

9.1.2 The Noematic Elements : The Application Process Shapers

In the foregoing discussion, evaluation was addressed from the perspective of the actual application of the course elements to the job. This discussion now goes on to address evaluation at a deeper level. Moving beyond the straight forward ascription of meaning (e.g. the ones expressed in the statements of application), this discussion elucidates the patterns of relationships ascribed between the shapers and the application process. The consideration of the shapers by the respondents reflects their awareness of the application of the course elements to the job. This affirms their ascription of value to the course. For example, the presence of a positive shaper facilitates the application of course elements. This increases the course's contribution to the job and, in turn, implies an ascription of positive value to the course. Conversely, the presence of a negative shaper restricts the application of course elements. This

decreases the course's contribution to the job and, in turn, implies an ascription of negative value to the course.

It can be observed from the protocols that a shaper can exist as a pre-given. The reference to the pre-given shaper can be found in expressions such as these--

That is the way it [SNsD-- Supportive co-worker] used to work before there was any group leaders anyway. I feel that is just the way the shift is. It isn't anything that has been put there it is just something that is there. [Case 6, p. 309] or,

There are so many personalities involved within, [SNsD-- Non-supportive co-worker] it is difficult to make them better because that has been there before-- the same situations they are now. [Case 7, p. 324]

In instances like these, a shaper can contribute, either positively or negatively, towards any initiative-- be it in relation to the course in question, or any other course or even any other initiative. Moreover, the protocols reveal that a shaper can also exist in relation to the course in question. The reference to the course-specific shapers can be observed from statements such as the following--

We absolutely know what work they want from us. ... This time it's [Role Definition (RD)] clear, you get an idea what they expect from you. ... at the moment I can go in the morning and know what is expected of me exactly. I now have a job description ... [Case 3, p. 295-296]

The crucial point is that, for the purpose of evaluation, the significance of a shaper does not diminish just because it exists as something pre-given. A pre-given shaper, in addition to any other course, applies to the course in question just as the shaper that is specific to it.

The application process shapers are categorized as noematic elements because they are intentional objects (relationships) in the consciousness of the respondents. Table 9.4 presents the application process shapers that were perceived by the respondents as contributing positively or negatively

towards the application process. The eleven shapers are *Supportive/Non-supportive Disposition (SNsD)*, *Role Definition (RD)*, *Role Conflict (RC)*, *Pressures Of Production (PP)*, *Reward/Non-reward Orientation (RNrO)*, *Relevance (R)*, *Communication (C)*, *Job Autonomy (JA)*, *Formal Power (FP)*, *Motivation (M)*, and *Application Skills (AS)*. Application Skills (AS) can be subdivided into -- *Ability To Assert (AA)*, *Ability To Treat Fairly (ATF)*, *Ability To Relate (AR)*, *Ability To Communicate (AC)* and *Ability To Relax Under Pressure (ARUP)*. These shapers will now be considered in turn.

Table 9.4 Shapers Perceived By The Respondents As Contributing Positively/ Negatively Towards The Application Process

Shapers	Case 1	Case 2	Case 3	Case 4	Case 5	Case 6	Case 7
a. Supportive/ Non-supportive Disposition (SNsD)	+?	+	+	----	----	-	+?
SUP CW	-?	+	----	+?	-?	+	-
b. Role Definition (RD)	----	-?	+	-	----	-	-
c. Role Conflict (RC)	----	----	----	-	----	-	-
d. Pressures of Production (PP)	-	----	----	-	-	----	-
e. Reward/ Non-reward Orientation (RNrO)	-	----	----	-?	-	-	----
f. Relevance (R)	+	----	----	----	----	+	+?
g. Communication (C)	----	----	----	-	----	-	----
h. Job Autonomy (JA)	----	----	----	----	----	-	-
i. Formal Power (FP)	----	----	----	----	----	----	-
j. Motivation (M)	+	+	+	+	----	----	+?
k. Application Skills (AS)	+	+	+	+	+	+	+

Note : The note of interrogation indicates reservations or mixed perceptions

a. Supportive/ Non-supportive Disposition [SNsD]

This refers to a person's perception of the disposition of superior and co-worker as helpful or unhelpful towards him/her. The protocols suggest

that the respondents largely evaluated the course as favourable in terms of SNsD's implication on the application process. Table 9.5 presents the articulations offered by the respondents referring to SNsD.

Table 9.5 Articulations Referring To Supportive/ Non-Supportive Disposition (SNsD)

Case 1	1	We are getting a lot of help and a lot of support from the M.Es. p. 279.
	2	My boss and the people above him are very good. They listen to you whatever you have. If I was to make a decision or anything like that they would back me. p. 280.
	3	I find them very helpful, anything at all that they can do. This is the people above us - they are very keen for this job to take off so they definitely give us the support and help that we require. It helps, you know, you feel encouraged to try out your course experiences. p. 280.
	4	... at times some of the people I work with annoy me. p. 281.
	5	Sometimes these people can be difficult to handle. ... it is not usually that bad. But with something like that ... it can really get to you and hold you back in trying your ideas. p.282.
	6	You can approach any of your superiors and speak to them and tell them what you think and what you feel and even how you could make it better or how it could be made better. ... I would have felt really bad if I couldn't. ... The fact that you can, is another thing that encourages you to try course ideas. p. 284.
	7	But it is a very bad point that sometimes they do nothing. Sometimes you feel as though you are hitting your head off a brick wall ... p. 284.
Case 2	8	... so the girls that I am now working with are sorry to see me go. p. 286.
	9	The girls like me. They are very supportive. You find it very difficult to try out new things if they don't support you. p. 288.
	10	I also have a good relationship with everyone of the bosses and above them. ... Overall they are very supportive-- 100 per cent. p. 288-289.
Case 3	11	Again, I have to be honest to say I have a lot of back-ups from my bosses. I felt I can go and speak to them ... I have found as well that they have been good in giving me back ups. ... It is positive when I feel that I need help and they are there to help me, to support me. Specially at this initial stage of the job, it's very important 293-294.

Table 9.5 Contd. ...

	12	... management have an active interest for this job to take off. ... they have a positive attitude towards it and they are trying to make it work. p. 295-296.
Case 4	13	... I think that things work well. ... I feel that the girls are supportive. p. 298.
	14	Again it is not always easy. There are few people who see you as interfering with them and there are other people who say yes all of the time ... On the whole, the girls with whom I work are good ... At times it is difficult to get on with a new idea. I find also that I am getting round this and it is getting better. So it is not very bad. p. 298.
Case 5	15	My team members also do not take the job seriously. To them it is just a job. They come in, do their work and go home. ... If something goes wrong ... They don't care. ... Some are very conscious of their targets ... they are concerned. ... But some do not seem to be aware of the importance of their job. p. 305
Case 6	16	I found that very awkward but you have to get on with it. They know that it is my job and I have to do it. p. 308.
	17	I think it is a fact that the people with whom I work-- we all get on. It is really good. p. 309.
	18	We all work together as a team and everyone enjoys working like that. We have absolutely a good team work. It is exceptional. ... It is more like a social event coming to work. If I want to take any initiative they will back me up. The girls have taken to me easily. They all said that I was the person for the job on the shift. I tell them as much as I know. p. 309-310.
	19	A positive thing ... there is real co-operation on the shift p. 311.
	20	The attitude of the Manufacturing Engineers is negative. They are not interested. They think that we are there to do their jobs. p. 313.
Case 7	21	You are left to your own. p. 322.
	22	At times I find it difficult to handle the girls. Aamm ... there is one of them ... saw my job as being threatening ... p. 323.
	23	... that's one of the most frustrating area. ... There are so many personalities involved within, it is difficult to make them better because that has been there before-- the same situations they are now. p. 324.

Table 9.5 Contd. ...

	24	They push you to see how far you could be pushed and just to see the extent of your powers. p. 326.
	25	The people around you don't always appreciate the initiatives you take. ... this is definitely unhelpful. ... This applies to people who are above, below and around me. p. 326-327.
	26	But my boss, I would say, is nice and he encourages to try new things. p. 327.

The descriptions of experience in Table 9.5 reveal that Case 1 (with reservation), Case 2, Case 3 and Case 7 (with reservation) perceived their superiors as having a supportive disposition while Case 6 experienced her superiors as having an unsupportive disposition. Furthermore, Case 2, Case 4 (with reservation) and Case 6 experienced their co-workers as having a supportive disposition while Case 1 (with reservation) Case 5 (with reservation) and Case 7 perceived their co-workers as having an unsupportive disposition. A perception of supportive disposition emerged from the expressions such as ' ... *getting a lot of help and a lot of support from the M.Es.*' [Case 1 (1)], '*they would back me.*' [Case 1 (2)], ' ... *they are very supportive-- 100 per cent.*' [Case 2 (10)], ' ... *I have a lot of back-ups from my bosses.*' [Case 2 (10)] and '*my boss ... is nice and he encourages to try new things.*' [Case 2 (10)]. Case 1 and Case 3 maintained that management had an active interest in their work. The articulations, such as, ' ... *they are very keen for this job to take off ...*' [Case 1 (3)] and ' ... *management have an active interest for this job to take off.*' [Case 3 (12)], substantiate the point just made. These two respondents also held that their bosses were approachable. They mentioned that, '*You can approach any of your superiors and speak to them and tell them what you think ...*' [Case 1 (6)] and '*I can go and speak to them ...*' [Case 3 (11)]. However, Case 1 and Case 7 maintained reservations. Case 1 reported management's failure to take follow up actions, -- '*sometimes they do nothing*' [Case 1(7)] and expressed her frustration-- '*... as though you are hitting your head off a brick wall ...*' [Case 1(7)]. Although Case 7 perceived her boss as supportive, she experienced management's support as inadequate and said, '*You are left to your own*' [Case 7(21)]. Contrary to the perceptions of other respondents, Case 6 noted that her immediate superiors, i.e., the Manufacturing

Engineers (ME), were passive [*'They are not interested.'* Case 6 (20)], and apprehensive [*'They think that we are there to do their jobs.'* Case 6 (20)].

A perception of supportive co-worker emerged from expressions such as, '*... so the girls ... are sorry to see me go ...*' [Case 2(8)], '*The girls like me. They are very supportive.*' [Case 2 (9)], '*... the girls are very supportive.*' [Case 4 (13)] and '*They know that it is my job and I have to do it.*' [Case 6 (16)]. In Case 6 co-worker supportiveness was manifested through group cohesiveness [*'--we all get on.'* Case 6 (17), '*absolutely a good team work. It is exceptional. ... It is more like a social event coming to work.*' Case 6 (18)] and mutual acceptance, respect, trust and confidence [*' ... have taken to me easily. ... said that I was the person for the job on the shift. I tell them as much as I know.'* Case 6 (16)]. Although Case 4 perceived her co-workers as supportive [Case 4 (13)], she also noted that there were some exceptions. However, she did not consider that these exceptional examples of unsupportive co-workers posed a problem which was difficult for her to handle. Contrary to the perceptions held by the aforementioned cases (i.e., Case 2, Case 4 and Case 6), Case 1, Case 5 and Case 7 perceived the co-workers as unsupportive. Case 1 and Case 5 highlighted the element of unsupportiveness while simultaneously acknowledging some supportive elements. For example, while emphasizing passivity, [*... do not take the job seriously. ... They don't care. ...* Case 5 (15)], Case 5 also acknowledged active [*... Some are very conscious of their targets ... they are concerned. ...* Case 5 (15)] interest in the co-workers. Similarly, Case 1(5) perceived the co-workers as 'difficult', but at the same time noted that the problem of handling them was not '*usually that bad*'. In Case 7, the perception of unsupportive co-worker was manifested through apprehensiveness [*... saw my job as being threatening ...* Case 7 (22)] and hostile attitude [*... the most frustrating area. ... There are so many personalities involved ...* Case 7 (22)] of her colleagues. ^{Case}7 (25) also indicated that an element of 'resistance to change' was present in the superiors and the co-workers and highlighted that the superiors and co-workers don't always appreciate the initiatives.

The protocols also indicate that both supportive and unsupportive dispositions are related to the application process. Supportive disposition

was perceived to be positively contributing to the application process while unsupportive disposition was perceived to be negatively contributing to it. That superior's supportive disposition contributed positively towards the application process, can be observed in Case 1 (3, 6), Case 3 (11) and Case 7 (26). For example Case 1 (6) said, '*The fact that you can [approachable--supportive disposition (superior)], is another thing that encourages you [ascription of positive value] to [ascription of relationship] try course ideas [application of course elements]*'. The supportive disposition of the co-workers was also perceived to be positively contributing to the application process. Case 2 (9), Case 4 (13), and Case 6 (18) support the assertion just made. For instance, Case 6 (18) noted, '*If I want to take any initiative [application of course elements] they will [ascription of positive relationship] back me up [supportive disposition (co-workers)]*'. That unsupportive disposition of superiors contributed negatively to the application process can be found in Case 7. Case 7(25) expressed, '*... don't [ascription of negative value] always appreciate [unsupportive disposition of the superiors and co-workers] the initiatives you take [application of course elements]. ... this is definitely unhelpful [ascription of negative relationship]. ...*'

The foregoing discussion suggests that the respondents largely perceived SNsD as a shaper that contributed towards the application process. The negative contribution of SNsD towards the application process can also be observed. Considering the implications of SNsD on the application process it may be concluded that the respondents evaluated the course favourably, although some evidence of unfavourable evaluation could also be observed.

b. Role Definition [RD]

Role definition refers to the degree of clarity of roles. The protocols suggests that the respondents evaluated the course less favourably in terms of RD's implication on the application process. Table 9.4 demonstrated that except for Case 1 and Case 5, all respondents referred to RD and predominantly found it to be restricting the application process. Table 9.6 presents the respondents' descriptions of their experiences of RD.

Table 9.6 Articulations Referring To Role Definition (RD)

Case 2	1	I feel there was a bit confusion initially about this group leader thing. I have a good idea of what we are expected to do. ... A lot of people were unsure at first what exactly we are to do but it is coming together now. p. 287.
	2	The position is new and the confusion about it tends to put you down but this is not a big problem. p. 288.
Case 3	3	We absolutely know what work they want from us. ... This time it's clear, you get an idea what they expect from you. ... at the moment I can go in the morning and know what is expected of me exactly. I now have a job description ... p. 295-296.
	4	I had to distance myself from the people who work for me. ... When I was first doing the job I used to sit beside the girls and it became quite awkward. ... People get confused seeing me socializing and gossiping in the tea breaks, and then again seeing me telling them what to do and what not to do-- telling them what they are doing right and what they are doing wrong. Either they don't take you seriously or start to dislike you. p. 296.
Case 4	5	The idea of group leader is new and I don't think that the people around know clearly what it is. Sometimes you arrive and you are expected to be an operator, again you are expected to be leading the group, you are expected to know everything. But if there is one person off you are covering their job and I don't think that it is clearly enough defined what the job of a group leader is. ... Sometimes I feel that it is just a name they have given ...p. 299-300.
Case 6	6	They didn't know what they expected of us ... p. 308.
	7	The group leaders were supposed to take over the M.E's work so that they can do other things. They are still there. I feel this very negative. They should not be there. I don't know what they do. We are doing their jobs as far as I am aware. p. 310.
	8	... if you constantly have a diffusion boss on your back you just think "Why am I here". Because there is no need for two doing the same job. p. 312.
	9	We were meant to be group leaders and they were meant to be doing the manufacturing engineering ... They aren't. p. 313.
Case 7	10	We are given a job description -- not really too well at all ... p. 321.

Table 9.6 Contd. ...

	11	But they don't have a plan, A lot of the time it was that 'just put in there and that's it'. You have got a new title and that's not really much help other than that you have got the course you did yesterday. You are left to your own.p. 322.
	12	Problem is --I was a TSO before, I was just below the senior one in my group, obviously I was doing the bulk of this job beforehand daily and lot of us were doing this in that position. Whereas now we have got the title, the job description, again we are not doing the things, we should be doing because of the problem of head count. This is really very bad. As I said, I don't find that they planned the job well. p. 322.
	13	I do run the machine as well. They tend not to see me as being a person to be taken seriously. This makes it difficult to try out course ideas. p. 323-324.

Table 9.6 shows that Case 2 (1, 2), Case 4 (5), Case 6 (6, 7, 8, 9) and Case 7 (10, 11, 12) perceived ambiguity in the definition of their roles. Phrases such as '*confusion*' [Case 2 (1, 2)], '*unsure*' [Case 2 (1)], '*don't ... know clearly ...*' [Case 4 (5)], '*don't think ... clearly enough defined ...*' [Case 4 (5)], '*-- not really too well at all ...*' [Case 7 (10)] etc, reveal ambiguity in role definition. Case 4 (5), Case 6 (6) and Case 7 (11) viewed that management had inadequate awareness and understanding of the role. For example, expressions, such as, '*They didn't know what they expected of us ...*' [Case 6 (6)] or '*I don't find that they planned the job well.*' [Case 7 (12)] substantiate the point just made. The respondents also found lack of distinction between various roles in the role set for group leaders. Other roles in the role set included the Manufacturing Engineer (ME) [superior]; Technical Support Operator (TSO) [co-worker cum subordinate] and the operator [co-worker cum subordinate]. In terms of what was practised, Case 4 (5) and Case 7 (12) failed to distinguish between an operator and a group leader; Case 6 (7, 8, 9) failed to differentiate between an ME and a group leader and Case 7 could not draw distinction between a TSO and a group leader. The expression-- '*Sometimes I feel that it is just a name they have given ...*' [Case 4 (5)]-- describes the lack of distinction thereby the lack of clarity of role definition. The ambiguity of role definition was also attributed to the newness of the post of group leader [see Case 1 (1, 2) and Case 4(5)].

