Using Responsive Evaluation to Change Thai Tourist Police Volunteer Programs

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Declaration

I, Wuthi Liptapallop, declare that this Doctor of Education dissertation entitled *Using Responsive Evaluation to Change Thai Tourist Police Volunteer Programs* is no more than 60,000 words in length, exclusive of tables, figures, appendices, references and footnotes. This dissertation contains no material that has been submitted previously, in whole or in part, for the award of any other academic degree or diploma. Except where otherwise indicated, this dissertation is my own work.

Signed

Wednesday, 19 November 2008

Date
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Abstract

This study focused on a developing volunteer training program provided by the Royal Thai Police, using a responsive evaluation to improve its effectiveness. The research was set in the context of significant changes being made in the training of tourist police volunteers in Phuket, one of the main tourist locations in Thailand.

The study was based on considering phases of the training program’s development, using the Responsive Evaluation approach of Stake (1967, 2004) within an Interactive Form of Evaluation as categorized by Owen with Rogers (1999) and Owen (2006). The research considered Stake’s three phases or ‘countenances of evaluation’: antecedents, transactions and outcomes. Antecedents were concerned with the preparation step before the training programs were launched. Transactions were concerned with the program delivery which involved the processes and problems identified when the programs were in operation. Outcomes involved the results of the training programs which provided a measure of how effective the training programs had been.

The three phases of the evaluation, in which standards were established and judgements made in order to identify the effectiveness of three specific programs, involved both qualitative and quantitative research methods. The antecedents included questionnaires, a focus group interview and a document analysis. The transactions included various types of data provided by the stakeholders – namely, the program staff, volunteers, trainers and tourists – and the inquiry involved document analysis, a focus group interview, semi-structured interviews, a course feedback survey (volunteers), a simple street survey (tourists), logs and journals (trainers), personal reflections (program staff) and three case studies. The outcomes included a
course feedback survey of the volunteers, a simple street survey of tourists in Phuket, and observations made by the program staff. The findings of the study were validated by means of triangulation of the outcomes in each phase.

The research had small but significant outcomes. These included the development of a policy for creating more effective volunteer training programs provided by the Thai Tourist Police, demonstrating the effectiveness of Responsive Evaluation in assisting in the development of a training program policy, and highlighting key elements that are required to improve the organisation of volunteer training in Thailand. Overall, the outcomes drawn from the volunteers, trainers and tourists suggest that the volunteer training programs had, indeed, proved to be effective.
CHAPTER 1

Introduction

Background to the Study

Thailand has been regarded as the ‘land of smiles’ for many years. The Tourism industry in Thailand, which attracts millions of visitors to this land of smiles each year, is one of the country’s competitive industries. It has the capacity to contribute more than 10,000 million baht (250 million US dollars equivalent) to the expected income of the country each year. Guaranteeing the safety of lives and property of these tourist visitors demands strict measures.

The problem of insufficient staff in the tourist police division has become evident as the number of tourists has increased over the past decade. Though there are 300,000 Thai police who are working for the Royal Thai Police currently, the number of Tourist Police is, proportionally, very small: no more than 500 Thai tourist police work at the main tourist attractions in Thailand. The lack of tourist police contributes to inefficiency in the duty of taking care of the lives and properties of those tourists. It is in this context that the need for Tourist Police volunteers arises.

Tourist Police volunteers will not be able to function efficiently without proper training. Volunteer training programs are needed to provide advice, to offer consultation opportunities and to train the volunteers. The advantage of the volunteer training program is that the volunteers are willing
to learn and, with this motivation, are able to learn well. The disadvantage is that the volunteers come from different backgrounds and it is not easy to provide the program that can best serve completely all of their specific needs.

**Volunteer training programs**

The past several decades have witnessed an increasing number of problems in Thailand – natural disasters including earthquakes, hurricanes, tsunamis, sudden floods, mud slides and monsoons. Volunteers come to take part in such incidents in many areas of the world. ‘Volunteer’ means a person who performs or offers to perform a service voluntarily. Volunteering can enhance those involved with valuable experiences and skills. Volunteer’s definition is perceived in various ways. In general, Schindler-Rainman & Lippit (1977, p. 11) state that volunteers are people who ‘want the town or city or neighbourhood in which they live to be exciting, creative, and challenging’. Moyer (1990) indicates that people who volunteer do so for transactional as well as altruistic reasons. According to a study of volunteerism in Maricopa County, 1983, a volunteer was defined as ‘someone working in some way to help others for monetary pay’.

While definitions vary slightly, any definition needs to contain three essential elements: volunteering is done by choice, without monetary reward, and for the benefit of the community. Thus, the volunteer training programs should be designed to draw motivation and attention. This implies that training and development programs should attempt to meet the needs, wants and aspirations of the individual. This idea may best be supported by a ‘volunteer development cycle’. Such a cycle described at www.volunteer.ca/-volunteercentres, is shown in Figure 1.1. The cycle shows five stages in developing volunteer programs, namely

- planning;
- recruitment and selection;
- orientation and training;
- supervision and evaluation; and
- recognition and motivation.
The five stages are interrelated and move in a cycle. It can be clearly seen from the cycle that recognition and motivation is included since the volunteers who are willing to learn and do the job without monetary pay need motivation and recognition as their incentive. They should also be satisfied with the job and feel happy with the work.

This idea is supported by Cull & Hardy (1974, p. 111) who indicate that voluntary action ‘helps us transcend ourselves in some form of higher self-expression and self-realization’. It can be confirmed by Volunteering Queensland Inc. 2001 p. 7, located at [www.volqld.org.au](http://www.volqld.org.au) that the volunteer chooses to volunteer according to a range of motivating factors, as follows:
• desire to help others
• seeking enrichment in their lives
• enthusiasm for a cause or interest
• acquire specific skills and knowledge
• feel they have something to offer
• make new friends
• use their spare time in a satisfying way
• explore a career change
• maintain work-skills
• enjoy a challenge
• gain or maintain status
• get used to working again
• feel a sense of belonging
• get new ideas
• drawn in by others.

There are many volunteer programs in many countries such as in Guatemala where there are lots of travellers visiting each year. The ongoing volunteer programs in Guatemala include English teaching, health projects, mini-adventure, and adult education. Besides, there are associations founded to support the work of volunteers. An example of this is a volunteer rescue association which is an Australian organisation comprising of volunteer members who assist in times of emergency. Another organisation in Australia which is concerned with volunteers is the Australian Trust for Conservation Volunteers. It accepts large number of volunteers to help on its 1,500 projects around the country including tree planting, erosion control, seed collection, track maintenance, surveying endangered flora and fauna, and habitat and heritage restoration.
A different kind of volunteer organisation is found in Canada where there are volunteer centres that have non-profit status, usually with registered charitable status, that engage in four kinds of activities: promoting volunteerism, building capacity for effective local volunteering, providing leadership on issues relating to volunteerism, and connecting people with opportunities to serve. In American society, volunteering is one of the most pervasive activities in which volunteers come from all age groups, educational backgrounds, income levels, genders, and types of employment. Volunteers become involved for a variety of reasons, depending upon both the individual and the cause they are considering. The basic motivations that are often cited include: helping others, interest in the work or activity, wanted to learn and gain experience, had a lot of free time, devoted to the cause, know someone who was involved and religious concerns.

A different group of volunteers were established in Mongolia in 1999 as part of a Cultural Restoration Tourism Project (CRTP). This project began restoration of the main temple at Baldan Baraivan utilising volunteer tourism and local resources. Aside from the primary goal of restoring the main temple, CRTP is also working to create an ecological sustainable environment by promoting agricultural use of the land in order for the community to be self-sufficient in the future.

Volunteering in Tibet is another aspect of volunteerism involving the teaching of English in Dharamsala. Dharamsala’s greatest long-term need is for teachers. Experienced teachers are needed for math, history, English, environmental issues, and other basic K-12 classes. In recent years, with the emergence of incidents and global communications, volunteers are needed in many parts of the world. The demand for volunteers has increased whereas the number of volunteers decreased. This may be due to the lack of understanding of people regarding the importance of volunteers towards the community or the country.
In a study of volunteerism undertaken by The United States Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics (2002-2003), the age of volunteers as target groups is discussed. The most common age group of volunteers was those in early middle age (35-44 years of age):

By age, 35-44 year olds were the most likely to volunteer, closely followed by 45 to 54 year olds. Their volunteer rates were 34.7 percent and 32.7 percent respectively. Teenagers also had a relatively high volunteer rate, 29.5 percent, perhaps reflecting an emphasis on volunteer activities in schools. Volunteer rates were lowest among persons age 65 years and over 23.7 and among those in their early twenties 19.7 percent. Within the 65 years and over group, volunteer rates decreased as age increased.

Different groups of people indicate a greater willingness to volunteer. This point is emphasised by Stephanie Boraas (Boraas, 2003, p. 3) in an article, *Volunteerism in the United Sates: Between September 2001 and September 2002*. She indicates that more than 1 in every 4 individuals performed volunteer activities. Of these, women, students, and college graduates were most likely to volunteer. In the *Monthly Labor Review*, Vol. 126, 2003 (p.3), the greater likelihood of certain groups to volunteer is reported:

Some population groups are more likely than others to volunteer. Parents, for example, are likely to be involved with school or youth-related groups. Older people, many of whom are in the early years of retirement, are more likely to volunteer than young adults.

It seems that volunteers come from groups whose mission is different from others. Another important thing to consider regarding volunteers is that the motivation and retention of volunteers are increasingly important to organisations that depend on adult volunteers (Van Horn et al, 1999). Since a volunteer’s job is to work without pay, the position requires those who are willing to work for nothing: personal motivation and satisfaction are the factors that attract volunteers. Motivation appears to come from the satisfaction of completing the task required and that this is reward enough.
Overview of the roles of volunteer training program in Thailand

The role that volunteer training programs in Thailand play can be traced back to as early as 1990 when the economic situation had improved, and there was an identified need for volunteers in many sectors such as in industry, healthcare and tourism. Volunteers in Thailand have always responded to changes in the country. During the years of rapid economic growth in the 1980s, the focus of the volunteers was on vocational training and Japanese language education to meet the need of appropriate training of technical engineers. Volunteering in Thailand in this context was based on an appreciation of the need for cooperation between Thailand and Japan.

Another example is the need for volunteer teachers from NOCFL (The People’s Republic of China) to work in Thailand and Philippines. Due to the excellent work of previous groups, highly acknowledged by two governments and local people, both countries expressed hope for more volunteer teachers to be sent. At that time, it was believed that the volunteer training program should be set up to lessen the training burden on the organisation. It was believed that the volunteer training program should focus on knowledge and the application over the short term. The main goal of volunteer training program was to train volunteers to be able to use quite specific training skills.

There are many types of volunteer training programs in Thailand either national or international, such as Volunteer Programs with local homestays in Thailand Global Service Corps (GSC), Cross-cultural solutions: Volunteer abroad for the experience of a Lifetime, Globe aware in Asia Thailand-sustaining Thailand’s Treasures, Ban Nong Puen Tag school Volunteer teaching English in Thailand, Global volunteer network: Volunteer in Thailand, Tsunami volunteers in Takuapa, Phang Nga, Thailand, Travel to Teach: teaching English in Thailand, and Wild Animal Rescue Foundation of Thailand. One example of Thai volunteer training program that showed how evaluation could prove the success of the program was reported in the
Evaluation of training program for volunteer family planning communicators. The objectives of the Volunteers Family Planning Communicators (VFPCs) training program conducted by Eoaskoon & Pongruengphant (1989, pp. 25-7) were to develop the strategy for promotion of sterilization by contraceptive consumers in the provinces. The result is that the program promoted cooperation between the private sector and the government. The training achieved its goals for the most part.

As Thailand has developed its tourism industry within a globalised world, the need for more volunteers has grown: there is simply insufficient staff in the tourism industry, as well as in other industries. A good example of this is the volunteers in Northern Thailand. Northern Thailand is a centre of volunteer activity since lots of problems occur here, for example, AIDS, poverty, the plight of hill tribes and Burmese refugees, deforestation, and drug abuse. One example of an organisation that needs volunteers is the Chiang Mai disabled centre, which concentrates on making the disabled more employable. According to a public policy that encourages growth in national income by means of the tourism industry, the southern part of Thailand where there are many tourist attractions, e.g., beautiful beaches and hundreds of islands, there is the potential to help promote the country and attract the tourists to visit each year. However, there is a matching need for measures that will help reduce problems arising from risks facing tourists – both to their lives and to their property.

**Rationale for the study**

The Thai Tourist Police division, a unit that is responsible for the safety of tourists, has insufficient staff to take full responsibility for the servicing of a steadily annual increasing of the numbers of tourists visiting Thailand. There is an obvious need for volunteers in this area – and thus for volunteer training programs that have a mission to provide knowledge and to train adults who wish to serve in a volunteer capacity, and thus helping to create a learning society of volunteers in the community. These volunteers will create a most
useful and helpful unit in those areas of Thai society where the need for volunteers is greatest. For this reason, it is appropriate to carry out an evaluation of current volunteer training programs that will lead to their improvement, and that will ensure that they are delivering effective and appropriate outcomes.

There is an on-going interest among researchers and those related in the field regarding just how effective are volunteer police training programs. In my opinion, whether the training programs are effective depends on the feedback of the stakeholders, including the persons involved. I believe that an appropriate evaluation, such as this study reports, will help reveal the ways in which the training programs are of benefit to Thai society. Such an evaluation needs to involve the types of training programs and their purpose, together with the four groups of stakeholders previously identified, in order to determine how the programs might be improved.

**Volunteer training programs and the role of program evaluation**

Since the existing volunteer training programs are offered to those volunteers who are willing to help tourist police in the area, an interactive form of program evaluation is needed. Program evaluation is important when any kind of program is provided to a certain group of trainees. An interactive program evaluation will reveal how effective the programs are. Specifically, an interactive program evaluation will identify problems the programs are facing with some suggestions for improvement. This study focuses on responsive evaluation as an approach to interactive program evaluation since a responsive evaluation is able to reveal what changes need to be made to the existing programs in order to make them more effective and to better serve the trainees, thus leading to improvement.
**Program evaluation: An overview**

In order to decide whether any kind of program being implemented is successful or reach its goal, program evaluation is needed. Program evaluation is carefully collecting information about a program or some aspect of a program in order to make necessary decisions about the program. Once the training programs have been implemented, there is a need to check whether the programs yield the benefit to those involved. According to Knox (2002, p. 4):

> Practical evaluation is useful because the evaluator combines sound procedures with a rationale for addressing issues valued by specific program stakeholders. A successful evaluation reflects both valuable concepts and responsiveness to local contingencies.

Program evaluation is done for reasons of periodic accreditation review, improvement of an individual course, or modification of a mix of course offerings. According to McNamara (1998):

> Program evaluation is helpful because program evaluation can understand, verify or increase the impact of products or services on customers or clients.

There is an example of the program evaluation showed that the volunteer training program could prove successful after being evaluated. In ‘Development and evaluation of a training program for volunteers working in day treatment’ Minor & Thompson (1975) reported that the volunteers were asked to evaluate the program and that they found the program to be helpful and that it prepared them well to be volunteers. It indicated the satisfaction of the trainees and that the program encouraged the volunteers to help the organisation.

It is hoped that an evaluation might bring about the improvement of a program. A considerable body of literature has been developed about how
evaluation results can and should be used for improvement (Meier, 1987; David et al, 1989; Glickman, 1991; Miles & Louis, 1990; O’Neil, 1990). Despite its importance, there is evidence that evaluations of training programs are often inconsistent or missing (Carnevale & Schulz, 1990; Holcomb, 1993; McMahon & Carter, 1990; Rossi et al, 1979). Possible explanations for inadequate evaluations include: insufficient budget allocated; insufficient time allocated; lack of expertise; blind trust in training solutions; or lack of methods and tools (McEvoy & Buller, 1990).

This study will use a responsive evaluation approach in order to improve and increase the efficiency of the Thai Tourist Police Volunteer Training Program. The evaluation used here will focus on the activities within the training program, how well the training program enables the volunteers to apply their training to help the tourists, the response of tourists to the assistance they receive from the volunteers, and what changes in policy are required for the development and improvement of similar training programs in future.

The evaluation chosen in this study involves interactive evaluation as it focuses on the aspect of program delivery. According to Owen with Rogers (1999, p. 222), interactive evaluation is concerned with:

- the provision of systematic evaluation findings through which local providers can make decisions about the future direction of their programs;
- assistance in planning and carrying out self-evaluations;
- focusing evaluation on program change and improvement, in most cases on a continuous basis; and
- a perspective that evaluation can be an end in itself, as a means of empowering providers and participants.
A responsive evaluation is used as a particular approach in the Interactive Form of Evaluation which is designed to improve programs. Owen with Rogers (1999, p. 223) point out

Robert Stake (1980) is the theorist most associated with this term, and with the methodological approaches consistent with this Approach. An evaluation is responsive if:

- it orients more directly to program activities than to program intents;
- it responds to audience requirements for information;
- the different value perspectives of the people at hand are referred to in reporting the success and failure of the program.

Any program evaluation, inevitably, leads to a change in the program. As Meier (1991, p. 3) points out, change is seen as a part of the improvement and the process. Change must be seen as a natural and inherent part of the education process, so that individuals in the system accept and feel comfortable with new ways of performing their functions. The changes that need to be made, as revealed by program evaluation, inevitably lead to program development. At the same time, program evaluation is able to reveal the strengths and weaknesses of the program that will lead to adjustments of the plan and policy in the future.

McCurlery (2000, p. 1) points out that there are two basic reasons for conducting a volunteer evaluation: one, to help the volunteer work closer to their potential; two, to help the organisation better involve volunteers. Program evaluation can be designed to serve each program for a certain circumstances.

A volunteer training program is a type of program that requires the evaluation process that could show the result of what has been implemented. There is an on-going concern among trainers and researchers in the volunteer training program regarding how effective those volunteer training programs
are. In my opinion, to find out whether the volunteer training programs are effective required the proper evaluation process. As Martinez (2005) indicates, evaluation can, and should be used as an ongoing management and learning tool to improve an organisation’s effectiveness.

Evaluation research serves many purposes. It is used to assess the ‘conceptualization, design, implementation and utility of programs’ (Rossi & Freeman, 1993, p. 5). It can be for the purpose of improvement formative or for the purpose of judgement (Scriven, 1980). It is conducted formally and informally, by insiders and outsiders. It can have strong budgetary implications and therefore is subject to political pressure. It is often conducted based on prevailing scientific and business models. Boulmetis & Dutwin (2000, p. 4) provide an alternative definition of evaluation:

Evaluation is the systematic process of collecting and analysing data in order to determine whether and to what extent objectives had been and are being achieved.

The volunteer training program provided by the Tourist Police Division has not been evaluated since its inception. This evaluation thus was needed to determine the strengths and weaknesses of the existing volunteer training programs. The results of the evaluation were also to be used by the Thai Police Force, of whom I was divisional commander at the time of this research, to determine the effectiveness of the current training program and to modify the activities in the training program for future implementation. In addition, the evaluation also helped us to assess how the volunteer process was going and if changes should be made to improve the volunteer’s satisfaction or performance. Evaluation of training programs influences future outcomes and activities as well as aiding in program accountability by determining if leadership development among adult volunteers made a difference to individual leaders, the organisation, and surrounding communities (Michael, 1990; Rossi & Freeman, 1993). Evaluators have been criticised in the past for focusing on outcome evaluation and excluding the
process side, or focusing on process evaluation without examining outcomes; as a consequence, there was a need to find a framework for evaluation that was suitable and which incorporated both the process and outcome side.

**How responsive evaluation supports the volunteer training program evaluation**

There has been very little, if any, research done on the use of responsive evaluation as a medium to assess a training program. This study aimed to explore the effectiveness of the volunteer tourist police training program. The evaluation model mostly suitable for the program was selected to meet the following criteria:

- The program should be under process while the evaluation takes place.
- Many persons are involved in the training program; thus, the stakeholders are important.
- Any problems arising from the implementation should be noted down.

The program needed to be evaluated in terms of inputs, process, outputs and outcomes. Inputs are the various resources needed to run the program, e.g., money, facilities, customers, clients, program staff, etc. The process is how the program is carried out, e.g., how customers are served, clients are counselled, children are cared for, art is created, and association members are supported. The outputs are units of service, e.g., the number of customers serviced, number of clients counselled, children cared for, or members in the association. Outcomes are the impacts on the customers or on the clients receiving the service, e.g., increased mental health, safe and secure development, richer artistic appreciation and perspectives in life, increased effectiveness among members.

As stated by Payne (1994), there are four types of models to be considered: a management model, a judicial model, a consumer model, and an anthropological model. In the first model, a ‘management model’, the
basic idea is to provide information to management to help them in making decisions about programs and products. The models considered here included Utilization Focused Evaluation of Michael Patton and the CIPP (context, input, process, product) model of Daniel Stufflebeam. This type of evaluation determines what the program plans on doing and helps in making program-structuring decisions.

The second model is called a ‘judicial model’ which is based on the judicial metaphor. It is assumed that the potential for evaluation bias by a single evaluator cannot be ruled out, and therefore, each ‘side’ should have a separate evaluator to make their case. For example, one evaluator can examine and present the evidence for terminating a program and another evaluator can examine and present the evidence for continuing the program.

The third model is a ‘consumer model’ which is based on the consumer product metaphor. This kind of model is summative. For example, when one reads Consumer Reports, one’s goal is to learn if a product is good or not and how well it stacks up against similar products and whether one wishes to purchase it. In short, we are looking at the merit and worth (absolute and relative) of a particular product.

The model that is most suitable for this study is an ‘anthropological model’ which includes ‘responsive evaluation’ and ‘goal-free evaluation’. The principle of this model has been defined by Guba & Lincoln (1985), as follows:

In all of these approaches the evaluator ‘enters the field’ and observes what is going on in the program. Participant and non-participant observation are commonly used. Additional data are also regularly collected (e.g., focus groups, interview, questionnaire, and secondary data) especially for the purpose of triangulation.

Stake (1975), specifically, uses the term ‘responsive’ because he wants evaluators to be flexible and responsive to the concerns and issues of
program stakeholders. He also believes that qualitative methods provide the means to be the most responsive.

The volunteer training program evaluation required the stakeholders to participate in the process. Responsive evaluation has served this requirement by examining the process and the participants involved in the three stages: antecedents, transactions and outcomes. Responsive evaluation was chosen in this study as it seemed to be most appropriate tool for the evaluation of the training programs. According to Stake (1980):

Responsive evaluation is an approach to the evaluation of educational and other programs. Compared to most other approaches it is oriented more to the activity, the uniqueness and the social plurality of the program

The evaluation information was aimed at improvement and development of an existing activity. It involved some assessment of how the activity is reaching its goals, but concentrated on how the activity can be improved and made more effective. As well, responsive evaluation was chosen to assess many practical programs.

In a study of ‘Application of a responsive evaluation approach in medical education’ by Curran et al. (2003), they have concluded that:

responsive evaluation is derived from the naturalistic paradigm and concentrates on examining the educational process rather than predefined outcomes of the process. Responsive evaluation results are perceived as having more relevance to stakeholder concerns and issues and therefore more likely to be acted upon’.

It was also expected in this study that responsive evaluation would help improve the existing program:

Conducting an evaluation that is responsive to the needs of these groups will ensure that evaluative information is meaningful and more likely to be used for program enhancement and improvement
Another example of the use of responsive evaluation in the educational program is contained in the article ‘Responsive assessment of clinical competence: part 2’ by Neary (2000). This study refers to the description and judgement of responsive evaluation – and so is related to the main characteristics of my study. Neary points out that a primary reason for suggesting a responsive assessment model in clinical competence is that responsive assessment changes the assessor’s role by requiring two actions: description and judgement. Description is the process of providing necessary information about the student. Judgement involves a value component. The assessor is assumed to be qualified to decide the relative value of a student performance. Assessments become a process for describing students and judging the merit and worth of their performance:

the author freely acknowledges that this sketch of responsive assessment constitutes thinking in progress. It is rooted in the realities, including strengths and weaknesses, of what the author has seen in the field, conceptualised through what might be believed to be the leading edges of nursing education theory.

What is important in my study is that it concerns all four stakeholders: volunteers, tourists, trainers and program staff. Responsive evaluation is evaluation based on what people do naturally to evaluate things: they observe and react. To judge whether such evaluation is responsive requires a number of specific criteria. According to Stake (1975), an evaluation is responsive: one, if it orients more directly to program activities than to program intents; two, if it responds to audience requirements for information; and three, if the different value-perspectives of the people at hand are referred to in reporting the success and failure of the program. Stake (1975) highlights its value in formative evaluation, thus:

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

Summary

As previously discussed, research has shown that responsive evaluation can be used to evaluate the volunteer police training program, especially during the training program itself. Responsive evaluation tends to focus on the activities that concern the stakeholders, in this study the program staff, trainers, trainees and tourists. Responsive evaluation was chosen to help identify their needs and problems during the training programs. Description and judgement of the information were to be the main characteristics of the evaluation. Description and judgement of any training programs is useful as it may be used to show how successful it was. Responsive evaluation, by providing the supporting characteristics of both formative and summative evaluation, offers the best solution for the evaluation of training programs.

Statement of the problem

Volunteer training programs in Thailand have never been formally evaluated; in particular, a formal evaluation of volunteer training programs has never been undertaken by the Thai tourist police. The main reason for the setting up of volunteer training programs has been the lack of personnel in the tourist police division. The proportion of the tourists visiting Phuket each year to the number of tourist police in the area is 1:1,000. The ratio shows the unbalance of the rescuer and the victim; thus, leading to an overburdening of the tourist police in the area.

The volunteer training program was initiated by the tourist police and have been operating for more than five years in the main tourist areas of Chiang Mai, Phuket and Pattaya. Most of the tourists visiting these areas are Europeans (the majority of whom speak English, at least as a second language) and Chinese. Communication problems have arisen all the time
because the volunteer tourist police have limited English language skills. In the 2004 tsunami disaster that caused huge damage to the area and led to a very large loss of lives, the major needs were effective communication and provision of first aid. To know how to protect oneself and others is a necessary component of tourist police operations. To do this requires being trained in spoken English and first aid, as a minimum level of competence.

Previously, the local Thai people had been used to leading their traditional way of life. Now, the local people realise the importance of promoting the tourist attractions in their area in order to generate income in their area. One way to assist in this promotion is to become a member of the volunteer tourist police.

A variety of approaches indicating how evaluation might be used in improving the volunteer training program have been considered. There has not, to this time, been any comprehensive research to demonstrate that a particular evaluation process has been used to improve police training programs, nor any framework devised to propose the most suitable approach of evaluation in the volunteer training program. My research is therefore the first of its kind in this particular field of endeavour.

**Significance of the Study**

The major premises of this study are that responsive evaluation is able to provide answers to what happens, and what the significant problems are, in the setting up of a volunteer training program. Responsive evaluation is able to be done during the program delivery; thus, providing information for those persons involved: responsive evaluation focuses on the stakeholders who are involved in the training program. Therefore, responsive evaluation offers itself as an ideal evaluation approach for the volunteer training program.

This study, then, aims to improve and increase the efficiency of the Thai Tourist Police Volunteer Training Program using responsive evaluation. In summary, I will undertake a responsive evaluation that is expected to
explore the efficiency as well as the response of tourists to the assistance they
got from the volunteers. Such information can be used as a guideline for the
improvement of the volunteer training programs. This study is also
considered a necessary introductory step which can be followed by other
volunteer training programs. The purpose of the present study is to answer
the following research question:

**What are the most effective ways of improving volunteer tourist police
training program in Phuket?**

Three related sub-questions will be addressed:

1. **What are the factors involved in developing volunteer tourist
   police training programs?**
2. **In what ways can current training programs be adapted to
   produce successful volunteer tourist police training
   programs?**
3. **What are the policy implications for the development of
   similar training programs?**

**Structure of the study**

In order to provide an overall perspective of this study, this dissertation is
divided into five chapters as follows:

**Chapter 1**

In this chapter, the introduction and rationale for the study are presented.
This includes an overview of the study and its context, its background and
research questions, its contribution to knowledge, and its significance.

