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**WATER AND SANITATION  
FOR HEALTH PROJECT**



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# **TRAINING OF TRAINERS WORKSHOP FOR TECHNOLOGY TRANSFER IN WATER SUPPLY AND SANITATION**

## **WASH FIELD REPORT NO. 45**

**JUNE 1982**

CDM FIVE is operated by  
Camp Dresser and McKee  
Incorporated; Principal Col-  
laborators: Center for Educa-  
tional Development in  
Health, Boston University;  
International Science and  
Technology Institute; Re-  
search Triangle Institute;  
University of North Carolina  
at Chapel Hill.

**Prepared For:**  
**The Office of Health**  
**Bureau for Science and Technology**  
**Agency for International Development**  
**Order of Technical Direction No. 80**

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June 8, 1982

Mr. Victor W.R. Wehman, Jr.  
S&T/HEA  
Room 709, SA-18  
AID

Dear Mr. Wehman:

On behalf of the WASH Project I am pleased to provide you with ten copies of a report on the training of trainers workshop for technology transfer in water supply and sanitation. This is the final report by James Carney and Louise McCoy.

The work was undertaken by the WASH Project on February 4, 1982, by means of Order of Technical Direction No. SO.

If you have any questions or comments regarding the findings or recommendations contained in this report we will be happy to discuss them.

Sincerely yours,

*Dennis B. Warner*

Dennis B. Warner, Ph.D., P.E.  
Project Director

DBW:BF:RS  
Enc.

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Prepared for the Office of Health  
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Prepared by:

James Carney  
Louise McCoy

June 1982

Water and Sanitation for Health Project  
Contract No. AID/DSPE-C-0080, Project No. 931-1176  
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## EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

The Water and Sanitation for Health Project (WASH) planned and implemented a training of trainers workshop February 21-27, 1982 for WASH subcontractor personnel working on technology transfer for water supply and sanitation. Ten participants attended the workshop, which was designed and implemented by two professional trainers.

The workshop was seen as an essential step in strengthening WASH's technology transfer efforts. Since the process of technology transfer is as important as the technology itself, it was felt that those individuals working in the field must have strong training skills to ensure the long term effectiveness of their work.

The trainers conducted a careful needs assessment based on information from the participants and WASH and AID Officials in order to design a workshop which was relevant to field needs. Learning, communication, and motivation theory was presented, and actual practice in the planning and delivery of training was provided in the workshop.

The workshop focused on training for task performance. In order to have the workshop serve as a model of the training the participants would do in the field, the trainers emphasized an experiential approach which required active involvement of the participants in all phases of workshop design and process. Recommendations from the trainers and participants are included for future similar training of trainers workshops.

## Chapter 1

### BACKGROUND AND INTRODUCTION

The WASH Project has been very active in the area of technology transfer. Most of this activity has centered around the AID handpump, with assistance provided to the Philippines, Haiti, Dominican Republic, Honduras, Ecuador, and Tunisia. The majority of WASH's technology transfer work for the AID handpump has been done under subcontract by the Georgia Institute of Technology (Georgia Tech), which has worked in the AID handpump program since 1976.

At the end of January 1982, Georgia Tech personnel working in the handpump program met in the WASH office to review its handpump activities. One of the subjects addressed was the area of training. After discussing the training aspects of Georgia Tech's handpump activities, the suggestion was made that a training of trainers workshop might be appropriate to enhance the training skills of the Georgia Tech group and to add a new dimension to their technology transfer efforts.

Early in February, after discussions between Georgia Tech and the Office of Health in AID, the decision was made for WASH to schedule a training of trainers workshop from February 21-27. Although the planning time was limited to three weeks, it was agreed, nevertheless, to proceed with all necessary arrangements. The dates were chosen based on the travel schedules of the Georgia Tech personnel, all of whom spend extensive time in the field. Georgia Tech felt that if the workshop were not held in late February, the next available time to get all of the individuals together might not be until May.

A meeting was held between Fred Rosensweig of WASH and Philip Potts of Georgia Tech to discuss the broad outlines of the workshop. Mr. Potts agreed to contact his staff, and Mr. Rosensweig began to find a location and identify the trainer consultants to plan and deliver the workshop. It was also agreed to invite other appropriate individuals from the WASH staff and other WASH subcontractors which provide personnel for the handpump program, making a total of ten participants. (A list of participants can be found in Appendix A and the Agenda in Appendix E.)

## Chapter 2

### PRE-DESIGN DATA DEVELOPMENT

#### 2.1 Initial Briefing for Consultant/Trainers

The Consultant/Trainers (see biographic data, Appendix C), Louise McCoy and James Carney, met on Monday, February 8, at WASH to begin planning for the workshop. In a briefing with Fred Rosensweig, Senior Training Officer, Paul Howard, Project Officer, both from WASH, and John Austin, AID Environmental Engineer, the trainers were briefed on the background, perceived needs and expectations of this training.

Ideas, concerns, issues, and potential problems were explored, and the cast of characters, both participants and others concerned from AID and WASH, was identified. The trainers discussed their training methods with the group and related experiences that appeared relevant.

A data collection method was agreed upon in which needs assessment interviews would be conducted by the trainers with all available participants and with key members of the WASH and AID Office of Health staffs. These assessment data would then be synthesized and used by the trainers to design a training of trainers workshop tailored to the needs of the participants and in turn of AID and WASH.

#### 2.2 Needs Assessment Interviews

Following the briefing, an interview schedule was set up. Interviews were conducted with the two senior AID officers concerned with the project and three WASH senior staff including the Acting Director.

The participant interviews were more difficult to arrange. Only two participants lived in the Washington D.C.-area, one from WASH and one from the International Science and Technology Institute (ISTI), and these were easily obtained. The chief of the Georgia Tech group was in Washington on other business, and a short interview was arranged with him. Two others from Georgia Tech were interviewed by telephone in Atlanta. A third telephone interview was held with a second participant from ISTI.

The result of these efforts was that six participants were able to contribute to the workshop design via the needs assessment process. Three others from Georgia Tech were out of the country and were not returning until the weekend of the workshop so contributions from them were not possible. The tenth participant was added the day before the workshop began and he was not interviewed.

From the assessment data came a wide range of information, ideas, concerns, and needs. The interviews were extremely helpful in designing the workshop. If anything, the trainers were presented with more data than could be used. However, the lack of input from the three participants in the field, particularly their concerns, proved later to be significant since their expectations upon entering the workshop were quite different from those of the other participants.

### 2.3 Data Review

The data collected during the needs assessment was organized into categories of training needs and provided the framework for the design of the workshop.

During the two week design period, the trainers also reviewed material about the handpump program, transfer of technology, and other AID training of trainer activities in this area. This review enabled the trainers to develop an appreciation of the technical side of the project and to have better insight into the issues related to the training.

## Chapter 3

### DESIGN PROCESS, LOGISTICS, AND RATIONALE

#### 3.1 Initial Design Development

Using the data structure they had developed, the trainers brainstormed a list of relevant training approaches suggested by the issues and needs. Then, section by section, they pieced together the various elements into a coherent, linked design. Various approaches and applications were debated until the trainers were satisfied they had developed an initial design that would enable the workshop to flow from opening session to final applications and closure.

The initial design was then tested with Mr. Rosensweig and Dr. Austin. Based on their input, representing the WASH and the AID perspective, the trainers made some modifications in the design.

#### 3.2 The Pre-Workshop Briefing: Goals and Presentation

At a design review meeting, the trainers also discussed the goals for the pre-workshop briefing. It was agreed that the briefing was to be a vehicle for sharing the design and its process with representatives from WASH, AID and other interested parties. This meeting would also allow the trainers to obtain additional insights from the group that might be helpful in finalizing the training design.

The trainers opened the briefing with a presentation of goals for the workshop, presented a set of expectations and assumptions which guided the design of the training, and concluded with a broad overview of the design. On the Thursday prior to the workshop, this two hour presentation was made to a group of senior WASH and AID staff, as well as a representative from PAHO. The comments and issues raised by this group helped the trainers to complete the design.

#### 3.3 Site, Supplies and Training Materials Development

It was decided that the workshop should be away from Washington and in a place which provided sleeping and eating facilities for the week-long session. Fortunately, Airlie House was available, about an hour's drive away, and one of the trainers, having worked there extensively, was able to assist in obtaining the exact facilities needed.

The training resource materials were gathered by the trainers. Drawing from their own libraries, as well as from colleagues

and clients, the trainers assembled a wide array of training and reading materials for the workshop (see Appendices D and E). Some of the materials were edited or rewritten to suit this workshop. Also, a handbook of learning strategies was obtained which would be used by the participants for their own design efforts.

### 3.4 Final Design and Activity Planning

The day following the briefing all the pieces came together. Based on the briefing, the trainers completed the design of the workshop, worked through the activities that would be used in each session, and prepared the agenda (Appendix B).

### 3.5 Overview of the Rationale for the Workshop Design

The workshop design and content were based on several assumptions. The first was that the participants were technically competent in the field of handpump manufacture, installation, operation, and maintenance. Second, the trainers recognized that the participants had extensive field experience and had already developed some training skills, especially using demonstration/practice and on-the-job training techniques.

The third basic assumption was that methods of actually conveying information are at least as important as the content if not more so, especially skills in communicating with those in different social and economic circumstances. The ability to perceive the needs and motivations of such people or the sensitivity required to listen well to clients and to work in a participatory mode rather than as an "expert" is critical. To be effective, trainers or "transferers" of technologies must have such attributes whether acquired through experience or through instruction. And finally it was assumed that the participants were unfamiliar with current theories of learning, communication, and motivation.

The overall purpose of the workshop, therefore, was to increase the awareness of learning, communication and motivation theories and to sharpen training skills useful in enhancing the effectiveness of the participants' technology transfer efforts.

To this end the workshop was set up to train the participant trainers in the same way or in a parallel manner to the way in which they would in turn train their clients in the field. The trainer participants were surveyed before the workshop to elicit their concerns, ideas, and felt needs. Their responses were integrated at the design stage, and plans for further participant input were to take place at the beginning

of the workshop itself in order to come to agreement and/or understanding of what the workshop would consist of and why. The participants were expected to play an active role in determining what turns the workshop would take and also in its evaluation and in plans for further such workshops.

### 3.6 Workshop Goals

The overall goals of the workshop were, therefore, as follows:

1. The participants would examine and experiment with a broad range of training/consultation methodologies in order to enhance their training/consultation capabilities for transfer of technology.
2. They would present and critique training sessions based on the task and performance model.
3. They would discuss and develop solutions to field training problems identified by the participants (cultural factors, documentation, materials development, etc.).
4. They would present and critique field training packages related to current projects, utilizing a systematic approach to planning, implementation, and evaluation.

## Chapter 4

### THE WORKSHOP IN ACTION

#### 4.1 Sunday Evening, February 21 - Day One

The participants gathered at Airlie House shortly before 5:00 p.m. on Sunday, February 21. Several came from overseas and travelled over the weekend in order to be present. Following an informal gathering and dinner together, the group met for the first session at eight o'clock that evening.

##### 4.1.1 Introduction of Trainers and Participants

The opening session was designed to give participants some information about the trainers, to introduce participants to each other, and to present plans for the week. The evening was designed to set an open, informal tone and to reach a common understanding of the goals and subject matter of the workshop.

The room was set up in an open chevron style with two rectangular tables for the participants to sit around. There was no podium or head table, only two flip chart easels set at what became the front of the room. There was one long table with printed materials and handouts (Appendix D) and another long table set up with reference materials (see Appendix E).

The session was opened by the trainers, who introduced themselves and explained the logistics at Airlie. They then handed out and briefly reviewed the agenda (Appendix C), explaining that the activities and time blocks were approximate and might be changed as the workshop evolved (for the actual training schedule see Figure 1). The trainers talked generally about the training styles they would be using and the norms they felt were important for such workshops, e.g., participation, experiential learning, using each other as resources, openness, effective listening, etc.

Each of the ten participants was then asked to introduce himself and say something about his background and experience. Following the introductions, an icebreaker exercise was used. The participants were asked to recall a significant person or event in their lives and to share that recollection. The trainers demonstrated the process in front of the group. In order to conserve time and to make people more comfortable in sharing, the participants were divided into two sub-groups of five and asked to do their sharing in the smaller sub-groups. The exercise took about 20 minutes.

### Actual Training Schedule

Sunday	Monday	Tuesday	Wednesday	Thursday	Friday	Saturday
9 am	Recognizing successes and problems in the field Goals of the handpump program	Trainer as consultant Theories of motivation	Task analysis Performance objectives Phases of training ↓	Micro-training presentation ↓	Field training package preparation ↓	Field training package presentation Evaluation Closing
12	Lunch	Lunch	Lunch	Lunch	Lunch	Lunch
2 pm	Experiential learning model  Practicing the experiential learning model (Hollow Square)  Informal meeting	Communication skills Johari Window Feedback	↓ Micro-training preparation	↓ Clinics on field problems	↓ Field training package presentation	
Dinner	Dinner	Dinner	Dinner	Dinner	Dinner	
7:30 pm	Introduction Expectations Workshop goals	Training styles inventory	Group dynamics			

#### 4.1.2 Trainers' Goals and Participants' Expectations

At 9 p.m. the participants were asked to write out, individually, a list of their key expectations, hopes, and desires for the workshop. Afterwards three sub-groups were formed, and asked to discuss their individual lists and to combine these lists into a single list of expectations for each group. Each group then reported its synthesized list to the entire group.

It took the sub-groups 40 minutes to develop the lists, and about five minutes each to report their work. As expected, there was considerable similarity in the lists.

The trainers responded to the groups' lists of expectations by presenting the original goals for the workshop and the day by day content agenda. In going through this material with the group, the trainers noted that with one exception, the use of audio-visual materials, the issues raised in the participant lists were already incorporated in the design and content of the workshop.

Following some questions for clarity, the session adjourned at 10:25 p.m.

#### 4.2 Monday, February 22 - Day Two

##### 4.2.1 Recognizing Successes and Problems in the Field

The morning session opened with a brainstorming exercise with the whole group. The participants were asked to describe successes and problems they had had in training in the field, while a trainer took notes on a flip chart. A little slow at first, the group warmed up and began to generate some important issues out of their experience. There were far more problems than successes reported.

The purpose of the session, which lasted an hour and forty five minutes, was to allow participants to identify concerns which could be addressed with the learning of new skills in the workshop. This session also sought common characteristics of the problems, so that group members could begin to assist one another during and after the workshop in planning new or different approaches. The session served to establish a common frame of reference for the workshop. In terms of the interaction and the quality of the items identified the session accomplished its goal completely.

#### 4.2.2 Identifying Goals of the Handpump Program

At 11:00 a.m. the participants were asked to individually define the "Purposes of the Handpump Program" in order to identify specific ways in which training could contribute to the program's success. Each individual was asked to write his/her understanding of the goals of the handpump program on the flip charts. All the participants then reviewed the work, looking for commonalities and patterns. The discussions led to a synthesis in which the perceived goals were placed in one of three major areas: sociocultural development, health, and economic productivity.

At noon the participants were divided into three sub-groups, one for each of the above three categories, and were asked to generate the "Implications for Training" for that particular goal. Following lunch, each sub-group reported on its work. Each group also listed the kinds of training needed to achieve that goal. This session served to clarify the role of training in the overall handpump program.

#### 4.2.3 ARAGI and the Experiential Learning Model

In order to define the spectrum of the participants' knowledge and experience in training, the trainers asked the group to brainstorm the various ways that such training could be conducted. In 20 minutes an extensive list of general training approaches was generated. Going back through the combined list, the trainers asked for and received more specific definitions on how these approaches could be used. With this list of "hows", the stage was set for the introduction of the major theoretical and conceptual aspects of the workshop. The participants had demonstrated a range of knowledge and experiences upon which new concepts could now be built.

The trainers began with the most fundamental element, the experiential learning cycle. Opening with a schema of the adult learning process, or "andragogy", the trainers first showed the ARAGI model of adult learning (i.e., Action, Reflection, Analysis, Generalization and Integration) (Appendix D, p. 33) and compared that model with the traditional teaching and the conventional training models (Appendix D, p. 45). Following discussion of this comparison, the full experiential cycle was presented and explored.

The ARAGI and experiential learning models provide the theoretical base for competency based training and serve to validate and systematize the learning from experience that most adults confirm is the most significant. Since the methods used in the workshop were also based on these learning models, the workshop itself could function as a laboratory for testing out these ideas.

#### 4.2.4 Practicing the Experiential Model

After a break, the group was given a chance to practice the experiential model. The vehicle was the "Hollow Square" (Appendix D, p. 35). The group was divided into a "Planning Team", an "Operations Team", and an "Observing Team", and then set about the task. Not surprisingly, the groups displayed the expected behaviors. They did not involve the Operating Team in the planning from the outset, they relied on verbal instructions (teaching) to get the task done, and they did not completely understand their tasks before they began to take action.

In the subsequent discussion, many in the group were resistant to the learning which emphasized that careful definition and planning with clients prior to implementation of a project are essential to project effectiveness. After an hour several participants began to realize that they had, in fact, reverted to traditional educational behavior in their dedication to the task itself. However, the import was threatening enough at that stage of the workshop that some still dismissed the activity as a "game". Several participants did not realize that the intent of the exercise was to concentrate on how the various groups approached the tasks rather than on actually getting the task done.

#### 4.2.5 Assessing Individual Training Styles

After the above discussion on theory, the trainers wanted to assist the participants in identifying and expressing their own inclinations in selecting training methods and in comparing these personal preferences with the learning theories presented earlier. To accomplish this, on Monday evening the group completed the "Training Styles Inventory". (Appendix D, p. 40). After filling out the instrument and scoring it, the participants were shown the "Training Styles Continuum", (Appendix D, p. 46) based on the Schmidt-Tannenbaum Leadership scale. The continuum demonstrated the fluid nature of training styles and the importance of choosing the appropriate style for the kind of learning experience desired and the type of participants involved.

The participants were divided into two groups of five to pursue these concepts with the help of a trainer. They discussed their scores and the resulting style preferences. A productive discussion evolved in which individual participants' current skills and capabilities were recognized. Some members were able to express and explore their concerns about trying something unfamiliar in field training. The session lasted one hour and forty-five minutes.

### 4.3 Tuesday, February 23 - Day Three

#### 4.3.1 The Trainer as Consultant

In the pre-design interviews, the trainers began to recognize that development of the training component in the transfer of technology required that these technical field engineers be involved in related processes that might more properly be described as consultative. In the course of their work they are expected to consult with ministries in the development of training programs, manuals, appropriate infrastructures, and resources.

Building on the previous evening's work, the trainers sought to broaden the scope of training concepts by introducing the concept of "the trainer as a consultant/planner". Using the "Consulting Style Inventory" (Appendix D, p. 47), which is similar to the Training Style Inventory (Appendix D, p. 40), but with a broader and more extensive definition of roles, the trainers presented the aspects of consulting and planning that successful field trainers must undertake. The subsequent discussion led to an elaboration of the "power and authority spectrum", which outlined the difference between the "designated" and "accrued" authority of the individual trainer.

An outline of the "Stages of the Consulting Process" (Appendix D, p. 52) was also presented. It showed how the various stages, from "entry" to "follow-up", fit into the larger concept of the consultant's role as trainer. Since effective training requires clarity of goals and support for follow up activities, it was felt that a full description of the consultative process was an essential aspect of the workshop.

#### 4.3.2 Theories of Motivation

Following a break, the issue of motivation was introduced. Since the success of the trainer/consultant depends in large degree on understanding the motivations of the trainees or clients so that the training can be appropriately designed and implemented, the trainers presented three theories for consideration (Appendix D, p. 53). First, Abraham Maslow's hierarchy of needs was described, including the concept of each need being satisfied before moving to the next level. Second, the Herzberg "two-factor model", differentiating between "hygiene" and "motivators", was presented. Both theories generated a lot of discussion and debate, since they challenge much conventional wisdom. The debate increased when the trainers suggested that one can only motivate oneself, not others. An article by John Paul Jones (Appendix D, p. 58), which supports this concept, was handed out at the end of the session.

Third, All the theories were tied together by the final presentation, which used McGregor's Theory X and Y poles (Appendix D, p. 57).

#### 4.3.3 Communication and Feedback Skills for Trainers

The training program was designed to give participants opportunities to learn how to give feedback to a learner of a new skill in non-judgmental ways. Since the objectives of technology transfer and competency based training require collaborative and participatory rather than academic or directive approaches, communication skills that involve others in the search for solutions becomes very important. As technicians, the group members were good at solving problems for people, but needed to expand their repertory of skills to include functional helping styles when reliance on them as experts is undesirable. Developing feedback skills among the workshop participants would also enhance the learnings from the workshop experience, as group members would critique participant presentations later in the week.

Communication skills were presented in an experiential format in the afternoon session. Following a brief description of the "sender-receiver" model for communication, (Appendix D, p. 70) the group split into pairs to test the model.

First, the pairs exchanged four minute monologues, and were then asked about their feelings in each role as talker or listener, and about the non-verbal signals given by their partner. Following that discussion, the pairs were asked to use the technique of paraphrasing to practice their active listening skills. The listener had to paraphrase what the speaker said to the speaker's satisfaction before making his own comments. This structured dialogue lasted for 10 minutes and its impact was assessed by the total group. The ensuing discussion explored various kinds of approaches for clarifying and encouraging clearly understandable dialogue.

The process of feedback was introduced by brainstorming what the active listening concept meant to the group. The "Johari Window" (Appendix D, p. 68) was presented, demonstrating how "sharing" and "feedback", as modes of non-evaluative information transmissions, were the major components of relationship building. The group was given the "Rules of Feedback" (Appendix D, p. 77 and 78) and discussed its implications.

After the break, the group divided into consulting/feedback triads. They were assigned three rotating roles: problem-owner, listener/consultant, and observer/feedback giver. For 10 minutes the problem-owner was to describe a problem while the listener/consultant assisted using active listening techniques. Then for five minutes the observer gave feedback to both parties on how effective the interaction had been with

emphasis on the listener/consultant. This cycle was repeated twice so that each person could play each role. The triads then reported on the kind of experiences they had had, and the general learnings were discussed.

The group had worked straight through since Sunday night, so there was no evening session on Tuesday.

#### 4.4 Wednesday, February 24 - Day Four

##### 4.4.1 Task Analysis and Performance Objectives

Task and performance-based training utilizes two major means of planning training: task analysis and performance objectives. Task analysis (Appendix D, pg. 79) consists of breaking down tasks into specific detail and analyzing them for importance, difficulty and frequency. After a presentation on the concepts and procedures the participants were given a worksheet to fill out individually. They were asked to describe a training task they would encounter in the field and were then asked to analyze and rate the components of the task in terms of importance, frequency and difficulty of learning. The participants then paired and consulted with each other to help strengthen their task analyses. The trainers worked with the pairs as needed. There was a brief sharing by each pair with the total group on the problems they had encountered in doing task analyses.

##### 4.4.2 Writing Behavioral Objectives

Performance or behavioral objectives were introduced in a short presentation, comparing and contrasting examples of vague and specific objectives. The group was asked to write some behavioral objectives for tasks from the previous exercise on task analysis and to share them as examples. These examples led to a discussion of questions about "measurability" and varying conditions for performance objectives. Examples of "soft" versus "measurable" objectives were given by the trainer, and the group was asked to practice writing the latter. In closing this session, the group was given the Instructor's Manual and Training Guide for the Caribbean Basin Water Management Project (see Austin et al, Appendix E), and referred to the sections on task analysis and performance objectives for further examples.

The sessions on task analysis and performance objectives served to establish clearly the link between the two and to demonstrate their importance in the training process.

#### 4.4.3 Training Styles and Phases of Training Matrix

Participants were presented the "Phases of Training Matrix" (Appendix D, p.93) and shown the correlation with the "Training Styles Inventory" (p. 40) and the "Stages of the Consulting Process" (p. 52) which they had worked with previously. For each of the seven phases they were asked to write task statements which reflected what they would have to do in their projects and to identify those skills/knowledge areas needed for each of the task statements. This material was presented to help participants organize their thinking about the steps involved in developing training. Particular attention was paid to the planning and entry phases to assure integration of the training program with the goals of effective technology transfer in the handpump program.