Contrary to the predominant perception, Case 3 (3) reported a high degree of clarity of her role definition. Unlike others, Case 3 perceived that management had a clear knowledge of their roles, and that the job description was adequately defined. Further, the projection of a separate identity by Case 3 (4) sharpened the clarity of her role within her role set. Furthermore, while highlighting the degree of initial confusion and uncertainty among the co-workers, Case 2 (1, 2) also perceived that she had adequate knowledge of her role as a group leader. Case 3 also indicated that there was a growing understanding and clarity of the role among the co-workers.

The relationship between RD and the application process will now be explored. The respondents' expressions in the protocols reveal the existence of this relationship. One such example was provided by Case 2 (2), she said, ' ... *the confusion about it* [ambiguity of RD] *tends to* [ascription of relationship] *put you down* [implicit reference to the application process]' Case 7 (13) offered a more explicit description, she stated, '*This* [lack of clarity of RD] *makes it* [ascription of relationship] *difficult* [ascription of negative value] *to try out course ideas* [application of course elements to the job].' Besides, phrases such as '*put you down*' [Case 2 (2)], '*very negative*' [Case 6 (7)], etc. convey the ascription of negative ^{value} to the shaper RD in its relationship with the application process. The predominant ascription of negative value by the respondents indicated a depleted contribution of the course to the job, which in turn implied a less favourable evaluation of the course.

c. **Role Conflict (RC)**

Role conflict is the simultaneous existence of two or more sets of role expectations on a focal person in such a way that compliance with one makes it difficult to comply with the other (Huczynski and Buchanan, 1991). Role conflict and role definition are treated here as separate application process shapers. While the presence of role ambiguity may give rise to role conflict, an absence of role ambiguity does not necessarily imply an absence of role conflict. A person may have a clear understanding of his/her role yet be subject to conflicting expectation.

Hence, they are distinct from each other. According to the descriptions, the respondents evaluated the course less favourably in terms of RC's contribution to the application process. Table 9.4 displays that Case 4, Case 6 and Case 7 referred to RC as an application process shaper. The relevant expressions are presented in Table 9.7.

Table 9.7 Articulations Referring To Role Conflict (RC)

Case 4	1	Sometimes you arrive and you are expected to be an operator, again you are expected to be leading the group, you are expected to know everything. But if there is one person off you are covering their job and I don't think that it is clearly enough defined what the job of a group leader is. I really don't, you are either one thing or another. They expect you to be everything all the time and I find this difficult. ... Sometimes I feel that it is just a name they have given ... p. 299-300.
Case 6	2	Because you have too many people to answer to, too many people to listen to and you don't know what to take from it. If one says 'do this' the other says 'do that'. I think this is a very bad thing when it comes to trying out new ideas. p. 311.
Case 7	3	Again reporting to two bosses is confusing. Because it is much easier to report to one person, you have one person involved. Because of different ideas, you get tired all the time. Their ideas are different. It makes it more difficult to put course ideas to practice, because one thinks it is a good idea the other doesn't. p. 323.

As the expressions in Table 9.7 reveal, the respondents perceived that they were exposed to conflicting role expectations. Case 4 viewed that inadequate definition of the various roles in her role set led her superiors developing expectations which she found difficult to complying with simultaneously. Case 4 (1) noted, ' ... *you are either one thing or another. They expect you to be everything all the time and I find this difficult.*' Case 6 and Case 7 held that the conflicting expectations emanated from multiple reporting relationships. For example Case 6 (2) narrated,

" ... *too many people to answer to, too many people to listen to and you don't know what to take from it. If one says 'do this' the other says 'do that'.*"

and Case 7 (3) reported, '*... one thinks it is a good idea the other doesn't.*' Both Case 6 and Case 7 perceived that it would have been easier for them to report to one person rather than several bosses. The statement '*... it is much easier to report to one person, you have one person involved.*' [Case 7 (3)] highlights the point.

As a shaper, RC was ascribed to be related to the application process. RC was further attributed to have a negative value in its relationship with this process. The articulations offered by Case 6 (2) and Case 7 (3) substantiate this assertion. Case 6 (2) stated, '*I think this [ascription of relationship] is a very bad thing [ascription of negative value] when it comes to [ascription of relationship] trying out new ideas' [application of course elements to the job].* Similarly, Case 7 (3) maintained, '*It makes [ascription of relationship] it more difficult [ascription of negative value] to put course ideas to practice [application of course elements to the job], because one thinks it is a good idea the other doesn't ' [role conflict].* That RC was ascribed to have restricted the application of course elements to the job, indicated that the respondents evaluated the course less favourably in terms of application.

d. Pressures Of Production (PP)

The pressures of production (PP) relate to the demands and constraints placed on an individual engaged in a production job. The expressions in the protocols suggest that the respondents evaluated the course less favourably in terms of PP's implication on the application process. Table 9.4 demonstrates that Case 1, Case 4, Case 5 and Case 7 identified PP as a shaper that was related to the application process. Table 9.8 displays the articulations offered by the respondents signifying PP.

Table 9.8 Articulations Referring To Pressures Of Production (PP)

Case 1	1	... at other times you just don't get the chance because you are that busy, you just cannot bring it into your normal every day job. I would say a lot of the time it holds you back. p. 283.
Case 4	2	... there is a real change in staff so that you are covering a lot of different jobs. p. 300.
	3	If you are covering the operators job all the time or you are constantly on the machines you don't see what is going on around, you can't effectively handle situations or manage them. p. 300.
	4	... you have a constant change of staff constantly training them up. ... But with there being such a constant change they are not getting the experience, they are not settling down. p. 301.
Case 5	5	Initially I tried some of the ideas from the course, but I tended to be snowballed in. It is a very very hectic environment and things change from hour to hour never mind day to day which makes it very difficult to implement a lot of the things that I learned. ... Sometimes you feel as if you are best going in blind ... you could have too much chopping and changing ... p. 302-303.
	6	It is just such a high pressure environment as well that it is just not possible to say wait I want to do this now. p. 304.
Case 7	7	I feel I am doing an awful lot less then I first perceived I would be doing in the role of a group leader, I would say, 80-90% of my day is still spent on the machine and it's very difficult to get away from running the machine. Aamm A lot of the time the job I take over from them are not the thing I want to do, there is no one there and obviously production comes first. p. 319.
	8	Although the tasks are varied, they are routine, very routine. Because, it becomes so rigid, you don't see things, you don't see things going on around, and it affects you, it becomes so rigid that you blank and a lot of the things I should be doing, and could be doing, I can't because I am tied to production. p. 319-320.
	9	the head count problems, we have lost an operator on my shift. Everyone is doing more. p. 321.
	10	we are not doing the things, we should be doing because of the problem of head count. This is really very bad. p. 322.

Table 9.8 Contd. ...

	11	they want us do other things involving people but they don't give you the time to do it. p. 324.
	12	You feel you are not doing your job all of the time and you are doing other things, you are not getting the chance to put into practice the things you know. There is no opportunity for it. p. 328.
	13	Everything is very ad hoc -- as long as we keep things moving it is OK. If there is a problem, all you have is a quick fix, and then if any disaster happens -- It just don't go ahead because they have not done it properly. ... This situation definitely affects. You don't get the opportunity to put your learning to use as much as you like to. p. 327-328.

The descriptions of experience in Table 9.8 provide explicit reference to the presence of pressures of production. Expressions such as, '*that busy*' [Case 1 (1)], '*constantly on the machines*' [Case 4 (3)], '*very difficult to get away from running the machine*' [Case 7 (7)], '*I am tied to production*' [Case 7 (8)], '*Everyone is doing more*' [Case 7 (9)], etc., offer the evidence that support the existence of PP. The expressions in Table 9.8 also reveal that the respondents experienced four types of pressures in relations to production. These included, pressures for meeting production targets, pressures emanating from production environment, pressures emerging out of production processes and finally the pressures arising out of the strength of production staff. Expressions offered by Case 1 (1), Case 4 (3), and Case 7 (7, 11,12, 13) contain references about the pressures of meeting production target. While some of these references are implicit, others are explicit. For instance, ' ... *you are that busy* ...' [Case 1 (1)] or ' ... *you are constantly on the machines* ...' [Case 4 (3)] implicitly reflect the urgency (pressures) to meet production target. Explicit reference was made by Case 7 (7); she told that,

'80-90% of my day is still spent on the machine and it's very difficult to get away from running the machine. ... obviously production comes first.'

The extent of involvement with the machine coupled with the realization of the priority of production ('*comes first*') underscored the urgency

(pressures) of meeting production target. On another occasion, Case 7 (13) described, '

Everything is very ad hoc -- as long as we keep things moving it is OK. If there is a problem, all you have is a quick fix ... '

'Keeping things moving' and 'having a quick fix' also reflect urgency of meeting production targets.

Case 4 (4), and Case 5 (5, 6), highlighted the pressures emanating from the production environment. The environment was characterized by intensive [*' ... a very very hectic environment ...'* Case 5 (5) and *'... a high pressure environment ...'* Case 5 (6)]; fast and constant change [*' ... things change from hour to hour never mind day to day ...'* Case 5 (5) *'... you have a constant change of staff ...'* Case 4 (4)]; loss of control [*'... going in blind ...'* Case 5 (5)]; and unpredictability [*'... too much chopping and changing ...'* Case 5 (5)].

Case 7 underscored the pressures arising out of the production process. Case 7 (8) pictured the process as routine and rigid; she held that such a rigid process was contributing towards the formation of stereo types. The expression-- *'... they are routine, very routine. ... it becomes so rigid that you blank ...'* Case 7 (8) --reveals the point just made.

Case 4 (2, 3, 4) and Case 7 (7, 9, 10) mentioned about the pressures arising out of shortage of production staff. Phrases such as *'covering'* [Case 4 (2, 3)], *'there is no one there'* [Case 7 (7)], *'everyone is doing more'* [Case 7 (9)], *'head count problems'* Case 7 (9, 10) etc. indicates the presence of pressures to which the group leaders were exposed to as a result of staff shortages. Case 4 (3) reported that the shortage was not only in terms of numbers, but also in terms of skills and work experience.

The relationship between the pressures of production (PP) and application process can be discerned from the expressions offered by the respondents. Explicit ascription of relationship can be found in Case 1 (1) Case 4 (3) Case 5 (5, 6) Case 4 (8, 12, 13). PP was perceived to be negatively related to the application process. For example Case 5 (5) said that,

Initially I tried some of the ideas from the course [application of course elements], but I tended to be snowballed in [ascription of negative value]. It is a very very hectic environment and things change from hour to hour never mind day to day [pressures of production-- production environment] which makes it [ascription of relationship] very difficult [ascription of negative value] to implement a lot of the things that I learned [application of course elements].'

That PP negatively contributed to the application process, can also be observed in Case 7 (12),

You feel you are not doing your job all of the time and you are doing other things [pressures of production-- meeting target], you are not getting the chance [ascription of negative value] to put into [ascription of relationship] practice the things you know [application of course elements].

and in Case 7 (13),

This situation [pressures of production-- meeting target] definitely affects [ascription of relationship]. You don't get the opportunity [ascription of negative value] to put [ascription of relationship] your learning to use as much as you like to [application of course elements].

The foregoing discussion suggests that the respondents perceived the pressures of production as a shaper restricting the application of course elements to the job. Therefore, considering the implications of PP on the application process, it may be inferred that the respondents evaluated the course less favourably.

e. Reward/Non-Reward Orientation (RNrO)

This refers to management's orientation in securing employee allegiance and compliance. A reward orientation characterizes management's reliance on the administration of rewards a means of securing employee allegiance and compliance. Conversely, a non-reward orientation

characterizes management's reliance on measures that cannot be termed as rewards. The experiential descriptions offered by the respondents suggest that they evaluated the course less favourably in terms of RNrO's implication on the application process. Table 9.4 shows that RNrO was reported by Case 1, Case 4, Case 5 and Case 6 as a shaper that was related to the application process. The expressions referring to RNrO are presented in Table 9.9.

Table 9.9 Articulations Referring To Reward/ Non-Reward Orientation (RNrO)

Case 1	1	Obviously, I wouldn't be coming out to do this if I wasn't getting paid, so, obviously, money does make a difference. As you know there was quite a bit of bad feeling when we got the job because it wasn't the amount - the salary wasn't as great as what a lot of people expected it to be but I think that has all calmed down now and hopefully, having done the job, when it comes for us to be assessed at the end of the year then we should reap the benefits after having done the job. p.283.
Case 4	2	When we did get back these record moves, I went to my boss and said "I think you should praise the girls up for doing these record moves". She arrived and praised them all and then she went to her boss and he said that at some point we could have cakes and coffee so she said that we were going to have a meeting and serve this just to thank them. It was quite good. p. 298-299.
	3	Financially, well I am not getting paid yet for it and I have been doing it for six months. I have not been given the scale for the job yet. I am still a TSO because you have to do the job for six months before you get paid for it. I feel terrible, because you are doing the job and they are giving you the responsibility of the job but not the responsibility of the extra money. I find this a bit unfair. Well, I am not entirely happy about it. ... When I think of this it puts me off in taking any initiative. p. 301-302.
Case 5	4	I don't think that it is the pressure, as much as I think that ... it is very very difficult to get praise when there is so much more pressure on when there is wrong-doing. p. 304.

Table 9.9 Contd. ...

	5	On the occasions when they do praise, they make a really big issue of it. ... If he was not prepared to give dinner he should never have said it he should have made it clear at the start that it was tea and cakes. ... There is nothing more demoralizing than going in and saying to people if we do this we will be rewarded and that does not happen. People become discouraged. This has happened a few times. p. 304-305.
	6	I have just come from a meeting about an operator error. ... They brought everyone together to discuss the issue and it is always doom and gloom. ... they all left feeling bad. p. 306.
Case 6	7	It is all-- 'you're not doing this properly', 'you're not doing that properly', 'you should be doing that'-- that is all you get from upstairs. You never ever get - oh well done. You never get it. p. 311
	8	They are pin-pointing who broke it. Why was it broken, that type of thing. Putting names down on shift notice boards to make sure every other shift knows about it. I think that is very negative. p. 314.
	9	... we are just getting laid on and laid on and laid on and not getting any credit for it. p. 315.
	10	We can all say our own little bit but they don't listen so you think "Why am I here". p. 315.
	11	... you receive no credit for it. p. 315.
	12	We make targets but there is a thing on the notice board telling us that we don't make targets. I looked today and could not believe it. That was from [Bill] who is the head. It says, weekend shifts very poor. We make targets more often than day shift and we get no credit for it. You wonder why. p. 315-316.
	13	You would like to know, even if it is only a pat on the back to say "Well done". p. 316.
	14	No one comes back and says 'Well done', or 'Yes, you are consistently good' or 'I feel as if you are doing the job as well as can be done or I feel that you could be doing better here if you would have spent more time doing this'. I suppose these are some of the things that somehow affected my initiative to try course ideas. p. 316.

It can be observed from Table 9.9 that the respondents perceived their superiors as having a 'non-reward' orientation in securing their allegiance and compliance. The lack and inadequacy of appreciation, the inadequacy of financial incentive and finally coercion indicated a 'non-reward' orientation. Case 5 (4) and Case 6 (9, 10, 11, 13, 14) reported the lack of appreciation as evidence of non-reward orientation. Phrases that revealed lack of appreciation included, ' ... *very very difficult to get praise ...*' [Case 5 (4)], ' ... *not getting any credit for it.*' [Case 6 (9)], ' ... *but they don't listen ...*' [Case 6 (10)], ' ... *you receive no credit for it.*' [Case 6 (11)], "*No one comes back and says 'Well done' ...*" [Case 6 (14)]. Case 5 (5) experienced that the level of appreciation given was very inadequate. Case 5 (5) pointed out management's failure to honour commitments and referred to the offer of cakes instead of dinner (which was promised), as an example of inadequate appreciation. However, the protocols also provide examples of appreciation being given as a reward for good performance. Case 4 (2) recounted that they were praised by their superiors and were offered tea and cakes for doing record moves.

Case 1 (1) and Case 4 (3) reported an inadequate financial incentive. The expression provided by Case 1 (1) highlighted the initial displeasure with the salary level offered for the job. It also indicated a passive acceptance, an uncertainty and a possible suspension of displeasure until the next assessment. For Case 4, it was the bureaucratic provisions which led to her displeasure with financial rewards. She was required to spend a certain length of time on the lower scale before she could be paid for the job she was doing. Case 4 (3) noted,

'I have not been given the scale for the job yet. I am still a TSO because you have to do the job for six months before you get paid for it.'