**Chapter 2**

In this chapter, the literature associated with the theories and application
concepts used in this study are reviewed: the Responsive Form of Program
Evaluation (Owen with Rogers, 1999; Owen, 2006). Volunteerism and
training program for adults are major issues in the study since the training programs are provided for volunteers who are adults.

Chapter 3

This chapter explains the research methodology and research design for the study. In each phase, details of the participants, and data collection and analysis methods are provided.

Chapter 4

This chapter presents an analysis of the findings. The findings are discussed in terms of the three steps used in the methodology, namely, the antecedents, the transactions and the outcomes. Case studies of each of the three programs are presented.

Chapter 5

In this chapter, conclusions regarding the overall findings, together with recommendations, are presented.
CHAPTER 2

Review of Related Literature

Introduction

The evaluative nature of this study requires background knowledge of evaluation research. This chapter therefore provides an overview of general theories and models of evaluation. Responsive evaluation and case study methodologies, in particular, are emphasised. This chapter also includes a description of the volunteer training program and the nature of adult education. Finally, several documented studies are presented that depict methodologies that have been used in actual evaluation research.

This study aims to use responsive evaluation approach in order to improve and increase the efficiency of the Thai tourist police volunteer training program.

Overview of major issues on evaluation and training program

Training programs are found in all organisations where professional development is needed. To achieve the goals and to ensure that a training program is successful is the expectation of all training program staff. To determine the success of such a training program requires an evaluation. Program evaluation may be used as a tool to provide information regarding
the effectiveness of training programs as well as to provide evidence regarding the outcomes of that program.

**Program Evaluation**

Program evaluation has become more and more important in the last few years, and it use has been found to help improve programs that are being implemented. Program evaluation refers to a systematic process of collecting and analysing information about efficiency, effectiveness, and impact of programs and services (Boulmetis & Dutwin, 2000). Program evaluation is done for reasons of periodic accreditation review, improvement of an individual course, modification of the mix of course offerings, and so on. Additional reasons for evaluating a program are accreditation, accountability, increasing program quality, monitoring program operation, providing feedback to help participants learn, reporting on learner progress, improving a course, recognizing and correcting a source of failure, making public the criteria for judging program quality, and enhancing critical and reflective thinking (Brinkerhoff, 1987; Posavac & Carey, 1992; Ramsden, 1992; Curry, Wergin & Associates 1993; Caffarella, 1994; Rothwell & Cookson, 1997).

This study aims to use responsive evaluation to assess the effectiveness of the training programs provided for volunteer tourist police. Evaluation of an educational program for adults reflects efforts to ensure that the program characteristics fit together (Worthen & Sanders, 1987). This might entail selecting program objectives, content, instructors, and materials that fit enterprise and learner expectation, within resource limitations (Curry, Wergin & Associates, 1993). The program evaluation in this study also concerns goals of the training program, content in the three training programs, trainers or instructor, and materials of each training program.

**Definition and meaning of program evaluation**

Evaluation is a practical management tool for understanding and improving the performance of projects, and demonstrating the impact of programs and
projects. This idea is supported by Fleischman & Williams (1996) who state that one purpose of any evaluation is to examine and assess the implementation and effectiveness of specific instructional activities in order to make adjustments of changes in those activities. Fleischman & Williams (1996) believe that evaluation is a tool which can be used to help teachers judge whether a curriculum or instructional approach is being implemented as planned, and to assess the extent to which stated goals and objectives are being achieved. Thus, it is useful to consider evaluation in many aspects such as how it develops and how a program is interpreted.

First of all, definition of program needs to be mentioned. Smith (1989) defines a program as: ‘a set of planned activities directed toward bringing about specified changes in an identified and identifiable audience’. Stufflebeam (2001) observes that ‘evaluation means a study designed and conducted to assist some audience to assess an object’s merit and worth’. Program evaluation has a primary function to show whether or not the program has worth; this approach has been accepted for many years. Scriven (1991) argues that evaluation is about determining the merit or worth of the object being evaluated. The object can be a program, a product, a policy or one-off event. Stufflebeam (1994) defines evaluation as ‘the application of social science methods to measure goal attainment’ or ‘the systematic investigation of the merit or worth of an object’.

Variations on the concept of evaluation that emphasise change, merit and improvement respectively, are addressed by Alkin (1990), Scriven (1991) and Cronbach (1980):

- the activity of systematically collecting, analysing and reporting information that can then be used to change attitudes or to improve the operation of a project or program. The word systematic stipulates that the valuation must be planned (Alkin, 1990);
Chapter 2 Review of Related Literature

- the process of determining the merit, worth or value of something, or the product of that process (Scriven, 1991);
- the systematic examination of events occurring in and consequent on a contemporary program – examination conducted to assist in improving this program and other programs having the same general purpose (Cronbach, 1980)

McNamara (1998, p. 3) argues that evaluation is a necessary consequence of the implementation of a program:

What is a program? Typically, organisations work from their mission to identify several overall goals which must be reached to accomplish their mission. In nonprofits, each of these goals often becomes a program. Nonprofit programs are organized methods to provide certain related services to constituents, e.g., clients, customers, patients, etc. Programs must be evaluated to decide if the programs are indeed useful to constituents. It seems that any kind of program need to be evaluated. Thus, it can be seen that program evaluation is needed once the program has been implemented.

As a consequence of this, he identifies a large number of ‘types’ of evaluation:

Program evaluation is carefully collecting information about a program or some aspect of a program in order to make necessary decisions about the program. Program evaluation can include any or a variety of at least 35 different types of evaluation, such as for needs assessments, accreditation, cost/benefit analysis, effectiveness, efficiency, formative, summative, goal-based, process, outcomes, etc.

These concepts match well with this study, in that it tends to investigate how well the existing program has been operated. Besides, the study reveals the way the responsive evaluation has been chosen in evaluating the existing volunteer training program. The results will help the
program staff and the policy makers decide what should be supported or improved.

When planning any program evaluation, factors needed to be considered are input, process, output and outcomes. McNamara (1998) points out that:

inputs are the various resources needed to run the program, e.g., money, facilities, customers, clients, program staff, etc. The process is how the program is carried out, e.g., customers are served, clients are counselled, children are cared for, art is created, association members are supported, etc. The outputs are the units of service, e.g., number of customers serviced, number of clients counselled, children cared for, artistic pieces produced, or members in the association. Outcomes are the impacts on the customers or on clients receiving services, e.g., increased mental health, safe and secure development, richer artistic appreciation and perspectives in life, increased effectiveness among members, etc.

Program evaluation has a duty to serve and support what has been done. Arguments against evaluation have been pointed out by McNamara (1998, p. 2) on the basis that evaluations tended to ‘state the obvious’ and failed to suggest directions for change:

Many people believe is a useless activity that generates lots of boring data with useless conclusions. This was a problem with evaluations in the past when program evaluation methods were chosen largely on the basis of achieving complete scientific accuracy, reliability and validity. This approach often generated extensive data from which very carefully chosen conclusions were drawn. Generalizations and recommendations were avoided. As a result, evaluation reports tended to reiterate the obvious and left program administrator disappointed and sceptical about the value of evaluation in general.

The arguments against evaluation emerged from the perception from the unclear evidence of the program evaluation results. In the past, program evaluation focused on macro data that did not focus on program results.
McNamara (1998, p. 2) identifies three common myths about program evaluation as follows:

- Evaluation is an extraneous activity that generates lots of boring data with useless conclusions.
- Evaluation is about proving the success or failure of a program.
- Evaluation is a unique and complex process that occurs at a certain time in a certain way, and almost always include the use of outside experts.

During the 1990s, these ‘myths’ about evaluation have been diminished by a greater emphasis being placed on the utilisation of the outcomes of evaluation.

Owen with Rogers (1999, p. 2), building on the work of Stufflebeam and Patton, have broadened the scope of program evaluation by broadening what they call ‘typical evaluation scenarios’ that occur in familiar situations:

- A philanthropic agency has funded an after-school recreation program as part of an initiative to reduce juvenile crime. After several years, an evaluation is commissioned to see whether the program has been effective.
- A new community centre is being planned. An analysis of the needs of the community, including population information, availability of other facilities and a feasibility study is put in train.
- Weekly and monthly measures of performance of major programs administered by a state government department are mandated by the state treasury.

Scenarios, such as those suggested by Owen with Rogers (1999), could happen anywhere and anytime. Different scenarios require different evaluation approach. At the same time, the purpose of each program needs to be considered. Fleischman & Williams (1996) provide an example of an evaluation that had two purposes:
• to ensure that the funds were being used to address the needs of disadvantaged children;
• to provide information that would empower parents and communities to push for better education.

To ensure that an evaluation will be utilised, Owen with Rogers (1999, p. 3), stress a five-step process:
• negotiating an evaluation plan;
• collecting and analysing evidence to produce findings; and
• disseminating the findings to identified audiences for use in:
  • describing or understanding an evaluand; or
  • making judgements and/or decisions related to that evaluand.

As a consequence, Owen with Rogers (1999) define the purpose of evaluation as negotiating, collecting and disseminating a set of findings. This process includes the step at the beginning by discussing what to evaluate. The first step is important since it involves the plan and its purpose. The step of collecting and analysing the evidence is also important since it involves the findings. The last step is the most important step since it involves the results showing whether the program is effective or not. Evaluation is to be done under the consideration of involving audiences and evaluand which is an important in the evaluation process.

**A brief history of program evaluation**

As mentioned earlier that there has been an attempt to improve evaluation for many years, program evaluation itself has been put into practice for many years. According to Worthen (1990), the first clear evidence of formal program evaluation appears to be Joseph Rice’s 1897-1898 comparative study of spelling performance of 33,000 students in a large United States school system. Few formal evaluations of educational programs were conducted in the next few decades, with Tyler and Smith’s eight-year study
of the 1930s being the next notable effort to evaluate the outcomes of an educational program. During 1950s and 1960s, a large number of persons serving in evaluation roles were educational and psychological researchers. Although some evaluators cautioned that correct use of the experimental model may not be feasible, the elegance and precision of this model lead most program evaluators to view the experimental method as the ideal model for program evaluations.

Stufflebeam (2001) points out that program evaluation has developed by many people over a long period of time:


However, there is dissatisfaction with the traditional quantitative methods for program evaluation, thus leading them to choose qualitative and naturalistic methods. During 1970s, applications of program evaluation were made by Parlett & Hamilton, Stake, Eisner, Guba & Lincoln, and others. The late 1970s and the early 1980s saw the dialogue begin to move beyond this debate as analysts accelerated their discussions of the benefits of integrating both types of method within a program evaluation (for instance see Cook and Reichardt 1979, Worthen 1981, and the summary by Madey, 1982) It can be clearly seen that program evaluation has its own development and could yield benefit to the organisation.

To conclude, the development of program evaluation is observed over a period of thirty years. Initially, evaluation was carried out as a quantitative
study and yielded results that showed only the accuracy and the reliability of the results. Later on, precise information together with the opinions of the persons involved were added. There were some arguments against evaluation, but there are many attempts to develop and improve the new type of evaluation to suit the organisation. Currently, its purpose is to develop the most useful program evaluation for the organisation.

While it can be said that program evaluation is important in organisations, the outcomes have to be of use. McNamara (1998, p. 3) suggests that, to be of greatest use, program evaluation must help fulfil the following:

1. to understand, verify or increase the impact of products or services on customers or clients;
2. to improve delivery mechanisms to be more efficient and less costly;
3. to verify that you’re doing what you think you are doing;
4. to facilitate management’s really thinking about what their program is all about, including its goals, how it meets its goals and it will know if it has met its goals or not;
5. to produce data or verify results that can be used for public relations and promoting services in the community;
6. to produce valid comparisons between programs to decide which should be retained;
7. to fully examine and describe effective programs for duplication elsewhere.

These seven considerations regarding program evaluation need to be considered before designing any program evaluation in order that the program evaluation might yield the most benefit to the evaluator and the organisation.
**Evaluation concepts and procedures**

Evaluation has its own concepts and procedures to be followed, whether applied generally, or specifically, such as in the evaluation of a training program. Basic evaluation concepts and procedures applied to adult education are addressed by both Burnham (1995) and Boulmetis & Dutwin (2000). All agree that, initially, the purpose of any program evaluation must be determined. In this respect, Knox (2002, p 27) points out the following:

> program and evaluation objectives may be set at the beginning and serve as a reference point for evaluation planning, or later in the program to allow participants to help decide on their value intended outcomes.

The next aspect of program evaluation is to determine the stakeholders or the participant in the program. It is important that stakeholders should be involved in the program especially in an evaluation which involves many stakeholders. Knox (2002) points out that a successful evaluation requires attention to both technical procedures and to gaining the cooperation of stakeholders. Stakeholders should have their voice in the program evaluation in order that they might share experience and ideas. Such contribution from stakeholders can only help in improving a program. When invested parties feel they have a voice in the planning and implementation of needed services, they are more likely to be supportive of ongoing efforts to improve those services (Ernst & Herbert, 2002) Additional suggestions regarding evaluation stakeholders are available from Grotelueschen et al. (1976); Knox & Associates (1980); Knox (1985); Braskamp & Ory (1994); Quigley & Kuhne (1997); and Patton (1997).

Knox (2002 p. 31) emphasises the importance of identifying criteria, standards and guidelines:

> ... evaluation planning can be enhanced by an overview of evaluation concepts, which can guide decisions by using suggested standards, criteria, and guidelines.
In this study, planning is to be done carefully and involves not only trainers but the program staff and even the administrative staff. Additional suggestions regarding evaluation planning are available in Knox (1986), Brinkerhoff (1987), Flagg (1990). and Worthen et al (1997).

According to Knox (2002), analysis entails making judgements and drawing conclusions related to the purpose of the evaluation. Judgements reflect both facts and values. Even the selection of a procedure is influenced by the assumptions and beliefs of program stakeholders and evaluation coordinators. This study aims to use responsive evaluation which requires both descriptive and judgement data. Judgement here could reflect both facts and values in the training programs. In the interest of utilization of conclusions, data analysis and interpretation should reflect sound and valid conclusions, ethical procedures, and responsiveness to the evaluation issues and goals (Knox et al, 1974; Hopkins, Glass & Hopkins, 1987; Guba & Lincoln, 1989; Strauss & Corban, 1990;).

**Evaluation as a process**

An important aspect of evaluation, apart from type of evaluation itself, is the identification of evaluation as a process. It is unavoidable in any organisation to set the evaluation criteria for the purpose of those policymakers and program developers to check their performance and do their further development. In fact evaluation requires more than evaluators and the tools. House (1993, p. 3) suggests that evaluation consists of:

... collecting data, including relevant variables and standards, resolving inconsistencies in the values, clarifying misunderstandings and misrepresentations, rectifying false facts and factual assumptions, distinguishing between wants and needs, identifying all relevant dimensions of merit, finding appropriate measures for these dimensions, weighing the dimensions, validating the standards, and arriving at an evaluative conclusion.
Thus, evaluation requires more than getting the feedback from those involved but evaluation needs the process and step. The evaluation process can be described as six progressive steps (Fleischman & Williams, 1996):

1. define the purpose and scope of the evaluation;
2. specify the evaluation questions;
3. develop the evaluation design and data collection plan;
4. collect the data;
5. analyse the data;
6. use the evaluation report for program improvement.

The six steps need to be done successively. The first step involves designing the purpose and scope. This step helps set the limits of evaluation and determine the specific component of the program. The next step is to form the evaluation questions based on the purpose and scope of the evaluation. Then the design of evaluation and data collection plan which is important in the evaluation process is considered. After that the collection of data followed by the analysis of data. The final stage in the process is to use the evaluation report for program improvement. Fleischman & Williams (1996) put it this way: ‘The evaluation should not be considered successful until its results are used to improve instruction and student success’.

To conclude, this study was intended to reveal how effective the training programs were, with both individuals and the program as the evaluands, i.e., the objects of the evaluation. This is supported by McNamara (1998, p. 3) who suggests, that when designing program evaluations, there are seven key questions to considered, as follows:

1. For what purposes is the evaluation being done?
2. Who are the audiences for the information from the evaluation?
3. What do you need in order to make an informed decision and/or enlighten your intended audiences?
4. From what sources should the information be called?
5. How can that information be collected?
6. When is the information needed and by when must it be collected?
7. What resources are available to collect the information?

It is important that the evaluator and the program staff should note that such an evaluation process requires a systematic approach with specific steps to be followed. As well, any kind of program evaluation involves many persons and that different levels of data necessarily need to be collected and classified accordingly.

**New Wave Evaluation**

Evaluation has been undergoing change for many years. Previously, traditional evaluation had been well accepted and was used to measure effectiveness by examining whether or not a program had reached required standards on pre-specified criteria. This type of evaluation failed to address the concerns of participants and other interested parties. This study adopted an evaluative approach that encompassed the democratic ideals of Robert Stake (1975), Barry MacDonald (1976) and Ernest House (1986) to point out whether or not the training programs provided by the tourist police in Phuket proved to be successful. The key feature of democratically-oriented evaluations is sensitivity to the values of all stakeholders and participants; this principle was applied in this study: the responses from stakeholders highlighted those factors that would lead to an improvement in the training programs.

An alternative to traditional evaluation is illuminative evaluation. Illuminative evaluation, according to Parlett & Hamilton (1972) became more practical with this form of evaluation which ‘took account of wider contexts and was primarily concerned with description and interpretation rather than measurement and prediction’.
Illuminative evaluation, which has been divided into steps of observation and interviewing, is suitable within the context of this study. This study aimed to consider responses of stakeholders in wider contexts and those responses were treated with confidentiality and personal respect. They were not interfered with by those in senior positions.

According to Macdonald (1982), an evaluation is a political activity which requires the evaluator to uncover the power game. Besides, MacDonald advocated ‘democratic evaluation as it could be used as tool to judge the program’. He points out that ‘democratic evaluation is an information service to the whole community about the characteristics of an educational program. Sponsorship of the evaluation study does not in itself confer a special claim upon this service. The democratic evaluator recognizes value pluralism and seeks to represent a range of interests in his issue formulation’.

The other advantage of this approach, according to Kemmis & Robottom (1981, p.151) is that ‘the key concepts of democratic evaluation are confidentiality, negotiation, and accessibility. They further comment:

In evaluation contexts, it is necessary for evaluators, sponsors, project and program participants and evaluation audiences to know that their different rights and their different interests are protected in the procedure of an evaluation study.

This study adopted a ‘new wave evaluation’ approach which is an alternative way of evaluation and is able to respond to the stakeholders in a wider context. The alternative evaluation in this study focused the sensitivity of those respondents and treated all the responses with confidentiality. The training programs provided by the tourist police in Phuket were divided into three types: English language, specific skills and first aid skills. The three training programs had been set up to meet the needs of both staff and the tourist police. The need for English language arose from the popularity of Phuket among tourists as a tourist centre: tourists love spending their
vacation time there. Communication problems were known to arise when tourists wanted to make contact with local people or when they need help. Phuket tourist police workforce was not sufficiently skilled in conversational English so as English language class is initiated consisting of a 50-hour training program for volunteers with the emphasis on speaking and listening skills. Daily-life expressions and drills in speaking skills were taught in the classroom.

Specific skills program were provided by the police for the purpose of property and life protection. Specific skills include gun-shooting practice and life saving when swimming. Practice in this program has to be highly controlled by the trainers. Volunteers may only be allowed to have guns when they submit an application form and receive a permission card; otherwise, they cannot be armed.

First-aid skills are a required basic skill for those local people who live near a beach or other water-based tourist attractions. First-aid skills included life-saving from drowning, and treatment for food-poisoning. The rationale for putting the three training programs together arose as a result of common problems encountered by police and from complaints from local people.

**Types, purposes and issues in program evaluation**

Before identifying an appropriate evaluation strategy for any particular project, the purpose of the evaluation needs to be identified. The purpose of evaluation enables the identification and frame what the evaluation is going to look like. According to Owen with Rogers (1999, p. 67), five key purposes of evaluation have been identified, as follows:

1. *synthesis* is the way the evaluation is designed to develop outcome focused project objectives before a project begins;
2. *clarification* is the way the evaluation is designed to clarify the purpose of the project continuing throughout the duration of the project;

3. *improvement* is the way the evaluation is designed to improve the process of research throughout the project;

4. *finetuning* is the way the evaluation is designed to monitor the performance of the project throughout the duration of provide accountability information

5. *demonstrating accountability* is the way the evaluation is designed to demonstrate the impact of both planned and unplanned outcomes of the project after project completion.

Choosing the right Form of Evaluation for the programs is an important element of program evaluation. According to (Owen with Rogers, 1999, p. 67) the appropriate form provides a framework that will:

- summarize and organize the essential elements of program evaluation;
- provide a common frame of reference for conducting evaluations;
- clarify the steps in program evaluation;
- review standards for effective program evaluation;
- address misconceptions about the purpose and methods of program evaluation.

The steps in program evaluation practice with the most important sub points for each, as well as the standards that govern effective program evaluation are summarised in Table 2.1.

In this study, program evaluation will assist in reviewing the performance of the volunteers, suggesting changes in work style, and in seeking suggestions from the volunteers. The program evaluation will be carried out successfully if there is a process and plan, as follows: defining the
TABLE 2.1 STEPS AND STANDARDS IN EVALUATION

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Steps in Evaluation Practice</th>
<th>Standards for Effective Evaluation</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Engage stakeholders</td>
<td>Utility</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Those involved, those affected, primary intended users</td>
<td>Serve the information needs of intended users</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Describe the program</td>
<td>Feasibility</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Need, expected effects, activities, resources, stage, context, logic model</td>
<td>Be realistic, prudent, diplomatic, and frugal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Focus the evaluation design</td>
<td>Propriety</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Purpose, users, uses, questions, methods, agreements</td>
<td>Behave legally, ethically, and with due regard for the welfare of those involved and those affected</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gather credible evidence</td>
<td>Accuracy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Indicators, sources, quality, quantity, logistics</td>
<td>Reveal and convey technically accurate information</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Justify conclusions</td>
<td>Categories of evaluation techniques</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Standard analysis/synthesis, interpretation, judgement, recommendations</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ensure use and share lessons learned</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Design, preparation, feedback, follow-up, dissemination</td>
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</table>

Purpose and scope of the evaluation; specifying the evaluation questions; developing the evaluation design and data collection plan; collecting the data; analysing the data; and using the evaluation report for program improvement.

**Purpose of evaluation**

There are two major purposes of evaluation; namely, formative and summative evaluation; each has different characteristics and is used in different ways.

**Different views on formative and summative evaluation**

Formative and summative evaluations are the two kinds of evaluations which have different approaches. Each type serves the particular purpose of the evaluator. Kowalski (1988, p. 151) cites Scriven (1967) in defining summative evaluation as ‘a process designed to determine if a program should survive’. Grotelueschen (1980, p. 70) suggests that ‘most evaluations
for accountability are done on activities or programs that have been completed’. Formative evaluations, on the other hand, are evaluations that occur while the program is running with the purpose of gathering information about what to improve and how to improve the program (Deshler 1984, p. 7). Internal personnel conduct formative evaluations. According to Deshler (1984, p. 11)

Formative evaluation is most likely to be appropriate when a program is in its early stages. Summative evaluation is most helpful for a fully developed program.

Ultimately, if an evaluation is conducted systematically and integrated into the planning process, the program planner has a greater chance at gaining evidence for the purposes intended. Caffarella (2002, p. 230) points out, however, that ‘there is no one acceptable systematic process for conducting a program evaluation’.

Thus, whatever the purpose of evaluation, it is important to find the most suitable evaluation for any type of training program. This study tends to collect the information while the program is running until the end. Formative evaluation will be appropriate for this situation, and will aim at improvement of the program.

**Traditional and participative evaluations**

Traditional evaluation focuses on accountability through implementation of formal methods and a pre-determined design. Stakeholders often do not participate in the evaluation and the evaluation is conducted by outsiders. Participatory evaluation focuses on continuous improvement and learning through implementation of informal methods such as case studies, mini-surveys, personal interviews, and focus groups. Stakeholders participate in the evaluation, and the design is flexible to accommodate new learning as the project progresses. Outsiders may facilitate the process.
Types of evaluation approach

The conceptual frameworks for evaluation are summarized in Worthen & Sanders (1987) and they are clustered into five categories as follows:

Performance-objectives congruence approaches

This was formulated by Ralph Tyler, who conceived of evaluation as the process of determining the extent to which the educational objectives of a school program or curriculum are actually being attained. He proposed a process in which broad goals or objectives would be established or identified, defined in behavioural terms, and relevant student behaviours would be measured against this yardstick, using either standardized or evaluator-constructed instruments. These outcome data were then to be compared with the behavioural objectives to determine the extent to which performance was congruent with expectations. Discrepancies between performance and objectives would lead to modifications intended to correct the deficiency, and the evaluation cycle would be repeated.

Decision-management approaches

The most important contributions to a decision-oriented approach to program evaluation are Stufflebeam’s Context, Input, Process, and Product (CIPP) evaluation model and Alkin’s centre for the study of evaluation model, which follows a similar logic to the Context, Input, Process, and Product model but distinguishes between program implementation and program improvement, two subdivisions of what Stufflebeam terms process evaluation. In both models, objectives are eschewed as the organizer for the study and the decision to be made by program managers becomes pivotal. Stufflebeam has provided an analysis of types of decisions program managers are required to make and propose a different type of evaluation for each type of decision. In both of these decision-oriented models, the evaluator, working closely with the program manager, would identify the decisions the latter must make and collect sufficient information about the relative advantages and disadvantages
of each decision alternative to enable the decision maker to make a judgement about which is best in terms of specified criteria. Thus, evaluation became explicitly shared function dependent on good teamwork between evaluators and decision makers.

Judgement-oriented approaches

This is the most widely used evaluation approach which is dependent upon experts’ application of professional expertise to yield judgements about a program being observed. For example, the worth of a program would be assessed by experts who would observe the program in action, examine its products or glean sufficient information to render their considered judgement about the program.

Another important judgement-oriented evaluation model is Robert Stake’s Countenance Model, in which he suggests that the two major activities of formal evaluation studies are description and judgement (the ‘two countenances’) of the program being evaluated. Within the description phase, Stake follows Tyler’s rationale of comparing intended and actual outcomes of the program. However, he argued that in the judgement phase standards and procedures for making judgemental statements must be explicated to ensure the publicness of evaluative statements.

Adversarial Approaches

Adversarial evaluation is a rubric that encompasses a collection of divergent evaluation practices which might loosely be referred to as adversarial in nature. In its broad sense, the term refers to all evaluations in which there is planned opposition in the points of view of different evaluators or evaluation terms- a planned effort to generate opposing points of view within the overall evaluation. Several types of adversarial proceedings have been invoked as models for adversary evaluations in education, including judicial, congressional hearings, and debate models. Of these, most of the sparse literature in this area has focused on adaptations of the legal paradigm,
Chapter 2

Review of Related Literature

providing insights into how concepts from the legal system could be used in educational evaluations. Owen with Rogers, Wolf, and others have adapted the legal model to educational evaluations, while Worthen and Rogers have described use of the debate model in an adversary evaluation and have discussed pitfalls and potentials often legal and other forensic paradigms in conducting program evaluations.