After a break for lunch, the group was asked to identify, individually those skill/knowledge areas identified above which had been covered thus far in the workshop, those that had not been, and those that needed additional work. Then, in three sub-groups, the participants developed collective lists of the skills/ knowledge areas and reported on them to the entire group.

The three lists provided an overview of those areas the group continued to be concerned about and consolidated the areas in which they thought they had increased their skills and knowledge. The lists also provided the last set of links between the concepts of training and the practical applications to follow.

#### 4.4.4 Preparing Micro-Training Units

At mid-afternoon, the group was ready to begin preparation for the micro-training. they were asked to pair up and instructed to develop together a 30 minute training event on any field-related subject. Each session would be followed by a 15 minute critique/feedback session. The rest of the group, including the trainers, would be considered their "trainees". The remainder of the afternoon was spent in preparation for the micro-training followed by some welcome and needed recreational activity.

#### 4.4.5 Evaluating the Group Process and Course Review

The evening session, at the mid-point of the course, was billed as both a group dynamics session and a course review. Using the circle again, the group spent over two hours discussing both the dynamics of the group, particularly the behaviors of the first two days and their feelings about the workshop so far. Important feelings and concerns were raised and discussed, and the group was able to look at the ways in

which its behavior since Sunday night had affected the training and their own learning. It was a powerful and most useful session and pointed out how a group's behavior can affect the success of a training program and therefore must be dealt with directly by the trainers. Two handouts on leadership functions in a group were distributed to reinforce the session (Appendix D, p. 96).

#### 4.5 Thursday, February 25 - Day Five

##### 4.5.1 Presenting the Micro-Training Units

Micro-training is a way of demonstrating skills and trying out new ideas. It also provides opportunities for participants to see a variety of methods and styles. The micro-training presentations took all morning and part of the afternoon. As mentioned previously members of the group organized themselves into two person teams and planned a 30 minute training segment on a field-related topic. After the training segments were presented to the group, there was a discussion on such issues as group and time management issues and the varieties of effective trainer styles. Each of the five sessions was quite different, but all were good, some excellent. These sessions indicated the degree to which many of the participants had begun to integrate elements from the workshop. The critique sessions were interesting because the process of giving positive feedback was re-opened. The pairs used a variety of training approaches in their sessions, with an emphasis on experiential and applied methods. Some of the sessions were remarkably creative. Only one pair stayed with the traditional lecture/ demonstration model.

The presentations were followed by a short session restating the learnings from the micro-training and the ways they could be applied in the field training packages to be presented on Friday.

##### 4.5.2 Clinics on Special Field Problems

During the design of the workshop, it had become clear that there were a number of subject areas that needed to be addressed but did not lend themselves to the evolutionary flow of the workshop development. Thursday afternoon, between the micro-training and the field training applications, seemed a good time to raise some of these topics in the form of clinic discussion groups.

The trainers presented a list of eight issues which had emerged from the interviews and could be used as clinic topics. The group had no additions or deletions, so they were asked to sign up for the two topics of most interest to them.

While the results were initially ambiguous, by combining two topics and shifting one, there emerged four major clinic groups for the three hours. These were:

1. Marketing of Training
2. Training Logistics/Maintenance
3. Evaluation and Follow-up materials
4. Cultural Issues

In order to cover the topics in three hours, Clinics 1 and 2 were held simultaneously, with participants choosing which to attend (four for marketing, six for logistics).

Leading the clinics were the Senior Training Officer for WASH, Fred Rosensweig, and the AID Environmental Engineer, John Austin, who had come to participate in the workshop as resource persons. The clinics were discussion groups, in which the resource persons described some of the issues relevant to each topic, and then took part in the subsequent discussions.

The clinics on Evaluation and Follow-up Materials and Cultural Issues were held with the entire group. Fatigue, topic intensity and complexity led to the Cultural Issues Clinic being abbreviated. However, the remainder of the clinics served to stimulate thinking and responded to some stated questions and needs. Having AID and WASH staff available was a real asset to this segment of the workshop, since much of the discussion dealt with specific AID/WASH expectations in these areas.

#### 4.6 Friday, February 26 - Day Six

##### 4.6.1 Developing Field Training Packages

The last full day of the workshop brought the major applied segment of the learning. Field training packages were described to the group as a training plan and design which could be used in a field training event in the near future. Each participant was expected to develop either a new training package or revise and improve one to be used, utilizing the skills and concepts developed in the workshop. The trainers requested that the seven phases of training described in section 4.4.3 above be addressed. Each participant also was expected to make a 20 minute presentation to the entire group, with 10 minutes allowed for feedback.

The participants were given two and a half hours to work on their own, and then another two hours in consulting pairs to review and improve their package with their partners' help. They also had a final 30 minutes to make revisions and prepare their presentations.

The trainers were available as consultants to individuals and the consulting pairs. During the six hour preparation time, the trainers worked with all five pairs, often several times each. The participants took the task seriously and worked hard on their products.

#### 4.6.2 Presenting the Field Training Packages

The group had been requested to sign up for their presentation time with six presentations scheduled on Friday and four on Saturday. The presentations were so good that the 30 minute time frames began to slip. As a result, after the first five everyone was exhausted and it was nearly dinner time. The group agreed to start early the next morning to accommodate the remaining five presentations.

#### 4.7 Saturday, February 27 - Day Seven

The second five field training package presentations were almost as good as the first round. Some of the Saturday morning group had chosen more structured or directive training approaches, which they contended were appropriate for their situations. Several were remarkable in their content, their detailed completeness, and in their use of presentation materials and techniques.

The field training exercise was an excellent closure for the workshop learning phase. Despite early misgivings and some resistance to parts of the theoretical and conceptual base, the participants demonstrated a substantial amount of new and reinforced learning from the week. The field training packages were good examples of how experiential learning and task and performance based training can be integrated into effective training designs for the transfer of technology.

##### 4.7.1 Evaluation and Closing

At mid-morning, the final session began. The participants first filled out an evaluation questionnaire (see Appendix F for summary) and then generally addressed the need for further training in the technology transfer program area.

The workshop closed with the group gathering informally with the trainers to share their feelings about the week, what had happened and what had been learned.

## Chapter 5

### RECOMMENDATIONS AND LEARNINGS

#### 5.1 Recommendations from the Workshop Participants

As part of the closing of the workshop, the group generated recommendations for the technology transfer program by the participants.

In response to the question; "What future steps are necessary to support the effectiveness of the training component in the effort to transfer handpump technology?" the participants developed the following list of recommendations:

##### Group 1

1. Management training for administrators to improve ability to respond to needs.
2. Development and use of training manuals (e.g., manufacturers, new employee orientation, etc).
3. Development and use of audio-visual resources.
4. Follow-up to this workshop.
5. Further funding for design research (hardware) and language training.
6. Develop marketability of workshop skills.

##### Group 2

1. Additional language training, cultural aspects of technology transfer, training techniques (both established ones and experimentation with new ones).
2. Feedback to consultants and to WASH from those trained in the field on the results of the training workshop.
3. Funds to design and develop new training techniques such as demonstration projects. There should be a separate OTD (task) for training development and experimentation.
4. Plan future meetings to exchange experiences, feedback, ideas, etc. so as to continue and to expand the process begun in this workshop. There should be meetings every six-months at WASH for free and open discussions of training experiences.

## 5.2 Learning: The Trainers' Thoughts on the Workshop and its Implications

The following comments by the trainers are intended to assist WASH and future trainers as they develop similar training programs.

1. The range of inherent training skills and experience among the participants was very broad. The design attempted to cover that broad spectrum. In the workshop itself, the trainers believe that both the cognitive and the experiential learning addressed both the skilled and the relatively unskilled.

2. The design also allowed for different skill and learning levels by permitting individualized increases in levels of learning. In the workshop, this self-differentiation took place, especially in the various applied sessions (e.g. the Micro-Training and the Field Training Packages).

3. The necessity and utility of the training became obvious during the course of the workshop. The increased and enhanced skill and knowledge levels demonstrated in the latter part of the workshop were ample indication of the degree to which the participants benefited from the experience.

4. The residential and off-site nature of the workshop was absolutely necessary. Even the most initially reluctant participants agreed later that being away from office distractions had contributed significantly to their learning capabilities.

5. The pre-workshop data gathering and design time was critical to the success of the workshop. Most useful were the briefings and the face-to-face interviews. The telephone interviews were markedly less satisfactory, but were still far better than no contact at all. The significant difference in attitude and commitment in the early days, between those who had been interviewed and those that had not, argues strongly for the importance of involving all participants at almost any cost.

6. The tremendous cooperation and administrative support from WASH and AID was vital to the success of the pre-work period. Since time was very short for the pre-work and design, this WASH and AID support enabled the trainers to get on with the business at hand expeditiously and with a minimum of disruptions.

7. The issue of time and timing was a problem prior to the workshop. Due to scheduling problems, the participants had relatively little notice of the workshop in advance. A preliminary mailing was sent, but it did not explain sufficiently the nature of the workshop.

8. The group of participants as a whole had quite limited knowledge and experience in the applied social/behavioral sciences. They tended to be unfamiliar with non-traditional learning and training methods. As a result, their ability to link concepts or to transfer/expand implications of the applied experiences in these new ways was hampered.

Some ideas of how this lack of experience could be better dealt with are as follows;

- Mix more applied and skill development materials with the conceptual/cognitive work earlier in the workshop.
- Do a micro-training or some similar demonstration activity very early in the workshop to provide a base line of current skills and knowledge on which the participant can then build in specific ways.
- Address actual training activities more immediately and directly, rather than having them emerge from the larger context of learning and behavioral theory and practice.

### 5.3 Trainer Recommendations

Basically, the trainers were pleased with all aspects of the workshop. With the exception of the issues noted above, the workshop went very well. Some final thoughts on future activities of this kind lead to the following recommendations:

1. In technical programs such as this, where the emphasis is on transfer of technology, the focus on training as a vehicle can be sharpened. Training is more than just a way to transfer technology. It is a discipline in and of itself, which needs to be learned and applied effectively in order to achieve the larger goal.

One way of thinking of the process in training trainers for the transfer of technology, is to recognize that what needs to happen is the "transfer of training methodology" to the trainees, so that they may then be effective trainers in their technical field. This focus creates an understanding by non-professional trainers that they are learning a discipline, different from their own profession, but which is important to know and be able to use to achieve the ends desired.

2. In future courses, or in follow-up training, it would be useful to include more work in materials development and in potential field applications of audio-visual materials. While not really possible in this workshop, because of the press of other more immediate needs, these two areas would be most useful for field trainers to have as additional skill areas.

3. The participants have already recommended it, and the trainers concur that a follow-up to this workshop in four to six months would be very useful. Such a follow-up training session would enable the participants to share what they were able to do with the learning from this workshop, what worked and what did not, and to strengthen those areas where field experience showed they needed more work. A follow-up would also allow for more advanced training techniques to be explored and practiced and could include some of the areas noted above that were not in the first workshop.

More importantly, a follow-up workshop would help reinforce the learning and the subsequent field experience, making the investment more valuable. In the second session, the participants would have a far greater sense of ownership and need, which would mean the opportunity for significant learnings and improvements in their abilities as field trainers.

In conclusion, this workshop was judged to be worthwhile by the participants for their field activities. In similar workshops in the future attempts will be made to incorporate these learnings and recommendations and to build on the experience. It is hoped that this report will be of use to other organizations planning training of trainer workshop.

APPENDIX A

List of Workshop Participants

Georgia Tech

Phil Potts  
Ben James  
Lewis Montgomery  
Alan Paskevich  
Terry Moy  
Carol Aton

WASH Staff

Paul Howard

International Science and Technology Institute (ISTI)

Howard Geller  
Robert Knight

WASH Consultant

David Goff

## APPENDIX B

### ORIGINAL WORKSHOP AGENDA

- SUNDAY
- Introduction
  - Participant Expectations
  - Goals and Objectives of the Workshop
- MONDAY
- Successes and Problems in the Field
  - Purposes of the Hand Pump Project
  - Training in Transfer of Hand Pump Technology
  - Identification of Skill Needs in Training/  
Consultation
- TUESDAY
- The Trainer as Planner and Consultant
  - Communication Skills for Trainers
  - Trainee Motivation and Incentives for Learning
  - Cross-cultural Issues
- WEDNESDAY
- Design Skills
  - Review of Workshop as Example of Design Principles
  - Micro-Training (Participant-Designed Segments of  
a Training Course)
  - Group Processes as a Training Issue
- THURSDAY
- Micro-Training
  - Clinics on Special Field Problems
- FRIDAY
- Application-Developing Field Training Packages  
for Current Projects
- SATURDAY
- Completion of Field Package Presentations
  - Summary of Workshop Learnings and Evaluation
  - Recommendations
- Possible Visitors: Ken Wolf (CDM) Fred Rosensweig (WASH)  
Vic Wehman (AID) Gene McJunkin (AID)  
John Austin (AID) Horst Otterstetter (PAHO)

BIOGRAPHIC DATA: JAMES A. CARNEY, Jr.  
ORGANIZATIONAL CONSULTANT

JAMES A. CARNEY, Jr., has been a Consultant in Organizational Behavior in private practice for the past 15 years. He has worked with numerous government, business and industrial clients, both domestic and international, designing and implementing organizational and community development and training activities.

In the international area, Mr. Carney has worked for 8 years with the Centre for Human Resource Development at the University of the West Indies in Jamaica. Working with Jamaican behavioral scientists, he has helped design and conduct training and development activities for ministries, industry and rural cooperative groups, such as the Ministry of Health, Air Jamaica, and the Agricultural Marketing Cooperative.

At the Organization of American States, Mr. Carney for 4<sup>7</sup> years has been the primary consultant in Organizational Development and Training, both for internal management practices and for developmental programs, specifically in Educational Technology and in training for Rural and Urban project teams.

Since 1970, Mr. Carney has worked in a variety of AID activities. He has been a consultant to several Offices on management and organizational development, and to four Missions, Brazil (Rio and Recife), Ecuador, the Philippines, and indirectly with Panama. The Mission activities have included work with both American and local staff, as well as mission working relations with the Embassies and host national ministries.

Mr. Carney has served as President of the International Association of Applied Social Scientists, the professional accreditation body in his field, and is accredited in Organizational Development, Community Development, and Laboratory Education. He is a member of National Training Laboratories (NTL), Institute for Applied Behavioral Science, for whom he has been dean and trainer for many of their programs. Mr. Carney also heads a consulting firm, Behavioral Management Systems Associates, with offices in Washington, D.C. and Los Angeles, and has been a Professorial Lecturer for SGPA at American University.

Prior to establishing his consultation practice, Mr. Carney was an FSO for six years. Following a tour in Germany, he helped set up and was on the staff of the Organizational and Management Development Office (ACORD), the State Department's first major effort in the application of the behavioral sciences to management. During that period, Mr. Carney was a staff consultant at the Embassies in London, Tokyo, Manila, Bogota, and Mexico City, as well as being an internal consultant to the Assistant Secretary for African Affairs.

Mr. Carney was educated at Lawrenceville, the Stowe School in England, and Yale. He lives now in McLean, Virginia with his wife and three children.

A list of Mr. Carney's clients is attached.

SUMMARY OF  
EXPERIENCE:

Consulting on training, planning and development for the Peace Corps in 15 African countries. Designing and leading workshops providing laboratory experiences for trainers in Africa and Nepal. Designing and leading workshops for Peace Corps Medical Officers utilizing an emergent design based on needs and resources assessments. Writing three trainers manuals. Training and evaluating 350 Peace Corps Volunteers in Sierra Leone, Nepal, the Philippines, Tonga, Colombia, and Nicaragua.

Leading communications workshops and consulting on organizational development. Administering three non-profit agencies providing mental health treatment, education, and rehabilitation services in San Francisco. Developing and delivering college student personnel services, including academic advising, counseling, housing and activities programming.

Designing and implementing follow-up studies and other social research.

EDUCATION:

My graduate studies were done at Ohio State University, where I had a Student Personnel Assistantship and majored in Counseling Psychology, and at California Western University, in San Diego, where I studied organizational development, sociology, and anthropology and was granted a Master of Arts in Human Behavior in 1968. I received a Bachelor of Arts degree in American Civilization from the University of California at Davis in 1961. I have done many workshops in management by objectives, communications, group processes, and grantwriting at Esalen, with National Training Laboratories, and at the Health Training Institute in Berkeley.

TRAVEL:

I have traveled as a tourist in 40 countries and have lived and worked in Colombia, Nicaragua, the Philippines, Nepal, Tonga in the South Pacific, and several countries in Africa.

LANGUAGES:

I speak Spanish, some Nepali, and some French

## APPENDIX D

### Handout Materials Used Indexed in Chronological Order of Use

- \*1. Experiential Training Methodology
  - \*2. The ARAGI Model
  - \*3. Hollow Square (a structural exercise) briefing sheets and keys.
  - \*4. Training Compared to Traditional Teaching
  - \*5. Training Styles Inventory and Interpretation Sheet
  - \*6. Training Styles Continuum
  - \*7. Consulting Styles Inventory and Interpretation Sheet
  - \*8. Consulting Styles Continuum
  - \*9. Stages of the Consulting Process
  - \*10. Motivation theories: McGregor's theory X and theory Y; Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs; Herzberg's Two-Factor model
  11. Leadership, Motivation, and Communication by John Paul Jones.
  12. Twelve Road Blocks to Communication
  13. Verbal communication techniques used in training and group meetings
  14. The Johari Window: an Interpretation
  15. Giving and Receiving Feedback by John Anderson
  - \*16. Feedback and the Helping Relationships
  - \*17. Useful Criteria for Receiving Feedback by Wilma Gormley and James McCaffrey
  - \*18. Task Analysis by Robert Mayer
  - \*19. Task Analysis form (for determining priorities)
  - \*20. Behavioral Objectives
  21. A Matrix for Managing Training
  - \*22. Leadership Functions in a Group
  23. Discussion Leadership Guidelines for Trainers
  24. Conducting the Training
- \* Materials used for actual workshop activities

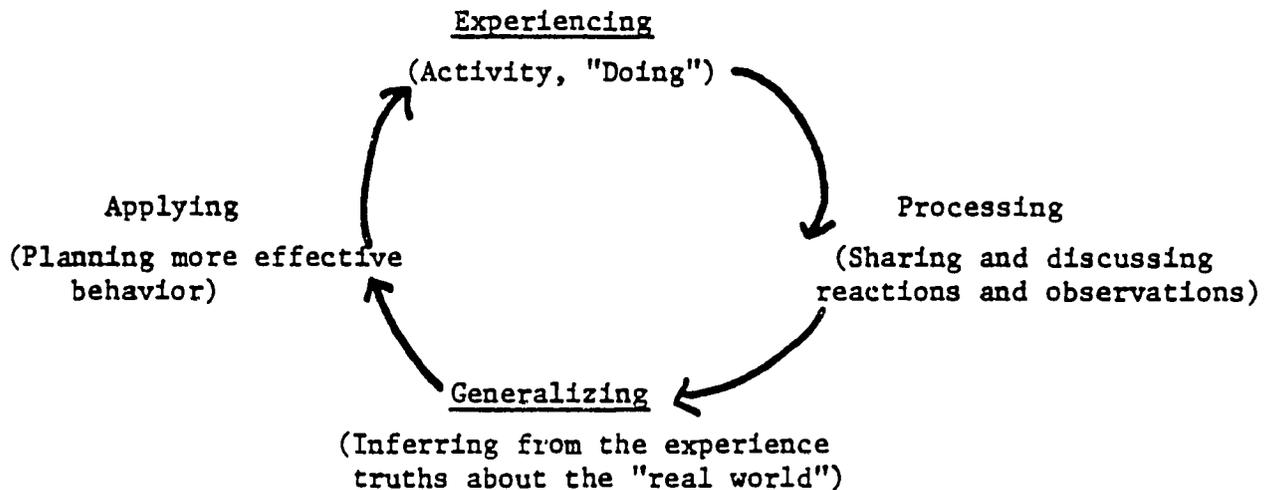
## EXPERIENTIAL TRAINING METHODOLOGY

The experiential training methodology presents an innovative approach toward training. To facilitate the acquisition of specific competencies during training and to encourage the application of these competencies by trainees, trainers use a flexible, learner-centered, experiential learning approach. This approach has its basis in the following assumptions:

- Because individuals are unique, particularly in regard to learning processes, a training curriculum must incorporate a variety of educational approaches in order to accommodate the variety of ways that people learn.
- Learning is not something that can be injected into people; rather it emerges from them as a result of their experiences.
- Learning is most effectively brought about when the learning goals and objectives have relevance and meaning for the trainees in terms of their own lives, what they already know, and their personal goals.
- Learning is an inherent product of living. Training is most effective when it facilitates learning by focusing on issues and problems that have relevance in peoples' lives.
- Learning is meaningless if it is confined to only the acquisition of facts and figures. The acquisition of information must be supplemented by an understanding of why this information is important and how this knowledge can be utilized productively. Effective training is a process which facilitates this.

Experiential methodology incorporates a flexible structure of classroom activities, simulation exercises, and actual experiences in "real life" situations. Trainees' acquisition of knowledge and skills related to their work is facilitated by the trainers. Their primary role is one of creating learning environments which are stimulating, relevant, and effective. This learner-centered, experiential approach toward training allows the individual trainees to manage and assume responsibility for their own learning.

Experiential learning is exactly what the name implies--learning from experience. Effective training strategies which incorporate experiential learning approaches, build upon this precept by providing learners with situations/settings/environments that stimulate the process of experiencing. Within the context of a training curriculum, learning experiences in these situations/settings/environments may take the form of classroom activities, simulations, or "real life" activities. Experiential learning occurs when a person engages in an activity, reviews this activity critically, abstracts some useful insight from the analysis, and applies the result in a practical situation. The experiential process follows the following theoretical circle:



### Experiencing

This is both initial activity and the data-producing phase of the experiential learning cycle. Experiencing is, in fact, an inherent element of living. In experiential learning, however, this activity of experiencing is linked to a process which includes interpreting the experience, drawing generalizations from it, and determining how to make use of the learning. The experiential learning process helps individuals to minimize subjective reactions, and draw out objective elements from their experiences.

There are a wide range of activities and exercises for providing trainees with experiences from which they may extract the data to process and make generalizations. Individual and group activities used to facilitate the "experiencing" step include:

- role plays
- case studies
- films and slide shows
- sharing descriptions of specific experiences
- placing trainees in actual situations requiring them to react and/or perform
- allowing trainees to train one another

During this phase it is not possible to control or to structure precisely the experiences which will occur. This is not a problem. Since experiential learning is a process comprised of several phases, the function of the "experiencing" phase is merely to establish the initial data upon which the overall process is based.

### Processing

This is a crucial step in the experiential learning cycle. During this phase, individuals share with others the specific experiences they had during the previous phase. This may happen on an individual basis, in small work groups, or in a full training group. Individuals share both their cognitive and affective reactions to the activities in which they have engaged; and during sharing, try to link these thoughts and feelings together in order to derive some meaning from the experience. Initially, the experience may or may not appear to be meaningful to the trainees, however this phase of the cycle allows them to think through the experience and conceptualize the reasons for coming to such conclusions. The trainer's role as facilitator is very important during this phase of experiential learning. He/she should be prepared to help the participants to think critically about the experience. In addition, it is the trainer's responsibility to help the participants verbalize their feelings and perceptions as well as draw attention to any recurrent themes or patterns which appear in the trainees' reactions to the experience. In short, the trainer's role involves helping the trainees conceptualize their experiences so that they have some concrete data upon which to draw conclusions and generalizations.

Processing establishes the context for the next phase of the experiential cycle which is "generalizing". Therefore, any experiences which trainees have during training, whether they are films, role plays, field experiences, etc., should be "processed". That is, trainees should be given time to reflect on such experiences in order to assess whether they help facilitate their learning.

Techniques used to facilitate the processing step include:

- group discussion of patterns and recurring topics and themes which arise as a result of individual experiences
- generating and analyzing data
- reporting
- interpersonal feedback
- interviewing
- trainees functioning as process observers

## Generalizing

This phase involves drawing inferences from the patterns and themes which have been identified. Trainees determine how these patterns which evolved during the structured learning experience of the training sessions relate to the unstructured experiences of everyday life. In other words, the participants in the experiential process have the opportunity to identify similarities between the experiences within the training session and experiences which they can cite from the "real world". They are given the chance to see the relationships between training, their own personal goals and the life they will have after training.

