

Methods and Techniques used in Intercultural Youth Projects

This brochure is a review of different approaches related to training activities and its purpose is to support trainers and youth workers to improve quality standards for the implementation of intercultural youth projects through nonformal education.

It was developed for the training course "Training of Trainers - Methods and Techniques used in Intercultural Youth Projects", that was organised by Life Foundation, between 10-19 of May 2004, in Romania, Oradea.

This training course was developed and implemented by Janina Pasaniuc, Cristian Seidler, Daniela Bosioc and Camelia Nistor.

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1. What is learning?

1.1 Definitions of learning

You probably know exactly what is meant by learning. It is, nevertheless, still worth defining it in the present context.

You know that learning has taken place, when you know something which you did not know before and can show it and/or you are able to do something which you were not able to do before.

You will notice that in both cases you are required to offer proof. Thinking that you know something or can do something is not enough; you must be able to show that you know it or are able to do it.

The Concise Oxford Dictionary of Current English defines learning simply as 'knowledge acquired by study'.

According to Hergenhahn, the trend in recent years is to accept a definition of learning that refers to changes in observable behaviour.

The most popular has been the one suggested by Kimble which defines learning 'as a relatively permanent change in behavioural potentiality that occurs as a result of reinforced practice'.

Reflecting on experience to identify how a situation or future actions could be improved and then using this knowledge to make actual improvements. This can be

individual or group-based. Learning involves applying lessons learned to future actions, which provides the basis for another cycle of learning.

For anyone who cares to look back at such moments, it will be obvious that we learn in different ways, at different times, depending on situations, consequences, and stimulus. We also learn different things, depending on what we interact with in our environment. And it follows from this that we learn according to different motivations, from the conscious need to pass exams, to the almost unconscious socialisation of learning traffic signals. Learning, then, is a differentiated and complex process, responsible for equipping us with knowledge and skills, developing our capabilities, and allowing us to know our own attitudes, values and emotions.

1.2 Different approaches to the study of learning

Lunzer's classification Lunzer suggests a two-way classification of approaches to the study of learning and adaptation.

Firstly, there is the widely accepted classification of theories ranging from behaviourist to cognitive, the main difference being that behaviourist psychologists see learning as a matter of links between stimulus and response, whereas cognitive theorists place greater emphasis on the functioning of the brain, internal mental thinking and the role of experience which modifies present behaviour.

Secondly, there is the classification which concerns the role of stimuli as the initiator of behaviour. The reactive view is that without stimuli there would be no response, because responses only occur when an organism needs to react to a stimulus. The active (or structural) approach sees the organism as spontaneously activated i.e. 'if there were no stimuli in the environment, the organism would seek stimuli' (Child, 1981).

Surprisingly little is known about how people actually learn, though there are a number of theories; so it is perhaps easiest to define learning "after the event" by asking how you know whether or not learning has, in fact, taken place.

1.3 Theories on how do people learn

1. Constructivism

Definition

Constructivism is a philosophy of learning founded on the premise that, by reflecting on our experiences, we construct our own understanding of the world we live in. Each of us generates our own "rules" and "mental models," which we use to make sense of our experiences. Learning, therefore, is simply the process of adjusting our mental models to accommodate new experiences.

Discussion

There are several guiding principles of constructivism:

- Learning is a search for meaning. Therefore, learning must start with the issues around which students are actively trying to construct meaning.
- Meaning requires understanding wholes as well as parts. And parts must be understood in the context of wholes. Therefore, the learning process focuses on primary concepts, not isolated facts.
- In order to teach well, we must understand the mental models that students use to perceive the world and the assumptions they make to support those models.
- The purpose of learning is for an individual to construct his or her own meaning, not just memorize the "right" answers and regurgitate someone else's meaning. Since education is inherently interdisciplinary, the only valuable way to measure learning is to make the assessment part of the learning process, ensuring it provides students with information on the quality of their learning.

How Constructivism Impacts Learning

Curriculum - Constructivism calls for the elimination of a standardized curriculum. Instead, it promotes using curricula customized to the participants' prior knowledge. Also, it emphasizes hands-on problem solving.

Instruction - Under the theory of constructivism, trainers focus on making connections between facts and fostering new understanding in participants. Trainers tailor their training strategies to participant responses and encourage participants to analyze, interpret, and predict information. Teachers also rely heavily on open-ended questions and promote extensive dialogue among participants.

Assessment - Constructivism calls for the elimination of grades and standardized testing. Instead, assessment becomes part of the learning process so that participants play a larger role in judging their own progress.

2. Behaviorism

Definition

Behaviorism is a theory of animal and human learning that only focuses on objectively observable behaviors and discounts mental activities. Behavior theorists define learning as nothing more than the acquisition of new behavior.

Discussion

Experiments by behaviorists identify conditioning as a universal learning process. There are two different types of conditioning, each yielding a different behavioral pattern:

- **Classic conditioning** occurs when a natural reflex responds to a stimulus. The most popular example is Pavlov's observation that dogs salivate when they eat or even see food. Essentially, animals and people are biologically "wired" so that a certain stimulus will produce a specific response.
- **Behavioral or operant conditioning** occurs when a response to a stimulus is reinforced. Basically, operant conditioning is a simple feedback system: If a reward or reinforcement follows the response to a stimulus, then the response becomes more probable in the future. For example, leading behaviorist B.F. Skinner used reinforcement techniques to teach pigeons to dance and bowl a ball in a mini-alley.

There have been many *criticisms* of behaviorism, including the following:

1. Behaviorism does not account for all kinds of learning, since it disregards the activities of the mind.
2. Behaviorism does not explain some learning - such as the recognition of new language patterns by young children - for which there is no reinforcement mechanism.
3. Reserach has shown that animals adapt their reinforced patterns to new information. For instance, a rat can shift its behavior to respond to changes in the layout of a maze it had previously mastered through reinforcements.

How Behaviorism Impacts Learning

This theory is relatively simple to understand because it relies only on observable behavior and describes several universal laws of behavior. Its positive and negative reinforcement techniques can be very effective - both in animals, and in treatments for human disorders such as autism and antisocial behavior. Behaviorism often is used by teachers, who reward or punish participants behaviors.

3. Piaget's Development Theory

Definition

Swiss biologist and psychologist Jean Piaget (1896-1980) is renowned for constructing a highly influential model of child development and learning. Piaget's theory is based on the idea that the developing child builds cognitive structures - in other words, mental "maps," schemes, or networked concepts for understanding and responding to physical experiences within his or her environment. Piaget further attested that a child's cognitive structure increases in sophistication with development, moving from a few innate reflexes such as crying and sucking to highly complex mental activities.

Discussion

Piaget's theory identifies four developmental stages and the processes by which children progress through them. The four stages are:

- *Sensorimotor stage (birth - 2 years old)* - The child, through physical interaction with his or her environment, builds a set of concepts about reality and how it works.
- *Preoperational stage (ages 2-7)* -The child is not yet able to conceptualize abstractly and needs concrete physical situations. For instance, a child does not know that physical objects remain in existence even when out of sight.
- *Concrete operations (ages 7-11)* - As physical experience accumulates, the child starts to conceptualize, creating logical structures that explain his or her physical experiences. Abstract problem solving is also possible at this stage. For example, arithmetic equations can be solved with numbers, not just with objects.
- *Formal operations (beginning at ages 11-15)* - By this point, the child's cognitive structures are like those of an adult and include conceptual reasoning.

Piaget outlined several principles for building cognitive structures. During all development stages, the child experiences his or her environment using whatever mental maps he or she has constructed so far. If the experience is a repeated one, it fits easily- or is assimilated - into the child's cognitive structure so that he or she maintains mental "equilibrium." If the experience is different or new, the child loses

equilibrium, and alters his or her cognitive structure to accommodate the new conditions. This way, the child erects more and more adequate cognitive structures.

How Piaget's Theory Impacts Learning

Curriculum

Trainers must plan a developmentally appropriate curriculum that enhances their participants' logical and conceptual growth.

Instruction - Trainers must emphasize the critical role that experiences - or interactions with the surrounding environment - play in participants' learning. For example, instructors have to take into account the role that fundamental concepts, such as the permanence of objects, play in establishing cognitive structures.

4. Neuroscience

Definition

Neuroscience is the study of the human nervous system, the brain, and the biological basis of consciousness, perception, memory, and learning.

Discussion

The nervous system and the brain are the physical foundation of the human learning process. Neuroscience links our observations about cognitive behavior with the actual physical processes that support such behavior. This theory is still "young" and is undergoing rapid, controversial development.

Some of the key findings of neuroscience are:

The brain has a triad structure. Our brain actually contains three brains: the lower or reptilian brain that controls basic sensory motor functions; the mammalian or limbic brain that controls emotions, memory, and biorhythms; and the neocortex or thinking brain that controls cognition, reasoning, language, and higher intelligence.

The brain is not a computer. The structure of the brain's neuron connections is loose, flexible, "webbed," overlapping, and redundant. It's impossible for such a system to function like a linear or parallel-processing computer. Instead, the brain is better described as a self-organizing system.

The brain changes with use, throughout our lifetime. Mental concentration and effort alters the physical structure of the brain. Our nerve cells (neurons) are connected by branches called dendrites. There are about 10 billion neurons in the brain and about 1,000 trillion connections. The possible combinations of connections is about ten to the one-millionth power. As we use the brain, we strengthen certain patterns of connection, making each connection easier to create next time. This is how memory develops.