Finally, coercion was reported by Case 5 and Case 6 as another element reflecting a non-reward orientation of management. Fixing blame, putting names on the notice boards, using negative words, were some of the ways in which coercion took place. For instance Case 5 (6) mentioned,

'I have just come from a meeting about an operator error. ... They brought everyone together to discuss the issue and it is always doom and gloom. ... they all left feeling bad.'

Another example was provided by Case 6 (7), she said--

'It is all-- 'you're not doing this properly', 'you're not doing that properly', 'you should be doing that'-- that is all you get from upstairs.'

On another occasion Case 6 (8) said,

'They are pin-pointing who broke it. ... Putting names down on shift notice boards to make sure every other shift knows about it.'

The relationship between RNRo and the application process can be found in Case 5 (4) and Case 6 (14). On an earlier occasion Case 5 ascribed PP as negatively related to the application process (see the discussion on PP). Drawing a parallel with PP, Case 5 (4) on this occasion asserted that the lack of appreciation was even more serious; she mentioned,

'I don't think that it is the pressure, as much as I think that ... it is very very difficult to get praise when there is so much more pressure on when there is wrong-doing.'

The parallel with PP offered the clue that RNRo was related to the application process. However, Case 6 (14) offered clearer evidence of the relationship. Case 6 (14) expressed that, *'I suppose these are some of the things [e.g., RNRo] that somehow [ascription of value-- negative] affected [ascription of relationship] my initiative to try course ideas [application of course elements].'* It can be observed from the protocols that Case 6 summarized her interview with the aforementioned 'global' expression. Therefore, this expression applies to all the shapers she had mentioned in her interview. The respondents ascribed RNRo as negatively contributing towards the application process. Phrases such as *'bad feeling'* [Case 1 (1)]; *'feel terrible'*, *'unfair'*, *'not entirely happy'* [Case 4 (3)]; *'nothing more demoralizing'*, *'discouraged'* [Case 5 (5)]; *'doom and gloom ... left feeling bad'* [Case 5 (6)]; *'very negative'* [Case 6 (8)]; *'laid on and laid on*

and laid on' [Case 6 (9)]; *"you think 'why I am here'"* [Case 6 (10)]; *'could not believe it ... you wonder why'* [Case 6 (12)]; all convey an ascription of negative contribution of RNrO towards application process.

Therefore, it can be inferred from the foregoing discussion that the respondents perceived RNrO as a shaper restricting the application process. It also appears reasonable to conclude that, given the implications of RNrO on the application process, the respondents evaluated the course less favourably.

f. Relevance (R)

It refers to the ascription of connectedness of something with something. In this specific instance it implies the pertinence of the course contents to job requirements. Just as relevance was identified earlier as a valued end shaper, it was also identified as a shaper contributing towards the application process. It is possible to learn something (anticipating it to be relevant or not knowing at all if it will be relevant), but it has to be perceived as relevant for it to be applied to the job at hand. The protocols reveal that the respondents evaluated the course favourably in terms of the implications of relevance on the application process. Table 9.4 shows that Case 1, Case 6, and Case 7 mentioned relevance as a shaper that was related to the application process. Table 9.10 presents the articulations on relevance as offered by the respondents.

Table 9.10 manifests that Case 1, Case 6, and Case 7 considered the course as relevant to the job. Case 1 (1) mentioned that, *'... it was relevant it was very necessary ...'* and Case 7 (3) noted that, *'Some of the things were, of course, relevant ...'*. In addition, relevance was also reflected in Case 1 (1) and Case 6 (2)'s wish to attend the course once again. These descriptions of experience were offered at a point of time when both the respondents had attended the course and also had experienced the job. Hence their desire to attend the course offered a strong suggestion of its relevance. However, Case 7 mentioned her reservation. Indicating her preoccupation with running machines (an operator's job), Case 7 (3) said that, *'We are not doing all the time what we should be doing ...'*. Given

what Case 7 was doing on the job, she [Case 7 (3)] did not perceive the course to be as relevant as she had expected it to be.

Table 9.10 Articulations Referring To Relevance (R)

Case 1	1	... now well yes when I think back on various things that we did and it was relevant it was very necessary. I suppose it would be good now that we are doing the job - six months or more-- if there is a follow up one. Possibly something like that and we would maybe find it even more beneficial. p. 279.
Case 6	2	But I found it very hard to relate to the work of a group leader because, at that point, I had not actually worked as a group leader. We should actually be going through the course now. p. 307.
Case 7	3	In the job, what I thought I was going to be doing, that was very relevant. In the job I am doing just now, I would say it is not quite as relevant. We are not doing all the time what we should be doing and there is a very gradual change. The job itself is evolving, since it is not fully evolved you don't find the course to be very relevant. I obviously find that if you wish to use anything it has got to be relevant to what you are doing. Some of the things were, of course, relevant and I have used them. p. 320-321.

Having discussed the perceptions of relevance, the ascription of relationship will now be considered. Case 7 offered evidence that suggested the presence of a relationship between relevance and the application process. Case 7 (3) expressed that, '*... if you wish to use anything [application of course elements] it has got to be relevant to what you are doing.*' The 'if-then' structure of the expression suggested the ascription of a relationship between relevance and the application process. Immediately following this expression, Case 7 (3) also offered a confirmation of the ascription of relationship and noted that, '*Some of the things were, of course, relevant and I have used them.*' In addition to the ascription of relationship, the statement also implied an ascription of positive value. Besides, phrases such as, 'it would be good', 'more beneficial' etc., also indicated an ascription of positive contribution toward application process.

It may be concluded from the foregoing that, despite reservation, the respondents largely perceived relevance as a shaper facilitating the application process. Considering the positive implication of relevance on the application process, it is reasonable to suggest that the respondents evaluated the course favourably.

g. *Communication (C)*

Communication refers to exchange of information between persons. The protocols show that the respondents evaluated the course less favourable in terms of the implications of communication on the application process. Table 9.4 exhibits that Case 4 and Case 6 considered communication as a shaper that was related to the application process. Table 9.11 displays the articulations related to communications.

The description of experience in Table 9.11 reflect the states of communication perceived by the respondents. These states of communication included, lack of consultation, lack of consistency and lack of adequacy. The lack of consultation was pointed out by Case 4 (1), who mentioned that,

'... everything is organized during the week so when I arrive on a Friday all of the decisions are made and sometimes they do not consult me so I have to pick up on a Friday ...'

Case 6 (2) perceived the lack of consistency as another state of communication and reported that, *'This means that she is being told different things from what I am being told.'* Case 6 (3, 4, 5) further perceived the lack of adequacy as yet another state of communication and stated that, *'Management making decisions and not telling us. Bosses making decisions ... They don't tell me or my manager. [Case 6 (4)]'*

Having recounted the states of communication as perceived by the respondents, the ascription of relationship between communication and application process^{will now be considered}. Although most of the expressions in Table 9.11 implicitly convey an ascription of relationship between the two, the

Table 9.11 Articulations Referring To Communication (C)

Case 4	1	... everything is organized during the week so when I arrive on a Friday all of the decisions are made and sometimes they do not consult me so I have to pick up on a Friday but I suppose that is the draw back of working the odd shift. ... So you find yourself somewhat alienated. It is confusing, it discourages you, you feel 'what is the point trying new things'. p. 299.
Case 6	2	Too many meetings. I go to a meeting once a fortnight. My TSO goes to a meeting once a fortnight. This means that she is being told different things from what I am being told. It is out of hand.p. 311.
	3	Perhaps explained to them what our job is p. 313.
	4	Management making decisions and not telling us. Bosses making decisions - not even the boss in charge of my shift - another boss taking somebody off of my shift and putting them on another shift. They don't tell me or my manager. p. 314-315.
	5	I just feel that they should get their finger out and tell us how good we are doing or how bad we're doing. If we're doing bad, tell us how bad we're doing. What do they want us to improve on. We haven't had any feed-back on how other shifts are doing. p. 315.

expression offered by Case 4 provide explicit reference to it. Case 4 (1) noted that,

"So you find yourself somewhat alienated. It is confusing [ascription of negative value], it [state of communication] discourages you [ascription of negative relationship], you feel 'what is the point trying new things' [application of course elements]."

In addition to this example, all the other expressions in Table 9.11 convey an implicit ascription of negative value to communication.

The preceding discussion suggests that the respondents held communication as a shaper restricting the application process. Taking into account the implications of communication on the application process, it may be concluded that the respondents evaluated the course less favourably.

h. Job Autonomy (JA)

Job autonomy refers to the degree of freedom enjoyed by the job holder. The protocols suggest both favourable and unfavourable evaluation of the course in terms of the perceived implication of JA on the application process. Table 9.4 shows that Case 1, Case 6, and Case 7, referred to JA. The relevant expressions are presented in Table 9.12

Table 9.12 Articulations Referring To Job Autonomy (JA)

Case 1	1	... I have some flexibility in doing my job I suppose it does have an effect on my implementation of course ideas because it keeps me very, very interested ...p. 285.
Case 6	2	We know ourselves that we have to get it running and I feel that them coming to tell us is delaying us. They shouldn't be there. Today I got no boss on in diffusion and it is running so smoothly it is not real. p. 312.
	3	They are standing over you making sure that you are doing your job properly. p. 313.
	4	I suppose these were some of the things that somehow affected my initiative to try out course ideas. p. 316.
Case 7	5	... when it comes to the real point of being effective you don't have much freedom much choice -- you do have to go to somebody else. p. 326.

The ideas such as, 'flexibility in the job', 'interference from the bosses', 'close supervision', and 'lack of choice' emerged from the expressions in Table 9.12 which indicated respondents' perceptions of JA. Case 1 used the idea of 'flexibility in the job' to highlight the degree of JA she enjoyed in her job. Case 6 used the ideas of 'interference from the bosses' and 'close supervision' to underscore the very limited autonomy she enjoyed. Case 6 (2) stated that, '*... them coming to tell us is delaying us. They shouldn't be there.*' and '*They are standing over you making sure that you are doing your job properly.*' [Case 6 (3)]. Finally, Case 7 (5) conveyed the idea of 'lack of choice' to stress the presence of very limited autonomy in her job.

The relationship between JA as a shaper and the application process can be found in Case 1 (1) and Case 6 (4). For example Case 1 (1) described,

'... *I suppose it* [JA, flexibility] *does have an effect* [ascription of relationship] *on my implementation of course ideas* [application of course elements] *because it keeps me very, very interested* [ascription of positive value] ...'

Unlike Case 1, Case 6 implicitly presented an ascription of negative value to JA; she mentioned, '*I suppose these* [e.g., JA] *were some of the things that somehow* [ascription of positive value] *affected* [ascription of relationship] *my initiative to try out course ideas* [application of course elements].' [Case 6 (4)]. These suggest that a greater extent of JA facilitated the application of course elements and a limited extent (or absence) of JA restricted it. From the perspective of JA's facilitative and restrictive contributions on the application process, it may be inferred that the respondents maintained a mixed perception of value of the course.

i. Formal Power (FP)

Formal power (FP) refers to the influence that one acquires by virtue of one's formal position in the organizational hierarchy. The articulations suggest that the course was evaluated less favourably in terms of FP's implication on the application process. Table 9.4 shows that only Case 7 identified FP as a shaper contributing towards the application process. Table 9.4 presents the articulations that contained references to FP.

The presence of inadequate FP can be observed from both the expressions in Table 9.13. Phrases such as '*very informal position*', '*no disciplinary powers*' etc. provide the evidence that suggest the presence of inadequate FP. The relationship between FP and application process can be discerned from expression 2 in Table 9.13. Case 7 (2) stated that,

... *its* [inadequate FP] *pulling you* [ascription of relationship] *back quietly* [ascription of negative value], ... *You are expected to supervise and encouraged to take initiative* [e.g., application of course elements], *but when it comes to the real point of being effective* [ascription of relationship] *you don't have much freedom much choice* [ascription of negative value]-- *you do have to go to somebody else* [inadequate FP].

Table 9.13 Articulations Referring To Formal Power (FP)

Case 7	1	I would say that the group leader's position is not as formal as it should be. ... it is a very informal position. I think that's why a lot of the downfalls are ... it is a very informal position with no disciplinary powers. p. 324-325.
	2	... its pulling you back quietly, it will be a tell tale, whereas if you could deal with them immediately, its much easier. Its so conflicting. You are expected to supervise and encouraged to take initiative, but when it comes to the real point of being effective you don't have much freedom much choice -- you do have to go to somebody else. We should definitely have some formal powers. p. 325-326.

In addition, phrases such as '*downfalls*', '*so conflicting*', '*should definitely have*' etc. indicate an ascription of negative value. The foregoing discussion points out that FP restricted the application of course elements. Therefore, from the perspective of FP's implication on the application process, the respondents considered the course less favourable.

j. Motivation (M)

Motivation refers to the urge to pursue goals by an individual. The articulations offered by the respondents indicate that they evaluated the course favourably in terms of motivation's implications on the application process. Table 9.4 displays that Case 1, Case 2, Case 3, Case 4, and Case 7 perceived motivation as a shaper that was related to the application process. The expressions which referred to motivation are presented in Table 9.14

Table 9.14 reveals that the respondents perceived themselves as motivated persons. For example, Case 4 (7) said that, ' ... *I do feel motivated.*' and Case 7 (8) mentioned that, ' ... *on the whole I am fairly a motivated person* ... ' Besides, Table 9.14 also provide the examples that imply the presence of motivation. Respondents' [Case 1 (1, 2, 3, 4), Case 2 (5) and Case 3 (6)] perception of their involvement with or attachment to the job plus their perception of intrinsic reward deriving from the job, offered

Table 9.14 Articulations Referring To Motivation (M)

Case 1	1	Aamm ... I feel that I am quite interested to get my job going. I enjoy what I do and if you feel good within yourself you find it lot easier to do things that you want to do. ... p. 283.
	2	... the fact that I enjoy the job does make a big difference. p. 283.
	3	The rewards of actually doing the job and actually trying to make sure that it is done properly and efficiently and the self-satisfaction in that is great and that gives you, well it picks you up to do better again and again. I feel very happy about it. p. 284.
	4	If people weren't interested or if they didn't care about their jobs they wouldn't keep telling them the same sort of thing. It is because they are interested that they are saying things because if they didn't care they would say - "Well, it doesn't bother me". So, yes, it can have a dampening effect, definitely. p. 285.
Case 2	5	The fact that I enjoy doing my job, in general, makes me more interested to try the course ideas. p. 289.
Case 3	6	I am starting to see things coming together, it's giving me a lot of satisfaction to see things coming off. We are really trying hard just now. The girls are all trying hard too. p. 294.
Case 4	7	Work-wise I do feel motivated. p. 301.
Case 7	8	I think in the beginning I was very motivated, and I think it was a strength. I am not as motivated. I think probably because, in the beginning its all new or you think it's going to be all new and now it's not, it's just, like I said before, it's routine and ... aamm ... once things become routine-- I mean, on the whole I am fairly a motivated person which gives me the urge to take initiatives. But ... aamm no other things are motivating me, no new things coming in to my job that would motivate me. These are the things I have been doing on. p. 320.
	9	In the beginning I was enthusiastic. aamm the things are slackened off, you just sort of slip back to you old routine and they think themselves 'hey I shouldn't be doing this myself, she should be doing it for me'. Its difficult for them as well. It is a condition in which you don't consciously feel the need to try new things, you just let yourself go. p. 321.

strong evidence of a charged or energized state. This state reflected the urge which propelled them towards the goals-- in other words, it reflected

their motivated state. Phrases such as, '*enjoy doing the job*' '*enjoy the job*', '*enjoy what I do*', '*feel good within*', '*feel very happy*', '*interested*', '*quite interested*', '*self-satisfaction ... great*', '*they are interested*', '*trying hard*' etc. point to a charged or energized state. In addition, the element of urge is also expressed through the reports of action/activities directed towards goal attainment. Expressions, such as '*... get my job going*', [Case 1 (1)], '*... wouldn't keep telling them the same sort of thing*' [Case 1 (4)], '*... trying hard just now. The girls are all trying hard too*' [Case 3 (6)] all refer to actions that were perceived to be contributing towards goal attainment. The articulations also indicated reservations. Contrary to the perception of others, Case 7 (8, 9) realized that her level of motivation had declined over time. However, she reported that despite the decline she was still reasonably motivated.

