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Manual of Training for Government Officials

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Preface

Under the Trainer Development Programme, Department of Personnel & Training, Government of India has developed training modules on Training Needs Analysis, Design of Training, Direct Trainer Skills and Evaluation of Training. Unless a government official under goes all these Training Programmes it would be difficult for him to organise and implement training systematically to improve the performance of the individual as well as the organisation. However, it is difficult for an officer to attend all these training courses in a short span of time. On the other hand, as the head of the unit, he has to organise and implement on-job-training for his officials in his organisation and take sessions on a regular basis in class room training. So, there is a felt need for a handbook covering all the areas of a systematic approach to training. This training manual has been developed by compiling the training materials developed by the Department of Personnel & Training, Government of India, in collaboration with the Thames Valley University, U.K and the Lal Bahadur Shastri National Academy of Administration to meet specific needs of government officials.

It is hoped that this manual will be useful for all government officials and generate interest in conducting training more scientifically and effectively.

I am deeply grateful to Dr. Arabinda Ghosh, Deputy Director who has taken considerable pains to prepare this comprehensive manual.

Pradip Bhattacharya, IAS
Director, ATI & Principal Secretary to the
Government of West Bengal
Development & Planning Department

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Introduction

In the early 50's we initiated our development process through a planned economy. Government in such a system is to play a major role in the development of the country.

In the beginning our economy was protective, licensing policy limited competition. We were happy with our performance at individual and organisational level in the Public Sector as we enjoyed protection as well as security. But since 1990s the situation has abruptly changed. Our public sector is now exposed to competition, security also has been loosened. We need to improve our performance at individual and organisational level to survive in the face of global competition. We have to upgrade our competence on continuous basis.

Now the basic question before us is how to achieve this objective. We can begin with setting up some performance standard in the organisation. But in a government organisation it is difficult to set the performance standard. Due to globalisation people have more access to information on the functioning of various organisations. However, past performance of a particular organisation and the present level of activities of similar type of organisations have shot up the expectation of the stakeholders of the organisation about its level of performance. This we may call the desired level of performance. Now you may find that in many cases the actual level of performance is less than the desired level of performance. So there is a gap in the performance level. This is known as the problem of performance gap. This has been clearly depicted in the figure below. In other situation you may find that you are satisfied with present performance level but you want to improve further to meet the future need.

Figure 1: Performance Gap

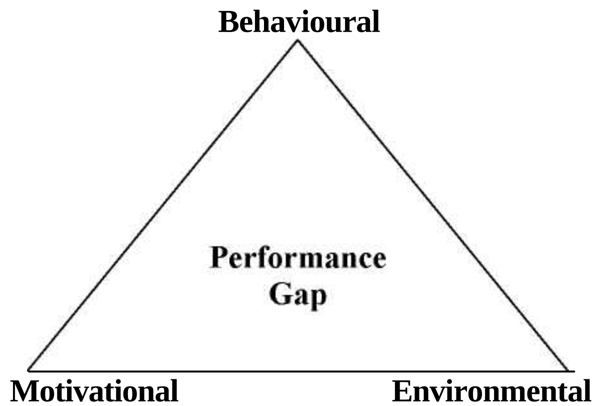
Desired Performance	GAP
	ACTUAL

So the question is how to solve the performance problem or improve performance.

Performance provides a focal point for all development activities and applies to the performance of the individuals, working groups and ultimately, to the organization. Performance problems and reorientation of needs are rarely caused simply by lack of training and rarely can performance be significantly improved by training alone. Performance can only be assessed if there is some point of reference against which it can be measured. Unless realistic, relevant and above all, achievable standards are set, it becomes extremely difficult to improve performance. Probably the most important and perhaps most difficult task is to establish standards of performance in government organisation. However under the circumstances obtaining in Government Organisations if we want to solve the performance problem or improve our performance, we need to identify and analyse the performance problem or performance issues as the case may be.

It is found that performance is influenced by several inter-related factors, each one of which can affect progress. Generally performance of an organisation is influenced by three factors as shown below:

Figure 2: Performance Gap Analysis



- *Motivational Factors* - These can seriously affect performance and are likely to occur when people, who have the necessary knowledge and skills, are unwilling to use them. Typical reasons for lack of motivation can be that there is no reward or incentive mechanism for performance improvement or that, due to poor management; people are unwilling to use their expertise. Normally, work gravitates towards those who work and you will find that in government organisations the person who is working hard is always saddled with additional responsibilities. The reason is very simple; we want to get the job done. So we use to depend on the person who has proved himself responsible through his past activities. It is true in the family system. Having additional responsibilities may not always be a problem. But the problem lies somewhere else. In the government organisation there is little scope to discriminate among the good performers and non-performers so far as benefits and rewards are concerned.

- *Environmental Factors* - Even willing people with a significant level of knowledge and skill may not be able to improve their performance due to negative factors in their working environment. These can include poor systems and procedures, inadequate equipment and resources, or the failure of other people or organizations to provide the products or services required for expediting performance. Poor maintenance of guard file in a government organisation leads to poor performance. This is a good example of poor performance due to environmental factors.

- ***Behavioural Factors*** - This includes knowledge, skill and attitude competencies. These can be improved through training interventions. Training is a sagacious process of developing broader vision, skills, professional knowledge and correct patterns of behaviour/aptitudes in employees for increasing the degree of competence among them. Training, aiming at stimulating the employee to make the best effort and helping him improve his performance, further attempts at reconciling the technical and administrative efficiency of the individual and the effectiveness and efficiency of the organization. It is a planned learning activity intended to achieve a definite outcome. So performance may be influenced by any one of these factors or combinations of these factors.

However, at this stage we should get our concept of learning and training clarified.

DEFINITION OF LEARNING

It is observed normally that young men, particularly teenagers, have a tendency to board running buses or trains. They do not desist from this practice even when warned by the elders. However, when one slips and falls and sustains injury, one thinks twice before indulging in this adventure again. His friends who see him at close quarters undergoing this painful experience also tend to desist from this act. Thus some learn from their own experiences, while others learn from others. Learning, that is doing something differently, is often a painful and difficult process.

Learning can be based on formal study or on everyday experiences at home or at work. The accumulation of these experiences enables us to carry out certain activities or tasks. So what is the difference between 'learning' and 'training'? Let us return to the example of boarding a running bus or train.

COMPARING 'LEARNING' TO 'TRAINING'

The reason for getting injured while boarding a running bus or train was that in some way you made a mistake. Sometimes learning takes place without necessarily being planned. Training is different, it is done for a specific purpose; it is concerned with helping someone to learn - quickly and effectively. Training requires a clearly defined outcome - for example, imparting training to the personnel deployed for VIP security on how to get into a moving vehicle. It also requires that we provide effective learning conditions - for example, the task is demonstrated, an explanation is given on how it should be done and the standard of performance required is defined. The trainee is given an opportunity to practise under supervision.

DEFINITION OF TRAINING

Learning is the direct outcome of a specified performance 'training'. Training is defined in the Glossary of Training Terms as:

"A planned process to modify attitude, knowledge or skill behaviour through learning experience to achieve effective performance in an activity or range of activities. Its purpose in the work situation, is to develop the abilities of the individual and to satisfy current and future manpower needs of the organisation"

The distinction between 'learning' and 'training' is that learning refers to a naturally occurring process that may, or may not contribute to a person's job performance. Training is a planned process that directs learning towards achieving specific outcomes, leading to achieving performance objectives.

IDENTIFY TRAINING NEEDS:

We need to conduct Training Needs Analysis if we want to solve the performance problem or improve performance. Training Needs Analysis can be done for an organisation as a whole, or for a particular section or function. It can include analysis of an organisation's current performance problems, or in anticipation of changes that are likely to occur. TNA focuses attention on 'performance' to identify training needs, along with other, non-training implications. Once performance problems have been analysed, they can be reviewed according to their importance. Having established priorities, further, more detailed analysis can be done to identify precise training needs. These needs should concern everybody associated with a particular performance problem, irrespective of their status or number.

Analogy

Imagine you are ill and decide to visit a doctor, a situation analogous to a Head of Department seeking assistance from a trainer. The doctor will examine you, asking questions about the symptoms of your illness, possibly carrying out tests to investigate your illness in more detail and, if necessary, seeking specialist advice. Usually, by means of this systematic approach, the doctor diagnoses the cause of your illness and recommends appropriate treatment.

This approach is thorough and professional, so you have confidence that the recommendations are relevant to your problems. Contrast this with a situation where your doctor, without any examination, offers you a selection of standard treatments - inviting you to decide which one seems the most suitable. Thankfully, in the medical profession an approach such as this does not happen.

However, unfortunately, it occurs all too often in training, where a 'menu approach' to training is used to provide training - without first identifying the need. In many cases training is supply-driven not demand-driven at all. For this reason, in some cases it is found that training in the class room situation has been well appreciated but has made no contribution to the improvement in the performance.

Sometimes we are carried away by the symptom of the problem. But if we are to make the training programme effective we have to identify the root cause of the problem.

Continuing the analogy of your imaginary illness, the reason you went to see your doctor was due to having dysentery. Usually, this illness is easily treated by medication, ORT and a suitable diet. The doctor, having diagnosed the problem and prescribed appropriate treatment, may consider the consultancy completed successfully with the patient's problem sorted out.

However, imagine that you were one of several people the doctor had treated for dysentery. Like you, each person was given appropriate medication and advice. The doctor, however, concerned about the high rate of dysentery cases, decided to carry out further investigation. The result was the discovery of a damaged water pipeline that contaminated drinking water in the area. Further analysis of the situation highlighted the fact that workers at the water treatment centre were not properly trained to carry out routine test procedures. So the performance problem lies with the inability of the workers at the water treatment centre to carry out routine test.

LEVEL OF PERFORMANCE PROBLEM

Improving performance or overcoming performance problems may occur in organisations, departmental, or with individuals. The first stage of the Systematic Approach to Training is therefore to use various types of analysis to identify, as precisely as possible, the nature of the problems. Techniques used for identifying training needs range from the general to the specific:

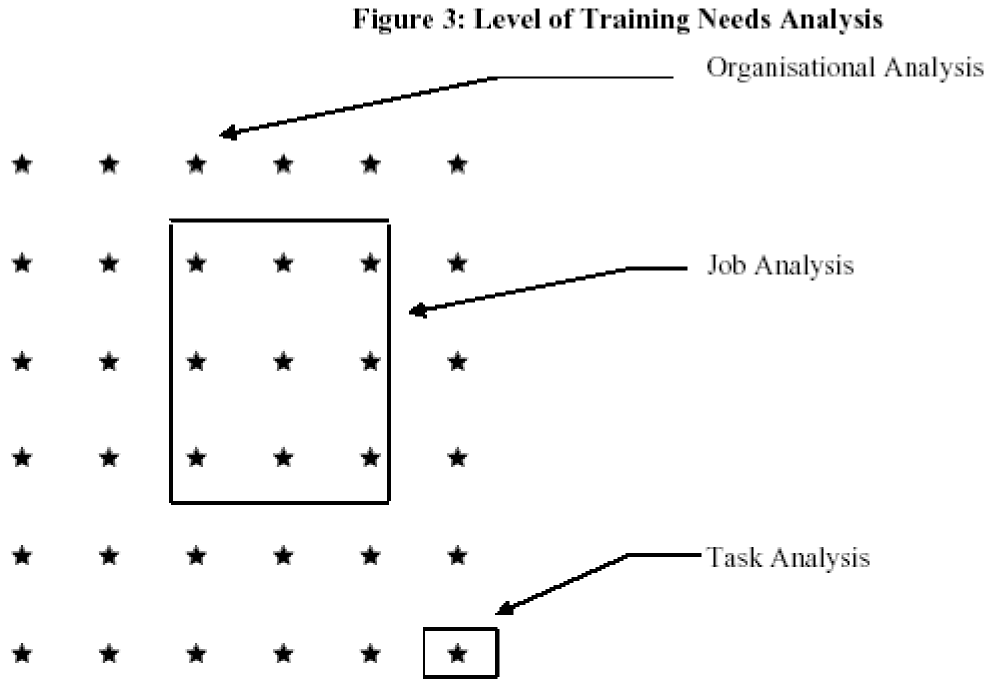
a) **Organisational Training needs analysis** is used to consider such questions as policy, productivity, new technology and cost escalation. Rarely can these issues be dealt with, in isolation. Producing a broad picture of where problems exist is necessary and the contribution that training can make towards overcoming them, with any other action required to solve or reduce performance problems.

b) **Job Analysis** takes the analytical process a stage further by investigating in more detail the jobs people do. This will provide information, for example, about tasks they perform, areas of responsibilities and relationships with others. Other disciplines also use job analysis (e.g. job evaluation, recruitment and selection), when it is used to identify training needs it directs attention to the competences required to do the job.

c) **Task Analysis** investigates the procedures, knowledge, skills and attitudes needed to ensure satisfactory performance of a job's key tasks. The products of this analysis provide the basis for training activities.

For systematic training to be effective in solving performance problems, it is essential that all three types of analysis, as shown in figure 3 are either done or considered. Using them with a degree of discretion is equally important, recognising the contribution each can make, but balancing this against the time and costs incurred.

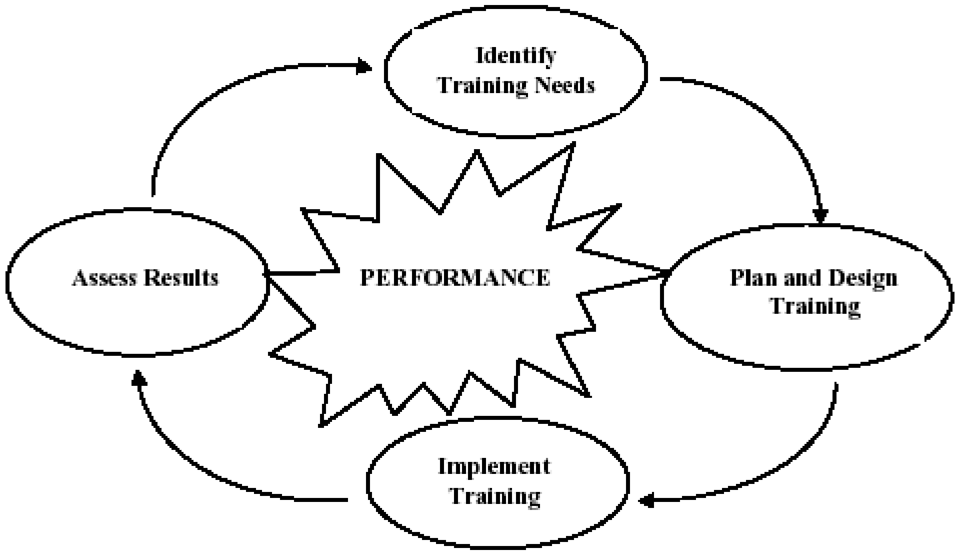
Figure 3: Level of Training Needs Analysis



Once we have identified the full extent of the area for improving performance, and have identified training needs, we can plan and design appropriate training.

Now you can appreciate that training can play an important role in improving the performance of an organisation, if the progress in performance is affected by the behavioural factors. So if you want to make an effective intervention in improving performance through training you shall have to follow the Systematic Approach to Training (SAT) which has been shown in figure 4. The four steps in the Systematic Approach to Training must be closely associated with real, not imaginary performance problems. It is found that the systematic approach to training starts with the identification of training needs. It is now clear that we can identify the training needs of an organisation through training needs analysis. It starts with identification of Performance Problems. Then we analyse the performance problem. Finally, we can identify the training needs and areas for non-training interventions.

Figure 4: Systematic Approach to Training



PLAN AND DESIGN TRAINING

This stage in the systematic approach is therefore concerned with planning the best use of available training resources, and the design of a wide range of training activities. These have to be planned within constraints such as budgets, operational demands, facilities, availability of personnel and so on.

A training intervention takes account of the full extent of training that will be needed to help people improve their performance. We can plan these for groups or for individuals, and they can vary in duration from a few days to a year or more.

A training programme often includes courses but, by themselves, courses rarely attend in full to training needs. A complete training programme may include on the job training, distance learning, computer-based training, etc., besides courses. Designing training refers to the application of appropriate training technique to devise learning opportunities within the context of a training programme.

Planning training should be based on a clear and specific requirement, which has been discussed and agreed with the client. This involves:

1. Deciding who needs to be trained.
2. Establishing the number of people for whom training is needed.
3. Specifying the aim of the training they will undertake.
4. Utilising available resources.
5. Recognising important constraints which may limit what can be achieved.

IMPLEMENT TRAINING

Within the systematic approach to training, this is the stage where people undertake learning activities. This requires the active, wholehearted participation of the trainee, supported by skilled instruction. The degree to which the trainee is willing to participate in training activities depends on such factors as whether:

- The trainee recognises the need for training
- The trainee is sufficiently motivated to want to learn
- During implementation this motivation is maintained or increase
- The design of learning events is realistic within the context of the organisatio
- Clearly defined objectives are used to direct learning activities
- The trainers possess sufficient technical and instructional skills
- Personnel in the organisation who are associated with the training activities, (management, supervisors and colleagues) support the application and development of newly acquired knowledge, skills and attitudes.

The success of the implementation stage relies on these and many other factors. It is often the fragile process by which learning is organised and the means by which performance problems are resolved.

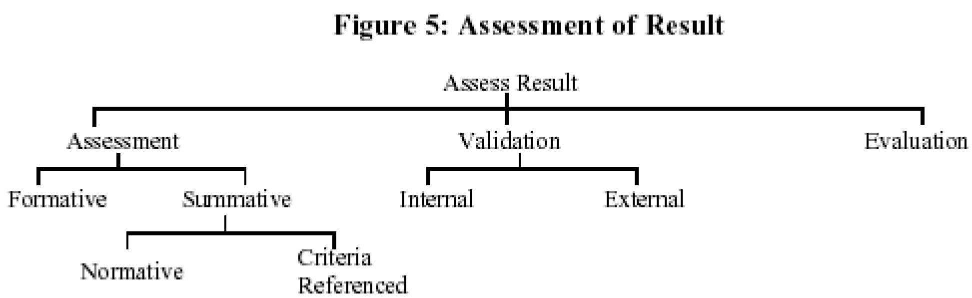
ASSESS RESULTS

Training is only as good as the results it achieves and the benefits derived from it by individuals and their organisations. The fourth and final stage is therefore to assess and evaluate the results obtained from training activities. Assessment needs to answer three basic questions:

1. Did the training achieve what it tried to achieve?
2. Did the training improve performance or solve the problem?
3. Was the training worthwhile?

Types of assessment of results of training have been shown in figure 5.

Figure 5: Assessment of Result



All stakeholders will assess whether training has been efficient and effective. Assessment can be made in two distinct ways; one is to assess the process of training - formative assessment, and the other is to assess the product of training - summative assessment.

Formative Assessment

Depending on the training methods being used, there can be many instances where we can give trainees feedback information about their performance, which will help them to improve. We build this type of assessment into the learning event and it becomes an integral part of the learning process: they may not even recognise it as 'assessment'. It is, however, an essential feature of good training as it provides feedback to both the trainee and the trainer. Excellent examples of formative assessment can be found in computer-based training, group exercises and role plays.

Computer-based training and interactive video programs, both based on the principles of 'programmed learning', include 'remedial loops.' As a result of making an error, the trainee is presented with additional learning to overcome the difficulty. Interactive video can take this a stage further by showing the trainee the consequences of a certain decision and using the situation to provide additional or remedial learning.

Formative assessment should be non-threatening and designed to help the trainee to learn. There should be no sense of taking a 'test', or the results of assessment being given to the trainee's supervisor. Trainees should be assured that the results of the test will not be divulged to anyone other than the trainer to evaluate the progress of learning to give the trainee confidence.

Summative Assessment

The Driving Test is an example of summative assessment. The test will produce a pass or a fail result based solely on performance, not on learning. Summative assessment is used at schools and colleges. Summative assessment is divided into two groups, Normative Assessment & Criterion - Referenced Assessment.

Normative Assessment

Consider the final of the 100 meters in the Olympic Games. Eight athletes are lined up ready to race. They are the finest sprinters in the world. Each trained to be a master performer. In about 10 seconds we have the results of the race, with one winner and seven losers though all of them have broken the work records. We call this 'Normative Assessment'. This is a familiar scene in sport, but it is hardly appropriate in training for work. People are trained, not to compete against each other but to help them improve their performance, as individuals and as members of teams.

