A Stakeholder Approach to Evaluating Training

Fred Nickols

DISTANCE CONSULTING

www.nickols.us
nickols@att.net

Introduction

There are probably no more widely accepted "realities" or truisms in the world of training than the following:

- When it comes to evaluating training, the dominant model is "The Kirkpatrick Model" (TKM).
- TKM is rarely implemented in its entirety and training evaluations are usually confined to the "smiles test" (TKM Level 1: Trainee Reactions).
- There is widespread interest in evaluating training, particularly at the higher levels of TKM (i.e., on-the-job behavior change and business results) and in going beyond TKM (e.g., in determining the ROI of training or even its societal impact).
- There exists adequate if not abundant knowledge and an available supply of viable tools for evaluating training at all levels of TKM (and beyond). For example: *Evaluating Training Programs* (Kirkpatrick, 1975); *Evaluating the Results of Training: An ASTD Trainer's Toolkit* (Medsker & Roberts, 1992); and *Return on Investment in Training and Performance Improvement Programs* (Phillips, 1997).

This Article's Key Points

- Training, whether it is a particular offering or the entire function, must satisfy multiple constituencies known as "stakeholders."
- A stakeholder is a group or an individual with an interest in seeing a particular endeavor succeed and without whose support the endeavor will fail.
- A stakeholder's interest in the success of the endeavor in question is rooted in a *quid pro quo* (i.e., a stakeholder puts something into the endeavor with the expectation of getting something out of it).
- What stakeholders put in are known as "contributions" and what they take out are known as "inducements."
- Although various stakeholder groups readily agree in general about the kinds of results expected from training, they hold very different views about what is important when it comes to evaluating training. Their inducements are different.
- To adequately evaluate training (or any other endeavor having multiple constituencies), it is necessary to assess the extent to which *all* stakeholder groups are satisfied with what they given to and receive from the training.
- The only way to ensure that all training stakeholder groups are satisfied is to factor in their various requirements during the design, development and delivery of the training.

- Yet, despite the above-mentioned interest in and availability of tools for more robust efforts, evaluations of training remain mired in TKM Level 1.

Why is this? If evaluation is so important and if the means of carrying it out exist, why do evaluations typically consist of little more than the famous "smiles test"? Is it because the interest in evaluating training is feigned? Is it because the costs of evaluating training outweigh the benefits? Is it a case of diminishing returns, that is, the higher up TKM an evaluation goes, the more costly the evaluation and the less valuable the information? Or is it perhaps the case that HRD professionals, especially trainers, are the only ones interested in TKM – and in going beyond it?

It is my view that the HRD community is committed to an approach to evaluating training that, after more than 40 years, has failed to capture the commitment and support of other important constituencies, most especially, that of the trainees, their managers and the senior managers of the organizations in and for which training is conducted. If this is true, then the issue isn't one of figuring out how to apply TKM – or even of extending it – instead, the issue is one of finding some other approach to evaluating training.

It is also my view that there is a better approach to evaluating training – a stakeholder-based approach. Although the focus of this paper is on evaluating training, a stakeholder approach can be applied to evaluating all HRD functions – and, other functional areas as well, especially those considered as having "internal customers" or constituencies to be satisfied.

The basic premise of a stakeholder approach to evaluating training is that several groups within an organization have a stake in training conducted for organization members and any effort to design, develop, deliver and evaluate training must factor in the needs and requirements of these stakeholder groups or the results of any subsequent evaluation are bound to fall short of expectations.

Before exploring what a stakeholder approach to evaluating training entails and how one might go about developing and implementing one, let us first touch on some measurement and evaluation basics.

Measurement & Evaluation

There is a difference between measurement and evaluation. Measurement focuses on obtaining information as a result of comparing a given against a standard (e.g., information about the length of a board can be determined by comparing it against the standard provided by a tape measure). Evaluation concerns itself with making judgments based on the information provided by measurement (e.g., the board in question is too long or too short or just right). Judgments are usually about value and can be couched in terms of utility or economics or even aesthetics. In organizations, the "givens" typically consist of information about actual performance and the "standards" consist of the goals and objectives established for performance. Value judgments come into play in deciding whether the performance is "good enough" or whether improvement is required.