**Pluralist-Intuitionist Approaches**

Ernest House has used this descriptor to characterize several evaluation models, contrasting them with more ‘utilitarian’ models. In this approach to evaluation, the evaluator is a portrayer of different values and needs of all the individuals and groups served by the program, weighing and balancing this plurality of judgements and criteria in a largely intuitive fashion. Thus, the ‘best program’ is largely decided by the values and perspectives of whoever is judging. Examples of pluralist-intuitionist evaluation ‘models’ are those proposed by Stake, Parlett & Hamilton (1976).

Stake urges program evaluators to respond to the audience’s concerns and requirements for information, in terms of their value perspectives, and argues that the evaluation framework and focus should emerge only after considerable interaction with those audiences. Parlett & Hamilton (1976,p.100) draw on the social anthropology paradigm in proposing progressive focusing of an evaluation whose purpose is to describe and interpret that which exists within an educational system. Such issues as housing, health and poverty, were first initiated (Shadish et al, 1991). In many cases, these programs were furnished with high hopes and equally high expenditures. As these programs grew and matured there was a growing desire to ascertain whether or not they were ‘working’ and/or how they might work better. Thus, the field of program evaluation was established to address these pertinent issues. The field of program evaluation has subsequently evolved into a diverse and eclectic field incorporating a vast array of theoretical and methodological approaches.
As suggested by McNamara (1998), there are three types of evaluation to be considered:

- **Goal-based evaluation which is established to meet one or more specific goals.** Goals-based evaluations involve evaluating the extent to which programs are meeting predetermined goals or objectives.

- **Process evaluations which are geared to fully understanding how a program works-how it produces the results that it does.** These evaluations are useful when long-standing programs have changed over the years, when employees or customers report numerous complaints about the program, or when there appear to be inefficiencies in delivering program services. They are also useful for accurately portraying to outside parties how a program truly operates.

- **Outcomes evaluation which focus on outcomes.** An outcomes evaluation helps you decide if you are really conducting the right program activities to bring about the results you believe to be needed by your clients. Outcomes are benefits to clients from participation in the program. Outcomes are usually stated in terms of enhanced learning or conditions, e.g., increased literacy, self-reliance, etc. Outcomes should not be confused with program outputs or units of services.

The three program evaluation has different aim and focus. This study tends to consider the process of evaluation and the outcome. The responsive evaluation was chosen then since it explores the three steps of the training program.
Owen with Rogers (1999) suggest that evaluation can be classified conceptually into five Forms, as follows: proactive, clarificative, interactive, monitoring and impact.

- **Proactive evaluation**: the three major approaches include needs assessment, research review and benchmarking.

- **Clarificative evaluation**: the major approaches are logic development or evaluability assessment and accreditation.

- **Interactive evaluation**: there are a number of approaches, namely, responsive evaluation which involves the documentation or illumination of the delivery of a program, see (Parlett & Hamilton, 1976), action research which involves determining whether or not innovatory approaches to delivery are making a difference, quality review which involves providing system level guidelines within which providers had a large amount of control over the evaluation agenda, developmental evaluation and empowerment evaluation which involves assisting program providers and participants to develop and evaluate their own programs, as part of a broader goal of giving citizens more control over their own lives and their destiny.

- **monitoring evaluation**: the approaches include component analysis, developed performance assessment and system analysis.

- **impact evaluation**: the approaches include objectives-based evaluation, process-outcomes studies, needs-based evaluation, goal-free evaluation, performance audit.

It can be noted that responsive evaluation, one of the approach belonging to interactive evaluation was chosen in this study. This is because the existing program needs improvement. Interactive evaluation provides information about delivery or implementation of a program or about selected component elements or activities. (Owen, 2000). It can be clearly seen that
the principle of interactive evaluation could fit well with the purpose of the study. Interactive evaluation can be concerned with the documentation or incremental improvement of an innovation, or establishing what is happening to help staff to understand more fully how and why a program operates in given way. (Owen, 2000). This concept would yield benefit to the program staff of the volunteer training program.

Once the type and purpose of evaluation has been decided upon, it is possible to develop appropriate evaluation questions and approaches. Smith (1987) perceives that, fundamentally, evaluation is a process of answering questions. Thus, the importance of developing good evaluation questions cannot be overestimated. Owen with Rogers (1999) point out that evaluation questions help us to determine the data management techniques that we use. A distinguishing feature of evaluation practice is a need to have access to a repertoire of methods, to select and use data management methods that are the most suitable for answering the questions which focus the evaluation.

Figure 2.1 shows the way the data management is involved in evaluation. Essential aspects of data management in evaluation include:

- the assembly of evidence—the collection of data relevant to each evaluation question; and
- analysis of evidence—making sense of these data through systematic data analysis techniques.

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Responsive Evaluation

Responsive evaluation has been well known for many years. In fact, the history of the term ‘responsive evaluation’ is a rich one; the meaning of the concept has also changed over time (Greene & Abma, 2001). The concept was first put forward by Robert Stake (Stake, 1975) in the field of arts education in order to broaden the scope of evaluation to include stakeholder
issues as well evaluation was heavily influenced by Stake’s writings on responsive evaluation.

In addition to being focused on process, responsive evaluation takes account of the perspectives and values of different stakeholders, and is oriented towards the information requirements of audiences, often the providers of the program. According to Payne (1994), Stake uses the term responsive because he wants evaluators to be flexible and responsive to the concerns and issues of program stakeholders. He also believes that qualitative methods provide the way to be the most responsive. According to Robert Stake (1975), responsive evaluation focuses on re-directing data gathering and interpretative efforts around emerging issues of importance to program practitioners and other stakeholders in the evaluation setting.

The idea of responsive evaluation suggested by Stake has been analysed further. For example, Guba & Lincoln (1989) rely on Stake’s responsive evaluation and distinguish four generations in the historical development of evaluation: measurement, description, judgement and negotiation. ‘Measurement’ includes the collection of quantitative data. ‘Description’ refers to the identification of the features of a program or policy. ‘Judgement’ is the assessment of the quality of a program based on a comparison between standards and actual effects. The authors identify several shortcomings related to the first-three generations. First of all there is a ‘management bias’: goals and intentions of policymakers are taken over as standards for judgement. Secondly, evaluation findings are hardly used in decision-making. Thirdly, there is no dialogue with and between stakeholders, while their interests are at stake. On these grounds the author proposes an alternative. The term ‘negotiation’ characterizes the essence of responsive evaluation.

The essence of responsive evaluation for Stake (2004) is the recognition of quality in the existing activities. For Stake, it is not intentionally a participatory and transformative process, but rather a broadly
sensitive search among what already exists (Abma & Stake, 2001). This is a distinguishing feature of responsive evaluation.

Stufflebeam (2001) highlights the action research nature of responsive evaluation as strength:

A major strength of the responsive/client-centred approach is that it involves action-research, in which people funding, implementing, and using programs are helped to conduct their own evaluations and use the findings to improve their understanding, decisions, and actions. The evaluation looks deeply into the stakeholders’ main interest and search broadly for relevant information. They also examine the program’s rationale, background, process, and outcomes. They make effective use of qualitative methods and triangulate findings from different sources.

In a responsive evaluation stakeholders should actively participate in the evaluation process; they are involved in the formulation of questions, the selection of participants and the interpretation of findings (Greene, 1997). Stakeholders in this study become active and equal partners in the evaluation. The distinguished feature of responsive evaluation is that criteria to assess the program’s effectiveness are not only derived from the goals and intentions of policy-makers, but include a wide range of issues of as many stakeholders as possible, including policy-makers, managers, practitioners, community representatives and citizens (Stake, 1975, 2004; Guba & Lincoln, 1989; Greene & Abma, 2001)

**Validation strategy**

A responsive approach will start with the collection of issues of stakeholders. It does so by using quantitative and qualitative methods (Stake & Abma, 2005). The combination of various methods leads to better, more comprehensive and more insightful understandings (Greene et al, 2005). The credibility of interpretations in the eyes of stakeholders as a validation strategy requires that respondents receive interpretations of (group) interviews with the questions if they recognize the analysis (Meadows &
Morse, 2001). Triangulation of sources and the use of mixed methods will help to include different perspectives and values and to prevent biases (Greene et al, 2005). Keeping a reflexive logbook or journal is a good way to keep track of the process and the evaluator’s role in it.

Responsive evaluation results in context-bound knowledge. This local knowledge can be generalized from the studied context of readers of the evaluation-report if it contains ‘thick description’ (Geertz, 1973). Thick descriptions not only reveal factual details, but also include meanings of experiences and events. Whether or not the results can be transferred to other situations is in large part to be decided by the reader.

The quality of the process is partly dependent on the created power-balance: all participants should be able to have ‘a say’. Authenticity refers to the enhancement of personal and mutual understanding, changes in perspectives, and increased opportunities to act. In responsive evaluation one especially has to be aware of power relations (Koch, 2000). One should try to find means to give voice to people and groups that are less powerful. Giving voice means creating a safe space for people to express their issues and concerns. It also includes the representation of different voice in the evaluation reports. One way to give voice to people is to have in-depth interviews with them. Another is to organize homogeneous groups, in which people with the same position in the system can exchange experiences. These then can be introduced as issues in other stakeholder groups. By presenting such issues through stories, a climate of open discussion and dialogue may be fostered. Active engagement of as many stakeholders as possible and deliberation minimizes the chance of bias and domination of one party. Afterwards, it needs to be checked whether the dialogical process was really open.

**Stakeholders in responsive evaluation and their roles**

Since ‘stakeholders’ is the key word in responsive evaluation, it is necessary to explore what is implied by this term. A stake is a share or an interest in an
enterprise, which can be fiscal, but can also represent individual or organisational reputations and aspirations, political influence, and resources such as time and energy (Guba & Lincoln, 1981). Stakeholders are defined as those who have a stake in the program under review or as individuals with a vested interest in the outcome of evaluation (Gold, 1983; House, 1993; Patton, 1997). According to Abma (2005), stakeholders are groups of people whose interests are at stake. Aspinwall et al, (1992, pp. 84-5) provide a comprehensive analysis of the concept of stakeholders in the context of educational evaluations and state that

A stakeholder, then, is any group or individual affected by, or who can affect the future of the organisation, program or activity. Stakeholders can be both internal (e.g., staff) and external (e.g., parents) to the school. The stakeholders in any given program will thus be determined by the nature and context of the program.

Criteria in a responsive evaluation are derived from the issues of various stakeholders. The issues gradually emerge in conversation with stakeholders and should be related to underlying value-systems in order to facilitate the negotiations and mutual understanding. Stufflebeam (2001) points out that the responsive approach stresses the importance of searching widely for unintended, as well as intended outcomes. It also gives credence to the meaningful participation in the evaluation by the full range of interested stakeholders.

Evaluation criteria to assess the program’s effectiveness are not only derived from the goals and intentions of policymakers, but include a wide range of issues of as many stakeholders as possible, including policymakers, managers, practitioners, community and target-groups (Stake, 1975; Guba & Lincoln, 1989; Stake & Abma, 2005). In a responsive evaluation, stakeholders should actively participate in the evaluation process; they are involved in the formulation of questions, the selection of participants and the interpretation of findings (Greene, 1997). Stakeholders become active and
equal partners in the evaluation. Deliberate attention should be paid to the identification of ‘victims’ or ‘silenced voices’ (Lincoln, 1993), because they are often hard to find, for example, because they want to remain anonymous or because they fear sanctions.

According to Markleewicz (2005), there are three main models that conceptualise the involvement of stakeholders. The first model is stakeholder-directed evaluation, where the authority and initiative for the conduct of the study arises from the stakeholder group. This model can also be termed ‘citizen run’ or ‘self-evaluation’ (Peters et al, 1979, in Ayers 1987, p. 266). The second model, termed the ‘stakeholder collaborative model’ (Ayers, 1987, p. 266) involves the evaluator and stakeholders in joint planning, administration and reporting of the results of the evaluation. In the third approach, termed the ‘stakeholder based model’(Ayers, 1987, p. 266), the stakeholders are involved in planning and report review, but the evaluation professional is primarily responsible, retaining control, and taking into account stakeholder input and influence.

More importantly, evaluators have the important role in the evaluation process. Evaluators who are both responsive and flexible are most effective in engaging stakeholders in the evaluation process (Alkin et al. 1997). Abma (2005) points out that besides the identification of issues, the evaluator should create conditions for the interaction between stakeholders. This is a deliberative process. Deliberation refers to the interaction and dialogue between participants.

Three broad groups of stakeholders emerge from the literature (Weiss 1983a, 1983b; Guba & Lincoln 1989a; Berk & Rossi, 1990). These are: policy makers and senior management staff; practitioners or community members who operationalise the program; service users or clients and their representatives. All of these can be identified as participants or ‘stakeholders’. Dialogue between participants is important as mentioned
earlier. Conditions for dialogue are the willingness of stakeholders to participate, to share power and to change in the process (Abma et al, 2001).

For the purpose of this study, I consider responsive evaluation as the most suitable type of evaluation for the existing programs. Considering the features of responsive evaluation mentioned, there are a variety of stakeholders depending on the nature of each training program. Thus, stakeholders in the study includes trainers, trainees, tourists and program staff. All of these are stakeholders who have an impact on the training programs.

**Observations and judgements in a responsive evaluation**

Responsive evaluation is focused on the worth of the existing program. In order to identify such thing, descriptive data and the judgements are required to provide information for the evaluator. Stake (1996) points out that:

… ultimately, the evaluators should make summary statements of the program’s worth. But first they may provide descriptive data and the judgements of others so that report readers can make up their own minds about program worth.

Responsive evaluation aims to serve stakeholders as mentioned. The method of information collection should be based on the variety types. Stake (1976, p. 1) further points out that:

Thus, there is a common misunderstanding that responsive evaluation requires naturalistic inquiry or qualitative research. ‘This statement is not true. In fact, the evaluators and program staff and evaluation sponsors discuss alternative methods. They negotiate. Knowing more about what different methods can accomplish, and what methods this evaluation ‘team’ can do well, and being the ones to carry them out. The evaluators ultimately determine what the methods will be. For it to be a good responsive evaluation the methods must fit the ‘here and now’, having potential for serving the evaluation needs of the various parties concerned.
Arguments against the use of responsive evaluation

Though responsive evaluation can serve many purposes, there are some limitations of the responsive evaluation especially when it is focused on qualitative evidence. Those who object to the responsive approach often do so on the grounds that too much attention is given to subjective data, e.g., the testimony of participants. Even the researchers’ own perceptions too are recognized as subjective, in choosing what to observe, in observing, and in reporting the observations.

The weakness of this approach has been addressed by Stufflebeam (2001). He suggests that:

a major weakness is the approach’s vulnerability regarding external credibility, since people in the local setting, in effect, have considerable control over the evaluation of their work.

Similarly, evaluators working so closely with stakeholders may lose their independent perspectives. The approach is not very amenable to reporting clear findings in time to meet decision or accountability deadlines. Moreover, rather than bringing closure, the approach’s adversarial aspects and divergent qualities may generate confusion and contentious relations among stakeholders. Sometimes, this cascading, evolving approach may bog down in an unproductive quest for multiple inputs and interpretations’.

In addition, objections to a responsive approach are also expressed in the belief that the program staff, the funding agency or the research community should specify the key questions (Stake, 1996). There is general expectation that if a program is evaluated, a wide array of important concerns will be concerned. Embezzlement, racial discrimination, inconsistency in philosophy, and thwarting of creativity may be unmentioned in the contract, and barely in the evaluation specialist’s range of view, but all such shortcomings belong to the evaluation expectation, and the responsive evaluator at least tries not to be blind to them. There is a point to the remark
that responsive evaluation is concerned with stakeholders who may have influence in the process. Stake (1996, p. 2) points out that by seeking out stakeholder issues, the responsive evaluator tries to see that these efforts at extending control over education are not undermining legitimate interests. Responsive evaluation is not intended as an instrument of reform, though reformists might find it useful. It is intended to serve the diverse people most affected personally and educationally by the program at hand—though it is bound to produce some findings they will not like.

In terms of reporting, Stake (1996) suggests that the feedback from responsive evaluation studies is expected to be in forms and language attractive and comprehensible to the various groups. It is not uncommon for responsive evaluation feedback to occur early and throughout the evaluation period, particularly as a part of refining the list of issues to be pursued. The evaluator may ask, ‘Is this interesting?’ and might, based on the answer; change priorities of inquiry. As analysed by House (1980, p. 60), responsive evaluation can be considered ‘intuitive’ or indeed subjective—closer to literary criticism, Elliot Eisner’s connoisseurship, or Michael Scriven’s modus operandi evaluation than to the more traditional social science designs. But it differs from them in the most essential feature: that of emphasizing the issues, language, contexts and standards of stakeholders.

When applying responsive evaluation in any circumstance, the thirteen issues in using responsive evaluation suggested by Stake (1975) will be employed:

1. Rationale
2. Intents Antecedents
3. Intents Transactions
4. Intents Outcomes
5. Observations Antecedents
6. Observations Transactions
7. Observations Outcomes
Standards Antecedents
9. Standards Transactions
10. Standards Outcomes
11. Judgements Antecedents
12. Judgements Transactions
13. Judgements Outcomes

Such issues as antecedents, transactions and outcomes are to be analysed in terms of the contingency and the congruence and the intended and the observed issues. This could help identify and enhance the judgement of data and thus could help the information reliable and valid for the decision and judgement.

The application of responsive evaluation and its advantages

Responsive evaluation is different from other types of evaluation in that it offers an opportunity of stakeholders to participate in the program. According to Abma (2005), responsive evaluation is chosen as an orientation to evaluation that generates qualitative evidence about the effectiveness of programs. Evaluation criteria to assess the program’s effectiveness are not only derived from the goals and intentions of policymakers, but include a wide range of issues of as many stakeholders as possible, including policymakers, managers, practitioners, community and target-groups (Stake, 1975; Guba & Lincoln, 1989; Stake & Abma, 2005).

In ‘Application of a responsive evaluation approach in medical education’ (Blackwell, 2003, pp. 256-266), a responsive evaluation model was used to evaluate clinical skills assessment and training programs at the faculty of Medicine, Memorial University of Newfoundland, Canada. Blackwell indicates that the responsive evaluation approach was useful in identifying the concern and issues of program stakeholders, solidifying the standards and criteria for measuring the success of the CSAT program, and
gathering rich and descriptive evaluative information about educational processes. The evaluation was perceived to be human resource dependent in nature, yet was deemed to have been practical, efficient and effective in uncovering meaningful and useful information for stakeholder decision-making. The advantage of using responsive evaluation was that the results were perceived as having more relevance to stakeholders’ concerns and issues, and therefore more likely to be acted upon. The study showed that conducting an evaluation that is responsive to the needs of these groups will ensure that evaluative information is meaningful and more likely to be used for program enhancement and improvement.

Another example of the application of responsive evaluation is shown in ‘responsive evaluation in health promotion: its value for ambiguous contexts’ (Abma, 2005). Abma states that responsive evaluation offers a perspective in which evaluation is reframed from the assessment of program interventions on the basis of policymakers’ goals to an engagement with all stakeholders about the value and meaning of their practice.

**Volunteer Training Programs**

While definitions of ‘volunteer training’ vary slightly, any definition needs to contain three essential elements: volunteering is done by choice, without monetary reward, and for the benefit of the community. The nature of volunteerism has been described as ‘making the impossible happen’ (Sask Report Magazine, October, 1990). Another definition comes from Ellis & Campbell (2005 p. 353-5) who state that:

volunteerism is both reactive and proactive. It is a response to current events, social problems, and community needs that volunteers are often the first to identify. Volunteers can take actions before institutions and government are willing to offer services. As such, volunteers are pioneers and experimenters, unlimited by the restrictions of tradition, public status, need to make a profit, or availability of initial funds.
Thus, the advantage of being volunteers and having volunteers is that volunteers are willing to do the job and they do not think of any profit as long as they find the job satisfying. There are also a number of benefits of volunteerism, as follows (Fischer & Schaffer, 1993 p. 1):

- Self-satisfaction
- Altruism
- Potential learning or acquisition of new skills
- Specific benefits for the receivers of volunteer efforts
- Relaxation
- Socialization
- Status or reward
- Career opportunities
- Community improvement

The motivation and retention of volunteers are increasingly important to organisations that depend on adult volunteers (Van Horn et al, 1999). Volunteers become involved for a variety of reasons, depending upon both the individual and the cause they are considering. The basic motivations that are often cited include: helping others, interest in the work or activity, wanted to learn and gain experience, had a lot of free time, devoted to the cause, know someone who was involved, and religious concern. In general, Schindler-Rainman & Lippit (1971, p. 11) state that volunteers are people who:

want the town or city or neighbourhood in which they live to be exciting, creative, and challenging’. In a study of volunteerism in Mariocopa County, 1983, a volunteer was defined as “someone working in some way to help others for no monetary pay”.

Thus, a volunteer training program needs to meet the motivations and needs of the volunteers. It needs to be well-prepared, and must take the trainee into
consideration. All of this implies that training and development programs should attempt to meet the needs, wants and aspirations of the individual.

Training for those who will be volunteering can occur in several ways. If you are utilising an existing group to assist, you may offer to attend one of their meetings or speak at a lunch-hour meeting at their corporation to give participants the information they will need to feel prepared and competent to do their jobs.

Volunteer management cycle

Arranging a volunteer training program is a complex process; thus, the volunteer management cycle, as depicted in Figure 2.2, should be taken into consideration.

First of all, planning is essential for the success of any volunteer program and involves the following:

- designing volunteer positions;
- creating application forms;
- developing applicable policies and procedures;
- educating others in the organisation about involving volunteers.

The next step is recruitment which requires the careful planning of the program staff in selecting the volunteers. Orientation and training is important as those volunteers need guidance so that they are well-prepared for the job. Next, there is supervision and evaluation, as the volunteers and the program staff realise their status and their job, including how well they could learn and achieve. Finally, there is recognition as those volunteers do not need money and they are willing to do the job. Recognition is the thing they should get after their hard work. It is suggested in www.volunteer.ca/resource that volunteer management theory provides the volunteer management cycle.
It is not easy to find volunteers in a circumstance that really needs volunteers. There are many ways to help finding volunteers or asking for volunteer involvement. There are suggestions that will help us consider when looking for individuals who want to be volunteers, as follows:

- **providing a link with the community**: Volunteers are members of the community and in many cases may also be recipients of the services offered by your group;
- **bringing different points of view**: Volunteers bring experiences and opinions that reflect their own unique backgrounds and ideas. This helps the group stay in touch with a variety of points of view, which in turn supports more effective decision-making;
- **bringing experience, knowledge and expertise**;
• **helping keep the group ‘down to earth’ and focused**: Because volunteers are members of the community served by the group, they can make sure services remain practical and beneficial. It is the volunteer who often reminds the group about why it is there in the first place, and helps keep the focus on the group’s purpose;

• **helping identify solution**: Volunteers work with groups while doing many other things in the community. By sharing his or her experience, the volunteer can help the group identify new ways of offering services and delivering programs;

• **providing a voice in the community**: Volunteering is an effective way for people to contribute to the decision-making process in their communities, which supports our democratic society;

• **getting involved to make a difference**: Volunteers are motivated by a willingness to help out and make things better. The presence of volunteers in our groups is felt in a way that is quite different from that of a paid staff person. The very definition of volunteer involvement is to ‘give of your time and talents without expecting any payment’. When people get involved because they want to and have chosen to do so, it sends a sincere message of commitment and enthusiasm for the work.

One important aspect in arranging volunteer training program is evaluation. Evaluation should encourage the trainers and program staff to improve their teaching and training approach to suit those volunteers. This idea is proposed by McCurley (1990, p. 8), as follows:

Volunteers shall receive periodic evaluations to review their work. The evaluation session is utilized to review the performance of the volunteer, to suggest any changes in work style, to seek suggestions from the volunteer on means of enhancing the volunteer’s relationship with the agency, to convey appreciation to the volunteer, and to ascertain the continued
interest of the volunteer in serving in that position. Evaluations should include both an examination of the volunteer’s performance of position responsibilities and a discussion of any suggestions that the volunteer may have concerning the position or project with which the volunteer is connected. The evaluation session is an opportunity for both the volunteer and the agency to examine and improve their relationship.

It is not easy to organize volunteer training program without considering the volunteers’ needs. Ilsley & Niemi (1981, p. ix) suggest that non-profit volunteer organisations must recognize that:

the learning needs of … adults will continue to grow with demands for programs to help them fulfil new roles, adjust to new life styles, and update competencies.

Cull & Hardy (1974, p. 63) point out that volunteer organisations, in order to be successful, need to consider the wants, aspirations and needs of the volunteer, and must provide a training and development program that meets those needs. Careful selection of an assignment suited to their interests, with continued training, evaluation and supervision, reinforces the feeling that they are needed.

**Importance of the training program**

It is inevitable that volunteers are needed all around the world while there is insufficient manpower in organisations. For example, in the USA, volunteering become more popular each year. Comparing the increasing amount of volunteerism in Alberta, volunteerism, since 1961, accounted for 58 million hours of unpaid work. In Thailand, the concept of volunteering has been well-known for fewer than 10 years. Now that the number of tourists visiting Thailand has increased each year, the need of volunteers to help public sector in terms of service and security increases. Most public sectors are now facing the problems and trying to seek the volunteers to help them. Basically, the volunteers are willing to help carry out the specific
mission they are assigned. It is hoped that the volunteers who have passed the training sessions will be the manpower of the organisation and the country.

Thus, the training program is needed to serve the volunteers. Effective training programs enables volunteer leaders to develop sets of skills receive rewards, and experience social affiliation. These are all key motivators for adult volunteer leader participation and retention (Rouse & Clawson, 1992; Hall, 1995).

The impact of training and development goes beyond organisational effectiveness. The unique characteristics of volunteers must also be considered. Moyer (1990) indicates that people who volunteer do so for transactional as well as altruistic reasons. Cull & Hardy (1974, p. 111) indicate that voluntary action ‘helps us transcend ourselves in some form of higher self-expression and self-realization’. This implies that training and development programs should attempt to meet the needs, wants and aspirations of the individual. Henderson (1981, p. 26) states:

this means planning tasks based on the individual’s needs, recruiting by appealing to needs, supervising in a way that allows needs to be met, and rewarding people with what ‘s important to them.

Training and development programs that are well planned and administered well ‘contribute to the growth of the individual worker at the same time that it increases his skill and productivity’(Cull & Hardy, 1974, p. 43). Pitters-Strachan et al. (1986, p. 33) suggest that training and development programs:

….should be directed toward organisational effectiveness and member satisfaction, one that can enable (volunteers) to accomplish both their individual goals and the collective goals of the organisation.

There are many aspects to be considered in setting up the volunteer training programs. Processes of recruiting volunteers, procedures in volunteer training program planning and judgements about the effectiveness of the
program are to be considered when designing the program. However, volunteers in any country before embarking on their mission need to realise their status and their duties in order that they may fulfil their role successfully. Once this is realised, the training should be specifically designed for the volunteers.

Training is the process of instructing volunteers in the specific job-related skills and behaviours that they will need to perform their particular volunteer job. Training is designed to tell the volunteers:

- how they are supposed to perform in their particular job;
- what they are not supposed to do in their job;
- what to do if an emergency or unforeseen situation arises.

An effective training program operates by identifying those skills, knowledge and behaviour which will be essential in good job performance and then designing a training format which instructs the volunteers: it should be practical, experiential, and tailored to the individual needs of the volunteers.