Activities used to facilitate the generalizing step include:

- summarizing learning into concise statements or generalizations
- group discussions of and agreement upon definitions, concepts, key terms and statements
- individual and group response to questions like: "How do you think what you have done and learned in this session relates to your back-home activities.

## Applying

If learning is defined as a relatively stable change in behavior, it is the "applying" step in the experiential learning process that facilitates learners to modify future behavior. Drawing upon insights and conclusions they have reached during the learning process, trainees incorporate their learning into their lives by developing plans for more effective behavior.

Techniques and activities used to facilitate the "applying" step include:

- individual and group response to the question: "How might you use this learning to be more effective within the specific geographic and cultural setting of your assignment?"
- reviewing lists generated during preceding training sessions and making revisions which reflect new insights, plans, and behavior
- modifying and/or developing plans of action, personal goals, and strategies for personal behavior modification

There are numerous advantages in using the experiential learning process. This approach permits active participation by all individuals involved. Consequently, it facilitates the acquisition of various competencies which are best learned by "hands on" experience.

## The Role of The Trainer in Experiential Methodology

Workshops are conducted by trainers whose role in the training process is defined as being facilitators. As such, their primary responsibility is to provide the trainees with an effective and appropriate learning environment; and to facilitate an active process by which trainees determine and address their individual learning needs. This may be accomplished by facilitators who:

- encourage the active involvement of all trainees
- promote an atmosphere of cooperation
- adapt training activities and exercises to the specific needs of a particular training group
- provide linkages to other components of training
- assist trainees in making linkages between each training session
- encourage trainees to constantly relate training experiences to "real life" situations
- direct trainees toward materials and human resources they may require
- make themselves available to serve as resources, but do not establish themselves as experts who dispense answers.

Adapted from Basic Health Training Manual, U.S. Peace Corps, 1980.

## The ARAGI Model

The ARAGI model is a five-stage outline of andragogy, or adult learning. In fact, to call this experiential learning process andragogy is deceiving, since adults and children learn in much the same way, by experiencing. It is the adults, though, who must put aside their cognitive intellectual frameworks of "teaching" and "education", in order to re-learn the basic experiential capability they had gradually put aside in childhood.

The five stages of ARAGI are as follows:

- Action - the actual doing or experiencing of something new
- Reflection - an immediate assessment of what the action was and what happened
- Aalysis - examining the results of the action or experience to determine what transpired which was new or different
- Generalization - Extrapolating from the analysis of the specific experience, to a larger scope of applied learning from the experience.
- Integration - Incorporating the four previous stages of experiential learning into one's bank of knowledge, so that it can be used in the future.

This model illustrates the steps which, when taken in order, allow an adult to learn experientially. Just as each ARAGI step builds on the previous one, so can a series of full cycle (five steps) ARAGI learnings build on each other to provide an extended learning process.

Experiential learning, as shown by the ARAGI model, assumes an initial base of experience. The pedagogical model, or the art and science of teaching children, aims to provide children, in a disciplined way, the experience base that they lack. Pedagogy is less effective with adults because of their accumulation of life experience. There is in effect a need to re-awaken the experiential learning capability of adults which becomes inactive during the years of pedagogical teaching.

## HOLLOW SQUARE OBSERVING TEAM BRIEFING SHEET

You will be observing a situation in which a planning team decides how to solve a problem and gives instructions to an operating team for implementation. The problem consists of assembling sixteen pieces of cardboard into the form of a hollow square. The planning team is supplied with the general layout of the pieces. This team is not to assemble the parts itself, but is to instruct the operating team on how to assemble the parts in a minimum amount of time. You will be silent observers throughout the process.

## SUGGESTIONS:

1. Each member of the observing team should watch the general pattern of communication but give special attention to one member of the planning team ( during the planning phase) and one member of the operating team ( during the assembling period)
2. During the planning period watch for the following behaviors:
  - a. Is there balanced participation among planning team members.
  - b. What kinds of behavior block or facilitate the process?
  - c. How does the planning team divide its time between planning and instructing ? ( How early does it invite the operating team to come in ?)
3. During the instructing period watch for the following behaviors:
  - a. Which member of the planning team gives the instructions? How was this decided ?
  - b. What strategy was employed in orienting the operating team to the task ?
  - c. What assumptions made by the planning team are not communicated to the operating team ?
  - d. How effective were the instructions ?
  - e. Did the operating team appear to feel free to ask questions of the planners ?
4. During the assembly period, watch for the following behaviors:
  - a. What evidence do the operating team members illustrate that instructions were clearly understood or misunderstood ?
  - b. What non-verbal reactions did planning team members exhibit as they watched their plans being implemented or distorted?

HOLLOW SQUARE  
OPERATING TEAM BRIEFING SHEET

1. You will have responsibility for carrying out a task for four people according to instructions given by your planning team. Your planning team may call you in for instructions at any time. If they do not summon you, you are to report to them anyway. Your task is scheduled to begin exactly twenty-five minutes from now. After that, no further instructions will be permitted.
2. You are to finish the assigned task as rapidly as possible.
3. During the period when you are waiting for a call from your planning team, it is suggested that you discuss and make notes on the following questions:
  - a. What feelings and concerns do you experience while waiting for instructions for the unknown task?
  - b. How can the four of you organize as a team?
4. The notes recorded on the above will be helpful during the discussion following the completion of the task.

HOLLOW SQUARE  
PLANNING TEAM BRIEFING SHEET

Each of you will be given a packet containing four cardboard pieces which, when properly assembled with the other pieces held by members of your team, will make a hollow square design.

Your task

During a period of twenty-five minutes you are to do the following:

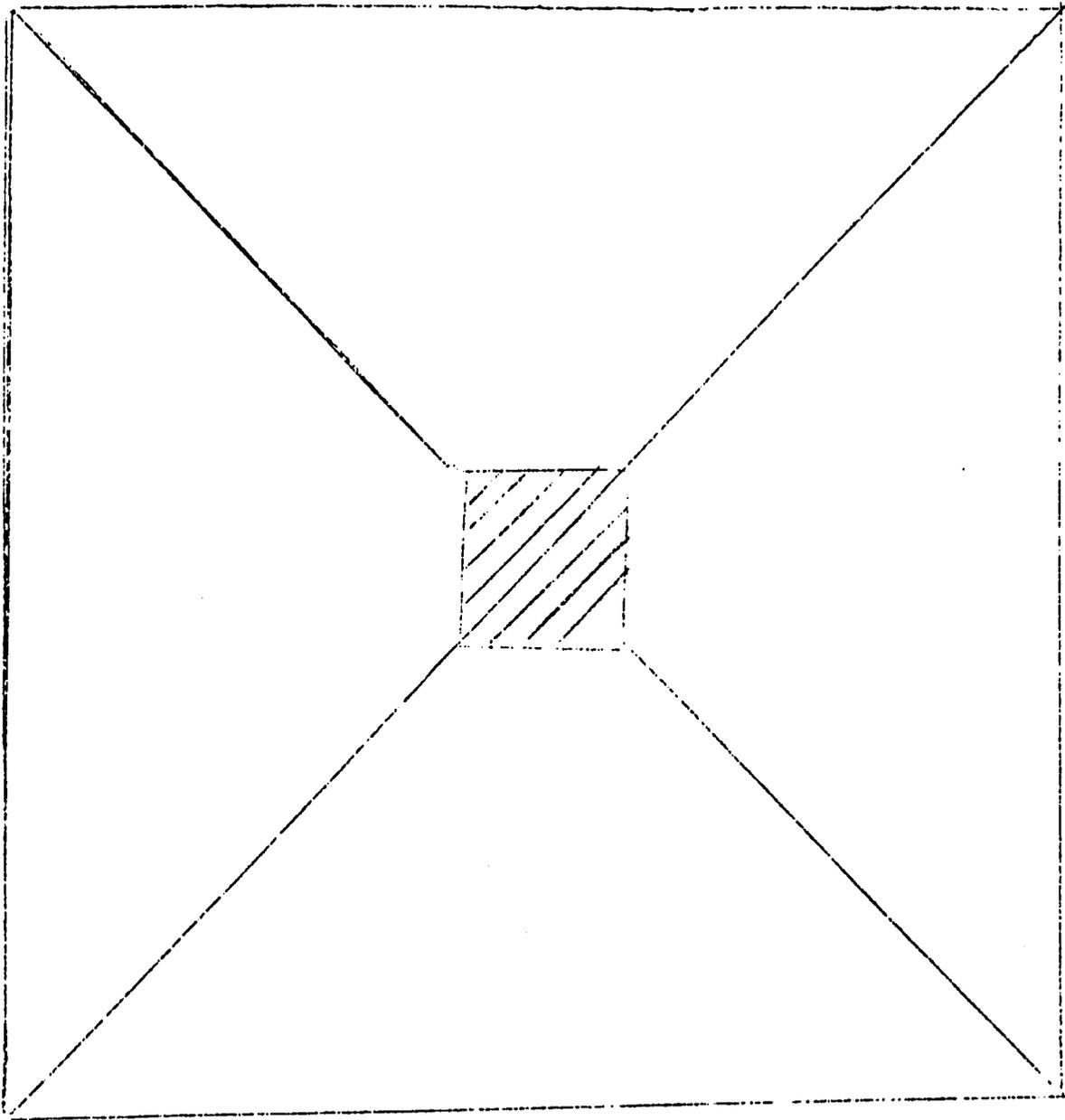
1. Plan how the sixteen pieces distributed among you should be assembled to make the design.
2. Instruct your OPERATING TEAM on how to implement your plan (you may begin instructing your OPERATING TEAM at any time during the planning period - but not later than five minutes before they are to begin the assembling process.)

General Rules

1. You must keep all pieces you have in front of you at all times.
2. You may not touch or trade pieces with other members of your team during the planning or instructing phase.
3. You may not show the KEY at any time.
4. You may not assemble the entire square at any time (this is to be left to your operating team.)
5. You are not to mark on any of the pieces.
6. Members of your operating team must also observe the above rules.
7. When time is called for your team to begin assembling the pieces you may give no further instructions, but you are to observe the operation.

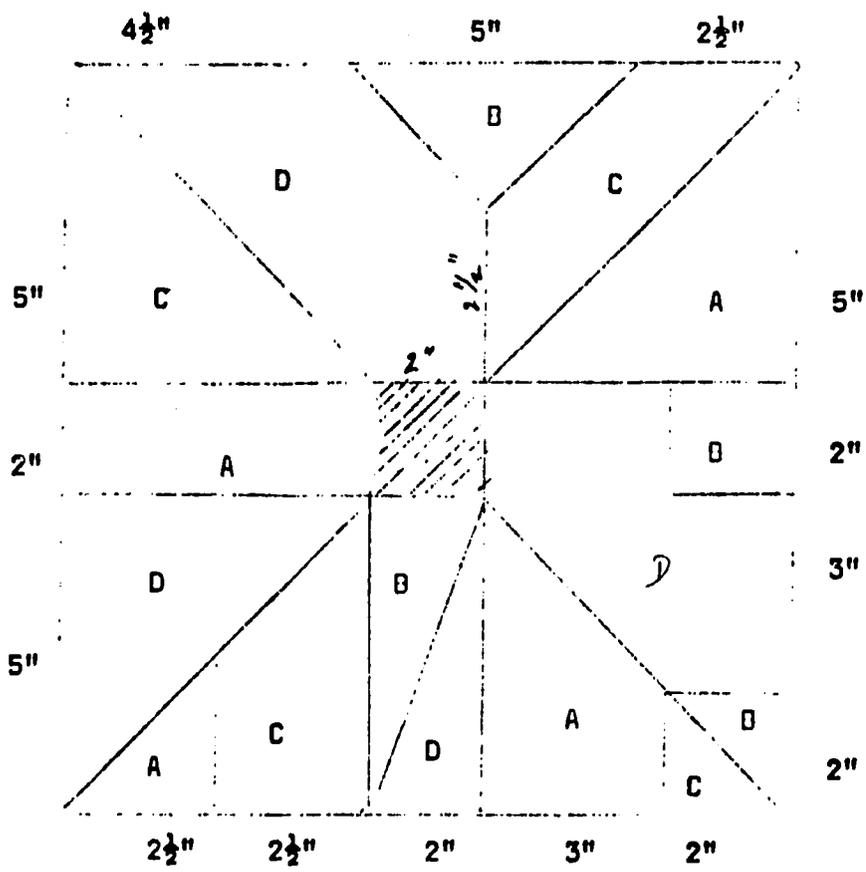
HOLLOW SQUARE PATTERN

IAW/4/73.



HOLLOW SQUARE KEY

IAW/4/73



## TRAINING STYLE INVENTORY

In order to determine your preferences in setting the climate for a training event, think of how you feel a training event should be....a training event that would be a positive learning experience for you as a participant...one that would be comfortable for you as a trainer to lead. Read each statement and decide if it applies to this experience. If so, place a check mark next to the number in the space provided. If the statement does not describe your training event, leave it blank. After you have completed all the statements, go back and circle the ten (10) statements which for you are the most significant.

- 1. The trainer would present the subject material in the workshop.
- 2. The trainer would participate in the learning exercises with the workshop participants.
- 3. The trainer would design all the activities for the workshop.
- 4. The participants would often critique each other's work with little or no direction from the trainer.
- 5. The participants and the trainer would share responsibility for the subject material.
- 6. Participants would be exploring their curiosity and working to satisfy themselves with little trainer direction.
- 7. The trainer's principal role would be to encourage participants to continue working together, exploring alternatives and moving toward their own goals.
- 8. The trainer would be comfortable in telling the participants of the well-detailed plan and organization of the workshop.
- 9. The participants would be encouraged to develop ways to accomplish their own goals, even if it meant changing somewhat the workshop plan.
- 10. The trainer would make the decisions on what materials to be used in the course.
- 11. The trainer would be very accepting of the participants' ideas and thoughts, even if he/she did not agree, or knew them to be wrong.
- 12. Participants would be expected to share responsibility with the trainer to adapt the workshop to meet their needs.
- 13. The trainer is likely not to know as much about the subject matter as the participants.
- 14. The trainer would allow the participants to make most of the decisions about whether the workshop was successful or not.
- 15. The trainer allows the participants' comments and needs expressed during the workshop to influence much of the design.

- \_\_\_\_\_ 16. Participants would be expected to evaluate their own progress through the course.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 17. The trainer would allow the participants to determine how much time should be spent on each topic.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 18. Participants would spend a good deal of time learning from the trainer's well-executed lectures and exercises.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 19. Participants would be expected to challenge the trainer's ideas.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 20. The participants would be told precisely what to expect from the workshop.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 21. The trainer would not need to remain in the room while small group discussion is taking place.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 22. The participants' discussions would always be tightly controlled so that time could be used wisely.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 23. The trainer would almost never make substantive inputs. He/she would not be expected to be knowledgeable about the subject.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 24. The trainer would assume full responsibility for the learning activities.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 25. Participants would be asked to help design the workshop.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 26. The participants would rely on the knowledge of the trainer for many of the substantive answers they are seeking.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 27. The trainer would decide how successful the course was.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 28. The participants would define the subjects and issues that should be covered in the workshop; they would be responsible for looking for answers. The trainer would only assist in helping this to happen.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 29. The participant with his or her boss and the training staff, would decide if the participant would find the course beneficial. Once this has happened, the participant would be expected to attend.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 30. The participant should make the decision on whether or not the course would be beneficial, and should be free to leave during the course if he/she felt it was not helpful.

Directions: Check to see that you have circled 10 items on the inventory. Count the number of checks that you circled that fall in column A, and write the number at the bottom. Repeat for columns B and C.

	A	B	C
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	A	B	C
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Totals:	A. _____	B. _____	C. _____

TRAINING STYLE INVENTORY  
INTERPRETATION SHEET

COLUMN	LEARNER STYLE	LEARNER NEEDS	TRAINER ROLE	TRAINER BEHAVIORS
A	DEPENDENT (may occur in introductory courses, new work situations, languages, courses where learner has little or no information upon entering course)	structure direction external reinforcement encouragement esteem from authority	director expert authority	lecturing demonstrating assigning checking encouraging testing reinforcing transmitting content grading designing materials
B	COLLABORATIVE (may occur where learner has come knowledge, information, ideas and would like to share them or try them out).	interaction practice probe myself and other observation participation peer challenge peer esteem experimentation	collaborator co-learner environment setter	interacting questioning providing resources modelling providing feedback coordinating evaluating managing process observing grading
C	INDEPENDENT (may occur when learner has much more knowledge or skill upon entering the course and wants to continue to search on own, or has had successful experience working through new situation alone; may feel trainer cannot offer as much as he/she'd like)	internal awareness experimentation time nonjudgemental support	facilitator	allowing providing requested feedback providing resources consulting listening negotiating evaluating delegating

## Training Compared to Traditional Teaching

### Andragogy

Experiential

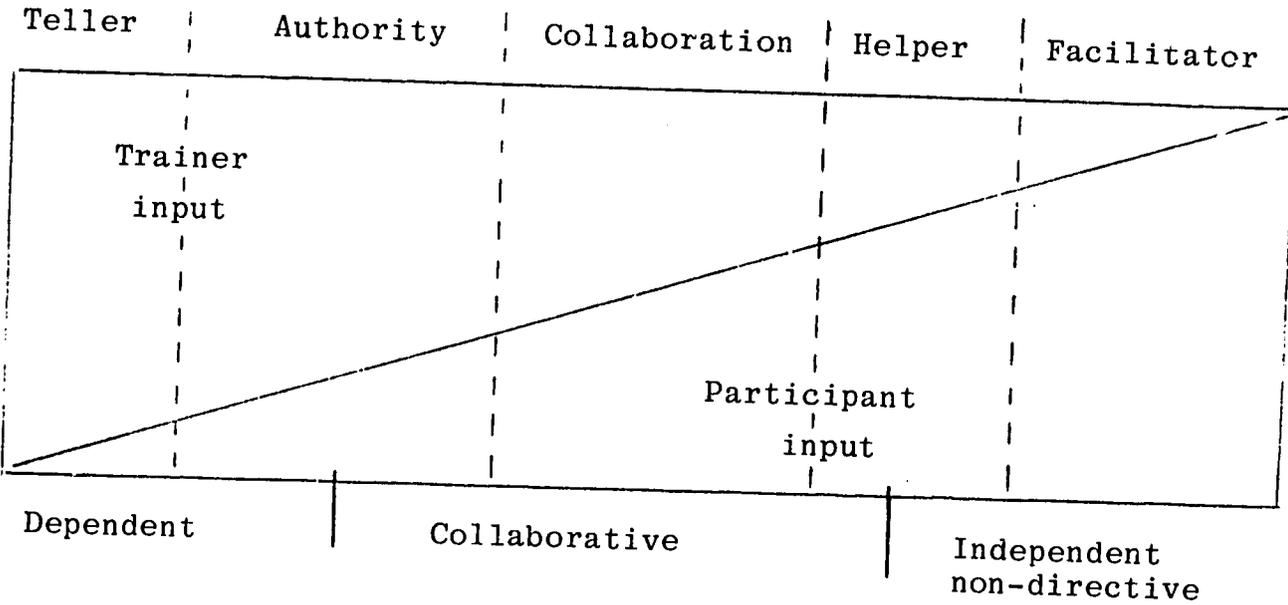
Action  
Reflection  
Analysis  
Generalization  
Integration/Implementation

### Pedagogy

Teaching

Generalization  
Analysis  
Reflection  
Integration  
Action

Training Styles Continuum



## CONSULTING STYLE INVENTORY

In order to determine your preferences in setting the climate for the consultation process, think of how you feel a consultant activity should be... Read each statement and decide if it applies to your approach. If so, place a check mark next to the number in the space provided. If the statement does not describe your approach to consultation, leave it blank. After you have completed all the statements, go back and circle the ten (10) statements which for you are the most significant.

- 1. The Consultant would determine the subject material for the consultation.
- 2. The Consultant would participate in problem solving discussions with the client.
- 3. The Consultant would plan all the activities for the intervention.
- 4. The clients would often respond to each other's recommendations with little or no direction from the Consultant.
- 5. The client and the Consultant would share responsibility for the consultation activity.
- 6. The client would be exploring their problems and working to resolve them with little consultant direction.
- 7. The Consultant's principal role would be to encourage the client to continue working collaboratively, exploring alternatives and moving toward their own goals.
- 8. The Consultant would be expected to inform the client of the well-detailed plan and organization of the consulting process.
- 9. The client would be encouraged to develop ways to accomplish their own goals, even if it meant significantly changing the consulting plan.
- 10. The Consultant would make the decisions on how the consulting process would be implemented.
- 11. The Consultant would be very accepting of the clients' ideas and thoughts, even if he/she did not fully agree.
- 12. The client would be expected to share responsibility with the Consultant to make certain consulting activities met the goals.
- 13. The Consultant is likely not to know as much about the subject matter as the client.
- 14. The Consultant would allow the client to make independent decisions about how well the consultation process was proceeding.

- \_\_\_\_\_ 15. The Consultant allows the clients' comments and needs expressed during the interventions to influence somewhat the ongoing process.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 16. The client should make the decision on whether or not the consultation would be beneficial, and should be free to alter the approach during the consultation, if he/she felt it was not helpful.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 17. The Consultant would allow the client to determine how much effort should be spent on each problem area.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 18. Clients would spend a good deal of time learning from the consultant's expert inputs and interventions.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 19. Clients would be expected to challenge consultant's ideas.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 20. The client would be told precisely what to expect from the consultation.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 21. The Consultant would only be periodically present with the client while they worked on follow-up to consulting activities.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 22. The client's discussions would always be tightly controlled so that the outcomes would be predictable.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 23. The Consultant would almost never make substantive inputs. He/she would not be expected to be knowledgeable about technical substance.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 24. The Consultant would assume full responsibility for the consulting activities.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 25. Clients would be asked to help design the consulting interventions.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 26. The client would rely on the knowledge of the consultant for many of the substantive answers they are seeking.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 27. The Consultant would decide how successful the consultation was.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 28. The client would define the subjects and issues that should be covered in the intervention; they would be responsible for looking for answers. The consultant would only assist in helping this to happen.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 29. The client with his or her boss would decide if the client would find the consultation beneficial. Once this has happened, the clients would be expected to participate.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 30. Clients would be expected to evaluate their own progress.