How Neuroscience Impacts Education

When trainers take neuroscience into account, they organize a curriculum around real experiences and integrated, "whole" ideas. Plus, they focus on instruction that promotes complex thinking and the "growth" of the brain. Neuroscience proponents advocate continued learning and intellectual development throughout adulthood.

5. Brain-Based Learning

Definition

This learning theory is based on the structure and function of the brain. As long as the brain is not prohibited from fulfilling its normal processes, learning will occur.

Discussion

People often say that everyone can learn. Yet the reality is that everyone does learn. Every person is born with a brain that functions as an immensely powerful processor. Traditional schooling, however, often inhibits learning by discouraging, ignoring, or punishing the brain's natural learning processes.

The core principles of brain-based learning state that:

- The brain is a parallel processor, meaning it can perform several activities at once, like tasting and smelling.
- Learning engages the whole physiology.
- The search for meaning is innate.
- The search for meaning comes through patterning.
- Emotions are critical to patterning.
- The brain processes wholes and parts simultaneously.
- Learning involves both focused attention and peripheral perception.
- Learning involves both conscious and unconscious processes.
- We have two types of memory: spatial and rote.
- We understand best when facts are embedded in natural, spatial memory.
- Learning is enhanced by challenge and inhibited by threat.
- Each brain is unique.

The three instructional techniques associated with brain-based learning are:

Orchestrated immersion - Creating learning environments that fully immerse participants in an educational experience.

Relaxed alertness - Trying to eliminate fear in learners, while maintaining a highly challenging environment

Active processing - Allowing the learner to consolidate and internalize information by actively processing it.

How Brain-Based Learning Impacts Education

Curriculum - Trainers must design learning around participants interests and make learning contextual.

Instruction - Trainers let participants learn in teams and use peripheral learning. Trainers structure learning around real problems, encouraging participants to also learn in settings outside the room or the building.

Assessment - Since all participants are learning, their assessment should allow them to understand their own learning styles and preferences. This way, participants monitor and enhance their own learning process.

What Brain-Based Learning Suggests

How the brain works has a significant impact on what kinds of learning activities are most effective. Trainers need to help participants have appropriate experiences and

capitalize on those experiences. As Renate Caine illustrates in her book *Making Connections*, three interactive elements are essential to this process:

Trainers must immerse participants in complex, interactive experiences that are both rich and real. One excellent example is immersing participants in a foreign culture to teach them a second language. Trainers must take advantage of the brain's ability to parallel process.

Participants must have a personally meaningful challenge. Such challenges stimulate as participant's mind to the desired state of alertness.

In order for a participant to gain insight about a problem, there must be intensive analysis of the different ways to approach it, and about learning in general. This is what's known as the "active processing of experience."

A few other tenets of brain-based learning include:

- Feedback is best when it comes from reality, rather than from an authority figure.
- People learn best when solving realistic problems.
- The big picture can't be separated from the details.
- Because every brain is different, trainers should allow learners to customize their own environments.
- The best problem solvers are those that laugh!

Designers of educational tools **must be artistic** in their creation of brain-friendly environments. Trainers need to realize that the best way to learn is not through lecture, but by participation in realistic environments that let learners try new things safely.

6. Learning Styles

Definition

This approach to learning emphasizes the fact that individuals perceive and process information in very different ways. The learning styles theory implies that how much individuals learn has more to do with whether the educational experience is geared toward their particular style of learning than whether or not they are "smart." In fact, educators should not ask, "Is this participant smart?" but rather "How is this participant smart?"

Discussion

The concept of learning styles is rooted in the classification of psychological types. The learning styles theory is based on research demonstrating that, as the result of heredity, upbringing, and current environmental demands, different individuals have a tendency to both perceive and process information differently. The different ways of doing so are generally classified as:

- **Concrete and abstract perceivers** - Concrete perceivers absorb information through direct experience, by doing, acting, sensing, and feeling. Abstract perceivers, however, take in information through analysis, observation, and thinking.
- **Active and reflective processors** - Active processors make sense of an experience by immediately using the new information. Reflective processors make sense of an

experience by reflecting on and thinking about it. Traditional training tends to favor abstract perceiving and reflective processing. Other kinds of learning aren't rewarded and reflected in curriculum, instruction, and assessment nearly as much.

How the Learning Styles Theory Impacts Education

Curriculum - Educators must place emphasis on intuition, feeling, sensing, and imagination, in addition to the traditional skills of analysis, reason, and sequential problem solving.

Instruction - Trainers should design their instruction methods to connect with all four learning styles, using various combinations of experience, reflection, conceptualization, and experimentation. they can introduce a wide variety of experiential elements into the room, such as sound, music, visuals, movement, experience, and even talking.

Assessment - Trainers should employ a variety of assessment techniques, focusing on the development of "whole brain" capacity and each of the different learning styles.

7. Multiple Intelligences

Definition

This theory of human intelligence, developed by psychologist Howard Gardner, suggests there are at least seven ways that people have of perceiving and understanding the world. Gardner labels each of these ways a distinct "intelligence"- in other words, a set of skills allowing individuals to find and resolve genuine problems they face.

Discussion

Gardner defines an "intelligence" as a group of abilities that:

- Is somewhat autonomous from other human capacities
- Has a core set of information-processing operations
- Has a distinct history in the stages of development we each pass through
- Has plausible roots in evolutionary history

While Gardner suggests his list of intelligences may not be exhaustive, he identifies the following seven:

- *Verbal-Linguistic* - The ability to use words and language
- *Logical-Mathematical* - The capacity for inductive and deductive thinking and reasoning, as well as the use of numbers and the recognition of abstract patterns.
- *Visual-Spatial* - The ability to visualize objects and spatial dimensions, and create internal images and pictures.
- *Body-Kinesthetic* - The wisdom of the body and the ability to control physical motion.
- *Musical-Rhythmic* - The ability to recognize tonal patterns and sounds, as well as a sensitivity to rhythms and beats.
- *Interpersonal* - The capacity for person-to-person communications and relationships.

- *Intrapersonal* - The spiritual, inner states of being, self-reflection, and awareness.

How Multiple Intelligences Impact Learning

Curriculum - Traditional schooling heavily favors the verbal-linguistic and logical-mathematical intelligences. Gardner suggests a more balanced curriculum that incorporates the arts, self-awareness, communication, and physical education.

Instruction - Gardner advocates instructional methods that appeal to all the intelligences, including role playing, musical performance, cooperative learning, reflection, visualization, story telling, and so on.

Assessment - This theory calls for assessment methods that take into account the diversity of intelligences, as well as self-assessment tools that help participants understand their intelligences.

8. Right-Brain vs. Left-Brain Thinking

Definition

This theory of the structure and functions of the mind suggests that the two different sides of the brain control two different "modes" of thinking. It also suggests that each of us prefers one mode over the other.

Discussion

Experimentation has shown that the two different sides, or hemispheres, of the brain are responsible for different manners of thinking. The following table illustrates the differences between left-brain and right-brain thinking:

Left Brain	Right Brain
Logical	Random
Sequential	Intuitive
Rational	Holistic
Analytical	Synthesizing
Objective	Subjective
Looks at parts	Looks at wholes

Most individuals have a distinct preference for one of these styles of thinking. Some, however, are more whole-brained and equally adept at both modes. In general, trainings tend to favor left-brain modes of thinking, while downplaying the right-brain ones. Left-brain scholastic subjects focus on logical thinking, analysis, and accuracy. Right-brained subjects, on the other hand, focus on aesthetics, feeling, and creativity.

How Right-Brain vs. Left-Brain Thinking Impacts Learning

Curriculum - In order to be more "whole-brained" in their orientation, trainings need to give equal weight to the arts, creativity, and the skills of imagination and synthesis.

Instruction - To foster a more whole-brained scholastic experience, trainers should use instruction techniques that connect with both sides of the brain. They can increase their participant's right-brain learning activities by incorporating more patterning,

metaphors, analogies, role playing, visuals, and movement into their reading, calculation, and analytical activities.

Assessment - For a more accurate whole-brained evaluation of participant learning, trainers must develop new forms of assessment that honor right-brained talents and skills.

9. Communities of Practice

Definition

This approach views learning as an act of membership in a "community of practice." The theory seeks to understand both the structure of communities and how learning occurs in them.

Basic Elements

The communities of practice concept was pioneered by the Institute for Research on Learning, a spin-off of the Xerox Corporation in Palo Alto, CA. The Institute pursues a cross-disciplinary approach to learning research, involving cognitive scientists, organizational anthropologists, and traditional educators. Communities of practice is based on the following assumptions:

Learning is fundamentally a social phenomenon. People organize their learning around the social communities to which they belong.

Knowledge is integrated in the life of communities that share values, beliefs, languages, and ways of doing things. These are called **communities of practice**. Real knowledge is integrated in the doing, social relations, and expertise of these communities.

The processes of learning and membership in a community of practice are inseparable. Because learning is intertwined with community membership, it is what lets us belong to and adjust our status in the group. As we change our learning, our identity - and our relationship to the group - changes.

Knowledge is inseparable from practice. It is not possible to **know** without **doing**. By doing, we learn.

Empowerment - or the ability to contribute to a community - creates the potential for learning. Circumstances in which we engage in real action that has consequences for both us and our community create the most powerful learning environments.

