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A PROGRAM EVALUATION OF THE BASIC SUPERVISORY DEVELOPMENT SEMINAR

A Report

Presented to

the Faculty of the School of Education

San Diego State University

In Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Course

Education 795A and B Seminar

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by

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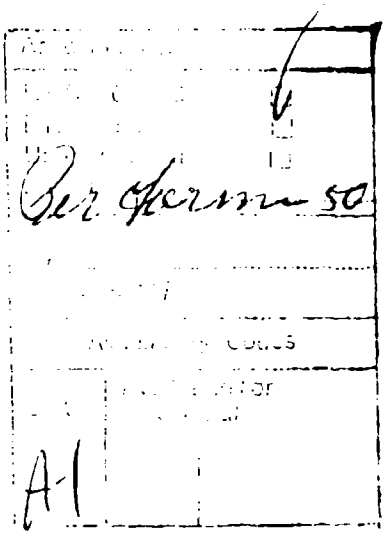
early and plan thoroughly, a smooth completion of the study would not have been possible.



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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Statement of the Problem

Every year the U.S. Navy spends thousands of dollars on training programs to increase the effectiveness and leadership abilities of the supervisors within the Naval Civilian Personnel Command. Presently there is no means to measure the degree to which these courses are meeting their instructional objectives. In most cases the sole qualitative and quantitative evaluation of the courses comes from end-of-course critiques completed by the attendees.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to take one of these courses and attempt to measure the degree to which it was accomplishing its objectives. Specifically, the Basic Supervisory Development Seminar was evaluated under a two phase project. Phase I involved a survey of past attendees to determine if adequate emphasis was placed on the course content to meet their needs as supervisors once back on the job. Phase II involved an evaluation of

three different sessions of the seminar to determine if it had a significant influence on the leadership styles of its attendees.

Assumptions

It was assumed that all individuals answered the various questionnaires candidly and to the best of their ability.

Definition of Terms

For the purpose of this study the following terms will be defined as follows:

Concern for people - Refers to a leader's interest in those behaviors that affect the welfare of his or her subordinates.

Concern for task - Refers to a leader's interest in those behaviors that initiate structure and more clearly define the task involved.

Leadership style - The relationship between a leader's "concern for task" and "concern for people" as determined by the T-P Leadership Questionnaire (Pfeiffer & Jones, 1974).

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Historical Perspective

Before any attempt can be made to evaluate the effectiveness of a leadership training program, a basic understanding of current leadership theories is required. In examining the wealth of information on the subject, it becomes apparent that today the field of leadership theory is as filled with controversy as it has been since the turn of the century.

At the turn of the century the first attempts at scientifically defining leadership theory were being made by the trait theorists. It was their contention that effective leaders were born with certain innate abilities and characteristics that distinguished them from their less effective counterparts. If these desired qualities could be identified, they could form the basis for future selection of successful leaders with far more certainty than trying to train someone without them. Unfortunately, after almost a half century of intense research, no scientific consensus emerged as to a definitive list of these much

sought-after traits.

It was also at the turn of the century that efficiency experts like Fredrick Taylor made the first systematic attempts to study management and organizations. The goal of Taylor's "Scientific Method" was to reduce all tasks to a series of mechanical movements which could be analyzed and streamlined into the simplest, "best way" to do the job. During the first quarter of the twentieth century, the popularity of this philosophy led to a strong emphasis on performance and productivity. It was believed that the primary function of managers was to set standards and see that employees meet those standards (Dreilinger, McElheny & Robinson, 1982).

While the scientific method did make significant contributions to the industrialization process, it failed to solve the problems of low productivity and worker interest. For this reason, in 1924 the now famous Hawthorne experiments were launched. During various experiments conducted at the Hawthorne Works of the Western Electric Company in Chicago productivity soared. However, no correlation could be determined between the productivity and the variables that were altered within the physical conditions of the assembly lines. After exhaustive interviews with the subjects involved, it was

discovered that the incentive and motivation of the workers were the key to the increased productivity. The unaccustomed attention the workers received while being consulted for ideas made them and their jobs seem important for the first time. The significance of these results in the history of modern management cannot be over-exaggerated (Owens, 1981). After Hawthorne, every serious management study had to become two-dimensional, taking into account the psychological and human aspects as well as the physical properties of the workplace and worker.

As a result of the Hawthorne studies a major shift occurred in the direction of a human relations orientation for management. Now the manager's primary function became the motivation of employees in order to accomplish the organization's goals (Dreilinger, et al., 1982).

During this same period, theorists began to shift to analysis of effective leader "behaviors" rather than traits. It was felt that behaviors, unlike traits, were observable, more exactly defined, and therefore, more amenable to the methods of empirical research.

These behavior theorists were actively pursuing research designed to categorize effective leader behaviors. Eventually, all of these behaviors were reduced to two

general categories: "initiating structure" and "consideration." Structure behaviors involved clearly stating goals to achieve, work assignments, job structures, and other factors that let the workers know what was expected of them. Consideration behaviors were those related to the concern for, and personal interest in, subordinates and their welfare. As the theorists categorized these behaviors they began to notice that different types of leaders shared certain groups of these behaviors. Leadership style became the term used to define a relatively enduring set of these behaviors which were characteristic of the individual regardless of the situation (Feidler, 1974).

By the 1960's emphasis in the field had shifted again, this time from behaviors to styles. Several leadership style theories developed that attempted to integrate the concerns for structure and consideration. McGregor postulated that there were two general types of organization climates that influence leadership styles. In the traditional, "Theory X" organization, the manager's role prescription is based on the premise that workers are basically lazy, irresponsible and disloyal, and therefore require a structuring, autocratic supervisor. In contrast, a "Theory Y"

which McGregor favors, is based on the premise that workers are inherently motivated, mature, and will do a good job if provided with an environment based on democratic procedures, participative decision-making, and self-control (Fiedler, 1974).

Another theory which shares the participative philosophy of Theory Y is Blake and Mouton's Managerial Grid. Their theory is based on a two-variable leadership model which measures a leader's orientation towards people and task. It characterizes the "9,9" leadership style, which maximizes both concerns, as the single best leadership style (Blake & Mouton, 1982).