Criterion - Referenced Assessment.

The purpose of training should be that all the training objectives are achieved, performance improved and the problem solved. This is to strive towards a situation in which everybody is a winner, in that everybody achieves the standard, or criterion for success. In our Board's examination 30 percent is the pass mark, whoever has got it, is declared as passed. We call this Criterion - Referenced Assessment.

Internal Validation

As a part of the Systematic Approach to Training (SAT) you have planned and designed a training programme based on the training needs identified through the Training Needs Analysis. Accordingly, you have implemented the training programme to achieve the training objectives.

So a series of tests and assessments have been designed to ascertain whether a training programme has achieved the training objectives specified. Internal Validation will give you the feedback on the quality of training and how it is implemented. Reasons for doing internal validation include:

* It provides trainers with feedback about the training they provide.
* It checks whether trainees have achieved the specified obj ectives.
* It enables the quality of training to be monitored.
* It indicates where the effectiveness of training can be improved.
* It indicates where training can be more efficiently delivered.
* It provides the basis for certification.

External Validation

Now consider the people you have trained, where they have achieved the objectives specified - based on the identification of their training needs. They will now return to their jobs. His supervisor is interested to know whether the performance of the trained officials has improved to a desired level. A process of external validation will now be used to find out whether they are now able to perform to a satisfactory standard. This process is likely to be done by the people concerned at organisational level. Reasons for doing external validation include:

* It involves line or departmental management
* It focuses on actual performance
* It can be related to identified training needs
* It establi shes the basi s for the transfer of learning
* It indicates the validity of the specified training objectives
* It can be used as evidence of competence
* It provides essential data for cost benefit analysis
* It proves the benefits being obtained from training

Evaluation

Training has been completed. Its validity has also been established both internally and externally. The organisation may now decide to evaluate their investment. This might be done by senior management, by accountants, consultants, or by customers. Each will use what they consider to be an appropriate criterion. While doing this evaluation, it is likely that the results will also be used to evaluate the training function, as a whole. Reasons for doing an evaluation of training include:

* It recognises the importance of satisfying the needs of clients.
* It provides justification for the investment in training
* It establishes the benefits of having a training function
* It encourages management to make further investment in training
* It enables training to be valued from different perspective.
* It includes cost benefit analysis
* It provides professional discipline for training management
* It encourages careful scrutiny of training proposals.

We have discussed the four stages of Systematic Approach to Training and we have shown the interrelationships. We start with the identification of training needs through training needs analysis (TNA). In this stage the primary responsibility lies with the organisation. Supervisors at various levels are the most competent persons to identify the performance problems or areas for further improvement. Here, TNA consultant can provide the organisation necessary technical support to the organisation in this regard.

Next stage is Plan and Design of the training programme. It is the primary responsibility of the training organisations. They are to plan and design the training programme to solve the performance problems as envisaged through the Training Needs Analysis.

The third stage in SAT cycle deals with the implementation of the training. It is also the primary responsibility of the training organisation.

Assess result is the fourth stage. Here formative assessment, summative assessment and internal validation are done by the training organisation. But external validation and evaluation are made in the organisations.

Training intervention can improve the performance if the Systematic Approach to Training is followed. But the very success of Systematic approach to training completely depends on the closeness of the organisation with the training institution. In our country it is found in most of the cases that training institutions and organisations are working in isolation.

Earlier, the benefits of training and the reasons why it is done were discussed. A distinction was made between 'learning' and 'training'. Let us consider the latter term for a moment. Training is essentially an organised learning and as trainers we are given the responsibility and resources to organise it. The Glossary of Training Terms defines learning as:

"The process whereby individuals acquire knowledge, skills and attitudes through experience, reflection, study or instruction ".

The definition raises several questions that should concern you as trainer. For example, it refers to Individuals. Trainers are often dealing with not just one individual but maybe 10 or 100. Although the learning process refers to learning for the individual, we as trainers are normally faced with the practicalities of dealing with the learning process of not just one person but several. However, we should remember that it is the individuals who learn are important and that all of them do not learn in the same way or at the same rate.

The competence of an individual to perform a task is determined by his ability to use an appropriate combination of knowledge, skill and attitude. We can call this combination behaviour.

Knowledge is the information required to perform a task or duty. We can identify four categories of knowledge.

1. Facts - Knowledge about people, places and objects.
2. Procedures - e.g. Steps involved in calculating income tax.
3. Concepts - Examples of concrete concepts are houses, animals
4. Principles - This is knowledge about rules that guide action or explain changes.

Skill is the physical and mental abilities required actual performance of the task or duty. Skills can also be considered as falling into four categories as follows.

1. Thinking
2. Acting
3. Reacting
4. Interacting

Attitude is the willingness and diligence of the person to comply with procedures, regulations and standards.

The competence of a person to perform a task is therefore determined by using an appropriate combination of knowledge, skill and attitude. We can call this combination behaviour.

The reason for raising these issues is to draw attention to the many and often complex factors that will influence our ability to organise learning and provide an effective training service.

DESCRIBING A LEARNING UNIT

The Learning Unit that we will now introduce and describe provides a means of taking account of these factors within a framework that can be used for the design and implementation of training activities.

For training purposes learning is associated with the ability of a trainee, to perform a task. Analogy can illustrate the idea of the Learning Unit.

The trainee's performance needs to change. It is not enough for the trainee's superior and other colleagues to recognise this: the trainee also needs to recognise the need for change. More specifically, before training takes place, it is important that:

- The trainee should know he or she has a training need to perform a task.

- A standard of performance is available to define what the trainee should be able to do.
- Finally, and most important, the trainee must want to change - to acquire new knowledge, skills or attitudes to enable the task to be performed to the required standard

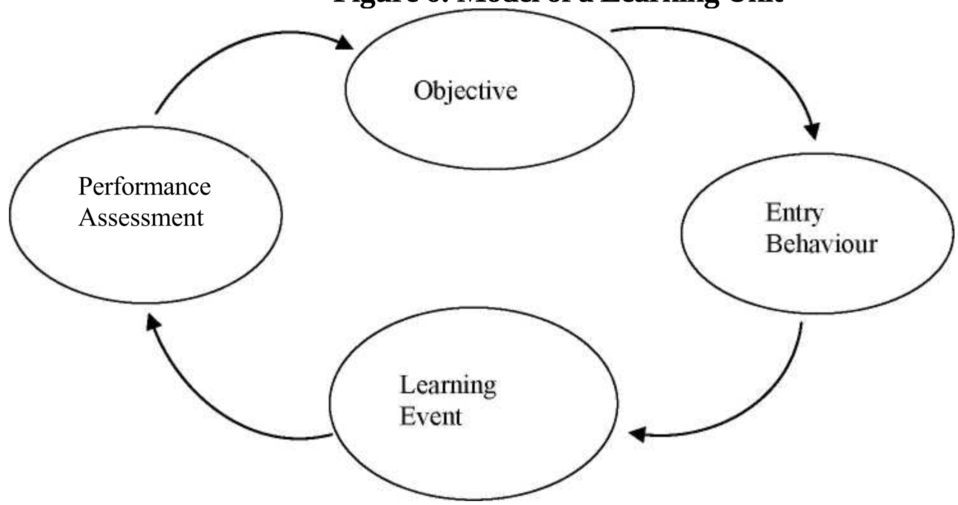
We organise the learning event to solve the trainee's performance problem or to improve performance. The intention is that the trainee will leave the learning event having acquired the necessary change in behaviour. If it is to be successful, it must:

- Be able to do what it purports to do - change a trainee's behaviour.
- Treat all trainee's participating in the learning event as individuals: we must take differences in their knowledge, skills and attitudes into account.
- Provide sufficient time for each individual to achieve success.
- Create a learning environment that is pleasant, well organised, free from anxiety and where the trainee will be willing to participate in learning activities designed to bring about the required change(s) in behaviour at work.

The trainee has now left the learning event having completed the process of change. It is important that we assess the product of this change; assessed that is, by the organisation who has paid for the training; by the trainer who designed the learning event and helped the trainee during the learning process; and, finally, and all too frequently forgotten, assessed by the trainee who had to undergo the change. So, the product of the learning process has to be assessed by:

- Determining whether the trainee has acquired the proposed knowledge, skills and attitudes.
- Determining whether the trainee is now able to perform the task.
- Asking the trainee to comment on the value of the newly acquired expertise in relation to performance of the task and to his or her job in general.

Figure 6: Model of a Learning Unit



The model shown above in figure 6 has four principal stages. These stages are arranged in a circular format to show that they are interrelated. The model's circular format is also used to suggest that the starting point for the Learning Unit may vary. For example:
We have established a clear purpose (e.g. the need to learn how to perform a task) and it has been expressed as an objective. The starting point for developing the Learning Unit is therefore the OBJECTIVE.

AIM & OBJECTIVE
There is some basic difference between aim of the training and training objective. We should get it clarified at this stage. The aim of a course or training programme is the statement of intent. It describes what you intend that the learners should achieve and communicates this intention to all concerned. The objective is what will be achieved as an outcome of the training, expressed in terms of performance.

OBJECTIVES
The objective provides a clear, precise and unambiguous statement of what learners can do at the following three distinct, but very important following points in their training:
1. On their return to work, when they are required to perform the task to the standards set by an employer. The objective used to describe this is called a **PERFORMANCE OBJECTIVE.**
2. On completion of their formal training, typically a course, when they have achieved a satisfactory standard of performance under training conditions. The objective used to describe this is called a **TRAINING OBJECTIVE.**
3. On completion of a stage of the learning process when they have acquired certain knowledge and skills. The objective used to describe this is called an **ENABLING OBJECTIVE.**

ELEMENTS OF AN OBJECTIVE
An objective is a precise, clear statement of what the learners will be able to do at the end of the training. So an objective is a statement of the performance to be achieved by the trainee. As and when required it includes performance, conditions and standards. **1.Performance**
A statement of the performance to be achieved by the trainee. This enables the acquisition of knowledge and the development of skills to be focused only on what is essential. It should fulfil the following criteria:-
S - Specific M - Measurable A - Attainable R - Realistic T - Time specific
Examples of Performance Statements
* The Assistants will be able to list the principles of noting and drafting.
* The Junior Analyst will be able to draw an organisation chart.
* The Senior Analyst will be able to carry out method study in an organisation.
* The Trainee will be able to process data for generating different charts using Lotus 1-2-3.
* The Income Tax Inspectors will be able to list modes of tax recovery.
* The Krishi Prajukti Sahayak will be able to explain the procedure of identification of beneficiaries for various agricultural development programmes
* The Dealing Assistant will be able to demonstrate the procedure for posting leave in the account.

2. Condition
A statement of the conditions under which it is being done. This enables the learning event and assessment to include conditions needed for effective transfer to job performance. It includes
a) The range of learning to be covered.
b) The tools, equipment and clothing to be used.
c) The performance aids and manuals that cannot be used.
d) The environmental conditions.
e) Any special, physical demands.

Examples of Condition Statements
* The Assistants will be able to run Ms-Office software.

* He will be able to shoot a target with his AK47 gun.

3. Standard

A statement of the minimum standards of performance a trainee must attain. This enables us to check accurately if the trainee has achieved the objective. Standards will be classified as ones of

a) Accuracy

b) Speed

Examples of Accuracy Standards

* The trainee will be able to type 30 words per minute without error.
* The trainee will be able to hit the target with 2 errors per 100 attempts.

Examples of Speed Standards

* The trainee will be able to open one service book in not more than one hour's time.
* The trainee will be able to prepare pay bill using computer in one day.

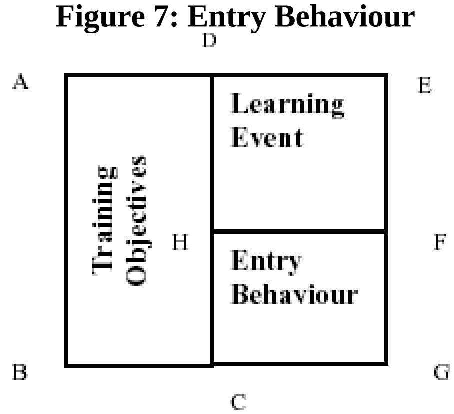
The following examples show the performance, condition and standard in one statement

* Athletes will be able to run the 100 mts below 9.5 secs on modern running track, in running kit, without wind assistance, and whilst skipping to the lane allocated. Here run is the performance statement, below 9.5 secs indicates the speed standards, modern running track, running kit, without wind assistance indicates the conditions.

ENTRY BEHAVIOUR

In figure 7, ABCD shows the Training Objective. It states that after completion of the training the level of knowledge and skill of the trainee will reach at AD.

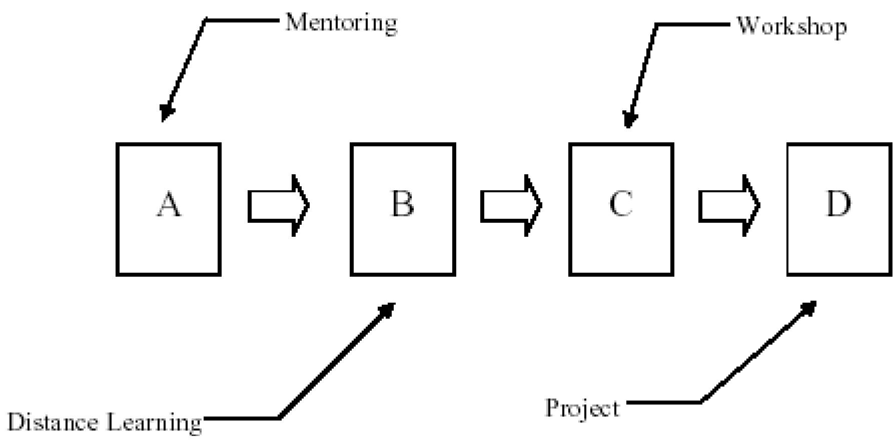
Figure 7: Entry Behaviour



There is a trainee or a group of trainees to train. The starting point for developing the Learning event would be to consider their present capabilities. In other words, the starting point would be ENTRY BEHAVIOUR. It is found in figure 7 that the present level of knowledge & skill of the trainees to perform his job is HCGF. So the Entry Behaviour is HCGF. You need to consider the following issues to collect information regarding the trainee's entry behaviour: -

- Confidentially of records
- Time available before implementing the training
- Priority attached to the training
- Resources available for preparing the training
- Geographic location of trainees
- Acceptability of researching entry behaviour
- Possibility of providing pre-training, where needed. Existence of standards and tests.
- Opportunities for further remedial training.

Figure 8: Entry Behaviour



In the illustration, Learning Unit 'A' establishes the basis for a trainee's training for development. He or she discusses his/her needs with a supervising officer who acts as his/her mentor. This clarifies entry behaviour for the second learning unit 'B' which provides study material by means of distance learning. This, in turn, is preparation for the third learning unit 'C', the training course workshop, where the trainee can apply his or her knowledge to skill development activities. The training programme is completed by the fourth learning unit 'D', the project. This is where the trainee can apply both knowledge and skill to demonstrate competence under the supervision of his/her mentor. It is found that exit behaviour of 'A' (Mentoring) is the entry behaviour for the Learning Event B (Distance Learning). Similarly, exit behaviour of B is the entry behaviour for learning event 'C' (Workshop). Notice the arrows between each learning unit; they highlight the importance of entry behaviour from one unit to the next.
Successful completion of one unit in the sequence will provide entry behaviour for the next, and so on until the particular training programme is satisfactorily concluded. Some useful learning can take place before the start of formal training by requiring a trainee to undertake some specific activities.

LEARNING EVENT

Based on the Training objective and entry behaviour of the Trainees, learning event is designed. Learning Event is considered to be the heart of all training activities where creation of opportunities for people to learn takes place. In figure 7 it is found that ABCD is the Training Objective and HCGF is the Entry Behaviour. **So the learning Event is DHFE.** You have the training objective and checked the entry behaviour. Based on these two you have developed the learning Event. Learning event is the heart of all training activities.

ASSESSMENT

The Model of the Learning Unit shows it as having four principal stages. However, knowledge of results and feedback is an essential feature of the learning process. This knowledge is required by both the trainees and the trainers:

* Trainees can get information about their progress
* Trainers can learn about the effectiveness and the efficiency of the Learning Unit they have designed and implemented.

The following questions are typical examples a trainer might ask to obtain feedback:

OBJECTIVES

- Is the objective expressed in terms of knowledge, skills and attitude?
- Does the objective contain a clear, unambiguous description of performance?
- Is the performance described in the objective directly related to the task?
- Is the objective based on thorough analysis?
- Does the objective include details of the conditions under which the performance is to be carried out?
- Are the conditions based on the real work situation?
- Does the objective include a standard of performance to be achieved?
- Are there measurable standards of performance?
- Who, ultimately, decides whether the objective has been achieved?

ENTRY BEHAVIOUR

- How many trainees are there to consider?
- What is their geographical location?
- Is the Learning Unit likely to make great demands on them?
- Does their ability or experience vary considerably?
- What is the age range?
- What is their accustomed learning style? Are they undertaking the learning willingly?
- To what extent is attitude a factor in the learning?
- Are they likely to be worried about the consequences of failing to achieve the objective?

LEARNING EVENT

- Does the learning event reflect, or simulate, the real work situation?
- Does the learning event accommodate trainees with differing entry behaviours?
- Is the learning event trainee-centred or trainer-centred?
- Does the learning event allow the pace of learning to be set to suit the trainee?
- To what extent will the learning event expose the trainee to stress and anxiety?
- Does the learning event provide .sufficient time for practice?
- Is there provision for remedial training where needed?
- How competent is the trainer in relation to the learning event?
- What other resources are needed to support the learning event?

PERFORMANCE ASSESSMENT

- Is there a formal, explicit, assessment of performance?
- Who has final responsibility for assessing performance?
- Does the assessment truly reflect performance under normal working conditions?
- Is the assessment based on objective measuring techniques?
- What are the consequences of failure for the trainee and trainer?
- To what extent are the views of the trainees taken into account in relation to the usefulness of the performance they have achieved?

ANDRAGOGY

In the early-days, for people in government organisation, there was adequate emphasis on-job-training

process. In the government organisation people at the assistant level were primarily learning through on-job training. At this level the job is mostly repetitive in nature where you need one to one interaction. However over the period the situation has changed. Now there is little learning environment in most of the government offices and there are really very few skilled officials who can train others.
In this system your responsibility is not restricted only to the implementation of the assigned job but to create a learning environment in your office. In the present scenario, you are to function not only as training manager but also as trainer. Otherwise, it is now well known that all work will be required to be done by a very small group of people to ensure perfection. This will put an unbearable workload on them leading to the possibility of break down of the system.
Apart from the responsibilities as stated you will be required to function as a direct trainer on many occasions in the workshop and class room situation. The direct trainers- the people who undertake instructional duties have to play a significant role in this process. You need to know various concepts and approaches to training.
There is now an emerging theory of learning concerned with the technology of adult learning. This technology of adult learning has been given a new name 'andragogy'. The word is derived from the Greek word **'ANDRA'** (meaning 'man'). Andragogy is therefore the art and science of helping adults to learn.

SOME GENERAL ASSUMPTIONS

Adults do not learn in the same way as children. This is because:

* Adults are autonomous and self -directed. They need to be free to direct themselves. Their trainer must actively involve adult participants in the learning process and serve as facilitators for them. They have to be sure to act as facilitators, guiding participants to their own knowledge rather than supplying them with facts.
* Adults have accumulated a foundation of life experiences and knowledge that may include work-related activities, family responsibilities, and previous education. They need to connect learning to this knowledge/ experience base. To help them do so, they should draw out participants' experience and knowledge which is relevant to the topic. They must relate theories and concepts to the participants and recognize the value of experience in learning.
* Adults are goal-oriented. Upon enrolling in a course, they usually know what goal they want to attain. They, therefore, appreciate a training program that is organized and has clearly defined elements. Trainers must show participants how this session will help them attain their goals.
* Adults are relevancy-oriented. They must see a reason for learning something. Learning has to be applicable to their work or other responsibilities to be of value to them. This means, also, that theories and concepts must be related to a setting familiar to participants. This need can be fulfilled by letting participants choose projects that reflect their own interest.
* Adults are practical, focusing on the aspects of a lesson most useful to them in their work. They may not be interested in knowledge for its own sake. Trainers must tell participants explicitly how the lesson will be useful to them on the job.
* As do all learners, adults need to be shown respect. Trainers must acknowledge the wealth of experiences that adult participants bring to the classroom. These adults should be treated as equals in experience ad knowledge and allowed to voice their opinions freely in class.