How Communities of Practice Impacts Education

This approach to learning suggests trainers understand their participants' communities of practice and acknowledge the learning participants do in such communities. The communities of practice theory also suggests trainers structure learning opportunities that embed knowledge in both work practices and social relations - for example, apprenticeships, service learning, and so on. Plus, trainers should create opportunities for participants to solve real problems with adults, in real learning situations.

10. Control Theory

Definition

This theory of motivation proposed by William Glasser contends that behavior is never caused by a response to an outside stimulus. Instead, the control theory states that behavior is inspired by what a person **wants** most at any given time: survival, love, power, freedom, or any other basic human need.

Discussion

Responding to complaints that today's participants are "unmotivated," Glasser attests that all living creatures "control" their behavior to maximize their need satisfaction. According to Glasser, if participants are not motivated to do their schoolwork, it's because they view schoolwork as irrelevant to their basic human needs.

Boss trainers use rewards and punishment to coerce participants to comply with rules and complete required assignments. Glasser calls this "leaning on your shovel" work. He shows how high percentages of participants recognize that the work they do - even when their trainers praise them - is such low - level work.

Lead trainers, on the other hand, avoid coercion completely. Instead, they make the intrinsic rewards of doing the work clear to their participants, correlating any proposed assignments to the participants' basic needs. Plus, they only use grades as temporary indicators of what has and hasn't been learned, rather than a reward. Lead trainers will "fight to protect" highly engaged, deeply motivated participants who are doing quality work from having to fulfill meaningless requirements.

How the Control Theory Impacts Learning

Curriculum - Trainers must negotiate both content and method with participants. participants' basic needs literally help shape **how** and **what** they are taught.

Instruction - Trainers rely on cooperative, active learning techniques that enhance the power of the learners. Lead trainers make sure that all assignments meet some degree of their participants' need satisfaction. This secures participant loyalty, which carries the room through whatever relatively meaningless tasks might be necessary to satisfy official requirements.

Assessment - Trainers only give "good grades" - those that certify quality work - to satisfy participants' need for power. Courses for which a participant doesn't earn a "good grade" are not recorded on that participant's transcript. Trainers grade participants using an absolute standard, rather than a relative "curve."

11. Observational Learning

Definition

Observational learning, also called social learning theory, occurs when an observer's behavior changes after viewing the behavior of a model. An observer's behavior can be affected by the positive or negative consequences - called vicarious reinforcement or vicarious punishment - of a model's behavior.

Discussion

There are several guiding principles behind observational learning, or social learning theory:

- The observer will imitate the model's behavior if the model possesses characteristics - things such as talent, intelligence, power, good looks, or popularity - that the observer finds attractive or desirable.
- The observer will react to the way the model is treated and mimic the model's behavior. When the model's behavior is rewarded, the observer is more likely to reproduce the rewarded behavior. When the model is punished, an example of vicarious punishment, the observer is less likely to reproduce the same behavior.
- A distinction exists between an observer's "acquiring" a behavior and "performing" a behavior. Through observation, the observer can acquire the behavior without performing it. The observer may then later, in situations where there is an incentive to do so, display the behavior.
- Learning by observation involves four separate processes: *attention, retention, production and motivation*.

Attention: Observers cannot learn unless they pay attention to what's happening around them. This process is influenced by characteristics of the model, such as how much one likes or identifies with the model, and by characteristics of the observer, such as the observer's expectations or level of emotional arousal.

Retention: Observers must not only recognize the observed behavior but also remember it at some later time. This process depends on the observer's ability to code or structure the information in an easily remembered form or to mentally or physically rehearse the model's actions.

Production: Observers must be physically and/intellectually capable of producing the act. In many cases the observer possesses the necessary responses. But sometimes, reproducing the model's actions may involve skills the observer has not yet acquired. It is one thing to carefully watch a circus juggler, but it is quite another to go home and repeat those acts.

Motivation: In general, observers will perform the act only if they have some motivation or reason to do so. The presence of reinforcement or punishment, either to the model or directly to the observer, becomes most important in this process.

- Attention and retention account for acquisition or learning of a model's behavior; production and motivation control the performance.
- Human development reflects the complex interaction of the person, the person's behavior, and the environment. The relationship between these elements is called *reciprocal determinism*. A person's cognitive abilities, physical characteristics, personality, beliefs, attitudes, and so on influence both his or her behavior and environment. These influences are reciprocal, however. A person's behavior can affect his feelings about himself and his attitudes and beliefs about others. Likewise, much of what a person knows comes from environmental resources such as television, parents, and books. Environment also affects behavior: what a person observes can powerfully influence what he does. But a person's behavior also contributes to his environment.

How Observational Learning Impacts Learning:

Curriculum -Participants must get a chance to observe and model the behavior that leads to a positive reinforcement.

Instruction -Educators must encourage collaborative learning, since much of learning happens within important social and environmental contexts.

Assessment - A learned behavior often cannot be performed unless there is the right environment for it. Educators must provide the incentive and the supportive environment for the behavior to happen. Otherwise, assessment may not be accurate.

12. Vygotsky and Social Cognition

Definition

The social cognition learning model asserts that culture is the prime determinant of individual development. Humans are the only species to have created culture, and every human child develops in the context of a culture. Therefore, a child's learning development is affected in ways large and small by the culture - including the culture of family environment - in which he or she is enmeshed.

Discussion

- Culture makes two sorts of contributions to a child's intellectual development. *First*, through culture children acquire much of the content of their thinking, that is, their knowledge. *Second*, the surrounding culture provides a child with the processes or means of their thinking, what Vygotskians call the tools of intellectual adaptation. In short, according to the social cognition learning model, culture trains children both what to think and how to think.
- Cognitive development results from a dialectical process whereby a child learns through problem-solving experiences shared with someone else, usually a parent or trainer but sometimes a sibling or peer.
- Initially, the person interacting with child assumes most of the responsibility for guiding the problem solving, but gradually this responsibility transfers to the child.
- Language is a primary form of interaction through which adults transmit to the child the rich body of knowledge that exists in the culture.
- As learning progresses, the child's own language comes to serve as her primary tool of intellectual adaptation. Eventually, children can use internal language to direct their own behavior.
- Internalization refers to the process of learning - and thereby internalizing - a rich body of knowledge and tools of thought that first exist outside the child. This happens primarily through language.
- A difference exists between what child can do on her own and what the child can do with help. Vygotskians call this difference the zone of proximal development.
- Since much of what a child learns comes from the culture around her and much of the child's problem solving is mediated through an adult's help, it is wrong to focus on a child in isolation. Such focus does not reveal the processes by which children acquire new skills.
- Interactions with surrounding culture and social agents, such as parents and more competent peers, contribute significantly to a child's intellectual development.

How Vygotsky Impacts Learning

Curriculum - Since children learn much through interaction, curricula should be designed to emphasize interaction between learners and learning tasks.

Instruction - With appropriate adult help, children can often perform tasks that they are incapable of completing on their own. With this in mind, scaffolding - where the adult continually adjusts the level of his or her help in response to the child's level of

performance - is an effective form of teaching. Scaffolding not only produces immediate results, but also instills the skills necessary for independent problem solving in the future.

Assessment - Assessment methods must take into account the zone of proximal development. What children can do on their own is their level of actual development and what they can do with help is their level of potential development. Two children might have the same level of actual development, but given the appropriate help from an adult, one might be able to solve many more problems than the other. Assessment methods must target both the level of actual development and the level of potential development.

There is, nevertheless, general agreement that learning has to do with very complex processes that involve the whole self (Smith, 1983).

2. Different understanding of learning

According to Smith, it is possible that learning defies precise definition because it is used to describe either a product, a process or a function.

When learning is used to describe a **product**, the emphasis is on the outcome of the experience.

When it is used to describe a **process**, an attempt is made to account for what happens when a learning experience takes place.

When learning is used to describe a **function**, the emphasis is on aspects (such as motivation) which are believed to help 'produce' learning.

2.1. Learning as a product

What is an outcome?

Outcome is the result achieved at the level of "purpose" in the objective hierarchy. In terminology, outcome is part of impact (result at purpose and goal level).

Learning outcomes

"If you don't know where you're going, don't be surprised to find yourself somewhere you never intended." Are you familiar with this saying, or some version of it? Those involved in training for long time will probably groan at the sight of it, not just because it is a cliché, but because it is so often proved to be true. Carefully defining the starting points and end goals that participants will progress through is of crucial importance, and these following sections emphasise a range of factors which need to be considered during a preparation phase (and any subsequent re-workings of the program during its implementation). The first step is defining the *learning outcomes* of the training, and then conceptualising them as *objectives*.

What does a trainer really want the participants to achieve by the end of a training course? What should participants know at the end of a workshop? What should they be able to do? What should they take home with them? These are a few of the endless questions that could be asked regarding the final outcome of a training activity. Clearly, there is an enormous range of unpredictable factors in the life of a training, from the expectations and learning styles of the participants to the ways in which it is evaluated. A flexible approach to the dynamics of training and a thoroughly planned approach are not mutually exclusive however. Thinking through learning outcomes allows the trainer to maximise the kinds of learning which the program can support, and influences planning for this within the training strategy and methodology. The question still remains however - what exactly are learning outcomes?

According to Gagne and Medsker (1996), "Learning is relatively permanent change in human capabilities that is not a result of growth processes". They continue by arguing that these capabilities are related to specific learning outcomes, that is, categories of forms of learning, relating to different aspects of the mind and body. We can see them systematised below.