The ascription of a relationship between motivation and the application process can be found in the articulations offered by the respondents. Further, as the articulations suggested, motivation was ascribed as positively contributing to application. For example,

'... if you feel good within yourself [intrinsic reward reflecting an energized state, i.e., motivation] *you find it lot easier* [ascription of positive value] *to do* [ascription of relationship] *things that you want to do* [e.g., application of course elements]'. [Case 1 (1)], or;

'... that [intrinsic reward reflecting an energized state, i.e., motivation] *gives you, well it picks you up* [ascription of relationship] *to do* [e.g., application of course elements] *better again and again. I feel very happy about it* [ascription of positive value]'. [Case 1 (3)], or even;

'... I enjoy doing my job [intrinsic reward reflecting an energized state, i.e., motivation], *in general, makes me* [ascription of relationship] *more* [ascription of positive value] *interested* [intrinsic reward reflecting an energized state, i.e., motivation] *to try the course ideas* [application of course elements]'. [Case 2 (5)],

Case 7 realized that lack of motivation contributed negatively towards the application process. Case 7 (9) expressed that,

'It is a condition [lack of motivation] in which [ascription of relationship] you don't consciously feel the need [ascription of negative value] to try new things [application of course elements], you just let yourself go [ascription of negative value].'

It can be concluded from the foregoing that despite reservation, the respondents largely perceived motivation as a shaper facilitating the application process. Considering the positive implications of motivation on the application process, it is reasonable to suggest the respondents evaluated the course favourably.

k. Application Skills (AS)

This refers to the set of skills possessed by the person attempting the application of course elements to the job. The protocols suggest that the respondents evaluated the course favourably in terms of the AS's implications on the application process. Table 9.4 demonstrates that all the respondents identified AS as a shaper related to the application process. Table 9.15 highlights the relevant articulations that were offered by the respondents.

Table 9.15 Articulations Referring To Application Skills (AS)

Ability to Assert [AA]		
Case 1	1	... I have managed to implement some ideas, in being more assertive and saying "Right, that's what is to be done and that's it". p.282.
Case 2	2	... that makes you feel that you are doing the job right because people want you there. I think it is helping me in trying out what I learned from the course. p. 287.
Case 3	3	I would also say that with the bosses I am certainly a lot more assertive now. ... I feel that I will argue my point more on behalf of the group that I am in charge of. p. 290-291.
	4	Now I think what has helped me is that I do feel more confidence in myself. p. 292.

Table 9.15 Contd. ...

	5	I am not as bad as I think. I feel now that I have something to offer ... I feel my confidence is helping me try out the course ideas. p. 293.
Case 4	6	... I have consciously made an effort to try and do that. p. 297.
	7	I now set aside time on the weekend to try and organize my self. p. 297-298.
	8	I try and draw them out more and find out exactly how they feel. p. 298.
Case 5	9	... you go in and try to implement them ... you say well I can't expect that to happen all of the time but I will try to do it when it is possible. p. 303-304.
Ability To Treat Fairly [ATF]		
Case 3	10	I feel I was able to find a nice compromise with people They are doing their jobs they don't want to do but they are taking it as it is everybody's job. p. 294.
	11	You treat everybody the same. p. 297.
Case 6	12	I tell them what they need to know and I think they appreciate that because I don't treat them differently. p. 310.
Case 7	13	I think--because I treated them fairly, I was able to do what I intended to do. p. 319.
Ability to Relate (AR)		
Case 2	14	I feel that I get on with the people. It helps. p. 288.
Case 3	15	I can sit, get all the girls together and feel fine. Before I used to feel apprehensive, you know. p. 292.
	16	But at the end of the day people believe you are very friendly. p. 296-297.
Case 4	17	I also go around all of the girls before the group meeting and ask them if they have any points that they wish me to raise with management or any problems that they have-- I try and involve them as much as I can ... p. 298.
	18	I also learned that from the course to try and work with the girls better to get their support and I think that things work well. On our shift we pull together ... p. 298.
	19	... I try and draw them out more and find out exactly how they feel. p. 298.
Ability to Communicate (AC)		
Case 2	20	... I feel I can communicate better now. p. 288.
	21	... I know what I want to say and I am saying it. It is also getting through to them. I feel good communication helps implementing what you want to implement. p. 288.
Case 3	22	I can communicate with people more easily. p. 292.

Table 9.15 Contd. ...

Case 4	23	... I report back to them and tell them exactly what is happening. I try and keep them informed. p. 298.
Ability to Relax Under Pressure [ARUP]		
Case 1	24	It could put pressures on you but it doesn't really bother me. Possibly I am used to it. Being relaxed it helps me do my job better and try out the things I want to try. p. 282.

The expressions in Table 9.15 reveal that the respondents identified a number of abilities as application skills. They include *Ability to Assist (AA)*, *Ability to Treat Fairly (ATF)*, *Ability to Relate (AR)*, *Ability to Communicate (AC)*, and *Ability to Relax Under Pressure (ARUP)*. Table 9.16 presents the personal skills by cases.

Table 9.16 Application Skills Highlighted by the Cases

Application Skills	Cases And Articulation References Of Table 9.15
Ability to Assert (AA)	Case 1(1), Case 2(2), Case 3(3,4,5), Case 4(6,7,8), Case 5 (9)
Ability to Treat Fairly (ATF)	Case 3(10,11), Case 6(12), Case 7(13)
Ability to Relate (AR)	Case 2(14), Case 3(15,16), Case 4(17,18,19)
Ability to Communicate (AC)	Case 2(20,21), Case 3(22), Case 4(23)
Ability to Relax Under Pressure (ARUP)	Case 1(24)

The presence of each of these abilities is considered in turn. An element of 'exercise of will' is revealed in the articulations categorized under 'Ability to Assert' (AA). The manifestation of 'will exercised' substantiate the existence of assertiveness and self-confidence. Some articulations are more explicit than others in attributing the existence of assertiveness and self-confidence. Expressions such as '*more assertive*' [Case 1(1)], '*doing the job right*' [Case 2(2)], '*a lot more assertive now*' [Case 3(3)], '*more confidence in myself*' [Case 3(4)], '*consciously made an effort*' [Case 4(6)], '*you go in and try*' [Case 5(9)], suggest the point just made. The existence

of the 'Ability to Treat Fairly' (ATF) can be observed in the expressions such as *'taking it as ... everybody's job'* [Case 3(10)] *'treat everybody the same'* [Case 3(11)], *'don't treat them differently'* [Case 6(12)], and *'treat them fairly'* [Case 7(13)]. The articulations Table 9.15 show the respondents' ability to relate (AR) to others in the job. The ascription of meanings such as 'close contact', 'rapport', 'comradeship', 'reciprocal understanding', can be found in this group of articulations. For example, *'I get on with the people'* [Case 2(14)], *'I can sit, get all the girls together and feel fine'* [Case 3(15)], *'people believe you are very friendly'* [Case 3(16)], *'I try and involve them'* [Case 4(17)], *'we pull together'* [Case 4(18)], indicate the respondents' ability to relate with the co-workers. The 'Ability to Communicate' (AC) emerged as another skill required for application of course elements. The expression such as *'communicate better'* [Case 2(20)], *'I know what I want to say and I am saying it. It is also getting through to them'* [Case 2(21)], *'I can communicate with people more easily'* [Case 3(22)], *'keep them informed'* [Case 4(23)] substantiate the existence of AC. Finally, Case 1(24) ascribed 'Ability to Relate Under Pressure' (ARUP) as another skill required for applying course elements to the job. Phrases such as *'doesn't really bother me'*, *'I am used to it'* or *'being relaxed it helps'* [Case 1(24)] indicate the existence of ARUP. The articulations in Table 9.15 also reveal the relationship between the skills and the application process. The respondents ascribed these relationships as positively contributing towards the latter. Table 9.17 exhibits the examples of the ascription of positive relationship between these.

Table 9.17 Relationship Between Application Skills And Application Process

Case 1(1)	<i>'... I have managed [ascription of positive value] to implement some ideas [application of course elements] in being [ascription of relationship] more assertive [AA] ...'</i>
Case 2(2)	<i>'... it [AA] is helping [ascription of positive relationship] in trying out what I learned from the course [application of course elements to the job]'</i>
Case 3(5)	<i>'... my confidence [AA] is helping me [ascription of positive relationship] try out the course ideas [application of course elements]'</i>

Table 9.17Contd. ...

Case 4(6)	'... <i>I have consciously made an effort</i> [AA] <i>to</i> [ascription of positive relationship] <i>try and do that</i> [application of course elements]'
Case 4(7)	' <i>I now set aside time on the weekend</i> [AA] <i>to</i> [ascription of positive relationship] <i>try and organize my shift</i> [application of course ideas]'
Case 5(9)	'... <i>you go in</i> [AA] <i>and</i> [ascription of positive relationship] <i>try to implement them</i> [application of course element] ...'
Case 7(13)	'... <i>because I treated</i> [ascription of relationship] <i>them fairly</i> [ATF], <i>I was able</i> [ascription of positive value] <i>to do what I intended to do</i> [application of course elements]'
Case 4(18)	'... <i>things work</i> [ascription of relationship with application process] <i>well</i> [ascription of positive value] <i>on our shift we pull together</i> [AR] ...'
Case 2(21)	'... <i>good</i> [ascription of positive value] <i>communication</i> [AC] <i>helps</i> [ascription of positive relationship] <i>implementing what you want to implement</i> [application process]'
Case 1(24)	' <i>Being relaxed</i> [ARUP] <i>it helps me</i> [ascription of positive relationship] <i>do my job better</i> [ascription of positive value] <i>and try out the things I want to try</i> [application]'

The preceding discussion suggests that the respondent held application skills to be a shaper facilitating the application process. Taking into account the implications of AS on the application process, it may be suggested that the respondents evaluated the course favourably.

9.1.3 The Noetic Process

The foregoing discussion explored participants' post-course evaluations from two levels, i.e., course elements applied to the job and the application process shapers. This discussion highlights the third level - the noetic process. As with Chapter 8, this section focuses on the thought processes that were deployed to ascribe meaning to the application of course elements to the job, and the application process shapers. The significance of considering the thought processes (i.e., noetic processes) in a study of evaluation was explored in some depth in Chapter 8. It was mentioned

that the noetic processes offered additional support to the meanings ascribed. These processes confirmed that the meanings were not ascribed superficially. The deliberations (in consciousness) of lived experiences through the noetic process demonstrated that the experiences, stood out from numerous other lived experiences. The 'capability' of a particular lived experience to stand out in sharp focus (among numerous other) reflected its importance in evaluation.

The noetic processes that constituted the participants experiential structure of the post course event are similar to those which constituted their experiential structure of the training event. Table 9.18 presents the noetic processes by cases. To avoid repetition, these processes are not discussed further. However, it suffices to say that every meaning ascribed by the respondents evolved through some noetic process. A deep involvement of the respondents existential and experiential self is reflected through their deployment of the noetic processes to ascribe meaning. Therefore, these processes (i.e., reflecting, recalling, comparing, illustrating and eidetic grasping) authenticated that the meanings ascribed were indeed a genuine evaluation of the course, and not superficial or inconsequential.

Table 9.18 Noetic Table: Thought Processes Used To Ascribe Meaning

	Case 1	Case 2	Case 3	Case 4	Case 5	Case 6	Case 7
Reflecting	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
Recalling	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
Comparing	-	*	*	-	-	*	*
Illustrating	*	-	*	*	*	-	*
Eidetic grasping	-	-	*	-	*	*	*

9.2 Discussion Of The Findings Of This Study In Relation To Other Studies

An up to date literature search (with the help of major data bases such as ABI INFORM, ANBAR, etc) revealed that over the past five years, nothing has been published on management training evaluation in the

phenomenological tradition. The absence of comparable literature makes it extremely difficult to venture into a discussion like the current one.

This situation required the author to cast the net a bit wider, so as to enable one to consider literature which bore some similarity with the paradigmatic posture of this study. However, to avoid major theoretical and methodological disjunction, it is extremely important not to cast the net too wide. In the following section, literature will be examined in relation to the noematic and noetic elements evolved from this study.

9.2.1 The Noematic Elements: The Elements Applied

Although one observes an absence of studies in the recent past, there are examples of work on management training evaluation (and related areas) that adopted phenomenological methods (or near-phenomenological methods) in the 1980s. Some of these examples include works by Burgoyne (1974), Reynolds and Hodgson (1980), Hodgson and Reynolds (1981), Mmobuosi (1983, 1985, 1987a, 1987b) and finally Tanton and Fox (1987). Despite their evaluation relatedness, these studies do not appear to be particularly relevant to the current focus, i.e., evaluation in terms of application of course elements to the job. Let us consider them. The methodological criticism of Burgoyne's (1974) study was highlighted in Chapter 4 and Chapter 8. It will be recalled that despite the use of protocol analysis method, Burgoyne's (1974) study remained loyal to the assumptions of positivism. The comparison of Burgoyne's (1974) study with this work is also rendered difficult on another count. Burgoyne's (1974) project was to rehabilitate 'opinion' to some scientific 'respectability'. Therefore, he examined the judgement processes through which students attached value to a course. To Burgoyne the thought processes rather than the valued ends remained the central concern. However, the ascription of value in terms of application appear to have been subsumed within the formulation of valued ends. The protocols presented and discussions offered by Burgoyne (1974) provide some clues regarding this subsumption. It might be possible to disentangle some usage from valued ends. However, given the risk of imposing interpretations, such an undertaking may not appear to be rewarding.

Tanton and Fox (1987) used participant observation methods where the evaluator was engaged in negotiation ['comparative detached' and 'comparatively involved' (Tanton and Fox, 1987: 35)] with other stakeholders to judge the value of the course. From the phenomenological perspective, a 'comparative detachment' and a 'comparative involvement' is in violation of epoché. In addition to this paradigmatic disjunction, Tanton and Fox, focused almost exclusively, on the on-course events and not the post course events. Tanton and Fox (1987) reported that a follow-up day was held. They further stressed that an elaborate longitudinal ethnographic was required to offer meaningful evaluation of the course in terms of application.

Reynolds and Hodgson (1980) and Hodgson and Reynolds (1981) remained paradigmatically close to the phenomenological approach. However, these two studies, like that of Tanton and Fox (1987) exclusively focused on the learning milieu rather than the job milieu.

Mmobuosi (1983, 1987a) used protocol analysis method, but retained the notion of 'deterministic' notion of 'causality'. The author of this thesis considers this as an ontological and epistemological disjunction. Besides, Mmobuosi's (1983, 1985, 1987a, 1987b) projects rendered them non-comparable with this study. As with Burgoyne (1974), Mmobuosi's (1983, 1987a, 1987b) interest in evaluation was tangential rather than central. While focusing valued ends, Mmobuosi's central concern was to examine the 'Problems of the Re-entrants in the Transfer of Learning' (Mmobuosi, 1983) and 'The Processes Used to Attach Value to Courses' (Mmobuosi, 1987a). Yet again, in these studies one observes that the formulation of valued ends subsumed the application of course elements. One of the remaining two studies by Mmobuosi was related to an illustration of protocol analysis method in evaluation (Mmobuosi, 1985) and the other was concerned with the ways of resolving the problems of learning transfer (Mmobuosi, 1987b). Hence, given the lack of availability of comparable studies, no comparative discussion could be carried out in terms of the application of course elements to the job.

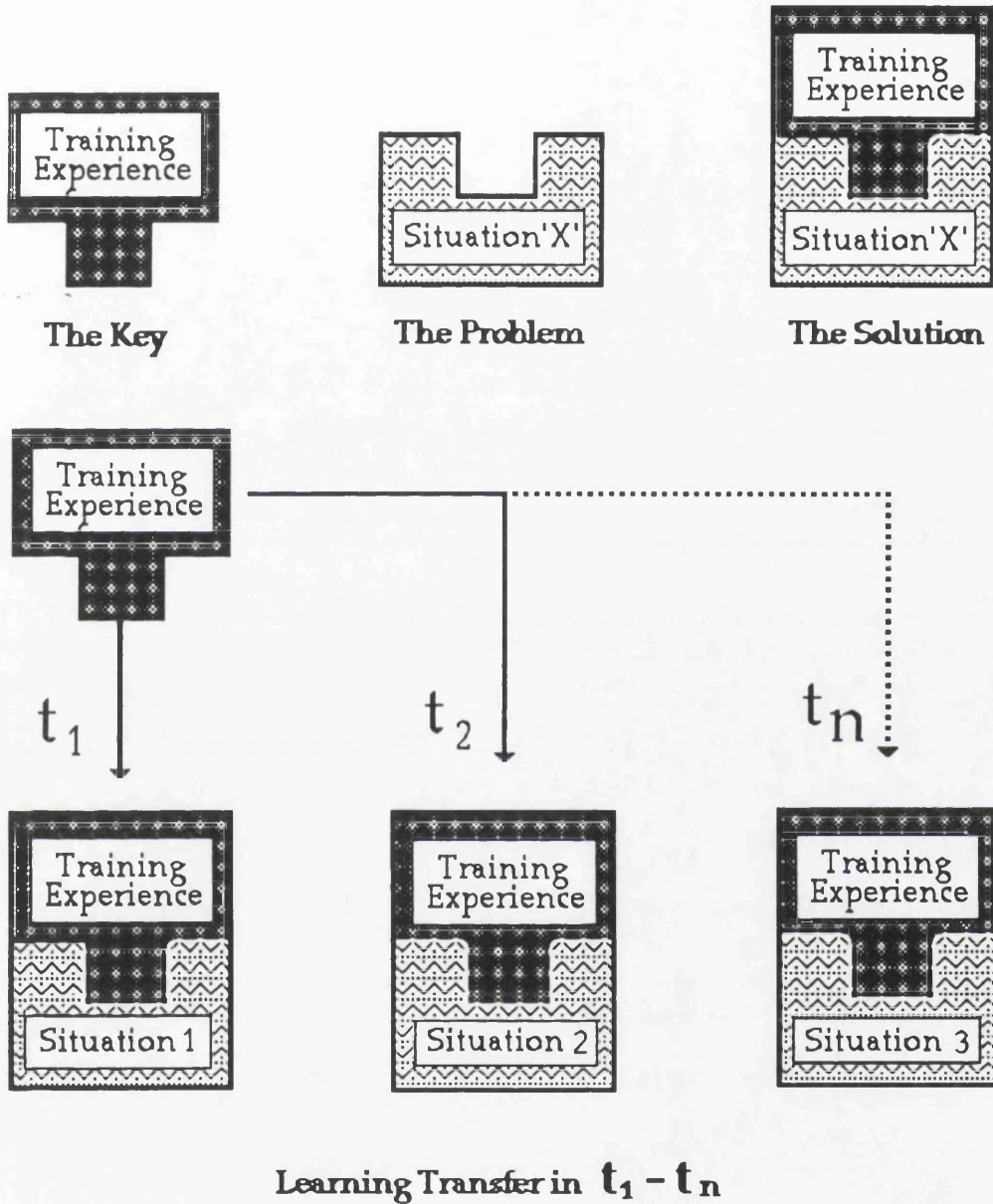
9.2.2 The Noematic Elements : The Application Process Shapers

The terminologies which are being used in this study to designate the shapers, bear an apparent similarity with the conventional terminologies used in studies on learning transfer. However, there are fundamental differences behind this superficial likeness. These differences relate to the ontological assumptions of determinism and reductionism. Before comparing the shapers with their conventional counterparts, it is first necessary to clarify the non-deterministic and non-reductionistic nature of the shapers. Furthermore, it will be recalled that the shapers, in this study, are being conceptualized in relation to learning and application of learning. This implies that, in dealing with the issues of determinism and reductionism, it is also imperative to consider the process of learning and application before considering the shapers.