On the other hand, children enter this world in a condition of complete dependency. Their every need must be taken care of by someone else. The first image, children get of them is that of a dependent personality whose life the adult world manages for them.

This self-concept of dependency is encouraged and reinforced by the- adult world. In fact, society defines the normal role of children as that of learners; this is their full-time occupation, the source of rewards and self-fulfilment. On the whole, this occupation, whether it is termed that of a pupil, student, or learner, requires a more or less passive role of receiving and storing information chosen by adults.
As children's self-identity begins to take shape, they begin to see themselves as having the capacity to start deciding by themselves. This increases as they become more mature and experienced, leading towards greater self-direction. However, something significant happens to the self-concept when they consider

themselves as adult. They see their normal role in society no longer as a full-time learner. They see themselves increasingly as a producer or doer. Their other chief sources of self-fulfilment are now performance as a worker, a parent etc. The adult acquires a new status, in his own eyes and in the eyes of others. She or he becomes essentially self-directing, and able to decide and face the consequences. In fact, the point at which a person becomes an adult, psychologically, is that point at which he perceives himself to be wholly self-directing.

Therefore, adults have a need to be treated with respect, to make their own decisions, and to be seen and treated as unique individuals. They tend to avoid, resist and resent, situations in which they are treated like children - being told what to do, and being put in embarrassing situations. Adults are likely to resist learning conditions that conflict with their self-concept.

Often there is another factor in the self-concept of adults that affect their role as learners. They may carry from earlier school life the perception that they are, or are not, clever. This recollection of previous learning experiences may be so strong that it serves as a serious barrier to becoming fully involved in learning activities. Once a trainer puts adult learners into dependent roles, repeating in sense earlier school-based experiences, she or he is likely to face a rising resistance and resentment to the learning event created.

On the other hand, when adults are first exposed to a learning environment in which they are treated with respect, are involved in mutual enquiry with the trainer, and are given responsibility for their own learning, the initial reaction may be one of shock and disorganisation. Adults initially are often not prepared for self-directed learning; they need to go through a process of reorientation to learning as adults - to learn new ways of learning. Once adults make the discovery that they can take responsibility for their own learning, they usually experience a sense of release and exhilaration and participate in learning events with enthusiasm and commitment.

SOME IMPLICATIONS FOR TRAINING

The acceptance of an andragogical approach to training provides the trainer with a need to consider the following:

* The physical environment should be one in which adults feel at ease, with furnishings that are comfortable and informal.
* The psychological climate should be one that causes adults to feel accepted, respected and supported. There should be a spirit of mutual respect and cooperation between the trainer and the learners, in which there is freedom of expression without fear of ridicule. A person feels more 'adult' in an atmosphere that is friendly and informal.
* The behaviour of the trainer probably influences the character of the learning event more than any other single factor. The trainer conveys in many ways his or her attitude of interest and respect for learners. The trainer, who takes time and trouble to get to know the learners individually and calls them by their first names, is promoting the right sort of atmosphere. Very important is the willingness to listen, respect, and respond to views expressed by learners.
* Because adults are themselves a rich source for learning, greater emphasis can be placed on techniques that use their experience. Training methods such as group discussions, case studies, in-tray exercises, and action learning, promote participation in a learner-centred environment.

All learners enter a learning event with a different background of experience. The longer they have lived, the greater the volume of experience and, possibly, but not necessarily, the wider variety of experiences.

This presents another difference between the entry behaviour expected from a child to that of an experienced adult:

- If you ask children who they are, they are likely to identify themselves in terms of who their parents are, where they live and what school they attend. Their self-identity is largely derived from external sources.
- A somewhat modified response would be obtained from a person in their early twenties; the identification would be concerned with academic attainment, career prospects, outside interests and possibly an employer.
- But to adults, particularly ones in middle age, their experience is themselves. They define who

they are and establish their self-identity based on their accumulation of a unique set of experiences. So, if you ask adults who they are, they are likely to identify themselves with their occupation, where they have worked, travelled, and what their training and experience has equipped them to do, and what their achievements have been. Because adults define themselves largely by their experience, they have a deep investment in its value. So when they find themselves in a situation where their experience is not being used, or its worth minimised, it is not just the experience that is being rejected -they feel rejected as a person.

These differences in experience between adolescents and younger and older adults have three consequences for learning:

a) Some adults have more to contribute to the learning events than others; for most kinds of learning they are themselves a rich source.

b) Adults - and, again, some more than others - have a rich foundation of experience with which to consider new experiences and their implications for work.

c) Adults have acquired many fixed habits and patterns of thought and, therefore, possibly less open-minded.

So when you will be required to play the role of a direct trainer you should follow these:-

* Assist the learners to define their learning needs.
* Design learning events to suit an individual learner's entry behaviour
* Help the learner to understand how to use learning resources, including the experience of sharing their learning experiences with others.
* In selection of learning method, emphasise on experimental and participative training methods. This has been discussed in detail subsequently.
* Assist learners to assume increasing responsibility for planning their own learning.
* Reinforce the self-concept of the learner to encourage achievement of obj ectives.
* Encourage the use of formative assessment techniques, including free exchange of feedback.

Feedback

Feedback is a very important concept. It is useful in your personal life, in our job and in the training environment. Feedback provides you valuable information about your performance.

WHAT IS FEEDBACK?

The "Glossary of Training Terms" defines Feedback as:

"The process by which information about the results of an action is communicated to the source of the action. It is argued for example, that learning takes place either through the informational characteristic or the knowledge of result, or through a combination of health".

You need feedback for improvement in your performance.

The source of feedback can be from your family members or other people as comments from other trainees, or from trainers as the case may be. However the performance of a task itself provides another source of feedback. You do not need a trainer to tell you that you have fallen off a bicycle, and you know from the taste whether you have put too much sugar in a cup of tea. The extent to which we received feedback is a significant factor in the standard of our performance.

Feedback helps us to learn about ourselves and the effect of our behaviour on others. However, feedback is only helpful when it is accepted and used by the recipient. It can take the form of either positive or negative feedback. Positive feedback confirms and praises acceptable performance. This builds confidence and motivates the receiver to repeat the performance. Negative feedback identifies areas where performance is inadequate. It can be of great value to the recipient if it creates an awareness of the need to change. The danger with negative feedback is that the recipient may reject it, as in many cases he may not be able to take in right spirit. So there are some golden rules of giving and receiving feedback.

VALUE OF FEEDBACK

Providing feedback therefore needs to be a constructive activity that should be helping to learn. It should not be destructive and critical. Equally important, the recipient should not interpret it as destructive and critical.

To be effective, feedback needs to be skilfully given and the receiver must hear, understand, accept and act upon it. However accurate the feedback, if the trainees rejects it, the result will be no improvement in performance. Therefore, always consider the human element during feedback.

H - Hear
U - Understand
M - Motivate
A - Acceptable
N - Negotiate

The giving and receiving of feedback are skills which require very careful handling. They require courage, tact, honesty, understanding and respect - both for yourself and for others. Like all other skills, they are developed only through practice. In providing feedback to others you will need to be sensitive to the feedback you will receive in response. The giving of feedback cannot be separated from receiving it in return. GUIDELINES FOR GIVING FEEDBACK

You are giving a feedback to some one in his/her performance. Your intention must be to improve performance through your feedback.

You are teaching mathematics to your children. If he/she makes any mistakes our normal feedback is as "you are an ass, you are useless". But think for a minute. What has he/she done? He/She has made some mistake in one or two steps in a particular sum, on the other hand, your intention is to improve his/her performance in doing sum. But unfortunately, you are focusing on Personality instead of behaviour which is comprised of knowledge, skill and attitude.

Focus Feedback on behaviour rather than on personality

Referring to what the person did is important so that feedback is descriptive rather than evaluative.

Changing behaviour is quite possible for an individual, but attempting to change personality is much more difficult, if not impossible. We create frustration if we give feedback on some shortcoming over which the trainee has no control - i.e. part of their personality.

Feedback should focus on observations rather than inferences.

Observations are what you can see and hear in a person's behaviour; inferences are the interpretation and conclusions you draw from the observations. Consequently they are open to dispute. The giver of feedback can accurately report what he or she observed as happened, but can only guess at the reason. To say, for example, 'You have interrupted three people during the last half-hour', is more acceptable than saying ' You are too fond of your own voice'. You can observe or measure the amount of talking someone does and give accurate feedback on it. Nevertheless, it is dangerous and may be untrue to imply that someone who talks a lot is too fond of one's own voice. There could be other reasons why they say a lot.

Concentrate on change rather than make value judgements

Having identified an area for change you may hope the trainee explore how to do things differently in the future. Make positive suggestions about how things could be done differently. However, avoid being manipulative. Remember to leave the choice to the trainee about whether to accept or reject the feedback.

Feedback is most acceptable when it is describing specific rather than general patterns of behaviour.

In providing feedback you are seeking to help the trainee to change and improve performance. You need the trainee's commitment to change, not agreement with your views. So you identify the specific problem. Suggest the solutions. Do not confuse him by describing general patterns of behaviour.

Focus the feedback on the value it may have for the trainee

You should try to be impersonal, and show empathy by asking yourself: ' Who is it I am trying to help?'. It is tempting to give feedback about things of interest to you that are not strictly about the trainee's performance. Concentrate on those things that will help achieve the desired performance.

Focus feedback on the amount of information the trainee can use, rather than the amount you feel capable of giving.
Effective feedback requires you to select the relevant points that the trainee can cope with at once. This means you must select priorities in the feedback you can give. Concentrate on the major determinants of the performance you are assessing. Make the feedback learner centred.

Feedback should be well-timed
Generally, feedback is best given as soon as possible after the learning event. If we delay feedback, it is much more difficult for a person to learn which actions led to a successful (or unsuccessful) outcome. Delay in feedback may make the feedback ineffective. You should give it timely.

Check the accuracy of the feedback
Careful observation of the person's behaviour during his or her performance is essential. Some form of checklist would help. However, always remember that ticks in boxes are secondary to helping the trainee to learn. The checklist is a means to an end, not an end in itself.
In giving feedback you should be helping trainees explore the options open to them in deciding if and how to change. The trainees need to work out for themselves what they want to do rather than be given off-the-shelf solutions.
For successful learning to take place, by using feedback, there must be commitment to change, not compliance with the views expressed by the feedback giver. The feedback giver should be working to get that commitment. Compliance is unlikely to lead to action to improve performance.
Effective feedback resulting in commitment to change and the implementation of feedback requires skills in receiving feedback and also giving it. No matter how skilfully given, feedback that the trainee cannot be effective.

GUIDELINES FOR RECEIVING FEEDBACK

Be positive towards the feedback giver
Giving feedback on performance is a threatening activity, particularly for the less experienced. Recognising the benefit to you of the feedback you will receive, and signalling your appreciation, will encourage the person giving it. Eye contact, nods and other nonverbal signals will encourage the feedback. Negative response, or no response at all will reduce the feedback you get.

Listen to the feedback
This is easy to say but difficult to do because of the temptation to deny, argue for and justify what you have said and done.

Clarify and check understanding
Feedback givers may express themselves badly or you may not quite understand their points. Check out what feedback you are getting by paraphrasing back to them your understanding of the main points.

Check the feedback with others
Don't accept one individuals feedback as absolute. Check with others to see whether they agree on areas identified for change and the possible ways of implementing change.

Ask for feedback not volunteered
If areas of your performance concern you and you receive no feedback on them, ask. In some situations you can ask the feedback giver to pay special attention to particular points before observing

your performance. There may be one aspect of your performance that you are concerned about and seeking information on it is quite legitimate.

Describe how to use feedback.
It is up to you to decide whether you accept or reject the feedback. Whether the feedback is positive or negative, you must decide if you need to change your performance and how you might implement any change.

Explore Options
Having identified an area for change you should explore ways of bringing the change about. This may be done in consultation with the feedback giver, on your own or with someone else who can advise you. You must be committed to the decision you make for introducing change.

Thank the feedback giver
Even when you judge the feedback you have been given was unhelpful you should thank the person. For feedback to continue to be given the trainee needs to signal its value. The next time feedback is given it may be very helpful. Punishing the feedback giver or signalling your discontent will just reduce or eliminate feedback being given.

SUMMARY
Giving and receiving feedback is a demanding process that requires confidence and respect between the parties involved. The advice offered is necessarily broad and will vary between different individuals and activities. We cannot doubt the value of the feedback in learning. The provision of feedback is especially important for those process skills that occur during learning activities, particularly involving interpersonal skills.

GIVING FEEDBACK CHECKLIST
1. Must be acceptable to the receiver.
2. Focus on behaviour rather than on the person
3. Base feedback on facts and not on opinions
4. Should include observations not inferences
5. Concentrate on change rather than make value judgements
6. Most acceptable when describing specific rather than general patterns of behaviour
7. Focus feedback on the value to the receiver
8. Limit feedback to what the receiver can cope with
9. Timing of feedback is important
10. Check the accuracy of the feedback

RECEIVING FEEDBACK CHECKLIST
1. Be positive towards the feedback giver
2. Listen to the feedback
3. Clarify and check understanding
4. Check the feedback with others
5. Ask for detail not volunteered
6. Decide how to use feedback received
7. Explore options
8. Thank the feedback giver

Training Methods
There are large numbers of Instructional Methods. Selection of the training method depends on the entry behaviour of the trainee, number of trainers, their learning style, components of behaviour in knowledge, skill & attitude etc. However we have discussed some of the common instructional

techniques with its main uses, advantages and disadvantages

1. BRAINSTORMING

What it is: A technique used for finding solutions by means of stimulating ideas. A small group of people with or without conscious knowledge of the subject meet and contribute any suggestion or idea that comes into their head, no matter how fantastic or impossible it may sound. All suggestions are encouraged and criticism is not allowed at this stage, although contributors are later invited to explain their ideas. Subsequently all the ideas submitted at the meeting are sifted and assessed.

Main uses: Problem solving.

Consolidating previous learning.

Advantages: Uses Participant's experience and ideas Very active participation.

Disadvantages: Time consuming

High trainer skill required Some learner may not participate.

2. CASE STUDY METHOD

What it is: A learning technique in which a real or fictional situation or series of events is presented to trainees for their analysis and consideration of possible solutions of problems identified. Their findings in a real situation can be compared subsequently with what actually occurred. Case studies are often used in interpersonal industrial relations situation such as disciplinary cases and grievance handling.

Main uses: Problem solving.
Developing analytical skill.
Gaining confidence in decision making.
Changing/modifying attitudes
Introducing and consolidating other sessions.
Team work.

Advantages: Provides concrete subjects for discussion.
Participants experiences can be brought into use and shared with others. Provides opportunities for active participation.

Disadvantages: Time consuming to produce.
Difficulty in validating when there is no quantifiable solution.
Close relationship to 'real-life' may be difficult to achieve.
Differences between the training situation and the real world may not be recognised.

What it is: Systematically increasing the ability and experience of the trainee by giving him/her planning tasks, coupled with continuous appraisal, advice, and counselling by the trainee's supervisor. Probably the most widely used and abused method of on-the-job training.

Main uses: Development of knowledge and skills.

Advantages: The learner may have undivided attention from the trainer in the one-to-one situation.
Level and pace of coaching can be quickly adapted.
Trainer and learner are likely to have more immediate feedback of results compared with some other methods.

Disadvantages: Can be expensive on trainer's time.
Only very small numbers can be dealt with at one time. Success depends very much on the qualities of the trainer.

4. DEMONSTRATION

What it is: The direct trainer, by actual performance, shows the learner what to do and how to do it, and with his associated explanations indicates why, when, and where it is done. It rarely stands alone; it is almost invariably combined with another method.

Main uses: Showing correct/incorrect actions, procedures, etc.
Giving learners a yardstick to aim at.

Advantages: Stimulates interest.
Large groups can be handled.

Disadvantages: Takes a lot of time and effort to produce.
Little or no contact between direct trainer and learners whilst it is actually taking place.
Can be too fast for the learners to absorb or understand what is going on when several actions or skills are being demonstrated simultaneously.
Good learner viewing is often a problem.

5. DISTANCE LEARNING

Method: Any form of learning in which the trainers and learners are not in the same place. Covers correspondence education, and Open University type teaching by TV and radio.

Main uses: To provide knowledge-based learning opportunities without the necessity for learners to attend a training institution.

Advantages: Can provide training for a large number of people
Training resources can be developed to meet a specific training need
Resources can supplied through a national or regional centre
Provides cost-effective training.
Can use simply paper-based or multi-media technologies
Can be linked to other methods - assignments, projects, open learning, or prior to attending a course.

Disadvantages: Dependant on an effective administrative system Mentoring support is essential.
Requires initial investment to develop training resources Depends on motivation of learners Limited mainly to provision of knowledge.

6. DISCUSSION METHOD

What it is: A training technique in which the learning is derived principally from the participants themselves rather than from an instructor. Normally recognised to be three main types
* directed discussion
* development discussion
* problem-solving discussion

Main uses: For problem solving exercises.
For forming or moulding attitudes.
For stimulating interest and constructive thought.
For supplementing other methods
For reviewing/consolidating other learning.

Advantages: Learner activity can be high.
Interest can be quickly aroused.

Disadvantages: Time-consuming to obtain anything worthwhile.
Has to be extremely well controlled to be of value.
To run well, learners must know or have opinions about the topic.

7. **GROUP EXERCISES**

What it is: Group exercises require a small group of learners to undertake an activity together. The content of the activity is not important. What is important is how the group undertakes the activity and the results achieved. Experiential learning occurs when a person engaged in some activity, looks back at the activity critically, abstracts some useful insight from the analysis, and puts the results to work. This is an inductive process, proceeding from observation rather than from given truth. A structured experience provides a framework in which the inductive process can be facilitated. The experiences centre on a topic-related activity, where the trainees participate in, for example, making products, transactions, problem solving, non-verbal communication, planning, competing etc. The experiences so created provide the basis for learning.

Main uses: Develop interactive/interpersonal skills.
Team building activities.

Advantages: Highly participative.
Learners are usually highly motivated.

Disadvantages: Process skills learning can be obscured by the output of the activity.
High trainer skills are required to review and help transfer of learning.

8. LECTURE

What it is: A straight talk or exposition, possibly using visual or other aids, but without group participation other than at the conclusion.

Main uses: For transmission of facts and information which may be classified as of interest value only and which the learners would not be expected to remember in full.

Advantages: A large amount of material can be covered in a relatively short time.
A large number of learners can be handled by one lecturer - virtually no limits.
Content and sequence under the lectures complete control.

Disadvantages: Lack of learner activity - they are passive with little or no opportunity for participation.
Knowledge/ information imparted by talking is not easily memorable.
The lecturer has little or no immediate feedback from the learners.
Saturation point is reached relatively quickly.
The learners attention can be easily distracted.

9. ON-THE-JOB TRAINING (ON-SITE OR DESK TRAINING)

Method: Training given in the normal work situation. It may constitute the whole of the training to be combined with off-the-job training and/or further education.

Main uses: Used to integrate training in the normal working environment. Probably the most widely used method of training.

Advantages: Learning is associated with work-related performance
Training can be done as and when required

Disadvantages: Combines development of knowledge and skill
Particularly useful for productive tasks
Enables flexible use of all stages of the Systematic Approach to Training.
Relies on the availability of a competent coach.
A trainee may learn bad, as well as good work practice.
Depends on adequate prior training, otherwise can be costly and inefficient.

10. PERFORMANCE AIDS/ JOB AIDS

Method: The provision of information to a job holder to support performance on the job.
The performance aid replaces the need to recall knowledge or have specialist decision making skills.

Main uses: To provide assistance to trainees during performance of tasks. They can be used in association with training, or as an alternative.

Advantages: Gives trainees advices and guidance.
Ensures that correct, standardised procedures are followed
Acts as resource support whenever a particular task is being performed.
Helps trainees overcome difficulties.
Ensures best practice is incorporated
Helps senior, or experienced staff to delegate effectively
Can be used with illiterate trainees.

Disadvantages: Requires competent and thorough tasks analysis to be done
Needs close collaboration between line staff and trainers
Should be integrated in normal on job training activities
Requires media resources for development.

11. ROLE PLAYING

What it is: A learning technique in which learners are presented with a situation which they are required to explore by acting out the roles of those represented in this situation.