Learning outcomes

Type of learning outcome	Description of capability	Example
Verbal information	State, tell, or describe previously stored information.	In training, being asked about information on one topic.
Intellectual skills	Apply general concepts and rules to analyse issues, solve problems and generate novel problems	Design a project proposal that meets certain requirements
Motor skills	Execute a physical action with precision and timing	Learn to climb a rope of 20 metres.
Attitudes	Choose a personal course of action	Choose to change your approach to your training sessions after participating in a training for trainers course
Cognitive strategies	Manage one's own thinking and learning processes	Selectively use three different strategies to identify the training needs of a particular organisation.

(Taken and adapted from: R.Gagne and K. Medsker, 1996)

The need to make a distinction between different types of learning outcomes stems from the need to distinguish different levels and types of training provided. If we stick with the scheme outlined in the chart, the most common outcomes in youth training are usually at the level of attitudes, cognitive strategies and intellectual skills. It is usual that in these multicultural and multilingual contexts there is less emphasis on verbal information outcomes, and motor skills seem to be engaged less frequently, although the increasing popularity of outward bound style pursuits in youth training is

changing this. Models such as this one are very often boiled down in youth work to KSA; knowledge, skills and attitude outcomes. As a point of reference this is probably sufficient, as it is not the intention here to give an exhaustive overview of different theoretical models. Instead the emphasis is on the relevance of learning outcomes to the initial planning process. Their consideration is central to the definition of training objectives, and also provokes thought on the values and purposes of learning within the training being conceived.

According to UNESCO's principle regarding the outcome of nonformal education, education should focus on 3 elements: knowledge, skills, attitudes.

Another very important dimension to identifying the learning outcomes is the question of depth. How 'deeply' does a trainer want to explore a particular topic or issue? In other words, trainers need to consider the level of engagement and learning they want their participants to reach, and to speculate on the kind of knowledge they would like to be achieved.

Knowledge – learning outcome/result

Six Levels of Knowledge

4. Awareness – to recall, recognise, being aware of existence
5. Understanding – to translate from one form to another
6. Application – to apply or use information in a new situation
7. Analysis – to examine a situation and break it down into parts
8. Synthesis – to put together information in a new way
9. Evaluation – judge based on explicit criteria

(Adapted from Klatt (1999) and Krathwohl, Bloom and Masia -1964)

The following example illustrates the levels of knowledge in relation to training in general.

Example: What knowledge can a person have with regards to training in general?

- Being aware that training as activity exists as such is the lowest possible level, lower than to know why it exists and what the purpose of it is (being a participant at a course). Knowing how to conduct a certain type of training activity (application) means acquiring a higher level of knowledge. Being able to analyse and take a training program apart is a further development and refinement of this knowledge. Following on from this is being able to design training programs (elements) of your own. And according to this scheme, the highest level is so called evaluation, which reflects the ability to draw conclusions and make decisions based on established criteria (e.g. decide whether one training program is more appropriate than the other.).

The depth of the learning outcomes is important for a number of reasons. It recalls the needs analysis, as it begins to formulate those needs in ways that can be related to the program design. On top of this, it is necessary to consider them in relation to the participant's profile (see 4.5.4). For now, we will concentrate on the process of specifying objectives from the learning outcomes identified.

Skills – learning outcome/result

Theory of Gagne on levels of learning regarding skills (R. Gagne)

This theory stipulates that there are several different types or levels of learning. The significance of these classifications is that each different type requires different types of instruction. Gagne identifies five major categories of learning: verbal information, intellectual skills, cognitive strategies, motor skills and attitudes. Different internal and external conditions are necessary for each type of learning. For example, for cognitive strategies to be learned, there must be a chance to practice developing new solutions to problems; to learn attitudes, the learner must be exposed to a credible role model or persuasive arguments.

Gagne suggests that learning tasks for intellectual skills can be organized in a hierarchy according to complexity: stimulus recognition, response generation, procedure following, use of terminology, discriminations, concept formation, rule application, and problem solving. The primary significance of the hierarchy is to identify prerequisites that should be completed to facilitate learning at each level. Prerequisites are identified by doing a task analysis of a learning/training task. Learning hierarchies provide a basis for the sequencing of instruction.

In addition, the theory outlines nine instructional events and corresponding cognitive processes:

- (1) gaining attention (reception)
- (2) informing learners of the objective (expectancy)
- (3) stimulating recall of prior learning (retrieval)
- (4) presenting the stimulus (selective perception)
- (5) providing learning guidance (semantic encoding)
- (6) eliciting performance (responding)
- (7) providing feedback (reinforcement)
- (8) assessing performance (retrieval)
- (9) enhancing retention and transfer (generalization).

These events should satisfy or provide the necessary conditions for learning and serve as the basis for designing instruction and selecting appropriate media (Gagne, Briggs & Wager, 1992).

Application of learning level theory:

While Gagne's theoretical framework covers all aspects of learning, the focus of the theory is on intellectual skills. The theory has been applied to the design of instruction in all domains (Gagner & Driscoll, 1988). In its original formulation (Gagne, 1962), special attention was given to military training settings. Gagne (1987) addresses the role of instructional technology in learning.

Example:

The following example illustrates a teaching sequence corresponding to the nine instructional events for the objective, Recognize an equilateral triangle:

1. Gain attention - show variety of computer generated triangles
2. Identify objective - pose question: "What is an equilateral triangle?"
3. Recall prior learning - review definitions of triangles
4. Present stimulus - give definition of equilateral triangle
5. Guide learning- show example of how to create equilateral
6. Elicit performance - ask learners to create 5 different examples
7. Provide feedback - check all examples as correct/incorrect
8. Assess performance- provide scores and remediation
9. Enhance retention/transfer - show pictures of objects and ask participants to identify equilaterals

Gagne (1985) provides examples of events for each category of learning outcomes.

Principles:

1. Different instruction is required for different learning outcomes.
2. Events of learning operate on the learner in ways that constitute the conditions of learning.
3. The specific operations that constitute instructional events are different for each different type of learning outcome.
 - a) Learning hierarchies define what intellectual skills are to be learned and a sequence of instruction.

Attitudes – learning outcome/result

An attitude is a persons consistently favorable or unfavorable evaluations, feelings, and tendencies toward an object or idea.

Attitudes are usually defined as a disposition or tendency to respond positively or negatively towards a certain thing (idea, object, person, situation). They encompass, or are closely related to, our opinions and beliefs and are based upon our experiences. As far as instruction is concerned, a great deal of learning involves acquiring or changing attitudes.

Hovland, Janis, & Kelly (1953) provided one of the first major theories of attitude change, developed in the framework of Hull's learning theory, and oriented towards the effects of persuasive communication. According to the Hovland et al theory, changes in opinions can result in attitude change depending upon the presence or absence of rewards. The learning of new attitudes is no different in nature than any other verbal or motor skill, except that opinions relate to a single proposition whereas other skills involve a series of propositions. The acceptance of a new opinion (and hence attitude formation) is dependent upon the incentives that are offered in the communication.

Heider (1958) developed a balance theory of attitude change that was influenced by Gestalt principles. In Heider's theory, when beliefs are unbalanced, stress is created and there is pressure to change attitudes. The two main factors affecting balance are the sentiment (e.g., liking, approving, admiring) and unity (e.g., similarity, proximity, membership) qualities of beliefs. Balance exists if the sentiment or unity between beliefs about events or people are equally positive or negative; imbalance occurs when they are dissimilar in nature.

Festinger's theory of cognitive dissonance is one of the best known and most researched frameworks pertaining to attitude change. According to this theory, attitude change is caused by conflict among beliefs. A number of factors determine the strength of the dissonance and hence how much effort is required to change attitudes. By manipulating these factors, attitude change can be facilitated or inhibited.

2.2. Learning as a process

How do people learn in a process?

Asking people direct questions about how they learn leads towards four primary processes being involved, in an overlapping way. These can be summarised as follows:

- wanting to learn (motivation, thirst for knowledge);
- learning by doing (practice, trial and error, getting one's hands dirty);
- learning from feedback (other people's comments, seeing the results);
- digesting (making sense of what has been learned; getting a grip on it).

Asking people further questions about where and when they learn (Race, 1994) reveals that most people consider they learn best as follows:

- at their own pace;
- at times and places of their own choosing;
- often with other people around, especially fellow-learners;
- when they feel in control of their learning.

Phil Race (1994): The Open Learning Handbook

Jehana's theory (1987) in Learning Process

The learning process can be examined as a three-tiered model (remembering that, as always, the map is almost always not the territory). The three tiers I shall examine are:

1. Absorption
2. Integration
3. Expression

For any reasonable approximation of full and complete learning to have occurred, all three stages are necessary. One might argue that there are different types of learning, and that each of these types have their own requirements; or that science must

be learned differently than philosophy, but I think there are fundamental similarities governing the learning of all types of things - the emphasis and mechanisms may change, but the underlying principles apparently remain.

Absorption is the act of taking the external and bringing it into the internal. Absorption may involve the cramming of information for final exams; it may involve the day-to-day experiences of life; it may involve the shattering emotional impact of traumas. However, this emotional impact is not reacted to at this stage of the learning process. Absorption is the coming aware of information, whether for short or long term, from the whole body of constant information bombarding the physical senses at all times. Not all that is witnessed or studied becomes absorbed - the human mind needs a filtering agent.

