Chapter One

1. Overview of Training and Development

Introduction

There are two organizational standpoints that can be adopted when considering training and development: training and development is a cost the organization needs to bear; or training and development is an investment the organization needs to make. The first approach leads to training and development being regarded as a ‘‘grudge purchase’’ along with insurance and security. In such organizations the outlay of resources (money, time, etc.) on training and development will be resented.

It is not only those whose budgets have to pay for training activities that will become resentful as their feelings will percolate down to those being trained and developed. Training and development may be perceived as a waste of time and effort by those it should be helping. The second approach – training and development as an investment– is much more holistic. Whatever field of activity the organizations in, training and development is an activity that will give the organizational competitive advantage.

This is not only because the employees may actually be better at their allotted tasks than those with less training, but also because the employees will be better motivated. In an organization that sees training and development as an investment, employees soon realize that the investment the organization makes in training and developing them also enhances the ‘‘salability’’ of that employee. An investment in training and development is also an investment in the person being trained and developed. Frederick Herzberg, whose work on the motivation of managers has become a standard, showed that recognition and achievement were two of the most effective motivators. An organization that invests in training and development is not only recognizing the abilities of its workforce but is also providing achievement opportunities for them.

Subsequent chapters will stress the point that training and development needs to be structured, planned, and targeted for it to be effective. Effective training and development occurs when both the needs of the organization and the individual being trained and developed are met. Input measures such as how much time, money and so forth have been devoted to training and development provide little or no indication as to the effectiveness of the process. The most important measurements are output related: How have the organization and the individual benefited from the training and development, and how has this increased the organization's (and the individual's) competitive advantage? Organizations exist to do something, whether it is to manufacture a product or to deliver a service. Training and development is an activity that supports the overall organizational objectives. This is why it is an investment and not a cost that must be borne grudgingly.

The quality of employees and their development through training and education are major factors in determining long-term profitability of a small business. If you hire and keep good employees, it is good policy to invest in the development of their skills, so they can increase their productivity.

Training often is considered for new employees only. This is a mistake because ongoing training for current employees helps them adjust to rapidly changing job requirements.

Objectives

On completion of this unit, the reader should be able to:-

- Describe the difference between training and development;
- Define terminologies and explain concepts related to training and development;
- Explain the relationship between HRM and HRD;
- List some early schools of thought which were the base for HRD;
- Understand the evolution of training development
- Recognize the challenges of HRD

1.1 Basic Terms and Definitions in training and Development

How these are defined, how they are related, and how they can be used to gain competitive advantage are important issues addressed.

Activity **Define the following terms in your own words.** Information, Knowledge, Skills, Task, Job -- -

Note that trainers, developers and educators vary among their own definitions of the following terms

- At its most basic form, a piece of information about something is a “unit of awareness” about that thing. (A field of philosophy, epistemology, includes analysis of what is really information and what isn’t. this field might visit the question: “If a tree falls in the forest, does it make a sound?”) Some people think that this awareness occurs only in the brain

and, therefore, usually comes from some form of thought. Other people also accept information as a form of realization from other forms of inquiry, e.g., intuition.

Knowledge: Knowledge is gleaned by organizing information. Typically, information evolves to knowledge by the learner’s gaining context, perspective and scope about the information.

Skills: - Skills are applying knowledge in an effective and efficient manner to get something done. One notices skills in an employee by their behaviors.

Task: - A task is a typically defined as a unit of work, that is, a set of activities needed to produce some result, e.g., vacuuming a carpet, writing a memo, sorting the mail, etc. complex positions in the organization may include a large number of tasks, which are sometimes referred to as functions.

Job: - A job is a collection of tasks and responsibilities that an employee is responsible to conduct. Jobs have titles.

Role: - A role is the set of responsibilities or expected results associated with a job. A job usually includes several roles.

The other important terms that need to be clear include: - Learning,continuous learning,Education , Training, Development,…

Activity

How do you define the following terms?

- Learning
- Continuous learning
- Education
- Training
- Development
- Learning organization

A. Learning

Typically, learning is viewed as enhancing one's knowledge, understanding or skills. Some people see learning as enhancement to one's knowledge, awareness and skills. Some professionals view learning as enhancing one's capacity to perform. Some view learning as a way of being that includes strong value on receiving feedback and increasing understanding.

It's important to note that learning is more than collecting information-more than collecting unreferenced books on a shelf. Depending on the needs of the learner, knowledge is converted to skills, that is, the learner knows how to apply the knowledge to get something done. Ideally, the skills are applied to the most appropriate tasks and practices in the organization, thereby producing performance results needed by the organization.

Learning can be defined as ''a conscious or subconscious process of developing or adapting perspectives to make better sense of the world, and to ultimately become more effective.''
Learning may thus occur at a conscious or subconscious level. Indeed, highly successful managers are typically excellent at subconscious learning. Moreover, learning is built into their everyday routines for doing virtually everything. Learning is not merely about adding to one's stock of knowledge, but it is frequently about changing it. The more successful learners are able to re-examine beliefs and thought processes, and discard them where they are no longer appropriate or applicable. For instance, in individual development (a first supervisory role), a successful belief would be: ''I need to actually do things myself to make sure that things get done, when these have not been done by other people.''
A first line supervisor cannot delegate everything – they need to provide a focus for action. But in hands-on style would not only be unproductive, but it could even be a disaster. A successful general manager usually needs to step back from the detail and provide overall direction, intervening only selectively in what their staffs are doing. Such interventions should be more concerned with steering and motivating the staff, than with fussing over the detailed content of their actions. This point is put more directly by the proverb: ''Why keep a dog and bark yourself?''
Learning itself is a concept that can be developed further. For instance, Chris Argyris,

distinguishes between single-loop (simple) learning and double-loop (more complex) learning.

Single-loop learning involves ‘‘improving what you are currently doing,’’ whilst *double-loop learning* involves ‘‘doing things in a new way, or learning how to do entirely new things.’’

Another perspective is to distinguish between operational (simple) learning and strategic (more complex) learning. *Operational learning* consists of ‘‘learning to do an existing task better, or to apply an existing skill to a task,’’ while *strategic learning* is ‘‘a process of exploring complex issues affecting organizations, teams, and individuals.’’ (The latter involves reflecting and debating on the interrelationships between these issues, and setting them against the bigger picture.)

A summary of the differences between operational learning and strategic learning is given in Table 1.1

Table 1.1 Operational versus strategic learning.

Operational learning	Strategic learning
Programmed and deductive	Open, creative, and intuitive
Clear boundaries and structures	Ambiguous and ill-structured
Assumptions are given	Surfacing and questioning of assumptions
Linear and predictable process	Fluid and interactive process
‘‘Hard’’ outputs (detailed but determinate)	‘‘Hard’’ and ‘‘soft’’ outputs (patterns and hard insights coming out)
Low uncertainty and fear	High uncertainty, fear, and defensiveness

Learning is the process by which behavior and attitudes are changed.One of the major debates in child development and education has beenon the question of how much behavior is innate and how much islearnt – the nature versus nurture debate.A psychological definition of learning is:‘‘any change in the general activity of an organism the effectsof which persist and recur over a period of time and which arestrengthened by repetition and practice.’’Although this is quite an old definition,itcoversthemajorpointsaboutlearningverycomprehensivelythefact that learning persistsand recurs and that it is strengthened by repetition and practice.Repetitionand practice are important when considering the learning curve .

THE LEARNING CURVE

Consider an assembly plant making a certain component. Thisis the first time that the component has been made. The firstcomponent may take an hour before it is assembled satisfactorily.As the workers on the line become used to the tasks involved, thetime to complete a unit will drop. The number of units completedper hour will rise until the maximum that even the most skilledworker can complete is reached. As time goes by, for any product or service the organization should be able to deliver it cheaperand better as employees learn and master the processes. Earlyprototypes will have bugs that need to be ironed out, and workersneed training in order to produce at the most efficient rate.

Number
of units
In 1 hour

Time

Fig.

Irving4 reports that the first fifty Boeing 747s to be built required a workforce of 27,500. By the time the breakeven four hundredth was produced the workforce was only 7500. That is the learning curve. As time goes by mistakes become less, and the time taken – especially in manufacturing – drops, thus aiding cash flows and recovery of costs. In common with the term ‘‘training’’, learning is not confined to human beings – the vast majority of animal species learn at least part of their behavior. It is not only the individuals within an organization who can learn, but also that the organization itself can learn.

INTANGIBLE ASSETS

Organizations typically measure their assets in tangible terms – stock, buildings, investments, cash, etc. However, in addition to these there are intangible assets that may have a value far in excess of the more tangible assets.

Consider what Mickey Mouse is worth to Disney or what a gifted program writer is worth to Microsoft. The value may be impossible to calculate in absolute terms, but it is likely to be many times the conventional worth of either asset. Andrew Mayo1 has divided intangible assets into three main groups:

customer capital – the value of brands and reputation, and the relationship the customer feels he or she has with the organization;
structural capital – the value of patents, organizational know-how, and culture; and
human capital – the value of the experience, loyalty, knowledge, and attributes of the employees.

Together these categories comprise the ‘‘intellectual capital’’ of theorganization. The most important component is that of human capital.The worth of intellectual capital was graphically illustrated by anincident recounted by Clive Irving2 in 1993. He tells how at a meetingbetween Boeing and Soviet aeronautical engineers during the developmentof the Boeing 747 ‘‘jumbo’’ jet, the Soviets made a numberof offers (eventually offering $10mn) for a copy of the company’s*Design Objectives and Criteria*. A dull title perhaps, but it contained
the sum of Boeing’s knowledge about jet airliner design from the 707onwards. Boeing took the offer seriously enough to institute extrasecurity procedures to protect the company’s

hard-won knowledge.When Philip Morris purchased Kraft for $12.6bn in 1988, the paperworth of the company was about $2.1bn and the value of the brand$10.5bn – so they paid six times the paper worth to acquire the name.Put another way, the intangible asset (the brand name) was valued at six times the tangible assets of the company.

B. Continuous Learning

Simply put, continuous learning is the ability to learn to learn. Learning need not be a linear event where a learner goes to a formal learning program, gains areas of knowledge and skills about a process, and then the learning ceases. If the learner can view life (including work) as a "learning program", then the learner can continue to learn from almost everything in life. As a result, the learner continues to expand his or her capacity for living, including working.

C. Training

Training and development are often used synonymously. But they are different. Training is often interpreted as the activity when an expert and learner work together to effectively transfer information from the expert to the learner (to enhance a learner's knowledge, attitudes or skills) so the learner can better perform a current task or job.Thus training is considered as needs against present requirements.

Pepper (1984:9–11) defines training as 'that organized process concerned with the acquisition of capability, or the maintenance of capability 'Training is very specific and is concerned with the mastering of a particular task or set of tasks. At its most basic, training does not require understanding of the whys and wherefores. It is fairly easy to train a pigeon to select a particular shape from a collection of shapes or a Seeing Eye dog to guide a human being around obstacles or to sniff out drugs and explosives. The training process with animals involves rewards and punishments – a food treat as reward and a harsh word as a punishment. The pigeon and the dog can perform very competently, but there is no evidence to suggest that they know why they are behaving in this way, only that at some time in the past this type of behavior gained the animal a reward. With humans, training that encompasses a degree of ''why?'' tends to be more effective than training that does not. However, one can train an individual to use a computer for word processing without that person understanding very much about how microprocessors actually work. Effective training provides the right degree of knowledge to underpin the task. In the case of work-based training and development, punishment should never be used as this will cause the trainee to associate training with something unpleasant (punishment). Training and development may be challenging but it should never be unpleasant. A distinction needs to be made between imposed punishments and rewards and the way an individual might ''kick himself'' when making a mistake or feel proud when all goes well. It is possible to train an animal without consciously wanting to do so, often with negative results. More than one cat has learnt that the easiest way to have the door opened to go outside is to scratch the furniture. Cat scratches furniture – owner becomes annoyed – cat is put outside. It does not need this to happen many times before the cat will scratch the furniture in order to be put outside. The effectiveness of training can be measured by examining what a person could do before the training and what he or she can do after it. The difference may be in being actually able to perform a new task or an improvement in the manner of carrying out an old task.

Training can be defined as ''a deliberate and programmed activity aimed at improving one or more specific skills, either off the job or on the job.'' Training can either be a group or an individual activity, depending on the situation. The advantage of group training is that social interaction will:

- provide a stimulus to the individual to learn how to perform better;
- provide some performance benchmarks that will give feedback on whether performance has improved or not;
- facilitate the learning of tasks that have a social impact (which many have); and
- draw more energy and commitment from the trainee.

Training (even in groups) does not necessarily imply the existence of a trainer. The ''deliberate and programmed activity'' can be initiated purely by the trainee, or by a group of trainees who form part of a learning set (group-managing the activity).

An example of solo training is that of the Manchester United and England footballer David Beckham, who practices taking free kicks to perfection. Beckham's learning feedback loop does not involve a trainer – he is, in effect, for the most part his own coach. Solo training is a most valuable way of developing, especially in an on-the-job situation. Unfortunately, because of the discipline and commitment this requires many managers default instead to periodic group-based learning. The problem here is that off-the-job learning does not necessarily translate into superior skills on the job, as the learning transfer may be inefficient.

E. **Development**

This term is often viewed as a broad, ongoing multi-faceted set of activities (training activities among them) to bring someone or an organization up to another threshold of performance. This development often includes a wide variety of methods, e.g., orienting about a role, training in a wide variety of areas, ongoing training on the job, coaching, mentoring and forms of self-development. Some view development as a life-long goal and experience. Development is a process in which learning occurs through experience and where the results of the learning enhance not only the task skills of the individual but also his or her attitudes. Whereas training does not necessarily encompass the ''why'', development most certainly does. Development provides the individual with skills and attributes that can be changed to fit new circumstances. Whereas training can be measured objectively (before the training Mary could not do X, after the training she can do X), development is much more subjective. Development not only provides skills but also changes the way the individual thinks and reasons. Training is mechanical; development is humanistic. Training may be accomplished in a relatively short time-frame; in contrast, development – linked as it is to intellectual growth – takes much longer.

Where the objective is to acquire a set of capabilities which will equip a person to do a job some time in the predictable future, which is not within his [sic] present ability, that person is often said to undergo a process of development. Of course, straightforward jobinstruction, or rather job learning, is by this definition a development, but the term hasbecome associated with longer-term and more complex arrangements for learning, often with job moves included in the plan.

Development can be construed as relating to future requirements. For example, this could be preparation for a promotion, or for an organizational development such as the introduction of team working.

The historical antecedents of training have contributed towards the current perception of training. In many crafts and guilds the purpose of training was to enable indentured apprentices to work for a period of years under the supervision of a master craftsperson. Eventually, the apprentices learned the skills required of that occupation and would produce a complex piece of work, a 'masterpiece', incorporating much of what they had learned. This would then enable them to become members of the specific guild. Hence, today, we have the term 'Master's degree' which illustrates that the person is, or should be, fully conversant with that area.

Training is a planned process to modify attitude, knowledge or skill behavior 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 the current and future needs of the organization.

Development can be defined as ''the process of transforming an individual or group from one level of capability to another.'' Development is a slightly different concept from training as it is:

. more broad-based, covering not just one skill or a number of specific skills, but a more generic capability (like leadership);

. long-term in its focus (frequently more than a year and perhaps longer); and

. generally more concerned with acquiring new skills, or applying existing skills in new ways. Development is perhaps best seen as a process that might be made up into a number of phases. For example, to develop an effective general manager might require six phases:

» induction into the company/industry (phase 1);

» a first supervisory role (phase 2);

» specialist functional management skills (phase 3);

» general management training, by means of formal education (phase 4);

» mentored transition to a first general management role (phase 5); and

» a move to an overseas company to acquire international experience (phase 6).

Within each of the above phases, one might typically find more specific training on perhaps five or more key competencies.

THE LEARNING ORGANIZATION

Activity

What is a learning organization?

Much has been made of the learning organization but few organizations appear to have been able to take on this model successfully. A *learning organization* can be defined as ‘‘an organization that uses organizational, group, and individual learning to continually transform itself and to meet its ongoing challenges, both consciously and unconsciously.’’

In an ideal learning organization:

» learning and experimentation are prized highly;

» learning is explicitly seen as producing better performance, and is conspicuously invested in;

» action and learning are equally valued;
» mistakes are recognized as inevitabilities and as potential positives, rather than as evils;
» individuals and groups are actually encouraged to develop and to adapt; and
» rigid mindsets and structures are regarded as no-nos.

Unfortunately it is easier to paint an idealistic picture of the learning organization than it is to actually create and sustain it. In reality there are three schools of management thinking on the learning organization:

1 the *prescriptive* school, which believes that organizations must learn in order to survive and thrive, and become learning organizations;

2 the *impossibility* school, which believes that attempts to spread learning throughout any complex organization will founder upon a number of obstacles, such as denial of error, avoidance of uncertainty and ambiguity, or pure business politics; and

3 the *pragmatic* school, which believes that although there are many barriers to learning, islands or pools of learning can be created within an organization. These islands need a lot of effort if learning is to be developed and sustained. However, with continual effort, learning routines become built in to ''how we do things around here'' and may ultimately reach a critical mass to form joined-up learning continents.

Education

Activity

Are learning and education the same? Argue against or for.

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This term seems to be the most general of the key terms in employee training. Some professionals view education as accomplishing a personal context and understanding of the world, so that one's life and work are substantially enhanced, e.g., "Go Education Used in its formal sense, education is the broadening of the knowledge and skills base of the individual (and indeed the group) with the objective of the individual functioning in and being a benefit to the society he or she lives in. Development, as discussed earlier, is a process in which learning occurs through experience and where the results of the learning enhance not only the task skills of the individual but also his or her attitudes. Education is about individuals learning the norms operating in their society. Education is an investment by a society into its members with the ultimate aim of benefiting that society. Formal education is usually provided by or in conjunction with those who are in charge of a particular society. In organizational terms, much of development is akin to education in that it is concerned with attitudes, etc. get an education." Others view the term as the learning required to accomplish a new task or job.

From an historical perspective education was closely linked to the church in western countries and the number of people receiving education was very limited, as was the case with the guilds. Much of the emphasis was on classics, ie Latin and Greek, and there was minimal consideration of practical applications. However, the educated person was often more highly regarded and thus oversaw the craftsperson; a trend which may still be seen today and which influences recruitment to some disciplines.

Education is defined as:

activities which aim at developing the knowledge, skills, moral values and understanding required in all aspects of life rather than a knowledge and skill relating to only a limited field of activity. The purpose of education is to provide the conditions essential to young people and adults to develop an understanding of the traditions and ideas influencing the society in which they live and to enable them to make a contribution to it. It involves the study of their own cultures and of the laws of nature, as well as the acquisition of linguistic and other skills which are basic to learning, personal development, creativity and communication.

(Manpower Services Commission, 1981:17)

A programme of learning over an extended period with general objectives relating to the personal development of the pupil/student and/or his/her acquisition of knowledge. In addition education refers to the area of public policy concerned with programmes of learning in a particular jurisdiction taken altogether (e.g. in the context of education expenditure).

Activities aim at developing the knowledge, skills, moral values and understanding required in all aspects of life rather than knowledge and skill relating to only a limited field of activity. The purpose of education is to provide the conditions essential for young persons and adults to develop an understanding of the traditions and ideas influencing the society in which they live and to enable them to make a contribution to it. It involves the study of their own and other cultures and the laws of nature as well as the acquisition of linguistic and other skills which are basic to learning, personal development, creativity and communication.

Education is considerably broader in scope than training and this is perhaps illustrated by the considerably longer definitions above. It also has a less immediate and less specific application than training and is often perceived as being delivered in educational institutions. Education is regarded as encompassing knowledge, skills and attitudes (Bloomet al,1956). There is a continuing tension between the needs of industry and commerce with their immediate requirements for specific skills and the educational requirements of the individual and society which need people who can contribute to the quality of life in a multi-faceted way. There is therefore a tension between traditional education and training provision which is illustrated by Dearden (1991:93):

But training can be, and often is, very illiberally conceived, and then it may not merely be uneducational but even anti-educational. As an example of the uneducational, one might mention the recent controversy over whether trainees in the YTS (Youth Training Scheme) should be given any opportunity to consider the social significance of work as part of their ‘off-the-job’ provision.

Distinguishing between education and training can be quite problematic. One very illustrative example of the difference between education and training would be a young child coming home and saying, ‘We had sex training today!’ This is in stark contrast to sex education classes that imply a theoretical rather than a practical application of learning!

Coaching

Activity

State the meaning of coaching in your own words?

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Like training, coaching is concerned with skills, whether they aresporting skills or work skills. Every top-class athlete has a coachwho works with him or her to improve technique. Coaching wasan important part of apprenticeship schemes, as described in the nextchapter. Coaching has seen a resurgence in recent years as organizationsrealize that it is an ideal method of transferring the skills and knowledgeof older and more experienced employees to new hires. It also helpsensure that the intellectual capital of the organization is not diminished
when an employee retires or leaves, as the skills and knowledge willhave been passed on through the coaching process.

Mentoring

Activity

What differs coaching from mentoring?

What coaching is to training, mentoring is to development. A mentor isnot concerned solely with improving skills and performance in a narrowrange of tasks but with the development of the whole individual. Amentor is an experienced person other than the individual's manager who provides counsel and guidance to assist the individual in his orher growth within the organization.It is important that the mentor does not have a line managementrelationship with the individual, because that could cause a conflict ofinterest..

LEARNING as a Process

We are all learning all the time. From day to day, even from minute tominute,wefindourselves faced with the need to adapt in order to surviveindifferentcircumstances.Weadaptourbehaviour and our ways of thinking about the world and interacting with it inorder to cope and continue to live. For most of the time the changes required of us are small and hard lynoticed;attheotherextreme, there are occasions when we have to make major changes very quickly. In between are those occasions when we realize that we have changed, adapted, and now behave differently or see the world differently, or even under-stand ourselvesdifferently.Werealizethatwe have learnt something.Learning is difficult to define. It is part of the process of change and adaptation to different circumstances. It enables us to draw on the past in ordertocopebetterwith thefuture. It is to do with change.But what kind of change? Throughlearningpeoplemaychange their view of the world,or their understanding ofthemselves,ortheirbehaviour,orsomethingelse. The changemay not always be immediately obvious to others, or even to the learner.However, learningeventually produces some observable effect.Whathasbeensaidsofarimpliesthatlearning is a process. There is not one event, but a series of elements that go to make uplearning.Aswith any process, learning is difficult toobserve when it is happening;butaswithanyprocess,learning can be helped or hinderedby many factors which are not themselvespartoftheprocess.Itisuseful at this point to make a distinction between formal and informal learning.

Formal learning is learning that takes place in a structured and intentional way. Typically formal learning takes place when we attend some kind of course, often in a particular setting. A good example of formal learning is the learning that takes place in school classrooms or training rooms.

Informal learning is not structured, though it may occur in a structured setting. Informal learning takes place when we learn something new without intending to. It is the kind of learning that occurs when we pick up tips on doing something from watching an expert at work, or discover a new piece of information through a casual conversation. Much of our learning is informal.

Activity

What process we go through when we learn?

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The process of learning can usefully be split into several stages. To learn we must:

• receive new information or data;

• take the information in;

• assimilate the information;

• store the information;

• use the information.

Exactly how we perform these tasks, by what physical processes they happen, is a matter of great discussion and controversy. For our present purposes, the details are not significant however, we must say a little about each stage of learning.

Receiving

We note first that for the purpose of learning we are interested in the new information we receive. Much of the information we receive, especially as we get older and have the benefit of more experience, is not new. We do not ignore it, but it is not part of our learning. However, we should note that new information is not just pieces of data about the world.

New information may include ideas that help us make new connections between pieces of data already stored away in our memories.

Information comes in many forms. Our senses offer us information all the time. We filter the information, selecting what is relevant at the moment, that is, what is significant for the task in hand. Sometimes we make mistakes, and ignore something important; sometimes one piece of information is so overpowering that it blots out everything else. Thus when my sense of touch tells me that I am very cold, this information can blot out everything else, including the words of wisdom of a teacher. This is one reason why the efficiency of our learning is affected by the circumstances in which the learning takes place.

Taking in

Having received information and selected what we wish to take notice of, we have to take the information in. How we do this is not very well understood, but it is clear that human beings vary considerably in their ability to take in information. There are great variations in what we can see, hear, feel and so on. Many of these variations have to do with physical capability, and are affected by circumstances. For example, I see less well in dim light, and hear less distinctly if there is a lot of background noise. Our physical capabilities also change with age. Most people notice a deterioration in their sight and hearing as they grow older, though the speed of change varies enormously.

The effect of all this is that our physical capabilities affect our ability to learn. We learn from what we take in, and it seems that we take in only a fraction of the information we receive through our senses. For our learning to be efficient and productive, we need to maximize the amount of information we take in.

In practical terms this means making sure that we have the best possible chance of taking in as much as possible. The physical setting of our learning is therefore important, as is our own physical state. We can also add to the efficiency of learning by providing more than one means of taking in the same information. Not only do our senses provide information, each can reinforce the other. The old saying, a picture is worth a thousand words reminds us that what we see has as great an impact as what we hear. For this reason, mind-mapping, developed by Buzan (1995) has become a very effective tool of some people. So too does what we touch, and the combination of sight, sound and touch in doing something is very powerful – which is why we often learn most quickly and easily through doing things.

Assimilating

Activity

What do you think is assimilating?Give example for your answer.

In order to learn something, we must connect what we have taken in through our senses with information we already have stored away. This helps us first to make sense of the information we have received. Until we can connect the new information in some way with our existing framework of thought and experience, we cannot decide whether the information is significant or worth retaining.

How the processes of assimilation work is again not well understood, but the details do not matter for our present purposes. What is important is the role played by existing frameworks of thought. The more easily we can assimilate information to our existing frameworks, the quicker and more efficient will be our learning. Hence those offering learning must find ways of helping learners to connect new information to old. This is partly expressed in the idea familiar to trainers and teachers, that you must start 'where the students are'.

With adults, starting where they are can be very difficult: in any group of adults there is a variety of experience and a variety of starting points. Even where the group is coming to a task unfamiliar to all of them, the frameworks into which the new information must be assimilated are very varied.

An important aspect of assimilation is the resolution of conflicts between the information we already have and the new information. Generally this is not too difficult, especially if information is presented in units which allow time for the recognition and resolution of conflicts. However, sometimes the conflict is great, for example when a cherished and familiar working practice is described as inefficient or bad practice; then the resolution of the conflict may require a change in the framework of thought as well as the assimilation of new information. Changes in frameworks of thought are difficult, and may have considerable implications – which is why they are often resisted. Sometimes, it has been suggested, the changes are simply rejected. We shall look briefly later at one famous discussion of responses to new information, by Piaget, which suggests this.

Storing

Activity

What is the advantage of storing the assimilated knowledge?

Once information has been assimilated, it must be stored for re-use, if we are to be able to say we have learnt it. The processes of memory have been closely studied for many years, but are still a subject of considerable debate and research (Shanks, 1997).

However, it is now generally agreed that we store things in short- or long-term memory, at least. Many of the items stored in short-term memory will be lost after a period, sometimes of minutes, sometimes of days. Information stored in long-term memory may be there indefinitely, though we may also have difficulty accessing it.

It is often said that memory declines as you grow older. Recent work suggests that it is Use of memory that declines, rather than memory itself. Other work suggests that older people find it easier to remember some things, because they can assimilate them: what older people may find more difficult is assimilating information that requires changes or exten sions in frameworks of thought.

One implication of our present understanding of memory is that trainers and teachers have to think about the kind of information being given and what learners are expected to remember. If we want information stored in longterm memory then we must give the learner help in storing.

Using

We cannot say we have learnt something until we are able to use it and, usually, use it in contexts different from the context in which we gained it. This implies that we cannot claim to have learnt something until we have tried to use it. So learning opportunities should carry with them the opportunity to use what has been learnt. This may be as simple as trying to show someone else a skill you have acquired, or explaining to someone else a new idea you have learnt.

For the provider of learning, this stage of learning is relevant to assessing learning. In order to know whether students have learnt, and what they have learnt, we need some form of evaluation. The nature and form of evaluation or assessment will vary according to what is supposed to be learnt. For good assessment it is necessary that learners are given the opportunity to show that they can use the information they have gained in different ways. For example, in assessing whether or not someone has learnt to use a word-processor, we might need to ask them to produce more than one document, to show that they have learnt the skills rather than just a recipe.

ADULTS AND ADULTHOOD

Activity

Do you think adults learn in the same way like children? Explain.

Having looked very briefly at the processes of learning, we turn to the second part of our task and consider adults and adulthood. Much of our thinking about learning is based on studies of children learning. However, there are significant differences between children and adults, and some of the differences affect learning. This is emphasized by some writers using the distinction between pedagogy and andragogy. Pedagogy is claimed to be a form of teaching and learning appropriate to children in formal settings, which sees them as recipients of instruction; andragogy in contrast is seen as a process of teaching and learning in which the learners are participants.

Activity

What is an adult? What are the characteristics of adults?

There are many ways in which we normally pick out adults from children, for example, age, size, or occupation. Thus we usually say that someone aged 14 is not an adult; someone aged 41 is an adult. Someone six feet tall is likely to be an adult, someone three feet tall is likely to be a child. Someone in full-time employment is likely to be an adult, someone in full-time compulsory schooling is more likely to be a child.

But already doubts should be creeping in. There are short people who are adults and tall people who are not adults. Whether or not someone in employment or schooling is described as an adult may depend on the laws of the country concerned relating to employment and school attendance. Sometimes we describe people of adult age as behaving like children, and some children are described as behaving like adults. So there are areas of doubt.

The law does not help us either. In many countries there are clear legal rules about when a person may serve in the armed forces, take on debts, vote, marry and so on. All these are taken to be signs of being an adult, yet the variation in age across the world for these significant events is enormous, and in some cases affected by gender.

Clearly then for our purposes none of these ways of characterizing adults is sufficient. Wherever the boundary is drawn there will be people who do not fall into the category of adult but who are nevertheless of interest to us because they are among our adult learners.

Adulthood

It may be more helpful to distinguish between being an adult and adulthood. To be an adult is to fulfill a set of criteria, usually based on age, size, legal status and similar features.

Adulthood is a state that is related to age, but not determined by any of the features we have noted so far.

What are the characteristics of adulthood? We can begin to explore these by recalling a remark made above: sometimes we describe people of adult age as behaving like children, and some children are described as behaving like adults. This suggests that we might identify some of the characteristics of adulthood by considering what we expect of adults, for example in their behaviour.

A short list might include words like maturity, experience, responsibility and independence. We expect adults to show maturity in their behavior.

We expect adults to have experience of life, and to draw on that experience in making decisions. We expect adults to take responsibility for their decisions. We expect adults to show independence, making their own decisions.

This does not mean that all adults fulfill these expectations all the time. However, if someone has reached adulthood, we expect him or her to show more of these characteristics rather than less. It is important to recognize that adulthood is a state that is incomplete. Adults are changing and developing all the time, just as children are. But in adults the changes are less dramatic, usually.

We should now note another word of caution: words like maturity and independence are slippery. What counts as maturity in one context will not necessarily count in another, and the same is true of words like independence and responsibility.

Clearly defining adulthood is hard. We can see that adulthood involves a range of attributes, of which we have noted some. Our judgment about whether or not someone has achieved adulthood will involve assessing the extent to which they display appropriate attributes.

The immediate significance of this for adult learning is this: we cannot assume that all adults are the same. They differ markedly, and those differences affect the way they learn.

To see this we shall look further at some of the characteristics of adulthood which are of significance for learning.

Adult learners are mature

We have already noted that it is hard to define maturity, but we can recognize it. Among other things, to say that someone is mature is to say that they have a framework of ideas and experience into which everything new must be fitted in order to make sense. The framework has been formed through reflection on a variety of experiences, and may be more or less fixed. Mature people may find it easy to recognize challenges to their frame-works of thought, but hard to adapt those frameworks.

Adult learners are experienced

Activity

From where do adults get experience? Can you give examples of your own?

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They have lived through a number of years and a range of experiences, from many of which they have learnt. Some of the experiences have been good and positive, others have been bad and negative. Positive or negative, they are part of the baggage brought by adults to learning opportunities and colour the way in which people are able to respond to learning opportunities.

Adult learners are capable of making informed choices

Activity

What is decision making?What decisions do adults make?

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We expect adults to make decisions and choose between courses of action, so it is natural that we should expect them to do so in relation to learning. This means not just that we can expect adults to make choices about courses or whether or not to take up particular learning opportunities; we should also expect adults to make decisions about what they want to learn and how they want to learn. Sometimes it is hard to get adults to make decisions about their own learning, because of their past experience of learning. Sometimes they make decisions which seem wrong, and that raises questions about who controls adult learning, and how.

Adult learners are capable of taking responsibility

This follows on from the last point. We expect adults to take responsibility for their actions, and we should expect adult learners to take responsibility for their own learning. To encourage this to happen, adults need to become actively involved in the design of learning opportunities.

The last two characteristics are very important for the consideration of motivation. It is clear that nobody will learn unless they are motivated to do so. This can be seen in children in school. It is also true of adults. We need to understand something of what motivates those who undertake learning: why they are doing it, what they hope to gain from it, what impediments to learning they carry with them.

This is particularly important in many training programmes. Many of those involved in training and development programmes will be there because they must be there – it is a requirement of the management – and they may not be well-motivated to learn.

One further aspect of adulthood should be noted. Adults are people who have developed an identity, a sense of who they are and how they relate to others. Their identity has many components, but one important element is related to their own particular combination of experience and ideas. In some learning situations new ideas will be presented which require significant changes in their ways of thinking and acting, and those changes may threaten a person's identity. Threats to our identity are always hard to handle, as they have implications for every aspect of life. This aspect of adulthood alone makes the task of offering learning to adults challenging.

STYLES OF ADULT LEARNING

In this section we look at how to engage people in the processes of learning. As we have seen, we need to pay attention to why people want to learn, what they want to learn, and how they want to learn. In practice we shall then need to compromise between the learners' needs and desires and what it is possible to deliver through particular learning opportunities.

Why people want to learn

Usually adult learners will have a mixture of reasons for wanting to learn, and their reasons may change over the course of a learning programme. We can never assume that we know exactly why people have opted to become adult learners. However, it is useful to group the main reasons for learning in ways that relate to the main psychological theories about adult learning. We do not have space for a detailed discussion of these theories, especially as there are many variants within each of the main streams. Books such as Atkinson et al(1993)and Hill (1997) provide more detail, and the psychology section of any good library orbookshop will provide a range of detailed discussion for those interested. Here we shallindicate only founding figures and broad strands relevant to our particular concerns.