To evaluate anything is to determine its value. From a transaction perspective, the value of anything derives from its importance or worth in an exchange. Whether you are bartering or using money as a medium of exchange, value is measured by the amount of one thing that can be exchanged for another. Ultimately, value is a highly individual matter; it boils down to how much of one thing a person is willing to exchange for another. *I* might be willing to give up time with my family to put in long hours at work in return for the chance of advancing my career. *You* might not. *You* might be willing to pay $45,000 for an automobile; *I* might not. *You* might be willing to burn the midnight oil to acquire an advanced degree; *I* might not. *I* might be willing to travel extensively as part of my work; *you* might not. In ascertaining the value or worth of anything, including training, one must always ask, "Ascertain its value *to whom*?"

To evaluate training is to ascertain its value or importance or worth; however, and this is extremely important, the question that usually goes begging is, "To *whom*?" It is one thing to ascertain the value of training to the trainees. It is something else to determine its value to management. And, it is yet a third matter to fix the value of training to trainers, be they instructors or developers. Trainees, trainers and management, these are just three of several groups with a stake in training. Other stakeholders include training vendors (whether selling off-the-shelf or custom-developed materials) and, of course, the managers of the trainees. Let us turn now to The Kirkpatrick Model (TKM) and the more recent notion of basing the evaluation of training on its ROI.

TKM & ROI

As noted at the outset of this article, current thinking about the evaluation of training is dominated by what most call "The Kirkpatrick Model" (TKM). TKM focuses on four "levels" of evaluation: Reactions, Learning, Behavior and Results (Kirkpatrick, 1975a, 1975b, 1975c, 1975d). TKM is widely known and widely accepted, even if it is rarely fully implemented. Another, more recent addition to TKM, what some call a fifth level, is the notion of determining the financial return on investment (ROI) of training (Philips, 1997). And, there are those who suggest that it is possible and desirable to go beyond TKM and ROI to societal impact (Watkins, Leigh, Foshay & Kaufman, 1998).

It is not my intent in this paper to engage in lengthy critiques of TKM or efforts to determine the ROI of training. Readers interested in such matters can find detailed discussions in Alliger & Janak (989), Holton (1996), Kaufman & Keller (1994), and Nickols (2000). Instead, this paper uses TKM as a point of departure, a launch pad for introducing a stakeholder-based approach to the evaluation of training. We will, however, take a brief look at what typically happens in evaluating training.

Evaluating Training: What Typically Happens

What typically happens is that the interests of most of the stakeholders are subordinated to the interests of the trainers and their managers.

Trainers and their managers are understandably anxious to demonstrate the value of what they do. While it is entirely conceivable that a funding manager will want to know something about the ROI of the training, it is equally conceivable that the trainees could care less. The instructors and the developers are probably very interested in the nature and extent of learning that has taken place and, perhaps, in the degree of transfer to the work place. However, unless they're hoping for a promotion into management or a transfer to a performance consulting unit, their interest in the ROI of the training is apt to take a back seat. The trainees are likely to care mainly about two things: the applicability or relevance of the subject matter (concepts, principles, methods, tools, techniques, etc.) and the extent to which the training makes good use of their time. Training vendors want to know if their client, the training department, is happy with the training they bought. Everyone wants to know what the trainees think – and for good reason. Why? Because if the trainees are sharply and uniformly critical of the training, very little else matters.

So, most of the time, efforts to evaluate training take the form of the required "smiles test," a measure of trainee reaction, perhaps some assessment of the learning that has taken place, occasionally an attempt to determine the extent of transfer of training or behavior change on the job and job performance impact, and a rare effort to quantify the bottom-line impact of training and use that figure in calculating the ROI of the training.

An interesting and useful question to ask about the four (or five) levels of training evaluation is this: "*Who* is interested in this particular evaluation?" In other words, who is the audience for the information obtained at each level? Further: What judgments or decisions are to be based on this information? Who will make them?