The conventional theories of learning transfer, which are of course based on the assumptions of positivism, include, the theory of identical elements (Thorndike, 1963), theory of transfer through principles (Judd, 1939). The theory of identical elements states that the presence of identical stimulus and response elements in a training and a job environment maximizes positive transfer. According to the theory of transfer through principles, learning transfer takes place when the outcomes of a learning event are generalizable to be applicable at the trainee's job. The recent theoretical developments in the positivist tradition, are based on the concepts of goal setting, behavioural self management and relapse prevention (Wexley and Baldwin, 1986). The goal setting strategy (Locke and Latham, 1984) requires assigning (either by the trainer or by the trainee him/herself) specific behavioural goals and monitoring goal achievement back on the job. The behavioural self management strategy involves a *'deliberate regulation of stimulus cues, covert process, and response consequences to achieve personally identified behavioural outcomes'* (Luthans and Davis, 1979). The relapse prevention (Marx, 1982) strategy offers a means to cope with the problems of relapse i.e., reversion to pre-training behaviour in on-the-job situations (Wexley and Baldwin, 1986). Underlying these conceptualizations is a product oriented, mechanistic and deterministic model of learning and transfer. This model may be

portrayed, albeit simplistically, as a 'supermarket model' as shown in Figure 9.1.

Figure 9.1 The Supermarket Model of Learning Transfer



The product (i.e., learning) of training programme may be considered as a 'key'; and according to the model, it is possible to use (transfer) the same key to 'unlock' (problem solution) repeatedly ($t_1, t_2 \dots t_n$) just as buying a can opener from a supermarket and using it over and over again. The implicit assumption is that learning (key) and application (unlocking) are separate and there are definite relationships between the key, the lock and

the situation (including the factors affecting learning transfer). This mechanistic view maintains that, if the immutable relationships between the 'factors' ('affecting learning transfer') and the 'results' are identified, then the transfer of learning can be measured, controlled and predicted. The criticisms against the positivists/behaviourist theories of learning and transfer can be traced as far back as the emergence of Gestalt theories of learning. However in a recent phenomenological study, Perera-Gunawardena (1990) once again refuted the positivist position on learning and transfer. He showed that the concept of learning transfer was a misconception that arose from the mechanistic views on learning; and that such a view reflected an inadequate understanding of the nature of learning process. Perera-Gunawardena (1990) argued that the division of learning process into discrete elements of *learning, retention and transfer* reflected a simplistic and reductionistic approach. Radical reductionism -- i.e., the belief that '*a system can have no other properties than those of its constituents*' (Bunge and Ardilla, 1987: 266) -- was considered by the behaviourists as the logical expression of their requirements of operationalization and measurement. Hence the elements of the process of learning in the behaviourist tradition constituted:

- a) Learning, implying acquisition of behaviour (i.e., development of new S-R connections)
- b) Retention, implying persistence of learning
- c) Transfer, implying the influence of prior knowledge upon new learning (Marx, 1969).

Perera-Gunawardena (1990) argued that the mechanical and reductionist views of S-R model treated the learner as a passive being and assumed that he was only capable of transferring those which he knew earlier to a subsequent situation, hence, it disregarded the complex nature of human learning. Perera-Gunawardena (1990 : 81) stressed that,

"As such, learning as a meaning bestowing activity (Colaizzi), 'meaning-marking process and the enhancement of personal competence' (Boot and Hodgson), etc., which associate learning with conscious human endeavour is incompatible with the passive mechanistic reaction manifested in the transfer concept".

Emphasizing the complexity of the learning process, Perera-Gunawardena (1990) concluded that the process of learning cannot be reduced to discrete elements; hence, the concept of learning transfer was merely a theoretical construct with no practical usefulness. It will be recalled from Chapter 2 that Gödel's theorem of incompleteness showed the inadequacy of reductionism in mathematics.

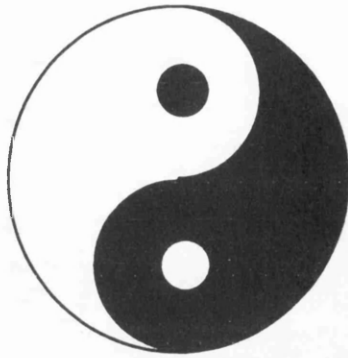
The need to treat learning and application as a 'whole' process rather than 'discrete and fragmented' units, was reflected in the works of authors such as Revans (1971), Kolb, et. al. (1971), Casey (1980) and Binsted, et. al. (1980). Casey (1980: 305) maintained in his discussion on the problems of transfer of learning that,

"Management cannot be learned without concepts of course, but the concepts are derived from work experience and applied to subsequent work experience, rather than discovered on a course, as in Model A. Although it is a very natural learning process it requires the ability to do two things at once - work and learn - which is more complicated than Problem A, where so-called 'Learning' is separated from work in a very deliberate way".
[emphasis added]

The complexity involved here is something more than that learning and application are enmeshed (i.e., indistinguishable entities) with each other. Rather, learning and application are distinguishable and at the same time indistinguishable entities; they shape each other and at the same time are being shaped by each other; they co-constitute one another continuously.

It will be recalled from the discussion of consciousness in Chapter 3 that the concept of co-constitutionality emphasized a dialectical relationship between two opposites. The on-going dialectical relationship between two opposites can be best captured by the Yin-Yang symbol shown in Figure 9.2.

Figure 9.2 The 'Yin-Yang' Symbol

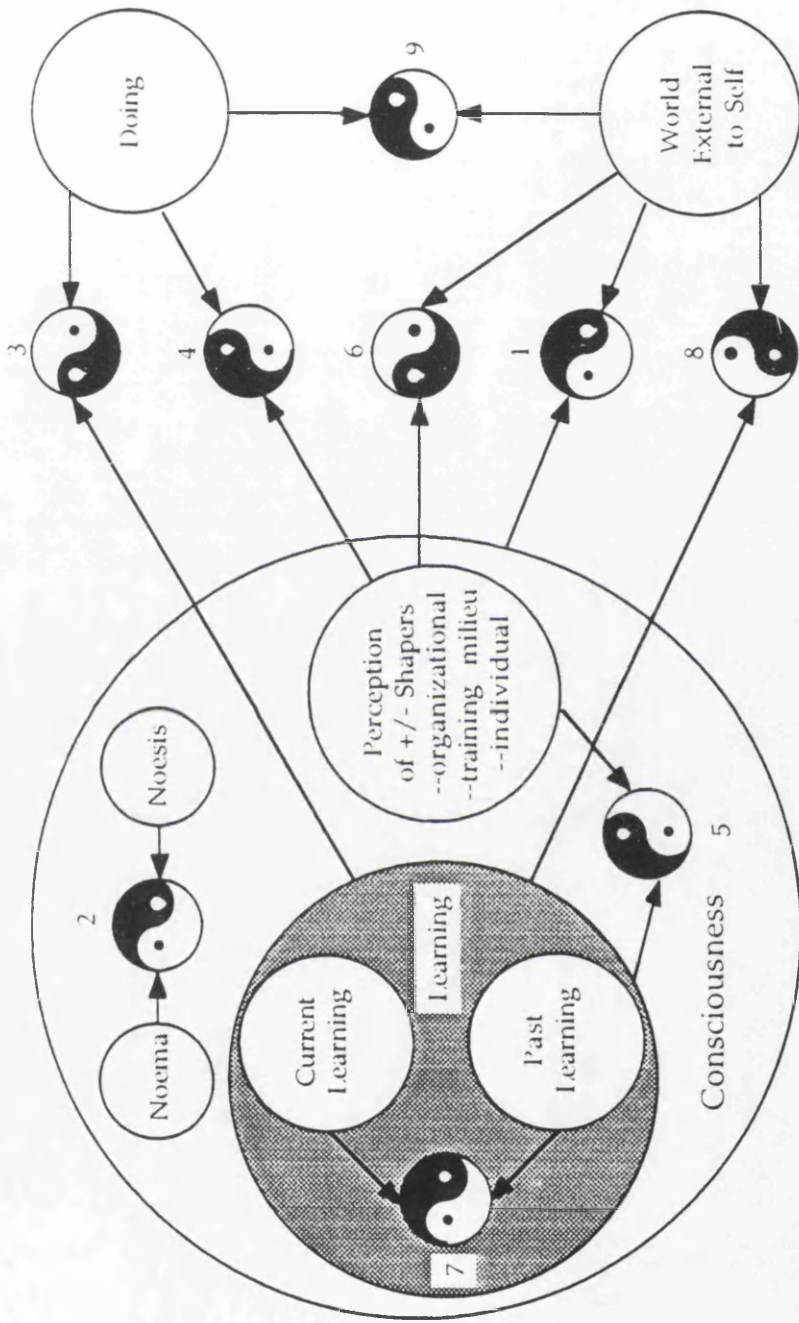


The two shapes in Figure 9.2 are contrasted and unified at the same time; nothing could be more different, nothing could be more similar (Rowan, 1976). As Hagel (1892) wrote,

"Thus essentially relative to another, somewhat is virtually an other against it: and since what is passed into is quite the same as what passes over, since both have one and the same attribute, viz. to be an other, it follows that something in the passage into other only joins with itself. To be thus self-related in the passage, and in the other, is the genuine infinity" [cited in Rowan, 1976].

This represents, what Maslow called, 'dichotomy-transcendence' (see Rowan, 1976). Hence, in this on-going dialectical synthesis a thing escapes all opposites - it is, at the same time and at every moment in time, in its being and nothingness, in its determinate and indeterminate states, in its whole and parts. This implies, in a moment in time, that a being is a being only in relation to the nothingness and vice-versa; that what is determinate is determinate only in relation to the indeterminate and vice-versa; and that a part is a part only in relation to the whole and vice-versa. As Yin-Yang symbolizes such an on-going dialectical synthesis, it is used in Figure 9.3 to illustrate the complex relationships in learning and application. Figure 9.3 represents the process of on-going co-constitution of learning and application (POCOLA).

Figure 9.3 The Process of On-going Co-constitution of Learning and Application (POCOIA)



The numbers specify specific relationships in the Figure

Through the Yin-Yang symbol, the process of on-going co-constitution of learning and application (POCOLA) stresses that learning can be appreciated only in relation to application, and application only in relation to learning; that the significance of the shapers can be recognized only in relation to the learning-application process, and the learning-application process in relation to the shapers; that is, the parts in relation to the whole and vice-versa. Furthermore, this on-going co-constitution (i.e., POCOLA) emphasizes that the realities of learning and application are neither photographic slices (here-and-now or indeterminate) of a stream of experience nor are they time and context free (there-and-then or determinate); rather they are the syntheses of the two. The relationships shown in Figure 9.3 emerged from the literature and the empirical investigation carried out in this study. It may be noted that Figure 9.3 does not claim to have depicted all possible relationships. Such a claim would certainly contradict the posture adopted by this study. As mentioned earlier, the purpose of Figure 9.3 is to illustrate the complexity of learning and application rather than to account for every relationship. Nine different relationships are shown in Figure in 9.3. They include the on-going co-constitution of--

- 'Consciousness' and 'World External to Self' (R1),
- 'Noema' and 'Noesis' (R2),
- 'Learning' and 'Doing' (R3),
- 'Perception of Shapers' and 'Doing' (R4),
- 'Learning' and 'Perception of Shapers' (R5),
- 'Perception of Shapers' and 'World External to Self' (R6),
- 'Current learning' and 'Past Knowledge' (R7),
- 'Learning' and 'World External to Self' (R8),
- 'Doing' and 'World External to Self' (R9),

Some of these relationships subsume others. For example, R1 (i.e., the on-going co-constitution of consciousness and the world external to self) encompasses all the other relationships. This is because, all meanings, ascribed to experiential realities, are ascribed by the consciousness through its on-going dialectical interaction with the world external to self. In case of R2, noema (the object of consciousness or the meaning emerged)

emerges through its dialectical interaction with noesis (meaning ascribing process). R2 occurs within consciousness and simultaneously with R1. R2 subsumes all other relationships (except R1) because all meanings emerge through R2. Furthermore, R8 subsumes R3. A task is accomplished (i.e., 'doing') within the world external to self. Hence, R8 refers to a general relationship and R3 refers to the relationship specific to an application. As mentioned earlier, the literature on phenomenology and the data collected for this study substantiate the on-going co-constitutional relationships shown in Figure 9.3. The concept of co-constitutionality of consciousness and the world external to self (i.e., R1 in Figure 9.3) can be found in Valle et. al. (1989). Similarly, the complex relationship of noema and noesis was highlighted by Zener (1970). Other on-going co-constitutional relationships such as R3, R4, R5, R6, R7 and R9 are supported by the primary data. Table 9.19 presents some empirical evidence for these relationships. The left hand side column of Table 9.19 contains the respondents' original expressions (extracted from the protocols) while the right hand side column of the table provides the interpretations of the original expressions. As Table 9.19 reveals, no direct evidence was available to support R8. However, an evidence supporting R3 also indirectly supports R8 since R8 is a general version of R3. Hence, it may be concluded that the evidences (both primary and secondary), through supporting the concept of on-going co-constitutionality of learning and application, suggest that the shapers, (which emerged from this study) cannot be appreciated from a posture based on determinism and reductionism. Instead, as mentioned earlier, the shapers, like the entire learning-application process, are characterized by syntheses of determinism and indeterminism.