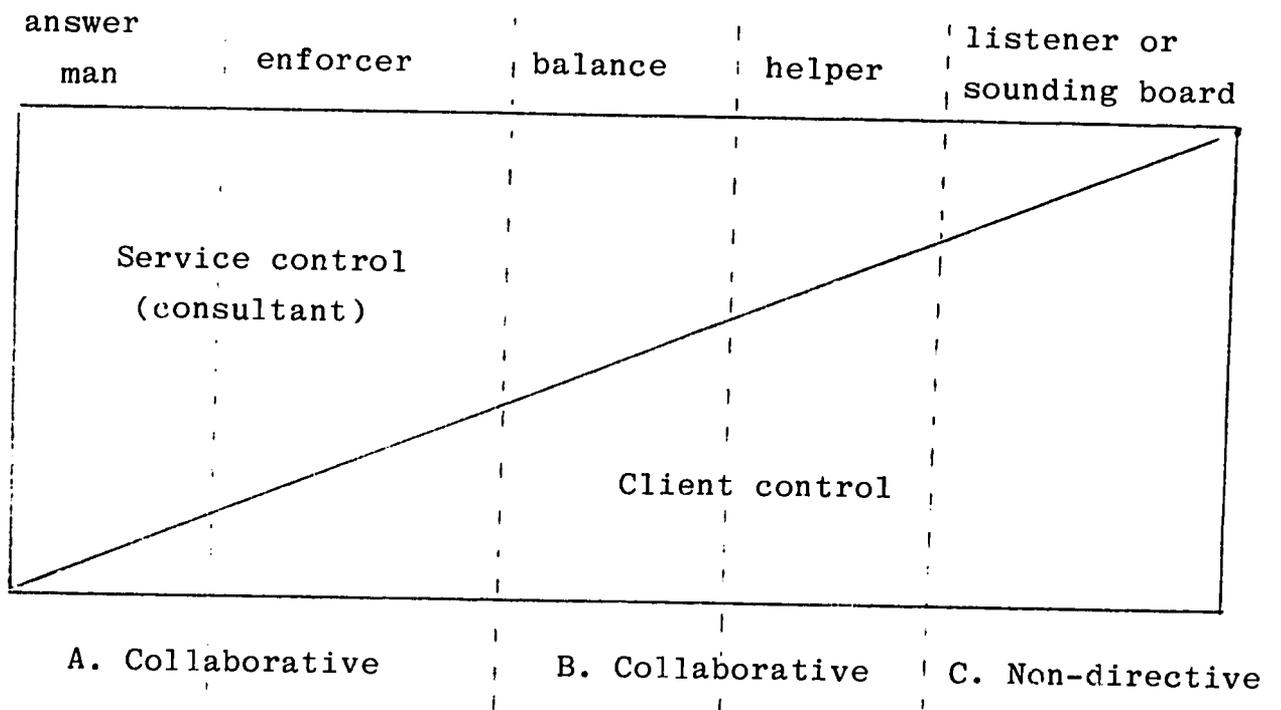
CONSULTING STYLE INVENTORY  
INTERPRETATION SHEET

COLUMN	CONSULTING STYLE	CLIENTS' NEEDS	CONSULTANT ROLE	CONSULTANT BEHAVIORS	CLIENT BEHAVIORS
A	CONTROLLING	Structure Direction External reinforcement  Encouragement Esteem from authority	Director Expert Authority	Sets goals Demonstrating Delegation Giving answers Doing some of the work Encouraging Revising Transmitting content Directing Evaluating Presenting Plans Designing materials	Accepts answers Dependent on consultant Questions expertise of consultant Resistance Cautious Learning
B	COLLABORATIVE	Interaction Find answers Probe myself and others Observation  Participation Peer Challenge Peer Esteem Experimentation	Collaborator Environment setter Catalyst Works with client solutions	Helps set goals Interacting Questioning  Providing resources Modeling Providing feedback Coordinating Evaluating Jointly Process management	Goal setting Questing Interacting Evaluation Uses/Finds resources Exploration Uses feedback Taking risks Makes decisions Growing Using Consultant to do all the above.
C	NON-DIRECTIVE	Internal awareness Experimentation Time Nonjudgmental support  Freedom	Facilitator	Allowing Providing requested feedback Listening Negotiating  Questioning Process observing	Sets goals Self-dependent Finding own solutions Little/no reliance on Consultant Makes Decisions Evaluation

**DIRECTIONS:** Check to see that you have circled 10 items on the inventory. Count the number of checks that you circled that fall in column A, and write the number at the bottom. Repeat for columns B and C.

	<u>A</u>	<u>B</u>	<u>C</u>
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<b>TOTALS</b>	<b>A.</b> _____	<b>B.</b> _____	<b>C.</b> _____

### Consulting Styles Continuum



## Stages of the Consulting Process

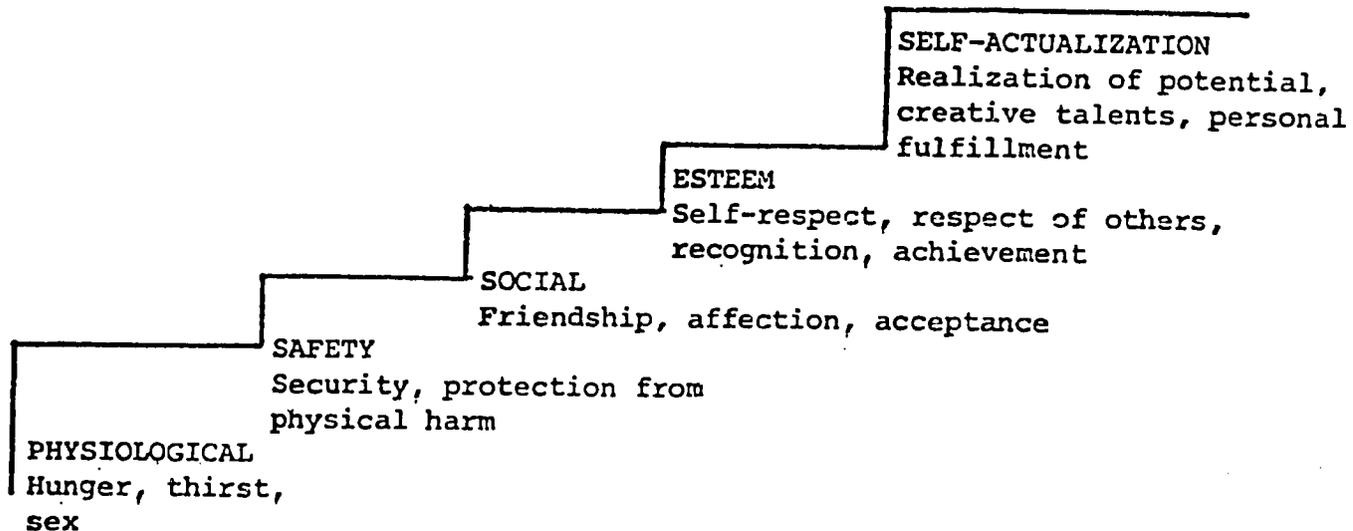
- Contracting - Preliminary contact - estimated task  
Formal agreement
- Entry - Interface with client, establish contacts,  
role clarify, redefinition of task and  
expectations
- Data gathering - Use contacts to establish needs, needs  
assessment, expectations.
- Data analysis - Analysis and return to client  
and feedback Diagnosis
- Joint problem-solving - Client reaction and commitment
- Action planning - Planning and design
- Implementation - Delivery of product, service, training
- Evaluation - Client, report, periodic assessment
- Follow up - Plans and client commitment  
Agreement

MASLOW: Hierarchy of Needs Model

According to Dr. A. H. Maslow, a person's wants are always increasing and changing. Once an individual's basic (primary) needs have been satisfied, other (secondary) needs take their place. To satisfy these needs, people expend energy. However, once a need has been somewhat satisfied, it no longer acts as a motivating force. Individuals then begin to invest their energy in the next higher level need.

Maslow's theory of motivation stresses that people are motivated to satisfy many needs, some of which are more pressing than others. If a number of needs are unsatisfied at any given time, the individual will move to satisfy the most pressing one(s) first.

Maslow identified five levels in his hierarchy of needs.



The physiological needs are the most pressing. Once our physiological needs are largely satisfied, the next level of needs in the hierarchy begins to emerge. These are the safety needs, among which is the avoidance of physical harm, illness, economic disaster, and so forth. In a similar manner, satisfaction of the safety needs gives rise to the emergence of the social needs, then the esteem needs, until the satisfaction of all the above leads the individual to be primarily concerned with the highest level needs, those of self-actualization.

Maslow believes that all levels of needs probably exist to some degree for the individual most of the time. Rarely, if ever, is any one need completely satisfied, at least for very long. Our hunger, as a simple example, may be fairly well satisfied after eating breakfast, only to emerge again before lunch.

It is also important to recognize that much behavior simultaneously satisfies several different needs, rather than just one. Participation at a luncheon with both supervisor and peers, for example, may simultaneously satisfy a manager's hunger needs, as well as the need to belong and be accepted by the workgroup.

Because of personality differences, there are certain exceptions to the relative degrees of strength indicated by Maslow for each of the various levels of needs. That is, the physiological needs are generally, though not always, stronger than the safety needs. Among the more extreme of such exceptions is the behavior of those individuals who are willing to sacrifice all other needs for the sake of an ideal or a religious, political, or social value.

Viewing such individual differences, it is of considerable importance in managing others to keep in mind a keystone of Maslow's theory of motivation - if a need is largely satisfied at any given point in time, it ceases to serve as an important motivator until re-emerging again when unsatisfied. Organizations may be in a position to provide opportunities for the satisfaction of all five classes of employee needs, although the satisfaction of some is often difficult in work situations.

### HERZBERG: Two Factor Model

Dr. Frederick Herzberg developed a new conception of motivation, often referred to as the two factor model. The basic assumptions of this two factor theory are as follows;

- The factors contributing to job satisfaction are separate and distinct from those that lead to job dissatisfaction. That is: (1) the presence of certain job factors contributes to job satisfaction, while their absence is perceived as a "neutral" condition (not dissatisfaction); and conversely, (2) the presence of certain other job factors leads to dissatisfaction; while their absence leads to a neutrally perceived condition, but not to satisfaction.
- Among those variables considered as associated with satisfaction ("motivators") are primarily ones intrinsic to the individual's job - e.g. achievement, recognition, and opportunity for growth and self-actualization.
- Conversely, the variables which are associated with dissatisfaction ("hygienes") are primarily ones extrinsic to a person's job, such as company policy, salary, and working conditions.

The two factor theory postulates that the "motivators" are effective in creating motivation of individuals toward better performance; but the "hygienic" variables are not. For example, greater opportunities for self-actualization would serve as an effective motivator while improving poor working conditions (a "hygenic" variable) would not.

To summarize what has been stated above, "hygienes" include such things as physical working conditions, salary, company policy and administrative practices, fringe benefits, job security, and other factors that meet an individual's security needs. "Motivators" are the things that "turn on" an employee - challenging work, a sense of achievement, participation and personal growth, recognition, and other factors that meet an individual's social and esteem needs.

#### HYGIENES

- Pay
- Supervision
- Working Conditions
- Policy and Practices
- Fringe Benefits

#### MOTIVATORS

- Sense of Achievement
- Interesting Work
- Challenge
- Personal Growth
- Recognition

To put this another way, Herzberg feels that pay, a pleasant working environment, and adequate supervision might be regarded as "hygiene" factors. Brushing one's teeth and bathing with soap removes factors that would prevent good health. Similarly, adequate pay and working conditions remove some possible causes of dissatisfaction and poor productivity. But they do not provide positive incentives to produce. The real "motivators" are such things as a sense of achievement, interesting work, and personal growth and recognition...

However, it must be kept in mind that "hygienes" are essential in maintaining a normal state of corporate health with regard to employee relations. When one or more of these "hygiene" factors deteriorate to a point considered unacceptable by the employees, there is job dissatisfaction.

## McGREGOR: THEORY X AND THEORY Y

In much of his writing, Douglas McGregor expressed concern over the lack of opportunities for higher level need satisfaction in many jobs in business and industry today. In fact, McGregor concluded that many of the individual's higher level needs are thwarted in organizations. He contended that management traditionally has tended to direct and closely control the behavior of its employees because of false assumptions about human behavior. McGregor has stressed the point that the assumptions we have about people affect our behavior toward them. According to McGregor, there are two different types of assumptions we can make about employees which will affect how we behave toward them in an on-the-job situation. These two different sets of assumptions are called Theory X and Theory Y.

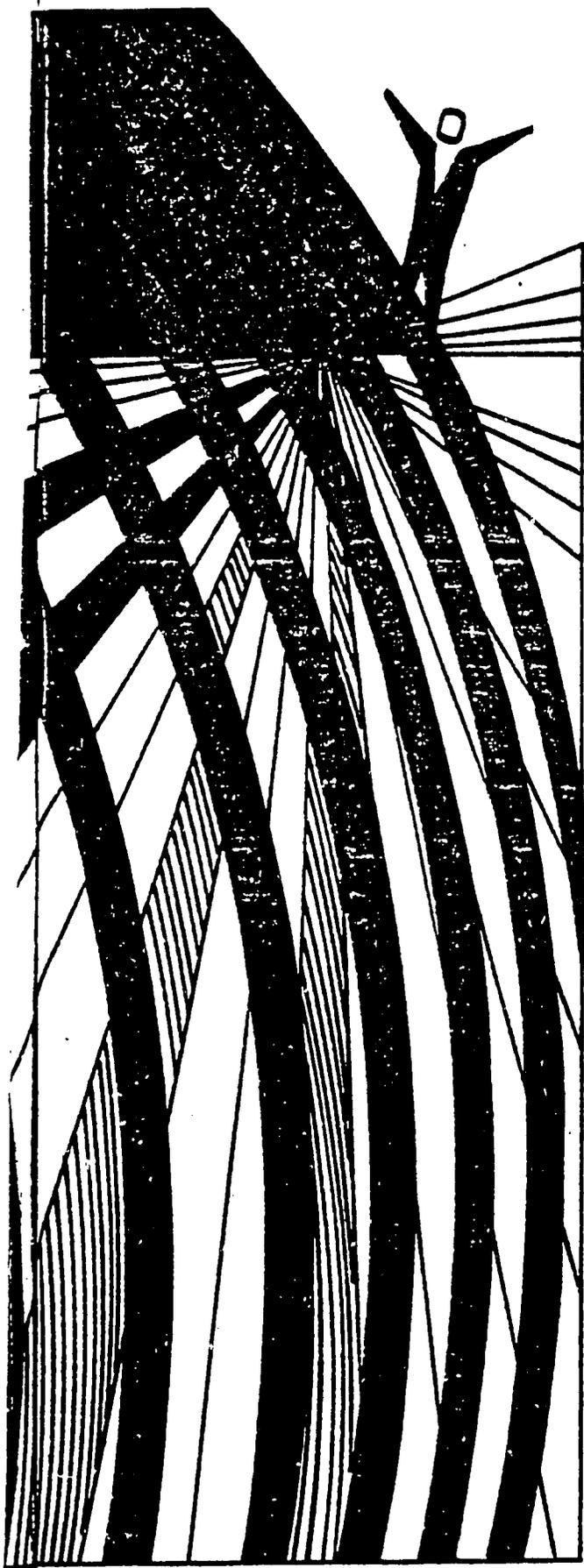
### Theory X Assumptions

1. The average human being has an inherent dislike of work and will avoid it if they can.
2. Because of this human characteristic of dislike of work, most people must be coerced, controlled, directed, threatened with punishment to get them to put forth adequate effort toward the achievement of organizational objectives.
3. The average human being prefers to be directed, wishes to avoid responsibility, has relatively little ambition, wants security above all.

### Theory Y Assumptions

1. People do not inherently dislike work.
2. Because work can be as natural as play, people do not have to be closely supervised.
3. People will assume responsibility and willingly direct their efforts toward the objectives of the organization provided that, in doing so, they are able to satisfy their higher level needs.

Theory Y holds that effort invested in work is as natural as effort spent in play or recreation. It is possible, and in fact necessary, to provide sufficient scope to a job (latitude, responsibility, freedom, etc.) so that employees can integrate their personal goals with the goals of the organization. Theory Y originates in the belief that average employees use only a small fraction of their intellectual and creative ability at work, and that by creating the right organizational climate at work, employees will unlock their hidden potential and become both happier and more productive.



# LEADERSHIP, MOTIVATION and COMMUNICATION

**John Paul Jones**

As I review my experience in working on problems of organizational effectiveness, management development, communications, leadership, and motivation over the past 30 years, it seems we are in a situation analagous to that of the Persian poet, Omar Khayam, when he attempted to get at the basis of religion. There is a marvelous quatrain in the *Rubaiyat* in which Omar comments on theological arguments, to wit:

"Myself, when young, did eagerly  
frequent  
Doctor and saint, and heard great  
argument  
About it and abo' , but evermore  
Came out by the same door wherein  
I went."

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*Mr. Jones is Senior Vice President, Personnel and Organization Development, Federated Department Stores, Inc., Cincinnati, Ohio. This article is based on a talk given at the AMA Conferences on Education and Training, August 1970.*

In many ways, we have been going in and out of the same door on leadership, motivation and communications for some time.

We have acknowledged intellectually the research done in these areas by men such as Abraham Maslow, Douglas McGregor, Chris Argyris, Frederic Herzberg, Saul Gellerman and Rensis Likert. Most of us, however, have not accepted the basic research in motivation. If we did, we would understand what we need to do in terms of leadership and communication in an organization. Unless we understand motivation, we are not likely to be tremendously effective with respect to leadership and communications.

To say that the job of a leader is to motivate his followers is about as ridiculous as to say the job of the Chairman of the Board of General Motors is to turn the sun on every morning so that we may have light by which to work. Man is born motivated. We are motivated by our needs. When a need is satisfied it is no longer a motivator of behavior.

We are born motivated. We are born with needs. Needs are what motivate our behavior. As long as we cling to the myth and the magic implicit in the notion that the leader's job is to motivate the followers, that the boss' job is to motivate subordinates, that the job of development of people in our organizations is a job of motivating them, we are wasting our time.

#### Some Examples

Let's see if we can go in the door one more time and come out by a different door than the one in which we went. I am an infant abandoned in a cradle. I am a young man alone at sea in a life raft with neither food nor water. I am an old man abandoned in my dingy, single room, too feeble to go for food. What are the motivational forces at work here? In each case, my needs are physiological, and, as the hours pass, that motivation, that need for food, overwhelms every other motivation in my life. If I am the

infant, my need for food overwhelms every other motivational force. If I am the young man in the life raft, my need for food overwhelms every other need in my life. If I am the old man in the dingy room, my need for food overwhelms every other motivational force in my life.

And you, Mr. Manager, can come in to my crib as a baby and chuck me under the chin and you are completely impotent as far as motivating my behavior. And you, Mr. Manager, can send me a short-wave message in my life raft, exhorting me to buy savings bonds and you are completely impotent as far as my motivation is concerned. And you, Mr. Manager, can stuff a news bulletin through the mailbox of my small, dingy room and tell me welfare is bad for me and you are completely impotent as far as my motivation is concerned.

"Ah," you say, "that's unfair. You've taken three dramatic and basic situations of humans struggling to survive. That's not the same thing." I agree. I've taken the basic physiological need which underlies man's striving to live and over-simplified my applications of the principle, but the principle is a constant and does not vary except in complexity as we move up the hierarchy of human needs.

#### Closer to Home

I am a manager in your organization. One of my needs is to be successful. From your point of view, I am not successful, so one of your needs is to have me become successful. At this point, our motivational forces would appear to be congruent with each other, but it is exactly at this point where we begin to confuse our motivations with the other man's. Let's suppose that you have done all the gentle things. Then you call me in and threaten me with discharge, demotion or whatever other punishment seems appropriate to you. *You* are motivated to threaten me. *You* are motivated to punish me. You have done nothing to meet my need and, as a matter of fact, what you rouse in me is a need for safety.

So my motivation becomes, then, to protect myself, which may often mean that I do less and less of the things you think I ought to do because I don't know what I have to do to protect myself from your threat. I am motivated to protect myself. You are motivated to threaten me, and at that point our motivational forces part company and go off in self-defeating directions.

#### Don't Misunderstand

I'm not going to suggest a rigidity of principle. Many of my needs and yours are met by titles, by salaries, by challenging assignments and by problems to solve. And since we do have a basic need to achieve, the organization does provide many of the responses to our own motivations. Sometimes safety needs are strong enough that threats are effective, but fundamentally the point that needs to be made is that we must not confuse our motivations with the other man's. As Maslow once said, "Be very cautious about that little voice inside your head which is telling you all the things that are right to do. That little voice is not God. It's you. It's *your* motivation speaking."

#### Another Step

We are in the midst of a knowledge revolution, but one which is concerned almost entirely with *things*. Let me give you a few observations from a very interesting speech made by Richard Salzman, Directing Editor of the Research Institute of America at Cal Tech in September, 1969:

- In 1968 over 30,000 journals were published in the technical and scientific fields alone. That number is said to be increasing at the rate of 1,000 per year.
- 2-million scientific and technical articles are being published each year, plus at least 100-thousand technical reports of one kind or another.
- About 50% of the scientific material now available has been published since 1950.
- 80% of all scientists the world has ever

known are alive today.

- Information specialists tell us that the sheer quantity of information is now doubling every ten years.
- About 25% of all human beings who have ever lived are now alive, and before long that figure will reach 50%.

He then goes on to say that our values and codes of behavior have not caught up with the explosion of knowledge. For example:

"We are told that life is sacred, and yet the last 30 years have been marked as the most bloody and violent in human history. We are told that to work and to save is the path to success and happiness, and yet we live at a time when, in an affluent economy, 80 percent of the people no longer put the old forms of economic need at the top of their priority list."

Mr. Salzman has a number of other interesting observations on the world of change. But the point that I think he illustrates is that with all our education in specific skills, in basic technology and the knowledge of things, we are woefully unlearned about each other and it seems to me that if people are the instruments of work, if humans are the initiators, the innovators, the inventors and the producers of progress, and the creators of wealth and economic growth, then the most urgent study for man is man.

For me, interpersonal competence, a "people-oriented" life style and wisdom in human affairs now ought to be the central objective of all that which goes under the name of management development for a business organization.

- When a manager says to me, "I've got organizational problems," he doesn't mean that the boxes on the chart don't work. He means that the people in his organization aren't working together productively.
- When an executive says to me, "Manufacturing and sales are always fighting," he obviously doesn't mean that the machinery is hurling itself on the order

(Continued on page 13)

# Leadership, Motivation and Communication—

continued from page 7

book. He means that the people in manufacturing and sales are not working together effectively.

- And when a man says, "The world is in a helluva shape," he doesn't mean that the planet has become oblong. He means, of course, that he is uneasy about the human condition.

## Not Motivated?

Let me return to an old theme. We have nothing to manage but human effort . . . our own and the efforts of others. A critical variable in the performance of a business organization is interpersonal competence . . . a knowledge of ourselves and each other . . . our differences, our strengths, our tendencies for interaction, and our need for interdependence.

By and large, when an organization complains that its people are not motivated, it is describing a set of characteristic symptoms:

- A high mistrust of differences,
- An inability to listen constructively,
- A tendency to act defensively,
- An increase in vengefulness;
- A sense of threat;
- A lowering of self-esteem;
- A sense of helplessness;
- A loss of individuality;
- A diminution of the feeling of some control over one's own destiny.

It is within a climate made up of these kinds of variables that most organizations attempt to deal with the problems of leadership, motivation, and communication without recognizing that it is these variables which must be dealt with before leadership and communications become effective.

When we talk of motivation, we are talking about a motivational climate. I *am* motivated. I was *born* with needs. You do not put them there. I *have* them. A motivational

climate enables me to work with you and with other people in an organization in which my needs are important and in which we find a congruency between my needs and the organization's. That's what motivation is all about.

## What Kind of Climate Is This?

- An acceptance of human differences;
- A willingness of learn to listen constructively;
- A willingness to learn to react non-defensively;
- A minimum of threat;
- A high concern for everyone's sense of self-esteem;
- A high concern for individuality and for individual growth;
- And an acceptance and positive action toward making people at least partially masters of their own destiny.

If you don't react favorably to my basic premise concerning a motivational organization, then what I am about to say about leadership won't make much sense either. But I'd like to talk about leadership from a motivational perspective, and give you a hypothesis to think about.

We need to be specific about leadership as it relates to a system of values. If we do not do this then, based only on an effectiveness measure, we must conclude that Stalin was just as acceptable a leader as Churchill. Obviously each was a leader and it would be hard to argue that Stalin was ineffective.

As we pursue this theme, an old truth becomes obvious: A principle job of the leader is to establish values for the organization. He must stand for something. I accept the fact that he must be technically competent and, as a matter of fact, everything I say here assumes that people are educated and trained in their roles in terms of the business

and technological side of the enterprise. But when it gets to human values and what makes the organization work, a principal job of the leader is to establish values.

**A Climate of Motivation**

If, then, our aim is a motivational organization, it follows that motivational values ought to be a prime concern of each leader at every organizational level. With this as my hypothesis, I can restate some observations I have made over the years on organizational values as 10 guidelines for the leader who wants to create a climate of motivation.

1. Diagnose and remove the roadblocks which frustrate the constructive intent of the people in your organization.
2. Avoid coercion and manipulation.
3. Pursue candor, openness, non-retaliation, high challenge and high reward.
4. Insist on the establishment of mutual trust, mutual support and the freedom to communicate at any and all levels.
5. Discourage harmony for the sake of harmony; encourage open confrontation and the diagnosis and resolution of conflict.
6. Be as insistent on interpersonal competence as you are on technical or business competence.
7. Protect the right of the individual to be an individual as long as he accords the same rights to others.
8. Insist on integrity and vigorously encourage idealism and social conscience.
9. Insist on involvement, participation and the necessity of organizational and self-renewal.
10. Behave in ways that make all of these things realities rather than platitudes.

I will close with a quote from the 1957 speech of Douglas McGregor entitled "The Human Side of Enterprise" which formed the basis for his subsequent book by the same title:

"We are in a position in the social sciences today like that of the physical sciences with respect to atomic energy in the 30's. We know that past conceptions of the nature of man are inadequate and in many ways incorrect. We are becoming quite certain that, under proper conditions, unimagined resources of creative human energy could become available within the organizational setting. We cannot tell industrial management how to apply this new knowledge in simple, economic ways. We know it will require years of exploration, much costly research, and a substantial amount of creative imagination on the part of management to discover how to apply this growing knowledge to the organization of human effort in industry."