The needs of a volunteer training program emerge in a number of studies, ‘An evaluation of training program for volunteer family planning communicators’, by Eoaskoon & Pongruebphant (1989) showed that of the total trainees, 83 per cent felt the training was interesting and 71 per cent found it useful. This suggests that the volunteers felt more confident and involved following the training. Minor & Thompson (1975) provide, in an earlier study, ‘Development and evaluation of a training program for volunteers working in day treatment’, an example that showed the advantages of the training program for volunteers. This study suggests that the respondents felt the training prepared them to perform their duties and understand their roles as volunteers. Volunteers need training programs to improve their morale and to support their work. Once volunteers have been trained, they feel that they have more confidence in the job they are assigned to do.
To conclude, training is important for volunteers prior to commencing their duties: they need to be confident that they can accomplish them adequately. Volunteers have to perform unfamiliar tasks, therefore they need to be well-equipped with the knowledge and skills to meet the demands of these tasks.

**Adult education in post-modernism and types of learning**

Consideration needs to be given to the nature and characteristics of adult education as it relates to assessing and understanding the role of volunteers as adult learners. Certainly differences lie in adult learning comparing with young learners. According to Knox (2002, p. 162):

In formal preparatory education of young learners, evaluation related to participation tends to focus on grading student achievement. In adult education, though, progress also means attention to attrition and application of new learning in adult roles beyond the educational program.

Thus, it is worthwhile to consider the training programs as a knowledge-based process for adults. It is unavoidable that this entails engaging with computer technology and the new lifestyles of a changing society, as pointed out by Heath (2003):

Firstly, from Dewey onwards, the epistemological basis of learning has shifted and cannot sustain the primacy of theory over practice. Secondly, that the notion of a coherent self as the subject of learning and the use of language has changed. Thirdly, that post-industrial society, linked to ‘turbo-capitalism’ has created social conditions that require new conditions of change and flexibility. And, fourthly, that globalisation and other factors have created the conditions where competing epistemologies and value systems must co-exist in the same social and political contexts.

Traditional learning and training is inappropriate in a postmodernist society shaped by the forces discussed by Heath. The training programs for volunteers are more likely to be successful if the trainees are able to use their
experience during the training. Thus, experience-based learning should be employed extensively. Beckett & Hager (2002) conclude their argument for the importance of experience-based learning with an account of judgement and realising the importance of real-world knowledge. This is quite important in this study that attempts to reveal how effectiveness of the volunteer training programs provided by the Thai tourist police. It is expected that the volunteers will learn by using their own experience and real-world knowledge in solving the problems they encounter. However, it is important to study what the postmodernism entails. The post-modern trends that Beckett & Hager (2002, p. 176) note are

- Pervasive change and crisis;
- Recognition of difference and diversity;
- A focus on the particular and the local;
- Recognition of the political and social dimensions of knowledge.

It can be clearly seen that post-modernism requires knowledge that can be flexible to the changing situation. Differences and diversity is acceptable and this suits the situation where a variety of volunteers join together and practice the same thing. Besides, different types of learning play a role in arranging the training programs. Formal learning and informal learning are the two types of learning that should be taken into consideration since learners are to be trained in either way. It is thus important to differentiate the two features of learning.

Eraut (2000, p. 12) presents five features of formal learning. They are:

1. a prescribed learning framework
2. an organised learning event or package
3. the presence of a designated teacher or trainer
4. the award of a qualification or credit
5. the external specification of outcomes.

Formal learning can be best serve the formal situation where learning can take place with the award of credit. Formal learning can be conducted in a school or college where the system of education has been identified. Eraut (2000, p. 10) also sets out a schema for identifying different types of non-formal learning, based, for example, on the timing of the stimulus (past, current, future) and the extent to which such learning is tacit. This latter dimension is later set against identifying different types of thought or action. Finally, he classifies non-formal learning as either individual or social, and either implicit or explicit. One of the many interesting facets of Eraut’s work is that he effectively classifies non-formal learning by what it is not (i.e., not formal), despite making formal learning the explicit focus of his chapter.

When considering volunteer training programs, overall, non-formal learning appears to be one of its best features. To draw from the trainees the tacit knowledge of their experience is required since they are mostly adults who have considerable experience. Non-formal learning is suitable and it is believed that non-formal learning will help bring out what the trainees possess in terms of their knowledge and experience.

Volunteer training programs focus on the practice rather than the theory. It is then suggested that practice-based learning might be suitable for the situation. Beckett & Hager (2002, p. 185) note six major feature of practical judgement that relate to the key features of informal practice-based learning. They claim that such judgements are holistic, contextual and defensible, include problem identification and are socially shaped. They also comment that judgements are ‘integrative of the whole gamut of human attributes’. The judgement related to practice-based learning is quite important and could help identify the process and the problems in the existing volunteer training programs.
Summary

This study is designed to explore the effectiveness of, and to improve, an existing training program. Responsive evaluation was the approach chosen for this exploration since it enables identification of the processes and the problems of an existing training program. It is believed that responsive evaluation, involving all stakeholders would be best suit this context: volunteer training programs involving the trainers who are tourist police, the trainees who are volunteers, the tourists who spend their vacation in Phuket, and the program staff. The main goal of volunteer training programs is to facilitate and help tourists in situations where, because of limited numbers, the police are not available.

Since the training programs cater for volunteer adults who have had much experience, appropriate approaches need to be selected for the teaching and learning that is required. Traditional approaches will not necessarily be appropriate for the situation. It is suggested that experience-based knowledge might be more suitable since those trainees will all be adults who should be encouraged to use their own experience in their volunteer role.
CHAPTER 3

Methodology

Overview

This study aimed to examine the extent to which the volunteer training programs arranged by the Royal Thai Police were effective, and in what ways they could be improved. The volunteer training programs arranged by the tourist police are provided for those local people in Phuket who are willing to help when there is a lack of the staff. In order to judge the effectiveness of the training programs, it was important to choose an appropriate evaluation model to be used in the evaluation of the training programs.

The design of the inquiry was that of a Responsive Evaluation (Guba & Lincoln, 1989). While many evaluation plans are more preordinate, emphasizing statement of goals, use of objective tests, standards held by program personnel, and research-type reports, responsive evaluation is less reliant on formal communication, but reliant on natural communication (Stake, 1975) and is aimed at increasing the usefulness of the findings to persons in and around the program. Additionally, with the inquiry relating specifically to the complex personal expectations that different people have in relation to group supervision, a naturalistic approach was deemed the most suitable due to it being carried out within the ‘natural setting’ of group meetings (Lincoln & Guba, 1985, p. 187)
A responsive evaluation was chosen in this study in the belief that it would provide valid and reliable data. As has already been suggested, responsive evaluation enables determination of how effective the existing program and this will assist the program staff to decide, overall, what to do or what not to do in the future. Second, responsive evaluation involves the stakeholders who are active participants and who are able to make an impact on the program. The training program under consideration involves tourists, volunteers and trainers all of whom are concerned with the current situation at all levels – it fully impacts on them. They will rapidly realise that the results of the responsive evaluation will enable them to lessen the problems they face, and thus to lower their anxiety levels. Equally important, they will know that the responsive evaluation provides them with valid information. A responsive evaluation has its own validation strategy, due to the triangulation of data. This gives them, and the researcher, the confidence to rely on the data with which they are working.

**Using responsive evaluation in this volunteer training program**

The volunteers in this program were adults who needed a specially-designed program. Therefore, the training programs had to be arranged with this in mind. In general, the program evaluation needed to be done after the program had been arranged; hence comes the question: Which type of evaluation should be chosen for the training programs? The responsive evaluation was thus chosen in this study since it has a certain type of features that suit the nature of the existing training programs. This idea is supported by Abma (2005, p. 1):

> Responsive evaluation offers a vision and rationale for evaluation. In this vision, evaluation is reframed from the assessment of program interventions on the basis of policymakers’ goals to an engagement with all stakeholders about the effectiveness of their practice.
Responsive evaluation has distinguishing features that can be used to gain data from various stakeholders. Stakeholders, in a responsive evaluation, refer to those who are involved in the program. In the volunteer tourist police training program, there are many ‘stakeholders’ or many persons involved in different aspect. To begin with, the rationale of setting the training programs was to serve the tourists who visit Phuket. The first group of stakeholder who were expected to benefit from the volunteer training programs were the volunteers. They are the ones who will be trained and will get the direct impact of what the training programs have given to them. The second group were the tourists who were expected to benefit from the information and support that the volunteers provided. The tourists would be able to provide feedback regarding what they felt or what they needed when they encountered unusual or unexpected incidents. The third group of stakeholders to benefit was the trainers, themselves, who provide the training and who are able to practice their expertise with the learners. They would be able to give valid responses regarding what they think and what they would like the learners to learn and practice. Finally, the program planners will benefit from gaining insights regarding the overall effectiveness of the program.

Due to its very nature, responsive evaluation provides an inbuilt validation strategy through the involvement of all stakeholders involved. In the case of the existing volunteer tourist police training program four groups of stakeholders were involved. Data obtained from these four groups involved in the training program naturally provided a triangulation of sources. Mixed methods of data collection involving quantitative, qualitative and naturalistic approaches equally naturally suggested themselves, enhancing the validation of data collected using a responsive evaluation methodology. Mathison (1988, p. 13) supports this position:

Triangulation has arisen as an important methodological issue in naturalistic and qualitative approaches to valuation [in order to] control and establish valid propositions because traditional scientific techniques are incompatible with this alternative epistemology.
Thus, methodologically, a responsive evaluation was a valid means of improving the quality of the existing volunteer program and informing stakeholders on ways of making the existing program more effective.

**The politics behind this evaluation**

Since there is a hierarchy among the management in the Royal Thai Police, I as the commissioner of the Tourist Police, did not have any power to interfere with their line of control. The tourist police in Phuket have to work under the Phuket tourist police division and simultaneously with the Phuket governor. After the training programs had been set, the senior staff and the trainers were assigned to prepare the teaching materials and schedule. The need for volunteers came as a result of the rapid increase in the number of tourists in Phuket. The police workforce each year is not enough; namely 300,000 policemen all over the country whereas there are 60 million population in the country. The rationale for setting up this volunteer training program was the insufficient police workforce together with the policy of encouraging the local people to work as volunteers.

**Avoidance of bias**

Since the responsive evaluation required the opinion from stakeholders who were involved in the training programs, an attempt to avoid bias among them was essential. Once the questionnaires were distributed to the staff, volunteers and tourists, they were asked not identify themselves in order that they could speak out freely. They were also informed that their responses would be kept confidential until the findings were analysed.
Observation and judgements

An aspect of responsive evaluation that was best able to be adapted for the volunteer training program was the use of descriptive data, involving observation, in the making of judgements. Using the data collected from many sources by a variety of means brings together a large amount of descriptive observations will be judged based on the descriptive one. As can be clearly seen that responsive evaluation focuses on the worth of the existing program, Data in the responsive evaluation come from various sources. In order to get the result, the data at first is the descriptive one which can be collected by many means and from many sources. Judgement then is to be used as the way to decide whether the existing program is effective or not.

Methodology

This section discusses the selection and the profiles of the participants which can be called stakeholders – trainers, trainees, tourists and program staff – provides the rationale for the research instruments chosen, describes the process taken in validating the instruments and the collected data, and specifies the data collection and data analysis procedures.

Participants

The participants in this study were divided into four groups: trainers, volunteers, tourists and program staff. Trainers and program staff were those who were involved in preparing volunteer training programs from the beginning to the end. Volunteers were those who received the training skills and who responded to the program. Tourists were those who received the service from the volunteers and who were able to give feedback on how well the programs trained the volunteers.
Chapter 3  Methodology

The first group: Trainers

There were 15 trainers and 25 program staff who were selected from those tourist police at Phuket division. Program staff did not teach but prepared the training program including the evaluation. Trainers from the tourist police division taught in specific-aid skill programs. For the remaining two programs – English language skills and first aid skills – the trainers were specialists who were hired, temporarily, for these aspects of the volunteer training program.

The second group: Volunteers

Initially, 20 volunteers were enrolled in each training group, but five dropped out prior to the commencement of training. The resulting 55 volunteers in the study ranged in age from 30-60 (see Table 3.1). In terms of age: 2 per cent of the volunteers were 25 years old, 31 per cent were between 26 to 35, 47 per cent were between 36-45 and 20 per cent were between 46-55; none was over 55 years of age. The median age-range was 36-45, that is middle aged.

TABLE 3.1  AGE OF VOLUNTEERS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age-range/years</th>
<th>25</th>
<th>26-35</th>
<th>36-45</th>
<th>46-55</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Percentage in this age-range</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The third group: Tourists

The 120 tourists involved in this study were a sample of tourists who came to spend their vacation in the Phuket region. With regards to gender, 70 participants were males and 30 participants were females (see Table 3.2).

TABLE 3.2  GENDER OF TOURISTS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Female</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Percentage</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Four-fifths of the tourists were Europeans with one-fifth Asians (see Table 3.3).

**TABLE 3.3 NATIONALITY OF TOURISTS**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Nationality</th>
<th>Europeans</th>
<th>Asians</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Percentage</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Regarding the number of days the tourists had their plan to stay in Phuket, half of the participants planned to stay for a couple of days, just under one-third of the participants planned to stay for one week, and one-fifth of the participants planned to stay for more than one week (see Table 3.4).

**TABLE 3.4 DURATION OF STAY OF TOURISTS**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number of Days</th>
<th>A couple of days</th>
<th>One week</th>
<th>More than one week</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Percentage</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Instruments**

A strength of Stake’s Countenance Model (Stake, 1968) lies in its accommodation and structuring of different levels of data (Deepwell & Cousin (2002): in particular, it can be used for analysing data from various sources. Stake’s model is also useful because it provides extensive evidence to support the success of a course (Hamm, 1985) by documenting plausible links between all components of the course program. An evaluator begins by looking at intents. Intents are planned-for conditions and behaviours, including needs analysis information, within the descriptive matrix where congruence is sought between intents and observations. Observations are
congruence is sought between intents and observations. Observations are descriptions of environmental events and consequences (Stake 1977). Moving across the matrix, from left to right, the evaluator is able to apply standards to the descriptive data to form judgements (see Figure 3.1). As Stake (1968) indicates, this matrix provides a framework for the statements and data that need to be collected by the program evaluator in order to form judgements.

Data collected for this study was obtained through continuous data collection and analysis that provided an opportunity to generate and refine emergent themes in the period August 2004 to May 2005. In order to get the data, both in terms of descriptive matrix and judgement matrix, data collection involved both quantitative and qualitative methods. In this study, there were three steps of the Countenance Model conducted to obtain information about current training programs. Gathering information by a wide-variety of methods and from a wide-variety of sources enabled triangulation of data, hence assisting in establishing the validity of the qualitative data collected.

In this study, data was collected from both trainers and trainees who were able to provide their own specific inputs to, and feedback from, the training programs with which they had been involved.
Antecedents, transactions and outcomes

Antecedents, transactions and outcomes, the elements of the evaluation statements, as shown in Figure 3.1, have a place in both the descriptive and judgements matrices. Thus, to fill in these matrices the evaluator/researcher collected judgements (e.g., of community prejudice, of problem solving styles, and of teaching personality) as well as descriptions. An antecedent is any condition existing prior to teaching and learning which may relate to outcomes. The status prior to the delivery of lessons, e.g., a trainer’s aptitude, previous experience, interest, and willingness is a complex antecedent. Transactions, on the other hand, are dynamic. On the other hand, antecedents and outcomes are relatively static. Thus, in this study, the boundaries between them were often not clear, e.g., during a transaction it is possible to identify certain outcomes which become ‘feedback antecedents’ for subsequent learning. Outcomes, as a body of information, include measurements of the impact of instruction on trainers, volunteers, and tourists. Outcomes to be considered in this study included not only those that were evident at the end of training sessions, but also included applications, transfer, and re-learning effects which were not immediately observable.

Contingency and Congruence

There are two principal ways of processing descriptive evaluation data: the first, finding the logical contingencies (if … then …) among antecedents, transactions, and outcomes; the second, finding congruence between intents and observations. The format used for processing these two groups of data is represented in Figure 3.2.

Step 1: Antecedents

In the current police volunteer training program, there were many antecedents: course provisions, conditions which influenced the program, and
actuality and the perceived quality of these antecedents were explored. The researcher undertook a document analysis of minutes of meetings, internal reports, and annual reports relating to the establishment of the volunteer tourist police training program in Phuket. The data collected was classified into four categories: intents, observations, standards and judgements. Conditions or factors in operating the program affecting the context were explored. Information concerning the training program’s plan was obtained from both trainers and program staff.
Document Analysis

Document analysis was chosen in this step since this was the first step in preparing the training program. A great deal of information concerning the antecedents was obtained from records of regular meetings among the program staff and the trainers. The preparative step (antecedents) revealed the way training programs were guided and directed. The data was classified into four categories: intents, observations, standards and judgements.

The document analysis was undertaken following a series of meetings with the trainers. Five meetings, involving five members of the planning team, were documented. A count of the issues raised in minutes of meetings was undertaken by the team members (see Attachment 11) and a consensus reached on the number of meetings at which items were raised.

There were three factors which these items aimed to draw out: one, conditions that affected the establishment of the volunteer training programs; two, ways to produce successful volunteer tourist police training program by making them more effective; and three, policy implications that could be drawn from the document analysis.

A survey questionnaire

A survey questionnaire was used to collect data gathering technique in this antecedent phase. An instrument designed to assist the program staff and the evaluator realise the factors needed in the program, including the timeline of the program. The resulting survey questionnaire is attached as Attachment A.

Twenty-five trainers and program staff were asked to respond to this survey which was basically designed to elicit participants’ attitudes towards the four categories of involvement in setting up the training programs. The four categories included extent of involvement, level of commitment, intents and observations.
A focus group interview

A focus group interview was used in the antecedent phase of the study. This was undertaken with the four senior training staff who were involved both in program development and in its delivery. The interview was undertaken in order to gain a deeper understanding of the antecedents. The focus group interview questions are attached as Attachment B.

To sum up, the antecedents revealed the conditions or factors related to the establishment of the program, attitudes of program staff towards the volunteer training programs.

Step 2: Transactions

Activities with, and behaviour of, the trainees were observed during transactions. Information concerning the on-going activities during the training program was designed by using the 12 elements of Stake’s Responsive Clock (Stake, 2004, p. 103). Observations on the delivery of each of the three types of training were undertaken across two separate and complete phases. The 12 prominent events in a responsive evaluation are listed below and are shown, diagrammatically, in Figure 3.3:

1. Identify program scope
2. Overview program activities
3. Discover purposes, concerns
4. Conceptualise issues, problems
5. Identify data needs related to issues
6. Select observers, judges, instruments, if any
7. Observe designated antecedents, transactions, outcomes
8. Thematise, prepare portrayals, case studies
9. Validate, confirm, attempt to disconfirm
10. Winnow, match issues to audiences
11. Format for audience use
12. Talk with clients, program staff, audiences

The methods of data collection that were used in these 12 elements included the following:

- document analysis;
- focus group interview;
- semi-structured interviews of staff and management;
Chapter 3 Methodology

- informal discussions and casual conversations with participants, staff and management;
- logs in journal;
- invited meetings;
- annotated logs, journal entries and personal reflections.

A Case Study for each of the three elements in the program was developed in order to present this qualitative data most effectively.

Document analysis

A document analysis was employed in the transactions stage in order to explore what happened during the program delivery process. Documents used were reports and observation sheets written by program staff who observed the classes on a regular basis. Data also came from minutes of meeting which were held regularly among the program staff during the program delivery. A count of the issues raised in minutes of meetings was undertaken by the team members (see Attachment 11) and a consensus reached on the number of meetings at which items were raised. If items were raised at either four or five of these meetings, then their importance was rated as ‘high’. If items were raised at two or three meetings, then their importance was rated as ‘medium’. If items were raised at only one meeting, then their importance was rated as ‘low’.

The two issues considered in this phase were factors associated with, and problems found during the program delivery. Minutes of meeting and issues raised in the discussion were counted and ranked in importance from high to low level.

Focus group interview

A focus group interview was chosen in order that the details in the transactions could be drawn out. The same four senior program staff who were involved in the antecedents participated in this step. The topics covered
were concerned with issues of program delivery and issues that arose as part of the solution to problems that arose (see Attachment 15).

**Semi-structured interview**

A semi-structured interview was used to check the understanding of the process during the training programs (see Attachment 16). Eight out of 25 of the program staff and the trainers were selected randomly and their opinions regarding the three training programs were elicited in terms of the time, level of volunteers, attendance of volunteers, willingness of volunteers and the availability of appropriate learning materials.

**Course feedback evaluation survey**

A survey, in the form of open-ended questions, was used in this step (see Attachment 17). Its purpose was to elicit the volunteers’ attitudes towards the training programs, in detail, as soon as they had finished the training. Their responses were used to provide information to indicate whether or not the programs had been run as intended.

**A simple street survey**

A simple street survey of tourists was used in this phase of the study (see Attachment 18). The stakeholders who were the target group of the training program were the tourists. One of the steps in Countenance Model is the observation of designated transactions and outcomes. The data obtained from the tourists was used to help form a judgement as to the success or failure of the training programs.

**Logs and journals**

Trainers were asked to keep a written journal regarding the training programs. What they perceived in the classroom was recorded including problems during the training program.
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Personal reflections

Personal reflections were employed to follow up on the information obtained from the journal and interview. Program staff were asked to write a reflection on what happened during the training program (see Attachment 20).

Case study

A case study approach was chosen in the study to reveal what happened during the training programs. The participants were randomly chosen from the three training programs. Each training program had one representative in the case study.

Overall, the Countenance Model was combined with the 12 elements of the responsive clock to gather information and identify the transactions effected in the training. A variety of tools, consisting of both qualitative and quantitative approaches, were used to collect this data.

Step 3: Outcomes

The researcher maintained a journal in which he logged impact outcomes within the three contexts: antecedents, transactions and outcomes. The impact outcomes arose from on-going observations and from the analysis of data collected in the two previous phases: antecedents and transactions. The observations were reported in a series of vignettes (see Attachment 23).

Course feedback evaluation surveys

An evaluation survey was undertaken of all the volunteer trainees to obtain feedback regarding the training programs (see Attachment 22). The surveys were undertaken as soon as the training program had been completed to ensure that the trainees gave immediate feedback, including identification of any problems they had encountered.
A simple street survey

A simple street survey was chosen to verify the study (see Attachment 21). This enabled triangulation between the responses of the trainers, the trainees and the tourists – all of whom were stakeholders.

Observation

The results of on-going observation comprised a key qualitative part of the study. Observations were made by the program staff who attended each class regularly as observers. They recorded what happened in the classroom and noted problems that needed to be solved.

Design of the Instruments

Antecedents

The survey questionnaire

The survey questionnaire used in the antecedents was designed to elicit the ideas from the training staff involved with starting and preparing the training programs. Items to be asked in the survey questionnaire were the extent of involvement, level of commitment, intents and observations (see Attachment 12). These items came from the information gathered when the 25 training staff met to discuss details involved with preparing the training programs.

The focus group interview

To ensure the credibility of the data, a strategy frequently used in qualitative research was followed (see Attachment 13). Most importantly, using the focus group interview as one of the data gathering methods was in itself the methodological triangulation, or the use of multiple methods to collect research data (Merriam, 1988).
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Transactions

A focus group interview and semi-structured interview

Two types of interview were introduced in this phase: one was a focus group interview and the other a semi-structured interview. For the focus group interview, data was collected from four senior program staff who were involved from the very beginning of the training program (see Attachment 15). Their ideas reflected what had been done and what was going on during the program delivery. Semi-structured interviews were held with eight out of the 25 training staff who were selected randomly to give feedback during the program delivery (see Attachment 16).

Survey questionnaires

With respect to the outcomes, two types of questionnaires were developed: one was given to those volunteers who had been trained for 50 hours and the other was given to those tourists who had been spending their time in Phuket (see Attachment 21). The survey given to the volunteers was intended to obtain feedback from them regarding the improvements they wanted to see made to the training program in the future. The items related to the goals, materials and quality of the trainers (see Attachment 22).

In the survey given to the tourists, three parts were included: English language skill, specific skills and first aid skill. The items to be asked include satisfaction, ability and willingness of volunteers to help. Those tourists were required to rate their responses on the questionnaires; the responses were scored on a five-point scale and the mean score for each item was calculated (see Attachment 21).
Data collection procedures

The data collection procedure employed in this study was one of continuous data collection and analysis; this, in turn, provided an opportunity to continuously generate and refine emergent themes. In order to obtain data for both the descriptive and judgement matrix, both quantitative and qualitative data were obtained. Indeed, the evaluation framework was sufficiently flexible to integrate quite diverse data into coherent sets according to a structured framework. The data were derived from a wide range of sources including the following:

- Document analysis
- Focus groups
- Structured interviews
- Participant observations
- Case study
- Personal reflections
- Logs and journals

Antecedents

The first stage of the data collection procedure was undertaken before the training programs were launched. The document analysis was carried out by the evaluator who collected minutes of meetings, plans and schedules of the programs. Then the program staff were asked by the questionnaires to check their commitment and involvement in the program. A senior training staff focus group interview followed to gain a deeper understanding of the underlying antecedents.
Transactions

Once the programs had been set up, transactions commenced – from the recruitment of volunteers until the programs ended. Transactions involved the steps and processes of managing the training programs. Stake’s Countenance Model, together with Stake’s Responsive Clock, was adopted to check the steps in the training program delivery. At the beginning of the transactions, document analysis was still needed as the journals, logs and notes of the program staff were able to provide information concerning the training programs and the trainees. Data from the focus group interview concerned with operational processes was collected as well in order to reveal problems encountered during the training programs themselves. This enabled a judgement to be made on how successful the programs had been. Each training program was observed by the program staff and a case study was written for each training program.

Outcomes

A determination of the outcomes was the final step in this responsive evaluation process. Outcomes involved a compilation of what had arisen as a result of the training program. On-going observation was undertaken by the program staff in each training program. Judgements on whether or not the program was successful involved obtaining the opinions of two of the three groups of stakeholders: tourists and trainees. Trainees were required to complete an evaluation feedback questionnaire. At the same time, tourists were given a survey questionnaire to complete (see Attachment 21). This was a simple street survey that sought to reveal the level of satisfaction of the tourists towards the volunteers’ performance after they had been trained. The feedback from both trainees and tourists who were the target group contributed two important sets of inputs to assist in making a judgement as to whether or not the programs had been successful.
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Data analysis procedures

Antecedents

The data obtained from the survey questionnaire were analysed quantitatively, using simple measures of central tendency, and subsequently used to develop a general profile of work related to training programs. The data obtained from the focus group interviews were analysed, synthesized, and categorized using standard qualitative methods. The tape-recorded interviews were first transcribed and the transcriptions were then analysed into concepts, themes and key ideas were identified, using standard methods of data reduction (see, for example, Guba & Lincoln (1989), Lincoln & Guba (1985))

Transactions

The data – both qualitative and quantitative – obtained in the Transactions came from many sources. Data collected by means of document analysis in the antecedent phase, was used to verify information collected during the transaction phase. Particularly important in the latter were the data recorded in journals and logs.

Outcomes

The data obtained from the simple street survey questionnaire were analysed statistically, using simple measures of central tendency. The direct impact of the training programs on tourists was thus able to be measured directly.

Summary

The research methodology outlined above was set within the framework of a responsive evaluation. It involved interactions with program staff, volunteers and tourists, the three key groups involved in the study. The elements of the
evaluation consisted of three parts: antecedents, transactions and outcomes. Antecedents identified the steps taken prior to the commencement of the training programs, transactions referred to the processes undertaken while the programs were running, and the outcomes or impacts of the programs related to determinations of whether or not the training programs proved to be successful. The following chapter reports the findings of each phase and reports and discusses them in detail.
CHAPTER 4

Analysis and Discussion of Findings

Introduction

This study aimed at using a responsive evaluation approach in order to improve and increase the efficiency of a volunteer tourist police training program in Phuket. The methodology used in this study emphasised the generalized steps required by Stake’s Responsive Evaluation in order to reveal the most effective ways of improving tourist training. Stake’s scheme draws attention to the differences between descriptive and judgemental acts according to their phase in an educational program: antecedents, transactions, and outcomes. Antecedents are the conditions existing prior to instruction that relate to the expected outcomes (Stake, 1977; Popham, 1993). Transactions are successive engagements or dynamic encounters constituting experience (Stake, 1977; Popham, 1993). Outcomes are the impacts – both intended and unintended – on the clients receiving a particular service.