As one considers the various audiences for training evaluations and the judgments and decisions these audiences will make about training, it once again becomes apparent that there are many constituencies with an interest in training. Trainee reactions, TKM Level 1, are obtained from the trainees but they are of interest to many in the organization, not the least of which are the trainers and the trainees' managers. Learning (i.e., skills or competencies acquired) is clearly of interest to the trainees and trainers and perhaps of importance to others as well. Behavior change on the job is no doubt of interest to the trainees' managers – and to trainers as well, especially if they are interested in demonstrating the impact of training. Results, too, are of interest to trainers and to management, albeit for different purposes. Managers want results from training for the sake of the results themselves; trainers are more likely to want results more for the purpose of demonstrating the value of training than for the value of the result itself. As for the ROI of training, the only ones likely to be interested in that are those who are under pressure to demonstrate it or those who have a need for it. If such pressure exists, it most likely focuses on trainers and their managers, not the trainees or their management.

There are, then, several constituencies implied by TKM: trainers, trainees, the trainees' managers, managers of the training function or department and, perhaps, senior managers throughout the organization. These constituencies all have a vested interest in having things go well in training; none of them want it to be a waste; all want it to add value. In short, they have a stake in the training – an interest in having it succeed and, without their support and involvement the training is sure to fail. That makes them stakeholders.

Let us now turn our attention to the conceptual and theoretical roots of the stakeholder approach.

The Conceptual and Theoretical Roots of A Stakeholder Approach to Evaluating Training

The stakeholder approach proposed here has two theoretical roots: stakeholder theory (Donaldson & Preston, 1995; Freeman, 1984) and the contributions-inducements view of organizational membership (Barnard, 1947; March & Simon, 1958). The two have a great deal in common and inform and support one another.

The essence of stakeholder theory is that all organizations – profit, non-profit, public and private – serve and depend upon multiple constituencies (e.g., customers, employees and investors). The importance of recognizing and addressing these multiple constituencies cannot be overstated. As James Burke, CEO of Johnson & Johnson during its Tylenol crisis, remarked, "The ultimate measure of an organization's success is the extent to which it serves *all* of its constituencies better than its competition" (PBS Video, 1995). One of management's chief obligations is to coordinate and balance the needs and interests of these constituencies or stakeholders. (For most organizations, adopting a stakeholder orientation presents no difficulty. For publicly held, profit-oriented companies, a stakeholder-orientation requires management to view stockholders as just one of several stakeholder groups.)

As Jennings (1999) points out, the term "stakeholder" has its origins in the law, specifically in debates about the social responsibility of business that took place in the 1930s. One of those involved in these debates was Adolph Berle, Jr. Berle, along with Gardner Means, argued in a 1933 book titled *The Modern Corporation and Private Property* that corporations had ceased being devices through which individuals risked their wealth and, to protect and increase their wealth, also exercised control over the ways in which the corporation conducted business. The central issue to which Berle and Means pointed was the then relatively new separation of management control from ownership in publicly held corporations. Owing to the diffusion of ownership amongst hundreds, thousands and even hundreds of thousands of investors, corporations now represented vast aggregates of wealth and power that could be managed to the benefit of the managers. Berle and Means also hinted at the notion of stakeholders when they observed that a business enterprise depends on more than property for its continued existence; it also depends on a workforce and customers. These were "participants" in the enterprise; moreover, they are participants without whom the organization would fail.

A few years after Berle and Means' book was published, Chester Barnard (1938) used the term "members" in his book, *The Functions of the Executive*, to refer to those groups without which the organization could not operate and then went on to point out that it is the contributions made by these members on which the organization depends; it is from them that the organization fashions whatever products and services it can offer. Further, Barnard indicated that there is a dynamic balance to be struck between these contributions and the inducements necessary to obtain them. Thus was the theory of organizational equilibrium articulated in terms of a dynamic and continuing balance of contributions and inducements to and from various member groups. This became known as the "Barnard-Simon theory of organizational equilibrium." In their book, *Organizations,* March and Simon (1958) defined this theory as "…a statement of the conditions under which an organization can induce its members to continue their participation and hence assure organizational survival."