Table 9.19 Empirical Evidences Of Some Of The Relationships Shown In POCOIA

Original Expressions	Interpretations
<p>CASE 1</p> <p>And having been on the course, I can look at things differently now. p. 235-236</p>	<p>R7 The 'things' Case 1 referred to were the ones she knew from her past experience (i.e., past knowledge). Her current knowledge of herself could only emerge in relation to her past knowledge. The current knowledge, having emerged in relation to the past knowledge, also simultaneously altered the past knowledge. Therefore, 'past knowledge' and 'current learning' co-constituted one another in a dialectical interaction.</p>
<p>Umm ... it opened my eyes. It really helped me. I saw myself in a different light, you know. p. 238</p>	<p>R7 The present self-image (current learning) modified past self-image (past knowledge). The present self-image could not also be recognized except in relation to the past self-knowledge. Hence, both co-constituted one another.</p>
<p>The job has turned out a lot better than what I thought it would. It is sort of ongoing and it is growing as time progresses it is becoming more and more-- we are getting more and more involved. p. 278-279</p>	<p>R6 The 'world external to self' (i.e., a growing job) constituted the 'perception of shaper' (motivation--'more and more involved') which simultaneously constituted the 'world external to self' ('growing as time progresses')</p>
<p>I can put across my ideas more clearly. Aamm ... obviously, we can always continue to improve but yes it did. p.280</p>	<p>R3 'Doing' ('put across') was constituted by 'learning' ('course ideas'). 'Learning' ('continue to improve') was also simultaneously constituted by 'doing'. Hence, both co-constituted one another continuously.</p>

<p>CASE: 2</p>	<p>R5 The respondent entered the training session with an apprehensiveness (<i>unsure or didn't know</i>) arising out of inadequate pre-course communication and inadequate job exposure. At this initial stage 'supportive learning climate' (<i>feel as a part of the group</i>) helped her overcome apprehensiveness and get satisfaction (<i>feel lot easier</i>). Satisfaction simultaneously enabled her to integrate herself with others (<i>relate as one group</i>) thereby strengthening the supportive climate. Again, supportive climate simultaneously helped her work and learn together. As time passed there was an increase in satisfaction (<i>I felt more at ease</i>) with a simultaneous increase in supportiveness (<i>it didn't take long to feel as a part of the group</i>) and also with a simultaneous increase in involvement (<i>because [course facilitator] had your attention</i>). This exemplifies the relationship R5 i.e., the on-going co-constitution of 'learning' and the 'perception of shapers'.</p>
<p>I was unsure of what I am going into, because I didn't know much about the course or even about the job I shall be doing. I know how I felt when I walked in-- some people you know and some you don't know, you knew faces, but you didn't know a name. It didn't take long to feel as part of the group; which makes you feel a lot easier. You could relate as one group as opposed to different areas. I feel as if I know them now because we worked and learned together. I felt alienated going in, but as the morning went on I felt more at ease. I am constantly on my feet in my job. I found it difficult to sit all day. As the day progressed, I felt better because [course facilitator] had your attention. p. 239-240</p>	<p>R3 The respondent used phrases such as 'gaining' or 'can talk' rather than 'gained' or 'talked'. Gaining refers to an on-going increase in confidence (learning) achieved through use e.g. talking (doing). Hence, 'doing' and 'learning' co-constituted one another.</p>
<p>R4 Confidence, which was an element learned [<i>Before the course I was lacking in confidence and I think now I am gaining confidence</i>], was also at the same time a shaper [<i>helping me in trying out</i>] that contributed to application. In this instance, 'doing' [gaining] and the 'perception of shaper' (confidence) co-constituted one another.</p>	<p>R5 Confidence, as an element learned, also constituted confidence, as a shaper, and vice-versa.</p>

<p>I feel there was a bit confusion initially about this group leader thing. I have a good idea of what we are expected to do. Some may have been a bit unsure in the past. Especially because the Group Leader has only been in our section for the past three or four weeks and there is not one on every shift - there are only three and there are five shifts. A lot of people were unsure at first what exactly we are to do but it is coming together now. p. 287</p>	<p>R6 There were simultaneous changes in the 'perception of shaper' (role definition) and the 'world external to self' (appointment of group leaders, communications and the functioning of group leaders). Both co-constituted one another.</p>
<p>Again the fact that I like my job is also another important thing. I am staying on here past my working hours because I like the job that I am doing and I have been criticized that I am too much that way but I do enjoy the job and at the moment I really like my job. It is good. ... You can see it going which makes you want to do it all the more. The fact that I am enjoy doing my job, in general, makes me more interested to try the course ideas. p.289</p>	<p>R4 The 'perception of shaper' (intrinsic motivation) and 'doing' co-constituted one another. ... <i>I am staying on here past my working hours [doing] because [ascription of relationship] I like [perception of shaper--motivation] the job that I am doing ...</i> In other words 'doing' was constituted by 'perception of shaper'. <i>'You can see it going [doing] which makes you [ascription of relationship] want to do it all the more [perception of shaper--motivation]. That is, the 'perception of shaper' was constituted by 'doing'.</i></p>
<p>CASE 3</p>	
<p>At first I did not feel that there was any great change whatsoever. It was more gradual. Usually with any kind of job in here, you are just left to get on with it and think for yourself. I think that was-- I think I have become more matured and experienced. Initially, I tried to follow exactly what was covered on the course. I learned from the pitfalls of following course ideas exactly. I thought -- 'what was it I did wrong in this situation?' and 'what was it I did right?' I got new ideas each time and avoided my mistakes next time. That way I find I am growing inside. The course was as it were a seed. I got some very important but general ideas. As I am putting them into practice they are getting better every time. p.292</p>	<p>R4 Co-constitution of 'learning' and 'doing'. 'Learning' constituted 'doing' and was simultaneously constituted by 'doing'.</p>
<p>You can try a few different approaches and they may not work. p.293</p>	<p>An example of indetermination</p>

<p>I am starting to see things coming together, it's giving me a lot of satisfaction to see things coming off. We are really trying hard just now. The girls are all trying hard too. And now I get a lot of satisfaction because it's something important to achieve. I do get a lot of enjoyment from it. ... But I am definitely getting lot more satisfaction. I have a bigger part to play and I have a lot more control over these things whereas before you were just told about and you were not happy. I find satisfaction is very important, it helps a lot. p. 294.</p>	<p>R9 This is an example of co-constitution of 'doing' and the 'world external to self'. The phrase '<i>things coming together</i>' referred to gradual achievement of goals, through an on-going process of trial, change, re-trial, and re-change. The phrase '<i>trying hard</i>' referred to 'doing' and the phrase '<i>control over things</i>' indicated the things belonging to the 'world external to self'. The relationships R4 and R6 can also be observed in the articulation. R4 is exemplified through the on-going co-constitution of 'satisfaction' (a perceived shaper) and 'doing' (trying hard). R6 is illustrated through the on-going co-constitution of 'satisfaction' (a perceived shaper) and the elements of the 'world external to self' (i.e., the things over which the respondent gained control).</p>
<p>CASE 5</p>	
<p>Initially I tried some of the ideas from the course, but I tended to be snowballed in. p.302</p>	<p>R3 Another example of co-constitution of 'learning' and 'doing'. 'Doing' was constituted by 'learning' ('<i>tried some of the ideas from the course</i>'). The phrase '<i>snowballed in</i>' indicated the simultaneous change in learning (i.e., recognition of the existence of shapers that resisted application). Therefore, 'learning' and 'doing' simultaneously co-constituted one another.</p> <p>R4 The respondent's initial perception of shaper constituted 'doing'; the actions simultaneously altered the 'perception of shaper'. Hence, both 'doing' and 'perception of shaper' co-constituted one another.</p>
<p>I think advance planning-- I would not take it as gospel. I would go through the motions of advance planning but otherwise I would not depend on it. You do not treat the course ideas as recipes, they need to be adjusted to the situation, you begin to see things in a different light and possibly learn more about it. p. 303</p>	<p>R3 Advance planning was applied. Hence, 'learning' constituted 'doing'. '<i>I would go through the motions ... not depend on it.</i>' is a 'learning' gained from 'doing'. The phrases '<i>adjusted to the situation</i>', '<i>learn more</i>' etc. indicate an on-going dialectical synthesis of the two.</p>

<p>After the course you think - well I really feel good and I feel that I know what I am doing and I feel better about the job which I am to do and you go in and try to implement things but trying to implement them and when you see that it is not working I wouldn't say that you just pull back from it and say forget it. I would say that you say well I can't expect that to happen all of the time but I will try to do it when it is possible. p. 303-304</p>	<p>R3, R4 The on-going co-constitution of 'learning' and 'doing' (R3) and also that of the 'perception of shaper' and 'doing' (R4) are reflected in the expression. The simultaneous changes in 'learning' (e.g., what to expect), in 'doing' (strategy of acting), the 'perception of shaper' (+ to - and vice-versa) can be observed in the expression.</p>
<p>CASE 7</p>	
<p>I really don't know why I don't remember them in great detail. I mean ... I do not know whether it is because you just forget and just get on with what you are doing or whether it is because unconsciously you are incorporating it in what you are doing, you just go in and do the things on a day to day basis and you don't think about it. p. 317</p>	<p>R3 The expression suggests that the respondent focused on the day to day functioning and not on conscious reflection of the application of course elements. However, the respondent did recognize the possibility of an on-going (incorporating) and unconscious co-constitution of 'learning' and 'doing'.</p>
<p>it's very difficult to get away from running the machine. Aamm ... a lot of the time the job I take over from them are not the thing I want to do. There is no one there and obviously production comes first. p.319</p>	<p>R9 The 'world external to self' was constituting the 'doings' of the respondents in a certain way which the respondent did not want to be constituted. By her desire not to have her actions constituted the way they were constituted, the respondent was simultaneously constituting the 'world external to self'.</p>
<p>I think probably because, in the beginning its all new or you think it's going to be all new and now it's not, it's just, like I said before, it's routine and ... aamm ... once things become routine-- I mean, on the whole I am fairly a motivated person which gives me the urge to take initiatives. But aamm no other things are motivating me, no new things coming in to my job that would motivate me. These are the things I have been doing on. p 320</p>	<p>R6 The 'world external to self' (features of the job, i.e., rigid, routine) constituted 'perception of shaper' (less motivation), and the 'perception of shaper' (less motivation) simultaneously constituted the 'world external to self' (the job ascribed as less appealing job)</p>

In the beginning I was enthusiastic. ... Aamm ... the things are slackened off, you just sort of slip back to you old routine and they think themselves 'hey I shouldn't be doing this myself, she should be doing it for me'. Its difficult for them as well. It is a condition in which you don't consciously feel the need to try new things, you just let yourself go. p. 321

R6 The 'world external to self' (things slakened off) constituted the 'perception of shaper' (i.e., motivation-- she felt less enthusiastic) and the 'perception of shaper' (i.e., less motivation) simultaneously constituted the 'world external to self' (slip back to old routine).

R4 The 'perception of shaper' (i.e., less motivation) constituted 'doing' ('*don't consciously feel the need to try*') and 'doing' simultaneously constituted the 'perception of shaper' (motivation-- e.g., '*let yourself go*').

Having explicated the non-deterministic and non-reductionistic nature of the shapers, we shall, for comparison, explore the studies on learning transfer. Apart from the phenomenological studies conducted by Mmobuosi (1983, 1985, 1987a and 1987b), the literature search revealed a number of studies in the positivist tradition. The foci of these studies are diverse and not all of which are particularly relevant. For example Sparrow (1989) focused on the measurement of job profile similarity; Argote et.al. (1990) studied persistence of learning within organization and transfer of learning across organization; Lee (1988) examined the difficulties of home-coming; Duncan (1958) studied the implication of the degree of variation in training and others (e.g., Bentz, 1975; Eهرانberg, 1983; Pattan, 1983; Foxon, 1987; Huczynski, 1978b, 1983; Huczynski and Logan, 1980; Miles and Biggs, 1979; Taylor, 1974; Leifer and Newstrom, 1980; McGivering, 1980; Noel and Dennehy, 1991; Parray, 1990; and Wexley and Baldwin, 1986) offered suggestions for the maximization of transfer. However, the studies that focused on the 'factors affecting learning transfer' (i.e., the conventional counterparts of the shapers) are relevant to the current discussion. Examples of these studies include, Burgoyne (1979), Cooper (1979), Fleishman (1953), Harris and Fleishman (1955), House (1968), Huczynski (1977, 1978a), Huczynski and Lewis (1980, 1979a, 1979b), Jago (1982), Jones and Rogers (1978), Kent (1982), Stiefel (1974), Sykes, (1962), Van Velsor and Musselwhite (1986), Vendenput (1973), and Weiss et. al. (1980). Of these studies, the ones which were written for the academic audiences revealed their positivistic posture more clearly than those which were written for the non-academic audiences. The positivist standpoint in those works, carried out for the non-academic audiences, could be inferred from the terms used; the implicit and explicit assumptions, hypotheses, propositions and theories employed in describing, analyzing and discussing the subject matter, and finally the suggestions and recommendations offered. Table 9.20 presents the shapers that emerged from this study and the 'factors' that were suggested by some of the main academic contributors in the positivist tradition.

Table 9.20 A Presentation Of The Shapers And The Factors Related To Learning And Application Of Learning

Shapers or Factors	Equivalent Shapers
<p>This Study</p> <p>Training Milieu Shapers Job Exposure (JE) Pre-course Communication (PcC) Relevance (R) Communicativeness (Cn) Involvement (I) Nature Of Learning Climate (NLC) Control Over Learning (COL) Cross-fertilization Of Ideas And Experience (CfIE) Course Composition (CC) Physical Facilities (PF)</p> <p>Organizational Shapers Supportive/Non-supportive Disposition (SNsD) Role Definition (RD) Role Conflict (RC) Pressures of Production (PP) Reward/Non-reward Orientation (RNrO) Relevance (R) Communication (C) Job Autonomy (JA) Formal Power (FP)</p> <p>Individual Shapers Motivation (M) Application Skills (AS) Ability to Assert (AA) Ability to Treat Fairly (ATF) Ability to Relate (AR) Ability to Communicate (AC) Ability to Relax Under Pressure (ARUP)</p>	
<p>Sykes (1962)</p> <p>Trainees' Perception and Expectation of Management's Role</p>	<p>---</p>
<p>House (1968)</p> <p>Formal Authority System</p> <p>Exercise of formal Authority System</p> <p>Primary Work Group</p>	<p>FP RNrO SNsD (Co-Worker)</p>

Table 9.20 Contd. ...

Vendenput (1973)								
The Environment	---
Finance	---
Technology	---
Job Characteristics	PP
Organizational Structures	C, SNsD
Policies	C, SNsD
Values	---
Relevance of Training	R
Rewards of Training	RNrO
Autonomy	JA
People's Characteristics	SNsD
Relations	C, SNsD
Jones and Rogers (1978)								
Personal Relationship								
Support from Senior Officer only	SNsD
Support from Colleagues only	SNsD
Support from Senior Officer and Colleagues	SNsD
General, Unspecified support	SNsD
Organisational Influences								
Organisational Structure and Systems	C
Organisation's attitude to Change	---
Organisational Structure and attitude to Change	---
Other	---
Resources								
Shortage of Money	---
Shortage of Time	---
shortage of various unspecified resources	PP
Other								
Personal Autonomy	JA
Delegated freedom	JA
Newness in post	---
Personal motivation to innovate	M
Nature of role	---
Relevance and usefulness of course	R
Timing of course	---
Huczynski and Lewis (1980); Weiss, Huczynski and Lewis (1980)								
Selection and Preparation Variables								
Attended course on own initiative (Self selection)	M
Felt it would help in job (before course)	---
Discussed before course	PcC
Discussed after course	SNsD

Table 9.20 Contd. ...

Organizational Variables	
Overload of work	PP
Unplanned (crisis) work	---
Hard to convince older people	---
High rate of change	---
Boss is open to suggestion	SNsD
Responsibility for own work	---
Boss listens to your ideas	SNsD
Boss allows use of own methods	JA
Free to exchange information	C
Huczynski (1977, 1978a)	
Organizational Factors	
[Dimensions of an Organization's Climate for Innovation, measured with the help of an instrument called <i>Organizational Climate Innovation Questionnaire</i> (OCIQ)]	
Readiness to innovate	---
Future orientation	---
Open-mindedness	SNsD
Risk-taking	---
Rewards	RNRo
Questioning of authority	---
Conflict management	---
Trust	---
Superior's attitude	SNsD
Organizational structure	---
Mmobuosi (1983)	
Organizational factors	
Posting outside the agency from which course was attended	---
Taking from an unmanned table	---
Overload	PP
Unsupportiveness	SNsD
Emphasis on threat, obedience and conformity	RNRo
Fear of discomfort likely to arise from applied new ideas	---
Ignorance or unawareness of the need to use ideas from trained personnel	---
Personal factors	
Loves work/ conscientious	M
Self-confidence	AS (AA)
Detachment/ dislike for pain	---
Liked by people	AS (AR)
Diplomatic/pragmatic	---

Unlike the shapers in this study, the 'factors' in other studies presupposes determinism and reductionism. These studies will now be examined in

turn. Sykes' (1962) study did not adopt any elaborate research method to establish causality. Instead it used group discussion and interview techniques to collect data. Despite the use of 'soft' research design, the implicit positivist assumptions can be observed from the expressions such as, *'It proved impossible to obtain any accurate statistics of the effects of the course on individuals ...'* (Sykes, 1962 : 234). Obtaining accurate statistics of the *effect* of the course, is a positivist requirement (for establishing causality) dictated by the assumption of determinism. The assumption of determinism is reflected in another statement. Sykes (1962 : 234) asserted that,

'What appeared from the interviews to be the primary cause of dissatisfaction was the failure of the course to produce any improvement in the attitude of the senior management to the supervisor.' [emphasis added]

A positivist orientation including the assumption of determinism is clearly evident in House (1968). House (1968 : 557-558) mentioned that,

The purpose of the paper is to explain how the effects of leadership training depend on structural variables in complex organizations, to describe these structural variables, and to advance a proposition that explains and permits prediction of the consequence of leadership training in varying situation. [emphasis added]

Vandenput's (1973) study may be classified within the 'domain of discovery' as opposed to the 'domain of verification or justification' in the methodology of conventional inquiry. Guba and Lincoln (1989 : 166) asserted that, *'both discovery and verification are essential to the pursuit of conventional inquiry'*. Discovery, in the language of conventional paradigm, is best regarded as the precursor to inquiry. In a discussion on the conventional methodology, Guba and Lincoln (1989 : 113) further noted that,

'Discovery processes are needed when an area is being studied about which little is known, where there is little insight into the crucial variables or what theory to bring to bear and the like. ...'