Behaviourist theories of learningSome of our learning comes about as a response to a stimulus. We react to somethingoutside ourselves. If the result is good for us, we learn to react in similar fashion in a similarsituation, while if the result is bad, we learn not to do that again. This is the basic idea of thebehaviourist school of thought, which can be traced back to the work of Pavlov (1927) whotaught dogs to salivate at the sound of a bell; and Skinner (1974) who taught pigeons to playtable tennis through operant conditioning.Behaviouristsconcentrate on modifying behaviour by reinforcement. Behaviour that isseen aspositiveorgoodisreinforced by rewards (your car insurance is reduced if you donot make aclaim),whileunwantedbehaviour is treated to negative reinforcement (you arefined if you are caught speeding).Most people have experienced both positive and negative reinforcement at school, andwe can see that behaviourist learning theories have their strengths. At very least they remind us of the importance of the reactions of a teacher to the work of learners. However, this approach to learning has been criticized as mechanistic and tending to focus only on certain behaviour. There is no idea of the exploration of alternatives, and there is evidence to suggest that reinforcement may need constant topping-up to remain effective.

Cognitivist theories of learning

Activity

Briefly explain the cognitivist theory of learning.

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If some of our learning is reactive, some learning can also be described as proactive. That is, we seek out information and try to make sense of it in order to understand better our world and our place in it. This is the basis of cognitivist theories of learning, which make use of the work of researchers such as Kohler (1925) and Piaget (1950). Kohler worked with apes and Piaget concentrated on child development, but their results have been applied more widely.

For the cognitivist, the key feature of human beings for learning is that we are intelligent seekers. According to cognitivist theories, we constantly find that our experience of the world does not quite fit the way we see the world, and we try to do something about the misfit. We seek new information, we adjust our view of the world, we may create a new way of seeing the world. There are clear connections here with some of the elements we noted earlier in the different stages of the learning process.

As we noted earlier, we do not always adjust our view of the world easily; sometimes we resist change. Piaget (1950) claimed that sometimes we reject change. He developed a three-fold classification of responses to new information, suggesting that we may:

•assimilate

– the new information poses no great challenge to our existing framework of thought and is absorbed;

•accommodate

– the new information does not fit easily into existing frameworks, but can be taken in with some changes;

•reject

– the new information is so different from anything we have already that we cannot take it in without great changes in our framework of thinking, and we are not willing to make the changes.

It is questionable whether Piaget's model, developed from work with children, can be applied directly to adults, who have very complex frameworks of thought and considerable experience of accommodation. Nevertheless, we should note that in a cognitivist view, a person's desire to learn may conflict with a reluctance to change established frameworks. I may want to learn information technology skills, but if I am convinced that I cannot cope with 'clever machines', I will struggle.

Cognitivists, we said, see us as intelligent. To some critics, that should read: cognitivists see us as rational. That is, some critics claim that cognitivist theories are biased towards that learning which involves intentional rational thought, in which we are consciously trying to make logical sense of our ideas and bring order to the world as we see it. However, the world is not very orderly, nor are human beings totally rational. Consequently there are aspects of our learning which do not fit the patterns of cognitivist theory.

A development of cognitivist approaches is personal construct theory, due to Kelly (1955). Kelly suggested that we each create our own model of the world and of other people in it, and our relationship to them. Our constructed picture, he suggested, is shaped as much by feelings, beliefs and values, as by our experience. As a result, we all also create our own, individual, way of learning, which is closely related to our beliefs and values.

Humanist theories of learning

Some of our learning is a response to outside stimulus, some of our learning is an attempt to make sense of our world. Some of our learning is the outcome of a natural potential for learning: we learn because in the right circumstances we cannot help it. This is the key idea of the humanist school of thought, exemplified by the work of Rogers (1974). His perspectives on learning are also mirrored by Galileo who stated that, 'You cannot teach anyone anything. You can only help them discover it for themselves.'

This approach recognizes that humans generally respond to warmth, care and understanding. It claims that all human beings are born with a potential for learning. All human beings can learn, and potentially can learn almost anything. What prevents human beings from learning is a combination of external factors and internal fears, associated with a lack of warmth, care and understanding.

The importance of this approach is that it leads to the idea of learner-centred learning, in which the ‘teacher ’ is seen as a facilitator. Responsibility for learning rests mainly with the learner, while the teacher provides resources and encouragement. In learner-centred learning, the learner sets the pace of learning, and the learner’s existing knowledge and skills are recognized and used positively.

This approach to learning is very affirmative of learners, especially those who come with very low expectations of themselves. The problem the approach presents is that in many learning situations it is not possible to allow individuals to go at their own pace. Nor, generally, can learners be allowed to determine the content of learning: they do not have the knowledge or experience to do so, and there are frequently constraints imposed by demands for specific outcomes of a learning programme. Finally this approach can leave learners blaming themselves, or being blamed by others, for their failure to learn.

We can summarize this section by saying that people want to learn because:

- they are responding to a stimulus (which may be the need to upgrade skills in order to keep a job);
- because they want to improve the fit between their perception of the world and their experience (perhaps they need to understand the organization better to make career progress); and
- because they are encouraged to develop their potential (having left compulsory education at the first opportunity, they realize that they are capable of learning a great deal more).

All these reasons for learning can be found expressed in a variety of ways. For those concerned with adult learning, it is important to be aware that behind the many different stated reasons for wanting to learn there lie these different views of human beings and their learning capacities and behaviour. Providers of training and development need to draw on all these theories in order to understand the task before them.

What people want to learn

We engage in learning to acquire skills and knowledge. However, there are several kinds of skills and several forms of knowledge, and the ways in which we learn skills and knowledge reflect this variety.

It is useful first to make a broad distinction between generic knowledge or skills and domain-specific knowledge or skills. Generic knowledge and skills can be used in a variety of situations. The ability to manipulate things with your fingers is a generic skill with applications in feeding and dressing as well as using tools or turning the pages of a book. Knowing that some materials are impervious to water is generic knowledge that has applications in house building and drainage as well as choosing your waterproofs for the rainy season. Domain-specific knowledge and skills relate to particular areas or domains of our experience. The ability to drive a car is a skill specific to road transport: someone who can drive a car may also be able to drive a bus or truck, but will not automatically be able to steer a boat or fly an aeroplane. Knowledge of the attributes of the particles that make up an atom is domain-specific: it is unlikely to be of use outside specialized fields of particle physics or chemistry.

The significance of this distinction for our purposes lies in the part of the learning process that we called assimilation. Someone who is already knowledgeable or skilful in a specific domain is likely to find it easier to assimilate further knowledge or skills within the same domain, simply because there is already a framework of thought to which to relate the new information. On the other hand, someone who is new to a specific domain may struggle to learn until a suitable framework is established. It is worth noting that expertise in one domain does not guarantee expertise in another, nor does expertise in one domain assure us that learning in a new domain will be quick or easy.

With generic skills and knowledge, we usually find that we learn them once and can then apply them again and again. We may, however, be able to refine our generic knowledge and skills by reflection on our use of them (recall Kolb's learning cycle).

As well as the distinction between generic and domain-specific knowledge and skills, it is worth noting the differences in the types of skills and knowledge we acquire. The best known way of listing these types is Bloom's taxonomy (Bloom

et al,

1956). Bloom classified

skills under three domains: cognitive, psychomotor and affective.

Bloom

et al

's taxonomy of learning

• 'Cognitive' covers knowledge-related skills, knowledge, comprehension, application, analysis, synthesis, and evaluation in ascending order of complexity.

• 'Psychomotor' covers motor skills in the form of abilities, techniques and competences.

• 'Affective' covers feelings and attitudes and activities such as responding, valuing and judging. Krathwold

et al

(1964) identified these as: receiving, responding, valuing,
organization and characterization by a value or value complex.

This taxonomy, and other ways of differentiating the skills we learn, are important because they remind us that different skills may be most efficiently learnt in different ways. If we wish to develop psychomotor skills, say the skill of knocking a nail in straight, we may learn best by following the example of an expert and practising until we can do it. If we wish to learn about the political system of a particular country, we may do so most efficiently by reading a book written by an expert.

There are other ways of classifying learning skills and knowledge, such as those of Gagné (1967), and Gardner (1984) who proposed seven forms of intelligence:

1. linguistic;
2. logical/mathematical/scientific;
3. visual/spatial;
4. musical;
5. bodily/physical/kinaesthetic;
6. interpersonal;
7. intra-personal.

No one classification is universally accepted. Whichever classification appeals most to us, we should always remember that they are guides only, and that no classification, however complex, can take account of all the differences we find in adults.

Bloom's taxonomy leads us on to consider how people want to learn. We have noticed that different forms of skill or knowledge may be most efficiently learnt in different ways.

However, our concern is with adults learning, and research suggests that adults have their own preferred learning styles, which cut across some of the distinctions made above.
A classification of learning strategies is offered by Honey and Mumford (1986) which is based on the work of Kolb. They isolated four styles of learning:

•activist

– the style of those who learn by doing things, intentionally or unintentionally;

•pragmatist

– the style of those who learn by deliberate experimentation;

•theorist

– the style of those who learn by analysing information and developing models to help them understand;

•reflector

– the style of those who try to stand back and view events from several angles.

It is important to note that most of us use more than one style, without realizing that we are doing so. However, it is claimed that everyone has one or two preferred styles, and it is in using those preferred styles that we learn most efficiently. This is partly because in using our own preferred styles we are doing something with which we feel comfortable; and partly because constant use of one or two styles helps to make us both more comfortable with them and more expert in applying them, thus increasing our potential for learning in these ways.

WHY, WHAT,HOW AND PRACTICE

Our discussion of why people want to learn, what they want to learn and how they want to learn has been very sketchy. Its purpose is to remind us that adults who take up programmes of training or development come with their own ideas about learning, based on past experience, and those ideas have a significant effect on the efficiency with which they learn.

Some of the ideas people have act as barriers to learning, making learning not just ineffi cient but difficult, perhaps even almost impossible.

ADULT LEARNING

Learning can be interpreted in three ways:

• To get to know: for example, I learnt last week that certain government White Papers are now published on the Internet.

• To learn as in to memorize or learn by heart, as those of us who are old enough learnt our multiplication tables at school.

• Learning as change, which can be either reinforcement or alteration of certain ideas or behaviour.

It is this last meaning which is what is usually meant by learning in the sense of education or training and which is the focus of the theories of learning developed and discussed in this chapter.

Learning can be either active or passive. The traditional approach to learning was, by and large, based on passive learning, where the teacher is seen as the expert and fount of all knowledge and the pupil is seen as the recipient of that expertise – what Bowles and Gintis (1976), in a different setting, call the 'mug and jug' theory. The student is the mug – an empty vessel, receiving the knowledge from the teacher – the jugful of knowledge, which is given to the student to fill the deficit.

Many recent theorists of learning though, and particularly those of the humanist school, suggest that people cannot learn simply by being given information – the old saying of 'You can take a horse to water but you cannot make it drink' is central to this argument. The student must have active involvement in the process, either mentally or physically or both, and a desire for knowledge, for learning to occur. To return to the horse metaphor – if the horse is thirsty it will drink, and if it drinks, its thirst will be quenched. The water alone cannot do the job.

One of the long-standing distinctions has of course been between practical skills and knowledge, though obviously the division is not as clear-cut as this dichotomy would imply. Certainly, in a modern society, few practical skills do not engage knowledge and understanding in their learning. Gagné (1972) suggested five types (or domains) of learning and Rogers (1996:79) has built on this, making clear links between knowledge and skills:

1. We may learn new
knowledge
as we collect information that is largely memorized.
2. Such knowledge may be held uncomprehendingly. We thus need to learn to relate our new material in ways that lead to new
understanding,
that process of organizing and
reorganizing knowledge to create new patterns of relationships.
3. We may learn new skills
or develop existing skills further; not just physical skills, our
ability to do certain things, but also skills of thinking and of learning, skills of coping and solving problems and survival strategies.
4. Further, since we can learn new knowledge, new understanding and new skills without necessarily changing our attitudes, the learning of
attitudes is a distinct sphere of learning.
5. Finally, it is possible for learning changes to be brought about in all four of these areas without accompanying alterations in our way of life, our pattern of behaviour. It is therefore necessary to learn to apply our newly learned material to what we do and how we live, to carry out our new learning into changed ways of behaving: what some people would call to learn 'wisdom', in short.

MOTIVATIONAND LEARNING

Activity

What is motivation and what is its relation with learning?

It is generally supposed that adult learners come voluntarily into learning situations and because of this, they will be well motivated. This is not always the case of course, particu larly in organizational training situations where there may be an element of compulsion. Motivation then can be both internal and external. Internal motivation comes from the drive within the individual to gain knowledge or a skill. One must remember of course that this internal drive may well have been influenced by external factors. In my recent research on mature women returners to education (Parr, 1991, 1996) the data revealed a determi nation by the students to develop new areas of identity which they had some control in shaping. This was influenced greatly by external factors, such as childhood abuse, restrictive and controlling parents, abusive partners, painful divorce and so on.

ANDRAGOGY

Activity
What is andragogy? Is there any difference between andragogy and pedagogy?

Knowles (1996) maintains that most of what we know about learning has come from studying children and animals. This has been termed 'pedagogy', which literally translated means 'leading the child', but has come to mean the art and science of teaching the child.

This approach, he maintains, ignores the wealth of experience which adults bring to their learning. He built on and took forward the thinking on 'andragogy' – the art and science of teaching adults, since he felt that our approach to teaching adults should be substantially different from that of teaching children. Adults, he maintains, bring substantially more

experience to the learning arena than children:
These differences in experience between children and adults have at least three consequences for learning:

1. Adults have more to contribute to the learning of others; for most kinds of learning, they are themselves a rich resource for learning.
2. Adults have a richer foundation of experience to which to relate new experiences (and new learnings tend to take on meaning as we are able to relate them to our past experience).
3. Adults have acquired a larger number of fixed habits and patterns of thought, and therefore tend to be less open-minded. (Knowles, 1996:89–90)

Andragogy is a distinct shift away from ‘teaching’ to participatory learning in groups, drawing on adult experiences as a resource. This again has implications for the teacher/trainer in that it is necessary to create an environment in which the adult feels safe to perform. It is also necessary for those of us who work with adults to recognize adults’ insecurity in being expected to contribute and participate, rather than being told ‘the right answer’. There are also issues here for the learners who may have to ‘unlearn’ some learned behaviour from childhood when experiences may have been negative.
Adult needs from training and education are also different in that there is more immediacy and perceived (or expected) relevance to their everyday lives than there is with children, whether this is voluntary participation or that enforced by a training programme at work. The centrality of the learners, and the recognition of the personal agenda they bring to the learning arena, which is a central tenet of andragogy, clearly has some of its roots in humanist theories of learning, which also focus on the learner rather than on the teacher/trainer.

BARRIERS TO LEARNING

Adults may also bring with them considerable personal issue into the learning setting which may act as barriers to and constraints on their learning. There is a considerable liter ature that indicates that some adults do meet these barriers to learning, whether that learning is full-time or part-time, vocational or non-vocational, academic or practical, for a wide variety of reasons.

Both recent and current research indicates that many of these issues exist for students who have returned to learning after a number of years out of the system, regardless of the course they are taking and whether they are full-time or part-time. These barriers may be grouped under five broad headings: psychological, practical, economic, institutional and relationship issues.

Psychological issues

These include the feeling of being too old to learn; of not being bright enough, or the re-emergence of negative feelings from compulsory schooling doubting ones my ability.

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Practical issues

Concerns mentioned by the respondents in research included travel and domestic and caring responsibilities.

Institutional barriers

Institutional barriers are those concerned with timetabling, choice of courses, availability of information and so on. Timetabling of both training and education is an important issue for many people.

Financial concerns

The extent to which finance was a problem varied according to the social circumstances and the age of the student. This was dealt with in a variety of ways including choice of course, grants, claiming state benefits and both part-time and full-time work.

One would expect finance to be less of a problem for those students who were working full time. However, while some organizations paid for training and education as part of their staff development programme and gave extra help with travel, books and so on, others did not, and some of the students on the distance learning Master's course had to pay their own fees and meet their own expenses, thus creating a considerable inequity. There is need for serious consideration here when planning and delivering both education and training courses in which all students are assessed using the same criteria.

Personal and social factors

Personal and social influences include relationships with partners, children, relatives and friends. These varied according to the demands of the programme undertaken and the

number and type of other commitments. The stresses on relationships with family and friends are implicit in the discussion above on domestic and caring responsibilities.
For many adult students the return to further or higher education represents an obstacle course of Grand National proportions. Self-confidence has to be developed, writing skills polished up or acquired, academic language demystified and personal and family relations reordered.Clearly, as trainers/educators, we need not only to take on board the learning needs of theadults with whom we are working, we also need to acknowledge the social and environ-mental factors which impact on their learning.

Activity

To what extent the above factors affect adults in your surrounding?

Evaluation and Assessment

Activity

What is evaluation?What is its role in learning?

Methods of evaluation and assessment can offer us the overview of being able to measure the unmeasurable behavior of human experience. They can help us make judgements within hierarchical frameworks about how well or not we are doing by comparison with others. They can help us give an account of our own and others' contributions to particular projects and ventures. They can give us some insight into our own growth, progress and development. By and large we devise and seek them in order to exert some kind of rigorous control in an unpredictable and uncertain world.

What kind of control and the how, why, where, when and with whom, are guided in the first instance by the concept at the heart of the term evaluation – to value.

We have to be specifically concerned with the value or worth of those changes that take place through the process of learning. More precisely still, it focuses on learning that is related to employment, the workplace, continuing employability and professional development.

Because values are at the heart of evaluation and of assessment, they are activities that may attract controversy and disagreement, particularly where there are underlying conflicts of interest in the world of work. Methods of evaluation and assessment are therefore sometimes deployed to help stakeholders make better decisions. They are also deployed to justify decisions or courses of action already taken (Pawson and Tilley, 1997:xii).

Most of us are surrounded by evaluation and assessment in every area of our lives. Our children are tested for achievement and progress and schools are publicly accountable for how 'well' their pupils perform. The extent to which different schools can genuinely be compared with one another through these mechanisms, and the cost to the self-esteem of children and staff being judged by such criteria.

There are staff recruitment assessment processes that act as gate-keeping mechanisms, restricting entry into a particular workplace or profession. This can have the effect of protecting the public from poor practitioners. But it can also prohibit entry by members of diverse groups that differ from the incumbents, with the resultant loss of new and important contributions to the workplace. So staff recruiters in large organizations monitor the effectiveness of equal opportunity policies by evaluating data collected from inter viewees.

The term ‘evaluation’ tends to be employed to encompass all activities undertaken to help educators, trainers and learners decide what aspect of teaching and learning design and methodology worked and what did not, what should be kept and what changed. This is to arrive at a judgement about the intrinsic value and worthwhileness of an approach to learning. Those aiming at greater precision might employ the term and techniques of ‘vali dation’. Tools of validation attempt to measure accurately whether specific learning objec tives or prescribed outcomes have definitely been achieved or not (Newby, 1992). An example of a this would be the appropriate design of a multiple choice test in which partic ipants on a health and safety course have to record the correct sequences of a number of essential actions and procedures. With both of these terms it is the learning event, process or intervention which is under scrutiny rather than the learners themselves. The design of the test itself can be ‘measured’ or judged by comparison with others of a similar nature and with close reference to the original objectives.

The term ‘assessment’ by contrast tends to be employed to encompass activities that help decide what the individual learner has learnt. The emphasis here is on that individual’s capacity and ability rather than the means by which he or she achieved the learning. Terms such as ‘test’ and ‘measurement’ here apply to the learner’s demonstration of acquired learning.

The assessment of work-related learning and worker ability (competence and performance) is under intense scrutiny due to a number of developments. The two most influential of these are the rapid growth of and access to information technology and the quality assurance movement. Staff appraisal is increasingly, though not systematically, being linked to the evaluation of the effectiveness of staff development and the assessment of individual learning in the workplace as organizations attempt to negotiate the boundaries between employer’s and employees’ responsibility for individuals’ contribution to the viability and competitiveness of the workplace.

Accreditation and certification of learning either in the workplace, as with National

Vocational Qualifications, through professional bodies representing sector-wide interests, or by academic institutions continues to proliferate, as employees demand external evidence of transferable skills in a marketplace where they will want or be required to change jobs and/or careers much more frequently. 'Accreditation' literally refers to the attribution of publicly recognized units of credit for attainment of a particular course of study, or demonstration of evidence of achievement or ability. 'Certification' refers to the awarding of a named certificate, usually representing a number of units of credit.
The processes of accreditation and certification of learning or competence are also in turn submitted to the further processes of quality assurance and standardization. So internal or external examiners and verifiers are trained and appointed to moderate and verify assessment and examination procedures. The purpose of moderation is to ensure parity between assessed candidates, especially where different assessors are involved whose interpretation of set assessment criteria may differ. The purpose of verification is to ensure that the criteria for assessment are being appropriately applied to the assessment process.
The evaluative and assessment processes above are by and large predicated on negotia tions between individuals in organizations in the context of broad organizational policies and procedures such as boards of examination or staff appraisal policies. There is also a tradition of alternative approaches to evaluation and assessment which are based around the notion that the groups within which an individual works and is learning are influential in that learning process and therefore responsibility for learning, achievement and success should be located at group rather than individual level. Team work, collaborative evalu ation, peer and group assessment and review, all stem from this perspective that assessing the individual in isolation from the group misses essential aspects of the broader issues affecting workplace learning and competitiveness.

CONTEMPORARY APPROACHES TO EVALUATION

The specific purpose you have in evaluating a training intervention will influence your choice of method and approach. The effectiveness of that choice will be determined by the appropriateness of the approach and methods, how well it is carried out, what other stake-holders contribute to or detract from the process and, of course, what is being evaluated.

Your purpose may be to gauge the impact of training on learners' understanding, behaviour or attitudes (Bloom, 1964) as they affect their workplace performance. It may be to justify the cost of the training staff salaries and budget. It may be to stimulate creative thinking and problem-solving in a turbulent or stagnating environment. It may be to look at links between staff development and organizational effectiveness or profitability, employee satisfaction or organizational survival.

Here evaluation is conceived in parallel with training needs analysis and design. It is not something that is tacked on to the end of the process as an afterthought.

Kirkpatrick (1994) suggests four levels of training evaluation is probably still widely used both in research into training effectiveness and in

Level 1: What is the initial reaction of participants to the training?
(This is often elicited from oral discussions and feedback checklists at the end of specific events.)
Level 2: What have participants actually learnt from the training?
(This is often not measured at all. When it is, it can be through tests, contributions to portfolios, more detailed oral or written feedback.)
Level 3: Are participants behaving differently as a result of the training?
(Assessment through observation is sometimes used to determine this. It can be notoriously prone to bias and difficult, though not impossible, to verify.)
Level 4: Has the training of these participants had the desired result in the workplace?
(Measures here are considered the hardest to apply or to attribute specifically to the training.)

The longer it takes to evaluate any aspect of a training course and track its link to work place performance the more unrelated factors may intervene (Parry, 1997:4). There may, for instance, be aspects of organizational policy and practice where it is vital that the effec tiveness of training is evaluated, for the well being of staff. Nevertheless, the possibilities of undertaking this effectively may vary enormously. A nuclear processing plant may require safety checks to be understood by all staff and rigorously applied. In this instance it would be conceivable to pre-test, train, and re-test levels of employee knowledge in relation to fixed procedures.

One could also test for retention of learning after a certain period of time. This could give very accurate indicators of the effectiveness of training at individual level with additional information regarding the impact on the organization (not to mention the world at large!) gleaned from comparative accident and incident statistics. One then also has to take into account the additional effect of raised awareness on those statistics. Actual numbers of incidents may have gone down, while reported incidents go up due to increased awareness and sense of responsibility. There may be no accurate way of gauging the real figures. But

this does not mean it is not worth trying. It depends what is at stake and how much is invested in the desired 'outcomes'.

Equally important for this imaginary nuclear processing plant might be the requirement to monitor the effectiveness of anti-discrimination at work training. The pre-testing and re-testing of attitudes and behaviours could still prove worthwhile indicators of change and progress. The numbers of people from diverse groups represented at senior management level, or the number of harassment incidents reported might offer some indication of effectiveness of training at organizational level. But over what period of time might one expect to have to monitor change before it could have been deemed to have taken place or not? The effect of other factors and variables might be even less easy to identify and monitor, though again this does not mean one decides to abandon evaluation. It means one takes care to make tentative or modest claims unless one has clear evidence.

At whichever level you are evaluating there are always basic questions you need to ask:

- Why are you undertaking the evaluation?
- Who are the stakeholders?
- How will you gather information?
- Who will have access to it?
- How will it be analysed?
- How will it be used and why?
- Is there a pre-designed or standard instrument available? (This may be particularly relevant for computer-based training.)

• Have you got the time and resources to pilot your methods?

• Can you anticipate the time and resources needed to complete the evaluation?

• How accurate does the information need to be, and if very accurate, how are you going to deal with error and bias?

• When, how often and over what period of time will it be undertaken?

You then need to look at the types of evaluative method or instrument you think are most suitable or available. They may well include:

• personal inventories;

• attitudinal diagnostic questionnaires;

• factual written tests;

• observations of practice or of interpersonal skill;

• group brainstorming or analysis;

• focus groups;

• observation of work performance;

• analysis of documentation according to pre-defined or open criteria;

• portfolios of evidence;

• individual or group interviews.

EVALUATIONOF TRAINING USING THE FOCUS GROUP METHOD,

Formats for evaluations at this level can vary from open oral discussion, to individual conversation, from a simple blank sheet to a list of topics. Sometimes negotiation of criteria for feedback takes place at the beginning of a learning event, enhancing ownership of the whole process. Sometimes organizers have particular data they are required to collect which relate to organizational policy. Common criteria include:

•content

– level, relevance, interest, quality, quantity;

•style

– pace, format, accessibility of language, flexibility, inter-activity;

•media

– readability, variety, clarity, user-friendly, familiar or innovative, stimulating;

•personnel

– motivation, presentation, commitment, professionalism;

•location

– comfort, fit-for-purpose, refreshments, access, facilities;

•timing

– in relation to external and internal events.

And finally – congruence of all the above with the overall aims and objectives.

Evaluating cognitive learning from training

Activity

How can you evaluate cognitive learning outcomes?

It is generally acknowledged that a high percentage of activities designed to train people are not subsequently followed by a specific evaluation of what participants have learnt. The extent to which people know more or better, or the extent to which attitudes have changed is often only traced through occasional anecdotal evidence. Indeed the interface between the evaluation of effective training and the assessment of individual learning is always problematic. Stating the obvious, it is easier to test simpler learning objectives, for example, the acquisition of procedures for using a new piece of IT software. On the other hand, the extent to which someone understands what becoming anti-racist or a more flexible manager of people means is much harder to test with that kind of certainty, because we have intrinsic problems agreeing definitions of these things in the first place.

Evaluating changes in practice and behaviour after training

Activity

How can we evaluate changes in practice as a result of training?

Where we are talking about the acquisition of new skills that are demonstrated and then tried out in training, learners require time and the appropriate occasion to practise new learning over a period of time before new skills can become habitual. Paramedics are much more likely to retain first aid training
because they get lots of opportunities to practise it, than is a college lecturer doing a three-hour workshop on first aid to fulfil basic college requirements. Methods associated with evaluating behaviour change are mainly based on observation either in a simulated environment or in the workplace itself.
In order to evaluate the changes in behaviour of a person we need to assess the trainee against certain specific measures. These behavioural measures require careful specification and writing. Mager's (1991) informative advice on preparing instructional objectives is strongly recommended.

Evaluating how an organization benefits from training
Activity
What is the benefit of training for an organization?

One of the current trends in organizational evaluation of training is the desire to measure 'return on investment' (ROI). This has become highly relevant in some sectors where budgets and sponsorship are increasingly competitive, and where one has to justify expen diture or devise strategic plans at operational level. There are those who have attempted to devise ways of predicting the monetary value of training, that is to say, the extent to which training can enhance profitability, increase productivity, develop new markets or create business opportunities (Phillips, 1994a).
While acknowledging that 'the relationship of input to output almost never can be estab lished without considerable effort' (Phillips, 1994a:3), the point here is to attain a level of confidence in what can be attributed to whatever, to an extent, will satisfy senior

management, sponsors, or in the instance cited above, students/customers. Phillips attributes the increased pressure to demonstrate ROI in the USA, at least, to the emergence and convergence of five factors. These are the increase in training and development budgets; the linking of HRD to competitive business strategies; the perception of HRD as critical to total quality management; the need for ROI information by senior executives and the general trend towards accountability.

Once again, the biggest issue at stake in attempting to measure ROI of training is the level of accuracy of that measurement. One has to judge whether the extra time and rigour taken to produce criteria for valid and reliable data, to gather data and analyse it according to those criteria, and to communicate and disseminate the results, will achieve more than approximations and estimates. However, the work that Phillips has done and the number of case studies he cites are worthy of further study for anyone wishing to investigate his specific techniques and formulae in greater detail. Note also that organizational change has itself become so continual that any data thus analysed may be of more use in justifying past investment than it can be in predicting and forward planning. For those with the resources and a certain level of organizational stability, they are well worth investigating.

The easier it is to gather evaluation data, particularly at the individual reactive level, the more often we tend to do it, and the less likely it is to be seriously convincing or powerful. Conversely, the harder it is to gather evaluative data, particularly at the level of organizational effectiveness, the less we tend to do it and the more valuable and powerful it is for us when we do.

CONTEMPORARY APPROACHES TO ASSESSMENT

Contemporary approaches to the assessment of individuals' learning and of workplace performance have been influenced by two essentially countervailing philosophies. The first is the competences movement and the second the concept of continuing (professional) development, now increasingly being called lifelong learning. The key difference between them relates to the locus of control, responsibility and accountability around what it is considered important to know (or for some, what knowledge is), and what it is considered important to be able to apply effectively in the workplace. This of course raises the controversial question: effective for whom?

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Part of the controversy includes different perceptions and conflicts of interest around the notion of standards, both of education and training provision and of workplace performance.

Whether assessment is related to a certificated and accredited qualification or local workplace performance criteria, there are perennial dilemmas associated with any assessment process. These include:

• the assessor as advocate for the person being assessed;
• anxiety about the implications of failure;
• leniency or strictness in the application of criteria;
• interpretations of criteria;
• rigid adherence to 'objective' criteria undermining creativity and originality;
• the assessor as gatekeeper for entry into a professional body or academic community;
• consistency between assessors;
• consistency of assessment over a period of time;
• consistency of assessment in different locations and between different cohorts;
• the impact of the environment and context of assessment – the notion of the 'competent workplace';
• the 'halo' effect of the previous performance of the assessed person or of their power position in the profession or organization;
• the ownership of learning and of assessment.

These and associated concerns have led to various assessment approaches designed to overcome the worst defects. None of these ultimately remains unchallengable.

Formative and summative assessment

Concerns about the role of assessment either in enhancing or inhibiting learning has led to a distinction between formative and summative assessment. The former offers feedback to the learner while their programme or period of learning is still taking place so that they can act on and improve their performance. The latter marks the arrival (or not) at a specific stage or level of learning which the learner is deemed to have reached. At its simplest, formative assessment would include the assessor 's detailed and overall comments on a piece of written work that the learner can use to either improve that piece or the next one. An example of a summative assessment would be the grade given for the final piece of work, or the percentage achieved in an exam.

Norm-referencing and criteria-referencing

Activity

What is your view on Norm-referencing and criteria-referencing?

Norm-referencing entails the comparing and contrasting of standards reached by any one group of students being assessed during the same period, sometimes called benchmarking. Consistency is apparently achieved by organizing results around clusters of grades or percentages, eg a certain percentage of grade A passes. It is criticized for not taking into account different levels of ability and achievement between groups.

Criteria-referenced assessment aims at the production of set criteria to which assessors are meant to adhere, offering greater consistency within and between groups. In practice even when these are conscientiously used, it is claimed that benchmarking is still in operation and that criteria are subconsciously weighted by assessors according to their educational background, personal experience and preferences. The other problem with criteria is that over time, knowledge in and across disciplines grows and criteria may need to be constantly updated to account for this, thus undermining any claims for consistency or universal standards.

Self- and peer-assessment

Activity

What is the relevance of self and peer assement?

Arguments in favour of self-assessment are made on two main counts. The first is that self-assessment approaches encourage individual responsibility for and commitment to learning to a much greater degree. Hence learning is deeper, richer and more relevant for the individual. The second relates to who is best placed to judge what learning has taken

place and how authority is invested in them. Is it through positional power only, within the assessing organization; is it through their external credibility; their actual knowledge and understanding of the learner or 'body of knowledge' in the subject being assessed?
Obvious criticisms of self-assessment include the degree to which learners will be too hard or too soft on themselves in relation to their own perception of the standard required. Also problematic can be the learners' ability to locate their achieved understanding within a much broader spectrum of knowledge.
Peer-assessment helps to deal with some of these dilemmas by the moderating effect that several different perspectives will bring to that of the individual. This can also be beneficial where ownership of and motivation for learning are vested within a group of learners, as in the focus group in the case study above, especially when the learners also share the same status in relation to the process and the task of assessment. However, other factors influencing group dynamics, including power games and 'trade-offs' can create equal if different problems for fair and equitable assessment processes.
Competence-based assessment

Activity
What is the advantage and disadvantage of competence based assessment?

The assessors in competence-based assessment will either be their own workplace supervisor, where they have one, or an equivalent person from another workplace. The advantages of the former are that assessment formally or informally already forms part and parcel of the normal supervisory and management functions within organizations. A supervisor should have an in-depth knowledge of a person's work performance and be best placed to ensure that appropriate evidence is gathered. The disadvantages are that personal bias, or knowledge of the person unrelated to what is being assessed will result in the misuse of power and position in relation to the assessment.

Another of the great strengths of the competency approach is also its greatest drawback. Taking time to gather evidence of different and corroborating kinds can result in deeper learning if the candidate evidently needs to learn aspects of the job in order to demonstrate competence, and is afforded the time to do this well. It can strengthen the case for a candidate's competence and result in the production of a portfolio of evidence which is far

more meaningful than a piece of 'writing about' produced via an exam or test. However, the gathering of such evidence and its assessment have become notoriously time-consuming. There are huge problems around the availability of opportunities to demonstrate some of the competences required to complete a qualification. The number of obstacles to successful completion can lead to corner-cutting, and a corruption of the assessment process. There is also the potential for assessors to collude with candidates over incomplete areas of evidence in order to finalize an otherwise seemingly endless process (Smithers, 1993).

Human Resource Development

Development occurs when a gain in experience is effectively combined with the conceptual understanding that can illuminate it, giving increased confidence both to act and to perceive how such action relates to its context. (Bolton, 1995:15)

It can be seen from the definitions that development indicates movement to an improved situation that for the individual means advancing towards the physical and mental potential we all possess. In many respects development indicates growth and movement by the learner rather than learning itself, which we will consider next.

Handy (1990:63) considered learning as being a natural response to coping with change and stated that, ‘I am more and more sure that those who are in love with learning are in love with life. For them change is never a problem, never a threat, just another exciting opportunity.’

Learning can occur in formal settings such as a university or organizational training centres but it can also occur less formally. Nadler and Nadler(1990) distinguished between what he called ‘incidental’ learning and ‘intentional learning’. Incidental learning is considered to be learning which occurs during the course of doing other things such as reading, talking with others, travelling, etc.