Integration is an internal process, where the knowledge recently gained is integrated with what is already in the mind. No mind ever starts out as a vacuum, despite the efforts of generic television to assume this. Not all that is absorbed is integrated - that which falls into short-term memory is not; nor is material that is studied simply to know for the knowing's sake. A deep and thorough internal integration of material is not necessary in all fields of study, although to some extent this takes place in all devotees of a subject, whether it be mathematics, engineering, art, or philosophy. This integration leaves its touches upon the person, and will affect his/her filtering for material to absorb in the future. Be advised that some integration is voluntary; while other integration is involuntary. The actual process of integration bears no relation to what Other People Are Doing (although one may integrate a dependency upon others, for instance). A conscious awareness of integration is fostered in the study of certain religious paths (such as the Craft) and in many of the philosophies, as well as in many of the arts. The necessity for the stage of integration is one reason why the learning of anything of internal value generally takes time - there are no Instant Philosophies which work.

Expression is essential for communication. It is a step shallowly expressed in the regurgitation of information on a quickly-studied exam, but when dealing with philosophy, art, or livelihood, it should be of more durable quality - in other words, expression should be tempered with the fires of Integration. Expression may be involuntary (the fright reaction from a phobia), or it may be voluntary - but the most fervent Expression is rooted within the internal regions of the being, and is not the shallow sort of expression related to acting the way other people expect you to act; for simply the purpose of scratching that itch of satisfaction (gaining or giving satisfaction). The most useful forms of Expression occur in taking that information which one has both Absorbed and Integrated, and then Expressing it. However, needless to say, some forms of Expression (ie, phobias) may be well-integrated and absorbed, but are counterproductive to happiness. The true conscious learner must therefore take a hand in what he/she decides to learn/unlearn (the steps involved in the process of Unlearning are the same as those in the process of Learning).

Absorption and Expression without Integration is mindless and empty reading/living. One may as well be a parrot. Absorption and Integration without Expression is hypocritical and/or schizophrenic.

Integration and Expression without Absorption permits no external influences to have any bearing on thought - one may as well be autistic.

Expression without Absorption encourages fallacies, untruths, and easy answers.

All portions of the Absorption, Integration, and Expression cycle are necessary for true learning to take place. While much of the current school system as set up in today's society emphasizes the Absorption and the Expression stages, leaving the Integration process to be assumed, children still do grow up learning to emulate and integrate the values that impinge upon them. (Not all these values are necessarily beneficial - the learning process does not always rely on those values externally professed, but does pick up on those implied on a deeper level). Therefore, say, a geography lesson need not be Integrated within the participant, as a study of values or personal transformation should most definitely be. A learner has, through life experiences, already Integrated a system of functioning; of viewing the world. (Indeed, the participant may have Integrated a varying set of systems - this often leads to internal conflicts, which really should be resolved. Within certain alternative Philosophies, Integration of other ways of viewing the world and the person is done in a more purposeful manner. The participant learns that true learning is not in rote memorization but in the acceptance and the working with of all three stages of learning. Also, the participant learns to realize that Integration is a personal stage, where in the information absorbed interacts with that he/she has already Integrated during life - therefore this Integration may definitely not resemble the Integration process of another participant in the same course. Nor should Expression be forced (at least when dealing with the momentous events of a life-philosophy - it should come from the heart - in other words, it should come from the Expression of the Absorption and the Integration the participant has undergone, rather than from what someone else has decreed to be Proper).

Psychologists have attempted to explain the learning process in various ways. For example:

Memorising

This enables individuals to recall material in the same form as it was originally learned.

Understanding

Understanding is an active mental process involving thoughts which link or group ideas together in a new way that makes sense to the individual.

Doing

This involves learning a procedure or process and then practising until the individual becomes skilful.

Rogers' theory on formalized learning process

- task - conscious or acquisition learning and learning - conscious

In the five categories that Säljö identified we can see learning appearing as a process - there is a concern with what happens when the learning takes place. In this way,

learning could be thought of as 'a process by which behaviour changes as a result of experience' (Maples and Webster 1980 quoted in Merriam and Caffarella 1991).

One of the significant questions that arises is the extent to which people are conscious of what is going on. Are they aware that they are engaged in learning - and what significance does it have if they are? Such questions have appeared in various guises over the years - and have surfaced, for example, in debates around the rather confusing notion of 'informal learning'.

One particularly helpful way of approaching the area has been formulated by Alan Rogers (2003). Drawing especially on the work of those who study the learning of language (for example, Krashen 1982), Rogers sets out two contrasting approaches: task-conscious or acquisition learning and learning-conscious or formalized learning.

Task-conscious or acquisition learning.

Acquisition learning is seen as going on all the time. It is 'concrete, immediate and confined to a specific activity; it is not concerned with general principles' (Rogers 2003). Examples include much of the learning involved in parenting or with running a home. Some have referred to this kind of learning as unconscious or implicit. Rogers (2003: 21), however, suggests that it might be better to speak of it as having a consciousness of the task. In other words, whilst the learner may not be conscious of learning, they are usually aware of the specific task in hand.

Learning-conscious or formalized learning.

Formalized learning arises from the process of facilitating learning. It is 'educative learning' rather than the accumulation of experience. To this extent there is a consciousness of learning - people are aware that the task they are engaged in entails learning. 'Learning itself is the task. What formalized learning does is to make learning more conscious in order to enhance it' (Rogers 2003). It involves guided episodes of learning.

When approached in this way it becomes clear that these contrasting ways of learning can appear in the same context. Both are present in schools. Both are present in families. It is possible to think of the mix of acquisition and formalized learning as forming a continuum.

At one extreme lie those unintentional and usually accidental learning events which occur continuously as we walk through life. Next comes incidental learning - unconscious learning through acquisition methods which occurs in the course of some other activity.

Then there are various activities in which we are somewhat more more conscious of learning, experiential activities arising from immediate life-related concerns, though even here the focus is still on the task. Then come more purposeful activities - occasions where we set out to learn something in a more systematic way, using whatever comes to hand for that purpose, but often deliberately disregarding engagement with teachers and formal institutions of learning.

Further along the continuum lie the self-directed learning projects on which there is so much literature. More formalized and generalized (and consequently less contextualized) forms of learning are the distance and open education programmes, where some elements of acquisition learning are often built into the designed learning programme. Towards the further extreme lie more formalized learning programmes of highly decontextualized learning, using material common to all the learners without paying any regard to their individual preferences, agendas or needs. There are of course no clear boundaries between each of these categories. (Rogers 2003)

This distinction is echoed in different ways in the writings of many of those concerned with education - but in particular in key theorists such as Kurt Lewin, Chris Argyris, Donald Schön, or Michael Polanyi.

Conscious competence learning model

Stages of learning - unconscious incompetence to unconscious competence

Here is the 'conscious competence' learning model or matrix. No-one seems to know for sure who originated it (if you do, please contact us - see the note below about possible origins). The simple conscious competence model explains the process and stages of learning a new skill (or behaviour, ability, technique, etc.) It is most commonly known as the 'conscious competence learning model', sometimes 'conscious competence ladder' or 'conscious competence matrix', although other descriptions are used, and occasionally a fifth stage or level is added in more recent adapted versions. The conscious competence model is a useful reminder of the need to learn, and train others, in stages.

The learner or trainee always begins at stage 1 - 'unconscious incompetence', and ends at stage 4 - 'unconscious competence', having passed through stage 2 - 'conscious incompetence' and - 3 'conscious competence'.

Teachers and trainers commonly assume trainees to be at stage 2, and focus effort towards achieving stage 3, when often trainees are still at stage 1. The trainer assumes the trainee is aware of the skill existence, nature, relevance, deficiency, and benefit offered from the acquisition of the new skill. Whereas trainees at stage 1 - unconscious incompetence - have none of these things in place, and will not be able to address achieving conscious competence until they've become consciously and fully aware of their own incompetence. This is a fundamental reason for the failure of a lot of training and teaching.

If the awareness of skill and deficiency is low or non-existent - ie., the learner is at the unconscious incompetence stage - the trainee or learner will simply not see the need for learning. It's essential to establish awareness of a weakness or training need (conscious incompetence) prior to attempting to impart or arrange training or skills necessary to move trainees from stage 2 to 3.

People only respond to training when they are aware of their own need for it, and the personal benefit they will derive from achieving it.

Conscious competence learning matrix

The progression is from quadrant 1 through 2 and 3 to 4. It is not possible to jump stages. For some skills, especially advanced ones, people can regress to previous stages, particularly from 4 to 3, or from 3 to 2, if they fail to practise and exercise their new skills. A person regressing from 4, back through 3, to 2, will need to develop again through 3 to achieve stage 4 - unconscious competence again.

For certain skills in certain roles stage 3 conscious competence is perfectly adequate.

Progression from stage to stage is often accompanied by a feeling of awakening - 'the penny drops' - things 'click' into place for the learner - the person feels like they've made a big step forward, which of course they have.

Certain brain (personality) types favour certain skills (see for example the Benziger theory). We each possess natural strengths and preferences. We each therefore find progression to stage 3, and particularly to stage 4, easier in some skills rather than in others. Some people will resist progression even to stage 2, because they refuse to acknowledge or accept the relevance and benefit of a particular skill or ability. In these cases it's obviously not too clever to attempt to progress the person to stage 3. Instead find the person a more suitable role, or allow an adapted approach to the current role if appropriate and viable.

People develop competence only after they recognise the relevance of their own incompetence in the skill concerned.