Main uses: For Changing/modifying attitudes.
Developing interactive knowledge and skills.

Advantages: Can create a great deal of interest.Active participation by role player.
Provides a living example.
Only exercise where emotions become the predominant feature.

Disadvantages: Role players may learn more than observers.
Observers may be passive until the exercise is discussed Success depends on the imagination of the player Attitude change may be short lived.

You have already got some basic idea about various training methods most commonly used. As a direct trainer you need to develop your skill in some training methods. Here we have selected the following training methods which will be dealt with in detail for improving your necessary delivery skills:-

1. **Case Study Method**
2. **Coaching**
3. **Lecture**
4. **Discussion**
5. **Group Exercise**

The Case Study

Various training experts have defined Case Study in different manner. Two of the definition are:-
A Case is a description of an administrative decision or problem that people are trying to solve together with the surrounding circumstances, facts, opinions, prejudices on which executive decision depended.
Case study will present the student with an authentic management problem. It will present reports, facts and even opinions, but will not evaluate.

Characteristics of Case Study

According to Willing there are broadly four types of cases:-
□ Individual problem;
□ Isolated incident;
□ Organisational problems; and
□ A combination of some of these.

However, Malcom P. Mc Nair states that the components of Case Study are: -
- Has a specific time frame, is written in the past tense, and specifies a sequence of events;
- Has a narrative structure-the flow of a story-along with expository structures to explain the context and details to the participants; and
- Has a plot structure-an issue (what should be/ have been done?)

Objective of Case Study

The objectives of a case study are -
□ To give trainees the feel of life situations and condition them to the complexities thereof.
□ To impart greater knowledge and understanding of men and matters.
□ To help trainees to discover for themselves facts and ideas which are meaningful in a particular situation.
□ To sharpen intellectual ability, namely, the power to think quickly and logically about certain facts, analyse them and arrange them in order of priority.
□ To help trainees to develop their skill in discovering and defining the vital questions those need to be asked and finding out answers to these questions.
□ To develop decision-making and problem-solving abilities.

- To exercise the capacity for expression of one's views and ideas.
- To develop the ability to appreciate others peoples feelings and the thrust or rationale of their arguments.
- To enable the trainees to understand that there can be more than one solution to a problem and to acquire fresh ideas from the experiences of others.
- To encourage the capacity to modify conclusions in the light discussions with others.
- To develop self-reliance and habits of independent thinking and responsible judgement.
- To enable the trainees to learn principles and ideas which have general applicability in the practice of public administration.

Using Case Studies

The four basic concepts in using a Case Study are discussed below

1. Selecting a Case Study:

In considering the goals of the training and the conceptual input to be presented, the facilitator must decide what balance there will be between cognitive input and experiential learning. If the facilitator's objective is to help the participants to use concepts to analyze situations and make decisions, the case study may be the best alternative out of the methods available.

2.Relating the Case Study to Learning Goals:

If the facilitator decides that the use of a case study is appropriate, the next task is to find one that raises the issues the facilitator wants to deal with. The primary question in selecting a case is whether it will teach the things that need to be taught. It is important to be borne in mind that the issue or problem in the case study must be relevant to the rest of the training programme.

3. Relating the Case Study to the Trainees:

The case to be used must relate to the type of jobs and level of experience and/or knowledge of the trainees. They need to be able to understand the organization background and situation and the interrelationships in the case as well as the "facts" before they can use the case study effectively.

The facilitator must be careful not to select a case that requires a decision that is above the participants level of responsibility and understanding.

4. Preparation:

The facilitator must have a thorough knowledge and understanding of the subject of the case (e.g, management) before attempting to teach it. The facilitator must study the case itself before the training session, even if it is one that he or she has used before. Because a case study is different with each group, the facilitator must be thoroughly familiar with not only the case but also its ramifications, i.e how far the discussion is likely to go, and must prepare for alternatives in terms of the group analysis, discussion, questions and suggested course of action.

Willings suggests that facilitators should ask themselves specific questions when preparing to use a case study. These include:

- What is likely to be generated by this case?
- What is the presenting problem? The real problems(s)?
- Does the facilitator have any bases?
- What parts of the written case help in identifying and understanding the real problem?
- How would the facilitator solve it?
- What questions are the participants likely to ask?
- Are there any red herrings?
- How long will various steps in the process take?

A **format for analysing a Case Study before use is given as follows:**

When using case study material, it is very important that you select cases which will make effectively the specific points you want your trainees to take from it.

In consequence, each case needs to be analysed before use, to ensure that it does in fact do this, and that it fits the session and/or situation to which you intend it to relate. To this end, it is essential you ask yourselves, as Instructor, the following questions:

1. What problems(s) do this case contain?
2. Whose problems are they?
3. What points (set out in specific terms) do you want your trainee(s) to take from this case, after they have examined and discussed it.
4. Which of the problems identified in the case will cause those specific points to be learnt.
5. What assumptions are the case characters making in relation to this problem?
6. What assumptions are you, the Instructor making?
7. What assumptions could your trainees make?
8. What options or alternative courses of action might be put forward. (When the case comes to be discussed?)

Presenting a Case Study

Two distinct stages can be cited in the actual conduct of a case study session. The first stage comprises the initial reading and understanding of the case by the trainees and their own analysis of the case. For this purpose the trainees are given the cases before hand so that they can study and analyse the case as a preparation for the general discussion. The case discussion takes place in the presence of all the course members and the case leader presides over the discussion. The trainees discussed among group, the facts and the situation in the case the main problems and solutions. The merits and demerits of alternative solution are discussed. The general lessons to be learnt in the field of public administration are also indicated.

Case Analysis

The analysis of the case is done by the individual trainees in the course of their personal study of the case. The case analysis should concentrate on finding out answers to questions, such as:-

- What are the relevant facts of the case?
- What is the Central problem?
- What are the causes of the problem?
- What are the possible solutions to the problem?
- What are the lessons to be learnt from the case?

The case discussants must gather information on three typical factors: -

- The behaviour of the persons involved, namely, who did what, why did they do so and what were the observable effects of those actions on other people.
- The space - time dimensions i.e where, when and how long did the significant changes take place?
- The technical aspects of the events, namely, methods, procedures etc.

The case analysis should include the identification of difficulties and trying to understand how they developed? The purpose is not to see merely who was to blame, but to identify the factors which were responsible for those difficulties. The related problems and difficulties are disentangled so as to consider them separately as well as in relation to one another in order to decide which needed to be tackled first.

Case Discussion

The case is discussed by all the course members, the case leader functioning as a discussion leader. He helps trainees to think for themselves in a non-directive way. The discussion involves free interchange of opinions and free give and take of views in an informal atmosphere. The participation and involvement of all the group members is essential, not only to ensure that all trainees have the advantage of obtaining training in decision-making but also in bringing to light different aspects of the situation.

The case discussion enables the trainees to develop practical skills and appropriate attitudes relevant to

an administrator. For instance,
- It develops the ability of clear communication during which one has to argue a point of view before one's peers.
- It develops sensitivity to others viewpoints as well as insights into one's own behaviour in the course of social interaction.
- The emphasis, however, is on developing practical skills of problem solving and decision making.

Role of the Case leader.

The case leader starts the case discussion session with an opening statement regarding the objectives of the session and the procedure for conducting the session. The following are some of the suggestions for effective case leading:
- The case leader should make a thorough study of the case before the commencement of the session.
- He should try to create a free and supportive climate for discussion.
- There should be adequate rapport between the case leader and the group.
- There must be participation by all the members of the course.
- Only one point should be discussed at a time. The group members should focus their attention on the point under discussion.
- All relevant factors must be discussed one after another.
- The direction given by the case leader to share the progress of the discussion depends on the level of trainees and nature of the case.
- He builds up discussion of the case based on the trainees contribution. He does not project his views.
- He allows the discussion of the case and becomes part of the group in the discussion.
- He always keeps in mind the objectives of the case discussion session.
- The case leader gives a final summary outlining the findings of the group, keeping in mind the training objectives of the case and laying necessary stress on them.

Advantages of the Case method

Some of the advantages of Case method are:-
- It has been said that wisdom cannot be told. The case study helps one to gain administrative wisdom.
- The case method is an intensely participative method of learning.
- There is immediate feedback from fellow trainees with regard to the comments and observations made by the trainees.
- The method presents a sample of real life in slow motion.
- The case method condenses in a series of cases a shorter period of time opportunities for decision making which otherwise takes years. One can afford to make mistakes which are costly in real life.
- It improves skills of problem-solving, decision making and communication.
- The method makes the trainees aware of the fact that there is a limitation in individual thinking as against group thinking and helps in developing an attitude of consulting people rather than following one's own line of thought only.
- The case discussion also helps the formation of correct interpersonal relationships, and carries conviction to the participants that there is no single right solution to any problem, as there is nothing absolutely right or absolutely wrong in the field of human behaviour in general and public administration in particular.

Disadvantages.

However the Case method also has its share of limitations. Some of these are:-
- It is difficult to produce good cases as case writing is a time-consuming process.
- Where case method is the only method of instruction, a large numbers of cases will be required

serially to illustrate all the principles of administration to be covered in a particular area. Preparation of such a large numbers of cases is a particularly difficult task.

□ No picture of a past situation, however realistic, is identical with what one is expected to portray. The case writer's interpretations of facts will be different from the facts themselves as felt and experienced by the administrators concerned in the real life situation.

Coaching

One of the best and most effective forms of training is by means of a one-to-one relationship between a trainer and trainee. This is because the trainer can have a close and flexible relationship with the individual trainee. This enables a learning event to be developed to suit both the learning needs of the trainee and the operational requirements. The term 'coaching' is used to describe this form of training.

The Glossary of Training Terms defines coaching as:

"Systematically increasing the ability and experience of the trainee by giving him or her planned tasks, coupled with continuous appraisal, advice and counselling by the trainee's supervisor."

In a one-to-one relationship as described in the definition there are two people involved, the 'supervisor' (or the more appropriate word 'trainer') and the 'trainee'. We also make reference in the definition to 'planned tasks'. Recognising the considerable impact both have on the success of coaching activities is important. For example:

* The trainer has to recognise an individual's training needs, and plan an appropriate coaching session.
* The planned tasks provide the basis for the training needs, and the justification for providing coaching.

TASKS

The definition of coaching refers to trainees being given planned tasks. This draws attention to the learning being work-related and the coaching process intended to improve or develop a person's performance. A task is an element of work leading to a specific result. Here are some examples of tasks:

Preparing and delivering a lecture
Calculating Income Tax
Interviewing a client
Starting a computer

- Writing a letter
- Preparing Plan Proposal
- Formulating Projects

There are many tasks in a typical job, and no clearly defined limits to what constitutes each. The range of activities that form a single task depends on circumstances. While coaching, what matters most is that a person's training needs are met by helping them to learn how to perform a specific task. It is also important that we treat the task as a self-contained part of the person's overall job, and that we will give the person sufficient time and opportunity for practice.

Tasks are work-related activities, where each task should have a clearly defined beginning and an end. A trainee can probably perform satisfactorily a range of tasks within their job or duties.

TYPES OF TASKS

The list of tasks given earlier indicates the wide range of tasks to be encountered. Some will be straightforward and relatively easy to learn and others far more complex, usually involving decision making. We can make a useful distinction between these two types of task:

Reproductive Tasks

These are tasks that are always performed in the same way. Satisfactory performance occurs when the person performing the task follows established procedure, observes all the rules and regulations, accuracy, etc. and in effect, repeats a model performance. For example, each time you start a computer you follow the same procedure - this is a reproductive performance, and would be done in a similar manner by anybody using a computer.

Productive Tasks

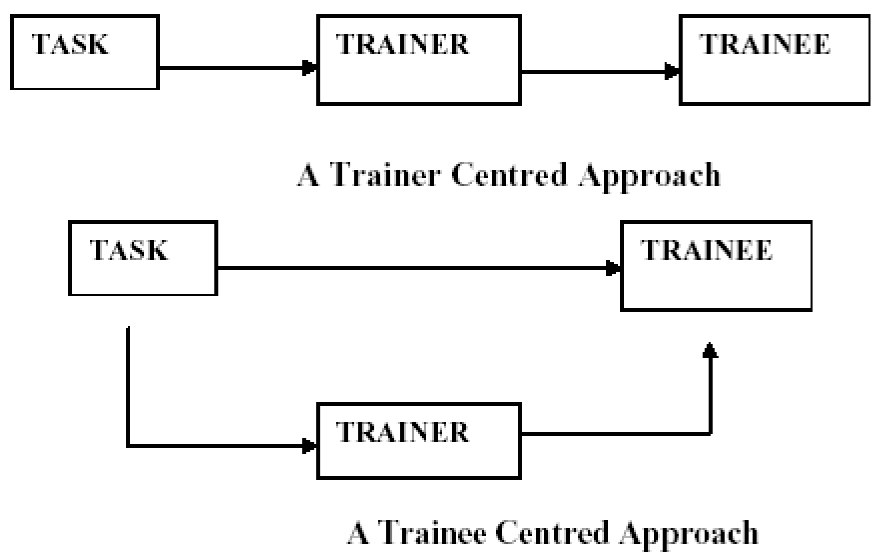
These are tasks that require a different performance each time they are done. Two people can perform the same task, and do them differently but correctly. Usually, the reason for this is that a person has to decide and apply a considerable body of knowledge and experience to what might be a unique performance. Also, there is no clear-cut, and definitive 'correct' result. For example, each time you conduct an interview you do it differently, depending on the individual being interviewed; a colleague could interview the same person and do it differently, but equally successfully. The distinction between the two tasks becomes important for coaching activities because:

There is one way of doing a reproductive task and the trainee has to learn what that is, and to be given sufficient 'drilled' practice to ensure competent performance. Productive tasks require the trainee to acquire knowledge and use it to plan and decide. Because each performance of the task is likely to be different, the trainee cannot learn in the same way as for a reproductive task. Instead, the trainee has to develop competence by performing the task in many different situations.

Making a clear-cut distinction between the two types of tasks is rarely possible. A typical task will usually contain elements of both productive and reproductive performances. Although the ways in which people learn the two types of tasks are different, most tasks will contain elements of both and the coaching procedure needs to be adjusted accordingly.

The trainer's relationship with the trainee is something that has to be developed. There cannot be a 'right' or 'wrong' technique for a coaching session because there are too many variables to take into account. You can adopt two basic approaches:

Figure 9: A Trainee Centred Approach



A Trainee Centred Approach

Using a **trainer centred** approach is particularly suitable for reproductive tasks because you are the focal point and the trainee is learning the task directly from you, or under your supervision.

Using a **trainee centred** approach exposes the trainee directly to the performance of the task and provides a direct opportunity to learn about it. Your role is to provide guidance, advice and, when requested, instructional support. This approach is particularly suited to learning productive tasks.

BEHAVIOURAL SKILLS

The relationship between you and the trainee will often depend on behaviour - yours, in particular. The expression 'behaviour begets behaviour' also implies that your behaviour will influence the behaviour of your trainee. Bearing in mind your relationship with a trainee, consider two behaviours associated with information - giving information and seeking information. The first is where you adopt a trainer-centred approach to give information you believe the trainee needs. The responsibility for deciding this was yours. The trainee could only respond by accepting (or rejecting) it, mentally organising its storage, and applying it when required.

In the second instance you are giving information relevant to a trainee's request, using a trainee-centred approach to provide whatever information they ask for. The trainee takes the responsibility for deciding what this information should be. An important aspect of coaching is to use a suitable combination of behaviours. In this example, if the task being learned is mainly reproductive, then giving information is appropriate, but would be inappropriate if the task is productive. You will find some behaviours useful when helping a person to learn by means of coaching:

Giving Information - giving a trainee facts, procedures, tips and explanations.

Seeking Information - where the trainee takes the initiative to ask you for information, opinions and suggestions.

Clarifying - where you exchange information to ensure mutual understanding.

Proposing - where you or the trainee introduces new ideas or ways of tackling a task.

Building - where you add to or develop a trainee's proposals.

Summarising - in which you, or preferably the trainee repeats essential points of a coaching session.

Coaching - in Government Office

Most of the tasks performed at the assistant level is reproductive in nature. In the early days there was culture of developing the performance of new entrant in the job through on-job-training (OJT) under the distinct supervision of a senior assistant. This OJT system in the government agencies was so strong that the system continuously produced effective and efficient office assistant over a period of time. But the situation has changed dramatically. So we are now facing the crisis of efficient assistants in our offices. It is now high time to look into this matter. Create a learning environment in your organisation. Ensure that learning takes place through OJT. Coaching plays a significant role in on-job-training.

Coaching is the most effective training method for imparting training on reproductive task. We, therefore, suggest the following procedure as a way to plan and implement a learning event for a task that is mainly reproductive.

1. **Have Everything Ready**

All materials, tools and paperwork should be laid out in the correct position, with all instructional aids within easy reach.

2. **Establish a Contact**

Make sure the attention of the trainee is gained before beginning the instruction.

3. **Introduce the Task**

Briefly introduce the task, giving its name, purpose and relevance to other tasks and the work in general. State the objective.

4. **Demonstrate**

Place the trainee so that he or she has the same view as you do. Emphasise hand movements. Do the skill elements of the task several times until the trainee seems to understand. Do not explain at this stage; let the trainee concentrate on what is being done.

5. **Explain Hand Movements**

Explanation of the demonstration can now follow. Hand movements, procedures followed and we can explain points of particular importance.

6. Describe the Senses Used
Point out any important senses - sight, hearing, feel, etc.

7. **Ask the Trainee to Explain**
To check the success of the demonstration and explanation, ask the trainee to name in order the points emphasised. Correct, if there are any errors and repeat several times to ensure mastery.

8. Ask the Trainee to Try
The trainee should try the skill, explaining what he or she is doing. Encourage the trainee to spot mistakes. Repeat to ensure no errors.

9. Let the Trainee Practise
Allow the trainee to practise with the minimum of supervision. Check frequently to ensure correct procedure

10. Demonstrate Target Time
As the trainee approaches mastery of the task, introduce the target time if appropriate to the task. Demonstrate, keeping to the target time.

11. Re-Check
Allow the trainee to practise, ensuring correct performance within the target time. Watch out for any problem areas in performance.

12. Link-On
Explain and demonstrate, where appropriate, how mastery of this task enables others to be learned as part of an overall training programme.

SUMMARY
As a trainer you should follow the EDIPA element during coaching.
E - **Explain the task and provide required knowledge.**
D - Demonstrate the task to be performed.
I - Imitate. Tell him to practise.
P - Practice. Ask him to practise.
A - Assessment. Make assessment of your trainee's performance and provide effective feedback to improve performance.

Lecture

Lectures have been used since ancient times as a convenient method of communicating, information to a large number of people. Convenience, however, is different from efficiency. Lectures are somewhat like primitive steam engines in that they provide a means of delivery, but one that is not particularly efficient. This is especially true when a lecture is being used to communicate information that people need for job performance. With modern technology, we can improve the efficiency of a steam engine considerably to make it a viable option for motive power. The same applies to lectures, because they too can become more efficient by making use of a better understanding of how people learn and by using visual aids.
A lecture gives trainees specific information that is usually task, job or occupation-related. The trainees need the information for their work and to enable them to discharge their duties correctly. If they don't need the information there is no justification for attending the lecture.
The Glossary of Training Terms tells us that a lecture is:
"A straight talk or exposition, possibly using visual or other aids, but without group

participation other than through questions at the conclusion."
First we shall concentrate on how to prepare a lecture. Then we shall discuss how to deliver a lecture.

STAGES INVOLVED IN PREPARING A LECTURE

We list the process below which we shall follow. We recommend that you prepare the lecture by developing each of these stages in turn, although you may find that you have to go back to modify earlier stages as you work through the process.

The Objective of a Lecture
Entry Behaviour
The Learning Event
Deciding the Content
Planning the Sequence
Planning for Maximum Recall
Structuring the Lecture Use of Visual Aids
Performance Assessment
Review
Feedback

THE OBJECTIVE OF A LECTURE

When you are delivering a lecture your purpose is to provide trainees with knowledge they require to perform. The objective is a logical starting point for the lecture. A lecture is a means of communicating information and can be used to disseminate knowledge only. This means that you need to specify two things in the objective - what the trainees can do after the lecture and how you are going to check that they can. In setting objective, you should phrase them in achievable and measurable terms, such as 'state', 'describe', 'list', 'explain' and so on.