Learning and possessing a knowledge of something is one thing but applying the learning is yet another; thus, learning has limited value unless it is put into practice. Nadler (Nadler and Nadler, 1990:1.5) drew attention to the fact that learning is not guaranteed and that it is only the possibility of learning which may happen. He emphasized that:

HRD cannot and should not promise that as a result of the learning experience performance will change. This might sound like a radical statement until we look at the false promises that some in HRD have made.

Nadler maintained that performance is based on a variety of factors and the majority of these are not the responsibility of those who work in the HRD department. This pragmatic view of the application of learning does not only relate to the recent demands of organizational objectives, it can also apply in a philosophical sense. The Victorian philosopher and naturalist, John Ruskin, remarked that, ‘What we know, or what we believe, or what we think, is in the end of little consequence. The only consequence is what we do.’

The term ‘Human Resource Development’ was introduced to the 1969 Miami Conference of the American Society of Training and Development (ASTD) by Leonard Nadler and he subsequently provided a definition in 1970. Nadler (Nadler and Nadler, 1990) emphasized that there had been a significant number of people entering the HRD field and, therefore, they deserved to have a definition of the subject. At the same time he maintained that good HRD specialists see an input into most of the operational areas and therefore delimiting the field can also have adverse consequences for the profession.

The recognition that HRD fed into most organizational areas was also noted by Galagan (1986:4) who described it as:

an omnivorous discipline, incorporating over the years almost any theory or practice that would serve the goal of learning in the context of work. Like an amoeba, it has ingested and taken nourishment from whatever it deemed expedient in the social and behavioural sciences, in learning theory and business.

Accurately defining HRD can be problematic particularly if an international perspective is taken because its interpretation and roles tend to vary from one country to another (Hansen and Brooks, 1994). Furthermore, following research among the delegates at an international conference, Jones and Mann (1992:xiv) commented that, 'there was a strong insistence that HRD does not equal training.'

If HRD is about learning and that learning is something which occurs within an individual to cause development then, 'The East, with its grace and wisdom, calls this flux "a becoming" and "an unfolding"; the West, with its systems and structures, names it "human resource development"'. Ortigas (1994:xii)

In observing the debate about HRD, Jacobs (1990:66) drew parallels with other disciplines and stated:

HRD is both an area of professional practice and an emerging interdisciplinary body of knowledge. The inter-relatedness of these two aspects makes HRD similar to most other applied professions, most of which have emerged to meet some important social or organisational need. After practice is established, the need arises to formalise the knowledge gained in practice into some logical structure. Such activity helps legitimise the profession and increases the reliability of practice.

Frank (1988) investigated the theoretical base of HRD in order to distinguish it from other fields and identified three assumptions on which it is based:

1. HRD is based on the research and theories drawn from the field of adult

ations incorporate information about the training
attended and other development activities with which a person may have been
involved.

HRD ROLES

Activity

What are the roles played by HRD?

Chalofsky (1992) suggested that the core of the HRD profession should reflect what was essentially HRD in order to separate it from other professions. He said that this core should contain the philosophy, mission, theories, concepts, roles and competences. We have considered the philosophy, mission, theories, and concepts, and will now address HRD roles and subsequently HRD competences.

Arising from the research conducted on behalf of the American Society for Training and Development, McLagan and Suhadolnik (1989:20) identified 11 roles that indicate many of the dimensions carried out by HRD professionals. These are:

1. Researcher
2. Marketer
3. Organizational Change Agent
4. Needs Analyst
5. Programme Designer
6. HRD Materials Developer
7. Instructor/Facilitator
8. Individual Career Development Advisor
9. Administrator
10. Evaluator
11. HRD Manager.

Competencies and HRD

The ASTD research of McLagan and Suhadolnik also identified 35 areas of competence for those involved with HRD:

Technical Competencies

Training and Development

1. Adult Learning Understanding
2. Career Development Theories and Techniques Understanding
3. Competency Identification Skill
4. Computer Competence
5. Electronic Systems Skill
6. Facilities Skill
7. Objectives Preparation Skill
8. Performance Observation Skill
9. Subject Matter Understanding
10. Training and Development Theories and Techniques Understanding
11. Research Skill

Business Competencies

12. Business Understanding
13. Cost-benefit Analysis Skill
14. Delegation Skill
15. Industry Understanding
16. Organizational Behaviour Understanding
17. Organizational Development Theories and Techniques Understanding
18. Organization Understanding
19. Project Management Skill
20. Records Management Skill

Interpersonal Competencies

21. Coaching Skill
22. Feedback Skill
23. Group Process Skill
24. Negotiation Skill
25. Presentation Skill
26. Questioning Skill
27. Relationship Building Skill
28. Writing Skill

Intellectual Competencies

29. Data Reduction Skill
30. Information Search Skill
31. Intellectual Versatility
32. Model Building Skill
33. Observing Skill
34. Self-knowledge
35. Visioning Skill

Topics of Employee Training

Employee training is always based on gaps identified during performing a certain activity depending on the type of the work and the individuals.. Some of the ideas may include the following:

1.Communications: The increasing diversity of today's workforce brings a wide variety of languages and customs.

1. Computer skills: Computer skills are becoming a necessity for conducting administrative and office tasks.

2. Customer service: Increased completion in today's global marketplace makes it critical that employees understand and meet the needs of customers.

3. Diversity: Diversity training usually includes explanation about how people have different perspectives and views, and includes techniques to value diversity

4. Ethics: Today's society has increasing expectations about corporate social responsibility. Also, today's diverse workforce brings a wide variety of values and morals to the workplace.

5. Human relations: The increased stresses of today's workplace can include misunderstandings and conflict. Training can people to get along in the workplace.

6. Quality initiatives: Initiatives such as Total Quality Management, Quality circles, benchmarking, etc., require basic training about quality concepts, guidelines and standards for quality, etc.

7. Safety: Safety training is critical where working with heavy equipment, hazardous chemicals, repetitive activities, etc., but can also be useful with practical advice for avoiding assaults, etc.

8. Sexual harassment: Sexual harassment training usually includes careful description of the organization's policies about sexual harassment, especially about what are inappropriate behaviors.

Basic Requirements of Supervisors with Employees in Training and Development

The following are the major requirements of supervisors.

i) Include Learners in Training and Development Planning

The learner will get the most out of the plan is he or she feels strong ownership in the plan. Ownership comes from taking part in developing the plan. Also, professional development rarely includes only gaining knowledge and skills about a job role. Professional development often includes self-development, as well, e.g., admitting one's limits and capabilities. Learners are often the best experts at realizing their own needs for self-development. Therefore, learners should be involved in as much as possible in developing the plan.

ii) If available, have Human Resources Representative Play Major Role

A trained human resources professional can be a major benefit in employee development. The representative usually has a good understanding of the dynamics of training and development. The representative often has strong working knowledge of the relevant policies and procedures related to training and development. In addition, the representative can be an impartial confidant for the learner.

iii) Provide Ongoing Feedback and Support

Even if things seem to be going fine, be sure to stop in and visit the learner on a regular basis. Some learners may not feel comfortable asking for help. Supervisors should provide any feedback, that is, timely and useful information for the learner. Provide ongoing affirmation and support.

iv) When Assessing Results of Employee's Learning, Maximize Feedback About

Performance

Consider getting feedback from the learner's peers and subordinates about the learner's needs and progress to meet those needs. A 360-degree performance review is a powerful practice when carried out with clarity and discretion. When first carried out, it may be wise to get the help of an outside professional.

v) Budget Necessary Funds for Resources Learner Will Need

Funds may be required, e.g., for course tuition and materials, self-study materials, videos, training fees, labor to attend courses, etc.

vi) Supervisor and Learner Should Set Aside Regular Times for Meetings

Scheduling meetings beforehand makes it much more likely that regular, ongoing feedback will occur between the supervisor and learner.

Purpose of Training and Development

Reasons for emphasizing the growth and development of personnel include

- Creating a pool of readily available and adequate replacements for personnel who may leave or move up in the organization.
- Enhancing the company's ability to adopt and use advances in technology because of a sufficiently knowledgeable staff.
- Building a more efficient, effective and highly motivated team, which enhances the company's competitive position and improves employee morale.
- Ensuring adequate human resources for expansion into new programs.

Research has shown specific benefits that a small business receives from training and developing its workers, including:

- Increased productivity.
- Reduced employee turnover.
- Increased efficiency resulting in financial gains.
- Decreased need for supervision.

Employees frequently develop a greater sense of self-worth, dignity and well-being as they become more valuable to the firm and to society. Generally they will receive a greater share of the material gains that result from their increased productivity. These factors give them a sense of satisfaction through the achievement of personal and company goals.

HUMAN RESOURCE MANAGEMENT AND DEVELOPMENT

Activity

What is the relationship between Human Resource Management and HRD?

--------The relationship between HRM and HRD functions can be depicted as a "human resource wheel". The HR wheel identifies three primary HRD functions: (1) training and development, (2) organization development, and (3) career development.

Do you see any distinction between employee training; employee development; career development and organizational development?

Training and development focus on the improvement of the knowledge, skills, and abilities (KSAs) of individuals. Training involves a process of providing KSAs specific to a particular task or job. Developmental activities, in contrast, have a long-term focus on preparing for future responsibilities while increasing the capacities of employees to perform their current jobs.

T&D activities begin when a new employee enters the organization, usually in the form of employee orientation and skills training. Employee orientation is a formal process in which new employees learn important organizational values and norms, establish working relationships, and learn how to function within their jobs. The HRD staff and the hiring supervisor generally share the responsibility for designing the orientation process, conducting general orientation sessions, and beginning the initial designing the orientation process, conducting general orientation sessions, and beginning the initial skills training. Skills and technical training programs then narrow in scope to teach the new employee a particular skill of area of knowledge.

Once new employees have become proficient in their jobs, HRD activities should focus on development-specifically, coaching and counseling. In the coaching process, individual are encouraged to accept responsibility for their actions, to address any work-related problems, and to achieve and to sustain superior performance Coaching involves treating employees as partners in working toward personal and organizational goals. Counseling techniques are used to help employees deal with personal problems that may interfere with the achievement of these goals. Counseling programs may address such issues as substance abuse, stress management, smoking cessation, and fitness, nutrition, and weight control.

HRD departments are also responsible for coordinating management training and development programs to ensure that managers and supervisors have the knowledge and skills necessary to be effective in their positions. These programs may include supervisory training, job rotation, seminars, and college and university courses.

Organizational Development

Organization development (OD) is defined as the process of enhancing the effectiveness of an organization and the well-being of its members through planned interventions that apply behavioral science concepts. OD emphasizes both macro and micro organizational changes: macro changes are intent on ultimately improving the effectiveness of the organizations, while micro changes are directed as small groups and individuals. For example, many organizations have sought to improve organization effectiveness by introducing employee involvement programs that require fundamental changes in work expectations, reward systems, and reporting procedures.

The role of the HRD professional involved in OD intervention is to function as a change agent.

Training and Development

Facilitating change often requires consulting with and advising line managers on strategies that can be used to effect the desired change. The HRD professional may also become directly involved in carrying out the intervention strategy, such as facilitating a meeting of the employees responsible for planning and implementing the actual change process.

Career Development.

Career development can be defined as "an ongoing process by which individuals' progress through a series of stages, each of which is characterized by a relatively unique set of issues, themes, and tasks". Career development involves two distinct processes: career planning and career management. Career planning involves activities performed by an individual, with the

assistance or counselors and others, to assess his or her skills and abilities in order to establish a realistic career plan. Career management involves taking the necessary steps to achieve that plan.

There is a strong relationship between career development and T&D activities, Career plans can implemented, at least in part, through the organization's training programs.

Human Resource Management

Human resource management (HRM) is defined as the effective utilization of employees in order to achieve the goals and strategies or the organization. The responsibility for HRM is shared between human resource specialists and line management. How the HRM function is carried out varies from organization to organization. Some organizations have a centralized HRM department with highly specialized staff, while in other organizations the HRM function is decentralized and effected throughout the organization.

The most comprehensive way to present the HRM function is to examine the activities carried out by a large department, such as the HRM division headed by a vice president depicted in Figure 1-1. HRM can be divided into primary and secondary functions. Primary functions are directly involved with obtaining, maintaining, and developing employees. Secondary functions either provides support for general management activities of are involved in determining or changing the structure of the organization. These functions are detailed below.

I. Primary HRM Functions

A. Human resource planning
B. Equal employment opportunity
C. Staffing (recruitment and selection)
D. Compensation and benefits
E. Employee (labor) relations
F. Human resource development

A. Human resource planning

Activities are used to predict how changes in management strategy will impact future human resource needs. These activities are becoming increasingly important with the rapid changes in external market demands. HR planners must continually chart the course for future plans, programs, and actions.

B. Equal employment opportunity

Activities are intended to satisfy both legal and moral responsibilities of the organization through the prevention of discriminatory policies, procedures, and practices, particularly when making employment decisions

C. Recruiting and selection

Activities are designed for the timely identification of potential applicants for current and future openings and for screening applicants in order to make a selection and placement decision

D. Compensation and benefits administration

It is responsible for establishing and maintaining an equitable internal wage structure and a competitive benefits package.

E. Employee (labor) relations

Activities include developing a communications system through which employees can address their problems and grievances. In a union shop, labor relations will include developing working relations with each labor union, and contract negotiations and administration.

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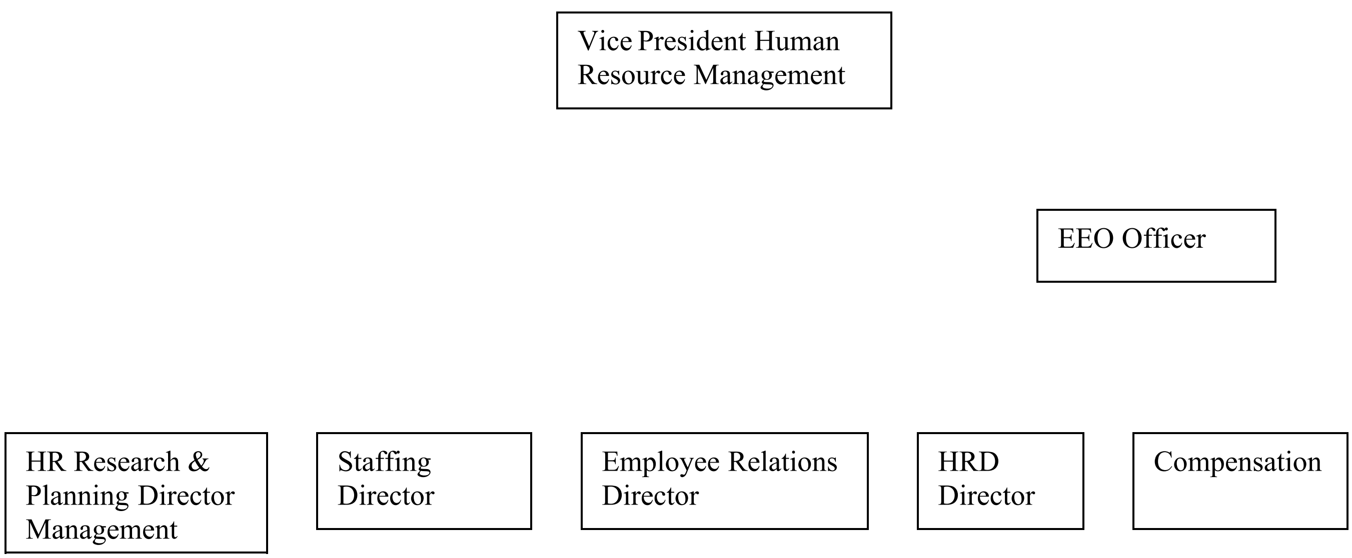
F. Human resource development

Activities are intended to ensure that organizational members have the competencies to meet current and future job demands. This will be the focus of this course material.



II. Secondary HRM Functions

The other functions that may be shared between HRM units include the following.

- **Organization/job design** activities are concerned with interdepartmental relations and the organization and definition of jobs.
- **Performance management systems** are used for establishing and maintaining accountability throughout the organization.
- **Research and information systems** are necessary to make enlightened human resource decisions.

III. Line versus Staff Authority

Training and Development

One of the primary components of organization structure is the authority delegated to a manager or unit to make decisions and utilize resources. Line authority is given to managers and organizational units who are directly responsible for the production of goods and services. Staff authority is given to organizational units who advise and consult line units. Traditionally, HRM functional units, including HRD, have staff authority. Generally speaking, line authority supersedes staff authority in matters pertaining to the production of goods and services. For example, suppose several trainees miss training sessions because their supervisor assigned them to duties away form the job site. Can the HRD manager or trainer

intervene and force the supervisor to reassign these employees so that they can meet their training responsibilities? The short answer is no. The log answer is that HRD managers and staff must exert as much influence as possible to ensure that organizational members have the competencies to meet current and future job demands. At times this may require some type of intervention (such as organization development) to achieve a greater amount of understanding of the values and goals of HRD programs and processes.

An important dimension of authority, whether it is line or staff, is its scope. The scope of authority refers to the limitations placed on decision making and the use of resources. Many organizations specify scope in official documents like job descriptions, employment contracts, procedures, and work rules. The scope of authority is particularly important in the area of expenditures. For example, HRD director may have the authority to issues contracts up to a maximum of Br. 50,000, while larger amounts must be approved by the vice president of administration.

Human Resource Development (HRD)

Actfivity

what is Human Resource Development?

Human resource development (HRD) can be defined as a set of systematic and planned activities designed by an organization to provide its members with the necessary skills to meet current and future job demands. HRD activities should begin when an employee joins the organization and continue throughout his or her career, regardless of whether that employee is an executive or a semiskilled line worker. HRD programs must respond to job changes and integrate the long-term plans and strategies of the organization in order to ensure the efficient and effective use of resources.

1.2 The Evolution of Human Resource Development

Activity

How human resource development develop todate?

In many respects the story of training and development is as old asthe human race itself. Within the earliest human groupings there wasa social structure that is not too different from what we know today.MarkNicholson1oftheLondonBusinessSchoolwritesthat,althoughhumans have evolved technologically, psychologically our species hasnot progressed very far from the tribalism of theStoneAge.Withinanyprimategrouping(and,biologically,humansareprimates)one of the roles of adults is education of the young. One of the reasonswhy human children remain within the family grouping for as longas they do may be connected with the amountoflearning that theyoungsters need in order to function asmembersofsociety.Whilstmuchofsocialbehavior appears innate there are also cultural normsand values that need to be impartedfromgeneration to generation as aprocess of socialization.One major difference between human behavior and that of otherprimates appears to be in the importance of self-actualization. Selfactualizationis the final stage in the well-known ''hierarchy of needs''developed by Abraham Maslow in 1970. Unlike the lower-level needsof sustenance, safety, belonging, and esteem – all of which can bediscerned to a greater or lesser degree in other primates such as gorillasandchimpanzees – self-actualization appears to be confined to humans.It is the need to fulfill one's potential, to push at the boundaries – it isa natural consequence of curiosity.To be able to fulfill one's potential requires knowledge not onlyabout oneself but also about where one fits within a social group. Theacquisition of such knowledge comes about through education.

Human Resource Development is a relatively new term, but not a new concept. To understand its modern definition, it is helpful to recount the history of this important professional field.

A. Early apprenticeship training programs
B. Early vocational education programs
C. Early factory schools
D. Early training programs for semiskilled and unskilled workers
E. The establishment of the training profession

A. Early Apprenticeship Training Programs.

The origins of HRD can be traced directly to early apprenticeship training programs in the eighteenth century. During this time, small shops operated by skilled artisans produced virtually all household goods, such as furniture, clothing, and shoes. To meet a growing demand for their products, craft shop owners had to employee additional workers. Without vocational or technical schools, the shopkeepers had to educate and train their own workers.

For little or no wages, these trainees, or apprentices, learned the craft of their master, usually working in the shop for several years until they became proficient in their trade. Not limited to the skilled trades, the apprenticeship model was also followed in the training of physicians, educators, and attorneys. Even as late as the 1920s, a person apprenticing in a law office could practice law after passing a state supervised exam.

Apprentices who mastered all of the necessary skill were considered "yeomen," and could leave their master and establish their own craft shops. However, most apprentices remained with their masters because they could not afford to buy the necessary tools and equipment to start their own craft shops. To address a growing number of yeomen, master craftsmen formed a network of private "franchises" so they could regulate such things as product quality, wages, hours, and apprentice testing procedures. These craft guilds grew to become powerful political and social forces within their communities, making it even more difficult for yeomen to

establish independent craft shops. By forming separate guilds called "yeomanries," the yeomen counterbalanced the powerful craft guilds and created a collective voice in negotiating higher wages and better working conditions. Yeomanries were the fore- runners of modern labor unions.

B. **Early Vocational Education Programs.**

In 1909, DeWitt Clinton founded the first recognized privately funded vocational school, also referred to as a manual school, in New York City. The purpose of the manual schools was to provide occupational training to unskilled young people who were unemployed or had criminal records. Manual schools grew in popularity, particularly in the Midwestern states, because they were a public solution to a social problem: what to do with misdirected youths. Regardless of their intent, these early forms of occupational training established a prototype for vocational education.

In 1917, the USA Congress passed the Smith-Hughes Act, which recognized the value of vocational education by granting funds (initially $7 million annually) targeted for state programs in agricultural trades, home economics, industry, and teacher training. Today, vocational instruction is an important part of each state's public education system.

C. **Early Factory Schools**

With the advent of the industrial revolution during the late 1800s, machines began to replace the hand tools of the artisans "Scientific" management principles recognized the significant role of machines in better and more efficient production systems. Specifically, the design of machines operated by semi skill workers could produce more than the products of skilled workers in a small craft shop. This marked the beginning of factories as we know them today.

Factories made it possible to increase production by using machines and unskilled workers, but they also created a significant demand for the engineers, machinists, and skilled mechanics needed to design, build, and repair the machines. Fueled by the rapid increase in the number of factories, the demand for skilled workers soon outstripped the supply of

vocational school graduates. In order to meet their demand, factories created mechanical and machinist training programs, which were referred to as “factory schools”.

D. Early Training Programs for Semiskilled and Unskilled Workers.

While both apprenticeship programs and factory schools provide training for skilled workers, very few companies during this time offered training programs for the unskilled or semiskilled workers. This changed with the advent of two significant historical events. The first was the introduction of the Model T by Ford in 1913. The Model T was the first car to be mass-produced using an assembly line, in which production only required the training of semiskilled workers to perform several tasks.

The new assembly lines cut production costs significantly and Ford lowered its prices, making the Model T affordable to a much larger segment of the public. With the increased demand for the Model T, Ford had to design more assembly lines and thus provide more training opportunities. Most of the others automobile manufacturers who entered the market copied ford’s production design, resulting in a proliferation of semiskilled training programs.

Another significant historical event was the outbreak of World War I. To meet a huge demand for military equipment, many factories that produced nonmilitary goods had to retool their machinery, and retrain their workers, including the semiskilled. For instance, the U.S. Shipping Board was responsible for coordinating the training of shipbuilders to build warships. Thos facilitate the training process, Charles Allen, Director of Training, instituted a four-step instructional method referred to as “show, tell, do, and check” for all of the training programs offered by the Shipping Board. This technique was later named job instruction training (TIT) and is still being used today for training workers on the job.

F.The Establishment of the Training Profession.

With the outbreak of World War II, the industrial sector was once again asked to retool its factories in order to support the war effort. As had happened in World War I, this initiative led to the establishment of new training programs within larger organizations and unions. The federal government established the Training within Industry (TWI) Service to coordinate training programs across defense-related industries TWI also trained company instructors to teach their programs at each plant. By the end of the war, the TWI had trained over 23,000 instructors, awarding over 2 million certificates to supervisors from 16,000 plants, unions, and services.

Many defense-related companies established their own training departments with instructors trained by TWI. These departments designed, organized, and coordinated training across the organization. In 1942, the American Society for Training Directors (ASTD) was formed to establish some standards within this emerging profession. The requirements for full membership in ASTD included a college or university degree plus two years of experience in training or a related field, or five years of experience in training. A person working in a training function or attending college qualified for associate membership.

During the 1960s and 1970s, professional trainers realized that their role extended beyond the training room. The move toward employee involvement in many organizations required trainers to coach and counsel employees. Training and development (T&D) competencies also expanded to include interpersonal skills, such as coaching, group process facilitation, and problem solving. This additional emphasis on employee development provoked the ASTD to professionally designate themselves the American Society for Training and Development.

The 1980s saw even greater changes affecting the T&D field. At several ASTD national conferences held in the late 1970s and early 1980s, discussions centered on this rapidly expanding profession. As a result of these discussions, the ASTD approved the term human resource development to encompass this growth and change.

Human Resource Development Process

Designing HRD programs involves a sequence of steps that can be grouped into three phases: needs assessment, design/implementation, and evaluation. Each of these steps will be discussed briefly in the following paragraph.

i. Needs Assessment Phase: This phase establishes who, when and where, needs what, so that training objectives can be determined. Identifying needs involves examining the organization, its environment, job tasks, and employee performance. This information can be used to:

- Establish priorities for expending HRD efforts;
- Define specific training and HRD objectives; and
- Establish evaluation criteria

ii. Design/Implementation Phase: The second phase of the training and HRD process involves designing and implementing the HRD program. This phase may include the following activities.

- Selecting the person to deliver the program,
- Selecting and developing the content of the program;
- Scheduling the program; and
- Implementing or delivering the program

Selecting the person to deliver the HRD program is an important decision, and it can be difficult, depending upon the resources available. If the organization employees are a group of full-time HRD professionals, the choice will depend largely on the expertise and work schedules of those professionals. However, if the organization does not have an HRD staff, they will have to rely on other people, including managers, supervisors, co-workers, or outside consultants. Using such individuals raises a host of issues, including their willingness, ability, availability, and cost.

The planning process also involves selecting and develo0ping the content of the program this means choosing the most appropriate setting for the program (on-the-job, a classroom, and soon), the techniques used to facilitate learning (such as lecture, discussion, role play), and the materials to be used in delivering the program. Inherent in these decisions is the issue of whether to develop the program in-house or purchase it (or parts of it) from an outside vendor.

Scheduling the program may not be as easy as it appears. Issues to be resolve include lead time for notification of potential participants, program length and location, covering participant's regular job duties, and potential conflicts (such as vacations, busy periods, and facility availability).

Finally, delivery of the program also presents its own challenges, such as executing the program as planned, creating and environment that enhances learning, and resolving problems that may arise missing equipment, conflicts between participants, and so on these issues and many others involved in designing and implementing an HRD program will be discussed in detail in later parts of this module.

iii. Evaluation Phase: evaluation is the final phase in the training and HRD process, during which the effectiveness of the HRD program is measured. This is an important but often ignored activity. Careful evaluation provides information on participate reaction to the program, how much they learned, whether they use what they learned back on the job, and whether the program improved the organization's effectiveness. This information allows managers to make better decisions about various aspects of the HRD effort, such as:

- Continuing to use a particular technique of vendor in the future programs,
- Officering a particular program in the future;
- Budgeting and resource allocation, and
- Using some other HR or managerial approach (like employee selection or changing work rules) to solve the problem

It is important that HRD professionals provide proof that HRD programs improve individual and organizational effectiveness. Armed with this information, HRD managers can better compete with managers from other areas of the organization when discussing the effectiveness of their actions and competing for resources. In the pages that follow, you are provided with recommendations for maximizing the effectiveness of each of these phase

1.7.2.4 Human Resources Development Structure and Function

Activity

What do you think is the function of HRD?

--______________

Human resource development, as has been discussed, is one of the primary functions within the human resource management (HRM) department. The structure of the HRD function and its scope has been shaped by the challenges faced by organizations. During the late 1980s, the American Society for Training and Development (ASTD) sponsored a two-year study to explore emerging models and to identify the HRD roles and competencies needed for an effective HRD function. The study documented a shift in HRD models from the more traditional training and development function to include career development and organization development functions. The study identified four trends affecting modern HRD.

i. The work force will be more diverse.

ii. More people will do knowledge work, which requires judgment, flexibility, and personal commitment rather than submission to procedures.

iii. People will expect meaningful work and involvement.

iv. A shift is occurring in the nature of the contract between organizations and their employees.

1.3 Challenges to HRD Practitioners

Activity

What do you think are the challenges that the HRD professionals these days experience?

____

Looking toward the next century, there are a number of challenges facing HRD practitioners. These challenges include (1) changing work force demographics, (2) competing in a global economy, (3) eliminating the skills gap, and (4) the need for lifelong learning. Each of these challenges and their potential impact on HRD will be briefly discussed below and further amplified in future chapters.

- **Changing work Force Demographics**

In 1986, based on a study of demographic changes, the Hudson Institute published a significant report entitled Work force 2000. Work and Workers for the 21st Century. Among other things, the report predicted that women and minorities would represent approximately 85 percent of all new workers entering the work force between 1988 and 2000. This trend highlights several important challenges, including

(1) reconciling work/family issues;
(2) integrating black and Latino workers into the economy; and
(3) improving educational opportunities for all workers.

The report, although controversial, forced many organizations to re-think their organizational policies and programs and to begin to make necessary changes. As a result, organizations are introducing or refining family-leave policies, child-care programs, EEO/affirmative action efforts, and sexual harassment programs. In addition, some organizations have tried to help employees become more sensitive to cultural difference by introducing valuing difference, managing diversity, and cross-cultural training programs.

- **Competing in a Global Economy**

As U.S companies prepare to compete in a global economy, many are introducing new technologies that require more educated and trained workers. In fact, it is predicted that by the year 2000, over one-half of the jobs in the United States will require education beyond high school. Thus, successful organizations will have to hire employees with the knowledge to compete in an increasingly sophisticated market.

Competing in the global economy will require more than educating and training workers to meet new challenges. In addition to retraining the workforce, successful companies will institute quality improvement processes and introduce change programs (e.g., involvement programs). The work force must learn to become culturally sensitive in order to communicate and conduct business in foreign countries. Above all, employers must change the way they manage.

- **Eliminating the skills Gap**

As has been discussed for companies to compete successfully in a global economy, they must their educated workers. However, the U.S public educations system is in desperate need of reform. Almost 30 percent of today’s high school students fail to graduate, and employers must confront the fact that many young adults and employers must confront the fact that many young adults entering the work force are unable to meet current job requirements. Even though the United States has one of the highest standards of living in the world, a large

number of American workers-between 20 and 30 percent according to the Office of Technology Assessment-lack basic writing reading, and computational skills.

This skills gap poses serious consequences for American companies. For example, how can trainees learn how to operate new equipment if they cannot read and comprehend operating manuals? Furthermore, how can new employees are taught to manipulate computer-controlled machines if they do not understand basic math? Obviously, the business community has a vested interest in education reform. There are some encouraging signs, however. The Los Angeles public school system is offering a guarantee to employers, stating that if any high school graduate is found to be deficient in basic skills, such as computation and writing, the school system will retrain the graduate at no cost to the employer.

Other industrialized nations have made systematic changes in order to bridge the skills gap.
For example, Japan and Germany are the two United States biggest competitors. Among other things, Germany emphasizes vocational education and school-to-work transition programs so that school-age children can begin apprenticeship programs as part of their formal education.

- **The Need for Lifelong Learning**

Given the rapid changes that all organizations face, it is clear that employees must continue the learning process throughout their careers in order to meet these challenges. This need for lifelong learning will require organizations to make an ongoing investment in HRD.

Lifelong learning can mean different things to different employees. For example, for semiskilled workers, it may involve more rudimentary skills training to help them to build their competencies. To professional employees, this learning may mean taking advantage of continuing education opportunities. This is particularly important for certified professionals who are required to complete a certain number of continuing education courses in order to maintain their certificates. To managers, lifelong learning may include attending management seminars that address new management approaches.

The challenge to HRD is to provide a full range of learning opportunities for all kinds of employees. One way that some organizations are meeting this challenge is by establishing multimedia-learning centers. These centers offer a variety of instructional technologies that can be matched to each trainee's also pointing out their preferred learning styles. For instance, self-motivated employees found to be deficient in arithmetic might be trained in an interactive video program allowing them to set their own pace. A multimedia-learning center could also provide teleconferencing facilities for technical and professional employees to participate in a seminar that is being conducted thousands of miles away. These and other different approaches to learning will also be discussed in future chapters. What remains clear, however, is that whether they use multimedia or other training approaches, organizations must find a way to provide lifelong learning opportunities to all of their employees.

Unit Summary

Training … usually takes place at working places, whereas education … takes place at educational establishments

Both of the definitions above illustrate the application of training to the requirements of the organization and the fact that this training tends to occur in the workplace. They also indicate a relatively narrow limitation to specific skills and operations. Moreover, training normally has an immediate application and is generally completed in a shorter timescale than education. (Van Wart et al,1993)

Training and Development

Drawing from the preceding discussion learning may be defined as a relatively permanent change of knowledge, attitude or behaviour occurring as a result of formal education or training, or as a result of informal experiences.

One common theme that can be found in many of the definitions of training, education and development is that they contain the word ‘learning’. Nadler (Nadler and Nadler, 1990:1.18) gathered these terms together and stated that:

Training = learning related to present job;

Education = learning to prepare the individual but not related to a specific present or future job;

Development = learning for growth of the individual but not related to a specific present or future job.

He maintained that we should not be too concerned about these labels and accepted that the definitions above might be ordered training, development and education.

Garavan (1997:42) also investigated the nature of training, education and development and came to the similar conclusion that they all involved learning. He went on to state that, ‘It is therefore logical to suggest that all four (education, training, development, and learning) are seen as complementary components of the same process, ie the enhancement.

Training and development has had a mixed reception over the years and has frequently had to fight its corner and shout loudly to gain recognition. The acceptance of HRD is altogether much stronger since it has been linked to strategic imperatives and has a much stronger theoretical base in universities which have provided Master’s courses to enhance the respect of practitioners.

This progress is clearly apparent in a comparison of the two quotations below. The challenge now is not to become complacent but to build on this appreciation and ensure that HRD continues to contribute to the successful operation of the organization:

The fact remains that training and development personnel are a motley bunch who by and large service low level needs within the organisation. (Sinclair and Collins, 1992, p.21)

During the course of my working life the human resource development (HRD) function in industry has grown from humble ‘training officer’, a largely peripheral, low status role associated with instructing newcomers in necessary manual skills, to 'human resource development director', a powerful influence in the organisation. (Kilcourse, 1996:3)

Learning is conscious or subconscious process of developing or adapting perspectives to make better sense of the world, and to ultimately become more effective.
continuous learning is the ability to learn to learn.

Training is a deliberate and programmed activity aimed at improving one or more specific skills, either off the job or on the job. Training can be a group or an individual activity.

Development is the process of transforming an individual or group from one level of capability to another.
A learning organization is defined as an organization that uses organizational, group, and individual learning to continually transform itself and to meet its ongoing challenges, both consciously and unconsciously.
Education is considerably broader in scope than training. . Education is an investment by a society into its members with the ultimate aim of benefiting that society. Education is defined as activities which aim at developing the knowledge, skills, moral values and understanding required in all aspects of life rather than a knowledge and skill relating to only a limited field of activity.
The Human Resource Development which is just one of the functions within Human Resource Management emerged from early school of thoughts emerged from early school of thoughts. Some of these early schools of thought were early apprenticeship programs, schools, human relation movements and establishment of training profession centers. These schools are concerned with the provision of learning, training opportunities and development which are important to improve individual, team and organizational performance.