In 1963, a research memo at the Stanford Research Institute (SRI) defined stakeholders as "those groups without whose support the organization would cease to exist" (Jennings, 1999). Freeman (1984, p.46) defined a stakeholder as "any group or individual who can affect or is affected by the achievement of an organization's objectives." This is a very broad definition; too broad, perhaps, because it would include competitors as stakeholders. Neely and Adams (2003), in developing their "Performance Prism," took care to point out that any look at stakeholders must include stakeholder contributions as well as stakeholder satisfaction (presumably, with their inducements). In their view, stakeholders put in something and they take out something. This transaction view of a stakeholder is similar if not identical to the contributions-inducements theory of organizational membership and equilibrium.

Training, much the same as an organization, would cease to exist if it did not have the support of its key constituency groups or stakeholders. Training, too, must strike a balance between and among the needs and interests of these stakeholder groups. Training, too, depends on a continued dynamic balance between the contributions it receives from its stakeholder groups and the inducements they receive in return, that is, the contributions training makes to the organization.

Stakeholder Defined

For the purposes of this paper, a stakeholder is defined as *a person or group with an interest in seeing an endeavor succeed and without whose support the endeavor would fail*. For example, most employees have an interest in seeing their companies succeed. So do that company's suppliers, its customers and the community in which the company is embedded. Similarly, most trainers have an interest in seeing that the training they develop and deliver is successful. There are others who want training to be successful, too. Chief among them are the managers who sponsor or fund the training, the managers who manage the training department and last, but not least, the trainees. A list of typical training stakeholders follows:

- Trainees
- The Trainees' Managers
- Funding Managers
- Training Developers
- Instructors
- Training Managers
- Training Vendors
- The Training Community

In cases wherein the training is expected to have a fairly direct and substantial impact on some critical aspect of the organization's performance, senior managers and executives are also important stakeholders. There are even situations in which the community as well as state and federal regulators become stakeholders (e.g., as is likely the case when training nuclear power plant operators).

Stakeholder Contributions and Inducements

As the definition of stakeholder provided implies, stakeholders are people with an interest in seeing an endeavor succeed; they expect to get something out of the endeavor or effort in question. That something might be a return on their investment, as is the case with investors. But, and this is extremely important, *stakeholders must also put something into the endeavor*. Remember, without the stakeholders' contributions, the endeavor in question fails.

Stakeholders put something in and they take something out. Investors put their money at risk in hopes of a return just as the managers who fund training do so in hopes of a positive impact on performance or costs or productivity or some other payoff. Trainees contribute their time, attention, energy and other forms of input (e.g., participating in discussions and exercises) and they hope to take out useful knowledge and skills, methods, techniques and tools. Instructors put in their time and energy, too, along with their skills at leading or facilitating discussions, presenting subject matter in interesting, relevant ways and handling the occasionally difficult trainee. They hope to walk away with a return in the form of a sense of accomplishment, a reputation maintained or enhanced and high marks from the trainees. Developers invest a great deal of time and energy in designing, developing and field-testing instructional materials and most of them hope to receive in return a decent paycheck, a modicum of recognition and a sense of satisfaction with a job well done. In the formal language of organizational theory, stakeholders exchange *contributions* in return for *inducements*.

The essence of the contributions-inducements schema is that the various participants or stakeholders must perceive value in the exchange. Generally speaking, inducements must be seen as having equal or greater value than contributions. From the stakeholders' perspective, what they receive is of equal or greater value to them than what they contribute. From the organization's perspective, what it receives in the way of contributions is of equal or greater value than what it offers in the way of inducements. That is why all "members" of the organization are in the relationship. If that relationship does not offer them inducements of equal or greater value to them than the contributions expected of them, they leave the relationship. That is why employees, customers and suppliers go elsewhere and it is also why training departments are periodically cut back or even eliminated: They are not perceived as contributing or adding value (contribution) that is equal to or greater than their cost (inducement).