Meanwhile, Hersey and Blanchard introduced their Situational Theory of Management and started a controversy with the Managerial Grid proponents that continues today. Situationalism is similarly based on the two variables of task and relationship orientation. However, in contrast to the Managerial Grid's "one best style," their model involves four leadership styles, the appropriateness of which depends on the maturity of the subordinates. These are high task/high relationship, high task/low relationship, low task/high relationship, and low task/low relationship (Blake & Mouton, 1974).

The most recent major contribution to the leadership field is Fiedler's Contingency Theory. He questions the individual's ability to change his or her leadership style and suggests that the key to determining style effectiveness is the extent to which the leader can or cannot influence followers (Sergiovanni, 1979). This influence will be the result of three situational variables: (1) leader-member relations, (2) task structure, and (3) position power. If the leader finds himself in an unfavorable situation, rather than attempting to change his or her style to be more effective, the leader should modify the situational variables to more closely match his or her style (Fiedler, 1974).

From this brief synopsis of the evolution of leadership theory it becomes evident that the process has involved a shift in perspective. In the first half of the century, theorists concentrated entirely on internal traits, attitudes, and behaviors for the answers. In the second half, the philosophy has shifted to one that recognizes, more and more, the importance of environmental factors, such as the leader's subordinates and work situation, in ultimately determining his effectiveness.

Results of the Empirical Research

The ultimate test of any theory is the success of its practical application to the real world. Since the first publishings of empirical research on leadership in 1904, theorists have spent exhaustive efforts attempting to support their theories with scientific results. A major impetus to the field occurred during World War I with the sudden importance in the selection and placement of military officers. Since that time the overwhelming part of leadership research has been conducted in the U.S., and the field continues to be dominated by U.S. researchers. The primary reasons appear to be the financial support provided by this country and its democratic ideology which enables anyone to rise to a position of leadership (Fiedler, 1974).

The research was examined for evidence that supported the claims of the previously discussed theories, with particular emphasis on their effects on group performance. It was then examined for proof that leadership training could, in fact, result in measurable improvement in leadership effectiveness.

As mentioned earlier, years of research by the trait theorists created lengthy lists covering a wide range of

personality attributes but little consistency across studies. Stogdill (1974) found only three traits consistently high in many studies: intelligence, initiative, and responsibility. If leadership effectiveness was due to traits, an effective leader should be good across all kinds of situations. Unfortunately, we know from real life that this is not the case.

Research on behaviors as the key also failed, and efforts shifted to styles. There has been a great deal of research aimed at determining which leadership style is the most effective. Unfortunately, the results have been quite varied and depend, to a great deal, upon who conducts the study.

As mentioned in the previous section, several theories are based on measuring the leader's behavior in terms of his or her orientation towards consideration or the initiation of structure. Examining the effects of this emphasis on the group and its performance reveals mixed results.

A consensus of studies show a high positive correlation of consideration to employee satisfaction. While not surprising, it should be pointed out that this relationship speaks nothing of causality. An employee may well become more satisfied when the leader's

consideration increases. On the other hand, it is entirely possible that a leader tends to become more considerate with a productive, satisfied group (Fiedler, 1974).

On the subject of productivity, structure has a higher positive correlation than consideration. Studies by Vroom (1960) indicate employee characteristics determine which style is more effective. Employees high in authoritarianism and low in the need for independence performed better under more structured leaders, while employees high in the need for independence and low authoritarianism performed better under more considerate leaders. Group cohesiveness appears to be related about equally to consideration and structure in the positive direction (Stogdill, 1974).

Research dealing with Hersey and Blanchard's Situational Leadership Model fails to give strong support to their theory. Twenty-six studies aimed at connecting leadership style and effectiveness found no consistent positive correlation (Blake & Mouton, 1982). Their prescriptive model for applying situation leadership theory has conceptual inconsistencies, particularly in the middle range levels of maturity (M-2 and M-3). The validity of the LEAD diagnostic instrument for measuring

leader style, style range, and effectiveness is suspect due to the seemingly arbitrary way Hersey and Blanchard decided which style was most effective in several situations (Graeff, 1983).

If one collectively groups Blake and Mouton's Managerial Grid, McGregor's Theory Y, and several other similar theories together as participative management, there are a wide variety of students available to research and analyze. As mentioned previously, high consideration in most cases increases satisfaction and high structure usually increases productivity. Several studies indicate that high levels of both factors, as typified by participative management, interact to influence both productivity and satisfaction. For this reason, Stodgill (1974) states that the most effective leaders tend to be described high on both scales fitting the 9,9 style in terms of the Managerial Grid. Blake and Mouton (1982) cite several studies where large corporations have significantly improved productivity by switching the "9,9" style of management. Probably the greatest shortcoming of participative management is its lack of consideration for the uniqueness of the situation. Its main thrust is on what leaders do to followers, not necessarily what followers do to leaders (Beck, 1982).

It appears that Fiedler's Contingency Model is one of the best validated leadership theories today. The Least Preferred Coworker (LPC) test, a personality measure, is the key variable in the theory. This instrument has shown high internal consistency and test-retest reliability. Using a leader's LPC score and a description of his or her situational favorableness, the theory has demonstrated that it is highly predictive of leader effectiveness in over thirty studies. These studies have repeatedly shown that low LPC leaders (task-motivated) perform best in situations where their power and influence are either very high or low. High LPC leaders (relationship-oriented) perform best in situations where their power and influence are moderate (Fielder, 1974). The Contingency Theory is not without its shortcomings, however. One is its lack of specific guidance for someone who scores in the mid-range on the LPC test (Csoka & Bons, 1978).

What evidence does the research give to support the claims that leadership training increases effectiveness? Unfortunately, not much, and much of what has been done was of poor design.

Many of the present leadership training programs are geared around sensitivity training which concentrates on group dynamics with a strong human relations

orientation. In general, it appears that this type of training does change attitudes in the desired direction, towards a greater relationship awareness. However, there is little conclusive evidence that this training results in change of overt behavior. Also, although the effects of this training tend to increase the cohesiveness of the group, it is often associated with a decrease in group productivity (Stodgill, 1974).

Many of the training programs claim that they can change one's leadership style. However, the results tend to indicate that leadership styles are manifestations of our personalities, and as such, are extremely difficult to change (Sergiovanni. 1979).