Chapter Two

2. Orientation and Socialization

Introduction

Someone who was considered by organization members to be an outsider is transformed into a productive and accepted insider through orientation and socialization. New hires are not the only once transferred and promoted employees are oriented and socialized too. Unlike new hires transfers and promotes begin their orientation and socialization as insiders to the larger organization, with the understanding of its goals and values.

Organizational orientation and socialization can be considered a learning process in that newcomers must learn a wide variety of information and behaviors to be accepted as an organizational insider. Some theorists have suggested a wide variety of affective, cognitive, and behavioral outcomes of the socialization process. From orientation new employees learn about their new work environments and get their performances to acceptable levels as soon possible.This chapter deals with the orientation and socialization of new employees.

Objectives

The over all purpose of this chapter is to introduce the students to the concepts of orientation and socialization. At the end of this chapter, the learners should be able to:

- Understand the meaning of orientation and socialization,
- Describes the principles of orientation and socialization process,
- Apply the principles of orientation and socialization in different organizations,
- Identify the contribution of the various orientation and socialization process.

2.1 Orientation

Activity

Do you have any idea about what employee orientation is all about?

On the first day of a new job, employees face new surroundings, work rules, responsibilities, bosses, and co-workers. At best, this combination of new things makes an employee feel insecure. At worst, it provokes anxiety that the employee cannot get over, and that leads him or her to resign. With this type of turnover, all the time and money that the company spent to locale, recruit, select, and hire that employee are lost.

Orientation programs are designed to reduce the stress that employees feel when beginning a new job. But sometimes, just the opposite occurs. Many orientation programs cram huge amounts of information about managerial philosophies, company history, policies, and procedures into a very brief period. In theory, this introduction provides new employees with the information they need to succeed in the company. But in practice, unless orientation is carefully managed, too much new information at one time just increases the anxiety new employees feel.

2.1.1 Orientation Goals

Activity

What is the purpose of orientation?

New employees have a million questions about their jobs and the organization. These questions must be answered quickly and effectively so the employees get off on the right foot.

Hospitality companies must develop well-designed orientation programs that answer the questions employees have about their jobs. The information included in these programs falls into three general categories:

1. Information about job-related issues such as company (organizational) standards, management expectations of employees, and policies and procedures.

2.1.2 Questions New Employees May Ask

Activity

The following are some questions new employees ask. Why do they ask these questions?

--

- What exactly is the organization's mission?
- Why does the organization exist?
- What are the exact duties of my job?
- What are my rights as an employee?
- What are the limits to what I can and cannot do without getting permission?
- What positions can I advance to within the organization?
- How do I fit in the organization?

- What performance standards must I meet to succeed in the job and the organization?
- What general and specific benefits am I eligible for?
- Who will I work for?
- How will I “fit in” with co-workers?
- What can I do to establish a good relationship with the people I will work and interact with?
- What types of training will I receive both immediately and later on, to help me prepare for this and future jobs within the organization?

2. Information about cultural issues such as;

- Acceptable norms of conduct,
- Definitions of deviate behavior (or acceptable behavior),
- Management philosophies,
- Traditions, and
- Strategic beliefs.

3. Information about specific job responsibilities and technical aspects of the job, such as;

- What is contained in the job description?
- What kinds of equipment are required to perform the job? And
- How performance is evaluated?

2.1.3 Planning Orientation Programs

Activity

What should l

Proper planning of the orientation program ensures that all the pertinent topics are covered without duplication. Key considerations in orientation planning includes

- Program goals

- Range of topics to be considered
- Timing and duration of orientation sessions
- Company topics Vs. departmental and job topics
- Identification of specific training to be conducted by the human resources department
- Identification of specific training to be conducted by managers and supervisors
- Technical Vs. social aspects of orientation
- Methods for encouraging employee discussion session sand feedback
- Training required for human resources representatives before the orientation program
- Training required for managers and supervisors before the orientation program
- Checklist of topics to ensure follow-up by the human resources department and managers
- Review and update of the employee handbook
- Program flexibility to accommodate differences in employee education, intelligence, and work experience.

Some organizations systematize this process by developing an orientation checklist. A checklist can ensure that all necessary items have been covered at some point, perhaps during the first week. Many employers have employees sign the checklist to verify that they have been told of pertinent rules and procedures.

Several types of information usually are included in the orientation process.

Activity

what do you think should be the content of orientation programs?

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____

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A general organizational overview which might include:

- Brief review of the organization;
- The history of the organization;

- Organizational structure of the organization;
- Key executives of the organization;
- Mission of the organization;
- The products and services of the organization;
- How the employee's job fits into the big picture;
- A copy of annual reports;
- A list of terms that are used in the industry; and
- Other general information.
  - The culture of the organization. Giving informal information on such factors as typical dress habits, lunch practices, and what executives are called will help new employees to adjust.
  - Information on the policies, work rules, and benefits of the company. Policies about sick leave tardiness, absenteeism, vacations, benefits, and hospitalization, parking and safety rules must be made known to every new employee immediately.
  - The employee's supervisor or manager should describe the routine of a normal workday for the employee the first morning.

Some properties divide orientation into two programs. When this is done, the first program focuses on general property orientation and the second on specific job orientation.

A. General Property Orientation

One of the first steps a property takes to start a new employee is to acquaint that employee with the organization and the property as a whole. This stage of orientation covers such topics as the organization's mission statement, management philosophy, the role of employees in meeting organizational goals, general policies and procedures, insurance, benefits, guest and employee relations, and personnel forms.

In large properties, general property orientation is typically conducted by a representative from the human resources department. In smaller properties, the general manager usually presents the information.

As we stated earlier, orientation plays a valuable role in reducing turnover. Other benefits that employees, managers, and the organization can derive from general property orientation are listed below.

i. Benefit to the organization

Activity

Discuss the benefits of orientation.

- Consistent orientation: all employees receive the same overview
- Helps new employees feel they're working for a great company
- Keeps the organization on its toes; it must always remain competitive
- Allows senior management to become visible to line employees
- First impressions are lasting impressions; a good orientation program can build a strong foundation of company values and philosophy
- Improves employee understanding of the company's business goals and priorities
- Early start on building a strong "team" approach at all levels of the organization
- Lower turnover

ii. Benefits to the Supervisor

- Ensures that all new employees are informed of policies and procedures
- Ensures that new employees understand their job duties, standards of conduct, etc.
- Orientation supports the supervisor's role
- Supervisors themselves can benefit by re-participating on an occasional basis
- A successful orientation program builds employee motivation
- Lower turnover

iii. Benefits to the Employee

- A better understanding of the company's expectations of them and their performance
- Will help employees understand the value of their positions to the organization: builds self-esteem
- Employees realize that they are important to the operation, for not everyone can successfully work in the hospitality industry
- Gives an early, structured approach to learning about the company and the job
- Establishes early commitment to being a member of the team
- Builds an important foundation of employee motivation.

B. Specific Job Orientation

Activity

What is specific job orientation and its advantage?

During specific job orientation, the focus shifts from organizational and departmental topics to those directly related to the performance of the job. Employees are introduced to the responsibilities outlined in the ob description, the location of equipment, the work environment, the departments' relationship to the other departments, the performance appraisal forms used, and the portions of the handbook related to the job. New employees are taken on a tour of the property and the department, and are introduced to people they will work and interact with. The department's policies and procedures are discussed, including those related to work hours, time clock operation and payroll, breaks, smoking, employee dining, and so on. Managers and supervisors involved in the specific orientation program identify potential career tracks for employees. This way, new employees will know their promotional opportunities and limits.

The specific job orientation program is designed to familiarize employees with their job responsibilities and their work environment.

Benefits of Specific Job Orientation

- Consistency in employee training and development
- Resources must always be current
- Helps employees ensure quality service and meet guest expectations
- Ensures that required standards will be maintained

Benefits to the Supervisor

- Well-trained staff
- Consistency in staff performance
- Knowledge of staff capability
- Helps when evaluating employee performance
- Helps department run more smoothly

Benefits to the Employee

- Employee learns how to do the job correctly
- Builds self-esteem due to feeling of accomplishment
- Builds higher morale
- Creates team fellowship and cooperation
- Helps employee become productive more quickly.

2.1.4 Orientation Kits

Well-organized managers will want to prepare an orientation kit that new employees can take home. In this way, employees can review the material discussed during the day and share the information with their families or friends. Since the first day of orientation is so full of information, orientation kits give new employees the chance to think about questions they want to ask the human resources department or manager the following day.

Sample Items in Orientation Kit

- Current organizational chart
- Projected organizational chart (illustrating succession)

- Map of the facility
- Key terms unique to the industry, company, and job
- Copy of policy handbook
- Copy of union contract (if appropriate)
- List of company holidays
- List of fringe benefits
- Copies of performance appraisal forms, dates, and procedures
- Copies of other required forms (requisitions, expense forms)
- List of on-the-job training opportunities
- Sources of information
- Detailed outline of emergency and accident-prevention procedures

- Sample copy of each important company publication
- Telephone numbers and locations of key personnel and operations
- Copies of insurance plan.

Hospitality companies should consider including the following in their orientation kit in addition to those listed above:

- Copies of organizational policies regarding compliance
- Recent company newsletters
- Names and telephone numbers of other employees in the department
- Schedule for the remaining portions of orientation and training
- Information regarding social activities of the department and/or company

2.1.5 Problems with Orientation Programs

As you may take a wild guess, Orientation programs are no more immune from problems than any other HRD intervention. The following are some of the potential problems:

- Too much emphasis on paper work;
- Information overload (giving newcomers too much information too quickly):

- Information irrelevance (general or superficial information that is not directly relevant to the newcomer's job assignment);
- Scare tactics (discussing failure rates or negative aspects of the job);
- Too much selling of the organization;
- Emphasis on formal, one-way communication (using lectures and videos without giving the newcomer a chance to discuss issues of interest or ask questions);
- One-shot mentality (limiting the orientation program to only the first day at work);
- No diagnosis or evaluation of the program

Information overload is a particularly common problem. A person can absorb only so much information in a given period of time before learning efficiency drops and stress increases program designers and delivers should be sensitive to this issue a try to prevent information overload by:

i. Including only essential information during the initial phase of orientation;
ii. Providing written materials that trainees can take with them and review later, especially for complex benefits plans and important topics such as the company mission and work rules;
iii. Conducting the program in phases to space out presentation of the material; and
iv. Following up with the newcomers to make sure they understand major issues and to answer any additional question they may have.

2.1.6 Approaches to Avoid

Unfortunately, many managers do not take orientation seriously. Instead of taking this opportunity to get the employee off to a good start, many managers simply delegate orientation to the closest available employee. By handing over orientation managers lose one of their best opportunities to directly influence employee behavior.

There are four approaches to orientation that managers should avoid.

1. Emphasis on paperwork. When too much emphasis is placed on human resources-type

paperwork, employees may not feel like they are really part of the company.

2. Mickey Mouse approach. When new employees are assigned easy jobs so they can "get the feel for the work," they may believe that they are not really considered capable or important.
3. Sketchy overviews. When new employees are given vague or incomplete information, and then tossed into the jobs to sink or swim, they often sink.
4. Suffocation. When new employees are given too much information, they often feel overwhelmed.

We could add one more approach to this list-one that is particularly common in the hospitality industry. The "follow-Mary Sue-around" approach entails turning the entire orientation over to an employee. While it is a good idea for employees to take new employees on tours and introduce them to co-workers, turning orientation over to an employee is not a good idea. At the minimum, the new employee will learn the good and bad habits of the employee conducting the orientation.

2.1.7 Orientation Follow-Up

Orientation should be followed by a period of close supervision. During this time, managers should closely observe and assist the new employee in learning the new job. Managers can spend less time watching and helping a new employee as that employee's performance improves.

Orientation should have an ending point. Managers can define this point by setting a date to meet with the new employee and answer any questions that new employee may have. This meeting is usually scheduled a few days to a week after orientation and training begins. During this meeting, the manager can appraise the employee's progress to-date and establish goals and objectives for the employee to meet before his or her first formal performance appraisal. Some companies also schedule one-and three-month reviews with employees for similar purposes.

2.2 Socialization

Activity

What do you understand when the term organizational socialization is mentioned?

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Socialization is broadly defined as “a process in which an individual acquires the attitudes, behaviors and knowledge needed to successfully participate as an organizational member”. Socialization is an ongoing process that sometimes lasts for a year. It represents a sense-making process that helps new hires adapt, form work relationships and find their place in the organization. A typical socialization process includes three phases.

As we discussed, orientation is the initial program in which a new employee is introduced to an organization. Orientation is an especially important period since it can help relieve the high anxiety many new employees feel. However, simply orienting employees to their new environment is not enough. New employees must also be introduced to the values, norms, and behaviors which are consistent with success in the organization. This period is known as socialization.

Research indicates that new employees who are effectively socialized to the organization are more productive more quickly than those who are not. Researchers contend that socialized employees quickly learn the critical values that are important in the organization and can put those values to work in their jobs. For example, new employees who are socialized that service is a key value of their hotel are more likely to reflect that value in their work. In addition, employees who are effectively socialized are more productive for longer periods than employees who are not.

The effects of socialization were first noted in a study of civilian and military prisoners of the North Korean Communists during the Korean War. Researchers noted that Americans could be very quickly "converted" through intensive indoctrination to partially reflect the values of communist captors. Researchers noted that the "occupational indoctrination" that students received on entering the work world had a similar effect; many of the values students held were easily converted by the companies they worked for in a relatively short time. Gradually, this process of socialization became known as "organizational socialization" or, in some circles as simply "learning the ropes".

The quicker employees "learn the ropes" the quicker they will become effective and productive members of the organization. With some employees, exposure alone is enough for them to learn specific values, norms, and behaviors. Some employees, however, will never learn the ropes unless they receive assistance and guidance.

In short, proper orientation and socialization can help reduce unwanted turnover-especially turnover that occurs within an employee's first 30 days. Effective orientation and socialization programs can help organizations in other ways. For instance, effective cultural socialization can contribute to reduced absenteeism and higher productivity. Finally, researchers have linked effective cultural socialization to other benefits, including profitability, employee performance and loyalty.

2.2.1 Stages of socialization

Activity

Explain the stages of socialization program.

Daniel Feldman (1981) developed a three stage socialization process. These are:

i. Anticipatory socialization
ii. Encounter socialization
iii. Change and acquisition

i. Anticipatory Stage

The first stage anticipatory socialization, begins prior to the individual joining the organization in this stage the person forms an impression about what membership in an organization is like information about organizations is available from a variety of sources, such as rumors, anecdotes, advertisements, the media, and employment recruiters. For example, image advertising, such as Dow Chemical's "We Let You Do Great Things" and the U.S Army's "Be All You Can Be" and "It's a Great Place to Start" campaigns, send messages about life within those organizations. Media also plays a role in helping organizations establish reputations. Reports and ads about Apple Computer and Microsoft, for example, communicate the message that these organizations are intellectually stimulating places to work where dedicated employees put in long hours.

These impressions influence expectations that may in turn affect an individual's behavior. For example, a person's expectations when looking for a job may attract them to one organization, reject another organization from their consideration, and affect their decision to remain at an organization where they initially choose to work. As mentioned curlier, it is important that managers provide accurate information and help correct inaccurate expectations to avoid the potential negative consequences for performance, satisfaction, and tenure.

Also during the anticipatory socializations stage, the individual may be examining the extent to which their skills, abilities, needs, and values match those they perceive the organization requires of prefers. These judgments can affect the individual's behavior, both in terms of whether they will attempt to join the organization and how they may interact with organization members.

ii. Encounter Stage

The encounter stage of the socialization process begins when a recruit makes a formal commitment to join the organization. A formal commitment may mean signing an employment contract or simply accepting an offer of employment or membership. At this point the individual crosses the exclusionary boundary separating the organization from the outside environment and begins to discover what the organization is really like. During this stage, pre-employment expectations may either be confirmed or disconfirmed. This can lead to some unpleasant surprises. An employee who joined an organization because of an impression that advancement into and through the management ranks will be rapid may find promotions come slowly and are fewer in number than expected. During this stage, new employees must manage conflicts between lifestyle and work, resolve any role conflicts within the work group, define and clarify their own roles, become familiar with the dynamics of the work group and job, and learn and perform the tasks required by the job.

iii. Change & Acquisition stage

The third and last stage in Feldman's process is called change and acquisition. This stage occurs when the new employees accept the norms and values of the group, master the tasks they must perform, and resolve any role conflicts and overloads. Feldman suggests that employees who successfully complete this stage will likely be satisfied, internally motivated, involved in the job, perform their jobs dependably, and remain with the organization.

Table : What employees should learn and develop through socialization.

Socialization Content	
Performance proficiency	Learning and mastering the knowledge, skills and abilities to perform the required work task.
People	Establishing successful and satisfying work relationships with organizational members.
Politics	Gaining information regarding formal and informal work relationships and power structures.

Language	Understanding the profession's technical language as well as acronyms, slang and jargon unique to the organization.
Organizational goals and values	Understanding the rules or principles that maintain the integrity of the organization.
History	Learning the organization's traditions, customs, myths, personal background of other members.

2.2.2 Methods and Values of Socialization

Organizations employ a variety of tactics or techniques to socialize newcomers during the encounter stage. Specifically, socialization tactics help to facilitate the socialization process by reducing uncertainty and anxiety associated with entry experience and helping newcomers adapt and acquire the necessary attitudes and behaviors. Presented in Figure 2 are the basics on which the socialization literature is built.

Table : Methods of Socialization

Socialization Tactics	
Collective-individual	Subject newcomers to common entry experiences with a group versus unique experiences in isolation from other new hires.
Formal-informal	Use specifically designed activities and materials while segregating newcomers from incumbents versus no exclusively prepared materials and immediate mixing with incumbents (e.g., learning on the job)
Sequential-random	Communicate the sequence of discrete and progressive learning activities versus ambiguous or unknown sequence.
Fixed-variable	Communicate specific time frame of completing each socialization step versus no given time frame.
Investiture-divestiture	Provide newcomers with access to experienced organizational members as role models or mentors versus no access to experienced models.
	Provide newcomers with positive social support and affirm their

	personal characteristics versus provide more negative social feedback until newcomers adapt.
Tournament contest	In tournament process newcomers are sorted according to their potential, background, or other factors and then assigned to separate, however do not make such early distinction among newcomers in the case of contest.

Supportive enhance newcomer loyalty and reduce turnover. As a potential result of successful socialization, employee adjustment is indicated by outcomes such as organizational attachment and commitment, job satisfaction, social integration, role clarity, task mastery and values congruence. In addition, people who are well socialized in their organizational roles tend to have higher incomes, be more satisfied, more involved with their careers and more adaptable, and have a better sense of personal identity than those who are less well socialized.

2.2.3 Planning Socialization Programs

To effectively plan a socialization program, managers must first identify what they are trying to socialize employees to do. In other words, managers need to know the critical cultural values of their organizations before beginning a socialization program.

Few managers or employees can simply describe the key values of their organizational culture to an outsider. Cultures are usually very complex and, for that reason, are difficult to articulate. In addition, organizational members are generally too close to their cultures to easily identify the critical values, beliefs, and norms. This is somewhat like being too close to the trees to see the forest.

Many organizations hire culture consultants to help them identify the critical values of their companies. This is the first step in teaching values to employees, with the hope that they will display these values more frequently on the job. Insiders find it difficult to be effective consultants because they cannot sufficiently diverse themselves from the culture to be objective. Sociologists might describe this phenomenon as being too native to study the tribal customs.

2.2.4 Approaches to socialization

There is no single best way to socialize employees. Instead, managers must choose from a variety of options and decide which are best for the organization and its employees. Managers must make seven choices when designing socialization programs.

At first glance, these strategies might sound too academic or theoretical to actually work. However, the strategies listed are currently used by many different types of organizations. For example, organizations practice sequential socialization by training employees to perform many different functions before allowing them to mange. Hospitality companies often use these sequential methods. Similarly, most American high schools "track" students by preparing them either for college courses or for work life immediately after high school. This is an example of a "tournament" socialization strategy; once the students score poorly on an achievement test, they are tracked out of college prep courses. If it were a contest strategy, all the students would be allowed to try all different courses. The Marine Corps, fraternities, religious cults, and many elite schools practice divestiture as a means to eliminate the unwanted bad habits of newcomers. Many companies divest newcomers of what they know in order to begin with a "clean slate".

Different strategies work for different companies depending on the organizational goals. If the company wants to produce a relatively high degree of similarity in the thoughts and actions of newcomers, then a combination of formal, serial, and divestiture strategies works best. If the company believes that dissimilarity is best, then informal, disjunctive, and investiture strategies will likely work best. A hospitality company that wishes to teach newcomers to behave and perform like current employees within a specific time frame should choose a formal-sequential-fixed-serial combination. Companies that want employees to learn more on their own would choose an informal-variable strategy.

2.2.5 Who Should Socialize Newcomers?

Most managers would say that the best managers and employees should be responsible for teaching newcomers what is important in the organization. They say so because these employees' best exemplify the types of behaviors that managers like. This may bet true in many cases, but not in all cases. Socializing newcomers can also be done by marginal employees. In fact, research suggests that, it may be better to have marginal employees socialize newcomers. Often, the performance of marginal employees improves at the same time new employees are socialized. This happens because the underachievers must prepare for the job of socialization; doing so sometimes helps reinvigorate their attitudes about the organization. Newcomers can also provide employees with positive views of the organization by comparing their new job to their recent employers. For instance, consider the effect of a newcomer who notes that the kitchen has much better lighting than the one he or she had worked in before, or who says that he or she heard a lot of nice things about the people who work here, or who claims that the employee meals seem much better than other companies. Such a newcomer helps current employees remember that they do not work in such a bad place after all.

Summary

When people join an organization newly, they must become familiar with the way things are done in an organization, i,e. socialization/ orientation/ induction. Employee orientation: is providing new employees with basic background information about organization and any information that they need to perform their jobs satisfactorily. Orientation is one component of socialization process- an ongoing process that involves instilling in all employees the prevailing attitudes, standards, values, and patterns of behavior that are expected by the organization and its departments.

On the other hand Socialization - is the process of influencing the expectations, behaviors & attitudes of a new employee in a manner considered desirable by the organization. The intent of socialization is to achieve the best possible match between the individual, the job and the organization. Socialization of new comers/newly hired employees begins with ***orientation*** - a set of activities designed to familiarize new employees with their jobs, co-workers and key aspects of the organization as a whole. In other words, staff induction /orientation is a process by which individuals who recently assigned to the organization are helped to become oriented to a new environment, which includes: the community, organization, work to be done and people with whom they will be working .This includes:

- Clarifying organizational mission and culture
- explaining operating objectives and job specifications
- communicating policies and procedures
- identifying key personnel of the organization ,and
- Co-workers and immediate supervisors.

The first six months of employment of a new worker are often crucial in determining how well someone is going to perform over the long run. It is a time when attitudes and work patterns are subject to influence.

Unfortunately, orientation is often neglected and newcomers are left fend for themselves. They may learn job and organizational routines on their own or through causal interactions with co-workers, and they may acquire job attitudes the same way. The end result is that too many otherwise well-intentioned and capable people may learn inappropriate attitudes or behaviors.

Good Orientation by contrast, enhances a person's Understanding of the organization and adds purpose to their daily job activities. Desired results of orientation are:

- increased performance

- greater job satisfaction
- Greater commitment to the job and organizational culture.

Chapter Three

Chapter Three

3. Training

INTRODUCTION

The efficient functioning of an organization depends upon the efficiency or capability of personnel working in that organization. The capability of an employee is evaluated or identified through some techniques. The need for training is decided by the management on the basis of the performance of an employee. In the Indian context, the process and techniques of management are very complicated. A problem can be solved by providing proper training to the personnel.

The terms 'Training' and 'Development' are used synonymously. But they have different meanings. According to Edwin B. Flippo, "While training is the act of increasing the knowledge and skills of an employee for doing a particular job, the management development include the process by which managers and executives acquire not only skills and competence in their present job, but also capacities for future managerial tasks of increasing difficulty and scope."

It is concluded from the above definition that training is the process through which the knowledge and skills of an employee to perform the present job accurately increase. But development includes not only the acquiring of knowledge and skills for the present job but also includes increasing capabilities for future managerial positions.

Designing a training and development program involves a sequence of steps that can be grouped into five phases: needs assessment, instructional objectives, design, implementation and evaluation. To be effective and efficient, all training programs must start with a needs assessment. Long before any actual training occurs, the training manager must determine the who, what, when, where, why and how of training.

Objectives:

At the end of this unit, the learners should be able to:

- Recognize the importance of trained managers in the attainment of organizational objectives;
- Identify the problems encountered in the management of organizations at different levels;
- Identify training needs within various units of thrir organization using scientifically validated criteria;
- Design training programs on the basis of identified needs;
- Determine methods and duration of training according to the nature of identified needs;
- Identify target groups for training on the basis of scientifically established rational;
- Employ some evaluation techniques and instruments

3.1 Training

Training is the formal and systematic modification of behavior through learning which occurs as a result of education, instruction, development and planned experience.

The fundamental of training is to help the organization achieve its purpose by adding value to its key resource-the people it employs. Training means investing in people to enable them to perform better and to empower them to make the best use of their natural abilities. The particular objectives of training are to:

- Develop the skills and competences of employees and improve their performance;
- Help people to grow within the organization in order that, as far as possible, its future needs for human resources can be met from within;
- Reduce the learning time for employees starting in new jobs on appointment, transfer or promotion, and ensure that they become fully competent as quickly and economically as possible.

3.1.1 Benefits of training

Activity

Why is employee training needed in organizations?

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Effective training can:

- Minimize learning costs;
- Improve individual, team and corporate performance in terms of output, quality, speed and overall productivity;
- Improve operational flexibility by extending the range of skills posed by employees (multi-skilling);
- Attract high-quality employees by offering them learning and development opportunities, increasing their levels of competence and enhancing their skills, thus enabling them to obtain more job satisfaction to gain higher rewards and to progress within the organization;
- Increase the commitment of employees by encouraging them to identify with the mission and objectives of the organization;
- Help to mane change by increasing understanding of the reasons for change and providing people with the knowledge and skills they need to adjust to new situations;
- Help to develop a positive culture in the organization, one, for example, that is orientated towards performance improvement;
- Provide higher levels of service to customers.

Training strategy takes a long-term view of what skills, knowledge and levels of competence employees of the company need. Training philosophy emphasizes that training and development should be an integral part of the management process. Performance management requires managers to review regularly, with their teams and the individuals reporting to them, performance in relation to agreed objectives, the factors that have affected performance and the development and training needs that emerge from this analysis. The satisfaction of these needs is a joint process between managers, teams and individuals by means of coaching, counseling and relevant learning and training activities and interventions. Performance management leads to personal development plans and learning agreements or contracts.To achieve its goals training should be:

I. Relevant

While some organizations do not go in for training at all, others have tended to go in for 'training for training's sake'. Although in times of recession this may be less likely, there is still the risk of organizations committing themselves to training in areas where the benefits in terms of improved performance in key activity areas have not been spelt out. Training must be relevant in that it satisfies identified and appropriate training needs.

II. Problem-based

Training should be problem-based in the sense that it should be planned to fill the gaps between what people can do and what they need to do, now and in the future. The problem may be a negative one in the form of a weakness that needs to be remedied. Or it may be positive because it refers to how the need to develop new skills or enhance knowledge to meet future requirements will be satisfied.

III. Action-orientated

Training philosophy should stress that training exists to make things happen, to get people into action, and to ensure that they can do things they are doing now better or will be able to do things that they could not do before. The objectives of any training event or program should be defined in terms of 'deliverables'-this is what people will be able to do after training, and this is what they will achieve.

I V. Performance-related

A performance-related training philosophy involves relating training specifically to performance and competence requirements-for example, those following the introduction of a new product, processor system.

3.1.2 THE PROCESS OF TRAINING

A. Conditions for effective training

Learning theory suggests that there are ten main conditions required for training to be effective:

1. Individuals must be motivated to learn. They should be aware that their present level of

knowledge, skill or competence, or their existing attitude or behavior, needs to be improved if they are to perform their work to their own and to others' satisfaction. They must, therefore, have a clear picture of the behavior they should adopt.

2. Standards of performance should be set for learners. Learners must have clearly defined targets and standards which they find acceptable and can use to judge their own progress.
3. Learners should have guidance. They need a sense of direction and feedback on how they are doing. Self-motivated individuals may provide much of this for themselves, but the trainer should still be available to encourage and help when necessary.

Systematic training is based on a simple four-stage model expressed as follows:

- Define training needs.
- Decide what sort of training is required to satisfy these needs.
- Use experience and trained trainers to plan and implement training.
- Follow up and evaluate training to ensure that it is effective.

The model provides a good basis for planning training programmes; but it is over-simplified-training is a more complex process than this. Another drawback to the concept of systematic training is that insufficient emphasis is placed on the responsibilities of managers and individuals for training. And under the influence of the training boards, a 'training industry' developed in the 1970s which imposed or tried to impose over-elaborate and bureaucratic routines on industry and commerce, an 'industry' which, understandably, was largely dismantled. But the essential validity of the concept of systematic training was not destroyed by the fact that it was badly implemented. What needed to be done was to develop a more realistic approach, which is described below as 'planned training'.

B. Planned training

Planned training, as defined by Kenney and Reid (1994), is a 'deliberate intervention aimed at achieving the learning necessary for improved job performance'. The process of planned training consists of the following steps:

1. Identify and define training needs-this involves analysis of corporate, team, occupational and individual needs to acquire new skills or knowledge or to improve existing competences. The analysis covers problems to be solved as well as future

demands. Decisions are made at this stage on the extent to which training is the best and most cost-effective way to solve the problem.

2. Define the learning required-it is necessary to specify as clearly as possible what skills and knowledge have to be learnt, what competences need to be developed and what attitudes need to be changed.
3. Define the objectives of training-learning objectives are set which define not only what has to be learnt but also what learners must be able to do after their training programme.
4. Plan training programmers-these must be developed to meet the needs and objectives by using the right combination of training techniques and locations.
5. Decide who provides the training-the extent to which training is provided from

Figure 3.1.The process of planned training

Within or outside the organization needs to be decided. At the same time, the division of responsibility between the training department, mangers or team leaders and individuals has to be determined.

1. Implement the training-ensure that the most appropriate methods are used to enable trainees to acquire the skills, knowledge, levels of competence and attitudes they need.
2. Evaluate training- the effectiveness of training is monitored during programmers and, subsequently, the impact of training is assessed to determine the extent to which learning objectives have been achieved.
3. Amend and extend training as necessary- decide, on the basis of evaluation, the extent to which the planned training programmed needs to be improved and how any residual learning requirements should be satisfied.

The training process just described will work effectively only if it is fully integrated with the systems of relationships, structures, interdependence and work in the organization. A systems approach to training has been defined by the Manpower Services Commission (1981) as the process of:

Identifying inputs, outputs, components and sub-systems, and then seeking to identify the contribution that training can make to improve the operation by enhancing the contribution of the human components (people) as opposed to machinery and operational procedures. The systems approach is next applied to the training design, where the components are learning strategies and people, and the objectives are in terms of learning. Finally, the systems approach is applied to the interaction between training and the operation to produce a feedback which can be used to improve subsequent training.

A systems approach requires those concerned with the preparation of training plans to take account of all the factors and variables that might affect learning. In other words, the programmed of training for a job in one part of the organization might be affected by events elsewhere, within or outside the company, and the design of the course must take into account these interactions.

i. IDENTIFYING LEARNING AND TRAINING NEEDS

Training must have a purpose and that purpose can be defined only if the learning needs of the organization and the groups and individuals within it have been system-apically identified and analyzed.

Determining Training Needs

Training won't solve all problems.

Not all problems are training problems.

The novice trainer is well advised to remember these two statements. Ambitious practitioners, anxious to make their presence known to new employers, may be prone to suggest training as the panacea for all the organization's ills. Usually, however, this is not the case. Training programs should be offered as a response to a need, not merely as a quick, sure-fire solution to a given problem. It may well be that the solutions to these problems may be found in the area of personnel, product, promotion, or production. These, and a host of other factors, should be explored before embarking on the training program.

Activity

Why we do needs analysis?

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Before we enumerate several ways to conduct a needs analysis, it might be instructive to suggest some reasons for spending the time and effort in the first place.

Initially, a study of the work environment and the personnel involved will identify the existing level of employee performance. Measured against industry standards, we could compare manufacturing output, for example, to other similar product lines. In office situations where productivity is admittedly difficult to measure, other areas of need might surface. As an illustration, a personality conflict between clerical employees may turn up as the culprit. A program on conflict resolution could address that issue.

Second, a needs analysis could target individuals who most need additional training or development. Through interviews, for example, a person may request assistance in a refresher course for a present job. Or, perhaps, a supervisor may suggest individuals attend a program for new skills needed for a promotion. Through a variety of methods, people can be identified who can materially benefit from additional learning opportunities.

Third, a needs analysis is an excellent vehicle to get a pulse of what the organization is all about. It can provide management with the prevailing attitude or morale of the employees. Administering carefully constructed questionnaires, to be completed anonymously, can often encourage employees to "tell it like it is."

Fourth, a needs analysis reveals information about the organizational climate.

Learning about employee attitudes and conducting needs surveys can help us to get a picture of the total organization. Pinpointing certain weaknesses may alert the astute researcher to an impending dangerous situation. Conversely, a productive team effort in a well-managed organization is also revealed by a needs analysis.
Fifth, a needs analysis involves the entire workforce. People often appreciate being asked their opinions. Of the several methods discussed, many actually involve the individual employee. Would-be participants have a hand, therefore, in helping to design the training effort. Their comments, feelings, or opinions about given content areas may help you construct your training effort.
Finally, because it involves employees and management, these same people feel they have played a part in designing the program. After all, the best training programs are based on identified needs. Therefore, they become "a part of instead of "apart from" the program.

Training needs analysis

Aims

Training needs analysis is partly concerned with defining the gap between what is happening and what should happen. This is what has to be filled by training (see Figure 36.2), ie the difference between what people know and can do and what they should know and be able to do.
However, it is necessary to avoid falling into the trap of adopting the ‘deficiency model’ approach, which implies that training is only about putting things right that have gone wrong.

Figure: the training gap

Training is much more positive than. It is, or should be, more concerned with identifying and satisfying learning and development needs-multi-skilling, fitting people to take on extra responsibilities, increasing all-round competence and preparing people to take on higher levels of responsibility in the future.

Areas

Training needs should be analyzed, first, for the organization as a whole-corporate needs; second, for departments, teams, functions or occupations within the organization-group needs; and third, for individual employees-individual needs. These three areas are interconnected, as shown in Figure 36.3. The analysis of corporate needs will lead to the identification of training needs in different departments or occupations, while these in turn will indicate the training required for individual employees. The process also operates in reverse. As the needs of individual employees are analyzed separately, common needs emerge which can be dealt with on a group basis. The sum of group and individual needs will help to define corporate needs, although there may be some super ordinate training requirements which can be related only to the company as a whole to meet its business development needs-the whole training plan may be greater than the sum of its parts.