	<i>Competence</i>	<i>Incompetence</i>
<i>Conscious</i>	3 - Conscious Competence <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - the person achieves 'conscious competence' in a skill when they can perform it reliably at will - the person will need to concentrate and think in order to perform the skill - the person can perform the skill without assistance - the person will not reliably perform the skill unless thinking about it - the skill is not yet 'second nature' or 'automatic' - the person should be able to demonstrate the skill to another, but is unlikely to be able to teach it well to another person - the person should ideally continue to practise the new skill, and if appropriate commit to becoming 'unconsciously competent' at the new skill - practise is the single most effective way to move from stage 3 to 4 	2 - conscious incompetence <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - the person becomes aware of the existence and relevance of the skill - the person is therefore also aware of their deficiency in this area, ideally by attempting or trying to use the skill - the person realises that by improving their skill or ability in this area their effectiveness will improve - ideally the person has a measure of the extent of their deficiency in the relevant skill, and a measure of what level of skill is required for their own competence - the person ideally makes a commitment to learn and practice the new skill, and to move to the 'conscious competence' stage
<i>Unconscious</i>	4 - unconscious competence <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - the skill becomes so practised that it enters the unconscious parts of the brain - it becomes 'second nature' - common examples are driving, sports activities, typing, manual dexterity tasks, listening and communicating - it becomes possible for certain skills to be performed while doing something else, for example, knitting while reading a book - the person might now be able to teach others in the skill concerned, although after some time of being unconsciously competent the person might actually have difficulty in explaining exactly how they do it - the skill has become largely instinctual - this arguably gives rise to the need for long-standing unconscious competence to be checked periodically against new standards 	1 - unconscious incompetence <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - the person is not aware of the existence or relevance of the skill area - the person is not aware that they have a particular deficiency in the area concerned - the person might deny the relevance or usefulness of the new skill - the person must become conscious of their incompetence before development of the new skill or learning can begin - the aim of the trainee or learner and the trainer or teacher is to move the person into the 'conscious competence' stage, by demonstrating the skill or ability and the benefit that it will bring to the person's effectiveness

Suggested fifth stage of conscious competence model

As with many simple and effective models, attempts have been made to add to the conscious competence model, notably a fifth stage, normally represented as:

- 'Conscious competence of unconscious competence', which describes a person's ability to recognise and develop unconscious incompetence in others.

Personally I think this is a development in a different direction: ability to recognise and develop skill deficiencies in others involves a new skill set altogether, far outside of an extension of the unconscious competence stage of any particular skill. As already mentioned, there are plenty of people who become so instinctual at a particular skill that they forget the theory - because they no longer need it - and as such make worse teachers than someone who has good ability at the conscious competence stage.

It is not clear who originated the conscious competence learning model. As well as various modern authors, sources as old as Confucius and Socrates are cited as possible originators.

Many people compare the Conscious Competence model with Ingham and Luft's Johari Window, which is a similarly elegant 2x2 matrix. Johari deals with self-awareness; Conscious Competence with learning stages. The models are different, and Ingham and Luft most certainly were not responsible for Conscious Competence.

Some know the conscious competence matrix better as the 'conscious competence learning ladder', and I've received a specific suggestion that the learning model was originated in this 'ladder' form by someone called Kogg; however, this is where that particular trail starts and ends; unless you know better...

There are various references to the ancient Oriental proverb, which inverts the order of the highest two states:

- He who knows not, and knows not that he knows not, is a fool - shun him, (= Unconscious Incompetent)
- He who knows not, and knows that he knows not is ignorant - teach him, (= Conscious Incompetent)
- He who knows, and knows not that he knows, is asleep - wake him, (= Unconscious Competent)
- But he who knows, and knows that he knows, is a wise man - follow him, (= Conscious Competent)

This is similar to the Conscious Competence model, but not the same. It is expressing a different perspective.

Other ideas on change and learning process

Reynold's model of developing competence

The learner passes through stages, each prompting a release of energy:

- help!
- have a go
- hit and miss
- sound
- relative mastery

- second nature
(adapted by James Atherton)

Change equation

Various interpretations exist. The basic idea is that people will only change when: the combination of the desire for change, the vision of the change, and the knowledge of the change process is greater than the value of leaving things as they are.

This can alternatively be expressed as dissatisfaction + vision + change process = the cost of change (Managing Complex Change, Beckhard and Harris, 1987).

John Fisher's process of personal change

A more complex model involving positive and negative change options:

- anxiety (can I deal with this change that I'm facing) - potentially leading negatively to denial
- happiness (something's going to change)
- fear (of imminent personal change)
- threat (from reactions of others to the new 'me') - potentially leading to disillusionment
- guilt (for previous behaviour) - potentially leading negatively to depression and thereafter hostility
- gradual acceptance (I can see myself in the future)
- moving forward (this can work and be good)

2.3 Learning as a function

Conditions/factors whose function help producing learning:

Feedback/Reinforcement

Feedback and reinforcement are two of the most pivotal concepts in learning. Feedback involves providing learners with information about their responses whereas reinforcement affects the tendency to make a specific response again. Feedback is almost always considered external while reinforcement can be external or intrinsic (i.e., generated by the individual).

Information processing theories tend to emphasize the importance of feedback to learning since knowledge of results is necessary to correct mistakes and develop new plans. On the other hand, behavioral theories such as Hull, Guthrie, Thorndike, and Skinner focus on the role of reinforcement in motivating the individual to behave in certain ways. One of the critical variables in both cases is the length of time between the response and the feedback or reinforcement. In general, the more immediate the feedback or reinforcement, the more learning is facilitated.

The nature of the feedback or reinforcement provided was the basis for many early instructional principles, especially in the context of programmed instruction (e.g., Deterline, 1962; Markle, 1964). For example, the use of "prompting" (i.e., providing

hints) was recommended in order to "shape" (i.e., selectively reinforce) the correct responses. Other principles concerned the choice of an appropriate "step size" (i.e., how much information to present at once) and how often feedback or reinforcement should be provided.

Learning Strategies

Learning strategies refer to methods that students use to learn. This ranges from techniques for improved memory to better studying or test-taking strategies. For example, the method of loci is a classic memory improvement technique; it involves making associations between facts to be remembered and particular locations. In order to remember something, you simply visualize places and the associated facts.

Some learning strategies involve changes to the design of instruction. For example, the use of questions before, during or after instruction has been shown to increase the degree of learning (see Ausubel). Methods that attempt to increase the degree of learning that occurs have been called "mathemagenic" (Ropthkopf, 1970).

A typical study skill program is which suggests 5 steps: (1) survey the material to be learned, (2) develop questions about the material, (3) read the material, (4) recall the key ideas, and (5) review the material.

Attention

Attention is a major topic of study in psychology and is closely related to the subject of consciousness which was the principal focus of the early psychologists such as Wilhelm Wundt and William James.

In 1958, Broadbent proposed his filter theory which specified that we could only attend to one input at a time. The theory suggested that stimuli can be filtered based upon physical attributes, prior to full processing by the perceptual system. Filter theory proposed that attention was a limited capacity channel that determined the serial processing of the perceptual system.

Filter theory did not allow for the influence of long-term memory or meaning of the stimulus. However, studies showed that semantic characteristics of the stimulus did affect attention. Theories proposed by Deutsch & Deutsch (1963) and Norman (1968) suggested that all inputs are analyzed but only pertinent stimuli were attended to. Neisser (1967) outlined a two-process theory that made attention (and hence consciousness) a matter of degree. According to Neisser's theory, both properties of the stimuli as well as semantic factors, play a role in attention. Neisser argues for a constructive view of cognition in which perception is shaped by existing knowledge and hence attention is influenced by experience.

Kahneman (1973) introduced a model of attention that introduces the idea of deliberate allocation. The model suggests that in addition to unconscious processes, attention can be consciously focused (such as when someone mentions our name). The model also introduces the idea of attention as a skill that can be improved (i.e., as a learning strategy). In his Conditions of Learning theory, Gagne suggests that gaining

the attention of the student is the first step in successful instruction.

Eysenck (1982) examines the relationship between attention and arousal. He concludes that there are two types of arousal: a passive and general system that can raise or lower the overall level of attention, and a specific, compensatory system that allows attention to be focused on certain task or environmental stimuli.

Motivation

Motivation is a pivotal concept in most theories of learning. It is closely related to arousal, attention, anxiety, and feedback/reinforcement. For example, a person needs to be motivated enough to pay attention while learning; anxiety can decrease our motivation to learn. Receiving a reward or feedback for an action usually increases the likelihood that the action will be repeated. Weiner (1990) points out that behavioral theories tended to focus on extrinsic motivation (i.e., rewards) while cognitive theories deal with intrinsic motivation (i.e., goals) .

In most forms of behaviorial theory, motivation was strictly a function of primary drives such as hunger, sex, sleep, or comfort. According to Hull's drive reduction theory, learning reduces drives and therefore motivation is essential to learning. The degree of the learning achieved can be manipulated by the strength of the drive and its underlying motivation. In Tolman's theory of purposive behaviorism, primary drives create internal states (i.e., wants or needs) that serve as secondary drives and represent intrinsic motivation.

In cognitive theory, motivation serves to create intentions and goal-seeking acts (see Ames & Ames, 1989). One well-developed area of research highly relevant to learning is achievement motivation (e.g., Atkinson & Raynor, 1974; Weiner). Motivation to achieve is a function of the individual's desire for success, the expectancy of success, and the incentives provided. Studies show that in general people prefer tasks of intermediate difficulty. In addition, students with a high need to achieve, obtain better grades in courses which they perceive as highly relevant to their career goals. On the other hand, according to Rogers, all individuals have a drive to self-actualize and this motivates learning.