ENTRY BEHAVIOUR

Much of the success or failure of your lecture will depend on the trainees. Consideration of their entry behaviour will enable you to plan a lecture that is effective for them, enabling the trainees to achieve the objective and preparing them for further learning events. The following points about entry behaviour need to be considered:

The trainees' existing knowledge and previous learning experience. Awareness of existing knowledge will help you decide where your lecture will start, and the assumptions you can make about previous learning. Awareness of previous learning experiences will also alert you to the trainees' likely attitude and willingness to learn.

Individual differences between trainees. If your lecture was to be given only to one trainee, you can match your lecture to the trainee. You would sense the trainee's response to your explanation and adjust accordingly. As the learning group grows in number and individual differences in entry behaviour arise, it becomes more difficult to adjust your lecture to suit everyone's entry behaviour. Prior knowledge of the trainees should enable you to prepare a suitable and, therefore, a more effective lecture.

Acceptability of the Information

Acceptance or rejection of the information you are providing in your lecture is likely to be between two extremes. The information may be accepted if you have explained to the trainees the reason why they need the information and it is new, interesting and does not conflict with their existing knowledge or opinion. Occasionally you may find yourself, possibly unwittingly, moving towards trainees rejecting your information. This is likely to occur when you are dealing with contentious information, going 'over' or 'under' their heads, or making the lecture difficult to understand by using a poor structure, inappropriate lecturing technique, or poor visual aids. The essential point to consider is that you are going to deal with a group of trainees, possibly unknown to you, whose approach to learning may not be in accord with your assumptions. The likelihood of acceptance or rejection may depend on your sensitivity to their entry behaviour.

The maturity of the trainees will affect the way you discuss the subject and may also influence how you

assess achievement. An assessment measure for younger trainees might be by means of a written test; the same test given to older trainees might be threatening and harmful to their willingness to learn.
Your credibility to the trainees, or your perceived status as the provider of information. Are you likely to be accepted as an 'expert'? They might expose your credibility generally during a lecture and prior information about entry behaviour should enable you to avoid the worst of the pitfalls awaiting the unwary, insensitive lecturer.

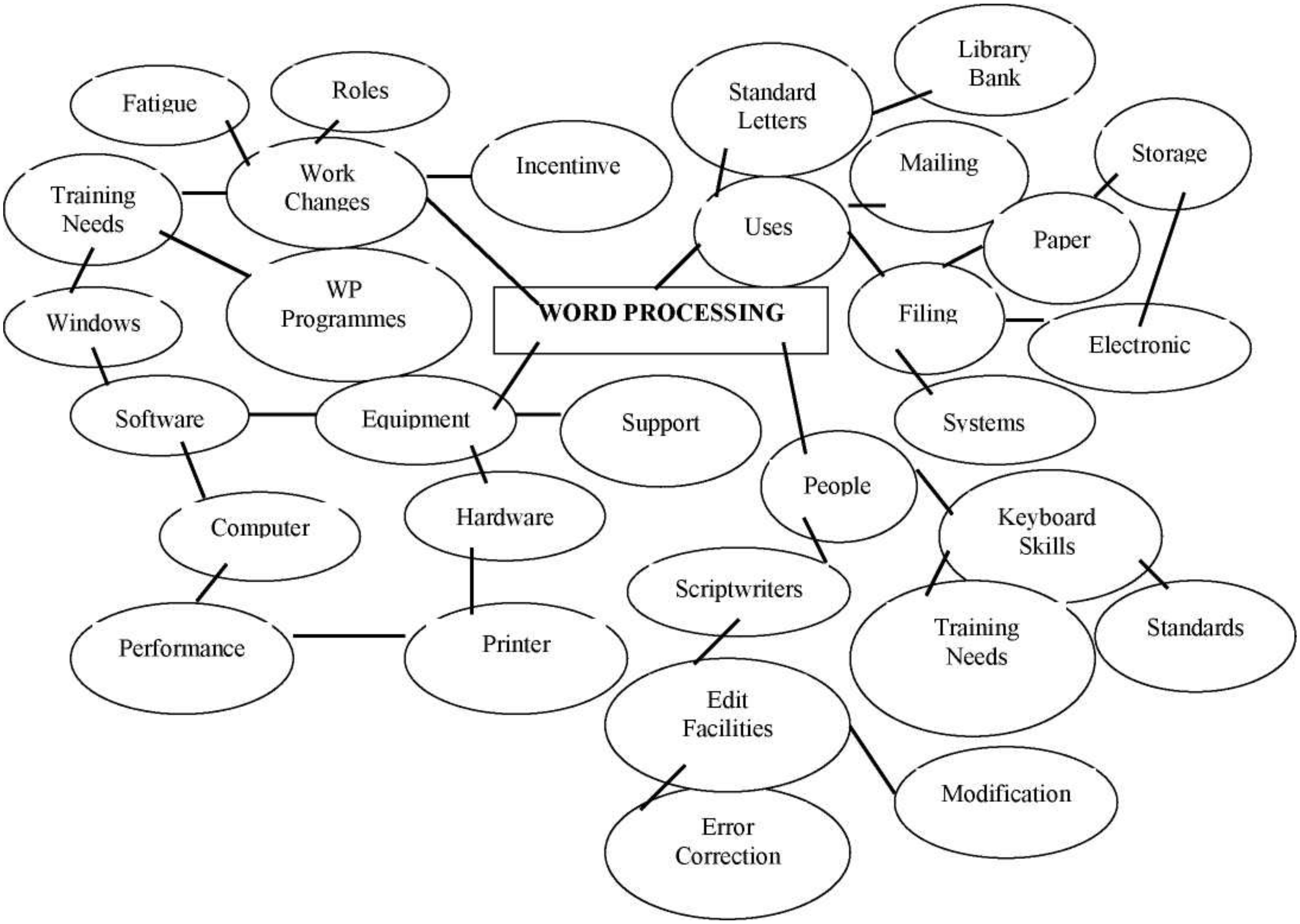
Flexibility
Try to build into your lecture some degree of flexibility. This is difficult with a large group of trainees, but often encouraging when some interaction is possible. Trainees appreciate relevant anecdotes and similar means of adding variety and interest. Mature trainees may want to participate by sharing experiences, discussing interesting points in relation to their work, and generally wishing to be treated as equals. The more formalised and structured the lecture becomes, the more difficult you will find it to adapt and cater for these situations, most of which you should encourage. Where possible allow time to check entry behaviour by encouraging trainees to participate and express themselves.

THE LEARNING EVENT
The learning event is the 'live' occasion when you are giving your lecture and communicating to your trainees. You will help their learning if they know:
- Where they are going
- How they are going to get there.

The first point has been covered because the objective of the lecture tells them where the lecture is going and what they are expected to achieve when they get there. The second point, how they are going to get there, is dealt with by considering the following aspects of the learning event you are preparing:
- *Deciding the content*
- *Planning the sequence*
- *Planning for maximum recall*
- *Structuring the Lecture*
- *Use of Visual Aids*
- *Preparing Lecture'Notes*

DECIDING THE CONTENT
The objective for your lecture, should give a clear idea of information you need to communicate. However, in such a short statement it will have left unstated the many small items of information that might or might not be included. A useful technique to identify these items is the use of the 'spray diagram'. The diagram is started by stating the central theme of the objective, say 'Systematic Approach to Training'. Around this central theme subsidiary elements are added until the diagram looks something like Figure 10.

Figure 10: Spray Diagram



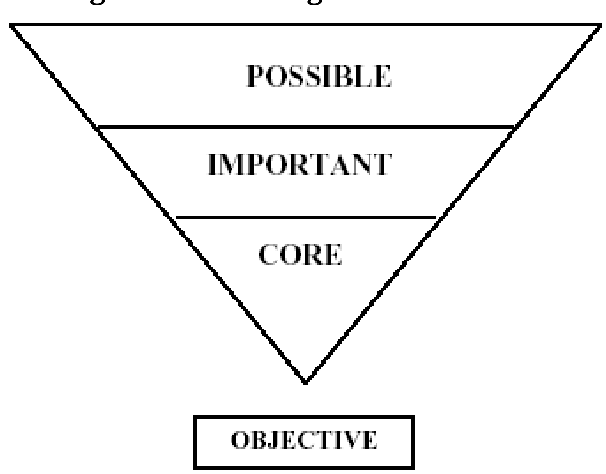
The diagram is far from complete and more subsidiary elements or 'balloons' can be added, each adding a small contribution to the content that might or might not be included in a lecture on 'Systematic Approach to Training. There is no real end to this process and the spray diagram can continue to be expanded until we have included all conceivable items of information. We can then edit the content shown on the spray diagram, by:

Saying all the items on the diagram **'possible'** be included in your lecture.

Reducing these 'could' be items to ones that **'important'** be included. - Reducing these 'should' items still further to ones that **'core'** be included.

The 'must' items form the content of your lecture and study of them may lead you to revise the draft objective. We illustrate the process in Figure 11

Figure 11: Deciding Content



PLANNING THE SEQUENCE

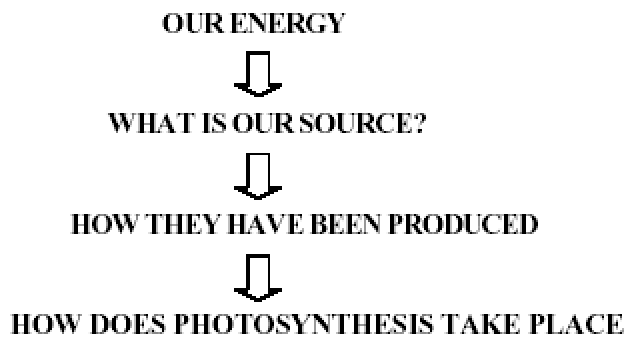
Having a logical sequence is important, so we must be careful. What seems logical to the lecturer may not seem so to the trainee.

Therefore, we need to consider what is logical from a trainee's point of view - not from the point of view of an expert, a theorist, a practitioner or a researcher. Some guidelines to bear in mind when planning is that people learn by progressing from the:

- **Known to the unknown**
- **Simple to the complex Concrete to the abstract**
- **Observation to the theory General to the particular**

So why not change the sequence? Start by looking at the situation from the trainees' point of view -find something to 'switch them on', to justify learning the theory. The sequence shown in Figure 12 takes account of the trainees' entry behaviour and uses a logical build up, free from unnecessary detail.

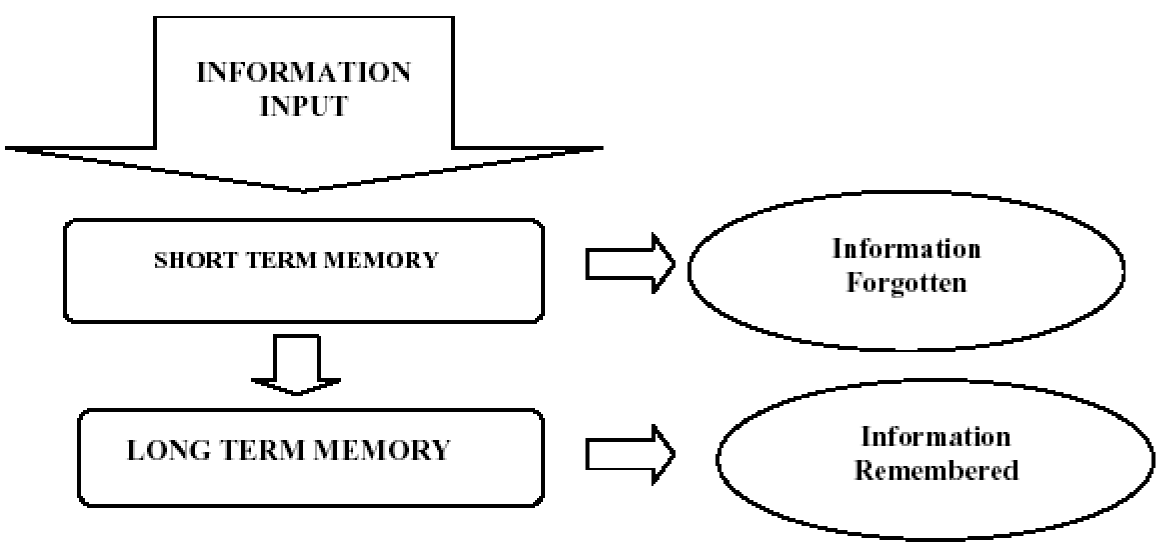
Figure 12: Sequence



PLANNING FOR MAXIMUM RECALL

The purpose of a lecture is to provide an opportunity for the trainees to acquire information. The objective defines what information they should acquire and later recall - the 'core' items in the content. The problem is to relate the information to the capacity of the trainees to remember it, and to devise ways of helping them to recall it.

Figure 13: Planning for Recall



The communication process in the lecture uses the trainee's senses of sight and hearing. This input of information is then stored in the trainee's short-term memory, which has a limited capacity and can retain information for perhaps 5-30 seconds. Some information will be passed to the long-term memory, although most of it will be forgotten as illustrated in Fig. 13. To increase the amount remembered, make full use of the trainee's sensory inputs by:

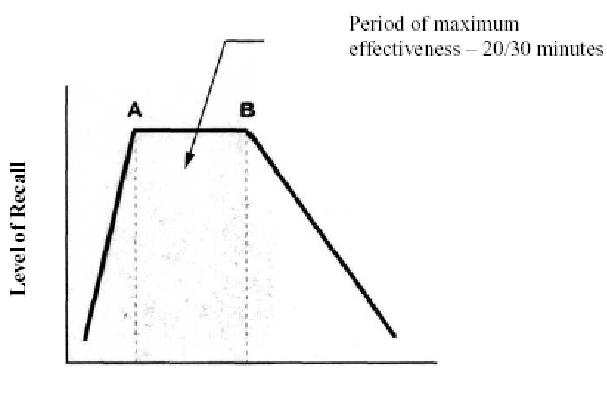
- Emphasising major points, repeating where possible.
- Using visual aids to provide the second medium of communication for the same points

Decide whether the recall of information can be achieved using:

- The trainee's long-term memory. This means that the trainee can recall from memory the information you provided.
- Notes, handouts, and similar sources of information. The trainee can recall information by referring to handouts etc.

Notice how this might change the objective: in one instance we require that the trainee recall from memory, whereas in the other, they can refer to handouts.
The trainee's capacity to recall major points of your lecture may depend upon when you present them. Figure 14 below illustrates in a general way when the maximum level of recall occurs.

Figure 14: Period of Effectiveness of lecture



From Figure 14 we can see that the maximum level of recall occurs after some 20 minutes and can be maintained for about 30 minutes. This suggests that:
The earlier period is less effective because the trainee's mind has to adjust to possibly an unfamiliar environment. The more suitable this is, the easier it becomes to reach (A).

- The period will be shortened if the trainees are in familiar surroundings.
- The period length depends on how we introduce the lecture: The better this is, the shorter will be the time to reach full learning recall.

The middle period between (A) and (B) is when learning conditions are most favourable. This is when the major points should be presented. Also, we will lengthen the period if:

- Active participation is encouraged.
- Visual aids and demonstrations are used.
- The trainees know we will give them maj or points in some form of a handout. The learning environment is suitable - at a reasonable temperature, with circulation of fresh air and out of direct sunlight.

Mental and physical fatigue affects the later stages of the lecture after (B). This results in a decline of information retained. (B) provides the time in the lecture when we should summarise the major points.
Other points to note are:
The lecture should be kept as short as possible after (B).
We can introduce another learning method (for example, a discussion) after (B) to maintain active participation and promote further learning.
If there are facts and explanations that they must remember, some form of a handout would help the trainees. We can regard this as 'post-lecture' learning. The lecture starts the process, and subsequent

study aids long term memory storage and recall.

STRUCTURING THE LECTURE

The key to an effective lecture style is to break down the lecture into its component parts ad use a variety of approaches within each component. This is especially critical when a group of trainees will be attending a series of lectures by the same trainer. The three main parts of a lecture are the **introduction, body and summary.**

The purpose of the **introduction** is to capture the interest and attention of the trainees. It can also serve to make trainees aware of the trainer's expectations and encourage a positive learning climate. A good introduction is critical to the success of a lecture.

Tips for Creating an Effective Introduction.

- Review lecture objective.
- Ask rhetorical questions
- Ask for a show of hands in response to a general question.
- Ask a series of questions related to the lecture topic.
- Use an interesting or famous quotation.
- Relate the topic to previously covered content.
- Use a case study or problem-solving activity.
- Use a videotape or other media.
- Show an appropriate cartoon with the overhead or slide projector.
- Make a provocative statement to encourage discussion.
- Give a demonstration.
- Use a game or role play.
- Relate the topic to future work experiences.
- Share a personal experience.
- Relate the topic to a real-life experience.

The trainer can then make a smooth transition into the body of the lecture once the attention of the trainees has been captured with an interesting introduction. The body of the lecture contains the core of the information to be transferred to the trainees. Trainer may use brainstorming, discussions, problem-solving activities, case studies and games to make the lecture more interactive.

The purpose of the lecture summary is to draw together the critical information presented and ensure that trainees leave the lecture with a clear understanding of this information. The summary should be brief and address only main points. There are several techniques which can be used to summarise lecture:

- Ask the trainees for questions. This gives trainees an opportunity to clarify their understanding of the content.
- Ask the questions for the trainees. Several questions which focus on the main points of the content may be used to summarize the content of the lecture.
- Use a transparency, slide or flipchart to review the summary points.

Delivering Interactive Lectures

An effective lecture can be one of the most exciting and rewarding aspects of a trainer's responsibilities. The trainer who is able to sustain participant's interest with an exciting, dynamic delivery using a variety of instructional methods is more likely to be successful in helping trainees reach the learning objectives. The time and effort invested in planning pay off as the trainer and trainees interact, discuss, question and work together.

Questioning Techniques

One of the most effective techniques a trainer can use during a lecture to help ensure interaction is to ask and encourage questions. Questions can be used to introduce lectures, stimulate interaction throughout the lecture and summarize content. Involving trainees through questioning helps to maintain their attention, which is critical when topics are complex and lectures are long. Suggestions for using questions include:

- Ask questions of the entire group. Those who wish to volunteer may do so, although the trainer must guard against some trainees dominating the discussion.
- Target a question to a specific trainee. When the audience is relatively small, this technique can be used to involve more of the trainees.
- Use trainee's names when asking and answering questions - this recognition is a powerful motivator.

Provide positive reinforcement when trainees respond. This praise will help to create a very positive climate and will encourage more trainees to enter into the discussion.

- Repeat trainee's questions and answers to ensure that all trainees hear the discussion.
- When a trainee asks a question, the trainer can answer the question directly, respond by asking the trainees different, related questions or offer the question to the other trainees.

The key in asking and answering questions is to avoid a pattern. If the trainer always asks and answers questions using the same pattern, this critically important teaching skill will have limited impact.

Presentation Techniques

The skilled lecture uses a variety of approaches to involve trainees, maintain interest and avoid a repetitive lecturing style. A number of techniques can be used to make a lecture more interactive and effective:

- Use the lecture notes prepared during the planning stage. The notes include reminders and key points in the lecture introduction, body and summary.
- Open the lecture with a good introduction designed to capture the interest and attention of the trainees.
- Communicate on a personal level. The trainer should attempt to relate to the trainees during the lecture.
- Maintain eye contact with the trainees. Eye contact gives the trainer feedback on how well trainees understand the content and helps to communicate a caring attitude on the part of the trainer.
- Exhibit enthusiasm about the topic. Smiling, moving around the room and gesturing with hands and arms project a feeling of energy and excitement.
- Project the voice so that those in the back of the room can hear clearly. For large lecture halls, use a microphone if necessary, with a long cord that will permit movement around the room.
- Avoid the use of slang or repetitive words, phrases or gestures that may become distracting with extended use. Avoid the use of fillers (e.g "um", "er", "you know")
- Use a variety of audiovisual media.
- Ask a number of questions and encourage trainees to ask questions.
- Provide positive feedback when trainees ask questions, answer questions or make comments.
- Use trainee's names as often as possible.
- Display a positive use of humour (e.g humorous transparencies or slides, topic-related stories.)
- Make smooth transitions between parts of the lecture. These transitions should be highlighted in the lectures notes and might include:

o A brief overview of the next topic. o A review of the agenda between topics o A change of media
o An interim summary before a new topic o An activity (case study or problem-solving activity) • Close the lecture with a brief but powerful summary.