Basic Training Areas

The three basic areas involved in performance are the generally accepted types of learning: cognitive (knowledge), psychomotor (skills), and affective (attitudes).
A person must have the basic conceptual knowledge of what is to be done on the job, the rationale for the job, and what the results of doing the job will be. Cognitive understanding of how to perform the job is equally important.
The second basic area, the skills or psychomotor area, relates to motor or manual

skills. This area includes specific physical movements and actions that people take in the performance of their jobs. Often trainers can play an important role in increasing productivity through training activities that shorten the number of movements and actions or that establish new movements that are more productive than the old ones. Work simplification programs, for example, continually attempt to find a "better way."

The third basic area, the attitudinal area (affective domain), is as important as the first two. This important area is often overlooked because the research design does not investigate it. Research has shown that poor employee attitudes have serious effects on productivity. Employees who feel that they are being treated unfairly, that their work is unimportant, or that they are in a hopeless situation, work far below their level of capability.

The productivity crisis of the early 1980s brought this to light in an emphatic way. While there were several causal factors of America's productivity problems, management's disregard for the changing workforce was a key factor. A younger, better educated employee, coupled with the growing number of women entering the world of work, found many organizations uncertain as to how to handle this "new breed." Consequently, worker dissatisfaction and a resultant decrease in productivity plagued a number of companies.

Often training is approached on a hit-and-miss basis. We pick out a skills (psychomotor) program for one year, an attitudinal (affective) program for the next year, and, perhaps, a general knowledge (cognitive) program for another year. Unfortunately, these programs may not relate to the real needs of the organization. We may be training production people to improve quality while the more pressing need may be to improve the selling skills of the sales force.

Sometimes the need for training may be perceived incorrectly. For example, a sales manager may feel that the sales representatives need product knowledge training, while an analysis of the situation may reveal that the sales personnel need the skills to present the product rather than additional knowledge about the product.

Here is where a systematic procedure for determining the needs of the organization is required.

Activity

What are our sources to the needs of training?

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Sources of information

Walters (1983) identifies nine sources of information which help to identify training priorities. These are:

Figure: Training needs analysis-areas and methods

1. Organizational goals and corporate plans which indicate the direction in which the organization is going and, therefore, major training priorities.
2. Human resource and succession planning which provides information on futures skill requirements and management training needs.
3. Personnel statistics on, for example, labor turnover, which highlight HR issues which might be addressed by training.
4. Exit interviews which might suggest deficiencies in training arrangements.
5. Consolation with senior managers which obtains opinions on training needs from key decision makers.
6. Data on productivity, quality and performance which show where there are any gaps between expectations and results or negative trends, and therefore suggest training needs.
7. Departmental layout changes which proved information about future developments and related training needs.
8. Management requests for training which set out perceived needs.
9. Knowledge of financial plans which determines whether the funds will be available for training, and may encourage fresh approaches if resources are limited.

Two other sources not directly mentioned by Walters are plans for introducing new technology or developing IT systems, and marketing plans which indicate where new skills are required to market new products or services, use different selling techniques or operate in new territories.

we shall consider training as needs against present requirements. Development can be as relating to future requirements. For example, this could be preparation for a promotion, or for an organizational development such as the introduction of team working. TNA is assumed to include development issues also. It is important to take into account the culture of the organization within which TNA will be used. A horticultural analogy may be useful here. Consider the nature of the employees.

The culture and environment will therefore dictate whether there needs to be more emphasis on the training or on the development aspects, which of the tools are most appropriate, and where the predominant emphases should be laid. Learning needs and training needs Before considering the identification of needs, it is important to make the distinction between learning and training needs. A learning need as arises, 'when an individual or a group are required to do things differently, or to do different things'. These events arise all the time throughout any working environment and can be met informally as a part of the daily round. A training need only arises: when a learning need cannot be met within the normal day-to-day processes or when meeting a learning need in this way will take too long, involve too high a risk/cost, not result in the required standard of performance, and when training is the most cost-effective way of meeting the need.

It is critical that the training professional, or whoever is carrying out the analysis, has access to the most accurate and relevant information available on the organization's presentperformance, problems and future plans. 'Thequality of the training can be no better than the quality of the analysis permits.' Somesources of data are shown in the subsequent section. Data collection can also take the formof questionnaires, interviews, discussions, brainstorming groups and observation.For the purposes of this chapter, we shall consider undertaking a TNA throughout awhole organization. The prime difficulty ahead of us is the size and complexity of the task.We therefore need to break the process down into bite-size manageable chunks.

Activity

At what are the levels of the organization is training needs identified?

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There are three levels of training needs within organizations:

1. organizational;
2. occupational; and
3. individual level.

We shall use these three broad areas as a starting point to break down the process. A fourth area, needs at departmental level, is a also a useful consideration when analysing training needs in larger organizations and is included here.

NEEDS AT THE ORGANIZATIONAL LEVEL

Business objectives

The starting point for a training needs analysis (TNA) has to be the corporate plan. Every organization has a plan.

This may be bound in a general strategic statement; couched in precise business objectives; or in broad policy guidelines. In some organizations, it may not be in written form, but to survive and move forward, there is somewhere a plan, even if it is only in the head of the Managing Director. This is the starting point for examining training needs.Most well-run organizations will have a well-defined set of business objectives. Wherethese exist, they will normally cascade down the organization so that departments, sectionsand individual managers will have sub-objectives that dovetail into the corporate plan.These are the prime source of information in developing the TNA at this level, for here arethe specific, measurable targets that the organization is committed to pursue.

For example, an organization plans to increase sales of Product A by 10 per cent over the next year. To facilitate this, a further Sales Manager is being recruited; the sales effort is being redirected to promote this particular product; and manufacturing is gearing up for the anticipated rise in demand. Furthermore, assemblers from a production cell that makes a product with falling demand are to be transferred to Product A cell, and marketing support are preparing new corporate brochures and materials for all field sales personnel. As a part of this, a PC diskette is being prepared as a mail shot. The planned increase in sales has already thrown up a myriad of training implications.

These include: induction for the new Sales Manager; training implications for the sales; cross-training of assemblers; briefing of marketing support in the objectives of new promotional materials; and training in the production of PC-based materials. There may also be other training implications to consider; for example, the team leaders of the two affected manufacturing departments may require new skills, and there may be further implications for other areas of the organization. Note that this organizational-level objective is causing training needs at an organizational, departmental, occupational and individual level. Organizational level objectives may contain very large training implications. For example, the redirection of a corporate culture to new beginnings, take-over, or merger, will require careful consideration with regard to the associated training needs. These will normally require a detailed analysis and a substantial commitment of training resource before they can be implemented .As an example, consider an organization that has committed itself to move to a culture of total quality or continuous improvement. A comprehensive strategy is needed, with a phased implementation plan. Such a strategy will typically include improved communications systems, restructuring of job responsibilities, job redesign for supervisors ,empowerment issues, improvements to inter-group interfaces, new alliances with suppliers, and development of group and team working capability. Such a major programme will generate a whole suite of training courses that may embrace every employee. These are complex interventions that will call for an organizational development approach. They will possibly stretch over a number of years and require external consultancy expertise. As such, this scale of programme is an ongoing needs analysis in its own right. Anything that is new will generally have a training implication. The following is a list of considerations:

- new product;
- new process or method;
- new technology;
- new piece of equipment;
- new legislation;
- new/transferred employee;
- new procedures/standards;
- new customer/market.

All new developments involve change and the facility for mistakes or lost opportunities.Thesmarter organization will be reviewing the training implications before rather thanduring the implementation of anything new. Having said that, the line manager may notalways think this way. It is here that the training professional, in keeping an eye open fornew implementations, can make a valuable input to ensure the training need is considered at the right time.

Performance measures

The organization will be measuring itself, not only in terms of traditional financialperformance indicators, but also increasingly in other areas. Corporate and departmentalmeasures such as accident rates, customer complaints, warranty costs and quality costs allgive leads to where things are going wrong. Training professionals should ensure they areprivy to these measures.There is a need to look beyond the simple figures. Something going wrong does not necessarily indicate a training need. For instance, a shortfall in production in a department mayhave a training implication. On the other hand, it may simply be down to poor performanceof a sub-supplier. In this respect some caution is necessary. A training needs analysis isperhaps better termed a 'needs analysis'.The needs of the organization are not necessarily trainingneeds.Ver y often, there may be process, systems or procedural issues that need addressing.

Problem-solving groups

Many organizations have embraced continuous improvement or total quality philosophiesthat use quality groups to address operational problems and devise and implement solutions. Such groups can occur at any level within the hierarchy. Such groups can be cross-functional or discreet within a function or department.These groups are working on critical incidents or failures within the organizationalsystem. As such, they are valuable sources of information on where training needs may beoccurring. Very often, these groups are coordinated in their activity via a steeringcommittee, facilitator, or a quality function. The machinery of the continuous improvementmethodology is therefore doing some of the training professional's work in identifyingwhere things are failing within the organization.

A project is underway to assess the organizational impact of the major investment intraining and development for Governors. At an individual level, the end-of-training questionnaires indicate that the objectives set have been met, and follow-up questionnairessuggest that people perceive themselves to be more effective having undertaken theactivity. Evaluating the impact on the organization continues to be problematic. Directlyattributing the improvement in the Prison Service's Key Performance Indicators (such asnumber of escapes, time out of cell) to the investment in training and development is too simplistic to be defensible. However, the investment in training and development hashelped to create a perception that the Prison Service values its senior staff and that in itselfis of benefit.With acknowledgement to Shane Bryans, Head of Management and Specialist Training,

Human resource planning

The organization may have a well developed plan, giving detailed projections on the skill levelsrequired over the next few years. Where such a plan is not available, a lot of valuable information can be gar nered from personnel statistics and records. A simple analysis of age profiles,qualification levels and labour turnover will start to give shape to the sorts of people and skillsthat the organization requires in the foreseeable future and hence their training needs. Some form of succession plan is also required. This can be in a rough-cut format. Detailed plans are very often difficult to produce, owing to the high degree of future uncertainty. However, some format is needed to highlight those within the organization worthy of development.

NEEDS AT THE DEPARTMENTALLEVEL

In anything but smaller organizations, a detailed TNA becomes too complex and difficult tobe generated centrally. This is where the use of TNAs on a departmental basis can beinvaluable. It is doubly valuable as it delegates the responsibility for detailed day-to-daytraining analysis down to where it should be, with the line manager.The departmental analysis is performed in exactly the same way as the analysis at organizational level. For instance, reviewing the categories above, the business objectives should have been cascaded down to a departmental level. In the example given above, themanager of Product A cell is already considering the step-up in production. The manageralready has more detailed personal objectives relating to the phased increase in productionover the next year. He knows the transferees coming into his department and is already planning the reassignment of duties and who will train the transferees.

Likewise, the consideration of anything new can be effective at departmental level. The arrival of a new piece of equipment in the department has a training need. It is not necessarily a need that could or would be identified or met by a central training facility 's analysis of corporate needs.The department may also have its own set of performance measures. Output, accident rates and absenteeism may all be measured locally and have local training implications. Similarly, there is value in local human resource planning. The manager will know what retirements are forthcoming, absences for maternity or pre-planned medical leave, new entrants, etc.

Departmental problem-solving groups

Where these exist, they can be a useful source of information for training needs at the departmental level. They can provide information on two levels:

1. They will be searching for solutions to departmental problems. Some of these solutions will have training needs.
2. These teams can be directed specifically towards training and people-related issues to identify needs.

An organization may already have trained teams in specific problem-solving techniques. These could brainstorming, Pareto analysis, fishbone diagrams, force field analysis, SWOT analysis (strength,weakness,opportunity,threat analysis) , or other widely available problem-solving models. These are traditionally considered as useful for the solution of operational problems but there is no reason why the majority cannot be applied to training or human resource-related issues and they are particularly valid at departmental level.

An easily applied tool is the SWOT analysis, which asks the team to consider strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats relating to a specific situation. The finishing and packing department of a manufacturing organization has asked its problem-solving team to look at the training implications within the department as a starting point for consideration of next year 's training needs.

NEEDS AT OCCUPATIONALLEVELS

Activity

What are traning needs at occupational level?

At this level, training needs are expressed as the knowledge, skills and attitudes that are needed to carry out specific duties within a job. They are normally defined through the process of job analysis. Gael (1988:xv) discusses more than 40 different approaches to job

analysis. He stated that it: may be viewed as the hub of virtually all human resources administration and management activities necessary for the successful functioning of organizations. Hardly a program of interest to human resource specialists and other practitioners whose work pertains to organizational personnel does not depend on or cannot benefit from job analysis results. The importance of precise and accurate job information cannot be overemphasized, considering the impact that decisions based upon job information have on individual job applicants and employees and organizations.

We can discuss 18 methods of job analysis. These range considerably in their levels of sophistication and the resources required. The spectrum starts with theapparently simple, yet time-consuming technique of observing the job-holder.Other ways of collecting data are to get the job-holder to record via diaries, logs or self-descriptions the work carried out, or to undertake a job analysis interview with the job-holder. There are also more sophisticated techniques, including the critical incidenttechnique. This method collects information on incidents that are critical or very importantin the performance of the job. The range continues through the use of repertory grids, todetailed checklists, inventories, etc. There are, therefore, many techniques available tocarry out a job analysis. This chapter does not have the space to discuss all the differingtechniques; however, we can review the general principles involved in the process:

• Some common sources of information for a job analysis are the job description, whichwill list major responsibilities and tasks, and the job specification, which will give indicators on the knowledge, skills and attitudes required by the job.

• The analysis involves breaking down the job into component tasks. The relevant skilland knowledge required to perform each of these tasks are then listed. Attitudes are adifficult area and these are more rarely measured. Analysis will therefore tend toconcentrate on knowledge and skills.

• There is now a comprehensive listing of all the skills and knowledge that are required toperform the whole job. Next, the level of competence for the knowledge and skillsneeds to be defined. This is important, since not all tasks contained within the job will beperformed with the same regularity, nor be of equal importance.

• From here the necessary training programmes can be developed to train the job-holderagainst the required standards. The technique is particularly relevant in definingtraining needs where new jobs or ranges of jobs are being created. For example, a newfactory on a green-field site may find the technique appropriate.Job analysis is, however, a detailed technique. It therefore lends itself particularly to situa-tions where larger numbers of homogenous jobs exist. To perform a detailed analysis onone-off jobs is a time-consuming process. Indeed, Wellens (1970) points out that jobanalysis as a means of determining training needs is at its most effective at the lower end ofthe organization. The discretionary and ever-changing nature of supervisory and managerial jobs means that they cannot be predetermined or prescribed accurately.Wilson (1997:75) summarizes the debate on the effectiveness of a macro or microapproach to job analysis:

In order to conduct job analysis, there is the danger of concentrating on the individualelements and details of the job and consequently failing to observe the overall picture i.e.failing to see the wood for the trees. Alternatively, viewing the job as an entity or as purelyan outcome may result in a failure to recognize important details.Job analysis, however, remains a very valid technique for the identification of the skills and knowledge required at the occupational or job level.

NEEDS AT THE INDIVIDUAL LEVEL

Spoon feeding in the long run teaches us nothing but the shape of the spoon.(E M Forster, 1951)At this level, the organization is seeking to identify any shortfall in the individual'sknowledge, skills and attitudes required to perform his or her job. The difference betweenthe desired level of performance and the current level of performance isthe training gap.The analysis of needs at this level has two prerequisites. The first is that the performanceparameters of the job have been defined. This can be against a job analysis as definedabove. Alternatively there may be individual performance measures identified, particularly at management level, where a manager is measured against personal objectives.However, failure to meet a personal objective does not necessarily indicate a training need;for example, the failure of a Production Manager to meet output targets where this is aresult of serious plant breakdowns.The second prerequisite is that some form of review takes place against the performance parameters. This is traditionally the performance appraisal or review. Other techniquesinclude self-assessment, assessment centres, 360-degree feedback, etc. Whatever the technique employed, some form of performance measure is required.Without these two elements – the required and the actual performance – an analysiscannot take place. Where these are in place, there are still difficulties in evaluating individual training needs. For example, a new receptionist is receiving a six-monthly appraisal. The manager has identified a satisfactory match with the functional skills required toperform the job. These include completion of the visitors' book, issuing security passes,answering incoming calls and routing to the relevant extension, notification of visitors tothe relevant recipient, etc.Here the receptionist is utilizing both the required functional skills and required knowledgeto perform the job role. No training gap is perceived. The manager is, however, dissatisfiedwith the job-holder's attitude towards visitors. It appears cold and does not reflect thecompany 's preferred welcoming style. This leads towards a difficult area of definition. Are themanager 's expectations about the receptionist's attitude fair and how can they be measured?And what is a possible training solution? It could be that the job-holder does not possess the warmth the manager expects and the error has been made at the recruitment phase.

At the individual level, we also need to review development opportunities. Many appraisaland review systems do build in a forward-looking aspect in which employee and managercan together discuss both the individual's and the organization's view of their future.Other sources of information will be succession plans and human resource plans, wherethese exist.Development of individual employees is vital to future organizational growth. Bennis(1989:47) states:Our educational system is really better at training than educating. And that's unfortunate.Training is good for dogs because we require obedience from them. In people, all it does is orient them toward the bottom line.The valid point here is that it is quite feasible for an organization to place too much emphasis on training to meet current performance and business objectives, meeting the short term bottom line results, at the expense of developing people for the future.The degree of development activity will depend upon organizational culture andtraining policy. Some organizations will invest in the bare minimum of training, perhaps as a result of health and safety legislation. Other organizations encourage learning for its own sake and have well-established personal development programmes.

Ways of Needs Analysis

Activity

How is training need analyzed?

A determination of training needs can run the spectrum from a simple question ("What do you think we need most?") to a complex research design. Some of the more commonly used types of analysis include

Informal interview

Observation

Survey method

Performance tests

Formal interviews

Reports from superiors

Examination of records

Advisory committees

Checklists

Assessment centers

Questionnaires

Management requests

Formal research

Let's examine each of these in some detail.

Informal Interview. As suggested by its title, this technique can be easily accomplished without a great deal of research or background. It could take place over a cup of coffee or during a casual lunchtime conversation. You should be cautioned, of course, about not appearing to be prying or playing a clandestine role. If the conversation is initiated by the potential recipient group, so much the better. If not, tactful questioning must be used to ferret out the real training problem.
Observation, Equally informally, the trainer can discover areas of potential training needs through observational methods. For example, an overheard misunderstanding between employees may indicate a need for communications or human relations training. A complaint from a coworker about outgoing correspondence may indicate a need for some clerical training. Don't assume, however, that what you may sense as a training need is always*—and solely—a training need. You may see only the surface of the problem or you may even misread the entire picture.

Survey Method. Questionnaires are typically constructed to determine the types of training needed. Since it is often too costly or time-consuming to poll all the personnel in your organization, you may randomly select certain groupings that are deemed representative of the department or organization. In constructing a questionnaire, have a pilot group critique the instrument for clarity or ambiguity. If supervisory clearance is required, you should ask your superiors to also assist in the critique before you administer the survey to the chosen group.

Performance Tests. The achievement level of individuals and groups can be assessed through testing. Entry-level skills, for example, are easily measured. After a person has been on the job for a time, periodic appraisal may show a real need for cognition, affective, or even psychornotor updating. Commercial tests on a variety of content areas are readily available should internal sources be lacking.

Formal Interviews. Personal interviews with employees may uncover a wide scope of training needs. To preclude any "backwash" or negative feedback from, the interviewee's superior, it is always necessary to respect the confidentiality of the responses. Problems seen on the job may be traced to an ineffective or inhuman manager.

Delicacy in handling these incidents is extremely important. If the interview is conducted by the manager of that respective department, you will seldom find the frank and candid responses given to a third party if anonymity is ensured,

Reports from Superiors. These requests may come from an individual's superior or from an official of the organization. In the latter, of course, you are advised to take prompt action, but remember that the request may not be a bona fide training need. Again, an honest inquiry on your part may articulate the real problem or dispose of an artificial one,

Supervisors are becoming increasingly people oriented and can be a sincere and continuing source of information regarding areas where training is needed. We must realize that people don't always know what they need or may mistakenly cite an incorrect need.

Records Examination. A variety of needs may be uncovered by reviewing employee efficiency and production records. A quick check with your human resource department will determine which records may be available. Since laws are becoming more stringent, be certain you are not checking on information considered to be privileged data.
Assuming these records are approved for your perusal, several areas of need may be brought to your attention. Productivity, sales, operating ratios, and so on are but a few of the items that may be compared to pinpoint an individual need.

Advisory Committees. Every organization should have a training committee composed of several individuals representing key departments or agencies of that organization. Monthly or periodic meetings of this group serve as a "sounding board" for new program ideas, and each committee member functions as a representative of his or her respective department. Training requests could be funneled through that person and brought to the committee for disposition. If possible, your committee should have members from all levels of the organization (employee, supervisory, middle management, and top management). This group can be your best friend in your training efforts. Use it wisely.

Checklists. A simple checklist can be administered and tabulated with a minimum of effort. Formst can be adapted to meet the needsof most organizations. Respondents merely indicate their areas of interest or concern. A tally is then easily compiled.

Assessment Centers. Though time-consuming and elaborate, the use of assessment centers can pinpoint an individual's need for improvement. Essentially, an assessment center is the site of a carefully controlled process where skilled observers evaluate the behaviors and actions of participants. Assessment centers are used primarily in middle- and upper-management circles.

Questionnaires. Another excellent vehicle, the questionnaire can provide significant amounts of critical information. Attitude surveys often take this form. Typically, these surveys cover attitudes, reactions, and feelings about satisfaction (or lack thereof) with the organization, industry, job, or work itself. Working conditions, pay or salary, supervisors, coworkers, and a host of relevant issues may also be investigated.

Management Requests. There may be times when key management personnel suggest that certain topics or programs be considered. The perspective they bring is of particular interest since quick follow-up and carry-through is of obvious importance, Their requests may be for members of top management or for subordinates in respective areas of the organization. Regardless of the source, we are well advised to treat these requests as valued training needs. In those rare cases, however, where such a request is somewhat afield of a definitive training program, consult with your own immediate superior or seek advice from your training committee.
Formal Research, Your internal research should be directed at eliminating the discrepancy between actual and perceived needs. You can do this by developing evidence that clearly demonstrates what the real need is and presenting this evidence in a way that shows how the perceived need will be fulfilled by the training program. You can accomplish these goals by concentrating your research on training's relationship to the actual problem. You should prepare your research guideline in such a way that only pertinent information is collected. There are a multiplicity of training needs in the minds of people at any given time. These needs may (or may not) apply to the problem at hand. If you are making a general survey to determine a wide range of needs throughout the organization, then you should use a very open questioning technique. When dealing with a performance problem, however, a questioning technique that will restrict the answers to needs associated with performance deficiencies is necessary.

The following four steps will help you achieve that purpose:

1. Write a statement of the perceived training need and the expected result of that training as expressed in the training request.

2. Write a statement of the problem and the primary causes of the problem as determined by the problem analysis.
3. State the discrepancy existing between current performance and the desired performance.
4. Develop your research questions to determine what training is needed, and by whom, to eliminate the performance deficiencies. Separate the components of knowledge, skills, and attitudes.

Internal Research Sources

After you have constructed your research questions, the next step is to start collecting data. Whether you are interviewing, observing, or examining records, your activ ities will be directed by your research questions. All collected data should be identified as to their source and the questions to which they relate. This identification will help you weigh the importance of each response when you tabulate your results. Each research project may require different sources of information. For one problem you may be required to examine several sources of information, while another will require only one or two sources. The following sources are also useful in research:

Activity records covering current and previous results

Supervisory evaluations of subordinate performance

Job descriptions or task analysis reports

Written policies and procedures applicable to the situation

Activity records of similar departments

Personnel evaluations, including employee tests and questionnaire results

The tools, equipment, and supplies being used to do the job

Interviews with the supervisors of the target group

Interviews with the target group

Interviews with other groups who interact with the target group

Once you have completed your internal research and tabulated your data, you must analyze the data to determine whether or not training will do the job and what types of training need to be done.

The following questions will be helpful in making
this analysis:

If the actual need is part of a problem, will training solve the problem?

If a behavioral change is required, can training effect this change?

What specific people need the training?

Will the new behavior be reinforced on the job?

Can the training program and the expected results be evaluated?

Will training fulfill the perceived needs and generate the expected performance results expressed in the training request?

Once the needs are definitively established, you will find these procedures useful in setting forth your plan:

State, in writing, the need that the training program is designed to fill.

Indicate the method that will be used to evaluate the result.

Establish the minimum acceptable level of proficiency the trainee must achieve.

Describe the stages of growth the trainee will go through.

Delineate the various levels of proficiency attributable to each stage of growth.

Describe the expected skill development or change on the job, after training.

Spell out the value system constraints and supports of the group who will receive the training.

Define the communication network:

A, Data collection and storage

B, Self-correcting criteria

C. Retrieval

D. Utilization

Describe the executive or organizational support.

Indicate the rewards likely to accrue to the successful participant.

The Training Proposal

Once a needs analysis has been completed, you are ready to prepare a training proposal. This assumes, of course, that the analysis indicated a need for training. If the needs analysis indicated a performance deficiency, for example, then the objective of the training proposal will be to remove the deficiency through training. The proposal should spell out the need for training, the expected results, the people to be trained, and the expected consequences if training is not conducted, and it should include an outline of the proposed program. The following sample proposal covers these points.

Sample Proposal

Objective

Reduce costs of "widget" stampings by 10 percent.

The Need for Training

A needs analysis was conducted in the production department to determine if training could improve performance and lower production costs. Our analysis indicated that two major problems can be reduced by training. One is the abnormally high waste factor, found to be 14 percent of stamping stock, and the second is the improper handling procedures being followed by the stock feeders.

Sheet steel stock is being damaged in the warehouse and on the line. This damage due to improper handling is a major cause of the high waste factor. Waste is also occurring due to improper alignment procedures by the stock feeder.

Expected Results

Proper handling and feeding procedures should result in the waste factor being lowered to approximately 4 percent. About 7 percent of the reduction will accrue from improved handling procedures and 3 percent from improved stock feeding procedures.

Prospects for Training

All lift-truck operators and stock clerks in the sheet steel warehouse and all stamping machine operators and feeders should be trained. Currently, there are fourteen machine operators, fourteen feeders, six lift-truck operators, and two stock clerks. The thirty-six prospective trainees should be trained concurrently to gain the support of all those involved.

Outline of the Program

Waste Reduction Training Program

I. Orientation

A. Explain problem and training objective to participants.

B. Establish minimum level of proficiency trainees must achieve.

C. Explain rewards or benefits participants will receive by reaching required proficiency level.

II. Concurrent training sessions in warehouse and in production department

A. Demonstration

B. Practice session

C. On-the-job test

III. Discussion

A. Problems encountered

B. Suggested solutions

IV. Second session

A. Demonstration

B. Practice session

C. On-the-job test

V. Evaluation

A. Waste factor results

B. Performance results

C. Attitude results

Expected Conditions Without Training

Without training, the waste factor is expected to continue at the current 14 percent waste level. This level may even increase as the cumulative effect of poor attitudes and improper work habits reinforce each other over time.

Recommendations

A training program is recommended to begin immediately and is expected to last approximately three months, with follow-up tests and evaluation to continue for one year.

EMPLOYEE DEVELOPMENT AND ASSISTANCE PROGRAMME(EDAP)

EDAP offers employees a wide range of opportunities for personal and career development. These can include education, training , retraining or other development activitiesas well as a variety of services to encourage healthier lifestyles. The programme is notintended to replace the company's job-related training .

The aims of EDAP are:

• to enhance the personal development and well-being of all employees;

• to provide personal educational and training opportunities;

• to provide resources to encourage a healthier lifestyle.

Many local committees have developed their own on-site facilities such as classrooms,fitness centres and computer rooms. This offers the flexibility to enable shift workers to attend programmes. The concepts of the Ford EDAP have been copied by many organizations, large and small, since its inception. It is difficult to assign measurable bottom-line benefits to such programmes. But they can have strong motivational aspects and positive employee relations implications as well as the obvious benefits of bringing many employees back into themain body of the church of learning. Programmes such as EDAP allow many employees back into the learning arena anddevelop their learning skills and enhance their confidence levels. These philosophies alsofit well with continuous improvement programmes whereby organizations seek toenhance all employees' contributions to the business, so that untapped and unseenpotential can be harnessed. These programmes, whether they be learning a language at a local college, improving computer skills, or taking a Master's degree, are risky investments.They may have no immediate impact upon company performance nor fulfil any immediatetraining need. However, issues of leadership, innovation and creativity are becoming more critical to organizational success. Thus, it is these sorts of investments in individualpotential which become more valid and sensible.There is always the danger ofassessing training needs solely from the perspective of theorganization. Many individual employees rightly have their own agendas and plansconcerning their educational and developmental needs. And there are sound business andmotivational reasons for organizations to assist employees to fulfil these self-developmentneeds.

As human beings, we all have our own personal struggle to find ourselves and ourrole in life. There are very few that live solely to work, but because work occupies thelion's share of our waking life, each individual usually seeks to gain fulfilment and satis-faction within the working environment. That self-awareness and self-development are,by definition, broader than the pursuit of organizational objectives. As Handy (1997:90)has said:We have today the opportunity, which is also the challenge, to shape ourselves, even toreinvent ourselves. Our lives are not completely foreordained, either by science or by oursouls. We can make of our lives a masterpiece if we so wish. It is an opportunity that oughtto be available to all humans. It could be. It is the fortunate combination of liberaldemocracy and free market capitalism that gives us this opportunity, as long as we makethese two our servants, not our masters.

Developmental training can be more structured, particularly where this is linked intocareer development programmes. Where succession planning is present, plans may existfor managers to gain experience, for example through secondment to a new function and todevelop themselves educationally. These training needs are identified and budgeted for inagreed development plans.

Development needs, specifically those that are initiated by the individual employee, arehard to quantify in terms of cost benefit to the organization. They therefore become harderto justify and to support as a priority need (see below). For this reason, they should beembedded within a corporate policy, as a percentage figure or money/time investment.Otherwise, they are easily trimmed out as an unquantifiable expenditure.

DEFINING THE TRAINING PRIORITIES

Activity

What is the importance of defining training priorities in organizations? What training needs do you forward in organizations you are familiar?

Having undertaken an organization-wide TNA, it is likely that the number of training needs identified are much larger than can be met through current resources. It is therefore imperative to prioritize the needs into some order of importance. The priorities may be self evident but where this is not the case, the following technique can be applied. It is useful todo this as a group exercise, such as in a training committee:

1. Certain training needs will already be defined through the organizations policy or strategy. Forinstance, the organization has committed to train three designated managers on an MBA programme. All PC users are to be trained in the new suite of software by thethird quarter. Such strategic and policy training decisions are already pre-ordained.

2. A distinction must be made between training needs and training wants, that is,between the essential and the desirable. Where needs are identified against organizational objectives, then the arising needs should be essential to the achievement of those objectives. However, it is probable that in the course of undertaking a TNA, general requests for training will emerge. These may include wants rather than needs .For instance, the Financial Controller considers that line managers have a poor under-standing of the financial measures used in the organization. This may be true. While a properly designed course in Finance for Non-Financial Managers may address this issue, will it actually improve the organization's performance? It is a desirable but it is not essential.

3. Pareto analysis can be employed as a technique to define the highest priority trainingneeds among the remaining needs. A cost saving resulting from the proposedtraining is calculated (estimated savings minus estimated training costs). The costsavings are compared and the best savings become the priority needs. Consideringthe Pareto principle: 20 per cent of the training input is likely to yield 80 per cent of thesavings.

For instance, an organization is having broken merchandise returned due to faultypacking. It emerges that staff in the packing department have not been fully trained in thecorrect packaging methods for a new product range. Returns are costing the organization£3000 per month. If left unresolved, a substantial cost will accrue. Such a piece of trainingbecomes a high priority against other costed training needs.Costing of training in softer skills can be trickier. But all that is being attempted here issome rough measure to enable some comparisons to be drawn. Avoid getting drawn intodetailed and complex calculations; a rough yardstick is all that may be required.

The three-stage process for prioritizing training needs is summarized below:

1. Include training needs predetermined at policy level.
2. Divide remaining needs into essential and desirable.
3. Cost the essential needs and prioritize via Pareto.

The clear message arising from research for this chapter is that successful organizations willbe the ones which:

1. Explore their current and future markets in a truly strategic sense in order to anticipatetrends and prepare for them before they actually happen.
2. Translate the needs of the external business environment into the actualities of theinternal organizational environment by sharing and communicating strategic visionand goals. This includes sharing both the good and bad news with employees.
3. Take a systems approach to linking each of their key business strategies together. long-term strategic planning has taken place, thenstrategic systems planningalso needsto take place.
4. Consider the cultural aspects of globalization if they are competing in a worldwidemarketplace. The national norms and values of the parent company are not necessarilythose of employees in other parts of the world.
5. Consider the effects that ongoing change and reconfiguration will have on the work-force and plan to communicate the rationale behind change to employees rather thanimpose it on them.
6. Create or at least understand the type of organizational culture/s that will support boththe business and its employees.

7. Evaluate their current performance management system on a regular basis and takeaction to identify gaps and address them.

The common element in each of the above seven points is people and their relationshipwith and potential to the business. A ten-year longitudinal study (1991 to 2000) entitled‘Impact of

people management practices on business performance' (IPD, 1997b:16) reports:
The results reveal that acquisition and development of skills (selection, induction, trainingand appraisal) and job design (job variety and responsibility, skill flexibility and teamworking)are significant predictors of both change in productivity and change in profitability.
The ideal scenario, suggested by Bassiet al (1996:41) includes:

• performance management systems that encourage development, that are highly moti-vating and that are equitable;
• compensation (pay) systems that reward the best performers appropriately andmotivate behaviours critical to business success;
• training and development systems that provide employees with the skills and behaviours for their current and future jobs in the organization.

Implications for HRD professionals and practitioners

There are no easy or simple solutions in the application of performance management, whichever function or discipline within an organization we may belong to. What is evident is that traditional roles and practices are in many cases no longer relevant to the world of today. The reality of the lean organization requires the breaking down of traditional boundaries and barriers.
Modern business requires employees at all levels to be flexible and adaptable. The ability of employees to work across professional disciplines within high performance teams is a noftquoted example in competence statements and management texts. As Holbeche (1997)states, 'Lean organizations depend on their ability to create and dissolve teams and toenable teamwork uncluttered by functional boundaries or inflexibility.'If, for example, we extrapolate this into the changing role of the HRD professional, whatmight this mean? Traditional training officers/managers might consider that the mainelements of their role are to identify training needs, design and deliver appropriate trainingand development courses and initiatives and evaluate them. To do so might involvedialogue with others outside the function but often at an operational level. What will berequired of HRD professionals in the future in relation both to performance managementand our roles in general, is, where appropriate:

Methods of analyzing training needs

These sources provide the basis for the detailed analysis of training needs using the methods described below.