It falls to management to manage stakeholder or constituent relationships. This is as true for the training department and its management as it is for the larger organization. To meaningfully evaluate training one must assess the nature of the contributions-inducements relationship between each of the stakeholder groups and the training. What are they putting in? What are they getting out? Are they putting in what they should? Are they getting out of it what they want or need? Do they view the transaction as balanced or unbalanced (i.e., are they putting in more than they're getting out)?

Table of Illustrative Stakeholder Contributions and Inducements

Contributions (Put In)	Stakeholders	Inducements (Take Out)
Their time, energy, skills and knowledge, manifested in individual training events.	***Trainers***	Pay, personal satisfaction, professional development, continued employment.
Resource commitments, direction, support, leadership.	***Training Managers***	Pay, personal satisfaction, enhanced standing (e.g., a seat at the table)
Money, sanction, support.	***Funding Managers***	Operational and financial impact of greater value.
Opportunity costs of releasing the employee for the training, sanction, support.	***Trainees' Managers***	Improved performance on the job.
Their time, attention, energy and knowledge, participation.	***Trainees***	Useful information, skills and knowledge, tools and job aids, improved standing.
Courses and course materials, development costs and their reputation.	***Vendors***	Money, repeat business, enhanced reputation, referrals.
The courses, materials and their time, energy, skills and knowledge.	***Developers***	Pay, personal satisfaction, professional development, improved standing.

Typical Training Stakeholder Contributions & Inducements

The table above identifies some of the typical contributions and inducements that could be involved for the various stakeholder groups with respect to a particular training course or training in general. It does not and cannot represent all such contributions and inducements. These will vary with the course and the people involved. Other groups who might be stakeholders and who might have to be added include senior managers and executives, the community and government regulators. A stakeholder "scorecard" must be constructed to fit the situation. However, the table above does serve as a model and a starting point.

A Process for Implementing a Stakeholder Approach to Evaluating Training

Readers are reminded that this paper presents a proposed approach; it speaks to what could and should be done, not what is currently being done. There are no cases to point to, no testimonials to present, no data to manipulate. This paper is a proposal to go about evaluating training in a very different way and it offers some suggestions about how to do that. It does not present a detailed plan. That said, there are precedents from which to learn and on which to draw. Stakeholder-based approaches and scorecards have been developed for general business use, for example, in a bank (Atkinson, Waterhouse and Wells, 1997) and in an international courier service (Neely, Adams and Kennerly, 2002) but not for evaluating training.