Malone (1981) presented a theoretical framework for intrinsic motivation in the context of designing computer games for instruction. Malone argues that intrinsic motivation is created by three qualities: challenge, fantasy, and curiosity. Challenge depends upon activities that involve uncertain outcomes due to variable levels, hidden information or randomness. Fantasy should depend upon skills required for the instruction. Curiosity can be aroused when learners believe their knowledge structures are incomplete, inconsistent, or unparsimonious. According to Malone, intrinsically motivating activities provide learners with a broad range of challenge, concrete feedback, and clear-cut criteria for performance.

Keller (1983) presents an instructional design model for motivation that is based upon a number of other theories. His model suggests a design strategy that encompasses four components of motivation: arousing interest, creating relevance, developing an

expectancy of success, and producing satisfaction through intrinsic/extrinsic rewards.

Creativity

There have been many different approaches to the study of creativity. The relationship between creativity and intelligence has been always been a central concern of psychology (Guilford, 1950). Much effort has been devoted towards the measurement of creative potential (e.g. Guilford, 1989; Torrance, 1979). There have also been many attempts to increase creative behaviors (e.g., Osborn, 1953; Parnes, 1967). Taylor & Williams (1966) provides a survey of the relationship between creativity and instruction.

While there are many views about the nature of creativity (see Sternberg, 1988; Finke, Ward & Smith, 1992), there is some agreement that the creative process involves the application of past experiences or ideas in novel ways. The Creative Problem Solving (CPS) Model, based upon the work of Osborn and Parnes, suggests that the creative process involves five major steps: fact-finding, problem-finding, idea-finding, solution-finding, and acceptance-finding (VanGundy, 1987). Certain cognitive skills seem to underlie creative behavior such as: fluency, flexibility, visualization, imagination, expressiveness, and openness (resistance to closure). These skills may be personality characteristics, they may be learned, or they may be situational. There is also general acknowledgement that social processes play a major role in the recognition of creativity (Amabile, 1983).

3. Developing Skills for Effective Learning at Adults

Often the adult's biggest fear is that of not being able to learn anymore. He must remember that FEAR is False Evidence that Appears Real

Often he is entirely occupied with his function and he cannot easily feel his knowledge is outdated. He cannot then develop a deep anxiety if he feels that he has a lot of catching up to do. Especially if the course is based only on theory and deals with abstract concepts rather than concrete experience.

Selective exposition, selective distortion and selective retention amplifies with age. Therefore, in the adult, learning is acquired more and more through experience.

Adults also prefer ready made formulas, that is the pattern that their brain recognizes. Adults need to integrate new learning experiences within the whole of their current knowledge structure. They will be better able to learn if the facilitator links the ideas, concepts to their own experience.

3.1 Characteristics of Adult Learners

1. Their self-concept moves from being a dependent personality toward one of being a self-directing person.

Dirkx and Lavin (1995) suggest that this could also mean that the adult learner will:

- (a) tend to be voluntary learners.
 - (b) believe the decision to return to education is an important one
 - (c) believe that education will be beneficial.
2. They accumulate a growing reservoir of experience that becomes a foundation and a resource in their learning.

But it must be noted that adult learners in any learning environment will:

- (a) vary widely in age, ability, work experiences, cultural background, and personal goals;
 - (b) range in educational backgrounds and
 - (c) carry well-developed personal identities.
3. Their readiness to learn becomes increasingly oriented to the developmental tasks of their social roles.

Dirkx and Lavin (1995) suggest that this could also mean that the adult learner will:

- (a) tend to be a pragmatic learner
 - (b) study to improve their performance in other social roles.
 - (c) let their taskwork take a back seat to other responsibilities, such as jobs and families.
 - (d) expect their group time to be well spent.
 - (e) hope their courses will help them solve problems in their daily lives.
4. Their time perspective changes, they need to see the immediate application of the knowledge not a future use or application of the knowledge.
 5. Their reason to learn changes from external motivators to internal motivators. They move from learning about a subject to learning how to learn and solve problems

Assumptions about Adult Learning

- Adults need to know why they need to learn something
- 2. Adults need to learn experientially
- 3. Adults approach learning as problem-solving
- 4. Adults learn best when the topic is of immediate value.
- 5. Adult view learning is an active process in the construction of meaning

3.2 Developing learning skills

A common misconception is that learning skills and study skills are the same thing. They are not – for one thing, learning skills are much broader, as learning is much broader than studying. People need to be able to learn from a wide range of situations and sources (e.g. from their peers, and from actual experience), many of which cannot be termed ‘study’ situations.

The development of learning skills deliberately seeks to improve the learners’ ability to make use of *learning opportunities*, in addition to aiding the acquisition of

vocational skills and/or knowledge. These ‘learning opportunities’ can be both formal and informal, off the job and on the job. If anything, we are seeing a shift away from formal and off-the-job learning, to informal, on-the-job learning.

Until now, a major problem with on-the-job learning is that it is often less predictable and less efficient. However, a skilled learner has the ability and confidence to first *recognise* a situation as a learning opportunity, and then to make *maximum use* of it.

Examples of learning skills are: forming a concept by comparing pieces of data; establishing relationships; predicting the outcome; using an association; solving a problem; reviewing reasons for mistakes; breaking tasks down into ‘chunks’; effective practice and repetition; asking for and using feedback, and many more. Once a person has learned one of these, s/he is able to *apply* or *transfer* the skill to other situations or people.

Some learning skills relate to *conceptual* learning; others relate to the learning of *facts*, or *physical skills*. The key is to know

Why are learning skills important?

- The rate of change implies the need for *lifelong learning*.
- Both *shaping* and *adapting* to change are themselves learning skills.
- Changes in the *nature of work* require greater conceptual understanding.
- Cost pressures are forcing organisations to seek alternatives to formal training. This means *more learning on the job* from peers, subordinates and bosses, often in less-than-ideal circumstances. This in turn places more importance on individual responsibility for learning.

In summary, the changing nature of organisations and current constraints are demanding that people adopt a different approach to learning. The education system is not meeting this need, being particularly inadequate in the development of conceptual learning skills. It is therefore by and large up to commerce and industry to meet these needs for themselves.

How can learning skills be developed?

The development of learning skills involves making the learner *aware* or *conscious* of something beyond the content of the immediate learning material. That is, to *think about thinking and learning*. Furthermore, to make conscious (and later unconscious) decisions about *how* to find out, or learn. Consciousness about learning as a *process* is the critical first step in developing learning skills since, once someone has this awareness, a number of things can follow.

For example, s/he could:

- change the way s/he currently approaches a learning situation, if necessary,
- build on her/his existing learning skills,
- transfer learning skills from one situation to another,
- help others to develop learning skills too.

There are many techniques to improve memory skills, but developing *understanding* skills is much more difficult. Early work by Sylvia Downs with adult electronics trainees has shown that learners who were shown how to use ‘keys to understanding’ (a framework for asking questions designed to act as triggers to generate ideas)

displayed the following characteristics:

- the *number of concepts* developed on a topic unrelated to electronics was significantly greater than that developed by the control group.
- the quality was higher, as the experimental group used *broader concepts*, whilst the control group relied more on specific instances.
- The experimental group were able to think in *more abstract terms* than the control group.

A further result was that the experimental group was able to *ask better questions* and demonstrated *improved communication and social interaction*.

This was also found in work done in South Africa: a multiracial group of apprentices were given a basic course in learning skills, and both qualitative and quantitative ('before and after') measures were taken. Key findings were:

- an average increase in the number of 'ways of learning' of almost 20%. The *number of understanding strategies* (used by more than 50%) had risen from one to four.
- The *average training time* for the group who had been through the learning skills program was 12% faster than a previous, similar group who had not been through the program.
- Comments from the *trainers* after the course included:
 - they (the learners) ask the instructor more questions,
 - the stronger guys help the weaker guys,
 - the program has saved me three weeks of training time.
- The *learners* said they had learned:
 - how to ask the right questions,
 - that others have similar problems and fears,
 - not to be scared to ask questions,
 - how to go about learning from others,
 - not to learn everything parrot-fashion;
 - to pay more attention to a demonstration: "Before, I wouldn't have thought to ask about potential problems – now I do."

Whose responsibility?

Learning skills are not innate. They both can and need to be developed for the benefit of organisations and the people who work in them.

Trainers, managers and learners all have a part to play in the development of learning skills. Learning skills should be further developed and supported by formal training and on-the-job coaching. Unless this is done, the learner still leans on the trainer and does not own the very skills that s/he should be both understanding and developing.

Skills involved in effective learning behaviour

Alan Mumford has devised the following list of skills which he believes to be involved in learning effectively:

The ability to establish effectiveness criteria for yourself.

The ability to measure your effectiveness.

The ability to identify your own learning needs.

The ability to plan personal learning.
The ability to take advantage of learning opportunities.
The ability to manage your own learning processes.
The ability to listen to others.
The capacity to accept help.
The ability to face unwelcome information.
The ability to take risks and tolerate anxiety.
The ability to analyse what other successful performers do.
The ability to know yourself.
The ability to share information with others.
The ability to review what has been learnt.

3.3 Group Learning

The Group members with whom you will be working will be encountering a number of different learning situations. It is obviously in your interest to learn as much as you possibly can from your participants, if you want to improve your learning effectiveness.