Once such initial insights have been achieved, it is time to develop rigorous questions and hypotheses that are best tested by the verificatory methods of science.'

The exploratory design (i.e., discovery process) in Vandenput's study was adopted as a result of the lack of adequate information on the topic. Vandenput (1973 : 251-252) mentioned that,

Since few empirical data on this topic have been reported in the literature, the investigation has been designed as an exploratory study; ... These data may give an orientation for further research.'

This shows that Vandenput's exploratory design fitted the discovery end of the 'discovery-verification' (Guba and Lincoln, 1989 : 115) continuum of conventional paradigm. Additionally, it also demonstrates that the study was designed to serve as a precursor to subsequent inquiries. The fact that subsequent studies (Weiss, 1978; Weiss et. al., 1980; Huczynski and Lewis, 1980) tested Vandenput's findings, confirms this point. Despite the use of qualitative methods, the positivistic standpoint (including the assumption of determinism) is also apparent in the exploratory design adopted. The deployment of various measures to control bias (i.e., extraneous variables) and secure objectivity demonstrates the positivist standpoint maintained by the study. For example, using purposive sampling technique (aided by some criteria for selecting subjects), obtaining a heterogeneous sample and using a panel of judges with different backgrounds (for content analysis) reflect deliberate (as opposed to random) measures to control extraneous variables and to offset one type of bias with other types. On one such measure Vandenput (1973 : 252) wrote that,

'The influence of the organization upon training may be felt as much during the training programme as after it: 26 of the subjects were interviewed while they were in training and 26 others during the year following the period of training. Because trainees may be biased in their perception of the organizations, we also included 10 subjects who, for various reasons, were reluctant to undertake their training course.'

The necessity to control biases or extraneous variables emanates from the subscription to the positivist assumption of causal determinism.

Jones and Rogers (1978) investigated the factors affecting learning transfer as a part of their study on the evaluation of the NHS courses. This study combined both qualitative and quantitative techniques in its research design. Despite the use of qualitative techniques in a non-experimental research design (i.e., action research), the arguments offered to justify the research design vividly express the researchers' subscription to the ontological and epistemological substance of positivism. Jones and Rogers explored the feasibility of research designs (such as equivalent experimental and control group, non equivalent control group, control group comprised of members who applied but not selected for the course, control group comprised of members of a 'placebo' course) and found them unworkable. Their decision not to adopt any of those designs was based on their perception of the constraints and difficulties and not on an ontological and epistemological shift from positivism. Jones and Rogers (1978 : 2) wrote that,

This is because the constraints of the environment, as well as the special attributes of the sponsors and of the research subjects are such as to force the researcher into adopting an action research approach however much he may prefer the elegance of the pure natural science model. This does not mean that the research process should be any less rigorous nor that the attempt at quantification should be abandoned. But it implies the need to recognize and make explicit the limitation of the numerical data and to make use of a variety of research techniques on the basis of their appropriateness to the research objectives.

The researchers' intention to use a 'pure natural science model' if circumstances had permitted, indicated that they had already accepted the ontology and epistemology of positivism. Therefore, the problem for them was not of philosophy; rather it was of techniques. Although, technically, they could not use a 'natural science model' they took various measures (such as using of comparison groups, obtaining large sample and high response rate) to meet, as far as possible, the requirements of

positivist epistemology. That the researchers held the views of determinism, is also clearly apparent from such statements as " ... *the existence of other causal variables, of which we were still unaware, could not be ruled out.*" (Jones and Rogers 1978 : 3) and " ... *we examine what effects, if any, on senior officers' post hoc perception of course value, were caused by the researchers' intervention into the training process*" (Jones and Rogers 1978 : 94).

The empirical study reported by Huczynski and Lewis (1980) and Weiss, Huczynski and Lewis (1980) conveys a distinct impression of the researchers' allegiance to the epistemological standpoint of positivism. For example, commenting on the state of existing research Huczynski and Lewis (1980 : 229) stated that,

'To date, however, little research has been conducted to determine exactly which organizational elements appear to either inhibit or encourage the transfer of training. ... The job of identifying the factors concerned is both an important and difficult one. It is important since a correct analysis is required, otherwise subsequent actions will prove ineffective.'
[emphasis added]

An epistemological posture, based on the assumption of causal determinism, is evident from the above expression. However, the researchers decided to 'study learning transfer less ambitiously' (Huczynski and Lewis, 1980 : 229) because of the complexity involved. Nevertheless, their research design incorporated some measures so as to meet the epistemological requirements as much as were feasible. The control measures included, selection of a course whose objectives were clearly identifiable and also were measurable by objective testing; a course which had a significant number of participants from various companies so that comparison could be facilitated; comparison of two groups of course members, keeping the course itself (length, objectives and structure) as a fixed variable; and comparison of the experimenters and non-experimenters (Huczynski and Lewis, 1980) . Although the researchers were cautious about generalizing their findings, a clear emphasis on causal

determination is evident in their claims. Weiss, Huczynski and Lewis, (1980) held that,

A second major finding was that the trainee's superior can control the two main inhibiting factors and the four facilitating ones. It would appear that among the course members studied, it was the boss's attitude and management style which was the determining factor in training transfer. [emphasis added]

The research instrument 'Organizational Climate for Innovation Questionnaire' (OCIQ) was developed by Huczynski (1977, 1978a) in order to study the organizational influences on learning transfer. A standardized research instrument is a methodological expression of the positivist ontology. OCIQ, developed as a standardized instrument for the measurement 'innovation profile' (Huczynski and Logan, 1980), reflects the implicit assumption of 'objective reality', 'generalizability' and 'causal determinism'. The dimensions (or factors) of OCIQ were obtained by the researcher through a careful review of literature on the transfer of learning, creativity and innovation in organizations. Each dimension was assumed to be causally related to the organization's acceptances of changes in work methods and practices (Huczynski 1978a). Huczynski (1978a) offered evidences of statistical correlation from other studies in support of the assumed causal relations. He went considerable lengths, with the help of a pilot study and rigorous statistical analysis, to show the reliability and validity of his instrument. These tests of reliability and validity clearly indicate researcher's subscription to the assumption of deterministic causal relationships between the independent and the dependent variables.

Finally, it can be recalled from Chapter 8 that although Mmobuosi's (1983, 1987a) study was conducted in the tradition of phenomenology, it retained the notion of deterministic causal connection.

In addition to the determinism, all the studies discussed here also subscribed to reductionism and treated learning and application of learning as discrete elements. They attempted to study the two separately

and then hoped to *add* the partial pictures to complete the whole. For example Vandenput (1973 : 251) asserted that,

' ... in order to understand the problem of transfer, we have to emphasize the organizational phenomena rather than the learning processes occurring during the training itself.'

A similar statement can be found in Huczynski and Lewis (1980 : 229). They mentioned that,

' ... the aim of this study was to focus on the organizational variables, as opposed to those concerned with the individual learner or the course design itself.'

On an earlier occasion, Huczynski and Lewis (1979a : 27) offered a clearer indication of the separateness of learning and application of learning. They mentioned that,

'Defined in this way, the question has two facets. Firstly, there is the process of learning acquisition itself, ... Secondly, there is the process of transfer ... It is this field of study that which has been comparatively neglected to date.'

Despite apparent similarity of terminologies, the difference of views on determinism and reductionism between this thesis and the other studies diminishes the meaningfulness of any comparison.

9.2.3 The Noetic Process

A comparison of the noetic processes reported in this and other available studies (Burgoyne, 1974; and Mmobuosi, 1983, 1987a) was carried out in the preceding chapter. Unlike Mmobuosi (1983) and this study, Burgoyne (1974) did not collect separate sets of data on training and post-training events. Hence, it may be inferred that the noetic processes reported in Burgoyne (1974) equally applied to the training and the post-training experiences. As Burgoyne (1974) was considered at some length in the previous chapter, a repetition is avoided. While in this study similar noetic processes were found to have emerged from both the sets of data,

Mmobuosi (1983) reported some additional ones. Table 9.21 presents the noetic processes that emerged from the training and the post-training data sets of this and Mmobuosi's (1983) studies.

Table 9.21 The Noetic Processes Emerging From The Training-Event And The Post-Training Data Sets As Reported By Mmobuosi And This Study

Mmobuosi (1983)		This Study	
Training-event Data	Post-training Data	Training-event Data	Post-training Data
Reflecting	--	Reflecting	Reflecting
Recalling	The Process of Recall	Recalling	Recalling
Comparing	Analogy	Comparing	Comparing
--	Illustrated Statements	Illustrating	Illustrating
Generalizing	Generalization	Eidetic grasping	Eidetic grasping
--	Innuendo	--	--
--	Dramatic Irony	--	--
--	Onomatopoeia	--	--

It can be observed from Table 9.21 that while some of the noetic processes (i.e., 'process of recall', 'analogy' and 'illustrated statements') reported by Mmobuosi (1983) are similar to that of this study, others are additional (e.g., 'innuendo', 'dramatic irony', 'onomatopoeia'). Furthermore, Table 9.21 reveals that 'reflecting', as a separate noetic process, did not emerge from Mmobuosi's (1983) post-training data set. It will be recalled that 'reflecting' emerged in this study as a non-specific noetic process. In 'analogy', the respondents used the process of comparison with the help of metaphors in order to ascribe meaning. Hence, it is considered as similar to 'comparing'. The distinction between 'generalization' and 'eidetic grasping' was highlighted in Chapter 8. To avoid duplication it is not pursued any further. Finally, the noetic processes, such as 'innuendo', 'dramatic irony', 'onomatopoeia', relate to the specific 'figures of speech' used by one of Mmobuosi's (1983) respondents to ascribe meanings.

9.3 Summary

This chapter has attempted to address evaluation by examining the participants' experiential structure of the post-training events. Post-course evaluation was carried out from three perspectives by considering the categories synthesized transformations. The first perspective involved considering the category of synthesized transformations called the 'course elements applied'. The second perspective involved dealing with another category of synthesized transformations called the 'application process shapers' and the last category of synthesized transformations, called the noetic process, were taken into account in the third evaluation perspective. Participants' experiential structure reveal that participants have used some of the elements gained from the course. These elements include the ones related to interpersonal relations, communications, planning, organizing, self-confidence, quality awareness, general management ideas and problem solving. Participants' experiential structure also shows that some of the shapers were facilitative while others were restrictive and still others were both. The facilitative shapers included, relevance, motivation, and application skills. The restrictive shapers were, role definition, role conflict, pressures of production, reward/non-reward orientation, communication and formal power. The shapers that were perceived both as facilitative and restrictive were, supportive/non-supportive disposition and job autonomy. The data suggested that learning, application of learning and the shapers were to be considered holistically. Furthermore, the empirical evidences also showed that the relationship between the shapers and the learning-application process is far from deterministic. Rather, such a relationship can be best characterized as a dialectical synthesis of determinism and indeterminism. The findings of the study were also compared with some of the available studies. Finally, the discussion in this chapter and the preceding one indicate that while there are potential grounds for improvement, the Group Leader training course was evaluated by the participants with a considerable degree of favourableness.

Chapter 10

CONCLUSION

Implications And Recommendations

This final chapter concludes the discussion which this study has initiated. The first section provides an overview of the study. The second section considers the implications of the study on the *substance, methodology* and *practice* of phenomenological evaluation. The limitations of the study are discussed in section three. The fourth section offers clues regarding the areas of future research. Section five summarizes the findings of the study and finally the last section presents the recommendation for the concerned decision makers.

10.1 Overview Of The Study

This research undertook the task of studying a very common, mundane and practical, yet a very neglected problem of modern organizational life, i.e., evaluation of management training programme. As mentioned at the beginning of the thesis, the element of neglect in both evaluation research and practice is reflected through the popular literature (lacking depth and rigour) and the rituals (e.g., the practice of 'dishing out happiness sheet') performed by the trainers. This neglect can be attributed to the difficulties associated with the conventional mode of thinking. Soon after a decision to undertake an evaluation research is taken, one is exposed to a series of difficult and utopian demands made by the 'proper science' of training evaluation. For example, to make sure that the findings of an evaluation study are trustworthy, the evaluator is required to demonstrate that the results are objective (i.e., free from all possible 'value-contamination') that deterministic causal connections are established between the effects and the treatment (i.e., the training programme), that the findings represent time and context-free generalizations, that the phenomena of study are subjected to quantitative measurement, and that the findings are derived through the use of 'elegant and sophisticated' statistical tools and computer packages (since anything that cannot be measured is held not to be worth investigating!). The conventional technical 'formula' for meeting these demands is the adoption of experimental designs with their

elaborate physical and statistical controls. Apart from being non-practical (as demonstrated by the scanty instances of their use in the literature), the most 'elegant' of the experimental designs-- the Solomon Four Group design-- is flawed in terms of its so-called 'technical merits' (see Lincoln and Guba, 1985). The non-availability of appropriate methods of research coupled with a simultaneous exposure to the demands of trustworthiness (in conventional sense), frustrate evaluators to the point that they are compelled to compromise rigour and depth or abandon the project or even refrain from contemplating at all. However, there is a serious need to undertake an evaluation project that will ensure rigour and depth, and at the same time, is practically achievable. From the author's point of view, it is not possible to achieve any technical solution to this problem by remaining within the confines of the philosophical assumptions of the positivistic methodology. The methodological measures taken, rest on the epistemological assumptions held; which in turn, rest on the ontological assumptions subscribed to. Therefore, the issue is more fundamental; it is paradigmatic. The issue is what is admissible as knowledge and what is not; rather than what tool could be used to know what is regarded as knowledge. Some researchers have grappled with the problem at the methodological level by combining qualitative and quantitative techniques. However, what is fundamentally required is a complete departure from the ontological and epistemological postures of positivism. This study rejected the positivist conception of admissible knowledge on ontological and epistemological grounds, and explored alternative conception of admissible knowledge to resolve the methodological difficulties of evaluation research.

Hence, this study began by examining the limitations of positivism from both the philosophical and methodological levels. Then it explored constructivism and phenomenology, and discussed how they overcame the difficulties of positivism. Of the two, phenomenology was found to be more appropriate than constructivism. The study then examined the paradigmatic consistency of evaluation approaches in order to adopt an approach that would avoid theoretical and methodological disjunctions. As an approach, phenomenological evaluation was found to be consistent with the paradigmatic posture adopted by this study. These broader issues of the paradigm and the approach, laid the basis for working out the

methodological details for this study. An empirical investigation was carried out to evaluate a supervisory training course after the methodological details were decided. The phenomenological methods of interview and protocol analysis were used to conduct the empirical investigation. The data for the study constituted the descriptions of participant's experiences of the training and post-training events. The techniques of 'stimulated recall' and 'thinking aloud' were used to collect data. Participants' verbal descriptions were audio taped and verbatim transcripts were used for the interpretation process. The experiential descriptions were interpreted, using the technique of imaginative free variation, to elucidate the essences. These essences i.e., the synthesized transformations, revealed the participant's evaluation of the course. The implications of this study on the substantive area, the research methodology and the practice of phenomenological evaluation will be considered next.

10.2 Phenomenological Evaluation Revisited: The Implications Of The Study

The empirical investigation generated some issues and observations which clarified, refined and substantiated some of the themes that were highlighted earlier. In particular, the issues related to substance of phenomenological evaluation, its methodology and practice, have significant relevance to this discussion. Each will now be considered in turn.

10.2.1 The Implications For The Substance of Phenomenological Evaluation

It was mentioned in Chapter 4 that phenomenological evaluation recognized the need for the democratization of the evaluation process, the necessity to be responsive to the stakeholders' information needs, the complexity and diversity of the evaluation setting, and the necessity to adopt a holistic view and process orientation. The insights gained from the empirical investigation help one to further clarify, elaborate, refine

and support the issues just mentioned. The issues of democratization and stakeholders' information needs will be considered first. These were ensured by holding an initial meeting with the principal stakeholders. The stakeholders included the trainees, the management, the provider of training (i.e., the agency), the facilitator and the evaluator. The scope of the study, the information needs of the stakeholders and the utilization of the results were negotiated by the parties. Accordingly, the field investigation was carried out. It was argued that, as the trainees were to use the course elements (tangible and intangible) back at work, their experiences were significant in demonstrating whether or not the course was useful to them. The trainees, the management, the provider and the facilitator will then utilize the information for subsequent decision making. The realization of democratic principle and the responsiveness to stakeholder's information needs were, to some extent, impaired by focusing on one stakeholding group. This will be elaborated in the subsequent discussion on the limitations of the study. However, if democratization implied restoration of rights of the stakeholders then the phenomenological principle of grasping a phenomenon as a thing-in-itself surely facilitated the democratic principle. The adherence to epoché prevented the evaluator from imposing his presuppositions onto respondents' experiential realities. This implied that the entire control of meaning ascription, and therefore evaluation, rested on the stakeholders and not upon the evaluator.