This chapter is divided into three main sections. The first section addresses the findings that relate to the antecedents or the conditions existing beforehand; the second discusses the findings that relate to transactions or the processes of training; and the third part addresses the outcomes.
Presentation of Program Antecedents

In the antecedents, there were many provisions, conditions and contexts that influenced the programs. The intentions, the actuality and the perceived quality of these antecedents were explored by means of the following:

- document analysis;
- questionnaires; and
- focus group interviews of key personnel involved both in program development and in the delivery.

The presentation of program antecedents was divided into three phases:

- **Phase 1**: A document analysis of minutes of meetings relating to the establishment of the volunteer tourist police training program in Phuket.
- **Phase 2**: A questionnaire survey of the 25 Thai tourist police personnel associated with the current volunteer training programs in Phuket.
- **Phase 3**: A focus group interview of key personnel involved both in program development and in the delivery.

Phase I: Document analysis

Data collected in this phase were obtained from minutes of meetings which were held regularly among the trainers prior to the commencement of the program. Five meetings, involving five members of the planning team, were documented. A count of the issues raised in minutes of meetings was undertaken by the team members (see Attachment 11) and a consensus reached on the number of meetings at which items were raised. If items were raised at either four or five of these meetings, then their importance was rated as high. If items were raised at two or three meetings, then their importance was rated as medium. If items were raised at only one meeting, then their
FIGURE 4.1  STANDARDS OF IMPORTANCE

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Criterion</th>
<th>Standard</th>
<th>Importance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Number of meetings in which an issue was recorded as having been discussed.</td>
<td>4 or 5 times</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2 or 3 times</td>
<td>Medium</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1 time</td>
<td>Low</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

importance was rated as low. These standards of importance are summarised in Figure 4.1.

The frequency count was used to rank in order of importance, from highest to lowest, the issues raised in the document analysis. These data are recorded in Tables 4.2, 4.3, 4.4. The document analysis led to findings that were concerned with three elements: factors involved in the training programs, ways to produce successful volunteer tourist police training programs, and policy implications. Each finding, accompanied by a discussion, is dealt with separately, below.

Factors involved in the training program

As shown in Table 4.2, the frequency count revealed that there were seven issues that related to preparing the volunteer training program. The trainers’ qualifications, the background of the volunteers and provision of an appropriate curriculum were issues judged to be of high importance. The location of resources, e.g., using websites, appropriate time allocation, and budget were judged to be of medium importance for the training program. Finally, the place where the training took place was judged to be of low importance.

Discussion

This section was part of a document analysis that identified the factors involved in the training programs. These were identified as the issues that
were most frequently discussed in the regular meetings held prior to implementing the training programs. Trainers’ qualifications, the volunteers’ backgrounds and having an appropriate curriculum were rated high in importance. Issues concerned with designing the training programs – resources, time and budget – were rated medium in importance. These results suggest that the program staff placed the priority to the qualified trainers and the trainees’ background. They believed that both groups have a major role in the training programs.

**Ways to produce successful volunteer tourist police training program**

Three issues raised and recorded in the documents were related to the success of the training program: the trainers, the trainees and collaboration with other organisations. All three issues were judged to be of high importance. To arrange successful training programs requires high quality personnel; similarly, the quality of the volunteers needs to be high, although criteria for establishing this quality were not spelt out in these early documents. The success of the training programs, it was suggested, depended, jointly, on both trainers and trainees. Finally, when arranging any training programs, it is necessary to seek collaboration from other organisations (see Table 4.3).
## TABLE 4.3 ANTECEDENT ISSUES FOR A SUCCESSFUL TRAINING PROGRAM

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Issue</th>
<th>Number of meetings/5</th>
<th>Importance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Quality of personnel</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Qualifications of volunteers</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Collaboration with other organisations</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Discussion

The highest requirement for a successful training program was the engagement of qualified personnel – both the trainers and the trainees. Of these two, having staff who were appropriately qualified was seen as the more important consideration for successful training programs. This raises the question of appropriate selection. Collaboration with outside organisations was also ranked highly. The training programs were concerned with assisting volunteers to accomplish a diverse variety of tasks. Development of first-aid skills, for example, meant dealing with medical care and medical staff, as well as seeking collaboration between hospital and medical centres. Developing English language skills involved the tourist police division in hiring specialists to advise on the nature of the program; for example, how the language should be taught and what kind of materials should be used.

### Policy implications

There were three policy implications that emerged from the document analysis. The frequency count of number of meetings at which issues were addressed, shown in Table 4.4, indicate that the objectives of the program and the efficiency of the operation ranked high in importance in setting up the volunteer training programs. Evaluation of cost-effectiveness was judged to be of medium importance.
### TABLE 4.4 ANTECEDENT POLICY ISSUES

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Issue</th>
<th>Number of meetings/5</th>
<th>Importance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Objectives of the program</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Efficiency of the operation</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Evaluation of cost-effectiveness</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>Medium</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Discussion

The two high importance policy issues related to the planning of the program and indicate a concern with outcomes. First, objectives need to be taken into consideration and then the program should be arranged to reach the objectives. At the same time, a policy requirement was that the operation should be efficient, particularly with respect to budget. To ensure operational efficiency, an evaluation of cost-effectiveness is needed to check whether the programs were cost-effective in their delivery.

### Phase 2: Questionnaires about the trainers (Antecedents)

The program staff, consisting of 25 Thai tourist police personnel associated with the current training programs in Phuket were asked to complete a Likert-style questionnaire to determine baseline data associated with the following:

- Extent of their involvement;
- Level of their commitment;
- Intent of the trainers;
- Observations, implicit standards and judgements about these programs.

The purpose of the questionnaire was to collect the opinions of program staff with respect to these four issues. Eighteen items were developed and a 5-point rating scale was used: 5=strongly agree, 4=agree, 3=neutral, 2=disagree, 1=strongly disagree to record responses (see Attachment 12).
The mean and standard deviation of each item was calculated using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences v.10 (SPSS) software program. In order to identify whether the respondents gave a ‘high’ ‘medium’ or ‘low’ rating to the items, criteria were set as follows:

- mean greater than 4 is judged a ‘high’ rating for the item;
- mean between 3 and 4 is judged a ‘moderate’ rating;
- mean less than 3 is judged a ‘low’ rating.

**Extent of involvement**

The program staff indicated a moderate level of involvement in the selection of the trainers. They were particularly aware of the importance of selecting trainers with appropriate qualifications. They were involved to a slightly lesser extent in a consideration of the volunteers’ background. The program staff reported a low level of involvement in curriculum design, the selection of resources, and in establishing timings and locations. These results are contained in Table 4.5.

**Discussion**

The program staff indicated that their greatest level of involvement lay in considering the qualifications of trainers: the best qualified trainers would present the most successful training programs. Thus, establishing appropriate criteria for the selection of trainers prior to each training program was a most

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TABLE 4.5 EXTENT OF INVOLVEMENT</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Element</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Trainers’ qualifications</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Volunteer background</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Curriculum design</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Resource identification and availability</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Arranging time and locations</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
important task at this stage. There was also a moderate level of involvement in establishing the selection criteria for the volunteers. Informal discussions revealed that if the volunteers had backgrounds that were widely diverse then the program was less likely to be successful.

**Level of commitment**

The second part of the questionnaire was used to elicit the areas and the extent of which the program staff and officers were committed in planning for the training programs. As shown in Table 4.6, the program staff had a high commitment to selecting both trainers and volunteers. The program staff, while having a moderate commitment, did not have adequate time to select appropriate materials.

**TABLE 4.6 LEVEL OF COMMITMENT**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Element</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Commitment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Selection of trainers and specialists</td>
<td>3.5</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Selection of volunteers</td>
<td>3.8</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Selection of materials</td>
<td>3.0</td>
<td>Moderate</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Discussion**

The program staff were highly committed to the selection of trainers and specialists. Because of time limitations, the selection of materials received a moderate commitment. As a consequence, they chose to use commercially available curriculum materials.

**Intent of the trainers**

The third part of the questionnaire sought a rating of the intentions of the trainers. As shown in Table 4.7, the staff showed a high intention to obtain qualified trainers and volunteers. They showed a moderate intention to
establish an appropriate curriculum. They indicated a low intention of being involved in obtaining suitable resources, and establishing timings and locations for the training programs.

**Discussion**

It is clear that the program staff were strongly intent on obtaining both qualified trainers and qualified volunteers, and in developing an appropriate curriculum. Details of what resources would be required, and where the programs would be run and when, were areas in which they showed a lower intention to be involved in the antecedent stage. This suggests that they were most intent on establishing the broad parameters of the program than on any detailed planning for the program and its delivery, in part, due to the lack of time to address all issues adequately.

**Observations**

The last part of the questionnaire relates to the observations about program details that were made by staff during the planning stages. As shown in Table 4.8, the program staff observed that, to a high extent, objectives for the program had been set, and criteria for ensuring that the trainers were appropriately qualified had been established. Selection criteria for volunteers were less-well established of the volunteers. Selection of suitable teaching materials and scheduling details had not received a great deal of attention.

### TABLE 4.7 INTENTIONS OF PROGRAM STAFF

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Element</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Intention</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. To obtain qualified trainers</td>
<td>3.8</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. To obtain qualified volunteers</td>
<td>3.6</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. To establish an appropriate curriculum</td>
<td>3.0</td>
<td>Moderate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. To obtain suitable resources</td>
<td>2.8</td>
<td>Low</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. To locate appropriate times and places</td>
<td>2.0</td>
<td>Low</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### TABLE 4.8 OBSERVATIONS ON PLANNING

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Element</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Observed extent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Objectives had been set</td>
<td>3.6</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Trainers were qualified</td>
<td>3.4</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Volunteers appropriately selected</td>
<td>3.0</td>
<td>Moderate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Materials were suitable</td>
<td>2.8</td>
<td>Low</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Time was suitable</td>
<td>2.0</td>
<td>Low</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Discussion**

It is clear that the program staff were strongly intent on setting objectives for the program, setting the criteria for the selection of trainers for the programs. The data suggest that they achieved these intentions. They went part-way to establishing selection criteria for the volunteers. Their observations confirmed that throughout this antecedent period, course and management details received less attention than might have been desired.

**Phase 3: A Focus group interview of key personnel involved**

Following the first two phases – involving a document analysis and the completion and analysis of a questionnaire – it was deemed necessary to obtain more detailed data from the key personnel involved in the administration of the program.

A focus group interview of the four senior training personnel involved both in program development and in its delivery was undertaken following analysis of the questionnaire survey. Items to be discussed were derived from the first two phases in order that the deeper understanding of the trainers and the programs could be obtained (see Attachment 13). The presentation of the findings from the focus group interview is divided into the seven categories that were addressed:
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Analysis and Discussion of Findings

1. Qualifications and selection of trainers;
2. Selection of volunteers;
3. Designing appropriate curriculum;
4. Resource availability;
5. Time allocation;
6. Budget allocation;
7. Training location.

There was a high level of agreement among these four senior training personnel who found that trainers should be well-trained and well-prepared before the training. In addition, the trainers should be carefully selected to suit the particular training programs. One respondent’s description of trainers can be cited as an example:

I find that the trainers should have good qualifications and are keen in their field. For example, trainers of English language program should be native speakers or teachers of English. The tourist police cannot do this.

The tourist police who become trainers can give training in the specific skills program. As for the first-aid skills program, the trainers need to be medical staff.

All participants expressed a strong belief that the trainers should be carefully selected. One stated:

Qualified trainers could make qualified training programs.

A second respondent agreed:

For me, trainers should be well trained and possess good qualifications in order that they could help run the good training programs.

In spite of their agreement on the selection of qualified trainers, they found that it was not easy to find appropriate specialists. They found a solution
when they hired specialists and native speakers for the specific-skills program and English language, respectively.

**Selection of volunteers**

The respondents indicated that trainees must have a minimum qualification: a Mathayom 3 (M3) degree, the equivalent of graduating from high school at Year 9 level.

The four respondents agreed that a volunteer’s background should be regarded as an important factor. Nevertheless, they had different perceptions regarding acceptance of the volunteers’ backgrounds. Three of them believed that the degree, alone, would demonstrate a capacity to benefit from the training. The fourth proposed a proficiency test as well, to be administered before the training started.

In the subsequent discussion, one participant was worried that the M3 degree might not be appropriate for all applicants since the volunteers might have ages ranging from teens to sixty. A pre- and post-test might help the trainers and the program staff to decide what to teach and to estimate the capability of the trainees.

Overall, the selection of the volunteers as trainees was seen to be as important as the selection of the trainers. What was intended, in order to make the most of the training programs, was that the selection should be done carefully in order that they could choose both the qualified trainers and trainees.

**Responses towards the design of appropriate curriculum**

All participants found it difficult to design appropriate curriculum for the programs. They intended to use existing curricula but they recognised that these might not be suitable for all situations. The program staff recognised that they needed to adapt some parts of the existing curriculum prior to offering the program.
An associated problem was the limited time available in which to design an appropriate curriculum. One participant believed that the existing curriculum could be used as a frame for designing the programs and the curriculum.

Due to the limited time, we can use the existing curriculum as a frame for our training programs. We can change some parts to suit our situation and use it now.

All respondents believed an appropriate curriculum was absolutely necessary to make the training programs successful.

**Resource Availability**

All respondents agreed that resources for the training programs were important. They worried, however, that there was a lack of resources for each training program. One suggestion was to find commercial texts for the English language program:

I agree that resource availability should be considered but there is a lack of resource. The English language program is an example of the program lacking resources. Could I suggest the use of commercial texts instead of designing on our own?

It seemed that others agreed with this idea. Resources, here, referred to the materials and the equipment to practice English language such as computers and labs. It appears to be a difficult task to provide such resources unless there are long-term plans for the training programs. In addition, it had not yet been proved that the programs were successful. One respondent argued that the English language program would benefit from access to computers:

It is a pity if we could not have one room with computers for the trainees to study and practice.
A second respondent expressed his concern, not with the resources, but with the need for professional development to make best use of resources:

> It would not be helpful if we do not know how to make use of the resources no matter how good and useful the resources that are available in the training sessions.

All agreed that, for the other two training programs, manuals prepared by the trainers and staff should be used.

**Time allocation**

All respondents agreed that the time set for the training programs was adequate. Fifty hours per training program seemed to strike a balance:

> 50 hour for each training program should be enough.

It seemed that it would put trainees off if they have to study for so long.

There was an indication that the time allocation might be longer:

> If it is too short, the trainees will not get anything for use.

However, the respondents found it hard to extend the time since they have limitations in terms of budget and staff.

> Three respondents wanted the programs to run continuously in order that those trainees would get the most benefit from what they have learned.

> In fact we should provide the programs continuously in order that the volunteers could have the chance to learn.

While there was not extensive discussion of the number of programs that should be offered one respondent recommended multiple programs:

> The programs should be run throughout the year.
The outcome was that there should be a continuous program made up of three distinct components, running for a total of 50 hours.

**Budget allocation**

All respondents agreed that the budget is a most important factor in running the programs. One respondent commented:

> Budget is the most important factor.

Without sufficient budget, they would not be able to run the program well. There was a specific reference to the need to hire specialists by two respondents:

> The budget should enable us to hire the specialists, reserve the place and buy the books and materials.

> We could do many things if we have got sufficient budget. We could even hire qualified trainers we want to if we could afford.

One participant expressed his concern regarding the budget that it should not be equally allocated for each training program since one program may require more staff and resources than the other.

> Budget for each training program should not be equally allocated due to the nature of each program.

**Training location**

All respondents agreed that appropriate places for training programs are important for both the trainers and trainees. An example of this was the specific-skills program which required a place for practical applications such as rescuing from drowning. Since the nature of each program is different, an appropriate place for each training program was required. This was particularly the case for the English language program:
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The volunteers should be able to study in the classroom. Ideally there should be computers and audio tapes for them to practice.

The English language program requires the respondents to practice a lot in terms of listening and speaking skills.

Discussion of the focus group interview

Different viewpoints were provided by four senior program staff when they participated in the focus group interview. As they discussed each of the seven aspects, they first of all presented their own point of view, and then move on to an agreed view, i.e. a consensus.

To begin with, the staff agreed that the trainers are the most important part of the training programs. They tried to select the most qualified trainers to suit each training program. If they were unable to find suitable trainers from the area, they agreed to hire specialists from outside. ‘Trainees’ or ‘volunteers’ are also important part of the training program. They realised that the volunteers might come from different places and have different background. Some are souvenir vendors and some own restaurants in the area. The training programs should take the variety of learners’ background and career into consideration.

Resource availability was another aspect on which the program staff placed emphasis. There are insufficient resource, at the present, for the English language course; the respondents wished to seek more resources from the internet or from commercial textbooks. In regard to the specific skills program, the program staff decided to ask the trainers, who are policemen, to prepare their own manuals. The first-aid skills program should be supported by the medical professions.

The program staff discussed the duration of the training program and they agreed to have a 50-hour program since it is not too long for those volunteers. Budget and place are the two aspects that were to be included in the program policy.
Intended and observed antecedents

The intended antecedents were revealed in the document analysis: minutes of meeting and notebooks. The observed antecedents were addressed in two ways. First, a questionnaire was given to the program staff in order that they could give their opinion towards the program in terms of their involvement, commitment, intents and observations. Second, a focus group interview was conducted in order that a deeper understanding of the trainers’ views might be elicited. The stakeholders in this phase include the program staff and the tourist police who were involved in setting up the programs, and the police who acted as trainers. A summary of the congruence between intended antecedents and observed antecedents is contained in Table 4.9.

The program staff placed great emphasis on the qualification of trainers and trainees were considered the most important factors of the programs since both were mentioned in every part of both the intended and the observed antecedents. For example, the frequency counts in the document analysis rated qualification of trainers the highest. This is similar to the

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TABLE 4.9</th>
<th>CONGRUENCE BETWEEN INTENDED AND OBSERVED ANTECEDENTS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Element</td>
<td>Intended Antecedents</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Qualified trainers</td>
<td>Specialists • native speakers • tourist police</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Qualified volunteers</td>
<td>Similar background</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Appropriate curriculum</td>
<td>Designed by program staff</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Availability of resources</td>
<td>Ready-made materials, manuals</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Budget</td>
<td>Enough</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Time</td>
<td>Appropriate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Place</td>
<td>Convenient</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
results in the questionnaires done with the program staff. Especially in the focus group interview, the qualification of trainers was mentioned as a priority. This suggests that the most important factor in the training program is the qualification of trainers. This included the hiring of specialists to run the specialist skills programs.

Volunteers’ qualifications was another issue that rated highly in the frequency counts (intended antecedents) and the focus group interview (observed antecedent). It is reasonable to suggest that the appropriateness of the volunteers’ qualification could contribute significantly to the success or failure of the program. In the focus group interview, it was agreed that volunteers should have at least a Mathayom 3 degree.

The intended antecedents and observed antecedents revealed the congruence among the factors mentioned except for ‘qualified volunteers’. The intention had been to recruit volunteers who the same background or very similar backgrounds. In practice, those who applied did so on an entirely voluntarily basis and it was unfair to ignore those who did apply. It was suggested by the program staff that a recruiting system was needed and that an entry-level test might be devised to help select the target persons.

From these antecedent considerations it is clear that the trainers and trainees, two of the three main stakeholders in the training program, were given the highest rankings in each of the four sections of the questionnaire. This suggests that the personnel comprising these two groups should be given the highest consideration when preparing the training program. The quality of both trainer and volunteer backgrounds were regarded as the two factors that impact most on the effectiveness of the training program. After these considerations, it was the curriculum that needs to be designed especially for the context, taking into account the availability of resources, that should be given closest attention. Without these two factors, the training program could not be effectively operated. Finally, time, place and budget
are the factors are important factors in giving support, in advance, to the training programs.

**Presentation of Program Transactions**

Intensive observations of the delivery of each of the three types of training—first-aid skill, English-language skill, and specific skills were undertaken across two separate and complete phases. The 12 elements of Stake’s Responsive Clock were employed:

1. Identify program scope
2. Overview program activities
3. Discover purposes, concerns
4. Conceptualise issues, problems
5. Identify data needs related to issues
6. Select observers, judges, instruments, if any
7. Observe designated antecedents, transactions, outcomes
8. Thematise, prepare portrayals, case studies
9. Validate, confirm, attempt to disconfirm
10. Winnow, match issues to audiences
11. Format for audience use
12. Talk with clients, program staff, audiences

The methods of data collection that were used within these 12 elements included the following: document analysis; focus group interview; semi-structured interviews of staff and management; course feedback evaluation surveys of trainee participants; a simple street survey of tourists taken in the streets of Phuket; informal discussions with participants, staff and management (casual conversations, logged in a journal; invited meetings; deposition of relevant material); annotated logs; journal entries; and personal reflections. This process revealed what happened during the delivery of the
program, particularly during the delivery of each of the three types of skills training – first-aid skills, English language skills, and specific skills.

**Document analysis**

Data obtained in this phase came from minutes of meetings that were held regularly among the program staff during the program delivery. A count of the issues raised in minutes of meetings was undertaken by the team members (see Attachment 11) and a consensus reached on the number of meetings at which items were raised. If items were raised at either four or five of these meetings, then their importance was rated as ‘high.’ If items were raised at two or three meetings, then their importance was rated as ‘medium’. If items were raised at only one meeting, then their importance was rated as ‘low’. These standards of importance are summarized in Figure 4.1. Problems arising during the program delivery were also pointed out.

**Factors affecting involvement in the program**

Factors affecting involvement during transactions were identified and counted out in the transaction phase. As shown in Table 4.10, attendance of the trainees and program activities were mentioned most frequently and therefore were ranked high as factors affecting the level of involvement. Materials and facilities, and level of difficulty, mentioned less frequently, were rated as medium as factors affecting the level of involvement.

**TABLE 4.10 LEVEL OF INVOLVEMENT IN THE PROGRAM**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factor</th>
<th>Number of meetings</th>
<th>Importance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Attendance</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Program activities</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Materials and facilities</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>Medium</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Level of difficulty</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>Medium</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
TABLE 4.11 PROBLEMS DURING PROGRAM DELIVERY

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factor</th>
<th>Number of meetings</th>
<th>Importance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Irregular of attendance</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of appropriate materials</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of qualified trainers</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>Medium</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of equipment and facilities</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>Medium</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Problems during program delivery

As shown in Table 4.11, among the problems affecting program delivery, irregular attendance, and lack of appropriate materials were rated as high. The lack of qualified trainers, and lack of equipment and facilities were rated as medium in importance.

Focus Group Interview

For the transactions, the four senior program staff of the training who were involved since the very beginning of the programs were interviewed in terms of the program delivery, problems and expected or unexpected transactions that might happen. The focus group interview aims to elicit the opinion of the four program staff regarding the transactions of the program.

Program delivery

All participants agreed that the issue with which they were most concerned was the regular attendance of trainees, the ability of trainees, the application of trainees, and the attitudes of trainees towards the volunteer jobs. Four individual comments of trainers support these views:

I believe that the program set for the volunteers is going well.

I hope that the volunteers were not bored with the programs.
I think that the 50-hour program would be enough for the three training programs. It is not too short or too long.

I hope that the volunteers would use what they learn in their real-life.

Generally, the trainers were positive about the way that the training sessions were running. They were worried, though, about the applicability of what had been delivered

**Problems and solutions**

The first problem that the trainers faced was one that they did not expect: the poor attendance record of the volunteers. The trainers found that the highest level of absenteeism occurred in the first-aid skills program. It was moderate in the specific-skills program and lowest in the English language program. One trainer reported:

> Surprisingly I found out that the trainees did not come to class as expected. This may be due to the lack of an attendance record being taken.

To solve this problem, the trainers agreed to include an attendance score component in the evaluation sheet. Those whose attendance record was less than 80 per cent, it was decided, would not gain a certificate from the program.

The second problem to emerge was the difficulty being experienced by the trainees with the English language capacity expected of the trainees: they simply found the level of English required of them was too demanding. A second trainer commented:

> One problem is that the trainees complained about the difficulty of the texts in English language program.

A third trainer saw that this problem was compounded by the lack of time available for English language practice:
For me, the most serious thing is that the volunteers could not understand
the texts or what the teacher taught them. Besides, they do not have time to
practice. That’s why they complained that it was demanding.

Discussion of the document analysis and the focus group interview

There were two issues arising from the document analysis: factors involved
during the program delivery, and problems. The two issues were counted in
the meetings, and by observation. A frequency count was made of key issues
arising. Of all the factors involved in the program delivery, the one that
created most concern, and was most often discussed, was the attendance of
the trainees. The program staff and the trainers were aware of the importance
of regular attendance. They could see that poor attendance by trainees
reflected a lack of interest and enthusiasm to learn, but that the cause of this
ran deeper.

There was an ‘obvious’ solution: trainees had to attend class not less
than 80 per cent of the time, otherwise, they would not obtain a certificate.
But this addressed the symptom, not the cause. The cause was more
complicated, as revealed in comments recorded regarding the activities and
materials for each training program. It was noted that some trainees could not
understand what happened in the classroom; others could. As a result, tutorial
classes were offered outside of classes for those whose background was
weaker.

Semi-structured interviews of staff and management

The program staff were asked to give their comments regarding the three
training programs. They agreed that the English language program was the
most successful one of the three. Opinions regarding the hiring of native
speakers to teach English varied. Some suggested that the volunteers seemed
to be more relaxed with Thai teachers and they were not embarrassed when
consulting with them. However, those who preferred native speakers felt that
the volunteers should be exposed to authentic English, even though they might find it difficult.

With respect to the specific skills program, the staff observed the class and found that male volunteers should be recruited in this program since they required strength that often involved serious risks. The staff also showed their concern with ethical issues related to the task they practiced, e.g., gun-shooting practice.

The first-aid skills program offered volunteers practical skills in saving the lives of others. The volunteers were reluctant to participate at first, and found it too hard. Nevertheless, they found it useful later and attended the classes regularly. The three training programs required different styles of operation, each of which presented problems.

Training feedback evaluation

During program delivery, course feedback evaluation was undertaken to check whether the trainees were satisfied with the training programs. They were asked to respond to what they thought about the programs. When asked what they liked most, a majority agreed that the trainers were the most impressive part of the course. They also liked the lessons and the atmosphere in the classroom. When considering the programs they liked most, it seemed that the three were equally popular among the trainees. The last question asked the trainees to offer suggestions to improve each training program: the English language program, the specific-skills program, and the first-aid skills program. Detailed responses are included in the sub-sections below.

English language program

Participants agreed that the English language program should be focused on its delivery in terms of trainers, materials and practices. As one respondent reported:
I agree that we should hire experienced teachers of English or native speakers to teach in this program.

There were pros and cons of hiring native speakers as teachers. A second respondent comment:

I prefer to have native speakers in the class since the volunteers were to be exposed to native speakers in their real life.

By contrast, a third respondent suggested that there was a lack of confidence in English language skills and feared a ‘loss of face’ and that Thai teachers were equal to the task:

I do not want native speakers since the volunteers might lack confidence when practicing and asking questions. Thai teachers could do well.

The process to be conducted was intended to provide English language course at pre-intermediate and intermediate level with the emphasis on listening and speaking skills. Generally, respondents regarded these intentions as being useful.