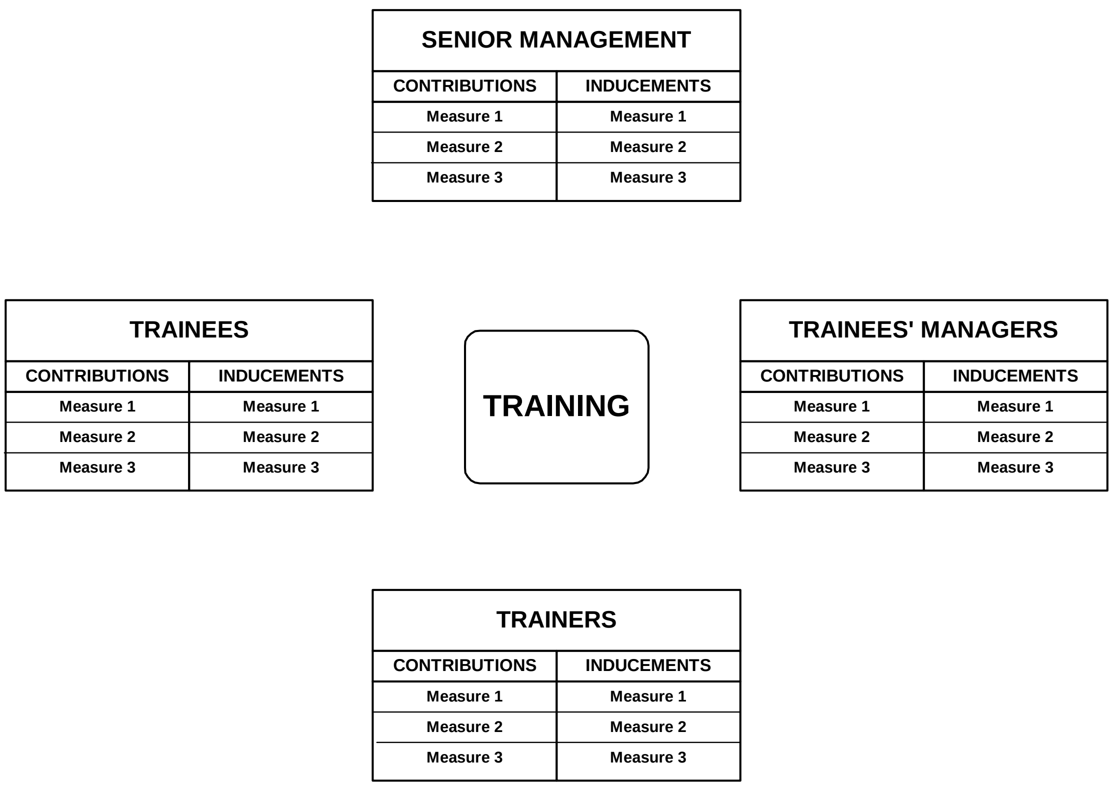

Figure 1 - The Structure of a Stakeholder Scorecard for Training

Conceptually, the process is simple enough:

1. First, sell management on the idea; position it initially as an experiment; seek special funding if necessary
2. Identify the training department's key stakeholder groups and its key offerings
3. Identify the contributions and inducements for each stakeholder group
4. Prioritize these contributions and inducements in terms of their importance and value to the stakeholders and to the training department
5. Reduce the prioritized list to a short list – no more than three or four essential contributions and inducements for each stakeholder group
6. Devise simple measures of stakeholder satisfaction with their inducements

7. Devise simple measures of the value to the training organization of the contributions needed from the various stakeholders
8. Incorporate both sets of measures into a Stakeholder Contributions-Inducements Scorecard (see Figure 1 for an example of how such a scorecard might be structured)
9. Check the status of the measures frequently; communicate the results to stakeholders often; and use these measurement results to drive productive conversations with the stakeholders
10. Incorporate discussions of stakeholder contributions and inducements into meetings, the training itself and training post-mortems
11. Be prepared to change and update the stakeholder scorecard on a regular basis as clarity is gained regarding the status of the contributions and inducements that really matter

Implications for Training Design

If one accepts the notion that training has multiple constituencies or stakeholders whose needs, wants, requirements and preferences must be taken into account, one must also accept that the only effective way of doing so is take them into account during the design, development and delivery of the training. Anything else is bound to come up short at evaluation time. Moreover, it is well to keep in mind that, although training providers and their constituencies might agree in general about the results to be obtained from training, they also hold very different perceptions regarding the criteria to be used in evaluating training programs (Michalski, G., 1997). For this reason, evaluation issues belong on the front-end of training endeavors as well as on the back-end. The real question, then, is how does one design, develop and deliver training so as to meet all the stakeholders' needs and requirements? Do this and do it well and any subsequent evaluation is certain to be favorable. How does one do that? Answering that question is beyond the purview of this paper but a few principles to keep in mind are listed below:

- ❑ Find the shared interest.
- ❑ Involve the stakeholders.
- ❑ Think optimization, not maximization.
- ❑ Be willing to make trade-offs and take shortcuts.
- ❑ Remember, design is as much or more art as it is science: Trust your instincts.

Concluding Remarks

A stakeholder approach leads to mutual accountability and shared responsibility. *Trainers are not and cannot be solely responsible for the success of training*. The trainees have something to do with that, too. So do developers and vendors and managers and clients. The ROI of training is neither the sole nor the paramount measure of training. The "smiles test" provides some useful information but it also allows trainees to criticize the training without any accompanying assessment of their behavior and performance as trainees. There is such a thing as "a responsible trainee" and the evaluation of training rarely takes stock of that ingredient, yet it is essential to the success of training. The managers who fund the training have a right to expect something for the money they spend but they also have an obligation to contribute to the success of that training (even if it's only to sit still and be interviewed regarding their expectations of the training or to explain the rationale that led them to conclude that training is the solution to some problem of performance). There is, then, the notion of a "responsible client" as well. Under a stakeholder approach, the various stakeholders are accountable to one another and they share the responsibility for success.