What I have suggested is not a simple task. But if we are capable of developing atomic energy, the task of developing highly productive motivationally based human organizations is not beyond our capabilities.

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## TWELVE ROADBLOCKS TO COMMUNICATION

1. ORDERS "Don't do that anymore!"
2. THREATS: "If you do that anymore, I'm going to severely punish you."
3. PREACHING: "You ought to know better than that."
4. PERSUADING WITH LOGIC: "I read an article that said that stuff will cause you to lose your memory. You wouldn't want that to happen, would you?"
5. ADVICE: "Next time you're in that mood, just distract yourself with a good book."
6. CRITICISM: "You were really stupid to do that."
7. PRAISE: "Well, I think you're a nice person, anyway."
8. REASSURANCE: "That's too bad, but don't worry, one mistake doesn't mean that much."
9. DIAGNOSING: "The real problem is that your parents don't spend enough time with you."
10. CROSS-EXAMINING: "You know the rules. Why did you do it?"
11. CHANGING THE SUBJECT: "This happened to another kid here at school and he was really..."
12. SARCASM: "Of course you thought you would never get caught."

---

Any of the roadblocks used at a time when we should be listening may create defensiveness in the other person or further build dependence rather than maturity. Praise can have negative results when it replaces listening; praise can be and often is the first step in manipulation. Listening can build confidence that the person seeking help can work out his own problems. To actively listen, we must be willing and able to set aside our own needs and concentrate fully on what the other is saying so that our responses are communication rather than roadblocks.

Thomas H. Gordon, Parent Effectiveness Training, Peter H. Wyden,  
New York, 1970.

SOME VERBAL COMMUNICATION TECHNIQUES USED  
IN TRAINING AND GROUP MEETINGS

Verbal communication can be thought of in two broad areas:  
Asking questions and evidencing understanding.

ASKING QUESTIONS

Asking Questions -- Productive Approach. When possible,  
ask questions that:

Are open-ended

Describe processes or procedures

Extend the present level of knowledge of  
the learners

Require thoughtfulness

Focus on feelings, reactions, values, or  
norms

Are perceived by the learners as helpful

Asking Questions -- Non-productive Approach. When possible,  
avoid questions that:

Can be answered by a yes or no response

Require a single correct answer

Seem to indicate testing of the learners

Indicate the inadequacies of the learners

## Suggestions for asking questions:

Begin with general and move to specific

Probe by asking for more detail or more information

If a general or conceptual response is given move to the specific by asking for examples

If a specific response is given move to the general or conceptual by asking for principles

## EVIDENCING UNDERSTANDING

Learners tend to be more motivated to learn when they feel that the trainer understands them. Understanding the learner means understanding both what is being said and what is being felt.

Some suggested ways of indicating that the trainer understands what is being said are:

Paraphrase -- Using his or her own words, the trainer restates the comments or answers of the learners. The process of paraphrasing involves:

- Rephrase others' ideas in another way
- If the idea is general, rephrase by being more specific
- If the idea is specific, rephrase by being more general
- Rephrase using an opposite to clarify
- Ask for confirmation or correction

Summarizing -- The trainer integrates the essential issues and briefly restates them

Extending -- The trainer builds on the learner's responses and extends the comments either by making specific (giving examples) or by generalizing (offering principles or concepts)

Identifying -- The trainer relates personal thoughts, ideas, or experiences similar to those of the learners.

Some suggested ways of indicating that the trainer understands what is being said are:

Reflecting -- The trainer uses sensitivity to make a preliminary judgment of the feelings a learner might be having and then makes this known to the learner, i.e., "You look like you might be confused (concerned/pleased/excited/angry/etc.)."

Empathizing -- This is the process of putting yourself in the other person's shoes to better understand his or her feelings. It is similar to reflecting but relies less on the trainer's understanding of external clues and more on the trainer's ability to project himself or herself into the learner's situation. The trainer then relates these projected feelings.

Sharing -- This is the process in which the trainer shares his or her feelings. These can be past experiences which are similar to the experiences of the learners, i.e., "I messed that one up and felt like I was the only incompetent person in the class," or "In one group I had a different answer than anyone else and was reluctant to stand alone." The trainer can also share present feelings such as, "I'm a little concerned and nervous about standing up here as a trainer."

Support -- This is the process by which the trainer indicates a valuing of the learners as individuals and of the learners' efforts. It means verbally acknowledging the worth of the person regardless of the rightness or wrongness of any particular response. Comments like, "You worked hard on that," "That is a creative approach," "You had the right idea," "Keep going," etc. often indicate support.

Note: These suggestions work best when they reflect the honest, unique feelings and values of the trainer. They tend to be counter productive when used as gimmicks to consciously control the learners.

## THE JOHARI WINDOW: AN INTERPRETATION

### A Way of Better Understanding the Relationships Between People

The concept of the Johari Window seems to be one excellent way of graphically visualizing the relationship between individuals. It's simply a window with four quadrants. The four quadrants represent the whole person in relation to others.

QUADRANT 1 is behavior and motivation which is known to self and others. It shows the extent to which two or more persons can freely give and take, work together and enjoy experiences together. The larger this area, the greater is the person's contact with reality and the more available are his abilities and needs to himself and to his associates.

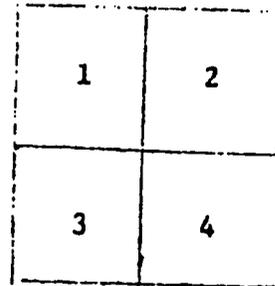


Fig. 1

QUADRANT 2, the blind area, represents behavior and motivation which is not known to self but which is readily apparent to others. The simplest illustration of this quadrant is a mannerism in speech or gesture of which the person himself is unaware but which is quite obvious to others. For example, a tendency to dominate may be perfectly obvious to everyone else but not in the least obvious to the man who is doing the dominating.

QUADRANT 3 is behavior and motivation which is open to self but kept away from the other people. This quadrant is sometimes referred to as the Hidden Agenda. For example, a man may want to get a particular assignment from his boss in order to make himself look good as a result of carrying out the assignment, but does not tell his boss why he wants the assignment nor does he go about trying to get the assignment in an obvious way.

QUADRANT 4 is the area of unknown activity where behavior and motivation are not known to the individual nor to others. We know this quadrant exists because both the individual and persons with whom he is associating discover from time to time new behavior or new motives which were really there all along. An individual may surprise himself with others, for example, by taking over the group's direction during a critical period, or another person may discover that he has great ability in bringing warring factions together.

FIG. 2 illustrates how a person looks when he is in a completely new group situation or when he first meets another person. Social convention provides a pattern for getting acquainted and it is considered bad form to act too friendly too soon or to reveal too much. This same constricted picture may be typical of some persons who have difficulty in relating to other persons.

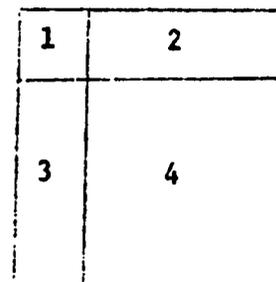


Fig. 2

From: Training Volunteer Leaders, A Handbook to Train Volunteers and Other Leaders of Program Groups.  
Research and Development Division, National Council of YMCA's. New York. 1974.

FIG. 3 The larger the first quadrant, the closer to self-realization is the individual in the sense that he is meeting his needs, utilizing his abilities and interests at the same time that he is making himself more available to others.

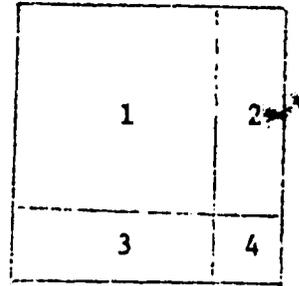


Fig. 3

Whether the relationship is between that of peer associates, superior and subordinate, or between divisions of the company or departments, the relationships which conform to Figure 3 result in greater understanding, cooperation and freedom of activity. It has also been demonstrated to result in more creativity, higher work output, as well as individual and organizational growth. These relationships, which follow the Figure 2 pattern are characterized by suspicion, distrust, tension, anxiety and backbiting, which result in lower work output and the thwarting of individual as well as organizational growth.

	(Known to Self)	(Not Known to Self)
Known To Others	<p>1</p> <p><u>MY PUBLIC SELF</u></p> <p>Things about me and my behavior known both to me and to others. I feel free and open about these things.</p>	<p>2</p> <p><u>MY UNAWARE SELF</u></p> <p>Things about me that others know but are unknown to me.</p>
Not Known To Others	<p>3</p> <p><u>PRIVATE SELF</u></p> <p>Things about me that I know but are unknown to others.</p>	<p>4</p> <p><u>POTENTIAL SELF</u></p> <p>Things about me that are unknown to me and to others.</p>

# *Giving and Receiving Feedback*

John Anderson



An effective organization, concerned with growth and development, gives attention to the development of sound problem-solving relationships among its members. Effective problem-solving recognizes the interdependent nature of the relationships among those involved in the problem. A sound work relationship is based on openness and candor which permit individuals to express their feelings toward one another freely and in this way eliminate barriers to solving the problem. A maturity in the relationship permits people to interact in a sound manner.—EDITOR'S NOTE.

This article discusses several considerations involved in telling another person how you feel about him—"how to do it" considerations that are apt to be important, if your objective is to help him become a more effective person, and also to arrive at a more effective working relationship between him and yourself.

## **Background**

One of the central purposes of experience in a Managerial Grid Seminar or in a sensitivity training lab is to help the participant become more clearly aware of the impact he has on others. That is, during an experience of this kind, the participant has an opportunity to talk with others, solve problems with others, and in general interact with others in ways that are characteristic for him. The image he projects—the impression that others have of his behavior—is communicated back to him. And this sort of exchange is usually considerably more open than what is common in everyday life. The intent is that this feedback be useful to the recipient—that he may see, for example, some discrepancies between the effect he wished to create, in fact thought he was creating, and what actually took place, with the hope that he will be able to use this information in making a more intelligent choice of behavior with which to deal with similar situations in the future.

Such feedback, for reasons of content, timing, and the way it is given, may not always turn out to be useful to the recipient. While a large majority of managers who participate in public sensitivity training labs or grid seminars return saying that over-all the experience was a very useful one for them personally, many have felt that "This is a kind of thing you surely couldn't do with people you work with all the time!" The fear is that if the members of a work team did attempt to enter into an experience of this kind together, either:

1. They would not dare to be open and candid with one another, and the result, therefore, would be a superficial and useless experience, or
2. They would dare to be open with one another, and the result would be one of disruption in team working relationships, escalation of bad feelings carried over from old grievances, etc.

Several companies, however, have now experimented with some sort of work team development along these lines. In Procter & Gamble, the design we have used has varied considerably, depending on the needs of the particular group. But in no instance have these two fears—organized slumber or total destruction—materialized. Each has turned out to be, in the judgment of the large majority of participants, a very useful and very worthwhile experience from the standpoint of building more effective working relationships on the job. We have found that people seem to be both con-

cerned enough for one another and trusting enough of one another that they are able to be *appropriately* open in exchanging feedback during a team discussion situation. Instances in which people have only hurt or confused one another in exchanges of this kind have been the result not so much of motivational problems as of problems of skill in giving feedback—that is, knowing *how* to do it well, and what kinds of pitfalls to watch out for.

#### Some Important Criteria

It is particularly important that the considerations which follow be given attention in teams that operate without the benefit of outside help—that is, where a trained, skilled, experienced, outside observer will not be available to get things back on track if they should begin to wander off in non-productive directions. I'm thinking of Managerial Grid, or other instrumented, trainerless team-building designs. No doubt the following considerations also have some application to the conduct of "performance appraisal" discussions as well as other informal exchanges that often take place between people in or out of the workplace.

*The most significant criterion that "useful feedback" must meet is simply that it be intended to be helpful to the recipient.* That is, the sender of the message should ask himself beforehand, "Do I really feel that what I am about to say is *likely to be helpful to the other person?*" I need to examine my own motivation, to be sure that I am not simply about to unload a burden of hostility from my own breast and for my own personal benefit, quite regardless of the expected effect on the receiver. Otherwise, I may convince myself that my only obligation is to be open and honest—that the name of the game is "candor"—and that so long as I truly and completely "level," I have fulfilled the only necessary

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obligation. If my objective is to *help* the recipient of the feedback, then, three things are necessary:

1. The other person needs to *understand* what I am saying.
2. He needs to be willing and able to *accept* it.
3. He needs to be *able to do* something about it if he chooses to.

### Getting Understanding

Two most important considerations in getting understanding of the message sent are:

1. *Feedback should be specific rather than general.* If I can give the man I am talking to specific examples of instances in which he has behaved in the way I am describing, it will be much easier for him to understand what I am talking about than it will if I speak only in terms of generalizations about "what he is like." For example, if I tell him that I think he talks too much, or doesn't express his thoughts very clearly, this is likely to be *less* helpful to him than if I am able to cite a particular situation, tied to time and place, where I thought he exhibited this behavior. If I can recall vividly to his mind a particular instance in which he rambled on long after I had gotten the idea of what he was trying to say, or when he had gone on and on without ever getting across clearly the idea of what he was trying to say to myself or to a group, he is more likely to be able to get a handle on what it is I am trying to tell him. Or at least I will have opened up an area for him that we can then explore further to try to understand what was going on in the situation, so that he can come out of it with a clearer idea of some specific things he might consider doing differently in the future. The key here is, *don't just generalize about what kind of a person he is. Give examples.*

2. Another important factor in getting understanding is that *recent examples of be-*

*havior are better than old ones.* To understand what was happening in the situation, a person obviously has to be able to recall the situation somewhat vividly. What happened two minutes ago can be more vividly recalled than what happened an hour ago, which will in turn be more easily remembered than what happened yesterday, last week, last year, or five years ago.

### Getting Acceptance

There are circumstances in which anyone will find it most difficult to accept critical, negative, feedback—times at which it will be very difficult for anyone to face what is being said to him in an open, objective frame of mind. Some important considerations involved in gaining acceptance are:

1. There needs to be a foundation of trust among members of the group before this sort of experience is entered into. If B is to accept critical feedback from A, B must be somewhat convinced from his previous associations with A that A's motivations where B is concerned aren't entirely self-serving—that is, that A *does care* for B and can be *trusted* to be saying what he is saying because he really feels that it will benefit B to do so. Where B has a deep distrust of A going into this situation, there is probably very little that A can do to get B's voluntary acceptance of what he is telling him.
2. How A addresses himself to B in this specific situation, however, can also be an important factor. If A's tone of voice, the expression on his face, his choice of words, and everything about him communicates directly to B the impression that, "I value you, and I really would like to help you, and that is the only reason I am telling you this," then B is more likely to attend to the message with an open mind than if A simply rattles off a list of intellectual observations about B's behavior, perhaps without even looking directly at him while he does so.

3. A person will be more likely to listen to any negative feedback you wish to give him if you simply describe to him what you have seen, and the effect it has on you. If you want to be heard, avoid any suggestion of "judging" him as a person. Avoid the temptation to extrapolate far beyond the specific situational information you have to *generalize* to the other person about how foolish he is, how obstinate, how untrustworthy, or whatever. Suppose I tell you, for example, that "This may not be your problem; it may be mine. However, I want you to know that when you act toward me the way you do sometimes (describe a situation, in time and place), it is very difficult for me to (think straight, keep from getting mad, keep my mind on what we are talking about, keep from going to sleep—whatever fits the situation that I am trying to describe)." You are much more likely to be able to accept such a message in an open frame of mind than if I tell you, "I think it is just terrible that you act toward people that way. I think you ought not to be that way, that's a completely senseless way to act. Why don't you grow up? . . ."

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*We do not really see ourselves. All mirrors are in fact quite useless except the living, human mirrors who reflect us: they do not lie.*—FRANCOIS MAURIAC.

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4. Before giving a person negative feedback of any kind, I ought to ask myself whether *now* is a good time to do it—whether he *appears* to be in a condition of readiness to receive information of this kind. If he appears, for example, to be angry, confused, upset, highly distraught, or defensive, the answer is probably no. I ought not to load any more on him right now.

This is one reason why *feedback that is solicited by the recipient is somewhat*

*more likely to be received in an open state of mind than feedback which is simply given whether he has asked for it or not.* And the more specific the area in which feedback is solicited, the more likely it is to be *really* desired and received in an open frame of mind. For example, suppose the leader of a team says to his people, "How about the X decision I made last Friday. Do you feel that that was one I arrived at in an appropriate way, or do you feel that I should have involved you more before arriving at a conclusion?"

As a member of the team, I would feel that this solicitation of feedback was more genuine, and that I could respond to it more openly and with more confidence that I would be heard than I would feel when the leader of the team, perhaps a bit too intensely or with a laugh that is a little too loud, says something like, "O.K. men, this is my turn in the barrel! Really level with me now! I want to hear everything you don't like about me!" He may or he may not. If overt solicitation is indicative of probable acceptance, the former sort is apt to be more meaningful than the latter, all by itself.

5. *Feedback given one man by another may be accepted as valid when in fact it ought not to be.* For example, if I tell a man that there is a particular thing he does in our relationship that I find most upsetting, it may be that the problem isn't his at all, but rather that it's mine. One of the values of entering into this sort of exchange in a team, as opposed to doing so only in a one-to-one relationship, is that the feedback that each man gives another can be checked around the table to see whether anyone else has common experience of this kind which would support or clarify the meaning of what is being said. This should always be done, both as a check on the

validity of the observation and to be sure that the recipient gets as many examples as are available to help him understand what is being said.

### Using Feedback

The third criterion of "useful" feedback (in addition to being able to understand and accept it) is that *the recipient needs to be able to do something with it.*

1. Suppose I feel that a man does not present his ideas as forcefully and persuasively as he ought to, to get the attention they deserve from the team, and I decide I want to tell him about this. This is still a pretty general feeling, and before saying anything, therefore, I should consider what specifically there is about his delivery that makes me feel that way. Now if I think, for example, that he doesn't organize his thoughts as well under some circumstances as I know he is capable of (from other experience I've had with him), this is an example of something I might assume he could do something about, and so I probably should tell him I feel that way, especially if I can give him specific examples of instances in which he has done this. Or suppose I feel that he gets his ideas out all right, but that as soon as he receives any static from anyone about them, he withdraws, either from indifference, lack of confidence in his own ideas, or whatever. This too I might choose to tell him about, because I could expect that he might be able to do something about it.

On the other hand, suppose I feel that the only thing that interferes with his ability to persuade, to carry his ideas over forcefully is that he is physically a very little fellow, and with a high squeaky voice, or that no matter how he sits or dresses he *looks* like he is only 14 years old. If I am really trying to be helpful to him, there isn't apt to be much value in calling these to his attention.

If I feel that he has a very limited vocabulary and this is getting in his way, there

might be some point in his career when I would conclude that this was a helpful thing to tell him about—e.g., that he doesn't use words correctly, or that his grammar is poor. These are correctable problems. On the other hand, if he is nearing the end of his career and there is no likelihood that he is at this point in time going to try to do anything about his general skill with the English language, then there is no point in calling this to his attention.

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*The manager who fears making mistakes too much to risk making them obviously won't make any. But neither will he learn or grow. He will stand still, or slide backwards. While others about him, with courage to face up to the inevitable risk that is inherent in initiative, will thrust forward. In short, the status of the individual who plays it too safe will be in greater jeopardy than that of his more venturesome counterpart.—PAUL J. MAYER.*

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So, by this criterion, you might or might not decide it would be helpful to tell the other person you felt he did not project his ideas in the group as forcefully or persuasively as he might. Whether you chose to do so or not would depend on your best estimate of his ability to do something about the particular barriers you saw to his effectiveness in this particular area.

2. During a discussion in which members are exchanging their views of and feelings about one another in this way, there may be a tendency to feel that you haven't really done a man justice unless you have told him "everything that bothers you" about him. It is not at all necessarily desirable, however, to be "complete" in the negative feedback you might give a person. It may be quite a large enough task, for example, for me to understand, accept, and consider doing something about my characteristic ways of behaving in two or three key areas.

To give me more than this to think about may be simply spreading my attention beyond what I am capable of dealing with at this particular time. Also, other things being equal, the more you unload on me, the more threatening the experience is likely to be, and the more difficulty I am likely to have accepting any of it in an open frame of mind.

### Summary

To be maximally useful to the recipient, feedback should meet the following criteria. It should be:

1. Intended to help the recipient.
2. Given directly and with real feeling, and based on a foundation of trust between the giver and receiver.
3. Descriptive of what the receiver is doing and of effects he is having—not threatening and judgmental about what he is as a person.
4. Specific rather than general, with good, clear, and preferably recent examples.
5. Given at a time when the receiver appears to be in a condition of readiness to accept it.
6. Checked with other team members to be sure they support its validity.
7. It should also include only those things that the receiver might be expected to be able to do something about.
8. And he should not be told more than he can handle at any particular time.

### Is it Possible To Be Too Cautious?

Finally, the question might be asked, "Isn't there some risk that if all these cautions are followed, people might be induced to be overly cautious, and decline to take desir-

able risks in being open with one another?" Yes, being too cautious is a risk in itself. Many of us have a tendency to feel that we couldn't possibly share with other people the negative feelings we have about them. They would be crushed if we did so. Or they would never forgive us. All of the criteria listed above are simply considerations that should be given some attention by the sender of feedback. But it will no doubt be impossible to meet all of them, all of the time, and still have something to say. In such cases it is appropriate to take prudent risks—to be open more than closed, experimentally, and see what happens. If you at least really *intend* to help—and there is no doubt that you intend to help by the manner in which you say what you say—then a good deal of clumsiness is almost certain to be overlooked by the receiver. Even if he doesn't understand or agree with what you are saying, he at least will probably not hold it against you. And if his defenses stay down, you may be able to clarify meanings, draw out essentials, and in general compensate for your initial clumsiness in trying to help.

### Receiving Feedback

There is less to say to the recipient of feedback about ways in which he might approach this opportunity:

1. First of all, he needs to make a sincere effort not to be defensive. This has as much to say about what he allows to go on inside him as about what he allows himself to say overtly to those who are giving him feedback. He should try to look at what is being said with an open mind, trying to understand it, and not all the while explaining to himself and others, "They simply don't understand; it isn't what I meant at all."

2. If the recipient of feedback is having

difficulty understanding what people are trying to tell him and they are unable to come up with examples that clarify things for him, he should begin to seek and speculate on possible examples himself with the group—to say, for example, “Remember the time we met last Friday, and I did such and so. Is that the kind of thing you are talking about?”

3. To be sure he understands, it is a good idea for the recipient of feedback to try to summarize briefly for the group what he understands them to be saying. This gives them a final opportunity to check misunderstandings that might have taken place.

4. I think it can be very helpful to an individual and to a group if the recipient of feedback from others is allowed, and encouraged, to share with the group some of his feelings about the kinds of thing they have been discussing—that is, his behavior in certain situations. The risk of defensiveness is one that all should be alert to. However, if a man can explore openly some of his feelings about why he tends sometimes to behave in “that” way, two things can happen. First, he may arrive at a better understanding himself of why he behaves in the way he does, simply in talking it through, and thereby be in a better position to consider what he might do about it. Secondly, if he does find it difficult or im-

possible to do anything about the behavior that has been negatively described to him by the group, even though he tries, if he has genuinely shared with them some of his concerns and some of the internal struggles he has in these situations, they may find it a little easier to understand and accept that behavior from him in the future.

5. As a final point, I believe some people react negatively to the very idea of doing this sort of thing—that is, meeting as a work team and exchanging in a quite open fashion their views of how they see one another, positively and negatively. The feeling may be that, “I am what I am, and I have a right to be that. And no group of people has a right to dictate to me what I should be like.” My feeling is that this is exactly right. It does and should remain the right of each individual to evaluate what he hears, decide what he believes of it, and decide in what respects, if any, he feels it is personally worth his while to make the effort to change. The purpose of a team lab of the kind described here, and of the kind of information that is exchanged in it, is simply to give a man *better and clearer information* than he ordinarily receives on which to make his *own* judgment of his effectiveness in working with others, and his *own* judgment of how or whether he wishes to further develop that effectiveness.