It also appears that the effects of training will be dependent upon a leader's task or relationship-orientation. Some evidence supports the premise that under certain circumstances further training can, in fact, hinder a leader's abilities. The Contingency Theory provides quite accurate guidelines in predicting whether such training will be beneficial or detrimental to performance.

Fiedler's Leader Match training program is one of the few that has been able to demonstrate measurable improvements in leader effectiveness fairly consistently, as well as its highly desirable attribute of cost

effectiveness. It has shown significant results while requiring less than twelve hours of total training (Leister, Borden & Fiedler, 1977). While this program seems to work, part of its success may be due simply to its effects as a confidence builder. In several studies attendees showed improved performance but demonstrated a lack of understanding of the techniques involved in changing the situational variables (Csoka & Bons, 1978).

Overall, it appears that leadership training can be effective in certain situations. However, measurable results are often difficult to show. Training programs that make strong guarantees of success and/or style changes should be viewed with skepticism. In many cases, leadership training is not needed as much as changes in organizational practices and managerial skills that tend to restrict employees' performance and productivity (Dreilinger, et al., 1982). For this reason, many of today's leadership programs incorporate training in such techniques as decision making, conflict resolution, group facilitation, etc. It appears that mastering these managerial skills may be as critical as understanding the latest leadership theories.

Program Evaluation

How do we determine if a particular leadership training program is effective; i.e., that as a result of the change caused in the attendee, his or her group is able to perform their assigned functions better? This involves program evaluation, which has developed into a completely independent field of study.

The term "program" is extremely broad in scope and can fit a variety of descriptions. However, if we limit our discussion to educational programs, these can be defined as a combination of content, personnel, activities, and resources organized so as to attain specified goals and objectives (California State Department of Education, 1979).

Even without this context, program evaluation can be conducted for numerous reasons. Four major purposes for program evaluation are:

(1) Communicating with the public;

(2) Providing information to decision makers;

(3) Improving existing programs;

(4) Generating a sense of unity and growth.

Just as there are many reasons for conducting an evaluation, the process itself can be accomplished

using a variety of methods. There are a great number of books published today that serve as guides for this process. Most agree that the evaluation process involves three major phases: planning, conducting, and using. The first, planning, involves determining the evaluation's purposes and objectives. From this one can develop a general evaluation plan which includes determining its design and obtaining the necessary assessment tools. The second phase, conducting, involves both the collection and analysis of the required data. The third and final phase, using, involves reporting the results and applying the evaluation findings to future recommendations (California State Department of Education, 1979).

Probably the most critical and yet most neglected phase is the initial one. Without proper planning, tremendous amounts of effort and money can be expended with little hope of obtaining meaningful data from which significant conclusions can be drawn. The California State Department of Education (1979) has developed a fairly comprehensive checklist for guidance through the initial steps of defining the evaluation's purposes and requirements (see Figure 1).

Developing the evaluation plan depends to a great

DEFINE EVALUATION PURPOSE

- Determine from decision makers the purpose of the evaluation. The purpose will dictate the types of evaluation that must be conducted.

REVIEW NEEDS ASSESSMENT, PROGRAM GOALS, AND PROGRAM OBJECTIVES

- Determine whether a needs assessment was conducted by the decision makers.
- Review program goals to determine whether they address the needs of problem areas.
- Review performance objectives to determine that they are compatible with program goals. Are the objectives stated in unambiguous terms?

REVIEW PROGRAM ACTIVITIES

- Review program activities to judge whether they can be expected to contribute to achievement of the objectives.
- If the activities do not match the objectives, recommend that activities or objectives be revised.

IDENTIFY EVALUATION REQUIREMENTS

- Request that decision makers identify the information they will require to make end-of-year decisions about the program.
- Determine process, product, and context data that should be collected.
- Determine the information required by decision makers to make interim decisions.
- Determine when the information is required.

IDENTIFY EVALUATION RESOURCES AND CONSTRAINTS

- Determine the resources and constraints which will affect the conduct of the evaluation.
- Advise decision makers of those resources which are available and those that are required.
- Submit recommendations to decision makers for reconciling discrepancies between resources available and those required.

Figure 1

Checklist of the Steps in Determining Evaluation Purposes Requirements

California State Department of Education, Program Evaluator's Guide (Princeton: Educational Testing Service, 1979.

extent upon the purposes defined for the evaluation. Hoyle, English, and Steffy (1985) describe various methods that can be used to accomplisn the appropriate objectives of the evaluation (see Figure 2).

If the planning phase has been completed properly, the conducting phase becomes fairly straight forward. The specific steps of data collection and analysis are well defined within the guidelines of educational research and primarily involve statistical techniques.

The final phase, using the results obtained, again depends upon the initial purposes of the evaluation. In most cases, though, the evaluation process should not end with this phase, but continue as an ongoing process. The findings and results should be used to make decisions and possible modifications to the present program which, in turn, will need re-evaluation.

TYPE	DESCRIPTION	PROTOGONISTS
Student Gain by Testing	To measure student performance and progress. Goal statements need to be specified; test score analysis of discrepancy between goal and actuality.	Ralph Tyler Benjamin Bloom James Popham Mal Provus
Institutional Self-study by Staff	To review and increase staff effectiveness. Committee work standards set by staff; discussion	National Study of School Evaluation Dressel
Blue Ribbon Panel	To resolve crises and preserve the institution. Prestigious panel; the visit; review of existing data and documents.	James Conant Clark Kerr David Henry
Transaction Observation	To provide understanding of activities and values	Louis Smith Parlett-Hamilton Robert Rippey Robert Stake
Management Analysis	To increase rationality in day-to-day decisions. Lists of options; estimates; feedback loops; costs; efficiency	Leon Lassinger Daniel Stufflebeam Marvin Alkin Alan Thomas
Instructional Research	To generate explanations and tactics of instruction. Controlled conditions, multivariate analysis; bases for generalization	Lee Cronbach Julian Stanley Donald Campbell
Social Policy Analysis	To aid development of institutional policies. Measures of social conditions and administrative implementation.	James Coleman David Cohen Carol Weiss Mosteller-Maynihan

Figure 2

Alternative Methods of Assessing Student and Program Effectiveness
(Hoyle, English, and Steffy, 1985)

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

Design

The Basic Supervisory Development (BSD) Seminar is a course that has been developed to meet some general guidelines set by the Naval Civilian Personnel Command. The course's instructional objectives are stated in a general nature and no requirements are made of attendees which demonstrate successful mastering of the material presented. Attendance is the sole requirement for completion of the course. These factors limited the extent to which this program evaluation could be conducted under the strict parameters discussed in Chapter II. However, it was felt that meaingful information could still be obtained if the proper design was utilized. With this in mind, the study was designed to meet two of the four major purposes for program evaluation discussed in Chapter II:

(1) Provide information to decision makers;

(2) Improve existing programs.