Activity

How do you analyze training needs?

I. Business and human resource plans

The training strategy of an organization should largely be determined by its business and HR strategies and plans, including plans for the introduction of new technology, from which flow human resource plans. The plans should indicate in fairly general terms the types of skills and competences that may be required in the future and the numbers of people with those skills and competences who will be needed. These broad indicators have to be translated into more specific plans which cover, for example, the outputs from training programmers of people with particular skills or a combination of skills (multi-skilling).

II. Job analysis

Job analysis for training purposes means examining in detail the content of jobs, the performance standards required in terms of quality and output and the knowledge, skills and competences needed to perform the job competently and thus meet the performance standards.

The techniques of job, skills and competence analysis were described in Chapter 23. For training purposes, it would be necessary to ensure that the information obtained from this analysis specifies:

- Any problems faced by job holders in learning the basic skills and applying them successfully;
- Any weaknesses in the performance of existing job holders arising from gaps in knowledge, lack of skill or poor motivation which needs to be rectified by training;
- Any areas where competence levels are clearly not up to the standard required;
- Any areas where future changes in work processes, methods or job responsibilities indicate a learning need;
- How training is carried out at present-and how effective it is.

The output of the job analysis should be training or learning specification, as described below.

III. Training and learning specifications

Training or a learning specification is a product of job analysis. It breaks down the broad duties contained in the job description into the detailed tasks that must be carried out. It then sets out the characteristics or attributes that the individual should have in order to perform these tasks successfully. These characteristics are:

- Knowledge- what the individual needs to know. It may be professional, technical or commercial knowledge. Or it may be about the commercial, economic, or market environment; the machines to be operated; the materials or equipment to be used or the procedures to be followed; or the customers, clients, colleagues and subordinates he or she is in contact with and the factors that affect their behavior. Or it may refer to the problems that occur and how they should be dealt with.
- Skills-what the individual needs to be able to do if results are to be achieved and knowledge is to be used effectively. Skills are built progressively by repeated training or other experience. They may be manual, intellectual or mental, perceptual or social.
- Competences-the behavior competences needed to achieve the levels of performance required.
- Attitudes-the disposition to behave or to perform in a way that is in accordance with

the requirements of the work.

- Performance standards-what the fully competent individual has to be able to achieve. A learning specification as illustrated in Figure 36.4 may be produced for trainees of new starters.

III.3.6 PLANNING TRAINING PROGRAMMES

Every training programmed needs to be designed individually, and the design will continually evolve as new learning needs emerge, or when feedback indicates that changes are required. Before consideration is given to special aspects of training programmers for managers, team leaders, craft and technical trainees, and office staff, decisions are necessary in the areas discussed below.

Activity

How should organizations plan to train their employees?________________

____

____

Objectives

It is essential to consider carefully the objectives of the training programmed i.e. the learning outcomes. Objectives can be defined as 'criterion behavior', i.e. the standards or changes of behavior on the job to be achieved if training is to be regarded as successful. to work This should be a definition of what the trainee will be able to do when he or she goes back on completing the course; in other words, terminal behavior. Transfer of learning is what counts; behavior on the job is what matters. Training objectives are best expressed as follows:

On completing the training (or this part of the course) the trainee will be able to…(read a balance sheet, program a microcomputer, operate a word processor, work to a high degree of accuracy, etc).

Instructional Objectives

In planning any kind of a road trip, common sense dictates that we initially search out our destination and then plot backward to our starting point. When we're ready for the trip, we already have identified our objective as the destination point. Depending on the length of the journey, we may have also defined some sub goals or stopover points along the way.

It is wise to do similar planning for every training effort in which you are engaged. And yet, as startling as it may seem, far too many training programs are started every day with little if any idea as to what the end goal or objective might be. It's been said that you can never be lost if you don't really know where you're going! While that may be true, it's a sorry state to be in when it comes to human resource development.

It is incumbent on each of us to know precisely what the end product or training objective of each session and program is before the training actually starts. It is equally important for the participants to recognize that we have defined goals toward which we are all driving. Only then can we have a fruitful and rewarding journey.

Goals and Objectives

The terms goals and objectives are often used interchangeably. One dictionary definition states:

goal: an end or objective

objective: something worked toward or striven for: a goal

For our purposes, however, we have elected to differentiate between these terms. We suggest that a training goal be a general statement of what the training is intended to accomplish.

A training objective is a specific statement of change in the knowledge, skills, or attitudinal areas.

Programming Training Objectives

If we design every aspect of a training program with evaluation in mind, we must program training objectives that specify behavioral change leading directly to the

accomplishment
of specific organizational goals. In writing objectives, keep in mind that the behavioral change required to obtain these results must be reinforced if the behavior is to continue in the actual work situation. Behavior that is learned in the artificial situation of a classroom will seldom be carried over to the job unless that new behavior is rewarded on the job.

In this chapter, we discuss behavioral objectives and the variables that affect the success of your training program. Both short-term and long-term objectives are considered in relation to the training approach required for each. You will be given specific guidelines for developing each type of training program.

You will also learn how to test your objectives against criteria that will ensure the success of the program. You will be given ways to test the written materials for clarity and a checklist to use in determining the effectiveness of the design of your written program. You will also see how to demonstrate the program's credibility and its value to the organization,

Preparing Instructional Objectives

Instructional objectives must delimit the training activities to those that lead to the achievement of specific results. The overriding goal, then, becomes the change in performance that will be required to reach training or organizational goals. The training objective will be to provide the skills, knowledge, or attitude improvement that will result in the attainment of the specified goals. This criterion provides the basis for later evaluation of the results of training.

Short-Term Operational Objectives

Short-term objectives are those that are associated with "first-level training." For example, it might be the training required to develop employees to the point where they can operate a machine, go through the basic steps of the job assignment, and be generally aware of what is required in the performance of those duties. The first level is thought of as the apprentice or trainer level.

Short-term objectives are also related to ad hoc programs for new employee indoctrination, special informational programs, and new policies or procedures. Once an ad hoc workshop or lecture is completed, the program is discarded or filed until asimilar situation arises again.

First-Level Skills Objectives. A program covering first-level skills provides detailed job knowledge and the correct procedures for accomplishing the job tasks.

Learning objectives should contain progression steps that permit the employee to change an attitude, knowledge, or skill on a step-by-step basis. The behavioral change that is expected to take place at each step should be written into the objective so that it may be evaluated.

Management expectation for performance should be considered in determining the objectives. The expected "how and when" should be set up as guidelines, but flexibility should be maintained to allow for differences in the trainees' individual learning rates.

The objectives should specify short-range levels of proficiency that are acceptable for each step. The particular training method—lecture, "on line" learning or on-the-job coaching—should be spelled out for each phase in the program. Obviously, the various steps may require different methods of instruction.

It is important to establish an information system to support the trainees from the very beginning. The trainees need to know who is responsible for the many functions related to the job. Detailed instructions on what to do or where to go when equipment, space, or policy is interfering with the accomplishment of their tasks should be explained.

Special Program Objectives, Often the training department is required to prepare special programs for a specific purpose. There may be a special problem to solve, a policy to implement, temporary assignments to prepare people for an organizational change, or perhaps a move to a new location. Training personnel are often termed "change agents" and are specially skilled in preparing guidelines for these kinds of organizational change. The objective for such special programs might be the development of a guideline to be followed in making the required change.

The following adaptation of a problem-solving technique should help you in developing guidelines for special programs:

1. Diagnose the problem or objective:

A. List the causes of the problem or obstacles that may interfere with

achieving the objective.
B. Pick the most significant obstacle or cause and develop it into a written statement of a program objective.
C. List the subproblems that must be resolved.
2. Reduce the written objective into specific terms:
A, State the specific purpose to be accomplished and the time frame.
B. State the specific skill to be learned or the specific methods to be used in accomplishing the purpose.
3. Establish evaluation criteria:
A. List the required levels of proficiency.
B. List the indirect resources or other people who will be needed or whose actions will affect the results.
C. Restate the written objective, considering the evaluation criteria.
4. Develop a step-by-step guideline for reaching the objective:
A, List as many possible solutions as you can think up.

B. Write a brief evaluation for each solution,
C, Select and write out, for use in your guideline, the solution most likely to succeed.

Long-Term Comprehensive Objectives

Long-term training objectives are directed at second-level or professional development. These improvements in proficiency occur over a long period of time and are affected by the employees' attitudes as well as their knowledge and skills. Comprehensive objectives must be based on an awareness of the part these attitudes, knowledge, and skills play in employee development.

Proficiency develops over a long period of time but occurs in small increments or improvement steps. Training must be designed so that it relates to the particular stage of development the employees are experiencing. The training objectives should be related to the employees' long-range attempts to reach their potential and to the long-range goals of the organization.

The attitudes, knowledge, and skills necessary for the attainment of the longrange goals of the organization are all part of the trainer's objectives in training people to perform their jobs. Feedback and reinforcement are necessary to guide the employees' attempts at improvement. Since employees are going through various stages of training throughout their careers, the training objectives must harmonize with the feedback and support system in the workplace. If employees are trained to behave one way but rewarded for performing differently, they will learn to perform differently. Management commitment should be secured for the training program as well as a reinforcement system for the learned behavior.

Behavioral Objectives

Robert Mager, a prolific writer and respected voice in human resource development, sent the training world back to its drawing board several years ago when he challenged us to think in behavioral terms. Far too many of our academic and training colleagues confuse the terms purpose, goal, and objectives. His thoughtful and continuing contributions have made his name synonymous with behavioral objectives.

One of the most significant steps, then, in human resource development is that of defining objectives in behavioral terms. Too many training programs are obscure as to their purpose; too many training sessions are unclear as to their specific objectives.

An objective is stated in behavioral terms when the trainer can demonstrate the material learned in an observable way. For example, if at the end of a retail store cashier training, the learner is to demonstrate proficiency by being able to enter ten purchases with 95 percent accuracy in a five-minute timed test, then that objective is stated behaviorally.

It is imperative that the end result of training be both measurable and observable.

Behavioral objectives can help determine the content of the program. As a solid basis for evaluation, they provide an excellent opportunity for both trainee and trainer to determine accurately the achievement level reached.

Writing behavioral objectives is a difficult task. It is made easier if you remember to answer these questions:

Who will perform the task?

What will be measured?

What is the minimum level of performance?

How is the task evaluated?

The wording of objectives is critical. Many verbs we so often see used are not acceptable.

For example,

"To understand..."

'To appreciate..."

"To know..."

"To recognize..."

The problem with these words is one of interpretation. It is difficult to measure understanding or appreciation. How do you know that the learners have achieved an understanding? How can we possibly determine when our trainees or participants have satisfactorily achieved a satisfaction? You can readily see the problem. We have no way of knowing when the objective is attained or mastered.

More specific verbs include

"To write..."

"To construct..."

"To assemble..."

'To identify ..."

"To adjust..."

'To measure..."

'To solve..."

As is readily seen, these are action verbs and are easily measured, Mager's publication entitled Preparing Instructional Objectives made an outstanding contribution to human resource development. Three basic concepts form the foundation for his work:

Behavior: any overt or visible activity displayed or performed by the learner

Terminal behavior: the behavior the trainer demonstrates at the conclusion of the training effort

Criterion: the standard or test by which we measure or evaluate the behavior

Let's look at a few examples to help us understand these concepts. For example, the objective is "Given a one-hour exam of one hundred multiple-choice questions, the trainee will attain a score of at least 75 percent." Clearly, the three basic tests have been met.

Try this one. "The trainee will understand the basic workings of the Model 2745 Engine." Has this objective been stated in behavioral terms? No. "Understand" is not acceptable, and the criterion test cannot be measured or evaluated because it is stated in nebulous terms.

"At the conclusion of this training session, the learner will be able to fill out completely our Form 2714 with no errors." The specificity of the terminal behavior can be easily measured.

One more: "... to really understand and appreciate the principles of management."

If you said no, you're well on the way to a better knowledge of Mager's principles.

Task Analysis

To make course objectives more meaningful, first construct a task analysis. As its name implies, this activity is a detailed, intricate method for actually isolating and studying the many component parts of any job. It is a method for describing a procedural job as a basis for preparing instructional materials. It forces the writer to break down the task into its most elemental and simple components. The activity can then be described in easy-to-understand parts.

Here is a process you can use for writing a task analysis:

1. Prepare a card for each element of the task.

A. Preceding condition (stimulus).

B. Imperative verb describing action to be taken.

C. Time, observation, and preparation for next step.

2. Justify the procedure: explain reason.

3. Arrange cards in sequential order linearly or in branching sequence.

A. Linear sequence: each step follows the other without any alternatives.

B. Branching sequence: steps are branched where discriminations or decisions are to be made.

4. Lay out the cards.

A. Place a discrimination card to the right of the previous base card.

B. Place a linear card below the previous base card.

C. Make sure the last card in either direction advises readers that the sequence is ended or sends them to the next step.

5. Write the task instructions.
6. Use the card layout to form the major headings, subheadings, and discrimination headings.
7. Evaluate the analysis: let the trainee try it.
8. When the trainee commits an error, clarify the instructions.
9. Compare the trainer's performance with the objectives of the program.

Content

The content of the training programmed should be determined entirely by the learning and training needs analysis and an assessment of what needs to be done to achieve the agreed training objectives.

Length

The length of the training programmed obviously depends on its content. But careful consideration should be given as to how learning can be speeded up the use of techniques such as computer-based training. Thought should also be given to where more time needs to be allowed for 'discovery learning' to take place, or for the amount of involvement required to ensure that those undergoing training have the opportunity fully to understand and 'own' the new ideas or techniques to which they have been exposed.

Where should training take place?

There are three places where training can take place: in-company, on-the-job, off-the-job; and external, off-the-job. Each has its uses, and its advantages and disadvantages as discussed below.

1. In-company, on-the-job

In-company, on-the-job training may consist of teaching or coaching by managers, team leaders or trainers at the desk or at the bench. It may also consist of individual or group assignments and projects and the use of mentors (see Appendix A). It is the only way to develop and parties the specific managerial, team leading, technical, selling, manual, and administrative skills needed by the organization. It has the advantage of actuality and immediacy. The individual works, learns and develops expertise at the same time. Theory is put into practice immediately and its relevance is obvious. Much of the learning can take place naturally as part of the performance management process and through day-to-day contacts although it will be most effective if specific learning objectives have been articulated.

The disadvantages are that the effectiveness of the learning is strongly influenced by the quality of the guidance and coaching provided on the job. Many managers and team leaders are unskilled at training and disinclined to carry it out or to encourage it. The instruction may be inadequate and the training may perpetuate bad habits. Above all, the learner may be distracted by the environment and find it difficult to acquire the basic skills quickly. To overcome this problem, it is essential to provide training to managers and team leaders no how to train and even more important, to stress that this is expected of them as a key part of their jobs and will be one of the areas in which their performance will be measured.

2. In-company, off-the-job

In-company, off-the-job training can take place on special courses or in training areas or centers which have been specially equipped and staffed for training. It is the best way to acquire advanced manual, office, customer service or selling skills and to learn about company procedures and products. It helps to increase the identification of the trainee with the company as a whole, and the use of systematic training techniques, special equipment and trained trainers means that the basic skills and knowledge can be acq2uired quickly and often economically.

The main disadvantage arises when trainees are transferred from the training course to a job to apply their knowledge and skills in practice. On a full-time manual skills course in a training centre, they will have been sheltered from the realities of the rough and tumble in most workshops, especially in batch production factories.

For managers and team leaders, the problem of transferring from the 'training situation' to 'real life' may be even more difficult. This issue of transferring learning is important in all aspects of training but it is a particular problem with management and team leader training whether in-company or provided outside. This is partly because much management training tends to deal with relatively abstract concepts like motivation and leadership and the connection between what people learn in the classroom (or out of doors) may not always be apparent. Strenuous efforts have to be made to ensure that learners perceive the reality of what they are learning and that they are expected to develop and implement action plans for putting it into practice. The concept of 'action learning', as developed by Evans (1989), is designed to mitigate this problem.

3. External training

External training is useful for the development of managerial, team leading, technical and social knowledge and skills, especially if the courses cover standard theory and practice which can easily be translated from the general to the particular. External training should be able to supply the quality of instruction that it might be uneconomic to provide internally. It can be used to implant highly specialized knowledge or advanced skills and has the added advantage of broadening the horizons of those taking part, not least because they will be exposed to their from other organizations.

The main disadvantage is that of transferring learning into practice-even manicure with external courses. However effective the training, the knowledge and skill acquired may be quickly dissipated unless they are used it immediately. It may also be difficult to select revenant courses from the bewildering variety available.

3.3.7 TRAINING TECHNIQUES

Activity

What training methods should be used while training employees?

There is a wide variety of training techniques that can be used. These can be divided into:

- On-the-job techniques, which are practiced on a day-to-day basis or as a part of a specially tailored training programme. These include demonstration, coaching, job rotation, planned experience and mentoring and other personal development activities.

- Off-the-job techniques, which are used in formal training course away from the place of work. These include lectures, talks, discussions, the discovery method, case study, role-playing, simulation, group exercises, team building, distance learning, outdoor learning and workshops. They can also include personal development training.
- On-or off-the-job techniques, which include instruction, question and answer, action learning, assignments, projects, guided reading, computer-based training (e-learning), interactive video and video.

Activity

What are the advantages & disadvantages of off-the-job training methods?

Methods of Instruction

Activity

Which method is the most effective?

In trying to answer this query, let's turn our attention to methodology. By exploring several of the more commonly used techniques and methods for training, you will be able to decide which method may be best for a given lesson. While several techniques are listed, it is important to recognize that you as the trainer should have a working knowledge of all of them. In some cases, one or two techniques will be preferable, depending upon the objectives of the session and the background and interest of the people involved.

What is the most effective method? There is no simple answer. To help you make your decision, though, let's discuss the pros and cons of each. Certainly, good trainers will have a variety of techniques in their repertoires. As trainers gain experience, they tend to favor one or two methods and then continue to use only those. "Because this one is easier," is a weak reason to select a method. Unfortunately, however, even senior trainers have fallen into that trap.

There are some important items to consider in choosing a particular method. Obviously, there is merit in picking one with which we feel comfortable. We should, of course, consider first the objectives of that particular session. How about cost? Time, of course, is also important For example, while we know that discussion may be better for learning, it may be we simply cannot afford the extra time and must settle instead for the lecture method. The size of the group and type of room are also relevant considerations in choosing appropriate methods.

Activity

Write the methods you know that can be used for training program and their advantage and disadvantages.

Here are some commonly used methods.

Lecture

Without question, the lecture method is both the most widely used and the most abused technique of training. It is primarily a one-way communication: one person presents a prepared talk or a series of facts or information of a particular subject. The lecture is very economical in that little time is wasted with discussion. If it is properly prepared, the meaning of a message can be clearly stated and illustrated. Some of the prime advantages of the lecture include these items:

Time-saving. When there is a lot of material to present to a group, the lecture is often the best choice since it allows the entire group to be given the information in a relatively short period of time.

Control of topic. The trainer is in complete control of the session since all of the information is presented with little if any time for questions or feedback. This enables trainers with well-prepared lesson plans to gauge accurately the time elements of their presentations.

Repetition. Because the trainer is in such control of the meeting, points can easily be repeated for emphasis and clarification.

Economy. As suggested previously, the trainer can present a lot of new material to most any size group, thus saving time and talent. Assuming that the trainees are listening to the material being presented, it is easy to see that giving large groups the same information is an economical training method.

Flexible group size. The lecture is applicable to any size group. With appropriate audio and visual aids, the lecture can be used with large groups.

We must also consider the disadvantages of the lecture method:

One-way communication. Without some method of testing or evaluation, the trainer has little assurance that the message is really being understood or received properly. Because of a lack of participation, there is no feedback or no real reinforcement of the learning process.

Boredom. Too many trainers or teachers forget that a lack of variety of voice style and methodologies will undercut the effectiveness of the session. A dull, dreary monotone makes it extremely difficult for the trainee to listen to what is being presented.

Attention span. Most people listening to a lecture have an extremely limited span of attention. Studies indicate that immediately after hearing something, the average person will have forgotten 50 percent of that material! The lecturer must repeat and summarize frequently to overcome this drawback.

Lower retention rate. Because of a lack of involvement or participation, the lecture has a much lower rate of learning as measured by long- and short-term retention.

The canned talk. Too many trainers forget the individualization of their trainees and are too prone to "pull" a session out of the file drawer and merely redo it for that "new group." The canned talk is inherently boring and contributes to lack of attention on the part of the trainees. Listeners can quickly see through canned talks and hence they lose any value for the individual.

Feedback. Because of the one-way communication of the lecture, the speakers or trainers have no way of knowing whether they are staying on track or going completely afield in regard to the interests of the group. They may be expanding on a point that is of no interest whatever to their listeners; hence, the group loses all interest. Since the lack of feedback is an inherent disadvantage of the lecture, trainers roust be assured that their content and presentation are such as to overcome this negative point.

A lecture is useful for presenting new material such as policy changes or general information that has not previously been available to the trainees. Questions are usually restricted to clarifying the lecture material. The main advantage of the lecture is speed.

Lecture Discussion

The lecture discussion is a modified version of the lecture, combining the content session with some discussion on the part of the trainees. This easy modification helps to overcome some of the earlier disadvantages of the lecture technique used by itself.

A lecture can be improved by asking questions that make the audience think about your ideas or concepts. The following questions can be adapted to this purpose:

How does this compare with what you used to do?

What do you think the reason for this is?
What do you think the outcome will be?
What are the alternative methods that could be used?
A discussion allows individual participation even with large training programs. As implied by the term, discussion involves the people in either large or small group sessions to further comment on the training session at hand.
Discussion brings many views into play and brings out details required for understanding. By promoting a free exchange of ideas, the members take responsibility for learning. The purpose is to explore a subject and permit questioning that will bring out the unclear areas so they can be cleared up. The advantage of discussion is that you get immediate feedback and can, therefore, immediately correct any misunderstanding.
One of the disadvantages is that the group may stray away from the intended topic. More time is required than for the lecture.
Discussion can be made more effective by careful preparation. Prepare questions and statements in advance to guide trainees in case they get off track. Watch the time each participant takes and don't let one person monopolize the conversation. Be prepared to redirect the conversation to the intended topic.

Buzz Groups

Large group discussion is often used to allow for questions and feedback but a far preferable approach is the use of what is termed the buzz group. Buzz groups are subdivisions of a large group-—they are small groups of from five to ten people formed for the purpose of discussing a chosen or selected topic, A variation of the buzz group method is the "66" technique, wherein six people are given six minutes to discuss the topic at hand. Some advantages of the buzz groups include the following:
Involvement of everyone. Whereas in a large group session or large group discussion only a few voices may be heard, the small group session allows almost everyone to express his or her opinion or thinking on the topic.
Reduced peer pressure. People are often hesitant or reluctant to express their opinions in a large group because of fear of what their fellow trainees may think. In a small group session, of course, this pressure is far less apparent and

individuals may be much more willing to express their opinions.
Variety of experience. The small group session allows for a tremendous variety of experience, knowledge, and background to come to the fore. Whereas in large groups only a few voices are heard, the use of buzz groups in a training session allows a large number of ideas to come forward. This greater volume of ideas, comments, and opinions is of real value to the learning process.
Exchange of ideas. Visualize two people seated across the room from one another. One person walks over to the other and hands that person a dollar bill. Before leaving, however, she takes from that person a different dollar bill and then returns to her place. The net result of this, of course, is that each person started with a dollar, and, while it is a different dollar, each person also finished with a dollar. Contrast that scene with the exchange of an idea rather than a dollar. The net result, of course, is that the person has two ideas instead of the one he or she had initially. This is one of the roost important advantages of the discussion technique because it does allow for a free flow of ideas, thus enhancing the totality of all ideas, A far greater volume of ideas can be gathered in a short period of time.
In spite of the many advantages of buzz groups, it must be recognized that there may be some offsetting disadvantages. Some of these include the following:
Unfamiliarity. Depending upon the time constraints of the program, it may take some time for the trainee to become acclimated to this technique. For some people, it may be a brand-new method and may take some getting used to.
Voluntary participation. While it is felt that most people will contribute to the small group discussion, there is no rule that they must do so and some individuals may still feel no desire to participate. While this is a limited drawback, it should be recognized as a possibility.
Lack of leadership. Unless the buzz group leaders completely understand their responsibility, the buzz group is nothing more than the proverbial "blind leading the blind." The discussion leader must have been oriented to the situation and should be given some hints as to how to best use the group for participation. Sometimes the buzz group is both leaderless and without direction. The

net result is a large waste of time.

Lack of organization. Without proper coaching, the individual participant may feel both lost and disorganized. This, of course, hampers the entire training effort.

Role Play

The role-play technique allows participants to "play" the role of one or more individuals in a real-life situation. Some of the advantages of role play include:

Participation. By definition, the role play directly involves the individuals in the training session, It is usually best to ask volunteers from the group to take part; at times, however, it may be necessary for all members to participate. Rather than select two or three volunteers, form triads and have each person rotate roles, with the third person acting as an observer who assists in the critique.

Increased self-confidence. When the role play involves situations that individuals are likely to encounter, the methods can build self-confidence in a training situation. When the real case occurs, individuals can be more confident knowing they have met and conquered similar situations and are better prepared to deal with such incidents.

Empathy. Since the role play involves case studies, individuals have a chance to put themselves in the other person's position. By so doing, they can empathize with both sides of the role.

Variety of solutions. Although there may be a "school solution" as such for the role-play method being used, it is far preferable to let the individuals work out the actual solution. Often a variety of possible answers will evolve that can be used in this and future training programs.

Real-world solutions. The end result of the exercise is typically a practical, usable answer.

Like other methods, the role play is not without its disadvantages as well. Some of the more important items to consider are these:

Artificiality of situation. Since the role play is done in an unreal or artificial atmosphere, some participants may have difficulty imagining themselves in the real situation. A classroom or training situation is not the same as a customer's office or other place where the situations being portrayed really will take place.

Discomfort of participants. There may be trainees who feel very uncomfortable portraying any type of a role. If the role play involves other trainees acting as observers, some participants may simply go through the motions and the result is far from ideal. If participants are forced to play roles, the play oftentimes overtakes the real work of the program.

Lack of productivity. Without proper counseling in advance, the role play is nothing more than a game. If the participants are not convinced that this is a viable and important technique for training, the role play loses all value.

Time-consuming. Since this method takes much more time than other types of training, the cost-conscious trainer must be certain that the time is worth the effort. If the role play is given too much time, the participants may lose interest and again all value is lost. Within specified time periods, however, role play performs a function. Role play may be made more effective if the participants are given time to prepare with the help of other group members. They practice before their own group prior to playing before the larger group. Make it a team effort rather than an individual one.

Task Force

A group can be put together as a task force to find the answer to a specific problem or to research a program to achieve a specified result. In the training situation, the problem or program is structured so that the group must go through an educational process to accomplish its mission.

For example, the group might be required to develop a new, more powerful, replacement part for an electric motor. The first step of the project will require an analysis of the old part. The group will (1) discover that they need to acquire a new knowledge or skill. In the process of analyzing the part, they will (2) prepare themselves by learning the information necessary for the analysis. The task can require a test of the new part. Here the group will (3) gain practice in this new skill. The final research report will provide you with the feedback necessary to determine the success of the learning project, and your grade or comments will in turn provide feedback and will reinforce the behavior of the trainees.

Case Study

The case study is another important technique that trainers should become familiar with and know how to use properly. The case study is an actual presentation, either written or verbal, of an incident that either did or could happen in a related area. Some schools of business administration rely primarily on the case study as a method of instruction. As with all the other techniques, we should consider both its pros and its cons. Among the advantages of the case study are the following: Participation, After having read or being given the case, small groups typically spend a prescribed period of time discussing it and its possible solutions fully, Applicability, Since the case should be an incident of relevance to the training situation, its "real-world" application is obvious. Often the trainee may encounter a similar type of situation after the training program has been concluded.

Specificity of case. Since the case should be directly related to the training situation, the training administrator can select or can write those cases that are of real relevance and concern to the group at hand.

Some disadvantages of the case study are as follows:

Artificiality. If the case study does not reflect a real-life situation, trainees may view the case as too theatrical and not recognize its applicability to their situation.

Time-consuming. Depending on the length and scope of the case presented, the time spent in discussion may be far more than is warranted by whatever point is being made. It must be recognized that the case study is a very time-consuming tool.

Cost. If commercially prepared cases are not available for or adaptable to particular training situations, the training administrators may be forced to prepare cases themselves. If such is the case, a well-prepared case study becomes very expensive in terms of time and preparation.

Lack of information. Too many cases do not give a sufficient number of facts or enough information for the trainees to take action.

Identifiability. While the case study should be realistic, if some participants can identify the case as one on which they may have been involved, this will materially stifle their participation. Cases, of course, should be identified as general examples of situations and not identifiable with a specific department or individual in the organization.

Demonstration

An excellent way to practice the "show and tell" technique is to use the demonstration to illustrate your points. By simulating actual job situations, the trainer gives the learner a "hands-on" experience. It follows a step-by-step procedure so that every process to be taught can be followed.

Because the demonstration method is best with small groups, there is a cost-benefit factor to consider. For some training situations, it may well be prohibitive on a

This method can be used in a variety of ways. It is somewhat time-consuming, but the results, both qualitatively and quantitatively, are well worth the investment.

Business Games

The last few years have seen a surging interest in computer and noncomputer business game exercises. A business game is an activity in which a type of business operation can be "played" over a few minutes or a few hours. It is experientially based and, of course, highly participative.

Sophisticated computer games can run the course of several days, often in concert with other more traditional methods. Once decisions are made, that is, marketing, selling, buying, etc., are fed into the computer, the short- and long-term effects are quickly printed out. thus showing what would likely have happened in real-life situations.

Other types of experiential learning activities or games may be used for a variety of training subjects. These games are often very inexpensive and are excellent for climate-setting. A word of caution, however, is very much in order. Use these games for a specific purpose or to enhance or fortify a skill, knowledge, or attitude. They can be too "gimmicky" or too much fun and, without an expressed purpose, can be counterproductive.

Subdivide the larger group into subsets of five to eight people.

Pose the open-ended question or problem to the group as a whole.

Individuals spend a few minutes silently thinking about the questions and jotting down all the responses they can think of.

Each group lists on a flipchart all the ideas generated. This is done in round robin fashion and continues until every idea from every person is recorded.

This is done without discussion.
Discussion within each group is now allowed to clarify or expand the items listed on the flipchart.
Each individual now votes for the top five or top ten (or whatever number is felt to be appropriate). This step can be repeated until the group makes a priority list of three to four solutions.
Each subgroup then reports its results to the entire group.
cost basis. Before discarding it, however, you will want to be certain that its substitute will fulfill your objectives satisfactorily in terms of costs and results.

Nominal Group Technique (NGT)

A refinement of the small group discussion, the nominal group technique is a method that subtly gets everyone to participate.
This technique suggests these steps for a problem-solving meeting:
The first rule is the most important. In most business meetings, someone is always ready to throw "cold water" on what we may think of as a "hot idea," Not so in brainstorming. Criticism is not allowed.
The last rule prompts us to keep building or "hitchhiking" on previous ideas.
Proponents of brainstorming declare it an excellent way to bring forth new ideas in a creative atmosphere. Critics cite the time-consuming element as wasteful of time and money.

Delivery Methods

With ever-increasing technology and electronic delivery methods, would this not infer the end of the so-called "stand-up" trainer? Dependent on the different learning styles of your attendees, perhaps delivering information to their respective work sites (at home, on a plane, or at the office) via e-mail and the Internet is a more expedient method.
The method that merges the discussion technique with a creative twist is a group ideation process called brainstorming. Its purpose is simply to elicit a number of new ideas about and responses to a problem. Unlike a typical discussion or buzz-group

method, brainstorming is based on four basic rules:
in most all cases, should be laid to rest. Adult learning theory demands that learning not be a "spectator sport!"

3.3.8 Selecting of the Appropriate Training Methods

Activity

What factors should be considerd in selecting training methods?

There are many options an HRD professional has available when designing a training program. In fact, many HRD programs use several of these methods in order to take advantage of each method's unique strengths. Given such an array of choices, how does the HRD professional go about choosing which is most appropriate for a particular program? Several factors should be considered:

The objectives of the program This factor is paramount. As has been discussed, some methods are more appropriate for achieving particular objectives than others. For example, if the objective is to improve interpersonal skills, methods such as role-playing would be better choices the lecture method.

Time and money available In an ideal world, we would have all the time and money we need to accomplish our goals. Unfortunately, in many organizations managers often ask the HRD department to implement programs immediately while spending as little money as possible.

Availability of other resources Availability of other resource some methods require highly trained trainers and specialized equipment and facilities in order to be delivered effectively. Again, trade-offs are likely to be necessary by choosing alternative methods with less demanding resources.

Trainee Characteristics and Preferences The issue here focuses on both trainee readiness and the diversity of the target population. Methods such as CAI require a fairly high level of literacy If literacy or fluency is a problem, either a less reading-and writing-intensive method (like a video) may be used or literacy training must be done first Similarly, because individual have different learning styles, some training methods may be more appropriate than others.

In the end, selection of the training methods(s) to be used requires knowledge of the different techniques and sound judgment on the part of the individual(s) who are designing the program. The HRD professional should investigate all training methods available, and when in doubt, consult experienced colleagues, instructional designers and consultants.

Principles of Learning

Before we get too involved with principles and learning, let's begin with some understanding of these two terms. A quick check of the dictionary shows:

Principle: a general truth or law, basic to other truths; a comprehensive or fundamental law, doctrine, or assumption.

Learning: knowledge obtained by study; the act of acquiring knowledge or skill; a mental activity by means of which skills, habits, ideas, attitudes, and ideals are acquired, retained, and utilized, resulting in the progressive adaptation and modification of behavior.

Activity

What principles should a trainers follow to train?

Underlying Principles

There are several other principles that willhelp us better understand how adults learn.

Learning Is a Self-Activity, The accumulation of knowledge, skills, and attitudes is an experience that occurs within the learner and is really activated by the learner. While we as trainers can set the stage and do much to orchestrate a climate conducive to learning, it is an internal process. One of the richest resources for learning is the learners themselves, and the learning process may be different for each of them. For this reason, human resource developers must recognize and respect the individuality of the trainees.

We Learn at Different Rates. We all have "good" days and "bad" days. It is perfectly natural to experience some "ups and downs" in the learning process. Although one might expect that tomorrow's performance or learning achievements should always be better than yesterday's, things don't always turn out that way! While we may observe a ready and enthusiastic early rate of learning, it might be unrealistic to expect a steady marked increase throughout every successive session. Psychological as well as physiological factors can curtail effective learning. These "learning plateaus"—so called because the skill or knowledge may seem to taper off and even regress—are commonly observed in many training situations. Unfortunately, most trainees don't know this, so it is important for us to step in quickly with a word of encouragement during these "off days." Reassurance and empathy are key elements in this task.

Learning Is a Continuing and a Continual Process, We hear more and more about the term continuing education. Indeed, we must be vocal proponents of this lifelong process. Moreover, we should be living examples of this principle by being continuous learners ourselves. This does not necessarily refer to an academic setting; on the contrary, the astute and observant trainer can always be learning from colleagues and trainees.