Tips to Reduce Presentation Anxiety

- Avoid eating a big meal before the lecture. Not only will a full stomach make you drowsy, but it makes it more difficult to move around the room with energy.
- Arrive early to make sure that everything is ready before the first trainee arrives.
- Make sure all of the media equipment is working.
- Locate and check the lighting and temperature controls.
- Decide where the lecture notes will be placed (e.g on a lectern, desk, table) when they are not being held.
- Have a glass of water available during the lecture.

- Go for a short walk just before the lecture.
- Look over your lecture notes one last time.
- Greet trainees as they enter the room. Welcome them to the lecture and talk to as many of them as possible.
- Take a few deep breaths to relax before beginning the lecture.

USE **OF VISUAL AIDS**

Visual Aids are an essential feature of effective communication. Most lectures are improved by using visual aids that we develop as part of preparation for a lecture. Generally, they are worth using to help trainees learn the major points of the lecture; they should:

Attract and Hold Attention

When trainees are listening passively, their attention is easily distracted. An interesting visual aid can attract and hold attention.

Explain Words

If they do not understand a critical word in a sentence, or if it is misunderstood, not only does the sentence become useless, we weaken the trainee's belief in the prospect of success.

Illustrate Relationships/Concepts

The saying 'A picture tells a thousand words' holds true.

Consolidate Learning

The key points of a lecture can be presented on an overhead projector or recorded on a flipchart or chalkboard.

Research has shown that we take in more information from the sense of sight than we do from listening, in the ratio of something like:

75% **Sight**

25% Hearing and other senses

Bearing this in mind, it is not surprising that other studies have shown that lectures using visual aids are far more effective for understanding and recall than lectures that do not use visual aids. Some further observations about visual aids: They should be simple

- Where possible use pictures and diagrams rather than many words.
- Use colour to give contrast to different maj or points.
- Where possible prepare visual aids before the lecture (e.g. overhead projector transparencies and flipcharts) Do not waste valuable learning time during the lecture.

Use 'formal' visuals (e.g. an overhead projector) for pre-prepared material, and use chalkboards and flipcharts for 'informal' visuals developed during the lecture.

Ensure all major points of the lecture are presented visually and orally.

PREPARING LECTURE NOTES

There is no standard format for the notes needed to give a lecture. Some lecturers rely on detailed notes - and many rarely look at them. Some use papers or cards with lists of topic headings as prompts; others rely on their visual aids and use them as prompts; others do not use notes, and however well they lecture one might ask whether their lecture would have been better if they had used them. Some general observations about lecture notes:

They are there to help you and are therefore personal to you.

They should be kept as simple as possible.

They should be easy to read - you might be some distance away from your notes.

Use colour to ensure we do not miss maj or points.

- Use sketches to indicate where a visual aid is to be used
- Include a time schedule.

Although your lecture notes are personal to you, there may be occasions when colleagues have to give similar lectures and would probably appreciate reference to your notes.

SUMMARY

This is suggested that you use the following procedure to prepare the lecture: Describe in general terms what you believe the trainees need to know.

- Develop a 'spray diagram' to show the possible extent of the content of the lecture.
- Carefully edit the spray diagram to eliminate all points that are not essential to the content of the lecture.
- List the major points of the lecture - the points the trainees must be able to recall.

Alongside this list, note how you intend to assess whether they have learned the point.

Review the content, taking a critical look at your list of major points, particularly ones that we cannot assess. Ask yourself whether we must include them.

Write the objective for the lecture.

Briefly describe the entry behaviour of your trainees. This might be based on precise knowledge, or on certain assumptions that you must make.

- Does the entry behaviour affect the obj ective? Review the obj ective, if necessary.
- Decide the most appropriate structure for the lecture. Do this by relating the objective, the content, the entry behaviour, and how you propose to assess attainment.

Structure the content of the lecture, taking into account the:

- Objective
- Analysis of the spray diagram
- Likely entry behaviour
- Lecture structure you consider the most suitable
- Time available
- Plan your visual aids in relation to the structure of the lecture. Decide the 'formal' aids you will prepare beforehand, and the 'informal' ones that will be evolved during the lecture.

Review the structure of the content to ensure that all main points are suitably presented in visual form.

Prepare your lecture notes and visual aids.

- Run through the lecture mentally to check sequence and logic. Adjust where necessary.
- Check lecture room and the equipment you intend to use.

FEEDBACK

Trainers plan and implement lectures for the benefit of their trainees. However, the trainers themselves are also presented with a learning opportunity. At the end of a lecture you can ask yourself many questions, ponder over earlier decisions you made, and generally reflect on the changes you would make if asked to do the same lecture again.

The following questions suggest areas for you to consider:

- Was the objective appropriate?
- Was the objective achieved?

Did you assess the entry behaviour of the trainees correctly?

How did the content relate to the objective and trainees' learning capabilities?

Was the sequence appropriate?

Did you choose the right structure?

- Did you ask questions?

Were the questions of high or low order?

- Did you allow sufficient time to answer questions?
- Did you fit the maj or points of the lecture into the best learning period?

Did you communicate the major points of the lecture visually and orally?

Were your visual aids appropriate to emphasising the major points of the lecture?

Did the trainees appear to learn from your visual aids?

Was your introduction appropriate?

- Did you summarise the main points of the lecture?

How was your timing in relation to your planning?

- Did you feel comfortable with the timing and content of the lecture?
- Did the method of assessing performance suit the trainees?
- Was the assessment of performance valid in relation to the purpose of the lecture?

A checklist is provided for as ready reference.

Planning

- Identify topic
- Prepare a spray diagram.
- Edit spray diagram to identify 'core' items
- Express must items as an objective
- Consider entry behaviour of trainees
- Consider size of group
- Decide structure to be used
- Consider visual aid hardware available
- Prepare formal visual presentation of maj or points
- Consider informal visual aids

Introduction

- Decide when to invite questions
- Decide timing
- Decide how learning performance is to be assessed
- Write lecture notes
- Check timing
- Check accommodation
- Check equipment
- Gain attention/rapport
- Explain purpose/reason for learning about topic
- State objective
- Link to entry behaviour
- State participation
- Outline content and structure
- State finish tim

Development

- Modulate voice to suit size of group
- Avoid reading lecture notes
- Use language appropriate to trainees
- Keep check of estimated timing
- Give relevant examples to support major points
- Maintain eye contact
- Present visual aids only when needed
- Avoid reading visual presentation word for word
- Assess trainee's reaction and adjust if necessary Assist learning by use of informal visual aids
- Check trainee's understanding where appropriate
- Where possible invite trainee's participation

Summary

Restate purpose/reason for learning about topic
Restate objective
Review content and maj or points
Invite final questions
Can out performance assessment where appropriate
Give feedback
Close with thanks

Discussion

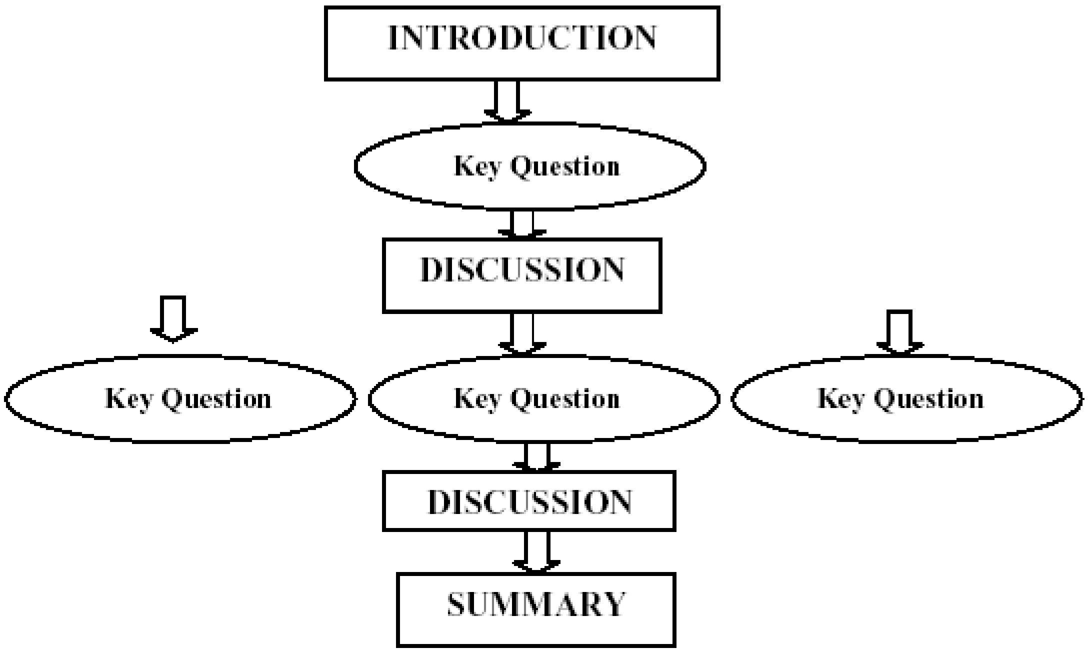
INTRODUCTION

As the trainer, responsible for helping others to learn, you may not always be the subject matter expert. Sometimes your learners may know as much as you, or have as much or more experience than you on certain topics. Often you will be helping highly experienced, mature, people who are more likely to respond to an organised exchange of ideas and opinions, rather than to 'being told' or taught. In such a situation you may choose a method that facilitates learning by experience sharing and cross fertilisation of ideas. The Glossary of Training Terms defines the discussion method as:
'A training technique in which the learning derives principally from the participants themselves rather than from an instructor'
Discussion as a method should not be used to 'teach' knowledge new to the learners. It should be used more for sharing experience, encouraging and developing thinking, modifying attitudes and getting commitment. A discussion for training purposes allows individuals to express their concerns and ideas, and to build upon and develop the ideas of group members. We use the method to continue a learning process started by other training methods, such as case studies and group. The purpose of the discussion may be to:

* *Share views*
* *Collect and generate ideas*
* *Obtain reactions and agreement.*
* *Develop team work*
* *Solve problems*
* *Develop decision-making skills*
* *Change attitudes*
* *Consider practical application of theory*
* *Develop evaluative and synthesising skills*
* *Stimulate motivation and commitment*

To be effective, discussions must allow every member of the group to contribute. This means that there is a limit to the number of people who can participate in a discussion. Between eight and twelve participants is about the optimum number for effective learning. If there are more members, a discussion may be unwieldy, and if there is less it may not stimulate sufficient ideas for a useful discussion.

Figure 15: The Structure of A Discussion



To ensure a dynamic, stimulating and effective discussion you need to consider how we can structure a discussion. Figure 15 illustrates a model that has proved helpful in planning and running discussions.
The discussion begins with a brief introduction from the leader. This should settle the group, establish the topic for discussion, and stimulate interest and willingness to participate in the discussion. We should plan the introduction before the discussion.
After the introduction, the group need a thought-provoking and demanding question that will make them think and want to contribute. We call such a question a Key Question. The first Key Question is critical to the success of the discussion. It needs to be considered beforehand and carefully prepared to:

* *Introduce the subject.*
* *Explain the purpose and reason for the discussion*
* *Link the discussion to prior learning experiences*
* *State the objective, if appropriate.*

After the leader has posed the Key Question, discussion takes place within the group. You will be involved in that discussion actively listening and occasionally making contributions, depending upon the needs of the group. When we have extracted the learning benefits from the first key question, the group moves on with another key question.
Additional Key Questions can be prepared in advance, at least in outline. The diagram shows that the sequence may vary depending upon the reaction of the group, and the direction in which they are going. The problem you may face is that this direction could be different from what you had planned. Prepare an outline sequence, but be flexible so that you meet the group's progress in the discussion. Remember that you are not in control of the content to the same extent as in a lecture or presentation. Because of this, the planned sequence may not make sense in the actual discussion. So, you may need to adapt to a different sequence as the discussion develops.
At the end of the discussion the discussion leader should summarise what has come out of the contributions and the conclusions reached, if any. Summarising it between Key Questions to consolidate may also be helpful and clarify what has been said before you lead into the next Key Question. This is a matter of judgement and will depend on the circumstances. Sometimes, for example, a group member will make a statement that summarises several earlier contributions: a summary from the leader is then unnecessary.

PREPARING TO LEAD A DISCUSSION

As with all learning events, preparation is important. The better the preparation the more confident you can feel as the discussion leader. Also, the more learning is likely to take place for your learners. You should undertake the following in preparing for a discussion:

* *Set an objective*
* *Analyse the topic*
* *Consider the group*
* *Identify and prepare Key Questions*
* *Prepare an introduction*
* *Decide if any other resources would be helpful, eg. aflipchart*
* *Organise physical arrangements*

We should not take these activities in strict order because decisions about one of them may influence others.

Set an Objective

The objective should identify what they can do at the end of the discussion. This is often difficult to define with discussion leading where ideas, attitudes and motivation are usually involved.
Sometimes you can write the objective before you do anything else. Occasionally you may start with a topic you want discussed and only after analyzing the topic can you clarify the objective.
The discussion method is generally more appropriate for objectives that deal with feelings, opinions and attitudes. Of necessity these are less precise than objectives dealing with facts or skills. The outcome is less predictable and controllable than say, the outcome of a lecture. The details of the content come from the group and it is less easy to control than when using other methods. Success in achieving the objective is also less easy to measure. Examples of objectives for discussion leading are:

1. "..............group members can describe the role of a leader in a management role"
2. "..............participants can analyse the difficulties in conducting audits"
3. "..............group members will identify the impact of word processors on their j obs"

Analyse the Topic

In preparing to lead a discussion you may start with an objective or just a topic heading. You yourself must know quite a lot about that topic - which may also apply to other participants in the discussion. Your job is to help the group to explore the topic and achieve the objective.
To help you lead the discussion, and to get the group's attention on useful areas of the topic, you need to analyse the topic. This process will enable you to identify the key areas for discussion.
One starting point is to think through the topic and its various aspects and implications. During this process there is a danger of forgetting useful thoughts and ideas that would stimulate discussion. It is worth recording your thoughts to help you review and organize them.
Starting with a blank sheet of paper, head it up with the topic title. Then jot down key points, words or questions you think should be discussed about the topic. When you have completed your lists of points, you may go back over what you have done, looking for patterns or groupings. This can help you identify areas that the discussion needs to cover. Key points may be questions to which there is no easy answer, or perhaps there is no answer. However, getting to an answer is not the point. The point is to generate learning through a discussion of the issues involved. The benefit of analysing the topic is that it can help you to decide:

a) What knowledge input may be necessary in the introduction?
b) What information the group may need
c) What areas of the topic are irrelevant to the objective?
d) Exactly what the objective is
e) Key questions to be put to the group
f) In what order you should discuss the various aspects of the topic

You are responsible for helping the group members to achieve the objective. This will require you to decide which contributions are relevant and are helping the group, which is side-tracking the group. The clearer you are before the discussion on where you want the discussion to go, the easier those decisions will be during the discussion.

Analysis of the topic may help you identify what may be a natural sequence of development for the discussion. This can give you a framework for planning and introducing the discussion. The discussion may develop in a very different way from your planned sequence. Because the group will talk about the topic as they see it, a new sequence may emerge. You must decide how important it is to follow one path rather than another. If you direct the discussion back to your planned sequence, you may take out some spontaneity and interest from the group members. This may make the discussion a harder work for you and less effective for the group members.

Consider the Group

A group discussion depends for success upon the participation and contributions of members. Each member of the group needs to recognise that he or she has something useful to contribute. They must also realise that they can learn from each other. It is the job of the discussion leader to identify the contributions that individuals can make and encourage them to make them. In planning the discussion you need to consider:

* Size of the group. Less than 5 is too small to generate sufficient ideas and points of view. More than 12 is too large to keep them discussing as a single group in which everyone participates. You need to split into subgroups
* What knowledge is shared by everyone in the group?
* Breadth of experience in relation to the topic
* Likely reactions to the topic
* Your relationship with the group
* Their position compared with yours

Finding out about the learners and planning the discussion around them should help you avoid unpleasant surprises during the discussion. It will also make it easier for the group members to achieve the objective.

Identify and Prepare Key Points/ Questions

Having analysed the topic and considered the sequence you can probably identify most key points to be discussed. In a perfect discussion the leader would introduce each Key Point with a Key Question. The Key Question would then stimulate sufficient relevant discussion within the group to cover completely the Key Point. The discussion leader would not need to intervene to bring the discussion back because the question would succeed in focusing attention entirely upon the Key Point. Once the Key Point is covered, you can summarise and move on to another Key Point. This should be introduced with another Key Question.

This model of a perfect discussion infers that the Key Question has been effective in stimulating interest, focusing attention and encouraging everyone to contribute. Key Question need to be carefully thought out and planned. They must make the group think and use their experience. The wording of a question should not be threatening to individuals in the discussion group. There should not be any easy answer to a Key Question and answering it should raise other issues that will stimulate further discussion. When you are planning Key Questions you need to consider:

* Objective of the discussion
* Group Members
* Time
* Topic analysis

The Key Question to follow your introduction can be planned word for word. Later questions should be prepared in an outline so that they can be phrased to fit into the context of the preceding discussion. The number of Key Question required for a discussion will depend upon the complexity of the subject, the depth of discussion required, the experience of the group and the time available. Just one 'good' key question might keep a group going for twenty minutes. After the first Key Question the group themselves may develop other questions that cover the points identified by the leader. This is good in that it reduces the need for intervention by the leader and increases the confidence and ownership of the group in what is happening.

The sequence of Key Questions in a discussion should reflect the topic and the way the group have developed the discussion. This makes planning a sequence difficult in advance because imposing the leader's sequence may reduce the flow and sense of the discussion. When we have exhausted a key question, the next key question should be selected to link on to the previous discussion and phrased to reflect the way the group have been discussing the topic.

Time

This is a major constraint. Generally, highly effective discussions require a considerable amount of time. Failure to provide sufficient time or arbitrary closure of a discussion creates a major barrier to effective discussion. Unfortunately, discussion timing is extremely difficult to predict and depends upon:

* The interest and experience of group members.
* The quality of key questions posed by the leader.
* The way in which group behaviour helps or hinders development of discussions.
* The complexity of the objective to be achieved.
* The diversity of opinion within the group.

Prepare an Introduction

An important role for a discussion leader is to get the discussion going by means of an introduction. We require a delicate balance between a comprehensive introduction that switches the group off and a short one that leaves them puzzled. When preparing an introduction you should aim for brevity and consider covering the following:

* State the topic to be discussed
* State the purpose of discussion
* Outline limits to topic and timing
* Set the scene
* Establish links with the experience of the group
* Bring everyone to a common starting point
* Arouse interest
* Prepare the group to contribute
* Lead up to first Key Question.

While the list is long, many items can be included very briefly and often grouped together. The introduction should reassure group members that they have something to say, encourage them to say it and listen to what others have to say.

Decide Upon Visual Aids

You must decide whether visual aids are suitable and helpful for your learners in the discussions you lead. Visual aids can promote learning and stimulate interest. Prepared visuals are not possible except for topic headings and the first key question. If you feel able to prepare visual aid material it suggests you are intending to give some form of presentation.

Where ideas are being sought, having a flipchart is very helpful. The flipchart seems the most appropriate visual aid for discussions. It can be used to present Key points for discussion and to record what is coming from the group. The flipchart can be used by group members other than the discussion leader. Use of the overhead projector (OHP) is less appropriate because it takes attention away from group members to the screen. While a flipchart can be left displaying a key point for discussion and not be intrusive, the OHP left on can be distracting to the discussion between group members.

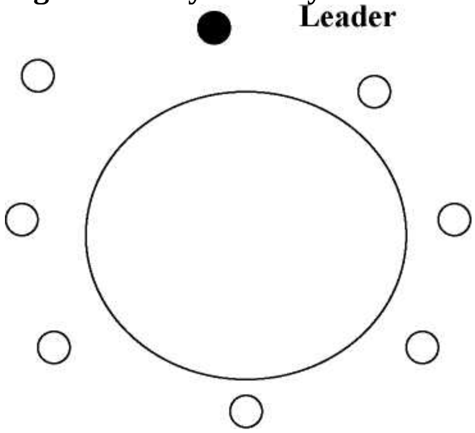
Organised Physical Arrangements

Ideal accommodation is seldom available, but the discussion leader should make the best of what is available.

The room should be well lit and ventilated. Chairs should be comfortable to sit on for an hour or so, but not so comfortable that people fall asleep. If possible, we should provide tables - without them the atmosphere is apt to become too relaxed and to reduce active thought and participation.