Phase I of the study involved descriptive research

designed to measure attitudes of past attendees towards the effectiveness and adequacy of the course content. The resulting data could be used as guidelines for future modification of course emphasis or content. Phase II involved an experimental design with the Basic Supervisory Development Seminar as the treatment or independent variable, and the leadership styles of the attendees as the dependent variable. This resulted in the following null hypothesis:

> There will be no significant change in the leadership styles of people who attend the BSD Seminar.

Here, again, the results could be used to determine if the course was having the desired effect on its attendees or whether re-direction/modification was necessary.

Subjects

All participants in this study were federal employees of the Naval Civilian Personnel Command recently promoted to, or soon to be eligible for, a first-line supervisory position. Both the sample groups and the target population consisted of males and females from multi-ethnic backgrounds ranging in age from the mid-twenties to

mid-forties. The sample group (90 subjects) for Phase I consisted of all attendees of the BSD Seminars held from January 1984 to February 1985. Phase II involved 63 subjects, comprised of attendees from three different sessions of the course held in May and June of 1985.

Instruments

Based upon seminar attendance and course outline handouts, a personally designed questionnaire was used in Phase I to survey the attitudes of past seminar attendees (See Appendix A). The course content was divided into six major topics. The questionnaire utilized a five-point Likert scale to measure the extent to which the attendees felt these six topics were adequately covered, from "Requires More Emphasis" to "Requires Less Emphasis." The attendees were also asked to indicate which single topic had the greatest impact on their leadership style/supervisory effectiveness.

The questionnaire was assessed by the seminar's developer/instructor and an education department professor for its content validity. It was pre-tested on a small pilot group to measure its readability and the

clarity of its instructions. The actual sample group was restricted to those who had attended the seminar within the past year in an attempt to assure reasonable familiarization with the course content.

For Phase II, Pfeiffer and Jones' "T-P Leadership Questionnaire" (see Appendix B) was used to obtain a pre- and post-test measurement of the attendees' leadership styles. This questionnaire was adapted from the "Leadership Behavior Description Questionnaire, Form XII" of the well known Ohio State Leadership Studies (Sergiovanni, Metzcus & Burden, 1969). Discussions with Dr. Solomon, the course developer, were a key factor in the selection of this particular instrument. One of the stated goals of the seminar is to encourage a participative style of leadership which is characterized by a high concern for both people and task. The T-P Leadership Questionnaire provides a measurement of these two variables in a relatively short and easy-to-administer test format. Respondents are required to indicate how they would react to 35 items which describe various aspects of leadership behavior. From their responses scores are obtained that indicate their concern for people and their concern for task.

Procedure

For Phase I all past attendees of the BSD Seminar from January 1984 to February 1985 were mailed the BSD Questionnaire along with a cover letter (see Appendix C) and a pre-addressed, stamped, return envelope. The administrative staff of the Naval Civilian Personnel Command, Southwest Region's Training Department performed this function, thus enabling use of the Department of the Navy's letterhead and postal privileges. The staff retained all returned questionnaires until they were collected by the researcher for data analysis.

Phase II involved administering the Leadership Questionnaire (see Appendix B) to several sessions of the seminar before and after attending the course. While use of the same measurement for pre- and post-tests introduced testing as a threat to the internal validity of this phase, this shortcoming was outweighed by the necessity of controlling for two other threats to internal validity. A pre-test could be used to determine initial differences between groups thus limiting the effects of differential selection of subjects, and could also be used to control for mortality in the event that not all post-tests were returned.

Due to the irregularity of the scheduled sessions and the time constraints of this project, only three sessions were available for evaluation. For each, the procedure remained the same. On the first morning of the seminar, prior to starting his presentation, the instructor read aloud the Pre-Test Instructions (see Appendix D) and then distributed the questionnaires for completion. After completion, the tests were collected and retained by the instructor for later turnover to the researcher for data analysis.

Administering the post-test presented several problems. Attendees came from various commands throughout southern California and were together as a group only for the duration of the seminar. It was felt that a post-test measurement given immediately upon completion of the course would not represent actual long-term effects of the seminar. It was reasoned that a more accurate measure of any real changes could be obtained by administering a post-test one month later. This delay would have three advantages: (1) it would allow time for the novelty effect of the course to wear off; (2) it would give the attendees time to experience some on-the-job applications of the material presented; and (3) at the same time it would reduce the possible effects

of being re-tested with the same test too soon.

Because it was impossible to re-form the group to administer the post-test, a mailing process similar to the one in Phase I was used. Three weeks after the completion date of the course a copy of the Leadership Questionnaire, along with a cover letter/instructions (see Appendix E) and a pre-addressed, stamped, return envelope were mailed to the home of each attendee. Allowing several days for mail delivery and several more until the test would probably be taken, the post-test should have been taken, as intended, approximately one month after course completion.

One difference in the mailing process between Phase I and II should be noted. In Phase I the questionnaires were mailed to the training officer of the individual commands to be distributed by them to the attendees in the most convenient manner. Depending on the size of the command, they could have been hand delivered, routed administratively, or mailed. In Phase II the questionnaires were mailed directly to the homes of the attendees rather than their work place. This was done to simplify the process and to meet project completion deadlines.

The scoring procedure for both the pre- and

post-tests was modified slightly from that specified in Pfeiffer and Jones (1974). (See Appendix F.) To prevent the attendees from becoming aware of the purpose of the instrument, both the pre- and post-tests were scored by the researcher rather than the attendees.