*Maturity means a lot of things. It means the ability to control one's emotions, to avoid resentments and jealousies, to resist unnecessary worries, to live unselfishly and to understand the problems of others, to respect contrary opinions, to accept and discharge responsibilities, to assume distasteful duties, to make difficult decisions promptly—in general, the full assumption of one's place in the scheme of things. It is a large order.—ANON.*

## FEEDBACK AND THE HELPING RELATIONSHIP<sup>1</sup>

Some criteria for useful feedback:

1. It is descriptive rather than evaluative. By describing one's own reaction, it leaves the individual free to use it or to use it as he/she sees fit. By avoiding evaluative language, it reduces the need for the individual to react defensively.
2. It is specific rather than general. To be told that one is "dominating" will probably not be as useful as to be told that "just now when we were discussing the issue you did not listen to what others said and I felt forced to accept your arguments or face an attack from you."
3. It takes into account the needs of both the receiver and giver of feedback. Feedback can be destructive when it serves only our own needs and fails to consider the needs of the person on the receiving end.
4. It is directed toward behavior which the receiver can do something about. Frustration is only increased when a person is reminded of some shortcoming over which he has no control.
5. It is solicited, rather than imposed. Feedback is most useful when the receiver him/her self has formulated the kind of question which those observing him/her can answer.
6. It is well-timed. In general, feedback is most useful at the earliest opportunity after the given behavior (depending, of course, on the person's readiness to hear it, support available from others, etc.).
7. It is checked to insure clear communication. One way of doing this is to have the receiver try to rephrase the feedback he/she has received to see if it corresponds to what the sender had in mind.
8. When feedback is given in a group, both giver and receiver have opportunity to check with others in the group the accuracy of the feedback. Is this one person's impression or an impression shared by others?

Feedback, then, is a way of giving help; it is a corrective mechanism for the individual who wants to learn how well his/her behavior matches the intention, and it is a means for establishing one's identity -- for answering "who am I?"

<sup>1</sup>

This material is taken from the Reading Book: Laboratories in Human Relations Training (Washington, D.C.: NTL Institute for Applied Behavioral Science, associated with the National Education, 1969).

## Useful Criteria for Receiving Feedback

Feedback from another person(s) is one important source of data which helps tell how your actions are affecting others. Even if you "disagree" with the feedback, it is important for you to hear it clearly and understand it. If nothing else, it will tell you how that individual sees your actions and give you the choice of trying to change your behavior. People act on their perceptions of your actions and you may be coming across in unintended ways. The following are useful hints which will help you be effective in receiving feedback.

1. Remember that it is one person's perceptions of your actions, not universal truth.
2. Be active in checking out feedback with others--if two or three people give you similar feedback, there may be a pattern reflected which you might want to consider.
3. Avoid explanations of "why I did that," unless asked.
4. Ask any clarifying questions you need in order to understand the feedback.
5. Wait until the feedback has been given, and then paraphrase the major points. In any way you can, make it your goal to understand the feedback--paraphrasing and asking clarifying questions are two ways to do so.
6. Use criteria for giving useful feedback to help sender be more effective.
7. Avoid making it more difficult for giver than already is (by reacting defensively, angrily, etc.).

Gormley/McCaffrey  
USDA  
1981

## TASK ANALYSIS

Suppose you are faced with the problem of a car that won't run properly. Would you start selecting tools at random and doing whatever comes to mind? Would you use the same tool on every part of the car? Or would you first analyze the problem, decide the result you wish to obtain, select and use tools that are most suitable to attaining that result and then check to see that it has actually been accomplished? In programming and training people you will face a good many analogous problems. Too often we approach this work much in the way that is suggested in the first method; that is we pick up the first available tool and start whaling away. It should not come as a surprise that the results are often less than satisfying.

A systematic approach to programming-training-evaluation is analogous to the second procedure mentioned. It involves detailed specifications of the desired result, development of an instrument by which success can be measured, development of procedures to achieve that result, and ways to continually ensure improvement.

Several steps are involved in this systematic approach. During this session we will cover them in some depth as well as provide opportunities for practice in their use. You should be familiar with the overall approach, it doesn't differ significantly from approaching any problem systematically. The tools differ, but the procedure is virtually the same.

The three phases of the process are:

1. Determine and describe what we want to achieve;
2. Do what is necessary to achieve the desired result; and
3. Evaluate the result to determine whether we succeeded in doing what we set out to do.

In developing instruction this means:

1. Deriving and describing objectives in a meaningful form;
2. Developing lessons, activities and materials designed to meet these objectives, and trying them; and
3. Determining how well the objectives were achieved and making any necessary modifications and improvements.

Whatever the subject matter, the goal of instruction is to develop ourselves or others to the point where we or they are:

1. Capable of performing satisfactorily in the job described;
2. Capable of improving skill through further practice.

Task analysis is directly related to the first goal. To prepare someone to perform a job, we must know what the job consists of, what one needs to do to perform each of the tasks, and how frequently each of these tasks is performed. Once we have this basic information we can design an approach which is performance oriented rather than subject oriented. The strategy is to use the job as the basis for deciding what will be taught and in what order and depth, rather than to simply present as much subject matter as possible in a given time.

Let us suppose that you are given responsibility for programming and training an agriculture program for new extension agents. The usual approach

is to take an old American voc. ed. syllabus and present the materials called for. This might well involve extensive training in subject matter concerned with American crops, machinery, and the use of fairly sophisticated agricultural supplies. Much of this will probably be just plain irrelevant to the needs of a potential extension agent in a developing nation. If, on the other hand, we analyze the job, we will soon be able to identify the knowledge and skills which are essential for him to perform satisfactorily and to continue to develop his skills. This should provide the basis of performance oriented instruction.

1. JOB DESCRIPTION. The first step in developing a task analysis is a "job description." This is the frame or outline from which we work. A job description is a general statement about what a person on the job does, and tells something about the conditions under which he does them. It is NOT a description of what he knows. Usually such a description is short, not more than a few paragraphs. The following criteria describe a job description:

1. It tells what a person does;
2. It describes any special or unusual conditions under which he does his job;
3. It includes all areas of performance, e.g., technical, cross-cultural and language;
4. It is short.

An example of a simple job description is as follows:

VOCATION: Radio and Television Serviceman

He may be required to install, maintain and service amplitude and frequency modulated home and auto receivers, transistorized radios, black and white and color televisions, high fidelity amplifiers and tape recorders. He must be able to read circuit diagrams and codes of values to select component substitutes. His job requires meeting the public both in his shop and on service calls. He may be required to drive a car or truck. He must be able to work at heights. He should be able to maintain business records and inventory.

A job description sketches the outlines of high spots of the job, but it is not adequate as a basis of instruction--it isn't sufficiently specific. It does, however, provide a guide for the next step, task analysis.

2. TASK ANALYSIS. A job invariably includes a number of tasks. A task is a set of logically related actions required for completion of a job objective. It is a complete job element.

An example of a partial task analysis for a service station attendant would probably include the following tasks:

1. Cleans or replaces spark plugs;
2. Adjusts and bleeds brakes;
3. Replaces wheel cylinders;
4. Inspects and flushes radiators;
5. Tests antifreeze.

This differs from "task detailing" which is an analysis of each of the steps involved in completing a task. To illustrate this, look at the detail of the task "cleans or replaces spark plugs."

1. Note plug location relative to the cylinder; remove plug cover, leads;
2. Remove all spark plugs;

3. Identify the type of plugs;
4. Decide whether to clean, adjust and/or replace plugs;
5. Adjust and clean plugs if appropriate;
6. Reinsert plugs in engine;
7. Connect ignition wire to appropriate plugs;
8. Check engine firing;
9. Prepare bill for \$40.99.

This information is far more specific than the basis task analysis and represents a later step in instructional development.

The first step in a task analysis is to derive a list of all possible tasks. In this process we are concerned with:

- A. BASIC PREMISE--that you have learned as much as possible about the subject matter area. This enables you to evaluate the answers you receive. It also permits you to logically refine statements that not tasks and, given an element of a task, relate it to the actual task.
- B. CONTENT--the job of an American Peace Corps volunteer can be delineated in terms of three areas: cross-cultural, technical and language. A job-description should include these three and a complete task analysis will include cross-cultural, technical and language tasks. (It should be noted that these are seldom performed separately or in isolation from tasks in the other areas. They merely represent a convenient way of describing tasks that are logically related.) Within each of these three areas there are tasks which are cognitive, tasks which are affective, and tasks which are psychomotor. Briefly these can be defined as follows:
  1. Cognitive--this type of activity is intellectual and includes skill like memory, analysis, problem solving, etc. Examples of technical tasks which are primarily cognitive would include:
    - a) Writing a proposal for an ecology project;
    - b) Designing an agricultural vocational education course;
    - c) Setting up a schedule of recreational activities;
    - d) Compiling a swine or poultry ration from locally available materials.
  2. Affective--affective activity is concerned with things like values, attitudes and beliefs. For the Volunteer, some affective tasks will be dealing constructively with his own attitudes and values. He may also be concerned with promoting changes of attitudes in people with whom he works. For example, promoting an attitude on the part of a client or counterpart which will ensure that he uses a skill that the Volunteer has trained him to perform.
  3. Psycho-motor--psychomotor activity involves the use of the skeletal, muscular and voluntary nervous systems. They are physical activities like swimming, running, using a tool, driving a dump truck, etc.

In summary, when constructing a task analysis for a Volunteer job, you should be certain that all technical tasks are included. Within each of these areas you should ensure that you have included all tasks which are cognitive, all tasks which are affective, and all tasks which are psychomotor. Most

important, each of them should be written in a way that will clearly indicate the level in the domain that is required. This is essential if training objectives are to be written at the level of Volunteer performance.

The next element of content is to rank-order tasks. A simple scheme for doing this is to determine what the importance of each task is, how frequently each task must be performed, and how difficult each task is to learn. For importance you might employ a simple scale like:

- 1 = most important, critical
- 2 = moderately important
- 3 = marginal or unimportant

For frequency of importance you might use terminology like:

- 1 = Daily, or more often
- 2 = Several times a week
- 3 = Weekly
- 4 = Monthly
- 5 = Occasionally
- 6 = Seldom

Difficulty of learning could be described as:

- 0 = Impossible
- 1 = Extremely difficult
- 2 = Difficult
- 3 = Moderately difficult
- 4 = Easy

When you have ranked the tasks in terms of these three criteria, it should be relatively simple to rank-order them in order of total importance to training.

C. TECHNIQUE--the steps in conducting a task analysis are:

- 1. Preparing an outline (job description);
- 2. Identifying a source or sources;
- 3. Conducting an interview or interviews;
- 4. Organizing the data;
- 5. Validating the data.

To discuss individually:

- 1. Preparing an outline--using your information about the job, area and categorizing it in terms of:

<u>TECHNICAL</u>	<u>LANGUAGE</u>	<u>CROSS-CULTURE</u>
Cognitive	Cognitive	Cognitive
Affective	Affective	Affective
Psychomotor	Psychomotor	Psychomotor

prepare an outline, along the lines of a skeletal job description. This outline will indicate the areas in which you must identify the tasks which comprise each aspect of the job.

- 2. Identifying a source or sources--essentially there are three types of sources: a) Someone doing the actual job; b) Someone who knows about the job, i.e., supervisor; c) Yourself. The best possible source is someone who is actually doing the job. He knows better than anyone else what he actually does. The second best source is someone who knows about the job, for example, supervisory personnel. Be aware, however, that you will get some information about what someone doing the job ought to be doing, rather than what he actually does. Working with host agency personnel, you may have to eventually

reconcile these differences. With a well-researched and organized task analysis you at least have a useful tool in conducting this type of negotiation. The third and least reliable source is yourself. You will have your own biases about what the job should entail. Because we are Americans out of our own cultural water, it is likely that these biases might lead us fairly far astray. In doing your task analysis you should try to identify technicians or other host country personnel who are actually doing the job. In the absence of such personnel, a supervisor is probably next best. As a general rule of thumb, more than one source is preferable as you will get more than one perspective of the job. In many instances host country sources will deal primarily with technical tasks, though they may also be able to provide some insight into cross-cultural and language tasks that are essential. For the latter two types of tasks, a technician in the field, even if he isn't doing your type of technical job, is probably the best source.

3. Conducting an interview--the conducting of an interview is a fairly specialized skill and depends to some extent on your own personality and that of the person you interview. We would suggest a few guidelines that may be of help.
  - a) Introduce yourself and give the person a chance to do likewise. Enjoy any social amenities that seem appropriate.
  - b) Explain the purpose of your interview that is that you are trying to determine what he does (if interviewing someone actually performs a job identical or similar to the trainees), or what he thinks someone in the position does or should do (if you are working with a supervisory type). The operative work is DOES. While background information is useful and interesting, it doesn't tell you what the person will do. It only indicates ~~the conditions, under what the person knows, or should know,~~ doesn't tell you what he will have to do. Stress that you are trying to find out what someone in the job actually does and has to do.
  - c) Ask the person for a general outline of what he does and his duties. Note anything that doesn't appear in your outline as well as things in your outline that aren't mentioned by the source.
  - d) The job description should give you some major task areas. Take each one and attempt to elicit statements stated behaviorally about what he does in this area. For example, you might receive an initial answer like "I work with teachers." This, obviously, is subject to any number of interpretations. Your goal is to elicit a statement or set of statements that indicate with relative precision what the person who works with teachers actually does, stated in a way that you, he, and anyone else who reads the task analysis, would share a mutual understanding. You might ask: "What do you do when you work with teachers?" or "What does working with teachers involve?" or "Can you explain the different things working with teachers require you to do?" "Does that mean you teach with them in the same classroom,

or supervise their teaching, or...?" What you are looking for are statements like:

"I help teachers to produce lesson plans, by reviewing and critiquing them and making alternative suggestions."

"I team teach with one teacher."

"I do the time and attendance reports for all the teachers in the school."

"I design training programs for in-service teachers and conduct and evaluate them."

e) You should continue to try to refine statements until you obtain a statement or set of statements for which further elaboration would, essentially, involve the set of steps involved in performing that task.

f) Keep in mind that many people whom you interview will provide information in a stream of consciousness and you will have to organize this data yourself. One way to facilitate this is to record tasks on 3x5 cards and organize them in accordance with your outline scheme. When the source has completed his recitation of tasks, review each section with him to determine whether he might have omitted something.

g) Next, try to determine the level of skill required. In the cognitive area, there are six different levels of increasing sophistication:

Knowledge--essentially memory or recall.

Comprehension--translation, interpretation or extrapolation from things memorized.

Application--applying a rule or set of rules to a unique situation(s).

Analysis--determining the parts of a whole and their relationship to one another.

Synthesis--creating a unique product from previously unrelated data, information, materials, etc.

Evaluation--applying criteria to determine whether such a product meets them.

In the Affective there are five levels: Receiving,  
Responding  
Valuing  
Organization  
Characterization

h) Next, go over each of the tasks to determine its importance, frequency and difficulty of learning. It is important to wait until this stage as this is the point when the source has produced all the tasks and his judgements on their relative importance, frequency and difficulty will be far more accurate.

4. Organizing the data--your outline has already produced the first organization tool. You should have groups of tasks in each of the three basic areas which you can identify as cognitive, effective and psychomotor. The second step would be to determine overlapping tasks. For example, in working with farmers in extension work, several of the steps in the approach would be similar--only the content of information would differ. The third step is to look for common cognitive, affective and psychomotor skills. You may find, for example, that application of a certain method is common to many of the tasks; or

that a good many tasks involve analysis--though of slightly different situations. All three of these criteria provide potential ways of organizing the tasks logically.

5. The outcome of organization should be a comprehensive list of tasks presented in logically coherent categories. Once this list is compiled and rank-ordered in terms of importance, frequency and difficulty, you would then discuss it with your source or sources. They may suggest changes in the ordering and/or the addition or deletion of tasks. Once this process is completed you have a final task analysis for the job.

#### HOW DO YOU USE THE TASK ANALYSIS?

If you are doing the task analysis in order to design a formal or informal training program for students, counterparts or clients, you would first attempt to assess how many, if any, of the tasks an individual or individuals can perform. You would also attempt to determine whether they had the skills prerequisite to performing those tasks (for example, if you are trying to train a heavy equipment operator, you would want to find out whether he can drive anything). Next, you would set objectives, determine a sequence of training units and the ways and means of meeting the objectives. Last, you would devise ways of determining whether the individual had met the objectives.

In this way your instruction of the trainees will be relevant to the job and will develop the skills that you or others need to perform it satisfactorily as well as to continue to improve those skills.

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Mayer, Robert, DEVELOPING VOCATION INSTRUCTION,  
Palo Alto, Fearon Press.

TASK ANALYSIS

CODES:

IMPORTANCE

- 1 Most important, Critical
- 2 Moderately important
- 3 Marginal or unimportant

FREQUENCY OF IMPORTANCE

- 1 Daily, or more often
- 2 Several times a week
- 3 Weekly
- 4 Monthly
- 5 Occasionally
- 6 Seldom

DIFFICULTY OF LEARNING

- 0 Impossible
- 1 Extremely difficult
- 2 Difficult
- 3 Moderately difficult
- 4 Easy

	IMPORTANCE	FREQUENCY	DIFFICULTY

## BEHAVIORAL OBJECTIVES

What is a behavioral objective?

Briefly, a BEHAVIORAL OBJECTIVE is a way of describing the objectives of a training course in terms of what the trainees should be able to do at the end of that training.

A BEHAVIORAL OBJECTIVE must be stated clearly and precisely so that everyone who reads it will know exactly what the desired outcome of the training program is. By ensuring this precision, at the end of the training program everyone can easily agree on whether or not the objectives of the program have been achieved.

Why use Behavioral Objectives?

The main advantage of BEHAVIORAL OBJECTIVES is their exactness in giving direction to a training course. By knowing exactly where you want to go, it is easier to determine how to get there. Clearness of goals also makes it easier for trainers or teachers to communicate among themselves and cooperate on a training program. Each of the trainers can agree on exactly what outcome is desired and can work to achieve it. Thus each trainer can support the achievement of another trainer's objective, even while teaching his own.

BEHAVIORAL OBJECTIVES are action-oriented and thus ideal for Peace Corps training, vocational school teaching, in-service job training, and informal counterpart training.

BEHAVIORAL OBJECTIVES are people-oriented since they focus the trainer on constantly trying to improve the course as it goes along and to improve the training inputs from one course to the next.

BEHAVIORAL OBJECTIVES are responsibility-oriented, since they encourage both the trainer and the trainee to take the responsibility for achieving the objectives of the training.

How should Behavioral Objectives Be Written?

A BEHAVIORAL OBJECTIVE should be a statement of what the trainee will be able to do at the end of the training program.

In order to ensure that every objective is written in these terms, there are three basic rules which must be followed. Any training objective which violates any one of these rules is not a behavioral objective.

A statement of a training goal is a Behavioral Objective if it meets the following conditions:

- A. BEHAVIORAL OBJECTIVES must state what behavior is desired as the outcome of the training. Thus, they must specify what the trainee will be able to do at the end of the training that he was not able to do before the training. A Behavioral Objective is not concerned with the content of the course or a description of how the instructor intends to achieve the desired objective.
- B. A BEHAVIORAL OBJECTIVE must state the desired outcome of the training in terms of observable measurable actions. Only actions (behavior) can be observed and measured and only by observing and measuring actions can the instructor determine whether or not his instruction has been successful.
- C. The trainee must be the subject of the sentence. That is, BEHAVIORAL OBJECTIVES are written in terms of the trainee's action. The objectives should not specify what the instructor must do but only what the trainee will be able to do at the end of the training.

#### CHARACTERISTICS OF BEHAVIORAL OBJECTIVES

- A. A BEHAVIORAL OBJECTIVE MUST FOCUS ON THE GOAL OF THE TRAINING.  
This means that BEHAVIORAL OBJECTIVES are concerned with what the trainee will be able to do at the end of the training. BEHAVIORAL OBJECTIVES only describe the results desired from a given training program. They do not describe how to go about achieving those results. Different instructors may have different ways of achieving the same results, but the objective is concerned only with stating what the results will be.

A statement which describes the action to take place during a training course is not a BEHAVIORAL OBJECTIVE. It is merely a description of the learning activities by which the instructor intends to achieve that objective.

Example A-1

Example of NON-Behavioral Objective:

Trainee will be given the opportunity to have actual practice in doing field work related to the theories taught in class.

"Practice" is not an objective; it is a learning activity, a way to achieve an objective. Thus the above statement is unsuitable as a Behavioral Objective.

Example A-2

Example of a Behavioral Objective:

Trainee will be able to do community development field work using extension education techniques as described in the manual on extension education. This is only one possible way of converting the first example given above into a Behavioral Objective. Since non-behavioral objectives tend to be very vague, there are a number of different ways of interpreting them. However, notice that in this example, the END result of training is emphasized "trainee will be able to do..." at the end of the training program.

B. A BEHAVIORAL OBJECTIVE MUST HAVE AN ACTION VERB

This means that the trainee must do something that we can see and measure. If we cannot observe what the trainee does, then how can we evaluate whether or not he is doing it correctly?

Here are some examples of forms in which Behavioral Objectives are usually written:

Trainee will be able to \_\_\_\_\_

When presented with \_\_\_\_\_, trainee will \_\_\_\_\_

Under the following conditions, the trainee will \_\_\_\_\_

At the end of training, the trainee will \_\_\_\_\_

After completing this book, the trainee will be able to \_\_\_\_\_

In the black space there should be a verb indicating an observable measurable action. It must be a verb that describes exactly what the instructor wants the trainee to be able to do.

Following are two lists of verbs. One list contains verbs which are observable, measurable actions and therefore appropriate for use in BEHAVIORAL OBJECTIVES. The other list describes things which we cannot see or measure and are therefore unsuitable for behavioral objectives.

Action Verbs

DO  
TELL  
WRITE  
DESCRIBE  
LIST  
WALK  
RUN  
EXPLAIN  
DEMONSTRATE  
SHOW  
ANSWER  
CHOOSE  
ORGANIZE  
CONDUCT  
DRAW

Vague Verbs

: KNOW  
: UNDERSTAND  
: APPRECIATE  
: HAVE  
: COMPREHEND  
: BE AWARE  
: FEEL  
: BELIEVE

Sometimes, an objective seems to be written in the proper form, but it

is not really a behavioral objective, because the verb used is not an ACTION verb and therefore not observable and measurable. Here is an example.

Example B-1

Example of NON-Behavioral Objective:

Trainee will be able to understand the causes of the pollution problem. The question here is what do we mean by "understand". Perhaps if we think about the ways that this objective might be tested, we can think of some of the verbs which would indicate actions by which we would measure this "understanding".

Some of these actions might include list, explain, describe, write an essay on. Here is one possibility.

Example B-2

Example of a Behavioral Objective:

Trainee will be able to list the main causes of the pollution problem as given in class.

Of course, there are other ways of interpreting the meaning of "understanding". You may be able to think of several more than are given here. But that is exactly why the word "understand" cannot be used in behavioral objectives--it is too vague.

- C. IN A BEHAVIORAL OBJECTIVE, THE TRAINEE MUST BE THE SUBJECT OF THE SENTENCE
- A. BEHAVIORAL OBJECTIVE is concerned with what the trainee will be able to do, not with what the instructor will do. Therefore, a BEHAVIORAL OBJECTIVE must have a subject for the sentence, as well as an action verb. If an objective has no subject, then we cannot be sure who is expected to do the action. The subject can be words like "trainee," "student," "you," etc.

Example C-1

Example of NON-Behavioral Objective:

To discuss the pollution problem and its implications.

Who is going to discuss the pollution problem? The instructor? The trainees? A guest speaker? The Radio? From this objective it is not clear, because no subject is stated. Therefore, it cannot be called a Behavioral Objective.

Example C-2

Example of a BEHAVIORAL OBJECTIVE:

Trainee will be able to explain the pollution problem and list implications to a group of high school students.

Again this is only one possible way of interpreting the previous example in order to make it a BEHAVIORAL OBJECTIVE. Notice that the Trainee has become the subject of the sentence. Also the action called for will be at the end of the training. Let's look at one more example of a BEHAVIORAL OBJECTIVE. It fulfills all three requirements for a properly written Behavioral Objective.

D-1

The trainee will be able to prepare a lesson plan which incorporates all of the five teaching-learning principles.

- A. It describes what the trainee should be able to do at the end of the training: "The trainee will be able to prepare a lesson plan..."
- B. It contains an action verb describing an observable, measurable behavior: "The trainee will be able to prepare a lesson plan..."