Learning Results from Stimulation to the Senses, This is probably a familiar one. Your trainees will learn better when you can appeal to all their senses. This premise substantiates the need for visuals to reinforce your session. In studies of how people learn and how they forget, estimates indicate that we can increase learning threefold by letting them see rather than only letting them hear. By practicing the age-old "show and tell" concept, we can dramatically increase the resultant learning. The more we can involve the learner with "hands-on" experiences, the better the learning is. Retention, too, is by far enhanced with greater use of the senses.

Positive Reinforcement Enhances Learning. Your participants will more likely repeat those activities wherein a positive reinforcement occurred. Credit and recognition will provide a rich incentive for learning. Trainees will repeat those behavior patterns that may be accompanied by a feeling of self-esteem. It could be claimed that we are all concerned about increasing our own potential as people. When we are given that nod of encouragement or the verbal pat on the back for a task well done, we generally have a good feeling toward ourselves and the situation in general. Admittedly a controversial area among senior trainers, reinforcement theory does have its place in the HRD arena.

We Learn Best by Doing. This principle is closely related to earlier items. If you want your participants to really learn to perform a task, have them actually do the task. The use of on-the-job training techniques clearly proves its value. The "learnby-doing" concept will enable your trainees to garner self-confidence since they can show you—and themselves—that they can satisfactorily perform the prescribed tasks. Research tells us that the most effective learning results when the initial training is followed immediately by an application process. The more similar this application is to the actual job situation, the better the long-term learning.

"Whole-Part-Whole" Learning Is Best. This is an important concept to follow. It means that we start the training process by looking first at the "big picture," or the entire job. After discussion of the total picture, making sure there is complete understanding, we break down the task into its component parts and show how each piece fits into the puzzle. Individual parts of a job should be explained in detail only after your participants understand the overall job. For example, in an orientation session for new employees, it is preferable to describe, or explain the company or organization in total before describing the respective job in particular. By so doing, you show the new employees where their duties fit into the overall picture of the organization. If they know how a particular department relates to other offices or departments, the employees gain a better appreciation of how it all fits together.

So, too, with learning a new skill. Start with the complete process—the whole job.

Then follow up describing how the individual intricate parts come together to make that whole.

Anxieties and Nervousness Are Natural. Many of us approach a new task or a new activity with innate fears, preconceptions, and a general feeling of nervousness. Empathy and understanding of these frustrations will help the trainee feel more at ease.

Consider using "climate-setting" activities or icebreakers to ease these tensions.

They'll work to ease the trainees' (and the trainers*!) anxieties.

Training Must Be Properly Timed. Several short training periods are more effective than one long session. Whenever possible or practical, "spaced" learning is preferred over concentrated sessions.

Obviously there are times when these intermittent sessions are simply not practical or possible. Perhaps because of time and travel costs, the training must be concentrated. For these situations, use a variety of teaching techniques and participative exercises to change the pace of training.

Applying the Principles

It does little good to memorize a few theories or principles of learning if we cannot apply them directly to our field of human resource development.

As a new trainer, you will be comforted to know that there are many ways in which you can use the basic laws of learning to enhance your effectiveness in the training room. For example, you help establish the climate in your own sessions. A warm, friendly atmosphere, as suggested by the law of effect, will provide a congenial yet businesslike environment. Similarly, by realizing that "practice may make perfect," as shown by the law of exercise, we can make certain that the activity is learned correctly. By rewarding or praising the new trainee after successful completion of the tasks being taught, you further reinforce the proper action.

Knowing that learning is a self-activity should not be used as a cop-out. Merely because the law of readiness states there must be the internalized desire to learn, we cannot shirk our own responsibility as trainer. Your professional responsibility is to help cause that change in behavior we call "learning."

Because we know that we construct our body of knowledge much like a child builds with toy blocks, we go from the simple to the complex. The law of association is useful as we write out our lesson plans and design our training programs. Learning is based on past experiences, and early successes will help the trainee maintain interest and enthusiasm for the training effort.

Regardless of the kind of training or training program in which you are involved, these fundamental principles will apply to you and your participants.

Summary

This brief overview of the principles of learning and their application is only the tip of the proverbial iceberg. In an attempt to keep this volume usable and practical, we have had to exclude many of the recognized theorists of adult learning. Serious students of learning theory are advised to continue independently by referring to the bibliography in this book,

The few laws and principles identified in this chapter have been proven to be useful to our field. By mastering and practicing these, you are already well on your way to being an effective facilitator for learning.

Trainers

On-the-job training can be provided by managers, team leaders, colleagues or mentors or fellow employees who are given a particular responsibility to guide, advice and generally look after trainees.It is essential to train anyone involved in on-the-job training in techniques such as coaching, instructing and mentoring.

Off-the-job training may be provided by members of the training department, external education and training establishments, or training providers-training consultants or guest speakers. Increasingly, organizations are turning to external training providers rather than maintaining their own establishment of training staff.

Line managers should also be involved as much as possible to bring reality into the classroom, to s\ease the transfer of learning to work (always a difficult problem) and to underline their prime responsibility for training. Anyone who provides off-the-job training must be carefully selected, briefed and briefed and monitored to ensure that they make the right contribution. Natural trainers are fairly rare and even professionals need all the guidance you can give them to ensure that they are providing relevant training.

. Generally Trainers are who actually conducts the training and their selection depends on the type of training needed and who will be receiving it. One-the-job training is conducted mostly by supervisors; off-the-job training, by either in-house personnel or outside instructors.

In-house training is the daily responsibility of supervisors and employees. Supervisors are ultimately responsible for the productivity and, therefore, the training of their subordinates. These supervisors should be taught the techniques of good training. They must be aware of the knowledge and skills necessary to make a productive employee. Trainers should be taught to establish goals and objectives for their training and to determine how these objectives can be used to influence the productivity of their departments. They also must be aware of how adults learn and how best to communicate with adults. Small businesses need to develop their supervisors' training capabilities by sending them to courses on training methods. The investment will pay off in increased productivity.

There are several ways to select training personnel for off-the-job training programs. Many small businesses use in-house personnel to develop formal training programs to be delivered to employees off line form their normal work activities, during company meetings or individually at prearranged training sessions.

There are many outside training sources, including consultants, technical and vocational schools, continuing education programs, chambers of commerce and economic development groups. Selecting an outside source for training has advantages and disadvantages. The biggest advantage is that these organizations are well versed in training techniques, which is often not the case with in-house personnel.

The disadvantage of using outside training specialists is their limited knowledge of the company's product or service and customer needs. These trainers have a more general knowledge of customer satisfaction and needs. In many cases, the outside trainer can develop this knowledge quickly by immersing himself or herself in the company prior to training the employees. Another disadvantage of using outside trainers is the relatively high cost compared to in-house training, although the higher cost may be offset by the increased effectiveness of the training.

Whoever is selected to conduct the training, either outside or in-house trainers, it is important that the company's goals and values be carefully explained.

III.3.10 RESPONSIBILITY FOR TRAINING

As has been made clear earlier, most learning occurs on the job through coaching, planned experience and self-development. The onus is on manageress and individuals to ensure that it takes place. Senior management must create a learning organization in which managers recognize that training and development are a key part of their role and one on which their performance will be assessed.

The role of a specialized training function is generally to provide advice and guidance to managers on their training responsibilities. In many organizations they are involved much less, if at all, in training delivery. Training functions are relaying more and more on external providers to provide the actual training departments that used to exist in a lot of organizations have now been slimmed down considerably. Increasingly, the role of the company trainer is to act as an internal consultant.

The much smaller training function may still, however, be responsible for the following activities.

- Developing training strategies that support the achievement of business strategies;
- Analyzing and identifying corporate and occupational training needs;
- Developing proposals on how these needs should be satisfied;
- Preparing plans and budgets for training activities;
- Identifying external training resources, selecting external training providers, specifying what is required from them and ensuring that their delivery of training meets the specification;
- Advising on external training courses for individuals or groups;
- Organizing internal courses and training programmes, but often relying on outside help for the whole or part of formal training courses;
- Training mangers, supervisors and mentors in their training responsibilities;

3.3.11 EVALUATINGTRAINING

It is important to evaluate training in order to assess its effectiveness in producing the learning outcomes specified when the training intervention was planned and to indicate where improvements or changes are required to make the training even more effective.

It is at the planning stage that the basis upon which each category of training is to be evaluated should be determined. At the same time, it is necessary to consider how the information required to evaluate learning events should be obtained and analyzed.

The process of evaluating training has been defined by Hamblin (1974) as: 'Any attempt to obtain information (feedback) on the effects of a training programmed, and to assess the value of the training in the light of that information. "Evaluation leads to control, which means deciding whether or not the training was worthwhile (preferably in cost-benefit terms) and what improvements are required to make it even more cost-effective.

Evaluation is an integral feature of training. In its crudest form, it is the comparison of objectives (criterion behavior) with outcomes (terminal behavior) to answer the question of how far the training has achieved its purpose. The setting of objectives and the establishment of methods of measuring results are, or should be, an essential part of the planning stage of any training programmed.

Levels of evaluation

Four levels of training evaluation have been suggested by Kirkpatrick (1994):

Level 1 - Reaction – at this level, evaluation measures how those who participated in the training have reacted to it. In a sense, it is a measure of immediate customer satisfaction. Kirkpatrick suggests the following guidelines for evaluating reactions:

- Determine what you want to find out.
- Design a form that will quantify reactions.
- Encourage written comments and suggestions.
- Get 100% immediate response.
- Get honest responses.
- Develop acceptable standards.
- Measure reactions against standards, and take appropriate action.
- Communicate reactions as appropriate.

Level 2 - Evaluating learning – this level obtains information on the extent to which learning objectives have been attained. It will aim to find how much knowledge was acquired, what skills were developed or improved, and, as appropriate, the extent to which attitudes have changed in the desired direction. So far as possible, the evaluation of learning should involve the use of tests before and after the programmed-paper and pencil or performance tests.

Level 3 -Evaluating behavior- this level evaluates the extent to which behavior has changed as required when people attending the programmed have returned to their jobs. The question to be answered is the extent to which knowledge, skills and attitudes have been transferred from the classroom to the workplace. Ideally, the evaluation should take place both before and after the training. Time should be allowed for the change in behavior to take place. The evaluation needs to assess the extent to which specific learning objectives relating to changes in behavior and the application of knowledge and skills have been achieved.

Level 4 -Evaluating results- this is the ultimate level of evaluation and provides the basis for assessing the benefits of the training against its costs. The evaluation has to be based on before and after measures and has to determine the extent to which the fundamental objectives of the training have been achieved in areas such as increasing sales, raising productivity, reducing accidents or increasing customer satisfaction. Evaluating results is obviously easier when they can be quantified. However, it is not always easy to prove the contribution to improved results made by training as distinct from other factors and as Kirkpatrick says: 'Be satisfied with evidence, because proof is usually impossible to get.'

Experience-but learn little or nothing. They can learn something, but cannot, or will not, or are not, allowed to apply it. They apply it but it does no good within their own areas. It does some good in their function, but does not improve organizational effectiveness.

Evaluation can take place at any level. In the Kirkpatrick scheme it is easier to start at level one and progress up with increasing difficulty to level four. It could be argued that the only feedback from evaluation that matters is the results in terms of improved unit or organizational performance that training achieves. But if this is hard to measure, training could still be justified in terms of any act actual changes in behavior that programme was designed to product. This is based on the assumption that the analysis of training needs indicated that this behavior is more than likely to deliver the desired results. Similarly, at the learning level, if a proper analysis of knowledge, skills and attitude requirements and their impact on behavior has been conducted, it is reasonable to assume that if the knowledge etc has been acquired, behavior is likely to change appropriately. Finally, if all else fails, reactions are important in that they provide immediate feedback on the quality of training given (including the performance of the trainer) which can point the way to corrective action

Evaluation

This sectoin will discuss the process of evaluation and offer several field-tested models and techniques for such review.

A basic premise underlying our entire approach to evaluation is that it is a continuing process. We must always be asking our peers and ourselves: "How can I make my next session even better?" If we indeed believe that education is a continuing process, it would seem to follow that we should always be learning and benefiting from our own mistakes of omission and commission.

Why Evaluate?

Let's first ask why we need to evaluate in the first place. These few responses will answer that inquiry:

Mandate. If your organization, like most, requires some type of evaluative response to training from participants and instructors, that's not a bad reason in itself; in other words, "My boss told me I had to!"

Improvement. We should always strive to make tomorrow's sessions better than today's. Certainly we want to continue to improve our own performance, and participants and colleagues critiques can be used constructively to aid us in that effort.

Justification, There are many times when we are called upon to defend or justify the continuation of a certain class or program. If we can produce objective data that honestly serve that purpose, a reviewer is able to quickly recognize the real worth and value of the program to the organization,

As mentioned previously, experienced trainers are quick to attack or defend a particular form of evaluation. Many training directors feel that appraisals done by participants at the conclusion of a program offer little more than a "happiness rating."

Appraisal forms, some trainers suggest, provide little more than a "halo effect." Perhaps this is true, but experience indicates that, while some trainees may tell you only what you want to hear, most participants, if given the protection of anonymity, will be honest and fair in their critique.

Trainers are likely to be the most critical audience in the world—as well they should be! Trainers and trainees have the right to expect the best, and most trainers are ready to point out when these expectations aren't met.

Elements of Evaluation

In brief, evaluation can be seen as having four components. To be complete and thorough, your plan should have provisions for all four segments. With the pressures of time, money, and effort, however, we often will use only one of the key parts. While this approach can be acknowledged as better than no evaluation at all, it must be remembered that our findings are never totally complete unless provision is made also to check out the other segments.

There are four main areas of evaluation :

1. Reaction. What did the participants say about the program?
2. Learning. What knowledge, skills, or attitudes were learned?
3. Behavior: As defined, learning is a change in behavior. Did the training actually bring forth a change in behavior?
4. Results. This could be the most important:—the bottom line. Did our training pay off? Did it really do what it was supposed to do?

Instruments for Evaluation

There are numerous devices for collecting and measuring training effectiveness. You may have to design one for the specific purpose of evaluating the training program you conduct. The techniques listed here are commonly used:

Instrument

Pretests and posttests

Observation

Work reports

Questionnaires

Interviews

Management ratings

Measures

Learning

Change in behavior

Results on the job

Trainees' perception of training or change

Interviewer's perception of change

Management's perception of change

Effective Evaluation

As indicated earlier, we believe that, to be effective and useful, evaluation must cover every element in the program—beginning with program design and continuing through to on-the-job performance results. This can be accomplished by evaluating key elements:

The program

The presenter

The trainees

On-the-job results

The Process of Evaluation

If your program is designed with thought given to the evaluation process, evaluation can be an easier task. Many trainers use an evaluation form as a guide in designing a lesson or presentation. By so doing, they can anticipate and avoid future problems.

The basic process of evaluation is to collect data related to the program's objectives and tabulate and analyze these data.

Data Collection

There are four basic data collection techniques that are useful to trainers. They are the questionnaire, interview, tests, and observation. We will not explore these in detail as there are many excellent books available on this subject. Our intent is to provide merely a brief overview of the value of each technique.

Questionnaires are the most popular instrument used by trainers. They are easily administered but are deceivingly simple. Care must be taken to give the participants a range of responses wide enough to express their true feelings. A wide variety of questions is necessary to ensure validity. The value of questionnaires is that you can collect data on the feelings, opinions, thoughts, and beliefs of the respondents. People are often reluctant to express their views openly in a group, but will do so quite willingly in writing, especially if they can do so anonymously.

Interviews are useful to gather in-depth information and reduce some of the bias in questionnaires. If an answer indicates that the respondent doesn't understand the question, the interviewer can clarify that item. The value of interviewing is its flexibility. The interviewer can alter the kind of questioning to respond to the concerns of the respondent. If the respondent introduces a new relevant topic, the interviewer can explore it.

Tests are valuable in determining how much the student has learned. Tests in program evaluation should be designed to test comprehension. Devise the test so that each segment of the program can be evaluated individually. Then, individual segments can be rewritten to improve clarity.

Observation, one of the most valuable techniques an instructor has, is often the least used. Students are reacting to a session either nonverbally or verbally all the time. Instructors or presenters who watch the facial expressions and other body movements of their trainees get immediate and valuable feedback. If you see blank stares or puzzled looks, you'll know you're not getting through. You can then correct by asking for questions or open discussion. The value of using observation for evaluation is that you can immediately alter your presentation to fit class needs.

Analysis and Revision

Once the data have been collected, you must tabulate the results and determine their significance. This may require a minimal or a great amount of time, depending upon the number of the respondents and the number of questions asked.

The answers may be statistically analyzed or merely interpreted on the basis of the larger number of answers being most significant. In analyzing data, look for causes. Wherever possible, identify specific problems that can be corrected by revising the program.

When making a program revision, look at the individual essay responses. Often one comment will relate to a program weakness that does not show up in the statistics. The only way to do this, of course, is to look at the raw data. When all data have been reviewed, then make the necessary program revisions.

In summary, the evaluative process is one of comparing results against objectives. The difficulty comes in determining what the results are. The process of evaluation has been reduced to the following steps:

1. Collect the data.
2. Arrange and analyze the data.
3. Interpret and draw conclusions from the data.
4. Compare the conclusions to the stated objectives.
5, Record recommendations for changes in the next program,

Evaluating the Program

Our primary question in evaluating the program should be "Was the purpose of the training program accomplished?" To answer this question, we must look at the program objectives. We then measure the program design in relation to those objectives.

Next we measure the value of the program content, and, finally, the usefulness of the content, always relating to the stated objectives of the program.

Checking the Program Design Against Objectives

Lay out the specific objectives that were stated at the beginning of the program. Now pick out specific portions of the training program and list the elements of the program that will train the student to achieve that objective. Continue this process until all the key elements have been shown to serve a specific function in reaching the stated objectives.

If you have program elements that don't fit one of the objectives, then your evaluation must identify that element as not relating to the objectives. If, on the other hand, you have an objective with nothing listed under it, you must report the design as being deficient in providing for that objective. If the objective was reached due to some other activity, indicate so in your report so that it may be incorporated as a planned activity.

The following checklist provides a general guide for design evaluation:

Were the program objectives stated in clear, specific terms?

Were the objectives measurable, realistically attainable, and performance oriented?

Was the design flexible enough to be adapted to different student needs and abilities?

Did the design embody adult training methods?

Did the design incorporate a method of testing the students to determine what they learned?

Will what the student learned satisfy job requirements and management expectations?

Did the design reasonably fit the money budgeted for the program?

Measuring the Value of the Program Content

The value of program content can be determined by examining students' reactions. If the students participate by making comments and asking questions, and show a general interest in an activity, the activity has value. If, on the other hand, the students sit quietly, act bored, and pay little attention, then the content likely has very little value to them. To have value the content should evoke interest and participation from the students.

Measuring the Usefulness of the Program Content

The usefulness of the program content can be determined by relating it to specific functions the trainee must perform. The question is "Will the content of this program be useful to the trainee in performing the job?" This information can be acquired by comparing the performance aspects of the training with individual job descriptions or by questioning the trainee.

Throughout the program, you should continually check for usefulness. Ask the trainee questions such as, "How will you be able to apply this on the job?" "Which of these principles can you apply?" and "What problems do you see in applying these ideas at work?" These same questions can be included in a questionnaire and given at the end of the program. Even if you have asked them orally, repeat them on the questionnaire to include those participants who do not normally respond orally.

Evaluating the Presenters

Experienced instructors welcome the feedback that comes from evaluation. They

recognize the opportunity for growth that evaluation provides. As a new trainer, however, you may feel defensive when being evaluated. You may feel especially defensive when the evaluation is in writing, where it seems to be a permanent criticism.
You will lose this feeling and welcome evaluation once you realise it is meant to be helpful rather than critical and that it may be a reliable source of growth-producing information for you.

Using the Trainees as Evaluators

You can never tell with complete accuracy how you come across to your participants—but they can and will tell you. The questionnaire, of course, is the most popular instrument for this purpose. Trainees are not professional trainers, however, and should not be expected to evaluate highly technical aspects of the presenter's performance. Questions for trainees should be tailored to personal reactions, feelings, and general observations. The following list covers areas that the trainee may appropriately be asked to evaluate.

Did the instructor hold your interest?
Did the explanations sufficiently answer your questions?
Did you understand the instructor's objectives?
What part of the presentation did you like best?
What part of the presentation did you like least?
Was the instructor's language clear or confusing?
How did the instructor help you?
Was your learning affected by the instructor's personality and manner?
How well do you think the instructor knew the subject?
How well was the instructor prepared?
How appropriate was the instructor's rate of presentation (fast, slow)?
Were the instructor's summaries clear?

The following pages contain several sample forms of actual evaluations used in training programs.

Using Critical Observers as Evaluators

The best way to get a professional evaluation is to have professional trainers evaluate the presenters. If you are making a presentation and there has been no arrangement for professional evaluation, make your own. Ask a peer to act as a critical observer and appraise your performance.

When you are responsible for the evaluation of a program, select a panel of three or four observers. Provide them with an instructor evaluation form and ask them to WE WANT "TO HEAR FROM YOU...

Testing Trainee Attitude Changes—The Third Evaluation Area

In role play, a student is asked to act out a part in a specific situation. Role play is similar to demonstration except that it usually requires interaction with another person. You might ask a student to play the role of a supervisor who has to explain some new techniques to the work group. The other participants play the part of the work group. You evaluate the change in attitude by having students engage in role play before and after instruction. By observing how the trainees treat each other in the before and after role plays, you can measure their attitudinal change.

Evaluating On-the-Job Results

The objective of training is to improve oo-the-job results. In the final analysis, if your training programs are effective, they should result in such things as improved profits or the elimination of factors that would reduce profits. If you train current employees to be more productive, then profits eventually will increase. If you train new employees to meet standards quickly and minimize mistakes, or if you reduce the turnover rate, you help eliminate the factors that reduce profits. To evaluate training's impact on profits, you must evaluate behavioral change and productivity changes on the job. Earlier, we used the questionnaire attitudes and perceptions, and the pretest and posttest to evaluate learning. Now we will use observation to evaluate behavioral change and a control group to evaluate effectiveness or productivity. These four tools may be laid out in chart form as a reminder.

Instrument Evaluates

Pretest and posttest Learning

Questionnaire Attitudes, opinions, and perceptions

Observation Behavioral change and use of skills

Control group Productivity and overall effectiveness

Evaluating Behavior Change

Behavioral change is measurable by observation on a before-and-after basis. Generally a trainee's peers, subordinates, or superiors will be most likely to notice and be able to report on changes in behavior. Unless they have been asked to rate specific characteristics before and after the training, however, their evaluation is likely to be vague and unreliable.

The following items, altered by the objectives of your program, might be used in before-and-after evaluations of a trainee's behavior.

Application of new knowledge

Use of new skills

High standards

Courtesy

Adherence to safety regulations

Teamwork

Perseverance

Honesty

Cooperation

Quality of work

Punctuality

Effort

Initiative

An application of modern technology in evaluating behavioral change is the use of videotape recorders. The ideal prerecording would be to show the trainee's activities on the job with the video equipment. The trainee's behavior would be somewhat altered, however, if he or she knew the cameras were there.

The best way to use video recordings to check before-and-after behavior is to conduct role plays at the beginning and at the end of the program. Prepare role-play material that closely resembles the real work situation. Build in a problem or enough stress to require the trainee to devote full attention to the problem. Then the trainee will forget the audience and the video equipment, and will behave normally.

Evaluating Productivity Changes

There are a number of factors that affect productivity or profits. An improvement in any one of them may result from training. You need only identify and relate your training objectives to them and then evaluate those specific factors after the training has been completed. If you can show management that training is responsible for improving profit, you will gain its support for future training programs.

The following are factors that should be considered in evaluating results or productivity changes.

Direct cost reductions

Grievance reductions

Productivity of trained versus untrained employees

Productivity after versus before training

Work quality

Quantitative results

Accident rates

Absenteeism

Employee suggestions

Supervisory ratings

Profits

Sales volumes

Turnover rates

Customer complaints

Worker efficiency

Training time required for proficiency

Cost per untrained employee

New product development

New customers

Public relations

An Eight-Step System for Evaluating Results

Training programs must provide skills that the trainee can use on the job. This means the trainee must accept the ideas presented as well as understand them. If a trainee practices a skill and doesn't remember the rationale for applying the skill, he or she may drift back into previously established patterns. When evaluating productivity six months or a year after a training program, it's a good idea to check understanding and acceptance at the same time. The following eight steps should include tests for understanding and acceptance.

1. Trainees report their own results. Give the trainees a report form at the workshop to fill out and return thirty days after they have completed the program. The trainees report the results and/or problems they encountered using the techniques learned at the workshop. If all the trainees are located in the same city, a follow-up meeting should be held. They bring their reports to the meeting and get feedback from other trainees on their results. Generally, the positive results far outweigh the problems.

2. Prepare pretmining and posttraining productivity reports. This comparison can be done for the month before and the month after the completion of training or for some other equal periods. We have used the four weeks before and the four weeks after consistently as this also gives us a history with which to compare current results. Use regular production reports if available; if not, you will have to arrange for special records to be kept for the comparative periods.

3. Supervisory observation. After sixty days back on the job, the trainees should have leveled off to a skill level that is comfortable for them. At this point, ask the supervisor to spend a day working with the person to evaluate progress. In some jobs it may be necessary to spend a longer time with the trainee to fully evaluate performance.

The supervisor should keep records and reports on the trainee's results as well as the understanding of concepts, attitudes, and skills. The report should compare the trainee's skills to those of other workers and should point out the trainee's strengths and weaknesses. The supervisor should also recommend areas that require further training. Retraining may be provided for major weaknesses at this point.

4. Usefulness and self-evaluation questionnaire. After ninety days back on the

job, the trainee should be asked to evaluate the usefulness of the training and how well she or he is doing. The questions should be designed to elicit the trainee's attitudes as well as the understanding and use of the skills. The following are simple questions that might be used:

A, Describe what you believe to be the best way to complete job X.

B. Describe the way you actually do complete job X.

C. Have your skills improved or deteriorated as a result of the training program?

D. What results have you achieved that are related directly to the new skills that you learned in training?

E. Elaborate on any problems or successes you have had as a result of your training.

5. Manager's productivity report. At the end of six months, after training, the trainee's manager should be asked for a productivity report. This report not only helps you evaluate the results of training, but also brings the results to the attention of management, which helps sell training. This report is directed at productivity changes. Ask for a six-month comparison of profits, costs, and other improvements that the training program covered.

6. Filing of unsolicited reports. If your program is a good one, you will receive many unsolicited reports. There will be letters or notes commending the program. File these reports and refer to them when making your own written evaluation of the program. You will also get verbal comments praising your program and requests for future training. Make a note with the date and file these requests for later use. You may need the names of those who requested a specific program to get approval for it later,

7. Using a new program to evaluate the previous one. If you conduct a pretest at the beginning of a new program, you can use it to evaluate retained learning. Write questions into the pretest that cover the attitudes, skills, and understanding of concepts covered in the previous seminar. The answers to these questions can be compared to those given at the end of the previous seminar. This system can be used continually, over time, depending on how often you have people back for additional training sessions.

8. Conduct role plays in the new program that require the use of skills learned in the previous program. Again, design the role play to test the attitudes, understanding, and skills covered in the previous program. As the participants act out the role, they will reveal their attitudes and you will be able to observe their skills and determine their understanding by carefully monitoring the role plays.

These eight steps may not be the perfect system for you. Every training program has unique qualities and unique objectives. You should be able to adapt our ideas to your objectives and develop your own system. The perfect system for you is the one that measures results in relation to your objectives.

Problem Participants

There comes a time in every trainer's life when something goes wrong! Sometimes these things are beyond the trainer's control—most times, they are not.

This section will introduce several potential problem areas or problems that arise from personalities that may surface on occasion. By far the majority of people will be positive, friendly, and supportive of your efforts. But it would be naive to suggest that this is always the case. Let's prepare for those rare situations so you'll know how to handle them if they ever come up.

We'll start by looking at a few situations that may arise during a training session, then we'll discuss some types of distracting or "people-problem" areas.

Activity

Do you expect problems from the trainee workers?Explain your answer with reason.

Handling Problems

Speeding Up the Session

This common problem occurs in a number of training meetings. Maybe the people just can't seem to get fired up about the problem under discussion. If you find silent faces, you might call on individuals by name for their responses. You occasionally may even want to misstate a reply on the part of a respondent, which should bring additional comments from others in the room. Many times your frank comment that things are moving too slowly will spark some of the people to get the session back on the beam. If a comment provokes a quizzical stare or shaking of a head in disagreement, call on that person to ask how he/she feels about the comment You can also use debatable questions to get things moving. Finally, if your items are moving along too slowly, merely move to another point.

Slowing Down the Session

You've done so well with the first problem of speeding things up that now things may be going too quickly. Occasionally you may have a group that is quite excited about the topic and the ideas are coming too fast to synthesize and summarize properly. Should this be the case, your job is to slow down the program by asking certain respondents to clarify their comments and amplify some of them. You will also summarize more frequently and occasionally write some of the items on the chalkboard or flipehart you are using in the room. You can usually tell from some of the looks around the room if participants are being hurried to cover too many topics in full measure. If this is the case, merely stop and ask for full discussion on some of the points already discussed.

Sidetracking of Problems

Another common problem is that your participants may tend to get off on side issues that have no relevance to the main problem. If this is the case, quickly restate the problem or write it on the board to make sure all are back in tune with you. You might also want to ask someone how the item or comment might apply to the problem being discussed. Listen attentively because you may find that what to you is a side issue is very much a part of the item under discussion. If you find you can tell a quick or humorous anecdote about the side issue, it is then easy to restart the conference after the people have had a quick laugh. As mentioned earlier, there are times when you may want to sidetrack the conference if the topic or time is in your favor,

People Problems

At some time, you might encounter a difficult "people problem." Some people may exhibit a negative behavior pattern that could interfere with learning and cause difficulty for the trainer and the rest of the group. The professional trainer must learn to deal with these disruptive matters in a way that wins the respect of the group.

Keep in mind that it may not be necessary to intervene each time a participant disrupts the class with seemingly inappropriate behavior. Some negative behavior may not be worthy of intervention and often other participants will assist and correct the unruly individual. You, as the instructor, should intervene when the disruptive behavior becomes repetitive or is having a negative impact on the group.

There are a number of roles that participants may play, depending upon their own ego needs and psychological background. Since these behaviors are ego-related, we need to deal with them in a way that preserves the ego, if possible. The points suggested for the disruptive roles listed are designed to respect the individual where possible, but also to handle the situation using a win-win method.

The Know-lt-AU, This type of individual is the self-styled expert on any and all questions. He or she seemingly has an opinion about everything and may confront, correct, or even contradict what you say.

First, and most important, don't respond in kind; that is, don't embarrass the person or be sarcastic. Oddly enough, this person can often be a strong ally and supporter, so don't make him or her look bad.

Often the group will handle this type of behavior by nonverbal or verbal responses. Your position can be to "disagree agreeably." If this negative behavior continues, the group typically becomes more vocal for you.

If the debate continues, privately and tactfully suggest that the offender give others a chance to participate. You can assign this person the role of recorder, keeping him or her too busy writing to talk.

The Talkative Individual, Closely aligned but far less negative, you may find one or two people who tend to be extremely vocal on any issue or point raised. They may or may not be talking from experience, but one thing is certain—they are talking! While we have stressed the importance of getting all people to take part in your session, you cannot let one or two monopolize the entire conversation. Therefore, in order to be fair to the rest of the people in your program, you must deal firmly but fairly with this type of individual. If they insist on "blowing steam," make them give reasons for their thinking. Consistently ask them to back up their opinions or comments. Instead of your commenting on their remarks, again direct them to the rest of the group and ask for the group's opinions on what is being said. While we are treating "talkers" as a problem area, it is well to recognize that they, too, may be the people who can really make the conference an excellent one. We are concerned here only with the people who tend to overplay their hand and do not give others the chance for full participation.

The Silent Person, Just as you might have vocal and argumentative people in your session, you might also encounter the person who never says anything. Perhaps he or she is bored, indifferent, or even insecure. This is a silent type who sincerely needs your assistance at the meeting. Seat these people in the front of the room so that they can be close to you. You will be able to see their faces and, when you see a twinkle in their eyes, call for a comment. People who are sensitive or silent may simply need reassurance. They may be fearful of the rest of the group or afraid that their comments or ideas may be laughed at by the other conferees. Give them all the moral support you can, even if they stumble and make a comment that seems to be irrelevant to the discussion. Quickly thank them for their comments and add, "In other words, Jim, you are saying . . ." and then make the comment that is as nearly pertinent as you possibly can. Your function as trainer is not to embarrass anybody. This person can become your most fervent friend by being properly handled during your program. Be careful also not to seat a silent type alongside the argumentative or talkative type. Too often the verbal person will squelch any possible comments that might have been forthcoming from the sensitive individual. The silent person is indeed worthy of your attention. Ask easier questions, and then when a quiet person answers, a word of praise will uplift his or her morale and self-confidence.

The Griper. The griper continually finds fault with all aspects of the program. He or she may be dissatisfied with the classroom, the location, the materials being used, the equipment, the methods, or the content of the course. Be prepared for comments like, "I hate role play," "This equipment doesn't work very well," etc.
Try to determine the basis of the complaints. Check out the possibility of one vocal comment really representing the opinion of several others who feel the same way but did not say so. Obviously, if the complaints are justified, take prompt, corrective action.
If their criticism concerns a policy or item that cannot be changed, point this out. Sometimes, a minor change or adaptation may rectify the situation. Let the complainer suggest a solution and have the group react. Channel the negative into a positive whenever possible. If all else fails, privately discuss the problem with the individual. As a last resort, let the person withdraw from the program if the behavior is disruptive.
The Rescuer, The rescuer means well and is motivated to protect others. By finding excuses for others who make mistakes, he/she is attempting to excuse mistakes in general. The rescuer apologizes, defends, explains, and interprets for others when those others have been corrected or when they are obviously wrong.
The rescuer will say things like, "What Joe was trying to say was ..." or "I think what Sally meant was ..." The appropriate intervention for the instructor is to say, "I know you are speaking for Joe but, to avoid misunderstanding, let's let Joe speak for himself," or you might say, "I know you mean well, but it would be more helpful to Sally if we let her clarify her own thoughts."
The Wanderer, This individual continually seems to ramble farther and farther away from the question being discussed. Glance at your watch, politely interrupt, thank the person for the thought, but suggest that time is short and the group must return to the main issue. Don't let the wanderer carry on too long or you may lose the

entire group. Be courteous but firm.
Clashing Personalities. If you find a couple of participants engaged in heated discussions, you'll need to play the role of a referee. Handle this quickly. Don't allow tempers to flare. Suggest that each opinion may be correct or emphasize the points of agreement Acknowledge that opposing viewpoints are healthy and can even be constructive, but divorce the comment from the individual. Don't criticize either individual.
If conflicts persist, call a break and talk to the participants directly, asking that disagreements be omitted.