Adopting a stakeholder approach to evaluating training will likely involve a lot of time-consuming, difficult and delicate work. There are those who will duck accountability and shirk responsibility. Some of them are trainers. The last thing many managers want is someone else to whom they have to be accountable, especially when they see little coming their way in return. So, the place to begin is always with the value expected from training, be it a single offering or the entire training function. If that value proposition cannot be made clear and compelling there is little hope for the training let alone a stakeholder approach – or any other approach – to evaluating it.

On the other side of the scale are the advantages of a stakeholder approach:

- ❑ It focuses everyone on the value proposition, that is, on the value to be provided by training.
- ❑ It shifts the emphasis in training from transforming trainees to providing value to stakeholders.
- ❑ It elucidates and clarifies the "stakes" – the value expected from the training by the various stakeholders.
- ❑ It focuses trainers and the training on the needs and requirements of its many constituencies.
- ❑ It accommodates all the various stakeholder perspectives; it offers a balanced view.

- It accommodates the Kirkpatrick model and the ROI approach – but only when and as its "levels" are reflected in stakeholder requirements.
- It comes to grips naturally with the politics of evaluation.
- It takes evaluation out of the realms of special exercises and specialized expertise.
- It forces training design to focus on achieving valued business results and thus moves evaluation "up front" where it belongs.
- It encourages and supports mutual accountability and shared responsibility.
- It opens up some long ignored success factors (e.g., the "responsible trainee" and the "responsible client").

A few parting cautions are in order. Two simple facts of life in organizations should be kept in mind: some things matter more than others, and everyone is responsible for making the best use of the resources at their disposal. There is no need to view everyone as a stakeholder and not every stakeholder is of equal concern from endeavor to endeavor. It is not necessary to comprehensively and exhaustively measure all contributions and all inducements for each and every training offering. Adopting a stakeholder approach to evaluating training means staying focused on value given and value received. Nothing should be evaluated from any perspective, stakeholder or otherwise, if that evaluation does not provide value that offsets the cost of the evaluation.

Finally, the stakeholder view, though not without its flaws (Key, 1999) and critics (Jennings, 1999), is gathering momentum in management thinking (Donaldson & Preston, 1995) and is increasingly reflected in managerial tools and actions aimed at assessing organizational and managerial performance (Atkinson, Waterhouse & Wells, 1997; Fraser & Zarkada-Fraser, 2003; Neely, Adams & Crowe, 2003). As one group of observers writes, "The days when companies could survive and prosper by focusing on the wants and needs of one stakeholder – the shareholder – are long gone" (Neely, Adams & Kennerly, 2002). Trainers, too, must satisfy multiple constituencies. Adopting a stakeholder approach to evaluating training is a step in the right direction.