At the end of training, we can look at the paper that has the trainee's lesson plan and see if the trainee could, in fact, do it.

- C. The trainee is the stated subject of the sentence.

"The trainee will be able to prepare a lesson plan..."

Now take a break for a moment and think about some of the things that behavioral objectives can do to help you.

In formal teaching and informal, as well as informal training, Behavioral Objectives can:

1. Facilitate instructional design and development by providing clear goals to work toward.
2. Facilitate curriculum development--sequencing, eliminating gaps and overlaps.
3. Promote more efficient communications between trainers, administrators, researchers, and trainees.
4. Make it evident what students actually learn, thereby permitting selection of most important goals.
5. Permit instruction to be evaluated and thereby improve.
6. Promote individualized instruction by making possible criterion-referenced evaluation--each trainee can be required to master all objectives (Independent learning is also promoted).
7. Permit students to be more efficient learners, when they find out

- what is expected of them.
8. Eliminate the time wasted when trainees can already achieve all or some objectives before beginning a course.
  9. Impose a philosophy of trainer responsibility for assisting students to master objectives.
  10. Promote the idea of behaviorally analyzing all components of instruction--entry performance, intermediate performance and terminal performance.
  11. Facilitate research in training--advance instructional technology.
  12. Promote a new role for trainers-instructional designers, managers and resource specialists as opposed to information dispensers.

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: MAIN POINTS ABOUT BEHAVIORAL OBJECTIVES :  
:  
: A statement of a training goal is a :  
: Behavioral Objective if it meets the :  
: following conditions: :  
:  
: A. A BEHAVIORAL OBJECTIVE describes :  
: what the trainee should be able to :  
: do at the end of the training. :  
:  
: B. A BEHAVIORAL OBJECTIVE contains an :  
: action verb describing observable, :  
: measurable behavior. :  
:  
: C. In a BEHAVIORAL OBJECTIVE, the :  
: trainee is the subject of the :  
: sentence. :  
:

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## A MATRIX FOR MANAGING TRAINING

One way to think about managing training is to think through a matrix formed by the principle roles of management, across the top, and the seven phases through which training gets introduced into part of the organization, along the side. Such a matrix is depicted below:

ROLES AS A MANAGER	Representative * org. values * exp. ed. methods * marketing trng. services	Integrative * org. meetings * joint planning * linking to tech- nical ass'tce.	Decisional * entrepen. * resource * allocator * prob.solve
PHASES OF TRAINING			
Scouting * preliminary needs assess			
Entry * identify real client			
Diagnosis * formal needs assessment			
Planning * design of training			
Action * delivery of training			
Evaluation * assess effec- tiveness			
Termination * finish train- ing & leave			

### ROLES AS A MANAGER

One way to think about managing is in the three roles shown on top of the matrix.

One important role most managers have is to be a Representative of the organization - in this case representing a training department or unit. In this role the manager communicates the unit's values to other parts of the organization. Specifically, managers of effective training operations sometimes have to speak out and educate others about the experiential educational methods they employ. As a representative of a training operation, they may be in the position of marketing their unit's training services - marketing in the best sense of that word.

A second important role of managers of training units is to be Integrative with other parts of the organization. Thus, managers may spend a lot of time in organizational meetings, helping different parts of the organization figure out how they can work best together, and indicating what specific role the training group might play to increase the integration of the whole organization. Training managers often spend a lot of time jointly planning for training and other activities related to it. Specifically, they need to indicate to others what types of other technical assistance might be needed before or after training, to help bring about total organizational change.

A third important management role is Decisional. This may involve entrepreneurial activities pertaining to the training unit itself, including recruiting new staff, seeking budget and allocating resources, and sometimes even taking risks on behalf of the training unit. Often, managers of training, just as in other organizations, spend a lot of their time in the problem-solving role.

### PHASES OF TRAINING

While managing training and playing out the roles described above, there are approximately seven phases through which almost all training events must pass. These phases are briefly described below:

First, there is a scouting phase in most training events. This is the phase during which you or your training organization and the potential group to be trained are engaged in some preliminary needs assessment. This might involve you and the director or deputy director of some agency or part of a ministry which thinks they need some training. During this phase, you may still be trying to define the problem, and determine whether or not training is appropriate. The potential client may also be trying to figure out how you go about training, and you may be trying to figure out whether you can or should train this client. Assuming you come to positive concluding on that, you may proceed to the next phase.

The second phase involves you or your training unit's entry into the client system. This includes settling such issues as who your real client is going to be during training. It includes such issues as how you get introduced into the situation, to whom will you report the results of your diagnosis (the next phase), and how confidential will your relationship be with the ultimate trainees.

The third phase is the diagnosis, or the more formal training needs assessment process. Issues to be dealt with in this phase include how to go about the diagnosis, how broad a sample to use, and who should be involved in actually diagnosing.

The fourth phase, the planning phase, includes final design of the training, how training is to be evaluated, what should happen before and after training, and the logistics around actually staging the training events. Should it be off-site and residential, or should it be in-service training at the workplace? It is important that some form of collaboration be built during this phase of the training event.

Fifth is the actual action phase - the delivery of the training event, or events as the case may be. If the first four phases have been managed well, this is often the easiest phase of managing training.

Sixth is the evaluation phase, during which it is necessary to assess the effectiveness of the training. If it is found the training has not totally solved the original problem, you may move from this phase back up to planning, treating the evaluation as a re-diagnosis. If the training has been successful, and has solved the problem, you may move to the final phase.

Seventh is the termination phase, This usually entails some formal way of signalling the client that the training has been completed successfully. In some instances, it might entail some type of graduation ceremony. Or it might involve submission of a final evaluation report.

Unfortunately, or sometimes fortunately, the three major roles of the manager, and the seven phases of training, do not come about as neatly as represented on the matrix. They are often mixed, sometimes you have to return to one from another. The matrix presented is intended to give you a more systematic way to think about managing training as a total process.

## LEADERSHIP FUNCTIONS IN A GROUP

1. **Task Functions:** These leadership functions are to facilitate and co-ordinate group effort in the selection and definition of a common problem and in the solution of that problem.

- . **Initiating:** Proposing tasks or goals; defining a group problem; suggesting a procedure or ideas for solving a problem.
- . **Questioning:** Requesting facts; seeking relevant information about group concerns; asking for suggestions or ideas.
- . **Information or opinion giving:** Offering facts; providing relevant information about group concerns; stating a belief; giving suggestions or ideas.
- . **Clarifying or elaborating:** Interpreting or reflecting ideas and suggestions; clearing up confusions; indicating alternatives and issues before the group; giving examples.
- . **Summarizing:** Pulling together related ideas; restating suggestions after group has discussed them; offering a decision or conclusion for the group to accept or reject.
- . **Consensus testing:** Sending up 'trial balloons' to see if the group is nearing a conclusion; checking with the group to see how much agreement has been reached.

2. **Maintenance Functions:** Functions in this category describe leadership activity necessary to alter or maintain the way in which members of the group work together, developing loyalty to one another and to the group as a whole.

- . **Encouraging:** Being friendly, warm and responsive to others and to their contributions; showing regard for others by giving them an opportunity for recognition.
- . **Expressing group feelings:** Sensing feelings, moods, relationships within the group; sharing feelings with other members.
- . **Harmonizing:** Attempting to reconcile disagreements; reducing tension by 'pouring oil on troubled waters;' getting people to explore their differences.

- . **Compromising:** When one's own idea or status is involved in a conflict, offering to compromise one's own position; admitting error; disciplining oneself to maintain group cohesion.
- . **Gate-keeping:** Attempting to keep communication channels open; facilitating the participation of others; suggesting procedures for sharing the discussion of group problems.
- . **Following:** Goes along passively, accepting the ideas of others serves as audience.

### 3. Individual Needs:

Attempts by members to satisfy individual needs which are irrelevant to the group task and not oriented to group building and maintenance.

1. Aggressor - may work in many ways, e.g. deflating status of others, expressing disapproval; joking aggressively, showing envy toward another's contribution by taking credit for it.
2. Blocker - stubbornly resistant; disagreeing and opposing beyond reason; attempting to maintain or bring back an issue after the group has rejected or by-passed it.
3. Recognition-seeker - boasting, reporting on personal achievement, acting in unusual ways.
4. Self-confessor - uses group as audience to express personal feelings, ideas, etc.
5. Playboy - makes a display of his lack of involvement in group's processes. May take form of cynicism, non-chalance, horseplay, etc.
6. Dominator - tries to assert authority in manipulating group, or certain members of group. May take form of flattery, giving directions authoritatively, interrupting others, etc.

7. Help-seeker - attempts to call forth sympathy of group through expressions of insecurity, personal confusion or depreciation of self beyond reason.

Summarized from Benne, Kenneth D. and Sheats, Paul:  
Functional Roles of Group Members. NTL Selected Reading  
Series One - Group Development edited by Bradford,  
Lelan P. - 1961

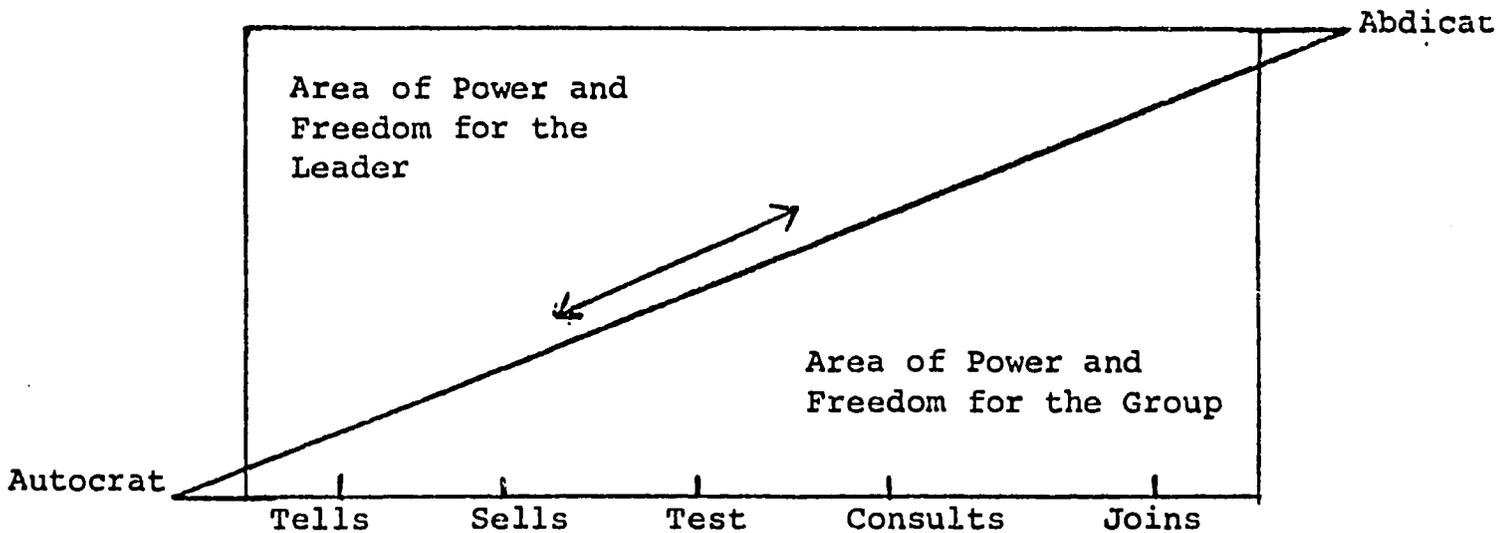
NTL/FPEU '74

LEADERSHIP SCALE

I. List 5 decisions you have made recently that others had to carry out.

- 1. \_\_\_\_\_
- 2. \_\_\_\_\_
- 3. \_\_\_\_\_
- 4. \_\_\_\_\_
- 5. \_\_\_\_\_

II. Place yourself on the continuum for each decision (put the number of the decision at the appropriate point).



## DISCUSSION LEADERSHIP GUIDELINES FOR TRAINERS

Discussion is a major way in which your participants involve themselves in training. They will measure the success of a training event in terms of their own involvement in it and the satisfaction they achieved in participating in meaningful discussion. Communication is a two-way street. Lectures and briefings are never as satisfying as interactive sessions where everyone "gets into the act." Your role, then, is to:

- . stimulate discussion with provocative questions that are used to initiate thought and maintain a lively interaction.
- . keep the discussion meaningful (i.e., relevant to the majority of participants specific to the objectives and agenda).
- . get broader involvement and elicit the thinking of as many participants as possible.
- . provide facts, policy, and subject matter expertise as needed (from yourself or others in the group).

Putting this role in broadest perspective, you are a catalyst, stimulating and guiding discussion, suggesting its direction rather than pushing or pulling, talking with participants rather than at them, serving as a resource or consultant or catalyst but never dominating or lecturing. With this role in mind, let's examine some suggestions on how you can improve your effectiveness as a discussion leader.

In virtually every workshop there are a few outspoken participants who answer all the questions and carry on the discussion among themselves. It is not their intention to exclude others; rather, it is the nature of the group's composition that some will be active and others passive. Your role is not easy: on the one hand, you should not allow a few to answer all the questions; on the other hand, you do not want to embarrass those who are not participating. It is generally not advisable to say, "Paul we haven't heard from you today. What do you think about this?" Rather, a better approach is to say, "Paul, you've had a lot of experience in handling this kind of problem in your department. What's your advice?"

One of your most frequent reasons for using questions is in directing the group's attention to issues that they are not taking into account. As we mentioned before, however, you don't want to do the thinking for your participants. Rather, you want to nudge them with a gentle clue to discover for themselves the issue they have overlooked. Here are some suggestions as to how questions can be used instead of direct statements:

SITUATION	SAMPLE QUESTION
Participants are going down a side street on an unimportant issue.	"How much importance do you think we should attach to this issue?"
All available information has not been given; you want to remind them without "leading."	"I wonder if we've gotten all the information needed to reach a decision?"

The discussion is wandering from the point; you want to bring it back.

"What point are we now considering?"

A summary of group consensus is needed before moving on.

"I wonder if someone could summarize, maybe at the blackboard, the points where we agree and disagree?"

You feel that the group is not ready to take action.

"When do you think we will be ready to reach a decision and take action?"

Two opposing factions are having trouble reaching agreement.

"Just where, on the continuum between these two points of view, does the best course of action lie?"

The group is prejudiced or acting in self-interest.

"How is our own interest in the outcome causing us to overlook the interest of other groups of supervisor?"

Your participants will vary in verbal ability. Some have no difficulty in putting their thoughts into words and getting ideas across to the group. They enjoy participating. Others may be less articulate, or may lack organization, or may feel overshadowed by others present. It's your job to "translate." Some of the phrases listed below may suggest ways of doing this in a way that is tactful and does not embarrass the participant:

- . If understand you correctly, Frank, you're saying that... (restatement by you)
- . Let's make sure everyone understands the point you're making, Janet. Would you summarize it for us...(restatement by participant)
- . I'm not sure I understand the point that George is making. Would one of you clarify it for me? (restatement by another participant)
- . What you're saying, Mrs. Thomkins, raises a question or two in my mind. For example, do you...(direct questioning)
- . How do the rest of you feel about Phil's comments? (Their feedback will tell Phil what they did and didn't understand).

Remember that the person who is not getting a point across is often not aware of their trouble. You are in a better position to recognize that others in the group do not understand the point. This is why it's important for you to seek clarification in a way that doesn't offend or embarrass.

So much for the person who needs help. How about the participant who rambles on and on with needless restatement and elaboration, who runs the point into the ground (and the audience with it)? You must interrupt;

otherwise this person might keep the floor, monopolize the meeting, and waste precious time. You can turn him off tactfully with something like this: "Good point, Harry Let's see how the rest of the group feels about it, or whether there are some other points that we should hear before reaching a decision..."

Your biggest job as a trainer is to see that the participants do not get bogged down in trivial details on the one hand, nor become superficial on the other hand and willing to settle for solutions (insights, principles, etc.) that are only partial because they fail to take all the issues or information into account. Because you have had more time and experience than your participants in exploring the issues present, you will have a natural temptation to be impatient and to "give away the correct solutions" or the outcome you are looking for. But this does not help to develop your participants' ability as critical thinkers, problem solvers, and decision makers. Nor does it get their commitment through involvement.

Any question you ask has a built-in bias and gives your participants some clue as to the type of response you're looking for. The question, "George, do you think we should have a better performance appraisal system than the old one now is use?" has a high degree of bias - it lets George know that we're expecting a yes from him. In fact, any question that has only two answers (e.g., yes-no, true-false, does-doesn't, more than-less than, etc.) is biasing by its very nature, in that there are often other alternatives that are not presented - the truth often lies in the grey area between white and black.

This is not to say that yes-no questions are not useful during a meeting. Indeed, their major use comes from their ability to polarize...to split the group into two sides on an issue. As participants discuss these two sides, they will come to the realization that the truth lies somewhere between. This type of behavior occurs in such activities as price negotiations, grievance procedures and arbitration, performance appraisal...in short, in any activity where there is give and take, and where a win-win outcome is only possible through compromise.

Almost any question posed to the group could have been phrased in different ways, depending on how much bias, or direction, you wish to give the group. In the table below, you can see a comparison between directive and non-directive wording of the same questions.

DIRECTIVE	NON-DIRECTIVE
" don't agree with that point, Bob."	"What do the rest of you think about the point Bob just made?"
"Agnes, don't you think that's off the topic?"	"Agnes, how does that relate to the topic we're discussing?"

You don't have any fact to support that position, do you?"  
(Strong no implied as answer)

"I guess we're all in agreement to recommend this program to management."

"Do you think the employees will accept the new faces that this new merger will bring?"  
(Strong no implied as answer)

"Let's listen now to some of the facts that support that position."

"Are we ready to make a recommendation to management?"

OR

"What specific things are we now prepared to recommend to management?"

"How do you think the employees will react to the new faces?"

## CONDUCTING THE TRAINING

When you are among the participants in a session you are conducting, it is too late to plan what you should do. In one way or another, the stage has been set and you are expected to facilitate the training process of the people around you. The first day of training is a time for skillful action. The following tips come from the experience of trainers like you who aspire to skillful action in the first session.

1. Rehearse instructions. Clear instructions are imperative. Giving step-by-step instructions is preferable to giving a list of directions at once. It is important not to overload participants with instructions; give instructions at the point when they are needed.
2. Pre-arrange room. This is often helpful, especially with large groups or in structured experiences which depend on careful chair arrangements. A formal room arrangement with tables and chairs conveys a formal message to participants. This is something to avoid if you are interested in getting people to participate in a process that is based on a nonformal approach to education.
3. Brief the observers. Many structured experiences require observers who need to know what and how to observe. The value of observation is considerably enhanced when observers are clear about their task.
4. Keep the session flowing. There is a natural pace to training sessions. How quickly or slowly you go depends on the participants, the task, the material being covered, and you. Although the first two elements will probably influence your judgment on such things as timing and the sequencing of events, you alone will know what you are most comfortable doing. Allow for a certain amount of anxiety to enter into judgments you make but do trust your feelings. When it comes to conducting training, your feelings are by far your best guide.
5. Give time cues. Remain in charge of starting, stopping, or interrupting the structured experience. Cues such as: "When I give the signal..." or "Take five more minutes for..." keep the structured experience well paced and focused.
6. Insist on attention. The facilitator needs the group's full attention when he is giving directions and instructions. Focus the group's attention by waiting for quiet, using charts, and writing out directions when necessary.
7. Review regularly. Review the learning from each activity when it is appropriate and practical. This helps participants to be clear about their learning progress and skill development. Also, it gives them time to discuss what they have learned and integrate it into their own behavior.
8. For closure. Never forget that there needs to be a time for pulling together all the many experiences of one session or a week of sessions. This is a time for summing up, a time to look back and evaluate what has happened, and a time to think about how to apply recent learnings in the regular work settings to which participants must return.

## APPENDIX E

## REFERENCE MATERIALS

- Austin, J.H., et al, "Instructor's Manual and Planning Guide for Training of Trainers," Caribbean Basin Water Management Project, PAHO, October 1978.
- Casse, Pierre, "Training for the Cross-Cultural Mind" Second Edition, Society for Intercultural Education, Training and Research, Washington, D.C., 1981.
- Ingalls, John D., "A Trainers Guide to Androgogy: Its Concepts, Experience, and Application", Revised Edition, U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, 1973.
- Knowles, Malcolm, "The Adult Learner: A Neglected Species", Second Edition, Gulf Publishing Company, Houston, Texas, 1978.
- Kohls, R. and Ax E., "Methodologies for Trainers: A Compendium of Learning Strategies". Future Life Press. Washington, D.C., 1979.
- Mager, Robert F., "Preparing Instructional Objectives", Leer Siegler Inc. Fearon Publishers, Belmont, California, 1962.
- The American Home Economics Association, Working with Villagers: Trainers Manual, AHEA International Family Planning Project, Washington, D.C., 1979.
- Walker, David A., "Understanding Pictures", Center for International Education, University of Massachusetts, Amherst, Massachusetts, 1978.

## APPENDIX F

### SUMMARY OF PARTICIPANT EVALUATION

An evaluation instrument was designed by the trainers to be administered in the closing hours of the workshop (copy attached).

A.1 Workshop goals: Seventy percent of the group noted that workshop goals had been met at the 80 percent to 100 percent level. Two members of the group expressed doubt about goal achievement for themselves but noted that the group as a whole had achieved the goals at high levels.

A.2 Session by Session: Participant responses varied from session to session. All sessions had value for different participants. One trend emerged. More extreme positives were noted in the later half of the week. This may reflect the fact that four members came to the workshop extremely tired due to international travel and somewhat uninformed as to the reasons for the workshop. On the other hand, more practical application and skill practice and less theory was addressed in the later half of the week, and these more concrete sessions may have more appeal for the technical expert.

#### A.4 Summary of Participant response to Question C.2

Participants identified needs for more work on:

- participatory training
- role-playing
- planning training activities
- incentives
- joke-telling
- refinement of awareness of competency based training - further development
- using energy more effectively

- improving questioning and commenting skills in groups
- communications
- experiential training
- creativity
- motivation
- feedback
- flip chart uses
- identifying needs for training
- when to use outside trainers
- more practice, especially organizing training and training of trainers
- planning
- needs assessment
- course design
- presentation logic
- entry techniques
- evaluate people's motivation
- use of appropriate methodologies
- presentation styles
- ability to think on feet
- ability to deal with confrontation
- how to recognize impact being made (or failing) at an early stage

#### A.5 Summary of Participant Response to Question D.

##### Positive:

- dedication of trainers
- Airlie House setting
- outlook and approach of trainers
- by mid-tuesday, atmosphere relaxed and remarkable progress made
- excellent example of what positive reinforcement can elicit
- group experience interesting
- I was eager to learn
- diverse skills and personalities of trainers and trainees

- encouraged by interpersonal relationships developed during the week
- obvious personal growth for most of us
- exchange of ideas with others.

Negative:

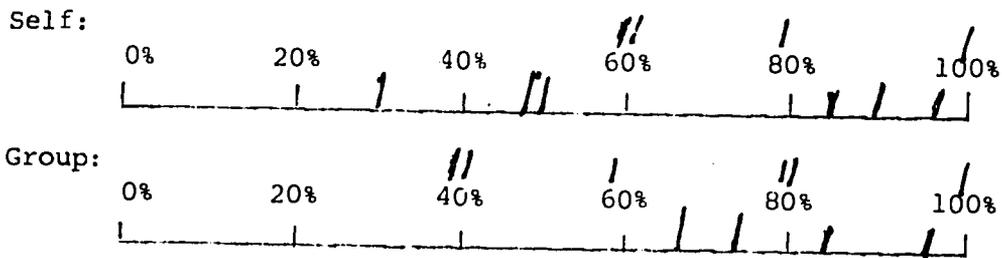
- my relationships to others in groups
- inconvenience and irritation with poor prior communication
- scheduling and timing
- conflicts not addressed
- unfamiliar terminology
- no sensitivity/flexibility at beginning of the week
- tired, bad start
- trainers tense at beginning
- 7-step handout confusing
- no audio-visual package or use of video feedback
- meeting room too cold
- needed more free time to relax
- tangents followed too long
- my project workload not considered
- intransigence of some members created tension
- could not discuss/pursue issues freely without confrontation with some group members.