The issues of complexity and the diversity of the evaluation setting, the holistic view and process orientation, will be considered now. The participants ascribed value to the course as they experienced it in the life-world. Evaluation is not isolated from the life-world, but it is very much embedded in it. The life-world is complex and diverse. One experiences the life-world holistically in its complexity and diversity. Phenomenological evaluation focuses on the experiential structure, and elucidates meaning (ascription of value to the course), from experience gained within the context of life-world. The consideration of experiential structure reveals phenomenology's recognition of complexity and diversity of evaluation setting, and a holistic perspective. In addition, as can be recalled from the preceding chapter, the assumptions and views on learning and application also emphasised complexity, diversity, holistic

perspective and process orientation. Learning-application was considered as a process of on-going co-constitution in which both learning and application were at the same time discrete and non-discrete, separable and en-meshed, independent and dependent and, determinate and indeterminate entities. It can be recalled that this empirical study focused on evaluation in terms of the acquisition of valued ends and application of learning. Evaluation was thus inextricably linked with learning and application. The assumptions and views on learning, and the application of learning, shaped the assumptions and views on evaluation. This implies that the views underpinning the process of on-going co-constitution of learning and application (POCOLA), were also held by phenomenological evaluation. Therefore, from the foregoing discussion, it is possible to draw the following conclusions on the substance of phenomenological evaluation:

1. Phenomenological evaluation recognizes the complexity and diversity of the evaluation setting.
2. It adopts a holistic and not a reductionist perspective.
3. It is process oriented (as reflected by its focus on the interrelationships of the shapers) rather than product oriented.
4. Phenomenological evaluation maintains that the findings are neither photographic slices of life (i.e. here-and-now) nor time and context free (i.e. there-and-then). Rather they are syntheses of both. They are, at the same time, both deterministic and indeterministic. This implies that it is possible to generate findings that offer reasonable grounds to guide future action, but not deterministic explanations to ensure prediction and control.
5. Phenomenological evaluation is formative rather than summative. The information generated can best be used for the improvement (but not judgement of the worth) of training. It maintains that there is no such thing called 'conclusive evidence' which summative evaluation requires an evaluation study to produce.

6. Since phenomenological evaluation is formative, it is on-going. It is limited by stakeholders' information needs and resource constraints.
7. As a formative evaluation, phenomenological evaluation aims to resolve problems rather than fix blame.
8. Phenomenological evaluation enfranchises the stakeholders. The shareholder's experience, rather than any *a priori* category (offered by the evaluator or anyone else), constitute the reality. The requirement to grasp a thing-in-itself implies that the respondent's (shareholder's) experience of meaningfulness of evaluation, and not that of the evaluator, is important.
9. Phenomenological evaluation's rejection of *a priori* formulations highlights its responsiveness to stakeholders' information needs. The scope, information needs and utilization are negotiated by the stakeholders prior to the commencement of field investigation. The results generated by the study are again addressed jointly by the stakeholders.
10. Finally, phenomenological evaluation does not de-humanize the respondents. Instead, it recognizes the stakeholders' right to be involved in the evaluation process. The negotiation and the joint implementation reflect phenomenological evaluation's emphasis on democratization of the evaluation process.

The contribution of this study lies in its addressing these substantive issues, from a phenomenological perspective, through conceptual and empirical exercises.

10.2.2 The Implications For The Methodology Of Phenomenological Evaluation

The possible contributions of this study to the methodology of evaluation are threefold. First, it has demonstrated that it is possible to adopt a rigorous but practically workable methodology, and at the same time, avoid paradigmatic disjunctions. Second, it has offered a detailed and systematic set of guidelines for data presentation and interpretations.

Third, it has proposed a set of phenomenological criteria of trustworthiness. These issues will now be considered in turn.

It will be recalled from Chapter 4 that the emphasis of some of the evaluation approaches on methodological rigour made their methodologies non-practical. For example, the experimental designs, which are the most rigorous by the standards of conventional paradigm, are not at all user-friendly. Similarly, the hermeneutic-dialectic methodology of the fourth generation evaluation, although rigorous, poses serious difficulty in terms of implementation. Chapter 4 further revealed that other approaches compromised rigour for the sake of practical utility and permitted the use of quasi-experimental and non-experimental designs. The examples of this type of evaluation included cost-benefit and systems approaches. Yet other approaches, which made some departure from conventional approaches, suffered from methodological disjunctions. That is, they lacked coherence and logical consistency between methodological practices and the epistemological and ontological assumptions held. The examples were utilization-focus evaluation, goal-free evaluation, illuminative evaluation and to some extent, responsive evaluation. Phenomenological evaluation overcomes these difficulties. Its methodology is faithfully drawn from the epistemological and the ontological assumptions it subscribes to. Judging by the standards of phenomenological paradigm, it can be said that phenomenological evaluation ensures rigour to a reasonable degree. The empirical study, based on the principles of a phenomenological methodology, lends itself to public scrutiny. In phenomenological inquiry, the public assessment of rigour is facilitated by the way in which the protocol gathering questions are formulated, the protocols are collected, the data are presented and interpreted, and finally, in the way that findings are reported. The methodology of a phenomenological evaluation is also user-friendly. At a methodological level, phenomenology is common sense. For phenomenology, lived-experience is the source of knowledge. It requires the essences to be extracted from that lived-experience. Every human being 'makes sense', 'reads between the lines', 'grasps meaning', from experiences. Most of us perform these thought-experiments at a tacit level. However, phenomenology uses these common sense skills in a more systematic and rigorous way. It

requires the suspension of all presuppositions (epoché) and a systematic thought experiment (imaginative free variation) to elucidate the essences of experience. It is possible to acquire these skills to a reasonable degree of expertise. Therefore, with some training and practice, it is possible to transform the man-in-the-street (with his common sense skills), to an evaluation researcher, equipped with systematic methodological tools.

As mentioned earlier, the illustration of a mode of data presentation and interpretation (as used in this study) may have constituted another small contribution towards the evaluation methodology. Some studies in the past have used the protocol analysis method and have presented data in a tabular form with side by side interpretations. However, what appears to be new, is that this study offers a systematic procedure for the presentation and interpretation of such data. Although colour codes and alphabetical references were used by other studies to designate indexed interpretations, the extensive use of a referencing system (i.e., colour coding, alphanumeric coding, page references in each quote, case reference, and quote reference) in this study, helps reveal the links between the respondents' original expressions, the synthesized transformations and their discussions. The significance of this mode of presentation is that these links enable the reader to relate the discussions to the synthesized transformations, and then trace these meanings backwards from the synthesized transformations to the original descriptions offered by the respondents. By tracing links backwards, the reader can practically assess the authenticity, isomorphic validity and intersubjective validity of the findings. In other words, the referencing system permits the public scrutiny of the trustworthiness of the findings of the study. In addition to this mode of presentation, the study also offers an illustration of interpretation. The formulation of questions from the initial (but profound) readings of the protocol as an aid to interpretation; the use of these questions to extract ascription of value of the course in terms of various depths of evidences (e.g., valued ends, ascription of shapers, process of consciousness involved); may serve as an example of the mode of interpretation that can be used in a phenomenological evaluation.

Another methodological area in which this study offers a small contribution is the area of trustworthiness of findings of a

phenomenological inquiry. Although the concepts underpinning the criteria are not new, this study attempted to provide a coherent and systematic treatment. The phenomenological criteria (i.e., authenticity, isomorphic validity and intersubjective validity) were formulated by altering the philosophical basis of the conventional criteria while simultaneously remaining conceptually close to them. This provided the basis for understanding the ontological and epistemological rationale for each criterion and, at the same time, demonstrated their methodological underpinning. A similar treatment can be found in the constructivist literature (see Guba and Lincoln, 1989).

10.2.3 The Implications For The Practice of Evaluation

What does all these mean to the practitioner who does not have a 'burning desire' to delve into the philosophical, theoretical and methodological issues of evaluation research? First, the adoption of this approach enables the practitioner to release the stress (or even frustration) generated through the process of trying to achieve the unachievable. Such stress is generated because while, on one hand, we are socialized to believe in the scientific myth that 'objective' (free from all value contamination) knowledge is the only valid form of knowledge. On the other hand, we do not have the tools to achieve such 'objective' knowledge. The acceptance of subjective experience as a basis of knowledge, and the acceptance of relativity of knowledge, enable us to release those stress and frustrations. This is because they make us realize the meaninglessness of trying to achieve what is not achievable. In addition, through the rejection of the conventional notions of objectivity, this study also helps secure freedom from the pretensions and politics of numbers, statistics and tests. The study enables to lay emphasis on straight-forwardness i.e., 'what-you-see-is-what-you-get' and not 'what-you-see-is-not-what-you-get!'. Second, this approach is simple and less expensive. Phenomenological evaluation does not require any 'sophisticated' pre-test, post-test research design with a number of equivalent control and experimental groups. Neither does it require the evaluator to construct a complex and elaborate questionnaire, and then administer that questionnaire to a large, randomly selected sample. Nor

does it require complex statistical procedures. All it requires is the suspension of evaluator's presuppositions (epoché) in collecting and interpreting respondents' descriptions of experience, and then grasping the meaning contained in those descriptions using thought experiments such as imaginative free variation. The sample size in phenomenological evaluation can be very small.

10.3 Limitations Of The Study

The possibility of discovering short comings remain perpetually open for any study. Hence, like any other study, this study is also not free from inadequacies. In addition to the methodological limitations discussed in Chapter 4, one can identify two areas of inadequacies in this particular case. They include, focusing on single instead of multiple stakeholding groups, and conducting this study as a one-off rather than an on-going evaluation. Although the focus of this study on a single group of stakeholder (i.e., the trainees) was negotiated by all the principal stakeholders, the consideration of other stakeholders in this study was nonetheless important. Certainly, with wider coverage it is possible to enrich the findings and incorporate multiple perspectives. While the constraints (imposed by a doctoral programme) may have compelled the adoption of a one-off exercise, it may be acknowledged that it is nevertheless meaningful, to conduct evaluation on an on-going basis. An on-going evaluation is not only more useful but also theoretically and methodologically more consistent.

10.4 Directions For Further Research

On the whole, evaluation studies using phenomenological approach are very scanty. Certainly, more phenomenological studies are needed to initiate a meaningful discourse among the researchers, trainers, trainees and other stakeholders. In particular, on-going studies incorporating all stakeholders are likely to contribute the most. Further, the Process of Co-constitution of Learning and Application (POCOLA) might also be another interesting area for further research. As evaluation remains the central focus for this study, POCOLA only received tangential treatment.

However, POCOLA certainly warrants a fuller and thorough treatment. This is because, its significance is fundamental to the entire question of training and development.

10.5 Summary Of The Findings

The respondents' experiences revealed that they evaluated the Group Leader training course with a considerable degree of favourableness. From the analyses and interpretations presented in Chapter 8 and Chapter 9 of this thesis the following findings can be summarized.

1. The course was perceived to have offered the participants some satisfaction, usefulness, confidence and motivation.
2. The respondents reported to have acquired knowledge, insight, skills, and changed some attitudes. These acquisitions included gain of knowledge of self, communication, interpersonal relations, work place, motivation, leadership and teamwork; gain of insight about individual difference, personal initiative, theoretical concepts and relationships; gain of skills of problem solving and managing meetings. The post course descriptions of experience also confirm some of these acquisitions.
3. The respondents also reported that they have used some of the elements gained from the course. The course elements used included the ones related to interpersonal relations, communications, planning, organizing, self-confidence, quality awareness, general management ideas and problem solving.
4. The respondents judged the course favourably in terms of the following training-event elements.
 - a. Relevance (R): The course contents were perceived by the respondents as relevant to their job.
 - b. Communicativeness (Cn): The state of on-course communications was perceived to be smooth and unhindered. This was ensured through the appropriate use of training

methods. The respondents perceived the exercises and the discussions as more communicative than the videos and the lectures.

- c. Involvement (I): A high degree of participant involvement was reported by the respondents. Involvement was secured through the methods such as exercises, discussions and videos.
 - d. Nature of Learning Climate (NLC): The learning climate was perceived as supportive, relaxed, informal and non-threatening.
 - e. Control Over Learning (COL): The participants enjoyed certain degree of control in examining the problems and the issues they perceived to be important to them. The non-imposing and control-sharing disposition of the course facilitator encouraged the participants to assume responsibilities for their own learning. The training methods such as discussions, exercises and lectures ensured participants' control over their own learning.
 - f. Cross-fertilization of Ideas and Experiences (CfIE): The course enabled the participants to learn from each others experiences, perspectives and interpretations. The discussions and exercises rather than lectures and videos were reported to have offered greater opportunity for those exchanges.
 - g. Course Composition (CC): The way in which the course was organized was also perceived as contributing towards learning.
5. The respondents judged the following training-event elements as having potentials for improvement.
- a. Job Exposure (JE): The respondents reported inadequate familiarity with the job prior to their course attendance. Prior to the course, they were not very sure as to how to relate it to the job. However once on the course, they were able to understand its relevance. The understanding of relevance was gained at a conceptual level and in the light of general experiences but not at an experiential level specific to the job. Hence the respondents,

after having spent some time doing the job, reported the need to attend a similar course.

- b. Pre-course Communication (PcC): The respondents perceived pre-course communication to be inadequate. The state of PcC left the participants unprepared. They remained uncertain as to what to expect from the course.
- c. Physical Facilities (PF): The physical setting was perceived not to be very comfortable but adequate.

6. The following shapers, related to the post-training events, were found to have contributed to the application of the course elements to the job.

- a. Supportive/Non-supportive Disposition (SNsD): The participants largely perceived their superiors and co-workers as supportive and identified it as helping the application process. However, evidences of unsupportiveness could also be observed. The respondents identified unsupportive superiors and co-workers as hindrances to the application process.
- b. Role Definition (RD): The respondents reported that the Group Leader's role was ambiguous and that it lacked distinction with the other roles in the role set. RD was perceived to be a hindrance to the application process.
- c. Role Conflict (RC): The reports of superiors imposing conflicting expectations on the Group Leaders can also be found in the data. RC was perceived to have restricted the application of course elements to the job.
- d. Pressures Of Production (PP): The respondents experienced four types of pressure in relations to production. These included, pressures for meeting production targets, pressures emanating from production environment, pressures emerging out of production processes, and finally the pressures arising out of the lack of trained production staff. PP was perceived to have restricted the application process.

- e. Reward/Non-reward Orientation (RNRo): The respondents perceived their superiors as having a 'non-reward' orientation in securing their allegiance and compliance. The lack and inadequacy of appreciation, the inadequacy of financial incentive and coercion indicated a 'non-reward' orientation. RNRo was perceived to have restricted the application process.
- f. Relevance (R): The course experiences were perceived to be relevant to the job. This perception facilitated the application of the course ideas.
- g. Communication (C): The lack of consultation, consistency and adequacy emerged as descriptions of the state of communication in the work place. Communication was perceived to be restricting the application process.
- h. Job Autonomy (JA): The respondents held mixed perceptions about JA's role in the application process-- i.e., as a shaper, JA was found to be both facilitative and restrictive. The descriptions of the state of JA were, 'flexibility in the job', 'interference from the bosses', 'close supervision', and 'lack of choice'.
- i. Formal Power (FP): Inadequate FP in the Group Leader's position was also identified as a shaper that restricted the application process.
- j. Motivation (M): High level of motivation was perceived by the respondents as a facilitative shaper for the application process.
- k. Application Skills (AS): The respondents identified a number of abilities as application skills. They included Ability to Assist (AA), Ability to Treat Fairly (ATF), Ability to Relate (AR), Ability to Communicate (AC), and Ability to Relax Under Pressure (ARUP). These skills were found to have facilitated the application of the course elements to the job.

10. 6 Recommendations:

The protocols revealed that the participants ascribed the shapers as contributing positively or negatively towards both learning and application of learning. The shapers that contributed positively may be called 'Enablers' while the ones that contributed negatively can be labelled 'Blockers'. These 'Enablers' and the 'Blockers' indicate the potential areas in which decision makers need to focus their attention in order to facilitate improvement of similar courses in the future. It is important that the 'enablers' be strengthened; and 'blockers' removed so as to manage the process of learning and application. This study revealed that most of the blockers were related to the organizational milieu. These blockers included, Supportive/Non-supportive Disposition (SNsD), Role Definition (RD), Role Conflict (RC), Pressures of Production (PP), Reward/Non-reward Orientation (RNrO), Job Autonomy (JA), and Formal Power (FP). Besides, the training-event blockers, such as Job Exposure (JE), Pre-course Communication (PcC), Physical Facilities (PF), can also be said to have emanated from the organizational policies and practices. The references to the organizational blockers suggested that the respondents did not perceive the organization milieu as favourable for learning and application. The overwhelming conclusion that emerges is that the management is required to take measures to eliminate the blockers so that it can be seen by the potential trainees as a provider of conditions congenial for learning and application. Having said that, this study also underscores the point that there is no deterministic connection between these enablers and blockers with the degree of learning and application. Instead, this study suggests that these enablers and blockers offer some informed clues which can be used to facilitate improvement. Given the state of non-determinacy, it is essentially a matter of an on-going practice of informed trial and error.

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