Limitations

There were several uncontrollable factors that must be recognized as limitations to this study. One is the fact that the course content of the BSD seminar varies somewhat with location. When the seminar is given in San Diego it consists of five days of instruction. The first day is given by Dr. Phillip Hunsaker and the remaining four by Dr. Lawrence Solomon. When the seminar is given outside of the San Diego area it is given in a four-day version solely by Dr. Solomon. Dr. Hunsaker's material is separate but similar to Dr. Solomon's. Dr. Hunsaker presents an introduction to management principles, leadership styles, and leadership skills. Practically all of this information is covered with additional detail by Dr. Solomon. While the overall course content of both versions of the seminar can be assumed to be essentially the same, the five-day format must be considered to be a more in-depth version which

exposes the attendees to an additional expert on the subject matter. Of the three sessions evaluated in Phase II, Class I was of the five-day format, while Classes II and III were of the shorter version.

Unfortunately, it was not feasible to include a control group into the design of Phase II of the project. All employees who advance into a supervisory position eventually attend the seminar. Therefore, a group of supervisors who had not attended the course could not be identified for comparison purposes. This resulted in use of a pre- and post-test design. However, as previously discussed, it was impossible to administer the post-test under conditions identical to the pre-test. The post-test instructions requested that the attendee attempt to take the test in the morning under similar conditions to the pre-test, but there is no way to determine if that actually occurred.

Also, as previously mentioned, due to the time constraints involved, only three sessions could participate in Phase II. The size of these sample groups were 27, 18, and 18 attendees. The number of those attendees who returned a completed post-test were 19, 10, and 4, respectively. The lack of necessary post-test data for the third group dictated elimination of this group from statistical consideration.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

Phase I

Ninety-five Basic Supervisory Development Questionnaires (see Appendix A) were mailed to past attendees of the course. Five of these were returned unanswered because four people had not actually attended the course and one person had since retired and was unreachable. Of the remaining 90 questionnaires, 83 were completed and returned for a participation rate of 92.2 percent. The demographic questions indicated that the sample group consisted of 69.9 percent males and that 72.3 percent of the 83 attendees were currently working in a supervisory position.

The frequencies of responses to the question of adequate coverage of the six major topics were compiled and tabulated into Table 1. The five columns represent the percentage of the total responses for each category from "Requires More Emphasis" on the far left, to "Requires Less Emphasis" on the far right.

From Table 1 it is evident that a majority of past attendees feel that the present course content provides

Table 1

Phase I Questionnaire Responses

Topic No.	More Emphasis		Adequate Coverage		Less Emphasis
1	2.4	7.2	74.7	7.2	8.4
2	19.3	18.1	60.2	1.2	1.2
3	10.8	25.3	60.2	3.6	0
4	18.1	19.3	56.6	6.0	0
5	13.3	24.1	53.0	9.6	0
6	21.7	28.9	43.4	4.8	1.2

Table 1 represents the frequency of responses in percentages for the six major topics of the seminar as taken from the BSD Questionnaire (see Appendix A). For Topics Nos. 1 through 5 a clear majority felt that the present coverage of the topic was adequate. For Topic No. 6, if the two degress of "More Emphasis" are combined, a slight majority of 50.6 percent indicated a desire for more emphasis of that subject matter. Topic No. 1 was the only topic which had a greater combined percentage of responses desiring less coverage than more.

adequate coverage of the first five topics. Combining the two degress of "More Emphasis" columns for Topic No. 6 shows that a slight majority (50.6%) feel more emphasis is needed on Interviewing and Counseling. Topic No. 1, Historical Background and Management Theories, was the only topic which had a greater percentage of the respondents requesting less coverage rather than more coverage.

On the question of which major topic has had the greatest impact on the attendee's leadership style/ supervisory effectiveness, only 69 out of the 83 respondents properly indicated a single topic. These results were tabulated by frequency of responses and corresponding percentages into Table 2. Using these data, a one-dimensional chi-square was used to determine if the observed frequencies were significantly different from what could be expected by chance alone. The results of this test were significant (X^2 = 25.7 @ p = .01 with df = 5).

Table 2 indicates that every topic had at least one response. However, only two topics, Nos. 2 and 4, were markedly above what you would expect by chance, 16.7 percent. The topic with the greatest number of responses, No. 4, was Decision-making and Problem-solving. Topic No. 2 dealt with the Supervisor as Facilitator.

Table 2

Topic of Greatest Impact

	Topic No.					
	1	2	3	4	5	6
Responses	1	17	13	22	5	11
Percentage	1.5	24.6	18.8	31.9	7.3	15.9

Table 2 represents the frequency of responses and corresponding percentages for the question of which seminar topic had the greatest impact on the attendee's leadership style/supervisory effectiveness. There was a significant difference between the observed responses and what would be expected by chance alone, 16.7 percent, with Topics Nos. 2 and 4 receiving a markedly greater percentage of those responses.

On the open-ended "Comments" section of the questionnaire, 38 respondents (45.8%) made some type of comment. Of these, approximately half were strictly laudatory comments directed at the course and/or Dr. Solomon. The remaining half were specific recommendations mostly geared towards areas of the course that in their opinion required more or less emphasis.

Phase II

Pre-Test to Pre-Test Comparison:

As discussed in Chapter III, lack of returned post-tests presented a problem in this phase of the project. For this reason, Class III, with only four of 18 post-tests returned, was eliminated from statistical consideration. In addition several statistical techniques were used to determine if the lack of returned post-tests affected the results of the other two classes. For both classes t-tests for independent samples were used to compare the pre-test scores of those who did not return a post-test with those who did return one. On Tables 3 and 4 the upper portion of the table represents the "people" and "task" scores for those attendees who did not return a test, and the lower portion

Table 3

Class I: Pre-Test Scores

Attendees Who Did Not Return a Post-Test	
Pre-Test People	Pre-Test Task
8	17
4	7
10	14
7	15
10	12
11	13
11	11
8	17
Mean 8.6	13.3
SD 2.23	3.11
Attendees Who Did Return a Post-Test	
12	13
9	17
9	12
8	9
13	15
7	13
8	17
9	14

Table 3 (continued)

Attendees Who Did Return a Post-Test	
Pre-Test People	Pre-Test Task
10	18
9	14
9	4
11	15
9	13
9	12
7	18
6	9
9	14
10	14
10	10
Mean 9.2	13.2
SD 1.63	3.38

Table 3 compares the pre-test scores as measured by the Leadership Questionnaire (see Appendix B) for Class I of those who did not return a post-test, with those who did. There was no significant difference between the means for either group's People or Task scores.