Summary

In this unit, an attempt has been made to highlight the need and importance of training organizational employees and managers in different organizations. We have also discussed methods of identifying training needs and target groups. Emphasis has been given to the use of validated procedures for identifying these needs, procedures and target groups in order to design course objectives and content for cost effective training. Particularly the procedures include the identification of training needs, the establishment of priorities of the identified training needs, writing out the general and specific objectives of the course and the deriving course content from the identified objectives.

A training program attempts through use of various methods, devices subject content, to bring about changes in peoples knowledge, interest, understanding, skill, believes, values and attitude to their jobs. Evaluation is used to determine the extent to which those changes are accomplished and by what methods. It establishes whether the activities undertaken during a training program have led to the desired and anticipated outcomes.

Chapter Four

4. Career planning and Management Development

4.1 Introduction

Career development is a lifelong process. Individuals will continue to build and draw on their dispositions and capabilities in order to live, learn and work creatively, innovatively and collaboratively, while managing life's future possibilities. The process is unique to each individual and is to be understood in relation to each person's environment and the many factors affecting life, such as family, society, school, social policy and the labor market.
The definition of career has changed. *Career* no longer refers to particular pathways through work or to an occupational title or a job. Careers are no longer 'chosen'; they are constructed, through the series of choices we make throughout our lives. *Career* is the sequence and variety of work roles (paid and unpaid) that one undertakes throughout a lifetime. More broadly, *'career'* includes life roles, leisure activities, learning and work.

Management development is a systematic process of growth and development by which employees develop their skills and abilities to manage. It is future oriented and is concerned with education of the employees. Management development improves a manager's ability to understand problems and arrive at solutions. It helps the manager in effective handling of his different work roles like planning, monitoring performance, communication and development. Management development programs are designed to meet specific objectives, which contribute to both employee and organizational effectiveness. There are several steps in the process of management development. These include reviewing organizational objectives, evaluating the organization's current management resources, determining individual development needs, designing and implementing development programs, and finally, evaluating the effectiveness of these programs.

objectives

On completion of this unit, the reader should be able to:-

- Describe the difference between career and management development;
- Define terminologies and explain concepts related to career and management development;
- Explain the different methods used to improve the knowledge skill and ability of managers;
- Provide a detailed discussion of the issues and problems involved in the process of training evaluation and the strategies for resolving them.
- Explain the meaning of change, innovation and creativity
- Describe reasons for seeking change.
- Describe various sources of changes.

4.1 Career development

Activity

Do you know what career development is?

Try to write your answer on the space provided below

Career development is the lifelong process of managing progression in learning and work. The quality of this process significantly determines the nature and quality of individuals lives: the kind of people they become the sense of purpose they have, the income at their disposal. It also determines the social and economic contribution they make to the communities and societies of which they are part.

4.1.1 The Concept of career & its stage

The concept of career has many meanings. The popular meaning is probably reflected in the idea of moving upward in one's chosen line of work making more money; having more responsibility, and acquiring more status, prestige, and power. In any case, an attempt has been made to forward some definition so that you may have a clearer understanding of the concept.

Career Stages: The idea that individuals go through distinct, but interrelated, stages in their careers is widely recognized. These stages include:

i. **The pre-work stage: -** Attending school. Most working people prepare for their occupation by undergoing some form of organized education in high school, trade school, vocational school, or college.
ii. **The Establishment stage:** - Moving from job to job. After schooling, people take their first job, but the chances are that they will move to other jobs in the same organization or in other organizations.
iii. **The Advancement stage: -** This involves moving upward in one's chosen line of work.
iv. **The Maintenance stage: -** The stable work eventually over the course of the career, they settle into a position in which they remain until retirement. This phase is marked by efforts to stabilize the gains of the past.
v. **The Retirement Stage: -** leaving active employment. The individual has, in effect individual may have opportunities to experience self-actualization through activities that it was impossible to pursuer while

4.1.2 Why is career development becoming more important?

The traditional concept of career was progression up an ordered hierarchy an organization or profession. The notion was that people chose a career, which the unfolded in an orderly way. It was an elitist concept: some had a career many only had a job: some did not even have that:

For some time now, however, this traditional concept been fragmenting. The pace of change, that driven by technology and globalization, means that organizations are constantly exposed to change. They are therefore less willing to make long-term commitments to individuals: where they do, it is in exchange for flexibility about the roles and tasks the individuals will perform, increasingly, therefore, security lies not in employment but in employability. Individuals who want to maintain their employability have been willing to regularly learn new skills.

So careers are now increasingly seen not as being chosen but as being constructed, through the series of choices about learning and work that people make throughout their lives. Career development in this sense need not be confined to the few: it can, and must, be made accessible to all.

4.1.3 Why does career development matter for public policy?

Career development is not only a private good, of value to individuals: it is also a public good of value to the country as a whole. This is true in three respects.

First, it is important for effective learning. If individuals make decisions about what they are to learn in a well-informed and well-thought: through way, linked to their interests, their capacities and their aspirations. And informed realistically about the opportunities to which the learning can lead then they are likely to be more successful learners, and the huge sums of public money invested in education and training systems are likely to yield much higher returns.

Second, it is important for an effective labor market. If people find jobs and career paths which utile their potential and meet their own goals, they are likely to be more motivated and therefore more productive enhancing national prosperity.

Third career development has an important contribution to make to social equity supporting equal opportunities and promoting social inclusion. It can raise the aspirations of disadvantaged groups and give them access to opportunities that might otherwise have been denied to them.

4.3.4 What is the relationship of career development to lifelong learning?

Career development is crucial to the success of lifelong learning policies. Governments regularly state that such policies need to be significantly driven by individuals. The reason is sim0ple: schooling can be designed as a system, but lifelong learning cannot. It needs to embrace many forms of learning in many different settings. It is the individual who must provide the sense of impetus, of coherence and of continuity.

This places career development centre stage. It means that it, as many governments believe, lifelong learning is crucial to their country's economic competiveness and social well-being then their country's future is significantly dependent on the quality of the decision and transitions made by individuals.

4.3.5 What support do individuals need to manage their career development?

If individuals are to manage their career development effectively, they need support in three forms.

- Help in developing their career management skills.
- High-quality information on the opportunities opens to them.
- Personal support in reviewing the options and converting information into personal action.

4.3.6 What are career management skills?

Career management skills include the skills of understanding one's own strengths and weaknesses and needs and wants, of being able to identify relevant opportunities and access information on them; of being able to take career-related decision; and of being able to present cone self effectively in order to gain access to course or jobs.

Recent OECD work on human capital suggests that these career management skills may play an important role in economic growth, if points out that less than hall of earnings variation in OPECD countries can be accounted for by educational qualifications and readily measurable skills. It argues that a significant part of the remainder may be explained by people's ability, and to manage, their skills. These meta-skills include career management skills.

4.3.7 What is the role of career information?

Good-quality career information is essential for good-quality career development. It needs to include information on education and training opportunities, on occupations and their characteristics, and on labor market supply and demand. It also needs to include information on the occupational implications of educational decisions, and on the learning pathways that lead to particular occupational destinations. In addition, it needs to include information on how these opportunities relate to the characteristics and preferences of individuals, so that individuals can identify opportunities appropriate to them, information and communication technologies need to be amassed creatively in order to improve the quality, interconnectedness and accessibility of such information

4.3.8 What forms of personal support are needed?

Information is necessary for good-quality career development, but it is not sufficient. If individuals are to be able to find the information they need, to understand this information and relate it to their personal needs and circumstances, and then to convert it into personal action, many will need some form of personal support.

Some of this personal support can be provided by family and friends, or by teachers and tutors or managers and supervisors. But it is important that people also have access to individual advice and guidance, offered in a variety of locations by competent and accredited practitioners who are:

- Skilled in the professional techniques of career guidance.
- Knowledgeable about learning opportunities and labor markets.
- Impartial, and able in an untrammeled way to serve the individual's needs.

Such services may be provided on an individual or group basis: they may be face-to-face or at a distance (including helpings and web-based services).

4.3.9 What is career guidance?

Career guidance, as defined by OECD', covers services intended to assist individuals, of any age and at any point throughout their lives, to make educational, training and occupational choices and to manage their careers. The services include career information (in print ICT-based and other forms), assessment and self-assessment tools, counseling interviews, career education and career management programs, taster programs, work search programs, and transition services. They therefore cover all three of the forms of support outlined above.

4.3.10 How can access to career guidance be provided?

The OECD career guidance policy review' indicates that the development of career management skills is an important task for schools. It needs to be embedded in the curriculum in the form of career education programs, with a strong experiential component (work experience etc.) profiling and portfolio arrangements also have an important contribution make to this task.

International experience demonstrates, however, that guidance programs provided totally by schools tend to be remote from the labor market and subordinated too personal and study guidance. The OECD review accordingly concludes that school guidance needs to be supported and supplemented by specialized external career guidance agencies that visit the school on a regular basis. Denmark, which traditionally has had and education-based guidance system, is currently setting up new external services in the light of this recommendation.

Beyond school, the OECD review indicates that a variety of services are needed: some targeted at particular groups: some offering more universal access. These include services in universities and colleges, in training and work-based learning institutions, in public employment services, in the voluntary community sector, and in the private sector, plus services offered by employers. Some of these may be free to users: some may be on a charged basis. Attentions is however needed to ensuring co-ordination so that these diverse services are well publicized, are quality-assured to robust standards, and are as seamless as possible from the viewpoint of the individual.

4.4 MANAGERIAL DEVELOPMENT

, do you have any idea about management development? and how do you distinguish it from ordinary employee training?

Management training and development is a learning experience and is primarily undertaken to sharpen the management skills, knowledge and ability to lead and manage organizations successfully in order to further the organizational objectives. The techniques developed for managerial development are designed to keep the management up-to-date with the dynamic developments in the area of technology and behavioral sciences. These developmental techniques will aid in assigning additional responsibilities which provide satisfaction for higher level needs of achievement; challenge and self-actualization. Without these developmental and growth programs, there is a real danger that managerial personnel would become obsolete.

In the words of David W. Ewing, "The managerial personnel must realize that they will survive unless they keep pace with modern management education, research theory, principles and practices."

Similar views were echoed by J.R.D. Tat, when inaugurating the Tata Management Training Center at Pune (India) in 1965. He said, "Trained managers are vital to the economic development of the country and they provide for continuous and efficient management."

The management development effort is undertaken to satisfy a number of organizational objectives. These are:

1. To ensure that managers at all levels of the organization are able to perform their jobs effectively, The technological dynamics and rapidly changing values and work attitudes require that the managers receive adequate and continuous preparation to meet these challenges.
2. To avoid managerial obsolescence. If the management does not keep pace with new methods and processes, and fails to adapt to changes, then it will become obsolete and ineffective.
3. To provide for managerial promotion to upper level ranks. Each promoted position required a new set of skills and abilities and the management development techniques prepare the managers for these new responsibilities.
4. To provide opportunity for managers to seek new challenges and new venues for personal growth and internal satisfaction.

Management development is long range in nature and is an integral and continuously on-going part of a manager's career throughout. Unlike the training of the workers which improves technical and mechanical skills, the management techniques are designed for managerial behavioral modification. It is an educational process, utilizing a systematic and organized procedure by which management learns the conceptual and theoretical knowledge for effective pursuance of their responsibilities. This change is in the managerial thinking and is achieved through the process of planned learning and is pertinent to the crucial areas which can be considered as output variables. These are:

(i) Knowledge change

(ii) Attitude change

(iii) Behavior change

(iv) Performance change.

The degree of success achieved in the changes in these output variables is largely dependent upon the following inputs:

(i) The learner's personal characteristics such as motivation and intelligence.

(ii) The amount of effort that the trainee puts in.

(iii) Cultural and conceptual climate within the organization.

4.4.1 Objectives of Management Development

The management development programs are organized with a view to achieving the following specific objectives.

- To improve the performance of the managers.
- To give the specialists on overall view of the functions of an organization and equip them to co-ordinate each other's efforts effectively.
- To identify the persons with the required potential and prepare them for senior positions.
- To increase the morale of the members of the management group.
- To increase the versatility of the management group.
- To keep the executives abreast with the changes and developments in their respective fields.
- To create the management succession, that can take over in case of contingencies.
- To improve thought process and analytical ability.
- To broaden the outlook of the executive regarding his/her role position and responsibilities.
- To understand the conceptual issues relating to economic, social and technical areas.
- To understand the problems of human relations and improve human relations skills.
- To stimulate creative thinking.

4.4.2 The Management Development Process

Management development is not just one activity. It involves a series of sequential activities. The steps involved in management development process are:

i) Analysis of developmental needs,
ii) Appraisal of present management talent,
iii) Inventory of management manpower,
iv) Planning of individual development program,
v) Establishment of development program, and
vi) Evaluation of the program

i) Analysis of organizational Development Needs

After the decision to launch a management development program has been made, the next thing to do is the close and critical examination of organization's present and future developmental needs. In this step the major decision is the determination of the number and type of managers that are required to meet the present and future needs.

An examination of the organizational structure in the light of the future plans of the organization should help one know what the organization requires in terms of functions, departments and executive positions. After examining the organizational structure, the job descriptions and specifications of all management positions are developed.

A comparison of the existing talents plus those that can be developed from within the organization with those required to meet the projected needs will help the top management make a policy decision as to whether it wishes to fill those positions from within the organization or from outside sources.

ii) Appraisal of Present Management Talent

In order to make the above-suggested comparison, a qualitative assessment of the existing management talent should be made and an estimate of their potential for development should be added to that. Only then can it be compared with the projected required talent.

iii) Inventory of Management Manpower

Inventory of management manpower is prepared to have complete information about each executive in each position. For each member of the management team, a card is prepared listing such data as name age, length of service, education, work experience, training courses completed, health record, psychological test results and performance appraisal data etc. The selection of the individuals for the management development program is made on the basis of the kind of background they possess. The management may set certain standards in terms of each of the above factors mentioned on the cards to qualify for the management development program.

Such information when analyzed discloses the strengths as well as the deficiencies of managers in certain functions relative to the future needs of the organization.

iv) Planning of Individual Development Programs

Guided by the results of the performance appraisal which indicate the strengths and weaknesses of each of his/her subordinates the executive plans individual development programs. Each of us has a unique set of physical, intellectual, emotional characteristics. Therefore, a development plan should be tailor-made for each individual.

v) Establishment of Development programs

It is the duty of the P/HRM department to establish well-conceived development opportunities.

The P/HRM department has to identify the existing level of skills, knowledge etc, of various executives and compares them with their respective job requirements. Thus, it identifies developmental needs and will establish specific development programs like, leadership course; Management games, Sensitivity training. The department may not be in a position to organize development programs for executives at the top level as could be organized by reputed institutes of management. In such situations, top management deputes certain individuals to the executive development programs organized by the repute institutes.

vi) Program Evaluation

Since management development program involves huge expenditure in the form of money, time and effort, the top management of any organization, naturally wishes to know whether it has got back something worth the amount it has spent. All efforts made in the direction of finding out its worth; together may be called programs evaluation.

If the objectives of the program have been accomplished, the program can said to be a success. However, it is difficult to measure the changes or effects against objectives. For example, a group of executives may attend a course in human relations, at the end of which their behavior may be watched. It is difficult to notice the subtle changes in their attitudes and behavior immediately after the program. The effect of certain programs can only be noticed in the long run in a more general way while the effect of certain other programs may be noticed in the short run in a specific way.

The results of the programs are measured against the specific current needs they are established for. Cost reduction, grievance reduction, and improvement in report writing are only a few examples for the specific needs that may be established

4 4.3 Components of a management Development program

The model of essential components of a comprehensive management development program is described in the following steps:

1. Ascertaining development needs. These needs call for an appraisal of current level managerial performance as well as an evaluation of managerial manpower needs for future growth. This will include the expansion policies of the organization as well as the competitive situation the organization as far as the managerial talents and techniques are concerned. The appraisal of the present managerial performance would include a complete and comprehensive file on each manager with an evaluation of his qualification, his talents, his contributions and his potential for growth. An objective analysis of his personal traits is also made. The results of his periodic performance appraisal are also recorded.
2. Planning of individual development programs.
3. The management development staff may have differences of opinions with the functional managers. The staff must realize that primary duty is to assist line members and the basic responsibility for the development lies with the line managers.

4. It must be understood that development is a learning process, rather than the teaching process. Accordingly, individuals must be psychologically prepared to seek and accept change and the programs must be built upon the particular developmental needs of each individual and his aptitude and ability to successfully pursue these programs.
5. Over concern with personality. Efforts to modify the basic traits of an individual's personality may be almost impossible and highly resisted. This would affect the effectiveness of the program. Some self-evaluation and redirecting of behavioral patterns are certainly important and necessary but efforts to restructure one's personality may backfire.
6. Over-enthusiasm about developmental programs may ignore the fact that adequate facilities may not exist for practical applications of the program. Accordingly, the developmental activities must be planned in such a manner that the individuals are able to effectively apply their newly developed skills and abilities back on the job.

4.4.4 Management Development methods

The management development emphasizes primarily cognitive and effective learning objectives. The cognitive abilities involve the gaining of knowledge and effective learning involves feelings like attitudes, values and interests. Most development techniques are specifically designed to meet the various needs of the management personnel and the needs of the organization and the types of objectives that are desired to be achieved. The training objective could be any one of the following:

(a) Knowledge acquisition
(b) Behavioral modification and change in attitude
(c) Acquisition of problem solving skills
(d) Teaching of inter-personal skills etc.

Whatever the objective of the training program, it must be fully accepted by the participants and followers.

The development techniques and training programs generally require that the participants leave their jobs for a pre-determined period of time and engage in some type of learning effort, most often conducted in a classroom setting.

These programs can be classified into three categories. These categories are:

1. On-the-job training methods
2. Simulation methods
3. Information presentation methods.

1. One-the-job training methods. On-the-job training is the most widely used method. It is inexpensive and saves productive hours. The employee is trained on the job itself. Under the supervision of an experienced trainer who is usually another employee or a superior. This training is achieved in any of the following ways.

(a) The coaching method. The manger and his subordinate work together in a student-tutor relationship in which the trainer coaches and guides the trainee and the purpose is to explain the "whys" and 'how" of particular job functions and providing feedback to the trainees regarding their performance and any grounds for improvement

(b) Job rotation method. This refers to the movement of executives from one job to another within the organization on some planned basis in order to familiarize the trainee with different aspects of the organizational functions which results in broadening of outlook and exposure to various management skills. Such free movement of personnel across functional lines reduces barriers to internal communications and ensures a free flow of information and ideas among all divisions.

What merits and demerits could you identify in connection with the job rotation method?

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(c) Through junior board meetings and committees method. This method involves participation in junior board meetings and decision making committees where the information is shared and discussed involving real life organizational problems. It helps the trainee in widening his perspective and he is initiated to the managerial process of understanding, comprehension, analysis and decision making.

2. Simulation methods. In these techniques some real aspects of an organization are simulated

and presented to the trainee and he is asked to react to it as if he was facing the real problem. Some of the common simulation methods are:

(a) The case study method. This technique, popularized by the Harvard Business School, is generally used in training supervisors. This method stresses situation analysis or problem analysis. An actual business situation is presented to the trainee in witting and in a comprehensive manner. The trainee is asked to identify the problem, analyze the situation and suggest solutions. These solutions are then compared to the actual solutions that were developed in solving that problem.

A variance and an improvement to the case study method is known as the "Incident Process" in which the leader presents and event without furnishing details. The participants have to ask pertinent questions to secure the additional necessary information about the case. This sharpens the trainees' faculty of asking logical questions, gathering and analyzing the deformation and synthesizing the information into a structure from where logical conclusions can be drawn. Based on the answers given would then be compared with the actual solutions that were applied to that particular problem.

(b) Role playing. The role playing techniques induce people to assume the role of the pacified individual under particular organizational conditions. Each role player is also expected to react to other role playing participants in the group. For example, a trainee may be given the role of a person handing employee complaints about working conditions. He must gather all the data, ask pertinent questions to other role playing participants, relevant to this situation and offer solutions. It is an excellent technique to strengthen interpersonal skills and expand individual understanding of complex interdependent issues.

Role playing helps the participants appreciate other points of view. For example, when a foreman plays the role of a union representative, he tends to understand the labor problems much better, especially if he gets emotionally involved with the role.

(c) The gaming approach. In this method of training an actual business situation is presented as a model, in which the team of individuals competes against one another or against an environment in order to achieve a given objective. These business games are intended to teach trainees how to take management decisions in an integrated manner. Some of the more complex situations are handled with the aid of a computer. The game is made up of some specific rules which govern the operations of the particular organization or industry and the trainees play the game by assigning values to the variables that affect the decision and then evaluating the decision. These variables may be what price to charge, how much to spend on advertising whom to hire etc, etc.

(d) The in-basket method. In this method, the trainee is asked to assume a particular managerial position and deal with the incoming mail (in-basket), containing a number by pressing matters requiring decisions and resolutions. These matters may relate to customer complaints, requests for promotions or transfers or other correspondence bearing on a functional area of the management. The in-basket technique recreants the incoming mail situation and the management trainee is expected to give rational and applicable responses. The results are then evaluated.

3. Information presentation Techniques. These are primarily the classroom teaching type and the idea is for the instructor to teach the trainees attitudes, concepts of skills. Some of the methods employed are:

(a) Lecture. A lecture simply means a teacher delivering lectures and explaining to a group of trainees in a classroom setting. There is little opportunity for the learner involvement and the trainee assumes a passive role. This lack of active participation on the part of the trainee prevents any feedback, even though most lectures do provide for asking questions and discussion. Its' major advantage is that large amounts of material can be presented in a short time period.

(b) Conference method. This is similar to a seminar where the approach stresses the importance of the active involvement of participants and every participant is encouraged it initiates ideas relevant thinking and experience of the group. The objective is to develop problem solving and decision making capabilities and to have an impact on an individual's capabilities.

(c) Programmed learning. The programmed learning (PL) is self-paced and uses a teaching machine or a computer. The topic to be learned is broken down into a series of steps and the participants acquire knowledge in a step-by-step manner. At each learning step, the participant prepares a response to a given question and receives a feedback as to the correctness of the response.

An extension of the programmed instruction is the computer assisted instruction (CAI). In this type of instruction, the individual interacts with the computer in order to assess the learning progress. All answers are pre-programmed into the computer so that the participants can check their answers for accuracy.

(d) Audio-visual methods. Most applications involve recording of an event on a video tape which is played back to the participants for the learning process. For example, this presentation may be on how to operate particular machinery safely. A number of highly professional films along with audio equipment, such as cassettes have been developed to train employees in a wide range of technical and interpersonal skills.

4.4.5 Behavior Modification Techniques

A broad spectrum of managerial effectiveness would indicate two controlling influences. These are:

i) Operating skill. This involves the methods of operations and decision making which result in improvement in productivity.
ii) Behavioral optimality. This deals with human relations and general behavioral modification which delves into human sensitivity and awareness and more constructive relationship with people.

Some of the techniques used in behavior modification are:

i. Sensitivity of T-group Training. A manager's behavior is not how he thinks he behaves but how others view his behavior. The sensitivity training has the objective of expanding a person's understanding of how his behavior affects others and his reaction to the behavior of others. In this approach, the participants are encouraged to undertake considerable self examination. Sensitivity training represents a valuable psychological experience and a highly effective approach for a study of interpersonal relationships.

The T-Group training is a major category of sensitivity training and consists of an unstructured group of about 8-10 people with no leader, no agenda and no stated goal. The group is expected to develop interactions in whatever ways its members like. The emphasis is on "here and now" and a "face-to-face" interaction. Some of the purposes and objectives of T-Group training are:

i. The participants learn more about themselves, specially their own weaknesses and emotions.
ii. It develops insights into how they react to others and how others react to them.

iii. To understand group processes, inter-member inter-actions, inter-personal relations and how to manage people through means other than power.

iv. Reassessment of one's values and goals as a result of analysis of direct experiences.

All this is achieved in an honest and open approach so that both strengths as well as weaknesses are exposed and there is a true expression of feeling, motives and attitudes.

It is important for the success of the program that the participants feel secure enough in opening up to each other truthfully, about their feelings and emotions and do not "hold back".

ii. Transactional Analysis. Transactional analysis (TA) is basically a method of analyzing the transactions which take place among people when they try to communicate and the nature of these transactions depends upon the personality structure of the persons. The personality structure is composed of three ego states which are:

i. Parent ego

ii. Adult ego

iii. Child ego

The parent part tends to be protective, righteous, authoritative, impatient, counseling, indispensable, and critical. The adult ego is similar to Freud's ego state and it characterizes the rational man. He is information seeker and evaluator. He has a scientific approach to problems and situations and is open to logical persuasion. The child ego is dominated by emotions. He is selfish and dependent on others for making decisions.

The transactional analysis method is that of self-realization and self-correction and it helps people understand themselves and to acquire clearer self-awareness, genuineness, and responsibility.

When a person communicates with another, there is always one ego state predominating. Recognizing the ego state of the transaction helps the process of communication and interaction more effectively. The adult stimulus must induce and adult response in order for the communication to be complementary and useful. Any other response would mean that the ego states do not match. The TA method is useful in the sense that it makes the manager aware of himself in relation to his surroundings and helps him better to understand how his behavior is perceived by others-especially his subordinates. In general, the method helps in securing better team work and it improves inter-personal relationships.

1.6 ORGANIZATIONAL DEVELOPMENT (OD)

The organizations are complex systems comprising many subsystems which must work together in harmony and synchronization. The fact that there are a number of variables that affect subsystems and the subsystems themselves interacting with each other make it more complicated. Adding to the complication is the dynamic nature of the environment in which the organization exists and the rapidly changing values of the variables affecting the system. Accordingly, management must be prepared to achieve a degree of organizational synthesis as well as change the organizational environment to accommodate the change in the conditions. This organizational change must be pre-planned and not be a haphazard one. Harol Rush has defined organizational development as, "a planned, managed, systematic process to change the culture, systems and behavior of an organization, in order to improve the organization's effectiveness in solving its problems and achieving its objectives."

The word organizational Development (OD) was coined by Richard Beckhard in the mid-1950's, as a response to the need for integrating organizational needs with individual needs. He described the dilemma as follows:

If we are talking about the basic dilemma of managing work, the management problem has two horns. One horn is how do you take all that human energy and channel it towards the organization's mission? The other horn is, how do you organize the work, the communications patterns, the decision making, the norms and values, the ground rules, so that people's individual needs for self-worth, achievement, satisfaction and so on, are significantly met at the work place.

A great deal of attention has been pushed on to the second horn of the dilemma. But that alone does not solve the problem anymore than the other way around. So the dilemma is how do you manage the dilemma and not how do

you manage one horn of it. OD tries to work out organize the interaction between the two.

The basic concept underlining organizational development then is to improve organizational efficiency by modifying human behavior rather than technological innovations. The technical developments can always be handled by retraining and refining technical skills. But without the committed involvement of human element, all the technology has a limited meaning. The OD theorists emphasize that the organic structure of organization rather than the mechanistic and bureaucratic structure is more desirable in today's dynamic environment. It is accepted, however, that the mechanistic structure with its highly disciplined chain of command is more suitable under stable environment. But the argument advanced by behavior-lists is that there is no stable environment. The external environment is highly turbulent to be stable. Accordingly, the organic structure with its limited number of hierarchical levels, wide spans of control, decentralized decision making, open communications, interdependence among groups, high level of openness and trust and reliance on teams is the best organization for today's situation.

The organizational development can then summarily be defined as, "An effort (a) planned (b) organization wide (c) managed from the top, in order to (d) increase organization effectiveness and health through (e) planned intervention in the organization's 'processes' using behavioral science knowledge."

This definition was originally developed by Beckhard, who was an early proponent of behavioral science application to increase the health and effectiveness of the organization. Again, according to Beckhard's emotional and overly optimistic view, "the healthy organization manages according to established goals, the organizations properly designed, decisions are made at the appropriate level, communications are relatively undistorted, win/lose activities are minimized, there is emphasis on helping each other grow and develop, the interpersonal difficulties are minized ad the organization is open and adaptive.

In the above definition, effectiveness refers to establishing and attaining realistic organizational goals. Health refers to the motivation, integration and utilization of combined human resources within the organization. The organization Development as perceived seems to be an answer to all organizational problems. Since the human element is the most important element in the success of any organization along organic lines based on openness and trust should ensure success. But rational applicability of the concept. This would explain why most organizations are still operation in a classical and mechanistic way and there does not seem to be any urgency to shift to more organic structure. One of the major reasons for any lack of popularity of such organic structure is that in such structures, the emphasis is primarily on human element which is most unstable and unpredictable and basically self-serving. Even Warren Bennis, who was a strong supporter of organization development on the basis of human interaction, became skeptical after experiencing the realities and frustrations of serving as an administrator in two academic institutions. Based on his experience, he expressed his view that human nature is basically selfish, that people, place self-interest above public interest, cannot tolerate ambiguity and frustration and are more concerned with power and profit than with warmth and love. These traits run counter to what are desirable for organization development. Still the trend towards organic structure indicates the optimistic belief that these self-orientated traits and attitudes can be changed through sustained efforts and motivation.

Do you see any distinction between employee training, employee developments, career development and organizational development? Please write down your response in the space provided below.

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4.6.1 Objectives of Organizational Development Programs

Some of these objectives are based on Wendell French and are described below:

1. To build and enhance interpersonal trust, communication, cooperation and support among all individuals and groups through-out the organization at all levels.
2. To encourage an analytical approach to problem solving in a team spirit and openness, where the problems and differences are confronted and resolved instead of problem-avoiding or decision-postponing approach or "sweeping problems under the rug" as they say it.
3. To increase a sense of belonging to the organization so that the organizational goals become the goals of the members of the organization.
4. To assign decision making and problem solving responsibilities to skilled and knowledgeable persons who are closer to the scene of operations and the sources of information tether than to a person with a particular role or at a particular hierarchical level.
5. To increase personal responsibility for planning and implementing the plans and be aware and responsible for the consequences. This will build enthusiasm individually

and group wise and will involve communications, feelings, open competition as well as compromise, conflict resolution etc. this will increase a sense of self-direction for all people within the organization.

6. To help managers to mange according to the relevant objectives rather than depending upon "past practices." The management should be goal-oriented rather than process-oriented. All efforts should be directed and channeled towards related objectives in the area of responsibility.

   These objectives help the organizations in examining its current methods of operations, its norms and values and to generate and evaluate alternative ways of operating and utilizing the full potential of human resources.

4.6.2 Basic Organizational Development(OD) Assumptions

1. The organization development has a number of underlying assumptions which can be examined so as to determine how the OD programs can be utilized to the fullest potential. These assumptions are based upon French and Bell:
2. Most individuals have drives towards personal growth and development. However, the work habits are a response to work environment rather than personality traits. Accordingly, efforts to change work habits should be directed towards changing how the person is treated than toward attempting to change the person.
3. Highest productivity can be achieved when the individual goals are integrated with organizational goals. Also, the product is of optimum quality.
4. Cooperation is more effective than conflict. Conflict tends to erode trust, prohibit collaboration and eventually limit the effectiveness of the organization. In healthy organizations, "efforts are made at all levels to treat conflict as a problem subject to problem solving methods.
5. The suppression of feelings adversely affects problem solving, personal growth and satisfaction with one's work. Accordingly, free expression of feelings is an important ingredient for commitment to work.
6. The growth of individual members is facilitated by relationships which are open, supportive, and trusting. Accordingly, the level of interpersonal trust, support and cooperation should be as high as possible.

7. The difference between commitment and agreement must be fully understood. Agreeing to do something is totally different from being committed to do something. Sense of commitment makes it easy to accept change and the implementation of change is even easier when this commitment is based upon participation in the process.
8. OD programmes, if they are to succeed, must be reinforced by the organization's total human-resources system.

4.6.3 Organizational Development Interventions

OD interventions are the building blocks which are the planned activities designed to improve the organization's functioning through participation of the organizational members. Some of the many OD interventions are:

1. Diagnostic activity. This activity involves collection of all the information about the state of the organization. This can be done through the organization's operation records, observations of task activities, meetings with subordinates, interviews with workers, etc. this could establish the "health of the organization," This information is analyzed and the information as well as the analysis is communicated to members. Based on this information as well as the feed-back obtained from the members, some action plans are designed which are intended to improve the health of the organization.
2. Methodologies employed. The action plans that are designed to improve the general health of the organization pertain to three areas:

(a) To improve the skills, abilities and knowledge of individual and may involve task-related skills or skills in maintaining interpersonal interactions.

(b) To reorganize the structure of the organization so that it becomes more conductive to quality-oriented efficient operations. This may involve changes in the design of hierarchy or redesigning of work responsibilities or management by objectives.

(c) To help the organization members to perceive the organizational environment better. This according o to French and Bell, is as follows:

The primary emphasis is on the processes such as communications, leader and member roles groups, problem solving and decision making, group norms and group growth, leadership and authority and inter-group cooperation and competition.

1. Team building. Activities are designed to improve the effectiveness of the sub-unit. It

is important to recognize work group's problems as early as possible so that solutions can be implied, before the problems can do any damage. These may be task related problems or personality conflict and personality cult problems within the group. The group's work related issues can be streamlined by changing the way things are done, by redirecting the resources to be utilized and by re-examining the work processes.

The interpersonal relationships within the team can be improved by creating an environment which is open and trustworthy, where members can openly and freely communicate their feelings and thoughts, where leadership evolves on the basis of respect and functional excellence and where conflicts are resolved on the basis of mutual understanding.

2. Intergroup relationships. Just as there are problems within the group, similarly there are problems among interdependent groups. The activities of these groups must be synchronized and coordinated to achieve the organizational goals and the unhealthy competition between the groups must be eliminated. Other problems may involve conflicts over overlapping responsibilities or confused lines of authority. Some examples of such groups where conflicts may lie are sales and production, line staff and authority staff, labour and management, hospital administrators and doctors in a hospital etc. All these problems must be solved in a spirit of goodwill and openness.

In general OD efforts are designed to bring changes in the conceptual environment of an organization as well as the outlook of the organizational members. Each member begins to see himself as a resource to others and is willing to lend his support to his colleagues when it is needed. The conceptual environment brings about open and free expression of feelings, emotions and perceptions. It also helps members to develop interpersonal competence including communication skills and an insight into themselves and others.

Summary

Career Development is a lifelong process by which individuals define and redefine career-related choices and outcomes. In the Career Planning Process managers assist employees in answering the following questions: WHO AM I? (Self-knowledge) Helping employees discover their interest, aptitudes and the things that are important to them. WHERE AM I GOING? (Career/Educational Exploration) Helping employees discover their numerous options in the world of work and the relationship work has with education. Planning/Management HOW AM I GOING TO GET THERE? Helping employees gather information and formulate a plan of action to reach their career goal.

There are two categories of development methods. These are on-the-job development, and off-the-job development. Some of the widely used on-the-job development methods are: coaching, job rotation, under study assignments and multiple management. Off-the-job development methods include simulation exercises, sensitivity training, transactional analysis, conferences and lectures. To ensure the success of the management development programs, they have to be evaluated from time to time.

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