Regarding the content of the English language program, the activities were mostly organized by the teachers. The program staff gave the idea of what trainees should get from the course and the teachers arranged the activities to suit the trainees. One respondent showed enthusiasm for the prepared activities:

I liked activities in the classroom especially games and role plays. This made the class interesting and we are alert all the time.

It was generally agreed that trainees found the time too short and the lessons too difficult for them. This problem was solved by offering an additional tutorial program for them. The issue of whether to hire native speakers or Thai for the program was an interesting one. Some trainees found that native speakers encouraged them to speak better English, but others
found Thai teachers could help them more. It was suggested that the best of both worlds would be obtained by arranging to have both native and Thai teachers involved in the program.

**Specific skills program**

All participants agreed that the specific skills program should be directed to a male group, only, since it was both risky and physically demanding. One female trainee commented:

> This program is a hard job for women. It aims at males only. They also have to be fit for the training.

There was agreement that the 50-hour training session should consist of around 80 per cent of practical applications involving gun shooting, drowning rescues, etc. It was acknowledged that the volunteers had to be prepared for hard training. One respondent supported the inclusion of this component:

> Well, I agree that there should be a training session for the specific skills since it could help the tourists in terms of safety.

The 50-hour training session was set for this program and not all participants agreed with this. They found that the specific skills program required more than expected. There was a concern, however, that 50 hours of training might not be sufficient. A second respondent commented:

> However, the 50-hour training session might not be enough for the volunteers who have to use the weapons in the right way. More training sessions regarding the ethics issue in using the weapon should be added.

This respondent saw the need of both physical readiness, and the volunteers possessing an analytical and careful mind. To train inexperienced users how to use weapons is a risky task for the trainers. The trainees, it was argued, should be careful and realise their duty when to use the weapons; the
program should provide the session showing the negative impact of the use of the weapon as well.

There, there was one participant who was against the idea linking ethics only to the weapons training. They proposed that a general ethics session should be a separate program for volunteers, with a specific ethics session associated with the weapons training:

I think that the ethics session should be provided separately and the volunteers should pass the screening system beforehand. Thus, to offer the ethics session for the use of weapons should be in a separate session.

Most trainees were satisfied with the locations used in this program, except the place for practicing drowning-saving. This occurred along the beach in the front of ‘too many other people’, and that created a distraction during practice. Overall, however, they found the training program quite useful.

**First-aid skills program**

The participants agreed that first-aid skills program should be under the supervision of staff from the medical field. The location and the equipment should be clean and safe similar to that available in a hospital in order that the trainees could practice. It is not easy to meet such requirements. One participant, however, suggested that the program should be held in a hospital or medical centre where there would be sufficient equipment and staff.

This program requires equipment and staff who know well about the patients and treatment. Hospitals will be the best place to train.

However, the first-aid skills program was to be arranged for those volunteers who might have no background in the medical field at all. A 50-hour training session was thus arranged to serve the non-medical background trainees. A second participant appreciated and welcomed this component:
I think the training staff is very important and should give support to the volunteers since I find out that the volunteers lack confidence.

Some of the trainees in the first-aid skills were reluctant and lacked confidence at the beginning of the class; however, they were encouraged by all the staff and they felt happy at the completion of the course.

In general, the volunteers’ responses indicated that the three training elements were successful and that the volunteers had a positive attitude towards this aspect of the program.

**Course feedback evaluation surveys of volunteers**

Open-ended questions were used to elicit responses from the volunteers. They were asked to respond to three items, each of which is discussed below.

**Item 1: What do you like most about the training programs?**

The trainees were impressed by the trainers in the training programs. One respondent valued their expertise:

The teachers are full of experience.

Some of this expertise was quite specific, particularly in the first-aid skills program. A second respondent reported:

I liked the trainers especially those in medical field. They were very kind and patient with us. We had no background in the medical field at all.

The participants approved of the approach taken in each of the three training programs. A third trainee commented:

I like the way they train us especially the specific skills and English language program.
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The responses related to other aspects of training. Some, referring to general expertise reflected on the trainer's ability to create a positive attitude. A fourth trainee reported favourably on their ability to create a success orientation:

They can make a difficult task appear to be easy.

Others commented on the trainers’ style:

The lessons are funny.

The atmosphere, especially when we go outside the classroom and practice, is exciting.

The lessons were practical and I can use these skills in my everyday life.

They were impressed with the trainers. In particular, the lessons and atmosphere encouraged them to learn; consequently, they liked the programs.

**Item 2: Which programs did you find the most useful?**

The participants displayed a variety of preferences. Two respondents favoured the English language program:

English, of course’.

I found that I could use English language in my shop as well.

Another two favoured the specific skills program, despite one finding this program to be challenging:

I liked the specific skills.

Specific skills is challenging job for me.

Finally, there was support for the first-aid skills. One respondent saw an application of these skills in their everyday life:
First aid skill is very useful, especially in my life.

It appears that the three programs were well-liked by the volunteers.

**Item 3: Which part of the programs do you think need improvement?**

Responses that were related to the English language program referred to a range of key issues. One trainee referred to the lack of time:

Time, of course. It is too short.

Another referred to the level of difficulty:

It is too difficult for me.

A third group referred to having English that was directly applicable:

I want the expressions that I can use immediately.

I want to have more basic in English in order to understand more.

A final comment emphasised an aspect raised earlier: being taught by a Thai teacher, rather than a native speaker, in order for more immediate understanding:

I want Thai teachers who will understand us.

This latter point refers, yet again, to the debate among the trainees in terms of teachers. Some wanted to have native speakers, while the others wanted to learn with Thai teachers who will understand better.

Responses relating to the specific skills program were equally diverse. One trainee spoke of the enjoyment of the program:

It’s risky but it’s fun.

Appropriate locations, with appropriate resources were referred to by others:
The place to train should not be crowded like this.

There should be enough equipment in order that we do not have to wait so long.

The quality of the trainers was referred to by another:

The trainers are kind enough to help us.

Finally, there were questions of gender balance, both in the focus of the program, and the challenge faced by women undertaking the program:

No comments since it seemed to focus on the volunteers who are male only.

I found it too hard for a woman to be trained in this program. But I would like to anyway. It is quite challenging.

The participants, while being impressed with the programs, often found it challenging. There appeared to be a male-focus: females felt that the program was not particularly aimed at them; consequently, as they wanted a specific-skills program to be set up for female volunteers only.

Responses related to first-aid skills program were varied. One respondent saw that it provided life-skills:

I like it very much since I can use it in my life too.

Others felt that it was not easy when it had to deal with the patients because did not have the appropriate background.

I find it hard to save one’s life.

They also wanted to practice more in the medical centre. As one respondent said:

I think that we need a place to practice this.
A simple street survey of tourists taken in the streets of Phuket

During the transactions, a survey of tourists was undertaken to assist in determining just how effective the training programs were. Tourists visiting many tourist attractions in Phuket were asked to complete a questionnaire. There were eight statements in the survey questionnaire (see Attachment 18) which was designed to elicit information concerning the attitudes of the tourists towards the assistance of the volunteers after following the volunteer training sessions.

A 5-point Likert-type scale was used: 5 = most important, 4 = important, 3 = average importance, 2 = less important, 1 = least important. In order to identify whether the data show a ‘high’, ‘medium’ or ‘low’ rating for each item, criteria were set as follows: mean greater than 3.0 was judged a ‘high’ rating for the item, mean between 2.0 and 3.0 was judged a ‘medium’ rating, mean less than 2.0 was judged a ‘low’ rating.

The responses elicited from 35 tourists who completed each of the statements in this section of the survey questionnaire are summarized in Table 4.12. Three items were rated as high in importance: need for volunteers, these volunteers should learn English, English communication (speaking) is the language skill required. The remaining items were rated as medium in

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rank</th>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>1. There is a need for volunteers.</td>
<td>3.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>4. Volunteers should learn English.</td>
<td>3.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>3. Communication is mostly needed.</td>
<td>3.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>7. First-aid skills are mostly needed.</td>
<td>3.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>8. Volunteers are well-trained.</td>
<td>3.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>5. Volunteers were able to use English.</td>
<td>2.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>2. The assistance of volunteers is satisfactory</td>
<td>2.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>6. Volunteers could help in risky jobs.</td>
<td>2.7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
importance. Of these it was seen that first-aid skills were those most in need, and that the volunteers should be well trained. Being able to use English effectively was seen to be a medium need. The items rated lowest were a satisfactory level of assistance was offered, and that the volunteers could help in risky jobs.

This suggests that, overall, there was moderate to high visitor support for the volunteer program. Having reasonable English speaking and listening skills was seen as being the highest priority and that their greatest area of assistance was in applying first-aid skills – although expectations were only moderate. The area of lowest expectation was in the support of risky activities.

Logs and journals

The following sub-sections contain the results of the logs of observers and the evaluators made during the transactions. The observers and the evaluators were asked to record what they observed in each of the program’s components in terms of behaviour, interaction and progress of the volunteers (see Attachment 19).

Behaviour

The volunteers in the three training programs seemed to be eager to learn. They attended the class and noted down all the things. They also asked questions and anything they wanted to know. They practiced a lot when they learned in the specific-skills program and first-aid skills program. They had good intentions towards study.

Interaction

The observers found that the volunteers in each training program had a variety of interactions between themselves, and with the trainers. As for English language skill, trainees tend to talk a great deal with each other and to discuss issues amongst themselves: they enjoyed learning among
them selves. The activities in the classroom were designed to encourage them to have interactions amongst their friends.

**Progress**

The observers noticed that the most remarkable progress was observed in the English language program. The trainees showed considerable progress in the activities given to them. In particular, they lost their shyness in speaking with foreigners.

In regard to behaviour, enthusiasm and eagerness were noted as the main advantages for the volunteers as a result of studying in the program. This was due, particularly, to the trainers’ capability and the materials used. Regarding interaction, the observations showed that the trainees had interaction with each other and found their learning to be fun. They seemed to enjoy being with their friends in class. The observers also found that the volunteers had shown steady progress in their development. In particular, they noted that the volunteers in the English language skill program had increased their willingness to talk with foreigners.

**Personal reflections**

As part of the transactions, personal reflections were drawn from program staff and the trainers. Personal reflections were recorded by program staff and trainers from each group.

**Program staff**

Program staff observed the three training programs regularly. They attended class each day during the program delivery in order to observe the situation and to help solve problems. One observer of the English language problem recorded the following:

I found out that the volunteers could not attend the class regularly. Personally this may be due to their job. I really want them to attend the
class more often since language needs a kind of practice. However, they attended the class with eagerness and they are willing to practice and use what they learn in their real life situation.

A second observer commented on the specific-skills program:

I found out that the male volunteers attended class regularly and they seemed to enjoy the training session. This may be due to the nature of the sessions which enhance the use of strength.

The first-aid skills program had to be held in a suitable location such as a hospital or medical centre. It was most noticeable that the trainees did not have a background in first aid. One observer reflected:

The trainees do not have a background in medical science and began as novices in the first-aid area. Most are enthusiastic to learn, but are afraid of practicing.

The program staff observed the three programs from the beginning until the end of the program. They commented on the positive attitude of the trainees towards the programs, and their general eagerness to participate, despite their lack of background which showed in their lack of confidence in participating in practical activities.

**Trainers**

During the program delivery, trainers recorded their reflections, focusing on issues of trainee attendance, trainee participation, materials and achievement of specific programs. A trainer involved in the English language program recorded the following reflection:

The program seems to be successful since the trainees enjoy the class. However, some could not attend the class regularly. They have to earn their living as well. I found that there are a few who are outstanding in the group and continued to practice outside class. They also asked questions about the things they want to know in their real-life situation. I am
impressed with this. When they asked me about the things they met in the street, I think that they were applying the things they had learnt.

A second trainer made this response about the specific-skills program:

This is a challenging program for these volunteers. They are all males and they enjoy practicing a lot. They found it tough. Some found it too risky. The trainees attended the class with eagerness. What worries them comes from their concerns about safety. They want to ensure that the guns and equipments used in the training programs are inspected. They want to be assured that they have no risk in practicing.

A third trainer reflected on the first-aid skills program

The first-aid skills program seems to be demanding for the volunteers. They find it hard to practice life-saving practice since it involves the lives of others. The trainers are of great help and try to encourage the volunteers to gain more self-confidence. At first there was a lack of attendance but later the volunteers attended the classes regularly. This may be due to the confidence they have gained. They have realised how useful the first-aid skills is to their real-life.

The trainers indicated their satisfaction with the three training programs proved to be satisfactory. The volunteers in English language program felt enthusiastic and tried to use English outside class. It seemed that they could apply what they learnt. The volunteers in the specific skills program showed an eagerness to practice and the trainers were encouraged to give them more support in terms of safety. The volunteers in the first-aid skills program at first were reluctant to be involved in the program since they lacked confidence. Later on, they had gained in confidence and found the program to be personally useful.

Responsive clock

Stake’s ‘responsive clock’ approach was employed in this phase in order to identify transactions in the program that could be described as being
successful. Twelve steps of program delivery, as described by Stake (2004) were considered within this transaction phase: identifying program scope; overviewing program activities; discovering purpose and concern; conceptualising issues and problems; identifying data needs related to issues; selecting observers, judges, instruments; observing designated antecedent, transactions and outcomes; thematising; preparing portrayals; validating, confirming, and attempting to disconfirm; winnowing; matching issues to audiences; formatting for audience use; and talking with clients and program staff.

Not all of these steps, however, were able to be used because lack of time and limitation on the number of observers/evaluators made this impractical. Nevertheless, the limited applications showed that the program activities met the scope of the program and that the trainers felt satisfied with the three programs. The trainees’ and participants’ responses appeared to assure the success of the programs since they found the programs useful and interesting. Tourists, who were one group of stakeholders in the program, appeared to be satisfied with the volunteers’ assistance in terms of language, safety and first-aid help. Thus, selective use of Stake’s responsive clock helped to identify the activities, their sequences in the study, and their importance within the program.

**Program case studies**

A case study of each training program was undertaken. Three elements of each training program were considered: planning, delivery and the outcome. One volunteer from each training program was randomly chosen and observed by the program staff. The three short case studies are presented below.

**Case study 1: English Program**

A woman named Somsri attended the 50-hour English program. She obtained a certificate when she finished her Mathayom 3. She was in her forties with
two children. At first she used to work with a cleaning company. Then she had to support her family and her children alone since her husband died in a car accident. She now runs a small shop selling food and souvenirs near tourist spots. She found English important since she wanted to communicate with foreigners in order to sell the products in the shop. At first Somsri felt that to study English was a difficult task. She took assignments home and practiced on her own. Somsri liked such expressions as ‘How are you?’ ‘Thank you, sir’. Or ‘Nice to meet you’. Since Somsri runs her own shop selling food, she wants to know the names of each item and how to respond to customers when ordering the food. The 50-hour program for Somsri was not enough since she determined to speak English. Somsri found out that she could help tourists when they asked her the direction and the way to some places. She wanted to learn more about the directions as well. She was well-satisfied with the program, reporting:

I found it useful for me and I am not shy anymore. I can sell food and help those tourists when they ask me about tourist spots. I can practice speaking when the tourists come to ask me. I feel happy to help the country.

Somsri was an enthusiastic student. Despite her difficulties with English language, she tried hard to learn. Her enthusiasm was emphasised in her regular attendance. She realised that the English program was of benefit both in terms of her life and for Thai society. She had a strong intention to learn despite her limited English language background. As a volunteer, she had her own goals and these led her to be eager and motivated to learn. The classes provided her with experiences that were practical and not too difficult. It appeared that the resources and materials were suitable for this particular volunteer.

Case Study 2: Specific-skills program

A male named Somsak, in his fifties, attended the specific-skills program. He had previously worked in a small company but had taken early retirement.
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His retirement benefits enabled him to buy a van. He had thus become a driver and a guide at the same time while taking tourists to many tourist spots in Phuket. He intended to learn more in the specific skills program since he found it important both when driving and guiding. He attended class regularly and found it challenging. Since the program required no background knowledge he, like the other learners, had gaps in his background knowledge. However, he found that trainers tried to simplify the content in the classroom and he could follow their instruction easily. He commented:

Sometimes I do not understand the instruction. It is not quite clear for me.  
But the trainers helped me a lot.

He, like the other volunteers were to be trained to help rather than for their own benefit. He had enjoyed the practical experiences, commenting, for example:

Gun shooting practice was fun. I liked it.

He realised that the specific skills program also required strength, determination and strong intention since it involved risks. In particular, drowning-saving practice required the volunteers who could swim well and be strong enough to take a victim to shore.

Somsak had good intentions to practice. This was consistent with his goal to use his training while working. He understood that there was a gap in learning and practicing. He seemed to be satisfied with the lessons. He found the trainers were important in the classroom: when the issues addressed during class became too difficult for the trainees, the trainers had been able to clarify and simplify the content. Somsak concluded that the program was useful, but not easy. Overall, he had liked the program very much.
Case study 3: First-aid skills Program

A woman named Cholthicha attended a first-aid skills program used to work in a government service sector. She had quit her job since the salary was not sufficient for her to maintain her family. She now has her own shop selling souvenirs. She is in her thirties and had no previous background knowledge in the medical field. She was born in Phuket and loves her homeland very much. She chose the program because she was interested in this, but was without background knowledge in the field. She had intention to practice first-aid skills in order that she could help tourists in cases of emergency. She wanted her hometown to be the centre of tourist place in the South. What she found difficult was the use of the equipment and the practical application. She was faced with practices that might be too risky for her. She commented:

I think it was too difficult for me to practice.

Initially, she came to class regularly; later, she missed the class quite often. She was concerned that she had no background in medical science and this worried her when it came to practical applications. She simply could not carry through, in practice:

I really cannot do it when I face the real situation.

Cholthicha is an example of a volunteer who lacked confidence. She found it hard to practice, especially as, the trainees sometimes had to practice in a hospital or medical centre. She came to class regularly at the beginning but dropped out before the end of the program. The first-aid skills program requires trainees who have strong intentions and the confidence to succeed: the task involves life and death issues.

Discussion

The case studies provide an insight into three different volunteers from the training programs. Two, one female, one male, felt satisfied with the training
programs and with the trainers. Although one of these two showed lack of confidence at first, he gained such thing at the end with the help of the trainers and the staff. The third, a female, without any knowledge of medical science and lacking in confidence, was overwhelmed by the practical demands of the program, and dropped out.

**Analysis of Transactions**

The responses in this phase referred to the transactions in which emphasis was placed on five aspects of the program: attendance, motivation, learners’ attitudes and learning materials. The data from the stakeholders – program staff, trainers, volunteers and tourists enabled triangulation of sources and the presentation of the different perspectives and values of each of the four groups of stakeholders, thus eliminating problems of bias. Ultimately, the data was used to reveal congruence, or otherwise, between the intended and observed transactions.

The data revealed that there was, indeed, a high level of congruence between intended transactions and observed transactions and the levels of congruence are summarized in Table 4.13. There was lack of congruence on only one factor: that of attendance. Attendance was irregular in all three programs, but was especially evident in the English language skills program. As a result, it was suggested by the program managers that an attendance ‘score’ should be included in the final grading. Anyone with an attendance rating of less than 80 per cent should not receive accreditation for the course.

**Summary of Transactions**

A general issue raised during the program delivery was motivation and a consideration of how it affected the attendance of the volunteers. The findings support the belief that most volunteers were highly motivated and were eager to participate; however, irregular attendance indicated that, for a number of undisclosed reasons, their commitment was not complete. This was the only down-side in the delivery of the program.
TABLE 4.13 LEVEL OF CONGRUENCE BETWEEN INTENDED AND OBSERVED TRANSACTIONS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Element</th>
<th>Intended Antecedents</th>
<th>Congruence</th>
<th>Observed Antecedents</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Motivation</td>
<td>Motivated</td>
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<td>Motivated</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attendance</td>
<td>Regular</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Irregular</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Learning materials</td>
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<td>Yes</td>
<td>Appropriate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trainers</td>
<td>Qualified</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Qualified</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Level of difficulty</td>
<td>Suitable</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Suitable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Time</td>
<td>Adequate</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Location of training</td>
<td>Appropriate</td>
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<td>Appropriate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>• entry level</td>
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</tr>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• applicability</td>
<td>Applicable</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>applicable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• level</td>
<td>Suitable</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>suitable</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

During the program delivery, tourists were randomly chosen and given questionnaires in order that they could give feedback on what volunteers have done. It was found that tourists were willing to help and eager to assist, and that they appreciated the efforts of the volunteers as they worked through the program.

The program staff also felt satisfied with what had been accomplished during the delivery of the program. They found, through their regular observation, that the volunteers had shown progress in their study. In general, the objectives of the program had been accomplished as expected, apart from the irregular attendance of the volunteers.

Presentation of Program Outcomes

In the outcomes stage, the results of the training programs were explored to see if the objectives of the training program were achieved or not. Data
relating to the outcomes of the program were obtained from three sources: tourists, volunteers and the program staff – the stakeholders who were involved and upon whom the training programs impacted. Tourists were the persons who requested help from volunteers, thus, they were able to provide information on as to how well the volunteers performed. Volunteers were the people who had been trained and who were involved in the training programs from the beginning; hence, they demonstrated their learnings and application of the necessary skills imparted during the training programs. The program staff were the persons who observed the programs from the very beginning. Thus, they were able to provide feedback on what they had observed; they were able to reflect on and assess what they had expected to achieve as part of the program. Reflections from each of these three sources are considered in the next sub-sections.

Feedback from tourists

Since tourists were stakeholders sought assistance from the volunteers, questionnaires were given to them to check their particular needs and the responses that they received from the volunteers. A questionnaire, using a 5-point Likert-type scale, and divided into three parts – English language program, specific-skills program and first-aid skills program – was employed. A 5-point rating scale was used, as follows: 5=strongly agree, 4=agree, 3=neutral, 2=disagree and 1=strongly disagree. A copy of the questionnaire is contained in Attachment 21. The issues raised in the questionnaire focused on the job of volunteers and were concerned with willingness to help, ability to do the task and their satisfaction with the assistance. Almost 100 questionnaires were distributed, on a random basis, to tourists who were spending their time in Phuket.

In order to identify whether items achieved a ‘high, ‘medium’ or ‘low’ rating, criteria were set as follows: mean=3.5 up was judged a ‘high’ rating for the item, mean between 2.5 and 3.4 was judged a medium rating, and mean less than 2.5 was judged a low rating.
TABLE 4.14  ENGLISH LANGUAGE PROGRAM FEEDBACK FROM TOURISTS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Element</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Satisfaction in volunteers’ assistance</td>
<td>3.9</td>
<td>.30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ability to communicate</td>
<td>4.0</td>
<td>.30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Willingness to help</td>
<td>3.9</td>
<td>.30</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

English language program feedback from tourists

As shown by the data in Table 4.14, the feedback from the tourists indicated a uniformly high rating. The volunteers were willing to offer help and to communicate with the tourists. They were able to communicate most successfully. These responses suggest that the tourists were impressed with the overall quality of the communication and with the assistance given. The program outcomes were judged to be successful: the satisfaction level of the tourists was rated as high. It was reported, however, that there were some tourists who had found that the English ability of the volunteers was not as high as they had expected.

Specific skills program feedback from tourists

The data in Table 4.15 suggest that the tourists were impressed, overall, with the skills shown by the volunteers. The ‘high’ rating associated with the satisfaction and willingness items strongly supports this. The response to the

TABLE 4.15  SPECIFIC SKILLS PROGRAM: FEEDBACK FROM TOURISTS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Element</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Satisfaction with volunteers’ assistance</td>
<td>3.8</td>
<td>.32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ability to assist</td>
<td>3.7</td>
<td>.42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Willingness to help</td>
<td>3.8</td>
<td>.32</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
ability to assist item, though high, was a little lower than for the other two items, and there was a more diverse range of responses.

It may be concluded that the high outcome for the special skills items suggests that the volunteer training had been effective. There is also a suggestion that the volunteers became more confident as they practiced their skills.

**First Aid skills program feedback from tourists**

The data in Table 4.16 suggest that the tourists were also impressed with the first aid skills program. All items were rated equally at high. There was a greater spread of opinion between the ability and willingness items than the satisfaction item. This suggests a high level of satisfaction overall, with slightly more doubt about the actual ability to assist, and the volunteers willingness to help. This would appear to be consistent with the transaction findings: that the volunteers lacked confidence in their knowledge of the equipment and in their ability to deliver a high standard of treatment.

From the point of view of overall tourist satisfaction, it is reasonable to judge the program outcomes as having being successful.

**Volunteers’ evaluation**

After completing the training program, the volunteers were asked to evaluate the three training programs using the questionnaire contained in Attachment 4.16.

**TABLE 4.16 FIRST AID SKILLS PROGRAM: FEEDBACK FROM TOURISTS**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Element</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Satisfaction in volunteers’ assistance</td>
<td>3.7</td>
<td>.43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ability to assist</td>
<td>3.7</td>
<td>.46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Willingness to help</td>
<td>3.7</td>
<td>.46</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
TABLE 4.17  VOLUNTEERS’ EVALUATION OF PROGRAM

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Element</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. The goals were stated clearly</td>
<td>3.5</td>
<td>.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Trainers were capable</td>
<td>3.8</td>
<td>.43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. The materials were practical</td>
<td>3.9</td>
<td>.42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Learners have more confidence</td>
<td>3.8</td>
<td>.48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Training, overall, was effective</td>
<td>3.9</td>
<td>.40</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

22. There were 20 volunteers in the English skills program, 18 volunteers in the specific skills program, and 17 volunteers in the first-aid skills program. The total number of the responses was 55. Their responses are summarised in Table 4.17.

Once again, the responses for all items fell within the high range; there were, however, three groupings of responses. The highest concerned effective training and practical materials; the middle concerned capable trainers and confident learners; the lowest concerned the goals being stated clearly. The most general agreement was that the training was effective (SD=.40). There was a little more divergence, regarding practical materials and capable trainers. The greatest divergence in views concerned learners having gained confidence and a clear statement of goals. From these data the conclusion may be drawn that the volunteers were impressed by the trainers who played a major role in the program, and with the materials that they provided. While many learners had gained in confidence, there were some who felt less sure about this. The lowest rating and greatest spread was found in the goals being stated clearly.

What is very clear is that most felt that the training had been effective. The volunteers found that the trainers were capable and fully supportive; they also found that the lessons could be applied in their everyday life. However, as reported in the transactions report, they did find that the resources were inadequate: for example, there was a lack of sufficient
equipment for them to be able to practice in the first-aid skills program. Overall, the volunteers found that they had been able to achieve the program’s goals and that they had learned much from the training programs.

**Observation: Outcomes**

Observations were made by the program staff who acted as external evaluators. They observed the class until the end of the training program. They attended the three training programs regularly and logged their observations.

**English language program**

With regard to the English language program, the observations made by the program staff suggested that the program turned out to be successful. The trainees felt that they learned a lot and they could apply what they learned in their real life. They agreed that they would have been able to learn more if they had had more time. A significant outcome observed was that the volunteers had greater self-confidence in making contact with foreigners.

**Specific skills program**

In considering the specific skills program, the significant observation was the enthusiasm among the trainees. They had been encouraged to practice a number of risky tasks; despite their all being males, they found that it was challenging for them. Despite this, they seemed to enjoy the activities. A cautionary note for the program is that the trainees must be taught to be more careful in learning to use weapons in the correct way. As well, specific lessons on the ethics of weapons use need to be included.

**First aid skills program**

Regarding the first-aid skills program, the trainees felt strongly their lack of a medical science background; irregular attendance at classes became very noticeable. Some of the background problems were overcome by arranging
for a tutor to assist the trainees when practicing. This helped them gain confidence.