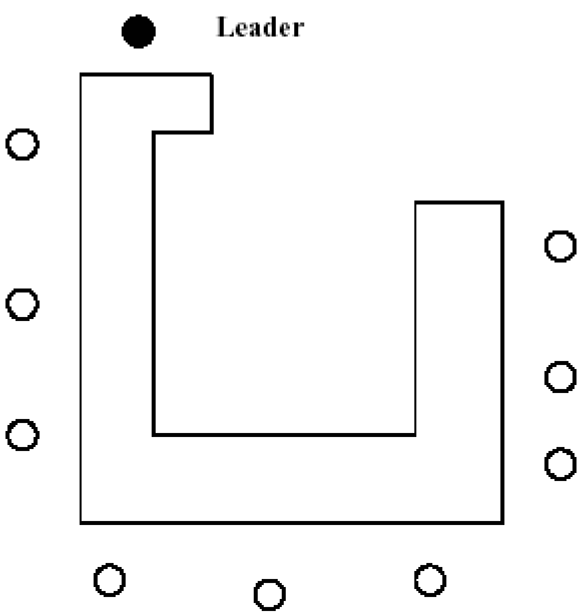
The layout is extremely important because it can affect the discussion. The seating arrangements need to allow participants to see each other clearly and comfortably. Discussion is very difficult to maintain without eye contact between participants. The discussion leader needs to be seated as part of the group so as not to dominate the discussion and prevent interactions between other group members. The most participative arrangement is the circular table or square table, as shown in Figure 16.

Figure 16: Physical Layout for Discussion



The "U" formation shown, below in Fig 17 places the leader in a more obvious position of power but retains easy contact among all members of the group. It is also a convenient layout for other training methods, so can be used without major furniture shifting.

Figure 17: Physical Layout for Discussion A



In both layouts any visual aid can be put alongside the discussion leader. The circular arrangement can make it difficult for group members next to the leader to see the visual aid comfortably as they have to twist round to face it.

LEADING A GROUP DISCUSSION

Once the group has assembled and settled down you can present your prepared introduction. This should be brief but adequate to arouse interest and give guidelines to the discussion. Then the first, prepared, Key Question should be posed to the whole group rather than to a nominated person.

You should be prepared to sit quietly to give the group time for thought. By looking around the group you can identify those with something to say, those who are confused or uncertain and those who do not wish to contribute. You must use your judgement on whether your question has been successful in stimulating thought and desire to contribute, or if it needs some qualification or rephrasing. Often your silence will encourage someone to start the discussion by attempting to answer the question. If no-one is prepared to speak spontaneously, you may nominate someone who appears to have something to say or you know has something to contribute on the question.

During its early stages a discussion may go 'through the chair' where ever: contribution is addressed to the leader. The leader responds and then someone else is brought into the discussion. This tends to reflect dominance by the discussion leader. It only takes a few questions nominating individuals to reply for the whole group to sit back and wait for 'their turn'. On occasions such discussions can suddenly take off, without warning group members that are talking directly to one another and exploring their views. Debate and disagreement between members is to be welcomed because, well directed and controlled, it helps learning.

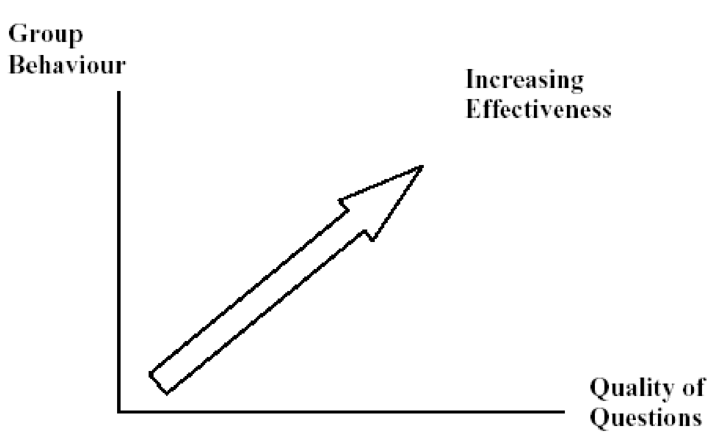
To avoid discussions 'through the chair' you should address Key Questions to the whole group. Contributions addressed to you should be passed on immediately to another group member for elaboration or comment. Your physical presence should not dominate the group either through position or posture.

INCREASE EFFECTIVENESS OF A DISCUSSION

An important distinction between giving a lecture and leading a discussion is that careful preparation beforehand can work the content and framework of the lecture out in detail. The discussion, of course, also requires careful preparation beforehand. However, the framework cannot be imposed and the detailed content depends on interaction between group members, and with you, during the discussion. In an extreme case, it is possible to visualize a situation where a trainer prepares a lecture, which an actor then delivers; this simply could not happen with a discussion.

The skill of the discussion leader lies in stimulating a good exchange of opinions while keeping to themes. During the discussion you should manage a fragile relationship between members of the group, and between them and you. The intention should be to generate effective learning, not conflict, dissent or alienation: aim to generate light rather than heat. We can identify two factors that, well managed, will significantly increase the effectiveness of a discussion; we will illustrate them in Figure 18, below.

Figure 18: Effectiveness of Discussion.



QUALITY OF QUESTIONS

A key factor in successful discussion leading is the use of questions. They provide two essential services:

1. They promote learning. Questions that are perceptive, challenging and appropriate create an environment where members of the discussion group can gain a deeper insight and understanding of the topic under discussion. We will call these questions *learning* questions.
2. They help in the general management and control of the discussion. By appropriate use of questions the discussion leader can control the discussion and provide opportunities for all members of the group to participate. We will call these questions *Tactical* questions.

To enable a group to obtain maximum value from a discussion, you must consider how to manage the event. You must promote learning by the sensitive use of learning questions and, also, control the discussion by using a variety of tactical questions.

An analogy can be drawn with building a wall - a wall of understanding. The bricks in the wall are the learning questions used to promote a better understanding of the topic. The mortar between the bricks is the tactical questioning, maintaining control of the discussion and generally directing its development towards achieving the objective.

LEARNING QUESTIONS

The technique of using questions to promote learning dates back to the days of Socrates in the fifth century B.C. The leader of a discussion uses the "Socratic Approach", as it is now called, to challenge assumptions, compare opinions, and generally encourage the development or a deeper understanding of the topic under discussion. Learning questions can be considered to fall into two broad categories, low order questions and high order questions.

Lower Order Questions

Essentially, these test existing knowledge. They make only a limited contribution to a discussion because they usually require a factual answer. Low order questions are of value in discussion to check understanding and to establish a common base of information. There are three main types of low order questions:

Recall Questions that ask group members to contribute facts.

e.g. "How many .... ?"

Comprehension Questions that ask group members to describe or check understanding of something, to establish a common starting point for the discussion.

e.g. "What do we understand by the term.................. ?"

Application Questions that ask group members to relate an issue or a simple problem to their own situation and consider how they might apply a proposed solution.

e.g. "How would that work in your department....?"

High Order Questions

These provoke discussion because there is no clear-cut answer. Group members may interpret the question differently and apply their own experience, opinion and attitudes in their response. This leads to a wide diversity of views that can be used as the basis for discussion. Almost certainly, there will be no 'right' or 'wrong answer'. It is exchange of a variety of comments that can lead to a much wider understanding of the topic or problem being discussed. The following are types of high order question:

Analysis Question asks group members to make deductions. They are encouraged to organize their thoughts and to look for evidence to interpret and to make generalizations. The value of these questions is that the leader can draw on the experience of members. The question can be illustrated by reference to similar situations that encourage members to express opinions.

e.g. "So what does that mean for other section?"

Synthesis Questions stimulate the group's creative potential. They require people to reflect and work together as a team, encouraging participants to develop ideas and suggestions.

e.g. "Can we build on that idea somehow?"
Evaluation Questions can be considered the highest level of thinking to be obtained from a discussion group. No matter how brilliantly a conclusion from other categories of questions, they must evaluate it and consider its worth. It encourages members to give reasons for their judgements and to assess different ideas and solutions.
e.g. "Which of these possible approaches do you prefer, and why?"

Application of Learning Questions
In planning the types of question to ask, you should consider:
1. The level of the questions. If too low, the group may see the discussion as a pointless recall of knowledge. If too high a level, the group may feel threatened and respond in a defensive manner. High order questions can make the group feel that they are being asked to contribute outside their level of expertise and experience.
2. What alternative questions to ask, either further up or lower down the order. This should provide a degree of flexibility and permit you to adapt to the learning needs of the group.
3. The time available. Low order questions require a relatively simple answer: they are less likely to provoke controversy and can be concluded quickly. High order questions are likely to do the opposite.

TACTICAL QUESTIONS
We need tactical questions when group behaviour is limiting the learning from the discussion. They may be necessary to bring some participants into the discussion, to acknowledge the contribution of others and to get the discussion to move on. Tactical questions are devices for directing the discussion and generally controlling the event. In themselves tactical questions do not promote much learning; their main purpose is to focus discussion on the high-order learning questions.
They help the discussion leader to:
* Ensure that learning questions are fully understood, before the detailed discussion.
* Manage the participation of group members.
* Control the allocation of time to each aspect of the topic.
* Summarise and check for understanding and agreement.

Tactical questions can be considered within three broad categories:
1. Open Questions
2. Probing Questions
3. Closed Questions

1. Open Questions
To establish rapport
Introductory questions used to establish an initial relationship with the group. Examples:
'Didn't you used to work in the audit department?'
'Have you met?'

To explore the background
Used to establish a common basis upon which to build the discussion. Examples:
'Please tell us about?'
'How does the (topic) affect your department?'

To explore opinions or attitudes
Again, used to establish a common basis, but the emphasis is now on the individual member's opinion or attitude towards the topic. Examples:
'To what extent to do you feel...?'
'Just how far do you think?'

2. Probing Questions

To show interest or encouragement
Where the leader encourages a member of the group by making supportive statements, or repeating key words to encourage responses from others. Examples:
' That's interesting... ?'
'I see ....?'(Tell us more)

To seek further information
Used to develop a member's statement by promoting further comment. Examples: Why?
What would you do if....................................... ?'

To explore in details
Where comments of potentially great significance are highlighted by seeking further opinions. Examples
'Just how far do you think .... ?'
'You feel that... ?'

To establish understanding
Where the leader controls the discussion by summarizing a particular aspect of the topic. Example:
'As I understand it .... ?'
'The consensus is ....?'

3. Closed Questions
These are especially useful for establishing facts, or to control a discussion in danger of falling apart through lack of understanding. Examples: 'Are you ….?' 'How often do you ….?'

GROUP BEHAVIOUR
During a discussion you have the responsibility to control the group's participation. You have to:
* Understand the contribution of each member.
* Help group members to understand each contribution.
* Ensure that the contributions relate to the Key Question.
* Summarise the contributions and record main points.
* Summarise each aspect of the topic at an appropriate time
* Encourage contributions from everyone in the group.
* Limit contributions.
* Keep to time constraints.

By improving the quality of group participation and planning high quality questions you can Increase the effectiveness of the discussion.
During the discussion you may be faced with group members who are either not helping or actively hindering the group.
(a) You may be faced with group members who talk too much. If you 'shut them up' you may lose them for the rest of the session; if you let them go on for too long, you may lose the group who by that time get bored and have 'switched off'.
Supplementary questions and summaries can be useful to clarify and break into an individual's contribution. Asking another individual to comment upon what has been said can also help to widen the discussion.
(b) Do not put too much pressure on 'silent members'. It may do more harm than good. Silence does not mean that they are not learning.
However, encouraging looks, or asking silent members to help with recording contributions can be useful to bring them into the body of the group. You can use three major techniques to control the discussion:

Questions
The quality of the discussion is very dependant on the quality of questions. This applies to both key questions and supplementary questions. Good questions can help people to think, clarify understanding, and stimulate an active approach to the topic.
It is essential that you ask questions with a genuine desire to understand or clarify. We should frame questions in a way that avoids any member feeling attacked. Any attempt to make a member of the group look foolish, or to score off a member, will often lead to a breakdown of effective discussion. Asking how one contribution relates to an earlier one will help to keep the discussion together and develop understanding of the topic.

Silence
Silence can be a most valuable contribution to a discussion. During silences, people can think.
To use silence you should make sure that the group have a good, challenging, question to help them to think. Then remain seated and be silent yourself.
Associated with silence is the art of listening. It can be helpful if you note down useful comments from members of the group and encourage them to do also. The skill of listening is one of the most demanding in discussion leading. As a discussion leader you should listen carefully to the contributions being made; decide whether you have understood; decide whether the rest of the group understood, and perhaps phrase a clarifying question and at some stage summarise the content. Doing all these things together is very difficult and very tiring. Your attention will almost slip from time to time, so note taking can be helpful in keeping concentration and providing a reminder to which you can refer for summarising.

Summaries:
At certain points in the discussion you should gather related contributions together and summarise them. If this is a summary of Key Question, recording this in writing or the flipchart is useful. This gives you the opportunity to control the movement of the discussion and prevents the group from wandering from the topic; it consolidates what they have learned; and gives the group a sense of achievement.
The summary is useful to control the timing of the discussion. Providing a summary can round off a Key Question. It will normally close discussion on that aspect, and allow discussion to move on to the next.
By controlling the discussion in this way, you can apportion the time available.
Sometimes spending time on a deeper discussion of one aspect may be more useful for the group than move on to another. This is a matter of judgement, and will depend on the objectives, the learning value of the discussion, and other constraints. However, members of a discussion group will become extremely frustrated if the leader prematurely concludes their discussion.
The final summary of a discussion can be quiet brief and should round off the discussion into a coherent whole. Because the final summary must reflect the content of the discussion, we cannot plan it in advance. The use of the flipchart to record points arising and reference to notes made by the discussion leader can both be very helpful in doing the final summary. During the final summary you should consider the following points:

* Review the points covered
* Acknowledge specific contributions
* Develop conclusions reached
* Action to be followed - when and by whom
* Reinforce understanding of the topic

THE ROLE OF THE LEADER
The primary purpose of the discussion is to enable participants to learn from each other. The discussion leader should be:

* Impartial in responding to group members.
* Supportive to the group and encouraging contributions.

* Managing the discussion within time constraints.
* Not seen as the centre of attention.
* A member of the group.
* Prepared to learn as much as any other member of the group.
* Stimulating the group to explore the topic in depth.

The essential feature of your role is to serve the learning needs of group members. You can do this by asking questions to clarify members' understanding and to challenge assumptions, and by summarising the contributions and conclusions reached in the group to help them achieve the learning objective.

This may appear to make the discussion leader's role more passive than the role of presenting new information in a lecture. The role is in fact, very demanding and active; attentive listening and a quick grasp of what is being said are essential. In a discussion, differences in entry behaviour become far more apparent as the people in the group become equal partners; you have to create a learning event that will lead to a full discussion of the subject and the realisation of the objective for the discussion.

Group Exercise

INTRODUCTION

Training activities are influenced to a quite marked extent by the entry behaviour of participants (The things they already know and can do and the attitudes they adopt). This is especially true when the learning group consists of mature, experienced, adults.

Each participant will bring his or her own mixture of status, knowledge, skills, attitudes, opinions, prejudices, motivation, good and bad experiences, and so on, to the learning event. What is missing is an experience common to all members of the group, around which they can learn.

A group exercise can establish the common ground around which trainees can learn. Instead of basing their thinking on an abstract theory', trainees can start from their experience in an exercise and build up to a principle or a theory.

WHAT IS A GROUP EXERCISE?

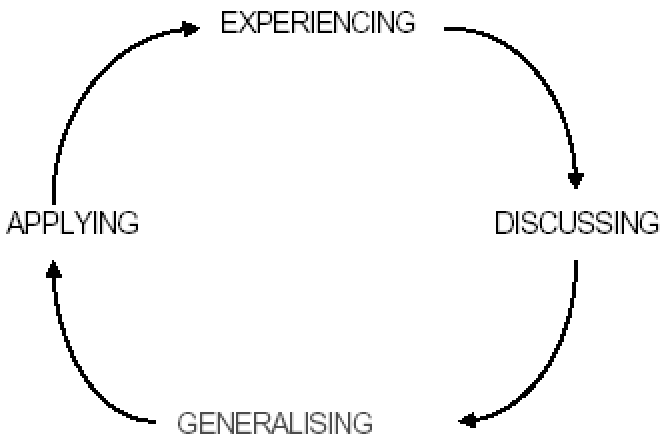
A group of officials on a course is given the task of counting the number of pebbles in a square metre of beach; or to build a tall tower using only A4 sheets of paper and a stapler; or to invent a new game using a pack of playing cards. These are all examples of possible group exercises used in training mature and experienced officials. The purpose in the mind of the trainer might be to develop good group working relationships.

Clearly the approach is a very different one from starting with a lecture about the views of a distinguished theorist. The major differences are that:

a) The trainees are given something active to do, and
b) That their learning is developed from their experience in performing that activity.

GROUP EXERCISES AND LEARNING

Group exercises provide an opportunity for each member of the group to be involved in doing something and to learn from what he or she does. Trainees have an opportunity to try different ways of doing things without the risk involved if they tried the same things in a real working environment. The impact of this experience and the realism of the simulated situation can change behaviour and should help the process of transferring and applying what they have learnt to their work situations. We can represent the process in this way:



This process starts with experiencing something in the group exercise The trainee becomes involved in the group activity - for example doing, saying or observing something. This involvement becomes the basis of the whole process.

Discussing

The trainee discusses with other members of the group his or her reactions to and observations on the activity that they have also experienced or observed. We discuss what occurred in the exercise and group members assess its significance.

Generalising

The group members need to do more than just discuss their specific experience in the exercise. They need to go on to develop general principles derived from the experience to their own work situation.

Applying

Finally the group members should plan how they can apply the general principles to the situations they face at work.

SOME SUBJECT AREAS FOR GROUP EXERCISES

Group exercises are generally used for studying and developing interpersonal skills. The skills involved include the following:

Leadership Communications Motivation Negotiation Problem-solving Decision-making Working in groups Team building Contributing to Meetings **SELECTING AND USING** A **GROUP EXERCISE**

Some do's and don'ts are suggested below to help in making group exercises as effective as possible.

As **the trainer, you** *should:*

* Make sure that you are thoroughly familiar with the subject matter. Flexibility is needed to adapt the discussion of the material to what actually happens in the exercise, while making sure that the main points it was intended to bring out are covered.
* Make sure that the exercise is appropriate to the objectives of the learning unit and to the abilities and attitudes of the trainees.
* Consider whether there is a need to adapt, restructure, rewrite or modify a generally suitable exercise, so that it fits the objectives or the needs of the particular group.
* Make sure that you are thoroughly familiar with the procedure for conducting the exercise.
* Consider the various possible outcomes and relate these to the subsequent discussion of what has been learnt.
* Plan the discussion. We must allow time for a thorough analysis of what happened in the exercise and its implications. Remember that this is more important than the exercise itself. The exercise is only the means of producing the material to be analysed and discussed. It will have limited value unless the issues arising from it are fully explored with the group.

As the trainer you *should not:*

* Use group exercises merely
to fill in time to provide variety to 'see what happens' because you like using them
* Use an exercise in the same way for all groups and irrespective of the objectives of the training.
* Structure the discussion in a pre-determined way, irrespective of what happened during the exercise.

CONDUCTING THE GROUP EXERCISE
You should consider the following points:

Relate to Objectives
You should remember throughout the exercise what the objectives are **in** using it, and stick to them.

Plan and Prepare Thoroughly
Make sure that all the administrative details of the exercise are arranged beforehand.
Consider also a variety of possible outcomes of the exercise. How can you relate these to the purpose of the exercise and of the learning unit as a whole? All the points you wish to discuss may not emerge from a particular run-through of the exercise: you may need to discuss other possible outcomes. What lines will the discussion follow afterwards, to cover the learning points?

Plan for Contingencies
The exercise may take more or less time than anticipated or have a different outcome.
Having alternative material or activities available and ready to be presented is prudent, e.g. for groups that are more/less advanced than the average.
Check where we can make changes to the timetable if that should be necessary.

Check Knowledge
As the use of group exercises becomes more common, it is possible that some trainees may already know or have done the exercise. Usually this does not matter, but with some exercises the impact can be ruined if someone in the group already knows how to solve the problem or analyse the situation.