Table 4

Class II: Pre-Test Scores

Attendees Who Did Not Return a Post-Test	
Pre-Test People	Pre-Test Task
12	5
12	12
5	5
10	10
9	12
12	3
10	11
Mean 9.9	8.8
SD 2.2	3.53
Attendees Who Did Return a Post-Test	
12	14
11	10
10	13
7	15
11	13
5	12
11	10
9	14
11	12
7	4
Mean 9.4	11.7
SD 2.2	3.0

Table 4 compares the pre-test scores as measured by the Leadership Questionnaire (see Appendix B) for Class II of those attendees who did not return a post-test with those who did. There was no significant difference between the means of either group's People or Task scores.

represents the scores of those who did return one. As Figure 3 indicates, for both classes, in all cases, the t-tests failed to show a significant difference between the scores of those attendees who returned a post-test and those who did not return one. This lends statistical support to the argument that although not all post-tests were returned, those that were can still be considered representative of the group as a whole.

Class I:	t_{people}=0.652	t_{task}=0.70
	@ p= .01 and df=25	
Class II:	t_{people}=0.45	t_{task}=1.75
	@ p = .01 and df=16	

Figure 3

Results of Statistical Comparison of Pre-Test Scores

T-tests for independent samples were calculated to compare the scores of those not returning post-tests with those who did return post-tests. In all four cases there was no significant difference found.

Pre-Test to Post-Test Comparison:

In order to determine if the difference between the pre- and post-test scores was significant or not, t-tests for nonindependent samples were run on both classes. Tables 5 through 8 indicate the pre- and post-test scores and resulting change on both variables, "people" and "task" concern. Use of these data resulted in the statistics represented by Figure 4. In all four cases there was a significant difference between the pre- and post-test scores, thus supporting rejection of the null hypothesis.

Class I:	$t_{people}=4.66^*$	$t_{task}=5.32^*$
	@ p = .01 and df=18	
Class II:	$t_{people}=3.54^*$	$t_{task}=4.67^*$
	@ p = .01 and df=9	

*Significant value

Figure 4

Results of Statistical Comparison of Pre-Test to Post-Test Scores

T-tests for nonindependent samples indicate that in all four cases there was a significant difference between pre- and post-test scores.

Table 5

Class I: People Scores

Pre-Test People	Post-Test People	Change
9	4	-5
10	5	-5
12	10	-2
8	7	-1
10	9	-1
9	8	-1
7	6	-1
13	13	0
11	11	0
7	7	0
6	6	0
10	10	0
9	10	1
8	10	2
9	11	2
9	11	2
9	12	3
9	12	3
9	13	4
Mean 9.16	9.21	1.74

Table 5 represents the pre- and post-test scores and resultant change for Class I on their "concern for people" as measured by the Leadership Questionnaire (see Appendix B). While the overall mean only slightly increased from the pre- to the post-test scores, the difference was significant and Table 5 indicates that an equal number of attendees experienced an increase in their scores as those that experienced a decrease in scores.

Table 6

Class I: Task Scores

Pre-Test Task	Post-Test Task	Change
13	4	-9
17	10	-7
15	10	-5
14	9	-5
9	6	-3
17	14	-3
12	10	-2
4	2	-2
18	17	-1
12	11	-1
15	14	-1
18	17	-1
9	9	0
14	15	1
14	15	1
10	12	2
13	16	3
14	17	3
13	19	6
Mean 13.2	11.9	2.95

Table 6 represents the pre- and post-test scores and resultant change for Class I on their "concern for task" as measured by the Leadership Questionnaire (see Appendix B). The overall decrease in the mean scores was significant and as Table 6 indicates, twice as many attendees experienced a decrease in their task scores as those that experienced an increase in scores.

Table 7

Class II: People Scores

Pre-Test People	Post-Test People	Change
11	9	-2
12	11	-1
11	10	-1
5	5	0
11	11	0
7	8	1
11	12	1
9	10	1
10	12	2
7	11	4
Mean 9.4	9.9	1.3

Table 7 represents the pre- and post-test scores and resultant change for Class II on their "concern for people" as measured by the Leadership Questionnaire (see Appendix B). As with Class I, the difference in the mean scores was significant and in the positive direction. In this class more attendees experienced an increase in their people scores than a decrease in scores.

Table 8

Class II: Task Scores

Pre-Test Task	Post-Test Task	Change
10	4	-6
12	7	-5
10	6	-4
14	11	-3
12	10	-2
13	13	0
15	16	1
13	15	2
14	16	2
4	6	2
Mean 11.7	10.6	2.7

Table 8 represents the pre- and post-test scores and resultant change for Class II on their "concern for task" as measured by the Leadership Questionnaire (see Appendix B). As with Class I, the difference in the mean scores was significant and in the negative direction. There was also more attendees who experienced a decrease in their scores and the amount of that change was greater than those who experienced an increase in scores.

Further examination of Tables 5 through 8 revealed several tendencies. For both classes there was a slight increase in the people scores after attending the seminar. At the same time there was a decrease in the task scores for both classes and the average amount of that change was greater for task scores than people scores.

Post-Test to Post-Test Comparison:

In the interest of determining whether there was a significant difference between the post-test scores of the two classes, t-tests for independent samples were run using the post-test scores from Tables 5 through 8. The resulting values, $t_{people}=0.76$ and $t_{task}=0.838$, were not significant @ $p = .01$ and $df=27$.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Summary

A two-phase program evaluation was conducted of the Naval Civilian Personnel Command's Basic Supervisory Development Seminar. Phase I involved descriptive research based on a questionnaire survey of past attendees to determine their attitudes on the appropriateness of the course content. Results indicated that the emphasis was appropriate on all but one of the six major topics of the seminar. Phase II involved a pre-test/post-test experimental design to determine whether the seminar was having a significant influence on the leadership styles of its attendees. The somewhat limited results obtained did show a significant influence on the sample groups that were involved in this part of the study.

Conclusions

Phase I

Several conclusions can be drawn from the results of Phase I of the program evaluation.