What was interesting was the improvement and eagerness the volunteers showed in each training program. They may have lacked confidence and understanding at first but, at the conclusion of the program, they could cope with most things and were able to demonstrate that they had learnt much from the program. Importantly, they had enjoyed their learning.

**Analysis of the outcomes**

Intended outcomes and observed outcomes data were collected from three groups of stakeholders: tourists, volunteers and program staff using the simple questionnaire contained in Attachment 23. The tourists gave feedback regarding the performance of the volunteers in three areas of training. Overall, the tourists were impressed with the willingness to help them shown by the volunteers. They were only partly satisfied with the level of the actual assistance they received, and they were aware that the volunteers suffered from a lack of confidence in what they were doing.

Despite a sense that the goals of the program lacked some clarity, the volunteers believed that the objectives of the program have been achieved, thanks to the great capacity of the trainers involved who were adaptable in the both their teaching and in the provision of learning activities. The greatest concern was that the resources provided, particularly in the first-aid skills program, were inadequate.

Finally, the observers, generally, were satisfied that the three programs had all achieved their intended outcomes. The level of congruence between the intended and observed outcomes, as observed by the three groups of stakeholders, is shown in Table 4.18.
TABLE 4.18  LEVEL OF CONGRUENCE BETWEEN INTENDED AND OBSERVED OUTCOMES

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Element</th>
<th>Intended Outcome</th>
<th>Congruence</th>
<th>Observed Outcome</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Tourists:</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• satisfaction</td>
<td>Satisfied</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Partly satisfied</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• impression</td>
<td>Impressed</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Mostly impressed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• belief in ability</td>
<td>Believing in ability</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Partly believing in ability</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Volunteers:</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• objectives of program</td>
<td>Objectives met</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Objectives met</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• capacity of trainers</td>
<td>Capable</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Capable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• adequacy of resources</td>
<td>Adequate</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Insufficient</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• applicability of program</td>
<td>Applicable</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Mostly applicable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Observers:</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• English language program</td>
<td>Satisfied</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Satisfied</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Specific skills program</td>
<td>Satisfied</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Satisfied</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• First aid skills program</td>
<td>Satisfied</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Satisfied</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Summary of outcomes

It was apparent that the three training programs had operated very much as they were intended. The tourists, who were asked to give feedback regarding the work of volunteers, commented on the very positive attitude of the volunteers. Overall, they seemed to be satisfied with the volunteers’ assistance, although they did recognise some areas in which they lacked expertise and self-confidence. The volunteers gave positive responses about the three programs. Their one criticism concerned the lack of resources available to them. The program staff observed that the volunteers showed eagerness in studying and a steady improvement in the classroom. Irregular attendance hampered the development of a number of the volunteers. From the findings of the three parties mentioned, the training programs were effectively operated and appeared to meet the goals of the volunteer training programs.
Descriptive Matrix

As detailed in Figure 3.1, two types of data – descriptive and judgemental – can be considered within two matrices: the descriptive and the judgement matrix. Within the descriptive matrix, three phases of the study – namely, the antecedents, transactions and outcomes – were considered in terms of both intents and observations. *Intents* indicated the intended antecedents, intended transactions and intended outcomes and *observations* indicated the observed antecedents, observed transactions and observed outcomes. These descriptive relationships are shown in Figure 4.2.

**FIGURE 4.2 PROCESSING DESCRIPTIVE DATA: CONTINGENCY AND CONGRUENCE**

Descriptive Data

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Intended Antecedents</th>
<th>Observed Antecedents</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Logical Contingency</strong></td>
<td><strong>Empirical Contingency</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Intended Transactions</th>
<th>Observed Transactions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Logical Contingency</strong></td>
<td><strong>Empirical Contingency</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Intended Outcomes</th>
<th>Observed Outcomes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Logical Contingency</strong></td>
<td><strong>Empirical Contingency</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Stake, 1967
The descriptive data were evaluated by identifying the following relationships: the contingencies among the antecedents, transactions, and outcomes; the congruencies between the intents and observations.

**Congruence of the antecedents**

As can be seen from Table 4.19, below, there is only one item indicating that there was not congruence between the category concerned with qualified volunteers. The intended antecedents showed that the similar background of the volunteers would enhance the learning in the classroom. However, there was no systematic recruitment of the volunteers and the volunteers accepted into the programs had a variety of backgrounds. A solution to this was suggested in a meeting among the program staff: there should be a pre-test to recruit the volunteers to ensure that they have a similar background.

### TABLE 4.19 CONGRUENCE BETWEEN INTENDED AND OBSERVED ANTECEDENTS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Element</th>
<th>Intended Antecedents</th>
<th>Congruence</th>
<th>Observed Antecedents</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Qualified trainers</td>
<td>• specialists</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>• specialists hired</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• native speakers</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• tourist police</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Qualified volunteers</td>
<td>• similar background</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>• diversity in volunteers’ background</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Appropriate curriculum</td>
<td>• designed by program staff</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>• designed by program staff</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Availability of resources</td>
<td>• ready-made materials, manuals</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>• commercial texts, manuals</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Budget</td>
<td>• enough</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>• almost enough</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Time</td>
<td>• appropriate</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>• appropriate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Place</td>
<td>• convenient</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>• convenient</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Descriptive Data and Evaluation: Contingency and Congruence

Congruence of Transactions

The issues related to transactions were drawn from a variety of data collection such as document analysis, interview, reflection and journals. The issues include motivation, attendance, learning materials, trainers, level of difficulty, time, and location of training. Congruence occurred between intended transactions and observed transactions in each issue mentioned – except for the attendance of the volunteers, as shown in Table 4.20. This irregular attendance was observed, logged, and commented on by the program staff. A solution to this problem was proposed: that there should be attendance score stating that the volunteers should have not less than 80 per cent attendance or else they would not receive a certificate at the end of the program.

### Table 4.20 Level of Congruence Between Intended Transactions and Observed Transactions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Element</th>
<th>Intended Transactions</th>
<th>Congruence</th>
<th>Observed Transactions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Motivation</td>
<td>• motivated</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>• motivated</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attendance</td>
<td>• regular</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>• irregular</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Learning materials</td>
<td>• appropriate</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>• appropriate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trainers</td>
<td>• qualified</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>• qualified</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Level of difficulty</td>
<td>• suitable</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>• suitable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Time</td>
<td>• adequate</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>• too limited</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Location of training</td>
<td>• appropriate</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>• appropriate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English language skill entry level training</td>
<td>• appropriate</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>• appropriate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Specific skills applicability level</td>
<td>• applicable</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>• applicable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• suitable</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>• suitable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>First aid skills applicability level</td>
<td>• applicable</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>• applicable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• suitable</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>• suitable</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Congruence of outcomes

With regard to the outcomes, the findings in Table 4.21 relate to the feedback from stakeholders: tourists, volunteers and program staff all of whom were directly involved with the programs. The tourists were able to give feedback on what they thought of the performance of the volunteers. The volunteers were able to evaluate the training programs and give feedback on what they have learnt and what they need to learn. The program staff were able to keep records of what needed to be improved and showed the effectiveness of the program. A variety of issues emerged. The tourists mostly showed satisfaction with the job of volunteers; the dissatisfaction shown may have been due to false expectations. The volunteers realised that they could reach the objectives of the program with the help of trainers; however, they felt that

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Element</th>
<th>Intended Outcome</th>
<th>Congruence</th>
<th>Observed Outcome</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Tourists:</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Satisfaction</td>
<td>Satisfied</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Partly satisfied</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Impression</td>
<td>Impressed</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Mostly impressed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Belief in ability</td>
<td>Believing in ability</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Partly believing in ability</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Volunteers:</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Objectives of program</td>
<td>Objectives met</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Objectives met</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Capacity of trainers</td>
<td>Capable</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Capable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Adequacy of resources</td>
<td>Adequate</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Insufficient</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Applicability of program</td>
<td>Applicable</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Mostly applicable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Observation:</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• English language program</td>
<td>Satisfied</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Satisfied</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Specific skills program</td>
<td>Satisfied</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Satisfied</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• First aid skills program</td>
<td>Satisfied</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Satisfied</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
there was a lack of resources in some programs, e.g., they needed audio visual aids to practice listening and there was none: there needs to be an enhanced budget for this area. As well, they felt that the first-aid program was under-resourced. The program staff was satisfied with the outcomes of each of the three programs.

Judgement Matrix

The other important aspect of the Stake’s evaluation model is the use of judgement matrix. A judgement matrix enables the identification of what happened and what should happen. This can be clarified in terms of standards and judgements. The results of the evaluation in this aspect could yield the improvement of the program. This study investigates the existing volunteer training programs in the three phases; namely antecedents, transactions and outcomes.

In order to make a judgement of the findings, standards have to be set and the findings were judged according to the standards. The following judgements, leading to recommendations for the program, were undertaken according to the program’s antecedents, transactions and outcomes.

Program antecedents

The questionnaires used in this phase used a 5-point rating scale. The mean scores for each item were clustered to create three levels: high, medium and low.

The findings revealed antecedents ranked in following order of importance: trainers’ qualifications, volunteer background, appropriate curriculum, resources availability, time, budget and place. Ways of producing successful training programs were ranked in order of importance as follows: quality of personnel, qualifications of volunteers and collaboration with other organisations.
The next step in the program antecedents revealed the involvement of trainers in preparing the training programs. Four issues were related to this element: extent of involvement, level of commitment, intents and observations.

The judgement criteria were used to establish high, medium and low rating levels. For the antecedents, high rating items referred to the qualifications of trainers and volunteers. Medium rating items referred to the appropriateness of curriculum and materials.

**Program Transactions**

From the document analysis, the following factors affecting the program delivery were identified: attendance, program activities, materials and facilities, and level of difficulty. Using the judgement criteria, attendance and program activities were regarded as highly important in the stage of program delivery. Problems judged as high were irregular attendance and lack of appropriate materials.

Recommendations that flow from these judgements are that attendance and materials should be specifically focused when designing future training programs. Program staff were interviewed and their feedback showed that they were satisfied with the three training programs. At the same time, they identified problems with the training program that required solutions. From the trainee feedback, the judgement was that the three training programs were quite useful but that problems remained with the time allocation for the English skills program, and with resources and volunteer background in the first-aid skills program. From the feedback from the tourists during the program delivery, the judgement was that volunteer enthusiasm was high, but specific skills and confidence needed to be improved.
Program Outcomes

The three items considered were as follows: satisfaction with the volunteers’ assistance, ability to communicate or assist and their willingness to help. For all three programs – the English language program, the specific skills program and the first-aid skills program – all three items were judged to have a high-level rating.

The tourist’s outcome findings related to the three training programs indicated a high level judgement on all three items, but led to a recommendation that practical and communication skills could be improved.

Judgements made by the volunteers indicated high satisfaction with the training programs, but with a recommendation that the program be better resourced in the future. The judgements made by the program staff, suggested that they were well satisfied with the three training programs.

Policy Development

In this final section, a draft policy statement relating to proposed changes to volunteer tourist police training programs in Phuket is presented. All training programs require the involvement of all stakeholders to consider three key factors: budget, trainers, and resources. An adequate budget is a main factor for setting up all training programs. Trainers with appropriate backgrounds are critical. Adequate training resources in the form of locations and specialist resources are similarly very important.

Problems found in the existing training programs

The following four problems were identified:

- There were insufficient qualified trainers for the training program.
- The recruitment of volunteers should be set up more formally, and the criteria should be stated.
• There were not suitable places for training.
• There should be an effective process in running the training program.

Factors involved in the training programs

There are many factors involved in setting up the training programs as previously mentioned in the study; namely, trainers, physical environment and process. Each factor will be discussed separately.

Trainers

A trainer is the most important factor in the training program. The most qualified trainer should:

• help enhance the effectiveness of the training program;
• well trained regularly in order that he is able to keep up with the knowledge.
• an adequate budget should be allocated for training in the three area: English language, specific skills and first-aid skill;
• there should be budget allocated for the specialists to be the consultant of each program.

Physical environment

In regard to the training program, the physical environment plays an important part since it enhances the environment of learning and practicing. The physical environment should:

• consider the place and the equipment used for practicing;
• be an appropriate place for each training program;

Since it is not easy to find the different places to suit the type of the training program, there should be a budget allocated for renting suitable locations for the program.
**Process**

In regard to process, the very beginning of the training program – the antecedents, including preparation – is very important. The program staff and the trainers should

- have planned and prepared a budget for the training programs, in advance. The plan and the budget can be put in an annual budget;
- fix the time and the place for the program;
- plan and undertake the recruitment of the trainees since volunteers are of different background and ability;
- provide training programs regularly in a prescribed amount of time;
- ensure there is both formative and summative evaluation of each training program.

**Summary**

A responsive evaluation was adopted in this study with the purpose of checking how effective could be the three training programs. Antecedents, transactions and outcomes were the three main phases in the data collection and findings. Instances of congruence and non-congruence between the intended and observed antecedents, transactions and outcomes were identified. Once congruence or non-congruence were established, a set of criteria enabled judgements to be made from which recommendations, in the form of a policy development outline, were made.

In the next chapter a summary of the findings of the research study, and limitations, implications and recommendations for future research are considered.
CHAPTER 5

Findings and Recommendations

Introduction

This final chapter presents a summary of the findings of the research study, policy elements, limitations of the study, implications derived from the findings, and recommendations for future research. The study chose a responsive evaluation to evaluate the effectiveness of the three volunteer training programs.

A Review of Responsive Evaluation

As pioneered by Stake (1973), and further identified with Guba & Lincoln (1981), responsive evaluation is not so much a different model for doing evaluation as a process for determining a model or models to use in an evaluation. This type of design is termed emergent design. The idea of emergent design is to enter the evaluation without bias toward the types of models to use in the evaluation. The models to be used will emerge, based on the types of information that the evaluation is to generate. There is heavy emphasis on stakeholder participation in this model. Programs should be evaluated based on the effects relative to the needs of the stakeholders, not on whether the program is meeting objectives.

Stake (1999) points out that the process begins by determining the issues or concerns of stakeholders. It is from these issues and available data
relative to these issues that the evaluation design begins to form. Different models may be used for different issues and designs may change as the evaluation progresses. Stake & Hoke (1976, p. 5) note that a better understanding of the program is the important outcome of a responsive evaluation:

We who take the ‘responsive evaluation’ approach complete our studies without strong proof that the program was a success or failure and even without hard data for making good comparisons— but we often end up with people understanding their program better.

Stake claimed, in an earlier speech to an audience at the Gothenburg Institute of educational research (Stake, 1973, pp. 4-5), that responsive evaluation is an approach that sacrifices some precision in measurement, hopefully to increase the usefulness of the findings to people in and around the program.

Guba & Lincoln (1981) suggest the following four phases to responsive evaluation:

1. organize the evaluation;
2. identify major issues and concerns;
3. conduct the research to gain relevant information; and
4. report results and recommendations.

As mentioned, these steps leave quite a bit of leeway for a researcher to select from other evaluation model and research methods. Pulley (1994, p. 10), for example, describes a systematic five step approach:

1. identify the decision makers;
2. identify the information needs for decision makers;
3. systematically collect both quantitative and qualitative data;
4. translate data into meaningful information; and
5. involve and inform decision makers on a continuous basis.
This study has reflected this flexible, adaptive approach to responsive evaluation.

**Stakeholders**

The study adopted a responsive evaluation approach and stakeholders played a most important part in it. As a consequence of the study, the definition of stakeholders in this study can now be clarified: ‘stakeholders’ refer to those groups and members of groups who are in some way affected by a given program and thus have an immediate interest (‘stake’) in the evaluation. This is confirmed by a number of researchers. Weiss (1983, p. 84), for example, suggests that the term stakeholders refers to

- either the members of groups that are probably affected by the program
- and who therefore will conceivably be affected by evaluative conclusions
- about the program or the members of groups that make decisions about the future of the program.

The ‘stakeholder approach’ to evaluation grew out of criticisms levelled at traditional forms of evaluation practice (see Weiss, 1983) and was intended to simultaneously increase the use of evaluation results through the engagement of a wider variety of groups in the evaluation.

Rossi & Freeman (1993, p. 408) identify a number of different stakeholder groups commonly involved in, or affected by, an evaluation. Some of the more prominent include:

- **Policy-makers**: Those individuals responsible for deciding the fate of a social program.
- **Program sponsors**: Initiators and funders of the program to be evaluated.
- **Evaluation sponsors**: Initiators and funders of the evaluation
- **Target participants**: those who participate in the program or intervention
• Program management: Those responsible for overseeing the day-
today activities of the program being evaluated.
• Program staff: Those responsible for the actual delivery of the
program/intervention.

Volunteer training programs were required in situations when there
was insufficient manpower. To select and train police requires time and
resources: a process limited by the resources of the Royal Thai Police and
government budgets. Volunteers are able to assist the tourist police division
when and where urgent support is required.

The police found that volunteers can really help them since the
numbers in the police workforce are insufficient in some key areas. The three
training programs were set up according to the need in specific areas.
Communication problems were rated most highly. A need for English
language was identified and volunteers who were able to communicate with
tourists were found to be of great help. Specific skills were required when the
tourists had accidents; e.g., in near-drowning incidents. With volunteers
nearby, drowning incidents were greatly reduced. First-aid skill were
essential when unexpected incidents occurred, particularly in more isolated
areas where police were unable to provide assistance in time to save victims.

The volunteers who engaged in weapon training were local males
who were selected based on their willingness to participate. The tourist police
division found that there was a need for volunteers in the field of safety
protection. Practicing gun shooting was one of the necessary skills required.
Those volunteers who were permitted to be armed needed to be registered
and were selected from those who had previously been allowed to use
weapons in their real-life situations.

This study confirms the extended nature of ‘stakeholder’. The
involvement of different stakeholders has led to a much deeper understanding
of the volunteer training program, and leads to suggestions as to how it might be improved, as outlined in the following sub-section.

**Improvement of the volunteer training program**

Ellis & Campbell, 2005, p. 353 point out that volunteer training programs are provided for those people who do not need any monetary reward. They are a response to current events, social problems and community needs that volunteers are often the first to identify. This implies that volunteers are willing to do the job and serve the needs of their community.

This study has explored the volunteer police training program in Phuket where many tourists visit and spend their holidays. The tourist police working in Phuket are fully extended in doing their duty due to an increasing number of tourists. The need for volunteers led to the initiation of training programs for those local people who want to help their community. It is not easy for the tourist police to arrange the volunteer training programs since there are a lot of problems arisen such as the lack of specialists, lack of resources, etc. This study adopted a responsive evaluation to identify the procedures and the problems associated with the introduction of the program.

Effective ways of improving volunteer training programs are presented in this study. The training programs need efficient trainers who can train and provide knowledge to those trainees. The performance of the trainees, ultimately, will indicate whether the training programs have been effective. The provision of appropriate learning resources that can be easily accessed and that are understandable to the trainees will be a great help. While the study revealed no significant problem there were three issues that need to be addressed: improvements in the training program require input from the both the trainers and the volunteers; better resources are required; the training programs must be practical and tailored directly to the needs of the volunteers. These are issues that need to be taken up by the program planners.
Triangulation

The method of the responsive evaluation chosen in this study was divided into three phases: antecedents, transactions and outcomes. Each phase has its own purpose and findings. The stakeholders in this study include tourists, trainers and volunteers. Triangulation of the findings the study as it could help us validate the information received from many types of persons involved.

Triangulation, according to Miles & Huberman, 1984, p. 235, is typically perceived to be a strategy for improving the validity of research or evaluation findings:

Triangulation is supposed to support a finding by showing that independent measures of it are with it or, at least, don’t contradict it.

This study adopted a responsive evaluation to evaluate the effectiveness of volunteer training programs. Since the volunteer training programs are provided for the volunteers who have intention to help their community and the public sector which lacks their personnel, the stakeholders or the many parties are involved in this. Data collection in the study was divided into three steps: antecedents, transactions and outcomes. In each step, the study intended to validate the data by using the interview to cross-check the data from multiple sources. The main sources involved in the study were: trainers or program staff, trainee, and tourists. Altrichter et al (1996) contend that triangulation gives a more detailed and balanced picture of the situation.

The findings reveal that three of the stakeholders – trainers, volunteers and tourists – agreed that, generally, the existing volunteer training programs were effective. There are some problems, though, that can be used as guidelines for the next training programs.
Summary of the Findings

This section briefly provides direct answers to the main research questions and sub-related questions. The answers are based on the findings from many sources.

Main research question

The main research question was

**What are the most effective ways of improving volunteer tourist police training program in Phuket?**

In order to find the most effective ways of improving the volunteer tourist police training program in Phuket, a responsive evaluation was used in this study using three phases of data gathering as discussed in the previous section.

In general, volunteer tourist police training programs are to be set up to serve tourists and yield benefit to the stakeholders; namely, local people who wish to be volunteers and trainers who can practice their expertise. Those local people are mostly adults and living in the community which tourists would visit. It would be much useful for the training programs to enhance those learning activities and materials to the volunteers until they could apply what they learn and create their own learning communities. Gablenick, Macgregor, Matthews & Smith, 1990 in Kellogg (1999, p. 19) define an example of learning communities which could be applied in adult learning as

> one which actually restructures the curricular material entirely so that students have opportunities for deeper understanding and integration of the material they are learning, and more interaction with one another and their teachers as fellow participants in the learning enterprise.’

In the context of volunteer training program the students are volunteers and the teachers are trainers. It is quite different, though, in terms of the
participants and the nature of learning. Trainers, together with the program planners, should design the curriculum with the purpose of enhancing volunteers’ understanding and enabling applications of their learnings. Also, trainers should act as helpers or mentors, since the trainees are all adults and need advice only when they have problems.

In this study, the data collected from many sources and many ways showed that the existing programs could be effective when the volunteers were able apply what they had learned, that tourists benefit from the assistance of the volunteers and the trainers could reach their goal of the program. In order to be most effective, programs should include qualified trainers, qualified trainees, suitable resources and materials, appropriate curriculum, budget, time and place. The findings indicate that most trainers believed that the effectiveness of the volunteer police training program depended on having both qualified trainers and appropriately qualified trainees. The volunteers believed that suitable materials and resources together, with qualified trainers, would help them enhance their skills and ability: in their opinion, these were the two essential elements of an effective training program.

**Sub-research questions**

The three sub-questions were as follows:

- What are the factors involved in developing volunteer tourist police training programs?
- In what ways can current training programs be adapted to produce successful volunteer tourist police training programs?
- What are the policy implications for the development of similar training programs?

In order to answer the three questions, data from the three phases; namely, antecedents, transactions and outcomes were analysed. First, factors involved in developing the training programs are discussed. Second, ways of
producing successful training programs are considered. Third, the policy implications in developing future training programs are addressed.

**Factors involved in developing volunteer tourist police training programs**

In developing volunteer tourist police training programs, there are a certain number of factors involved: the characteristics of the trainers, trainees or volunteers involved; the curriculum; the resources. These were the factors that the trainers and program staff considered when they planned their training programs. There were four main factors involved in the training programs: the capability of trainers, the capacity of the volunteers, the appropriateness of the curriculum, and the availability of resources.

According to the data collected in the antecedents, trainers contribute the most benefit to the programs. Once the trainers are qualified and capable to train, the programs will motivate the learners and enhance the learners with knowledge. The availability of qualified trainers is regarded as the most important factor in the antecedents. Secondly, having appropriately qualified volunteers will contribute to the success of training programs. It is not easy, according to the findings, to find the volunteers with the necessary background and appropriate qualifications.

A second group of factors revealed in the study include appropriate curriculum and availability of resources. These two factors are particularly important in supporting the training programs in terms of knowledge and the learning process.

The final factors include budget, time and place. Without a sufficient budget, the training programs will be of limited quality. Appropriate timing and location of programs should be included in the antecedents. Time and place could be set as the frame for the programs, e.g., the ideal duration should not be short or long and the place should be suitable for each training program.
Ways in which current training programs should be adapted

According to the study, the current training programs can be adapted to produce successful training programs by considering the following elements: the motivation of the volunteers, the selection of the learners, and the nature of the training program.

Motivation

Firstly, the volunteers should be highly motivated. Motivation is one of the important factors that could draw learner’s attention. The motivation and retention of volunteers are increasingly important to organisations that depend on adult volunteers (Van Horn et al, 1999). Besides, volunteers could help the training programs run effectively once they are satisfied with the training programs. As Pitters-Strachan et al (1986, p. 33) point out, training and development programs:

> should be directed towards organizational effectiveness and members’ satisfaction, one that can enable (volunteers) to accomplish both their individual goals and the collective goals of the organization.

Selection of learners

Secondly, qualified trainers and appropriate learning materials could help enhance learners to learn and practice; the level of study should be arranged in accordance with the ability of learners who would find the programs not too difficult for them. Adequate time and appropriate place would be the important elements that should be considered.

Nature of the training program

Finally, the most important issue to consider is the nature of the training program. Three training programs were provided; namely, English language skill, specific skills and first-aid skill; the nature of the three programs was quite different. The framework of the training programs could be arranged in
the antecedents (preparation stage) but the content of each program should be considered in details. There is only one problem that needs to be solved in order to produce a successful training programs – the irregular attendance of the volunteers. The attendance of the volunteers should be included in their overall assessment, with the effect that this would encourage the learners to attend the class regularly.

What are the policy implications for the development of similar training programs?

The policy implications for the development of similar training programs should be based on the outcomes of the study. As can be seen in the study, factors involved in setting up the training programs were divided into three parts: trainers, physical environment and process.

Trainers

The study revealed that qualified trainers could make the training programs successful. Qualified trainers mean trainers who know a lot and have a lot of experience in the field. Qualified trainers mean those who could teach well and encourage the learners to learn more.

Physical environment

The place and the equipment should be suitable and available. Ideally, language learning area requires not only a room with a blackboard, but it also requires computers to enhance those learners to learn. The first-aid skills also requires a proper place to practice, particularly, a medical centre with appropriate equipment and resources.

Process of learning

The most important factor in the study is the process of learning. Trainers should be trained to cope with a variety of trainees who are from different background. Materials and resources should be carefully selected and the
application should be taken into consideration. By the end of the program evaluation should be done to check the effectiveness of the program.

This study reveals that the training programs require many factors and persons. Factors involved in the planning of the budget are: hiring qualified trainers, hiring suitable place for study and buying computers for practice, buying materials and textbooks or preparing their own materials. Thus, policy implications for similar training programs are to prepare sufficient budget amounts for the factors and persons mentioned above.

**Training Policy Development**

This study recognises that the training programs involve a variety of stakeholder groups. The Tourist Police division needs to prepare an annual budget for the training programs. This has the following policy implications with respect to budget preparation:

There should be annual training programs for volunteers.

- Trainers should be trained in specialist training institutions.
- Appropriate locations, equipped with appropriate materials – hardware and software – should be available for the training programs.
- Learning materials and textbooks should be made available for both the trainers and trainees.

**Problems**

From the findings, problems occurred during the training programs could be identified in the four items as follows:

- There were not enough qualified trainers for the training program.
- The recruitment of volunteers should be set up more formally and the criteria should be stated.
- There were not suitable places for training.
• There should be an effective process in running the training program.

Since the findings show the problems encountered in the program delivery, suggested solutions are given below in a priority order in which they should be addressed.

**Increasing the number of qualified trainers**

A number of issues should be addressed by the program staff in the development of future programs. Firstly, trainers need to be appropriately qualified and well-trained. It is not easy to find enough qualified trainers when needed. When planning policy, budget should be allocated for the hiring of qualified trainers. In order to prepare for the lack of the trainers, training sessions for the trainer-to-be should be arranged. Trainers-to-be should be trained in order that they could help train in case there are too many volunteers or there are more training programs in the future.