References

1. Alliger, G.M. & Janak, E.A. (1989). Kirkpatrick's levels of training criteria: Thirty years later. *Personnel Psychology, 42*(2), 331-342.
2. Atkinson, A. A., Waterhouse, J. H., and Wells, R. B. (1997). A stakeholder approach to strategic performance measurement. *Sloan Management Review (Spring)*.
3. Barnard, C. A. (1947). *The functions of the executive*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Publishing.
4. Berle, A. A. Jr. and Means, G. C. (1933). *The modern corporation and private property*. New York, NY: The MacMillan Company.
5. Burke, J. (1995). Remarks made during a PBS video [author's notes].
6. Donaldson, T. and Preston, L. (1995). The stakeholder theory of the corporation: concepts, evidence, and implications. *Academy of Management Review 20:1* 65-91.
7. Fraser, C. and Zarkada-Fraser, A. (2003). Investigating the effectiveness of managers through an analysis of stakeholder perceptions. *Journal of Management Development 22:9* 762-783.
8. Freeman, R. (1984). *Strategic management: a stakeholder approach*. Boston, MA: Ballinger
9. Holton, E.F. (1996). The flawed four-level evaluation model*. Human Resources Development Quarterly, 7*(1), 5-21.
10. Jennings, M. (1999, April). Stakeholder theory: letting anyone who's interested run the business – no investment required. Paper presented at a conference titled *Corporate Governance: Ethics Across the Board*, hosted by the Center for Business Ethics at the University of St. Thomas, Houston, TX. Retrieved December 6, 2003 from http://www.stthom.edu/cbes/conferences/marianne_jennings.html
11. Kaufman, R., and Keller, J. M. (1994). Levels of evaluation: beyond Kirkpatrick*. Human Resource Development Quarterly, 5*, 371-380.
12. Key, S. (1999). Toward a new theory of the firm: a critique of stakeholder "theory." *Management Decision 37:4,* 317-328.
13. Kirkpatrick, D. L. (1975a). Techniques for evaluating training programs, part 1: reaction. In *Evaluating Training Programs,* compiled by D. L. Kirkpatrick, 1-5. Madison, WI: ASTD.
14. Kirkpatrick, D. L. (1975b). Techniques for evaluating training programs, part 2: learning. In *Evaluating Training Programs,* compiled by D. L. Kirkpatrick, 16-9. Madison, WI: ASTD.
15. Kirkpatrick, D. L. (1975c). Techniques for evaluating training programs, part 3: behavior. In *Evaluating Training Programs,* compiled by D. L. Kirkpatrick, 10-13. Madison, WI: ASTD.
16. Kirkpatrick, D. L. (1975d). Techniques for evaluating training programs, part 4: results. In *Evaluating Training Programs,* compiled by D. L. Kirkpatrick, 14-17. Madison, WI: ASTD.
17. March, J. G. and Simon, H. A. (1958). *Organizations.* New York, NY: John Wiley & Sons.
18. Medsker, K. L. and Roberts, D. G. (1992)*. Evaluating the results of training: an ASTD trainer's toolkit*. Alexandria, VA: American Society for Training and Development.
19. Michalski, G. V. (1997, November). Stakeholder variation in perceptions about training program results and evaluation: a concept mapping investigation. Paper presented at American Evaluation Association Conference, San Diego, CA. Retrieved December 6, 2003 from http://www.conceptsystems.com/papers/paperusr/michalsk/aea51.htm
20. Neely, A., Adams C. and Kennerly, M. (2002). *The performance prism: the scorecard for measuring and managing success,* 1. London: Financial Times Prentice-Hall
21. Neely, A., Adams, C. and Crowe, P. (2003). The performance prism in practice. Retrieved December 6, 2003 from http://www.som.cranfield.ac.uk/som/cbp/PrismInPractice.pdf
22. Nickols, F. W. (2000). Evaluating training: there is no "cookbook" approach. In J. Woods & J. Cortada (Eds.), *The 2001 ASTD Training & Performance Yearbook* (pp. 322-333). New York, NY: McGraw-Hill.
23. Phillips, J. (1997). *Return on investment in training and performance improvement programs*. Houston, TX: Gulf Publishing Company.
24. Watkins, R., Leigh, D., Foshay, R., & Kaufman, R. (1998). Kirkpatrick plus: evaluation and continuous improvement with a community focus. In *Educational Technology Research and Development, 46:4* 90-96

Author Bio & Contact Information

Fred Nickols is a writer, consultant and former executive with almost 50 years of experience in the workplace, much of it associated with training and development and with other efforts to improve performance and productivity. For many years he was an executive director with Educational Testing Service. His career began in the United States Navy where he served on active duty for 20 years, retiring in 1974 with the rank of Chief Petty Officer. It was in the Navy that he received his training and early experiences as an instructor, a writer of programmed instructional materials, an instructional systems specialist and an internal management and organizational development (OD) consultant. His consulting career spans 30 years and his clients include many well-known corporations, non-profit organizations and government agencies. He has published dozens of articles in a wide variety of professional journals and trade magazines.

Fred Nickols
www.nickols.us
nickols@att.net