1. The sample group was highly representative of the target population. If we consider all those eligible for the BSD Seminar as the target population, the percentage of subjects responding to the survey, the time duration involved, and the demographic percentages reported, all lend strong support to the representativeness of the sample group.

2. Based on the experiences and opinions of past attendees as expressed on the BSD Questionnaire, the emphasis of the present course content appears to be appropriate, with the possible exception of Topic No. 6. It appears that some greater emphasis on Interviewing and Counseling could be justified.

3. There was a significant difference in the responses on the topic of greatest impact with Topic No. 4, Decision-making and Problem-solving, being chosen most often. However, the varied distribution of those responses implies that the BSD Seminar is providing meaningful guidance to attendees in differing areas.

4. Based upon the consensus of the comments from past attendees, the BSD Seminar is rated highly as a course which provides valuable guidance for the new supervisor.

Phase II

Conclusions that can be drawn from the results of Phase II are much more tenuous.

1. The external validity of Phase II lacks strong support in several areas. The fact that data from only two classes could be used, and that the sample sizes of those returning post-tests were less than optimum, severely limits the generalization of the results.

2. The original null hypothesis was rejected. For the two classes involved, the BSD Seminar did have a significant effect on the attendees' leadership styles as measured by the T-P Leadership Questionnaire. The tendency in both classes was to increase the scores in their concern for people. This is consistent with past research that indicates this trend often occurs with human relations-oriented leadership training. There was also consistency between classes in the change of task scores, but it was in the opposite direction. Although task scores decreased, because they were consistently higher than people scores on the pre-tests, the end result was to more closely balance the two scores on the post-tests. This equal concern for people and task is characteristic of participative leadership.

3. While it appears from the conclusion above that

Dr. Solomon's goal towards participative leadership is being achieved, before generalizing these results several factors must be considered. Pretest-treatment interaction could also have contributed to the results. The simple fact that the pre-test was given may have increased the attendees' awareness to their people-task orientation. Similarly, the Hawthorne effect, the fact that they were involved in a special study, could have influenced the results also.

4. Based solely on the results from the scores of the two classes involved, there does not appear to be a significant difference in the effects of the four-day format seminar versus the five-day format.

Recommendations

Within the broad guidelines established by the Naval Civilian Personnel Command, all indications from this program evaluation imply that the BSD Seminar is meeting its objectives effectively. It is felt that some of the information obtained during this study can be useful in making decisions on the direction this seminar may take in the future. However, several recommendations must be made with regards to the results of this evaluation and to others that might follow.

Valid evaluation of the effectiveness of any course which lacks clearly stated, measurable objectives is extremely difficult. Unfortunately, many courses today in civilian and military organizations alike, are established with this inherent weakness. To prevent the valuable loss of both time and money due to ineffective or misdirected courses, all programs should establish clear instructional objectives that can be used as accurate yardsticks to measure their success.

The theoretical nature of leadership training lends to the on-going controversy over the most effective styles and techniques for its measurement. While the T-P Leadership Questionnaire utilized in this study may accurately measure an individual's concern for people and task, it must be realized that these represent attitudes and not necessarily behaviors. To more accurately measure the results and effects of this seminar on their leadership styles, the attendees would have to be observed in actual leadership situations before and after the seminar. Unfortunately, such an involved process was beyond the scope of this evaluation.

Nonetheless, valuable inferences could be made from the type of results obtained in Phase II of this study. However, more replications would be required before the

validity of generalizing those results could be strongly supported.

Several specific recommendations can be made if replications are attempted in the future. Judging from the differences in the percentages of questionnaires returned between Phases I and II, it appears that mailing to the work place rather than the home reaps significantly better results.

While more replications of Phase II might yield a significant difference in scores between the four-day and five-day formats of the seminar, this alone would not indicate superiority of one format over the other. The material presented during the additional day covers much more than just participative leadership. Therefore, because of this varied content, additional evaluation techniques would be required to determine if there is justification for the extra day of instruction.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

BASIC SUPERVISORY DEVELOPMENT QUESTIONNAIRE

BASIC SUPERVISORY DEVELOPMENT

QUESTIONNAIRE

Listed below are six topics that were covered in Dr. Solomon's "Basic Supervisory Development" seminar. Based upon your job experiences since taking the course, indicate with an "x" the extent to which you feel these areas were adequately covered: **Requires More Emphasis (More), Adequately Covered (Adeq), Requires Less Emphasis (Less).**

More		Adeq		Less	Topic
___	___	___	___	___	1. Historical background/exposure to various theories of management (Scientific Management, Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs, Theory X-Theory Y, etc.).
___	___	___	___	___	2. The Supervisor as Facilitator (Stating the problem,Supplying essential facts, Defining the area of freedom, etc.)
___	___	___	___	___	3. Functions of Supervision (Planning, Organizing, Controlling).
___	___	___	___	___	4. Decision-making and Problem-solving (Autocratic, Consultative, and Group Approaches).
___	___	___	___	___	5. Supervision through Participation (Permissiveness and Controls).
___	___	___	___	___	6. Interviewing and Counseling (Objectives, Pitfalls, Active Listening, etc.).

Of the six topics listed above, choose the one which you feel had the greatest impact on your leadership style/supervisory effectiveness as a result of taking the seminar. Please circle the number of this topic.

Are you currently working in a supervisory position? Yes ____ No ____

Sex: Male ____ Female ____

Comments:

APPENDIX B

LEADERSHIP QUESTIONNAIRE

LEADERSHIP QUESTIONNAIRE

Name _____ Date _____

Directions: The following items describe aspects of leadership behavior. Respond to each item according to the way you would most likely act if you were the leader of a work group. Circle whether you would most likely behave in the described way: always (A), frequently (F), occasionally (O), seldom (S), or never (N).

A F O S N 1. I would most likely act as the spokesman of the group.

A F O S N 2. I would encourage overtime work.

A F O S N 3. I would allow members complete freedom in their work.

A F O S N 4. I would encourage the use of uniform procedures.

A F O S N 5. I would permit the members to use their own judgement in solving problems.

A F O S N 6. I would stress being ahead of competing groups.

A F O S N 7. I would speak as a representative of the group.

A F O S N 8. I would needle members for greater effort.

A F O S N 9. I would try out my ideas in the group.

A F O S N 10. I would let the members do their work the way they think best.