**Volunteer recruitment**

Volunteer recruitment is an important process in obtaining the trainees who are willing to be trained. Trainees should attend the class regularly in order that they may be trained effectively. In developing policy, regulations should be made clear in terms of the attendance and the qualifications.

**Provision of suitable training locations**

The next step to include in the policy is the budget for a suitable location for the delivery of the training programs. Should the location prove to be unsuitable for the training programs, there should be a budget provision to rent a more suitable location.

**Improving the training program process**

Finally, an effective process for running the training program should be drafted by the policy and program makers. This could help persons involved
prepare themselves and have guidelines when they have to arrange the training programs in the future.

**Reflection on the Responsive Evaluation**

The study adopted a responsive evaluation approach which proved to be of benefit in considering ways in which the volunteer police training program might be improved. Stufflebeam (2001) points out that the responsive approach stresses the importance of searching widely for unintended as well as intended outcomes. It also gives credence to the meaningful participation in the valuation by the full range of interested stakeholders.

A responsive evaluation is most suitable in this study since the search for intended and observed antecedents, transactions and outcomes could be identified. The use of a responsive evaluation was appropriate as it attempts to find the complexity of the training program arrangement. A variety of data gathering methods were used since it was apparent that a wide cross-section of people had a stake in the program: trainers, volunteers or trainees and the tourists.

A responsive evaluation could prove that the three training programs were successful. They can be delivered as intended once they were observed. Importantly, the findings provide a guideline for future policy development. At the same time, the evaluation provided advice to program staff and the trainers on ways in which program process and delivery might be improved. This study can use the findings of the responsive evaluation to advise the policymakers on what is required for policy development for revised volunteer police training programs that will be more effective.

**Limitations of the study**

Limitations of the study relate to the range of stakeholders and the level of coordination required, the restriction of the study to only one training site in a
tourist area that had very specific attractions, and the subjective nature of the
data collection process itself in this responsive evaluation that raises
questions of validity and generalisability. Despite these limitations, the study
revealed the positive and negative elements of the training program process,
as well as the development of positive attitudes towards the training program
itself on the part of all stakeholders.

Range of stakeholders

Stakeholders from many groups were involved in the study. Each group was
important, regardless of whether they took a major or minor role in the
training programs. Thus, to ensure the effectiveness of the evaluation
required the coordination and cooperation of diverse groups of people. Those
who played a major role were the permanent tourist police staff involved in
the planning, development and implementation of the programs, and the
volunteer trainers who were drawn from the Phuket province. This group
represents a stable population whose input during the course of the
evaluation could be checked and cross-checked. The transient tourists who
were interviewed during the course of the programs represent a very variable
population: they varied in race, culture, language, and socio-economic status;
nor was it possible to ensure a gender balance. The very nature of the street
interviews meant that it was not possible to control any of these factors in
selecting the sample of interviewees.

Specificity of training site

There are many tourist centres in Thailand but only one location was chosen:
Phuket province. The nature of these tourist centres is quite different; they
represent a range of lifestyles, and modes of both accommodation and travel.
For example, tourists in Phuket enjoy sea-based activities while tourists in
the north of Thailand would be more likely to engage in trekking and
mountain climbing. To broaden the usefulness of this evaluation it would
appropriate to carry out similar studies in other tourist attractions using with
the same form of approach; namely, responsive evaluation. If such studies were undertaken it would then be possible to carry out a meta-evaluation which Stake (2004, p. 180) defines as:

Evaluation of the quality of an evaluation; a determination of the strengths and weaknesses of a study of program quality. It can be formal or informal; it can be done by the evaluations themselves, by co-workers, and by outsiders.

The study reported in this research does not support such meta-evaluation, the results of which would be a benefit to both the program and the trainers.

**Validity and generalisability**

Since this study involved self-reporting measures, e.g., logs and journals, personal reflections and observations, it is possible that the participants might have been reluctant to give unfavourable or negative responses towards the current training programs. It was not possible to set standards in this single study. Thus, it was not possible to undertake a meta-evaluation that was either ‘standards-based or more responsive’ (Stake, 2004, p. 180). According to Stake (2004, pp180-1), two issues improve standards-based validity: ensuring that ‘process standards have been heeded’ across a number of studies; gathering or analysing ‘key outcome data’ that check whether ‘similar conclusions or statements of merit and shortcomings are found.

This research study did not involve any a standards-based meta-evaluation: it was purely responsive. The research focused on the most effective ways of improving volunteer tourist police training in Phuket. Responsive meta-evaluation, according to Stake, requires becoming ‘more familiar with the activities of the evaluators’ in order to ‘capture the merit and shortcoming as experienced in previous work’. The limited scope of this study inhibited any such activity. In this regard, this research reports ‘postmodern thinking’ (Stake, 2004, p. 182), in which ‘a single sense of program value’ is diminished and ‘the importance of showing cultural
differences and situation dependencies of value’ is increased. Thus, issues of validity and generalisability were unable to be addressed in this study.

**Implications of the findings**

A responsive evaluation differs from a standards-based evaluation in that it moves away from considering questions of validity and generalisability to those of ‘cultural differences and situation dependencies’ (Stake, 2004, p. 182).

The findings of this study may be helpful for a number of training professional such as English teachers, training staff and training developer programs:

1. This study demonstrates clearly the way the training programs are being set up. Within to a responsive evaluation, three steps are addressed, namely: antecedents, transactions and outcomes. The study confirms that each step has been taken seriously by the program staff.

2. The study identifies problems in each of the responsive evaluation steps. In light of these, it is recommended that:
   - Before setting up any training programs, the needs of volunteers should be determined. In order to avoid ambiguity, the needs of other tourists should also be determined. These two groups of stakeholders should be encouraged to interact with each other as much as possible so that they might understand and try to help each other as much as possible.
   - During the training program, there is a need for a volunteer attendance register to ensure the regularity of their training. While volunteers might have other commitments that interfere with the completion of lessons,
it should be made clear to them that full attendance is the most important issue to ensure adequate training.

- At the beginning of the program, outcomes-standards should be presented and discussed to all stakeholders.
- At the end of the program, the outcomes of a standards-based meta-evaluation should be provided to all of the stakeholders in the program.

### Recommendations for Future Research

Despite the limitations previously discussed, the findings from this research study provide sought-after insights into certain aspects of responsive evaluation of the volunteer training programs. However, the present study can serve only as an introduction to the area. It is recommended that future research, for example, an Impact Evaluation could be used to assess the volunteer training programs across a number of operations in Thailand.

The findings point out the cultural differences and situation dependencies encountered in a police volunteer training program undertaken in Phuket. Positive attitudes of both trainees and tourists were identified. Thus, it is recommended that further research be undertaken, as a follow-up study, that addresses the following aspects:

1. Further research should be carried out to indicate how volunteer training programs might enhance language communication skills.
2. Similar research, using responsive evaluation methods, on volunteer police training programs in other tourist attractions should be conducted.
3. Impact evaluation research, using both standards-based and responsive evaluation, should be undertaken to determine the overall impact of other training programs provided by other sectors of the Royal Thai Police.
4. A meta-evaluation, using both standards-based and responsive evaluation methods, of the processes of volunteer police training programs should be undertaken.
Bibliography


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Attachment 1

INFORMATION TO PARTICIPANTS

Using Responsive Evaluation to Change Thai Tourist Police Volunteer Training Programs

Researcher:
Pol.Maj.Gen. Wuthi Liptapallop, a candidate in the Doctor of Education program in partnership between Victoria University of Technology and Burapha University.

Purpose and Aims:
The aim of this project is to use a responsive evaluation approach in order to improve and increase the efficiency of the Thai Tourist Police Volunteer Training Program. In this study, the evaluation will focus on the activities within the training program, how well the training program enables the volunteers to apply their training to help the tourists, the response of tourists to the assistance they receive from the volunteers, and what changes in policy are required for the development and improvement of similar training programs in the future.

Methods to be employed:
The methodology to be used in this research will emphasize the generalised steps required by Stake’s Responsive Evaluation in order to reveal the most effective ways of improving tourist training programs in Phuket and thus for improving police training programs, generally both in Thailand and in other countries. This will include involve focusing on three elements of current programs: what has happened in the past (the antecedents); what happens during the delivery of a program (the transactions); what changes result from the program (the outcomes); these will be related to intents, observations, standards and judgements made in relation to two particular programs with a view to addressing changes in them in order to make them more effective.

The researcher will engage in a reflective process throughout this research, using the reflection-in-action approach outlined by Schön (1983), and elaborated by Beckett & Hager (2002). This will involve maintaining a journal, in the form of a log and annotations, that reflect on what was done, how it was done, and what alternatives exist. These reflections will be used to produce a policy document relating to volunteer tourist police training programs in Phuket that will be presented to selected stakeholders.
Responses to the policy document will be gathered via focus group interviews of key stakeholders – police staff and trainees.

Risks and Safeguards:
All of the people to be surveyed and interviewed are adults; nevertheless, there are risks that need to be considered and minimised. The most significant of these is that concerned with the inherent Buddhist attitude of not being willing to criticize elders and social superiors. At all stages in the research, Buddhist sensitivities and conventions will be observed. As a standard risk management technique, confidentiality will be maintained at all times and strict procedures will be developed to ensure this.

During the interviews, participants will be encouraged to ask any questions before the interview begins. It will also be emphasised that confidentiality will be maintained and that the information will be assigned a code number in order to protect the identity of the participant. All information will be stored in a file cabinet, will be locked, and will only be accessed by the research investigators.

During the interviews, if participants have a negative emotional reaction associated with recalling experiences they will be allocated time away from the interview. They will be informed that if anything upsets them to the point that they wish to discontinue participation, they may do so. It will be emphasised that participation is voluntary that completion of the study is not mandatory. Counselling (by an independent psychologist) will be offered to participants who have reported feeling uncomfortable or anxious during the interview. To arrange this, you may should contact Dr Suriyan, Director, International Graduate Study Program of Burapha University, Chonburi, Thailand (telephone no 0 3839-3252).

Any queries about your participation in this project may be directed to Pol.Maj.Gen. Wuthi Liptapallop, a student researcher (telephone no 0-nnnn-nnnn) or his principal supervisor, Dr. Ian M. Ling (ph. 0-2300-4543-62 ext 3609), or his co-supervisor, Dr. Chalong Tubsree (ph. 0-38745-900 ext. 2009; email: chalongtubsree@hotmail.com). If you have any queries or complaints about the way you have been treated or to discuss the rights as a research subject, you may contact the Secretary, University Human Research Ethics Committee, Victoria University of Technology, PO Box 14428 MC, Melbourne, 8001 (ph. 03-9688 4710).
Attachment 2

DESCRIPTION OF RESEARCH STUDY AND PROCEDURES FOR PARTICIPANTS

INFORMATION TO PARTICIPANTS

I, Pol.Maj.Gen. Wuthi Liptapallop, a candidate in the Doctor of Education program in partnership between Victoria University of Technology and Burapha University, would like to invite you to be a part of a study into 'Using Responsive Evaluation to Change Thai Tourist Police Volunteer Training Program'.

The project aims to answer the following main research questions: ‘What are the most effective ways of improving volunteer tourist police training program in Phuket?’ Three related sub-questions will be addressed: What are the factors involved in developing volunteer tourist police training programs? In what ways can current training programs be adapted to produce successful volunteer tourist police training programs? What are the policy implications for the development of similar training programs?

Data collection and Analysis

Antecedents:

The researcher will undertake a document analysis of minutes of meetings, internal reports and annual reports relating to the establishment of the volunteer tourist police training program in Phuket. The data collected will be classified into four categories; intents; observations; standards; and judgements.

A questionnaire survey of all the 25 Thai tourist police personnel associated with the current volunteer training programs in Phuket will be undertaken, using a Likert-type scale, to determine baseline data associated with the following:

- Extent of involvement;
- Level of commitment;
- Intents;
- Observations, implicit standards and judgements about these programs.*

Simple descriptive statistics will be used to analyse these data and results will be tabulated.
Simple descriptive statistics will be used to analyse these data and results will be tabulated.

A focus group interview of the four senior training personnel involved both in program development and in its delivery will be undertaken following analysis of the questionnaire survey in order to gain a deeper understanding of the antecedents. These interviews will be audio-taped, transcribed and analysed using standard qualitative data reduction techniques. The outcome of these interviews will be reported in a series of vignettes.

**Transactions**

Intensive observations of the delivery of each of the three types of training – first-aid skill, English-language skill, and specific skills - will be undertaken across two separate and complete phases. The 12 elements of Stake’s Responsive Clock will be employed:

1. Identify program scope
2. Overview program activities
3. Discover purposes, concerns
4. Conceptualise issues, problems
5. Identify data needs related to issues
6. Select observers, judges, instruments, if any
7. Observe designated antecedents, transactions, outcomes
8. Thematise, prepare portrayals, case studies
9. Validate, confirm, attempt to disconfirm
10. Winnow, match issues to audiences
11. Format for audience use
12. Talk with clients, program staff, audiences

The methods of data collection to be used in these 12 elements will include the following: Document analysis; focus group interviews; semi-structured interviews of staff and management; course feedback evaluation surveys of trainee participants; a simple street survey of tourists taken in the streets of Phuket; informal discussions with participants, staff and management (casual conversations, logged in a journal; invited meetings; deposition of relevant material); annotated logs; journal entries; and personal reflections.

Survey data will be analysed using simple descriptive statistics and results tabulated. Formal interviews will be audio-taped, transcribed and analysed using standard qualitative data reduction techniques. These data will be matched with hard data collected, and with data collected in logs and journals. Three case studies will be written relating to each of the three types of training that occurred in two separate phases.
Outcomes
The researcher will maintain a journal in which he will log impact outcomes within the three contexts: antecedents, transactions and outcomes. The impact outcomes will arise from on-going observations and from the analysis of data collected in the two previous sections. The observations will be reported in a series of vignettes.

Policy Development
The researcher will engage in a continuous reflective process throughout this research. This will involve maintaining a journal in which an annotated log is maintained and which contains reflections on what was done, how it was done, and what alternatives exist. These entries will be condensed into a draft policy document relating to proposed changes to volunteer tourist police training programs in Phuket.

Six semi-structured interviews of volunteer key stakeholders – police staff (3), trainees (3) – will be undertaken. The volunteers will be invited to read the draft policy document, and then will be asked, during the interviews, to respond to a series of questions within a semi-structured interview protocol. These interviews will be audio-taped, transcribed and analysed using standard qualitative data reduction techniques. Responses will be reported in a series of vignettes and amendments to the policy document will be made in the light of these responses.

Any queries about your participation in this project may be directed to Pol.Maj.Gen. Wuthi Liptapallop, a student researcher (telephone no 0-nnnn-nnnn)) or his principal supervisor, Dr. Ian M. Ling (ph. 0-2300-4543-62 ext 3609), or his co-supervisor, Dr. Chalong Tubsree (ph. 0-38745-900 ext. 2009; email: chalongtubsree@hotmail.com). If you have any queries or complaints about the way you have been treated or to discuss the rights as a research subject, you may contact the Secretary, University Human Research Ethics Committee, Victoria University of Technology, PO Box 14428 MC, Melbourne, 8001 (ph: 03-9688 4710).
Attachment 3

CONSENT TO PARTICIPATE IN A QUESTIONNAIRE SURVEY OF THAI TOURIST POLICE TRAINING PERSONNEL

Using Responsive Evaluation to Change Thai Tourist Police Volunteer Training Programs

Declaration of Consent

I, _______________________________________________ have been invited to participate in a questionnaire survey of Thai Tourist Police Personnel associated with the study named above that will be carried out by Pol.Maj.Gen. Wuthi Liptapallop.

The purpose and the procedures of this study together with any risks have been fully explained to me in the information sheet provided and I understand that I am entitled to ask questions about this study to the researcher at any time.

I understand that all information gathered will be strictly confidential. I further acknowledge that my participation is entirely voluntary and I may withdraw at any time without jeopardizing my present employment position in any way.

Name…………………………………………………
Signature………………………………………….

Witness name…………………………………
(other than the researcher)
Witness Signature……………………………
Date……………………………………………...
Attachment 4

CONSENT TO PARTICIPATE IN A FOCUS GROUP INTERVIEW OF SENIOR TRAINING PERSONNEL

as part of a Research Study Titled

Using Responsive Evaluation to Change Thai Tourist Police Volunteer Training Programs

DECLARATION OF CONSENT

I, _________________________________________________ have been invited to participate in a Focus Group Interview of Senior Training Personnel associated with the study named above that will be carried out by Pol.Maj.Gen. Wuthi Liptapallop.

The purpose and the procedures of this study together with any risks have been fully explained to me in the information sheet provided and I understand that I am entitled to ask questions about this study to the researcher at any time.

I understand that all information gathered will be strictly confidential. I further acknowledge that my participation is entirely voluntary and I may withdraw at any time without jeopardizing my present employment position in any way.

Name……………………………………………
Signature………………………………………

Witness name………………………………
(other than the researcher)
Witness Signature……………………………

Date……………………………………………
Attachment 5

CONSENT TO PARTICIPATE IN A PROGRAM OF
INTENSIVE OBSERVATIONS

as part of a Research Study Titled

Using Responsive Evaluation to Change Thai Tourist Police
Volunteer Training Programs

DECLARATION OF CONSENT

I, _________________________________________________ have been
invited to participate in a program of Intensive Observations associated with
the study named above that will be carried out by Pol.Maj.Gen. Wuthi
Liptapallop.

The purpose and the procedures of this study together with any risks have
been fully explained to me in the information sheet provided and I
understand that I am entitled to ask questions about this study to the
researcher at any time.

I understand that all information gathered will be strictly confidential. I
further acknowledge that my participation is entirely voluntary and I may
withdraw at any time without jeopardizing my present employment position
in any way.

Name………………………………………………
Signature…………………………………………

Witness name……………………………………
(other than the researcher)
Witness Signature………………………………

Date………………………………………………
Attachment 6

CONSENT TO PARTICIPATE IN A STREET SURVEY OF TOURISTS

as part of a Research Study Titled

Using Responsive Evaluation to Change Thai Tourist Police Volunteer Training Programs

DECLARATION OF CONSENT

I, _________________________________________________ have been invited to participate in Street Survey of Tourists associated with the study named above that will be carried out by Pol.Maj.Gen. Wuthi Liptapalloo.

The purpose and the procedures of this study together with any risks have been fully explained to me in the information sheet provided and I understand that I am entitled to ask questions about this study to the researcher at any time.

I understand that all information gathered will be strictly confidential. I further acknowledge that my participation is entirely voluntary and I may withdraw at any time without jeopardizing my present employment position in any way.

Name………………………………………………

Signature……………………………………….

Witness name………………………………….

(Other than the researcher)

Witness Signature…………………………….

Date……………………………………………
Attachment 7

CONSENT TO PARTICIPATE IN SEMI-STRUCTURED INTERVIEWS OF KEY VOLUNTEER STAKEHOLDERS

as part of a Research Study Titled

Using Responsive Evaluation to Change Thai Tourist Police Volunteer Training Programs

DECLARATION OF CONSENT

I, _________________________________________________ have been invited to participate in individual Semi-Structure Interviews of Key Volunteer Stakeholders associated with the study named above that will be carried out by Pol.Maj.Gen. Wuthi Liptapallop.

The purpose and the procedures of this study together with any risks have been fully explained to me in the information sheet provided and I understand that I am entitled to ask questions about this study to the researcher at any time.

I understand that all information gathered will be strictly confidential. I further acknowledge that my participation is entirely voluntary and I may withdraw at any time without jeopardizing my present employment position in any way.

Name……………………………………………
Signature……………………………………….

Witness name…………………………………
(other than the researcher)
Witness Signature…………………………….

Date……………………………………………
Attachment 8

CONSENT TO THE USE OF POLICE TRAINING PREMISES

as part of a Research Study Titled

Using Responsive Evaluation to Change Thai Tourist Police Volunteer Training Programs

DECLARATION OF CONSENT

I, _________________________________________________ have been requested to make available Police Training Premises used in the Thai Tourist Police Volunteer Training Program to be used in the study named above that will be carried out by Pol.Maj.Gen. Wuthi Liptapallop.

The purpose and the procedures of this study together with any risks have been fully explained to me in the information sheet provided.

I hereby give my permission for the Training Premises under my command to be used for the research purposes stated.

Name………………………………………………

Position…………………………………………..

Signature…………………………………………

Witness name……………………………………
(Other than the researcher)

Witness Signature……………………………..

Date……………………………………………...
Attachment 9

CONSENT TO ALLOW TOURIST POLICE PERSONNEL TO PARTICIPATE

in a Research Study Titled

Using Responsive Evaluation to Change Thai Tourist Police Volunteer Training Programs

DECLARATION OF CONSENT

I, _________________________________________________ have been requested to make available personnel from the Thai Tourist Police to be associated with the study named above that will be carried out by Pol.Maj.Gen. Wuthi Liptapallop.

The purpose and the procedures of this study together with any risks have been fully explained to me in the information sheet provided.

I hereby give my permission for personnel from the Thai Tourist Police under my command to participate in this research.

Name………………………………………………

Position…………………………………………

Signature………………………………………..

Witness name………………………………
(other than the researcher)

Witness Signature……………………………

Date…………………………………………
Attachment 10

REVOCATION OF CONSENT FORM FOR SUBJECTS INVOLVED IN RESEARCH

Used for participants who wish to withdraw from the project

I, ........................................................................................................................................................................

of (address), ........................................................................................................................................................

hereby wish to WITHDRAW my consent to participate in the research proposal described in the Plain Language Statement for the research project called:

Using Responsive Evaluation to Change Thai Tourist Police Volunteer Training Programs

and understand that such withdrawal WILL NOT jeopardise any treatment or my relationship with Victoria University.

Any data already collected may/may not be included in the research project.

Signature: .................................................................................................................. Date: ___________________
Attachment 11

DOCUMENT ANALYSIS (ANTECEDENTS)

Direction: Below are the issues that might be mentioned in the minutes of meetings regarding the preparation step of the training program. Please write down the items found in the minutes under the following headings:

1. Factors involved in the training programs.

2. Ways to produce successful training programs

3. Policy implications
### QUESTIONNAIRE (ANTECEDENTS)

**Directions:** Read the following items and check what you agree most or disagree in terms of rating scale given:

- 5 = strongly agree
- 4 = agree
- 3 = no strong opinion
- 2 = disagree
- 1 = strongly disagree

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>5</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>1</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Extent of involvement</strong></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. I was involved in considering the qualification of trainers.</td>
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<tr>
<td>2. I was involved in considering the volunteer background.</td>
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<tr>
<td>3. I was involved in designing curriculum.</td>
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<td>4. I was involved in looking for resource availability.</td>
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<tr>
<td>5. I was involved in arranging time and looking for the place.</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Level of commitment</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>1. I was committed to the selection of trainers and specialists.</td>
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<tr>
<td>2. I was committed to the selection of volunteers.</td>
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<tr>
<td>3. I was committed to the selection of materials.</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Intents</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>1. I intended to get qualified trainers.</td>
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<tr>
<td>2. I intended to get qualified volunteers.</td>
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<td>3. I intended to get appropriate curriculum.</td>
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<td>4. I intended to get suitable resources.</td>
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<tr>
<td>5. I intended to arrange appropriate time and place.</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Observations</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>1. I observed that the objectives had been set.</td>
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<tr>
<td>2. I observed that the trainers were qualified.</td>
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<tr>
<td>3. I observed that the volunteers were appropriately selected.</td>
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<td>4. I observed that materials were suitable.</td>
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<tr>
<td>5. I observed that the time was suitable.</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
Attachment 13

FOCUS GROUP INTERVIEW (ANTECEDENTS)

Direction: Each item below concerns the preparation step before the training programs were set. The staff are required to respond to the following items:

1. What do you think about the qualification and selection of trainers? Do you have any suggestions?

2. What do you think about the selection of volunteers?

3. What do you think about designing appropriate curriculum?

4. What do you think about the resources such as books for practicing?

5. What do you think about time for arranging the training programs?

6. What do you think about the budget? Do you need more?

7. What do you think about the place for training?
Attachment 14

DOCUMENT ANALYSIS (TRANSACTIONS)

Directions: List the items found in the minutes of meetings.

I. Factors affecting the involvement during the program delivery.

II. Problems during the program delivery
Attachment 15

A FOCUS GROUP INTERVIEW (TRANSACTIONS)

Directions: Interview the staff regarding what happened during the program delivery and problems they found.

I. Program Delivery

II. Problems and solutions
Attachment 16

PROGRAM STAFF: SEMI-STRUCTURED INTERVIEW (TRANSACTIONS)

Directions: Interview the staff who involved in the stage of program delivery what they think of the three training programs.

English Language Program

Subject-specific skills Program

First-aid skills Program
Attachment 17

VOLUNTEERS TRAINING FEEDBACK EVALUATION (TRANSACTIONS)

Directions: Describe what you think regarding the training program.

1. What do you like most about the training program?

2. Which programs do you find most useful?

3. Which part of the programs do you think needs improvement?
Attachment 18

A SIMPLE STREET SURVEY (TRANSACTIONS)

Directions: Please give the score of what you think is the most important one.

5= most important 4= important 3=neutral 2=less important 1= least important

1. There is a need for volunteers.
2. The assistance of volunteers is satisfactory.
3. Communication is mostly needed.
4. Volunteers should learn English.
5. Volunteers were able to use English.
6. Volunteer could help in risky jobs.
7. First-aid skills is mostly needed.
8. Volunteers are well-trained.
Attachment 19

OBSERVER LOGS AND JOURNALS (TRANSACTIONS)

Directions: Write what you have observed in the three programs.

English Language program

1. Behaviour
2. Interaction

Progress

Specific skills program

1. Behaviour
2. Interaction
3. Progress

First aid skills program

1. Behaviour
2. Interaction
3. Progress
Attachment 20

PERSONAL REFLECTION (TRANSACTIONS)

Direction: Please write what you think about the programs.

(Program staff)

English language program

Specific skills program

First aid skills program
Attachment 21

TOURISTS’ QUESTIONNAIRE (OUTCOMES)

The purpose of this questionnaire is to get the responses from the tourists who have been in contact with the volunteers. Please complete the questionnaire and add any ideas if you want to. Your kind cooperation is appreciated.

Directions: Please rank the following items.

5 = strongly agree  4 = agree  3 = no strong opinion  2 = disagree  1 = strongly disagree

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>English language program</th>
<th></th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. I am satisfied with the assistance of volunteers.</td>
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<tr>
<td>2. Volunteers can communicate well.</td>
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<tr>
<td>3. Volunteers are willing to help us when asked.</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Specific skills program</th>
<th></th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. I am satisfied with the assistance of volunteers.</td>
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<tr>
<td>2. I feel safer when I see volunteers; e.g., when I am on the beach.</td>
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<td>3. Volunteers are eager to help.</td>
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</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>First aid skills program</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. I am satisfied with the assistance of volunteers.</td>
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<tr>
<td>2. I feel confident when I think of the unexpected accident.</td>
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<td>3. Volunteers are willing to help</td>
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</table>
Attachment 22

VOLUNTEERS QUESTIONNAIRE (OUTCOMES)

Directions: Please rank the following items.

5 = strongly agree  4 = agree  3 = no strong opinion
2 = disagree  1 = strongly disagree

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>5</th>
<th>4</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. I found that the goals were stated clearly.</td>
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<td>2. I found that trainers were capable.</td>
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<td>3. I found that the materials were practical.</td>
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<td>4. I found that we gained in confidence.</td>
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<td>5. I found that the programs, in general, were effective.</td>
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</table>

Other suggestions:
Attachment 23

OBSERVATION SHEET (OUTCOMES)

Directions: Write down what you have observed in the program.

English language program

Specific skills program

First aid skills program