WORKSHOP EVALUATION

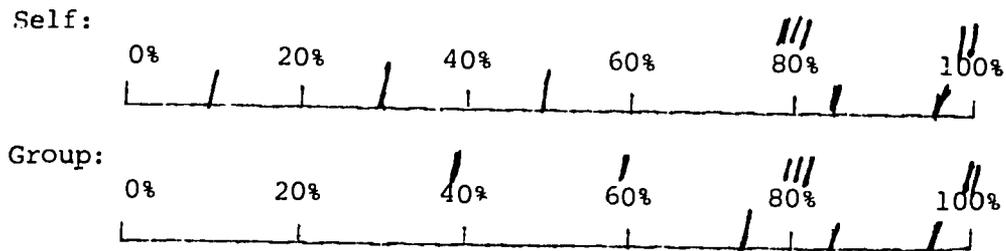
AIRLIE, February 1962

A. Please check the degree to which you feel the over-all goals of the workshop were met - separately for yourself and your opinion for the group as a whole.

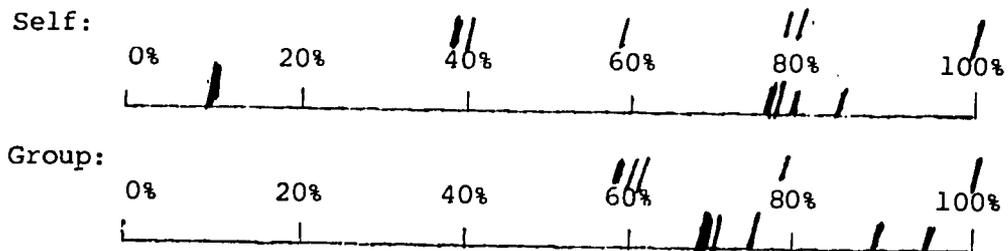
Goal I. Examine and experiment with a broad range of training/consultation methodology in order to enhance their training/consultation capabilities for transfer of technology.



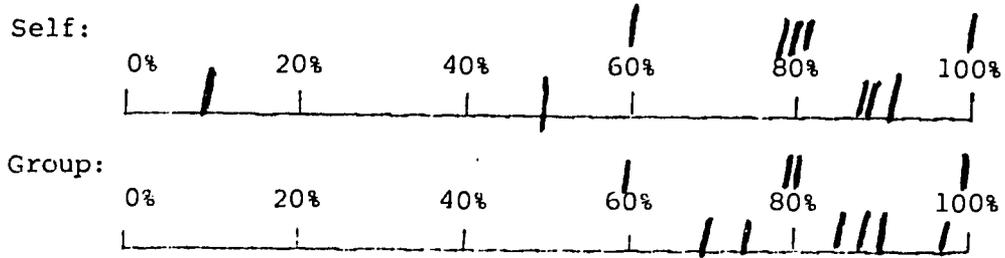
Goal II. Present and critique training sessions based on the task and performance model.



Goal III. Discuss and develop solutions to field training problems identified by the participants.



Goal IV. Present and critique field training packages related to current projects utilizing a systematic approach to planning, implementation and evaluation.



B. Session by Session Evaluation

For each session below, check on the scale provided the degree to which that session was helpful to you in:

- a) Expanding your Awareness/Knowledge
- b) Developing/Reinforcing your Skills

Monday

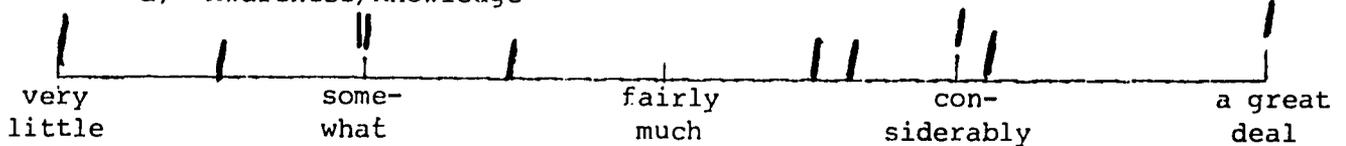
1. Discussion of Successes and Problems in the Field

a) Awareness/Knowledge



2. Identifying Purposes of the Hand Pump Project, and Discussion

a) Awareness/Knowledge

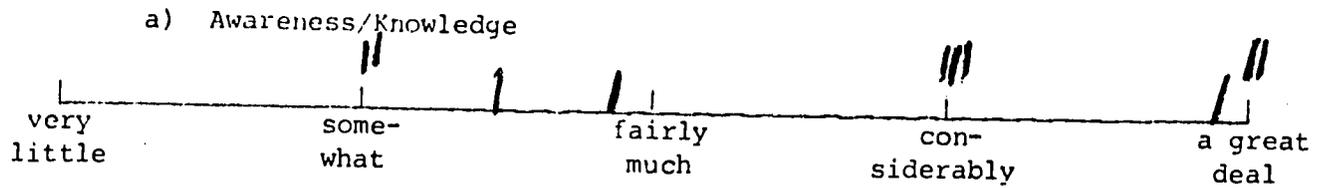


3. What are the Training Needs Implied by the Goals of the Hand Pump Project? (sub-group discussion and reports)

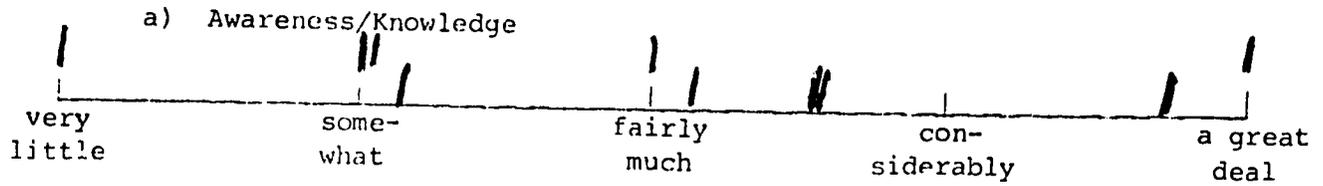
a) Awareness/Knowledge



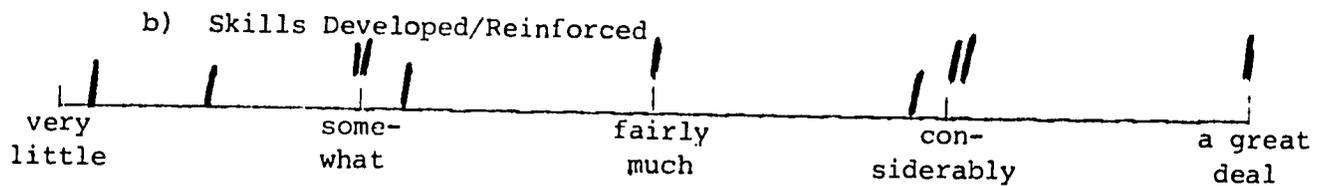
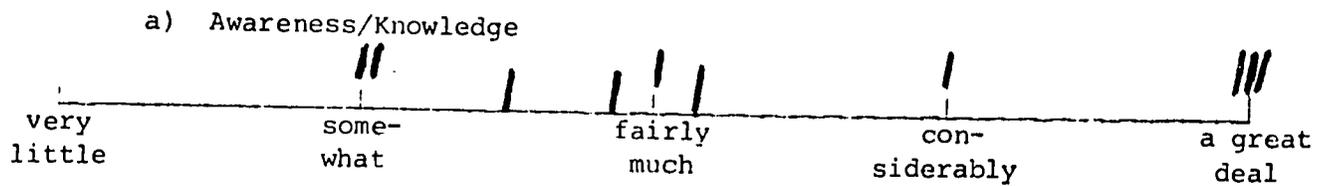
4. ARAGI and the Experiential Learning Cycle



5. The Hollow Square Exercise



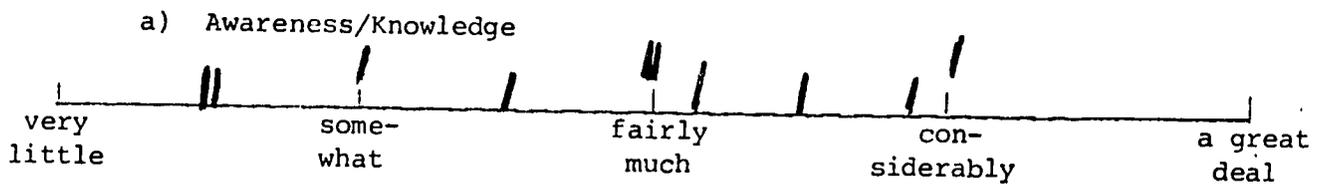
6. Training Skills Inventory and the Training Styles Continuum



Tuesday

1. The Trainer as a Consultant

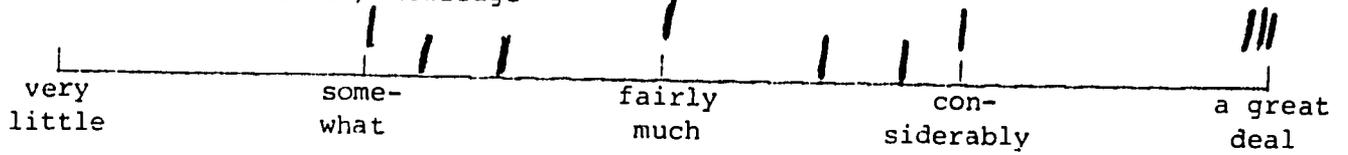
- Consulting Styles Continuum
- Power & Authority Spectrum
- Stages of the Consulting Process



2. Motivation & Incentives

- Maslow & Herzberg
- Theory overlay and Discussion

a) Awareness/Knowledge



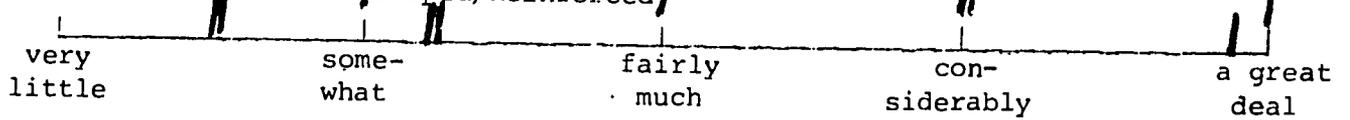
3. Communication Skills

- Listening Skill Pairs & Non-verbal Reactions
- Paraphrasing Pairs
- Feedback: Johari Window & the Rules of Feedback

a) Awareness/Knowledge



b) Skills Developed/Reinforced

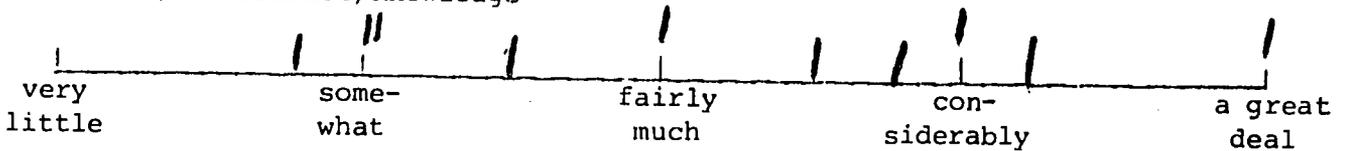


4. Consulting/Feedback Trios

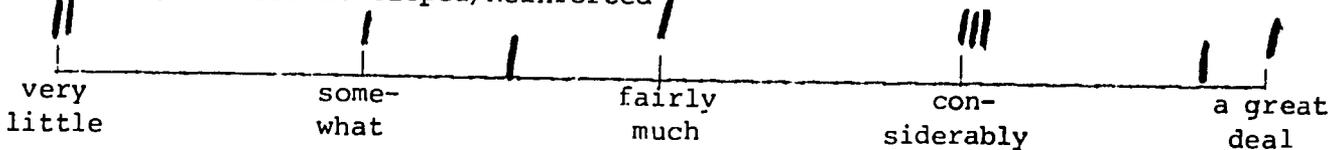
- with the: Problem/Owner
- the: Listner/Consultant
- the: Observer/Feedback giver

and Reports out with Discussion

a) Awareness/Knowledge



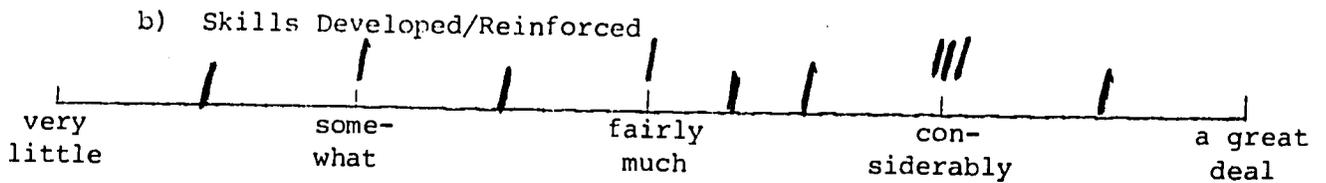
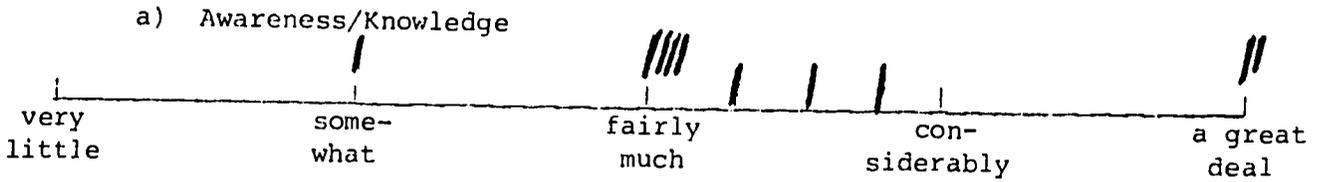
b) Skills Developed/Reinforced



Wednesday

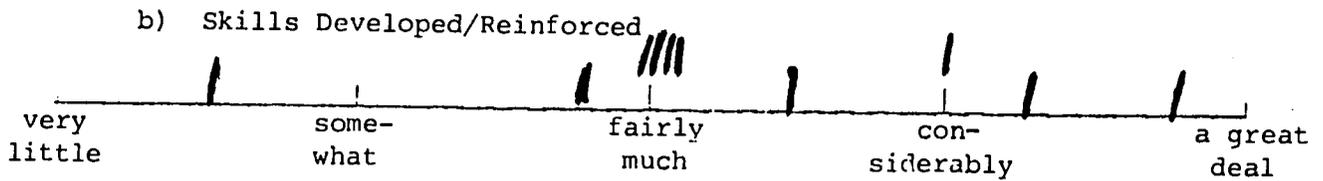
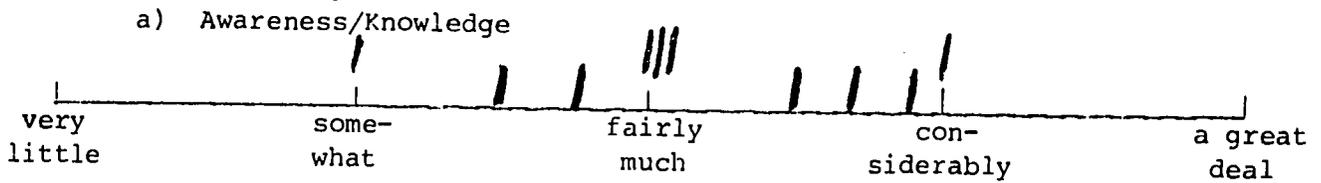
1. Task Analysis and Performance (Behavioral) Objectives

- Work sheet & Consulting Pairs (TA)
- Perf. Obj. Writing Practice
- Measurability & Conditions



2. Phases of Training Matrix and Skill Needs Identification

- Task Statements & Skill/Knowledge Areas
- Skills Covered/Need Work Listings
- Sub Groups and Reports out w/Discussion



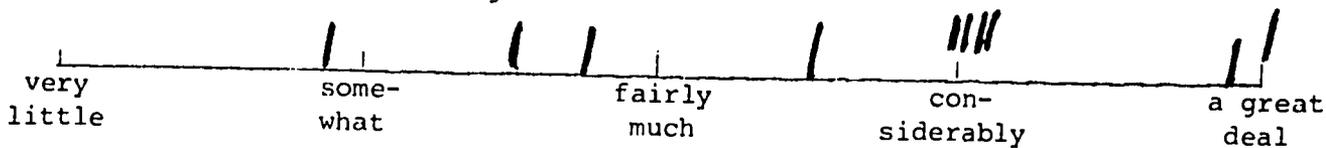
3. Group Dynamics and Course Review



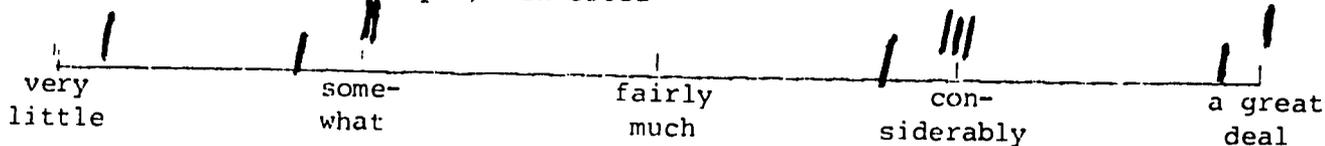
Thursday

1. Micro-training: Preparation, Presentation, Critique

a) Awareness/Knowledge



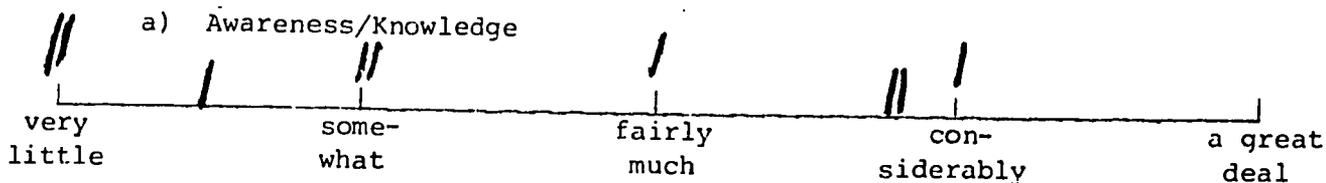
b) Skills Developed/Reinforced



2. Special Problems Clinics with Fred and John

Sub Groups: (circle one) Marketing or Follow-up

a) Awareness/Knowledge



Large Group: Evaluation and Materials (manuals, etc.)

a) Awareness/Knowledge



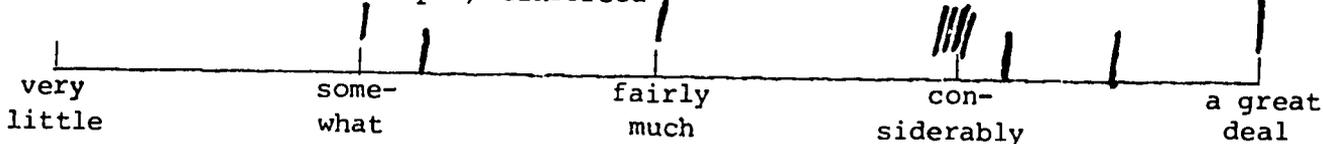
Friday

1. Field Training Packages: Preparation, Presentation, and Critique

a) Awareness/Knowledge



b) Skills Developed/Reinforced



- C. 1. List the training/consultation skills you already have that were reinforced in the workshop.
2. List the training/consultation skills you would like to work on more as a result of your experience in the workshop.
- D. Are there any other factors which had impact, positive or negative, on the success/usefulness of the course for you?

APPENDIX G

WATER AND SANITATION FOR HEALTH (WASH) PROJECT  
ORDER OF TECHNICAL DIRECTION NUMBER 80  
February 4, 1982

TO: Dennis Warner, Ph.D., P.E.  
WASH Contract Project Director

FROM: Victor W.R. Wehman, Jr., P.E., R.S. *VWR*  
A.I.D. WASH Project Manager  
A.I.D./S&T/HEA/WS

SUBJECT: Provision of Technical Assistance Under WASH Project Scope of Work  
for S&T/HEA to Provide Task and Performance Oriented Training  
Workshop for WASH Contractor/Subcontractor Staff

1. WASH contractor requested to provide technical assistance to S&T/HEA as per following scope of work.
2. WASH contractor/subcontractor/consultants authorized to expend up to fifty (50) person days of salaried effort over a two (2) month period to accomplish this technical assistance effort. Salary not to be paid for Georgia Tech, University of Maryland, or ISTI participants from WASH project. Only WASH CIC and WASH training consultants and WASH CIC support staff to be salaried.
3. Contractor authorized to expend up to eighty (80) person days of domestic per diem to accomplish this effort.
4. Contractor to coordinate with S&T/HEA (Austin) on workshop preparation, design, implementation and evaluation aspects.
5. Contractor authorized to provide up to six (6) domestic round trips from Atlanta, Georgia to Washington, D.C. and return to Atlanta during life of this OTD.
6. Contractor authorized local travel in and around Washington, D.C. area for participants and consultants/trainers between participants'/consultants' home base or work place to workshop site and return to consultants'/participants' home base.
7. Contractor authorized to rent greater Washington, D.C. area training/workshop space for purposes of giving workshop, i.e., a room for fifteen (15) to twenty (20) people plus three (3) or four (4) adjacent or nearby rooms for small group workshop sessions.
8. Contractor authorized to obtain secretarial, graphics or reproduction services through WASH project to support this effort.
9. Contractor authorized to expend up to \$900 (nine hundred) for training materials for the development or support of training workshop. Any further authorization should be approved by WASH Project Manager.

10. Workshop should take place over period February 21-27, 1982. Participants should be prepared to be at workshop site by 1730 hours on February 21, 1982 and not plan to leave until after 1330 hours on February 27, 1982. The contractor will design, develop, implement and evaluate a six (6) day "Training of Trainers" (task and performance oriented training approaches and methodologies) training program for selected Georgia Institute of Technology, University of Maryland and ISTI personnel and S&T/HEA Staff actively engaged in A.I.D. operational field technology transfer projects involving the field local manufacture, installation, operation and maintenance of the A.I.D. hand pump in developing countries.

The workshop should cover such topics as:

- a. Basic Training Principles.
  - b. Needs Assessment.
  - c. Writing Training Objectives.
  - d. Training Design.
  - e. Training Delivery.
  - f. On-the-job Training.
  - g. Using an O&M Manual as a Training Tool.
  - h. Competency Based Training (approaches and procedures).
11. Contractor authorized one (1) domestic round trip from workshop trainer home base to WASH CIC (for design and preparation of workshop), to workshop site, to WASH CIC (for debriefing and report) and return to workshop trainers' home base.
12. Contractor authorized to provide for car rental, if necessary, to facilitate effort at workshop site.
13. The workshop will take place in the Washington, D.C. area or within one and a half (1-1/2) hours driving distance of Washington, D.C.
14. The number of participants will be a minimum of six (6) and a maximum of twelve (12).
15. WASH contractor is suggested to have the workshop trainer consultants work directly under the supervision of the WASH Project Senior Training Officer.
16. The workshop should use experiential learning techniques and be participant based.
17. WASH contractor should report on overall activity (preparation, workshop, highlights, training objectives, training schedule, actual training sessions, workshop evaluation and recommended approach for future workshops, adequacy of WASH CIC backup for workshop.

18. Training consultants and participants should be contacted immediately and technical assistance activities initiated ASAP.
19. Appreciate your prompt attention to this matter. Good luck!

WATER AND SANITATION FOR HEALTH (WASH) PROJECT  
ORDER OF TECHNICAL DIRECTION (OTD) NUMBER 80  
Amendment #1  
February 18, 1982

TO: Dennis Warner, Ph.D., P.E.  
WASH Contract Project Director

FROM: Victor W.R. Wehman, Jr., P.E., R.S. *VWR*  
A.I.D. WASH Project Manager  
A.I.D./S&T/HEA/WS

SUBJECT: Provision of Technical Assistance Under WASH Project Scope of Work  
for S&T/HEA to Provide Task and Performance Oriented Training  
Workshop for WASH Contractor/Subcontractor Staff

REF: A) OTD #80, dated 4 Feb 82

1. Second and third sentences of paragraph 2 of OTD #80 are cancelled. New second and third sentences read as follows:  

"Salary not to be paid for Georgia Tech or ISTI participants from WASH project. WASH CIC Staff and WASH training consultants, Mr. Knight and WASH CIC Support Staff to be salaried."
2. Nothing follows.