A F O S N 11. I would be working hard for a promotion.

A F O S N 12. I would tolerate postponement and uncertainty.

A F O S N 13. I would speak for the group if there were visitors present.

A F O S N 14. I would keep the work moving at a rapid pace.

A F O S N 15. I would turn the members loose on a job and let them go to it.

A F O S N 16. I would settle conflicts when they occur in the group.

A F O S N 17. I would get swamped by details.

A F O S N 18. I would represent the group at outside meetings.

A F O S N 19. I would be reluctant to allow the members any freedom of action.

A F O S N 20. I would decide what should be done and how it should be done.

A F O S N 21. I would push for increased production.

A F O S N 22. I would let some members have authority which I could keep.

A F O S N 23. Things would usually turn out as I had predicted.

A F O S N 24. I would allow the group a high degree of initiative.

A F O S N 25. I would assign group members to particular tasks.

A F O S N 26. I would be willing to make changes.

A F O S N 27. I would ask the members to work harder.

A F O S N 28. I would trust the group members to exercise good judgment.

A F O S N 29. I would schedule the work to be done.

A F O S N 30. I would refuse to explain my actions.

A F O S N 31. I would persuade others that my ideas are to their advantage.

A F O S N 32. I would permit the group to set its own pace.

A F O S N 33. I would urge the group to beat its previous record.

A F O S N 34. I would act without consulting the group.

A F O S N 35. I would ask that group members follow standard rules and regulations.

APPENDIX C

COVER LETTER

PRELIMINARY QUESTIONNAIRE

DEPARTMENT OF THE NAVY
NAVAL CIVILIAN PERSONNEL COMMAND
SOUTHWEST REGION
880 FRONT STREET
SUITE 5-S-25
SAN DIEGO, CALIFORNIA 92188

IN REPLY REFER TO

NCPCSWR:RAE:ab
12410
11 March 1985

From: Training Director, Naval Civilian Personnel Command, Southwest Region

To: Participants

Subj: BASIC SUPERVISORY DEVELOPMENT

Encl: (1) Questionnaire

1. Within the past year you attended a seminar on "Basic Supervisory Development" given by Dr. Lawrence N. Solomon. The enclosed, brief questionnaire is part of a current projected aimed at measuring the relevance and effectiveness of this course in its goal to improve supervisory skills. Your accurate. honest responses are imperative to the success of this project and to the future improvement of the seminar. Please take the few minutes required to answer the questionnaire now, and return it in the enclosed pre-addressed envelope. Thank you for your time and assistance.

Ross A. Evans

ROSS A. EVANS

APPENDIX D

PRE-TEST INSTRUCTIONS

PRE-TEST INSTRUCTIONS

In a moment I will be passing out a brief questionnaire that is designed to measure certain aspects of leadership behavior. This is part of a current project aimed at measuring the effects of this course on your individual leadership style. As a follow-up to this initial measurement, in approximately one month you will receive a similar questionnaire in the mail. We are requesting that you take the few moments required to complete this form and then return it in the enclosed pre-addressed envelope. The success of the entire project depends upon your honest answers. Since you will be taking the follow-up questionnaire without supervision, it is requested that you attempt to do it promptly and under similar conditions to this initial situation. Try to take it at approximately the same time in the morning, without interruptions, and spend about the same amount of time on the entire process. It is important that you place your name and the date at the top of the page.

Once again it is stressed that the purpose of this project is strictly for evaluative research with future course improvement as its goal. Individual results will be maintained in the strictest confidentiality by the researcher. Thank you for your time and assistance.

APPENDIX E

COVER LETTER

FOLLOW-UP QUESTIONNAIRE

DEPARTMENT OF THE NAVY
NAVAL CIVILIAN PERSONNEL COMMAND
SOUTHWEST REGION
880 FRONT STREET
SUITE 5-S-29
SAN DIEGO, CALIFORNIA 92188

66

IN REPLY REFER TO:

NCPCSWR:DEJ:ym
12410
29 May 1985

From: Training Director, Naval Civilian Personnel Command, Southwest Region
To: Participants

Subj: BASIC SUPERVISORY DEVELOPMENT

Encl: (1) Questionnaire

1. Approximately four weeks ago you attended NCPC's Basic Supervisory Development Seminar. At that time you were given a brief questionnaire as part of a current project aimed at measuring the effects of this course on your individual leadership style. The second half of this project requires that you take a similar questionnaire at this time. We are requesting that you take the few moments required to complete this form and then return it in the enclosed pre-addressed envelope. The success of the entire project depends upon your honest answers, not what you think is expected. It is not important to remember how you answered the initial questionnaire.

2. Since you will be taking the follow-up questionnaire without supervision, it is requested that you attempt to do it promptly and under similar conditions to the initial situation. Try to take it at approximately the same time in the morning, without interruptions, and spend about the same amount of time on the entire process. It is important that you place your name (as you did on the initial questionnaire) and the date at the top of the page. This is strictly for statistical purposes so that we can match the initial with the follow-up questionnaires.

3. Once again it is stressed that the purpose of this project is strictly for evaluative research with future course improvement as its goal. Individual results will be maintained in strict confidentiality by the researcher. Thank you for your time and cooperation.

David E. Johnson

APPENDIX F

LEADERSHIP QUESTIONNAIRE SCORING PROCEDURES

APPENDIX F

LEADERSHIP QUESTIONNAIRE SCORING PROCEDURES

(Excerpted from Pfeiffer & Jones, A Handbook of Structured Experiences for Human Relations Training, 1974.)

IV. The facilitator instructs the participants in the scoring as follows:

1. Circle the item number for items 8, 12, 17, 18, 19, 30, 34, and 35.
2. Write the number 1 in front of a circled item number if you responded S (seldom) or N (never) to that item.
3. Also write a number 1 in front of item numbers not circled if you responded A (always) or F (frequently).
4. Circle the number 1's which you have written in front of the following items 3, 5, 8, 10, 15, 18, 19, 22, 24, 26, 28, 30, 32, 34, and 35.
5. Count the circled number 1's. This is your score for concern for people. Record the score in the blank following the letter P at the end of the questionnaire.
6. Count the uncircled number 1's. This is your score for concern for task. Record this number in the blank following the letter T.