Brief Participants
Explain the procedure and make sure that all participants understand their roles in the exercise before starting. This may involve:
Stating the objectives clearly and concisely
In some cases giving an overview of the subject matter first Describing the procedure for the exercise
Explaining the trainer's role during the exercise Explaining why this method of training is being used.
In briefing the group, keep the desired outcomes in mind. However, we should not overload the participants with instructions. Where possible, giving instruction in small amounts at appropriate stages of the exercise is better. Check that the briefing is understood.

Watch Observers
If the exercise involves some participants acting as observers rather than being directly involved in the task, make sure that they do not interfere with the process.

Keep Within Broad Guidelines
Exercises involve participants in performing a task in their own way; this is a major reason for using them. However, keeping the exercise within broad guidelines is necessary so that it achieves its objective; otherwise it may deteriorate into a "fun" activity from which the participants learn nothing.

Collect Information
You should observe the process and make notes, even if we have appointed observers, so that comments

afterwards can be related to what happened in the exercise. You can then add to the observers' comments if they have failed to observe some important points.
We should ask that the observers and participants comment on and discuss what happened before you make any comments. They will have comments to make and need to be given the opportunity. Also, you will need to concentrate on leading the discussion away from the specific outcomes of the exercise and on to general principles.

Discuss Issues
Participants should not be left to draw their own conclusions. The exercise should be the source of topics for discussion rather than the context of learning by itself. Discussion of the issues should normally involve three stages:

1. **Describe the experience**
Get the group to discuss such questions as: What happened? What was said/ done? What did participants think/feel? What problems emerged? What courses of action were tried? To what extent were aims of the group achieved?

2. Analyse the experience
Get the group to discuss such questions as: Why did things happen? Why did problems arise? Why did the actions taken fail/succeed? What were the consequences of what was said or done?

3. Develop general concepts
Get the group to relate their experience in the exercise to the work they do. Get them to consider such questions as:
Do people say/do things in this way at work? What are the consequences?
Can success/failure in the exercise be related to success/failure in work situations? Can the group develop a plan of action or general principles for improved performance at work?
In short, the discussion should start with consideration of the details of what happened and should move on to consider the underlying principles that apply to work situations. Throughout the discussion, the participants should discuss what happened - the behaviour that they observed - not speculate on the underlying motives or personal attributes.

REVIEW THE EXERCISE
After the session has been completed, the trainer should review the exercise. Consider: Did it achieve the objective? Does it need to be modified, revised or improved? Was the exercise run in the most effective way? Were the outcomes discussed adequately?

ADVANTAGES OF GROUP EXERCISES
We can summarise the advantages of using group exercises in training as follows:
They provide for trainee-centred learning
They provide a common experience, shared by all members of the learning group
Exercises can be designed/selected/modified to fit the objective of a learning unit and as a major contributor to a learning event
All participants can be actively involved and their attention and motivation are therefore more easily maintained
They minimise the effects of different entry behaviours
The trainer acts as a coach/mentor. Freed from the role of a direct instructor, he or she can supervise, observe, question and provide feedback
Exercises enable complex interpersonal skills to be practised
They can be used to modify attitudes and to develop knowledge and skills.

DISADVANTAGES OF GROUP EXERCISES

The main disadvantages of group exercises are that:
They require careful preparation and planning to be effective The outcome varies from one group to another and is difficult to predict What individuals learn depends on their own level of involvement, their ability to relate what happens in the exercise to their existing knowledge, skills and attitudes and their ability to relate very specific experience to general principles
The success of group exercises is very dependent on the attitudes and expectations of trainees. They may expect the trainer to "teach" them (i.e. to be the sole source of information and advice). Therefore, they may regard an exercise as light relief or fun, rather than as a serious method for helping them to learn.

PERFORMANCE AIDS

INTRODUCTION

Performance aids provide an alternative means of assisting a person perform a task or deal with a problem. Imagine you have arrived home with a newly purchased video recorder. After unpacking it, you need to connect it to the television set and learn how to use it. This kind of situation frequently occurs at home and at work. Is there likely to be a performance problem? Not really, you simply consult the manual, or operating instructions provide by the manufacturer. This manual is an example of a performance aid.
A task might be something physical, such as operating the video recorder, or a mental task involving making a decision. It is important within the context of systematic training, especially when designing training, that we recognise the value of using performance aids to help people improve their performance. Manufacturers are well aware of the importance of helping their customers by providing performance aids in the form of manuals, instructional panels, or help screens. The same approach can be used for many organisational performance problems, where the provision of performance aids can help a person perform a task, without recourse to formal instruction. Notice that the emphasis is on the outcome, not on the process of how to achieve it.
The illustration in Figure 1 shows the gap in performance between the standard required for the task and that of the person who is to do it. There are two possible options for bridging this gap:

* One option is to provide formal training
* Another is to provide a performance aids.

In practice the learning event can be designed to take advantage of both options. Performance aids are often used to supplement training, where they can provide additional information and guidance to support a standard of performance that might otherwise be beyond the capability of the person concerned.
An example of a performance aid with which you are familiar is the checklist provided for lecture, coaching etc. What the instruction sheet, or performance aid provides is knowledge of the steps and key points, in sequence, to achieve satisfactory performance. Mental skills are also required to follow the instructions and relate them to the individual's tasks. If you do not have the minimum basic skills, you would need some form of supplementary training in skills improvement.

BENEFITS OF PERFORMANCE AIDS

There are numerous reasons why a traditional approach to training is not always a viable option. For example:
There are too many people to be trained by means of course. Limitations on funding prevent training being provided to those who need it. The location of prospective trainees prevents them forming a training group. Language, gender and cultural barriers may limit opportunities for training. For these reasons, as a training designer, you may have to devise alternative ways of helping people to improve their performance. The benefits of using Performance Aids include:

* They can replace traditional training.
* They can reduce training costs.
* They can improve performance by reducing the cost and frequency of errors.

* They can reduce need for supervision/ specialist assistance.

TYPES OF PERFORMANCE AID
Performance aids can take a variety of forms, but all should be based on a detailed Task Analysis. Here are some more common ones:

Task Guidance List.
This is a list of the steps in the task often with supporting illustrations. For a trained user the steps may be short reminder phrases; where an untrained user is intended, the steps need to be detailed and precise.

Task Guidance Flowchart or Logical Tree
These can be used for tasks which are not straightforward procedures - tasks involving decisions or discriminations. The flowchart is a simplified version of an analysis of skilled performance. It defines inputs and actions at each stage of task performance, with additional advice, as and where required. Flowcharts are most suitable for the application of rules and regulations, also for complex or specialist decision-making and problem solving.

Tip Sheet
This type of aid provides cues for the trainee in performing a task or activity or job in a sequential step-by-step order. A tip sheet may be produced in paper, card, or wall chart form -safety wall charts emphasising avoidance of particular hazards are a common example of tip sheets.

Exceptions Chart
For activities which have several occasional 'exceptions' or variations, an exceptions chart can provide necessary directions. A column format is used, listing exceptions and the action to take for each.

Off-Standard Chart
While an exceptions chart is concerned with task variations, the off-standard chart incorporates a similar format for highlighting performance variations. The chart lists errors and how they can be recognised, corrected, and faults prevents.

Worksheet
This is prepared response format used to 'de-skill' complex data tasks, e.g. income tax return forms.

Performance Checklist.
This is a checklist of performance standards or important characteristics of performance. It can be used to assist staff to learn, maintain standards, and improve performance.
It may be concluded that in some situation you may substitute the formal training with Performance Aids. Developing performance aids needs trainers time and active involvement. Once developed, it will give an excellent result in improving performance.

Experiential Learning

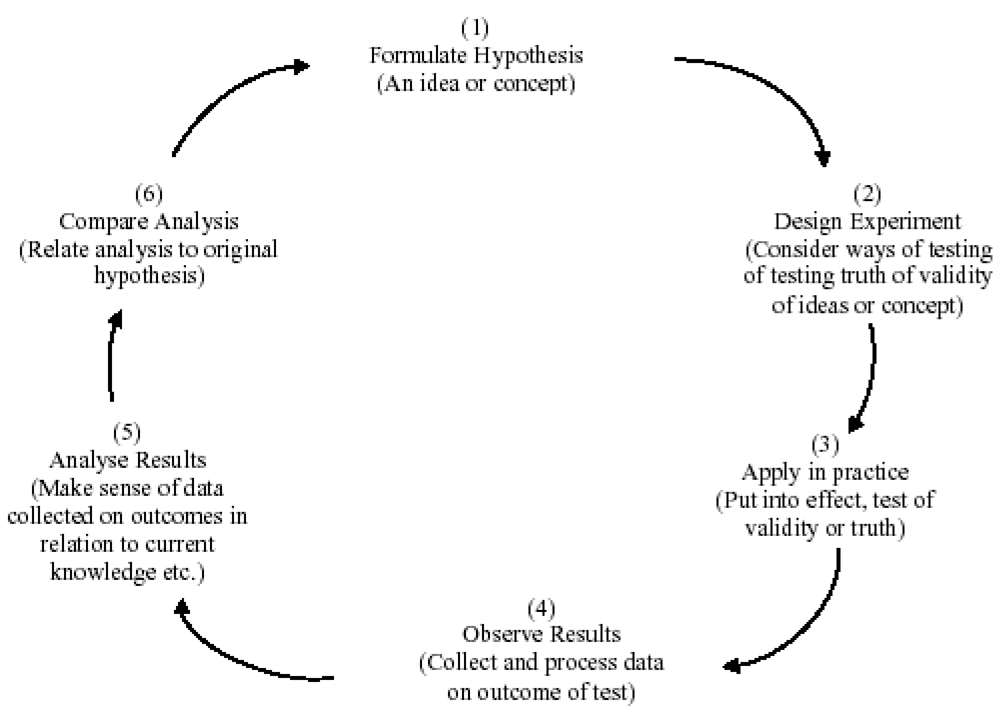
As individual human beings we experience our lives at three levels of existence. In simple terms they can be described by the phrase 'we think, we feel, we do.'

The relationship between the levels
All the three levels are inter-related and interactive. This means that what we think is influenced by and in term influences what we feel and do, the same is true of each level in relation to the other two. For example what we do is influenced by and in turn influences what we think and what we feel. In the

language of psychology these three levels are termed the cognitive domain, the affective domain and the action domain.
It is also true that we experience our existence at all three levels simultaneously and therefore cannot really disassociate one level from another. For instance, as you read these words you are doing, i.e. you are experiencing the action domain. This is because perception is an active process, physiologically and psychologically, which needs to be engaged in order to read. Reading is also a thinking process and therefore you are engaged in the cognitive domain. Finally, what you are reading and your thoughts concerning it have relationships with your existing beliefs about and attitudes towards the subject. Therefore your feelings are involved and you are also in the affective domain.
You are unlikely to be conscious of your experience of the affective domain in reading these words unless they explicitly contradict or actively re-affirm your current beliefs and related attitudes. Similarly, you will not be conscious of the action domain in consciously attempting to focus your eyes. At a conscious level you are only aware of the cognitive domain i.e. your thinking process. This does not mean that your experience of reading these words is confined to that level. Human existence is experienced at all three levels.

The three levels and learning
If that last statement is accepted, it follows that learning is experienced at all three levels. Since cognition, affection and action occur simultaneously learning both influences and is influenced by all three domains. What you learn from this monograph will be the result of the interaction between the three domains as you read it. Any theory of learning therefore has to be able to explain the process in terms of the three levels of existence, and it has to be applicable in promoting learning through utilizing the cognitive, affective and action domains. These two points underpin important theories of learning.
It will be clear from the figure 19 that System Beta engages an individual learner in all three levels of existence. The process described involves the cognitive, affective and action domains.

Figure 19: System Beta



Two critical features
A critical feature of the process is the starting point of the hypothesis. The idea or concept in this stage is formulated by and belongs to the individuals. This means two possibilities in practice. The first is that it may be an original and unique idea that is formulated by the individual. The second is that the idea or concept is presented to the individual by someone else through, for example, a lecture, a book

or a conversation. According to the model, however, the individual in both cases will need to complete all stages of the cycle in order for the learning to occur. In the latter case doing so will also probably have the effect of producing an individual interpretation of the concept, therefore each individuals learning remains unique. It also follows that in the case of a presented concept through, for example, a lecture, learning does not happen unless and until all stages of the process are completed. This point is obviously significant in the design of learning opportunities within training and development.

A second significant feature of the model is that because the process is cyclical the starting point does not have to be formulation of the hypothesis. Individuals can and do enter the cycle at different points in relation to separate pieces of learning. The stages in figure 16 are labelled with numbers in sequence for convenience rather than to represent reality. For instance, it is common for new ideas or concepts to suggest themselves in stages three, four and five.

The theory known as 'experiential learning' was developed by the American psychologist David Kolb and his co-workers in the mid-1970s (Kolb et al, 1984). Since then it has become one of the most well known and widely applied theories in training and development, especially in term of managing organization change and in related adult learning. The theory is very similar to System Beta.

Rationale of experiential learning

The rationale of experiential learning is quite simple. It is that learning approximates the process of problem solving, and that therefore teaching or training which is designed to encourage, support and enable learning should be based on a problem solving approach. This basic idea is worth exploring in a little more detail.

Traditional teaching methods are based on ideas which have particular associations. These associations include:

- The presence of and key role for a teacher or trainer
- A particular and specific place for learning to occur such as a classroom or training centre
- A focus on knowledge, ideas and concepts
- The use of learning materials such as textbooks and handouts.

Such associations produce particular meanings that are attached to the learning process. These include the meaning that:

- An individuals learning is the responsibility of some other person, e.g. the teacher
- That learning is a separate and discrete activity that occurs at particular time in a specific place
- That learning is essentially a passive process
- That learning is concerned with acquiring or understanding abstract information, ideas ad concepts.

It can be argued with great justification that most individual's experience of formal learning leads to these associations and produces these meanings.

An alternative is to view learning as similar to problem solving. In this case the associations are that:

- Problems are very specific
- They belong to the individual and are their responsibility to solve
- That they require experimentation as part of the process of reaching a solution.

These associations produce a different set of meanings:

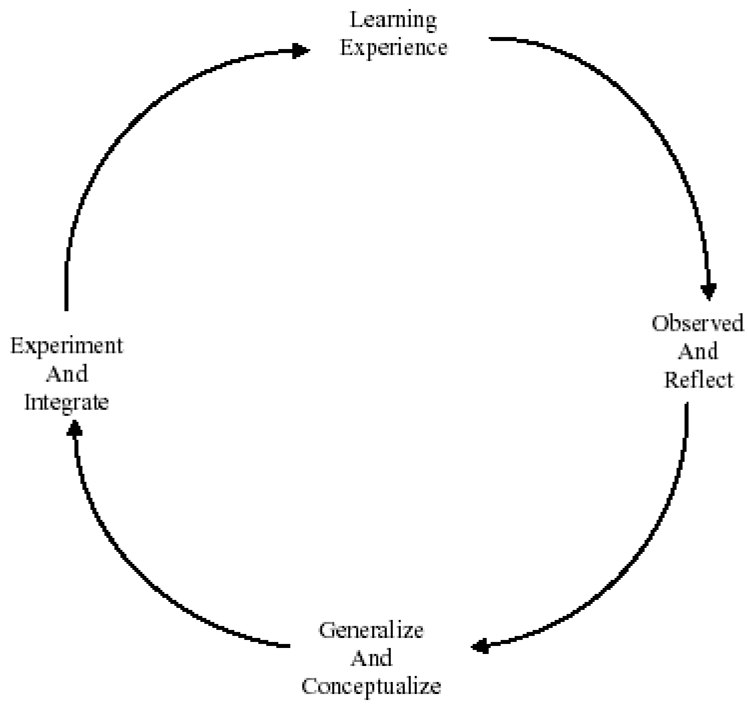
- Problems solving is a active process
- It is concerned with practical application and results
- The focus is real and concrete
- Problem solving is a continuous and natural part of living.

What this means in practice is that most individuals actually learn passivity and dependence in relation to learning through their experience of traditional methods. It also means that traditional methods do not actually reflect the reality of learning since they do not adopt a problem solving approach. Using problem solving as a basis for explaining the learning process leads to the theory of experiential learning.

It has been found, however, that learning that results in increased self-awareness, changed behaviour,

and the acquisition of new skills must actively engage the individual in the learning process. In particular, adults have been found to learn more effectively by doing or experiencing.
Adult learning specialist. David Kolb has described this learning process as a four - phase cycle in which the learner; (1) does something concrete or has a specific experience which provides a basis for (2) the learners' observation and reflection on the experience and their own response to it. These observations are then (3) assimilated into a conceptual framework or related to other concepts in the learners past experience and knowledge from which implications for action can be derived; ad (4) tested and applied in different situations.
The adult learner assimilated useful information into their personal 'experience bank" against which future learning events will be compared and to which new concepts will be related. Unless what is learned can be applied to actual work or life situations the learning will not be effective or long lasting.
People responsible for designing, learning events should keep these phases in mind as they develop ways to help the learner understand and be able to use the new knowledge and/ or skill.

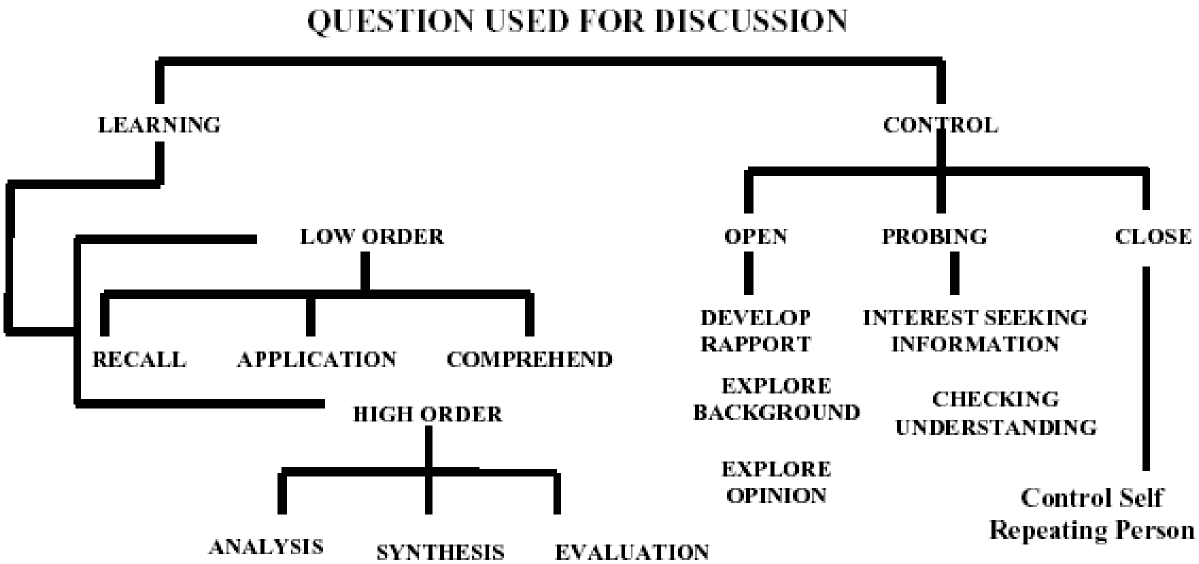
Figure 20: Kolb's Model



Conclusion

In India even today, particularly in the Government Organisation, training is not considered to be so important for improving performance. Primary reason for such a situation is that in many cases, training is not directly linked with the need of the organisation. Systematic Approach is not followed in organising the training. Most of the cases, training is supply driven. Another major weakness is the indiscriminate use of lecture method. On the other hand, on-job training is now being neglected. However, due to strong intervention of the Department of Personnel and Training, Government of India during the recent past the situation is improving. Direction has been changed. Training is becoming more and more trainee centred than the trainer-centred. Organisations are now sensitised and showing considerable interest on Systematic Approach to Training. Training institutes are trying hard to make training demand driven. If this process continues, there will be a virtual cycle and training will be used more systematically in improving performance. As a result, training will be considered as an important activity for the continuous improvement in the functioning of the organisation.

ANNEXURE - I


QUESTION USED FOR DISCUSSION
LEARNING
CONTROL
LOW ORDER
RECALL
APPLICATION
COMPREHEND
HIGH ORDER
ANALYSIS
SYNTHESIS
EVALUATION
OPEN
PROBING
CLOSE
DEVELOP RAPPORT
EXPLORE BACKGROUND
EXPLORE OPINION
INTEREST SEEKING INFORMATION
CHECKING UNDERSTANDING
Control Self Repeating Person