But not all course participants will get the same benefit out of the same learning situation. You have almost certainly, at some time during your career, been on a safety training course with a group of fellow practitioners, all with similar amounts of experience and a desire to learn as much as they could from it. At the end of the course, some of them probably thought that it was most enjoyable and extremely useful, while others thought it a complete waste of time. How could this possibly be, since they all went through exactly the same programme?

A large part of the answer lies in the fact that different people have different ways of learning, ways that seem more natural to them, ways that they prefer. This means that some types of learning experience suit them better than others. If a course offers them plenty of their preferred type of experience, then they are likely to enjoy it and to learn a lot from it. If not, then it may well turn out to be, for them, a complete waste of time.

Group members will benefit greatly from understanding that different people have different ways of learning, not least because it will explain some of their previous failures - and successes. At the start of their postgraduate studies, they will spend a significant amount of time studying how people learn. To be an effective learner, you must also understand how people learn. If you understand that there are different types of learner, you will be better able to help each other to get maximum benefit from the programme. You can do this by providing, where possible, different types of learning opportunity within workshops and tutorial.

By understanding that each member has a preferred learning style, and finding out what it is, you will be in a better position to understand the strengths and weaknesses of Group members with different styles from your own. You will also understand why they respond to you as they do. The person who never looks enthusiastic and never

seems to want to speak may be learning just as much as the others, but may simply be a "Reflector", who does not wish to commit him or herself too hurriedly.

4. Resistance and blockages to learning

4.1 Resistance to learning

Resistance to learning is a phenomenon well-known to most tutors and trainers of adults, but has received remarkably little attention in the literature. The article is based on an interview-based study carried out on participants on in-service training programmes in social services, intended to explore the nature and extent of such resistance. A contrast is drawn between additive and supplantive learning, and it is suggested that resistance is more likely to the latter, because of its accompanying element of loss. Attention is drawn to the similarity of presentation of situational and ulterior resistance, and it is suggested that the latter broadly follows the pattern of crisis suggested by Caplan (1964), among others.

What is directly observable at a large scale is simply that some people fail assessments on a course or that in an organisational context, a training programme fails to deliver the change expected of it. At this level, the explanation is usually sought in the design or delivery of the programme, or in the selection procedures for it.

At a smaller scale, experienced tutors and trainers of adults are also familiar with individual learners who continually raise objections to the material being offered, or who conspicuously fail to perform as might have been expected in exercises and assessments. At this level, their behaviour is most commonly explained in terms of lack of motivation, ability or aptitude.

There can be no doubt that in many cases these explanations, whether organisational or personal, are correct. They are not, however, exhaustive. Most failures to learn are products of a number of interacting variables, and it is submitted that a degree of personal resistance is a factor to be considered alongside the others. The research suggests, moreover, that, it is very prevalent, and that it is different in kind from lack of motivation. One of its manifestations is indeed quite likely to be a reduction in motivation, suggested by lateness or absence from sessions, or a reduction in participation in group exercises and discussions, but this is construed here as a particular expression of a more general pattern.

It must be conceded that because of the coexistence of all these factors, the research is muddy, and open to criticism on a number of counts: it will be argued that there is nevertheless sufficient evidence to take the issue seriously as a likely component of many educational and training programmes.

The focus of this study is on adult learners with established ideas and practices, but the evidence suggests that the findings are applicable also to other groups, including undergraduates. In particular, this discussion may illuminate the otherwise puzzling finding of Ramsden et al (1986) that study skills training for first-year surface-learning undergraduates succeeded only in making their surface-learning strategies more sophisticated, rather than developing deep-learning strategies.

After extensive consultation with current and former learners, tutors, and training officers among others, it was hypothesised that resistance is itself symptomatic of a situation where the learning is experienced as supplantive rather than additive. These qualities are not the attributes of the material to be learned, but aspects of the experience of the learner the product of the interaction between the learner and material. Most learning, even in the case of adults, involves simply adding to ones stock of knowledge or skill, hence the label additive. The single most defining characteristic of resisted learning, however, is its supplantive nature, in that the material replaces or threatens knowledge or skills which have already been acquired. [In earlier accounts, the present author used the terms threatening learning (Atherton, 1986), and traumatic learning (Atherton, 1991): the present terminology has been adopted because it was felt that the previous terms focused too much on the emotional components of the process. Important though these are, the cognitive component also deserves attention.] It is not surprising that supplantive learning should be resisted.

The whole literature of cognitive dissonance research, from Festinger (1957) onwards, is consistent with this idea. In a therapeutic and educational context, Rogers (1951) anticipated Festingers work when he noted that:

“Experience which, if assimilated, would involve a change in the organization of self tends to be resisted through denial or distortion of symbolization.” (Rogers, 1951, p. 390)

If anything, however, the present research suggests that Rogerss criterion was too strict. In the cases of a number of interviewees, the threat posed by the learning seemed to the outsider to be relatively trivial, although it probably remains true to say that the greater the emotional investment in beliefs or practices, the greater the disturbance caused by efforts to change them. In the case of the undergraduates studied by Ramsden (1986), it has been argued that the main motivation for surface-learning lies in fear of failure (Biggs, 1987). Surface-learning worked for these learners. The fact that deep-learning strategies would work better is not to the point: it is submitted that they were being asked to give up an effective survival tactic in favour of an experientially unproven one and hence, confronted with the possibility of the failure they feared. Seen from this perspective it is not surprising that the learning was resisted. However, it is this feature of apparent triviality which makes supplantive learning difficult to investigate. Although there were occasions studied when it might be expected that all members of a course would experience the content as threatening (such as the particularly politically correct short course on anti-racist practice in social care), it was more common to find that different people found different elements of the programmes studied threatening in quite different ways. It proved impossible to develop standardised instruments to assess the impact of, and resistance engendered by, different elements of the programme material. Instead, it appeared that the issue had to be approached from the other end, starting from the

experience of learners and trying to connect their feelings with elements of the programmes.

Resistance to learning significantly reduce situational resistance and enhance the general learning but that sometimes served only to expose the underlying ulterior resistance.

4.2 Models of Change in resistance to learning

While attitude change has been the subject of much research among social psychologists, the question of the educational management of such change has received relatively little attention. The pioneer was clearly Kurt Lewin (Lewin & Grabbe, 1945), who identified three necessary stages, which he referred to as un-freezing, then the change process itself, and finally re-freezing, through which the new beliefs or behaviour were established and incorporated into normal living. While most theories of adult learning pay attention to the latter two stages, the un-freezing process is substantially ignored.

Knowles andragogy, for example, can be interpreted largely in terms of the reduction of situational resistance (Knowles, 1990), but the panoply of andragogic technique and values proves inadequate to the task of unfreezing and, indeed, the values of self-direction may render it an unacceptable intervention. There have of course been explorations of how the task has been undertaken in practice in a variety of settings.

Lifton (1961) discussed Chinese Communist brain-washing in terms of three stages of confrontation, re-ordering and renewal. Barker (1984), alongside other participants of cults, has identified the role of love-bombing in the context of residential events, as a means of softening candidates up for learning or indoctrination.

Mezirow (1978) suggests that alienation, as either a process or a state, is a precursor to perspective transformation in adult learning. Thomas & Harri-Augstein (1985) regard awareness of the old learning robot as a prerequisite of change. What all these have in common is an identification of a necessary process of de-stabilisation to open the potential learner up to the possibility of change. It is implicitly acknowledged in the literature that the management of de-stabilisation is the most difficult and most strongly resisted stage of the whole process, both technically and of course ethically. Once, the necessity of this first stage has been acknowledged, and supported by the experience, of the learners studied, useful parallels appear with other models of change, notably those based on managed change through rites of passage, and personal crisis theory.

Van Gennep (1960) noted that formal changes of personal status were marked by a three-stage process of separation from the previous status, a period of marginality, and re-integration into the community in the new status: interestingly, anthropological evidence suggests that this pattern is universal (La Fontaine, 1985). Campbell (1975) found parallels in the structure of quest myths, and Caplan (1964)

described a similar pattern occurring in people undergoing personal crises.

The depression and confusion experienced by people experiencing supplantive learning follows a very similar pattern to that of those passing through crises as Caplan describes them. Having been de-stabilised, they pass through a period of disorientation, from which they emerge to re-orientation. As Caplan suggests from his study of survivors of crises, however, the outcome is uncertain: psychological functioning may be severely diminished or significantly enhanced by the experience. In the same way, learners who enter the trough of disorientation may emerge beneficially changed, with new understandings and skills or they may forever be inoculated against trying to learn in that area again. Or, of course, anything in between.

In crisis, the destabilisation is forced: bereavement, unemployment or even winning the lottery hit one from outside and leave no alternative but to embark on the crisis journey. It would be a gross over-statement to suggest that just because it follows a similar pattern, supplantive learning is of a similar order of personal disruption: all that is being argued is that there is sufficient disorientation to hinder the processes of learning. Even so, there is another process alongside that of the emotional disorientation, which has to be managed even by the most committed supplantive learner.

The frustration of lack of skill or understanding is familiar to everyone: for the supplantive learner, the relative familiarity and mastery of the prior learning has to be given up in favour of the struggle up the learning curve from the bottom. The experience of a crisis similar to bereavement through which one is forced because there is no going back is replaced (again at a much smaller order of magnitude) with one more akin to divorce, where up to a point there is always the possibility of return.

Implications

If correct, this analysis confronts the tutor with two challenges:

First, Caplan and other crisis intervention theorists argue that there is more opportunity for effective intervention during a window of opportunity opened by the crisis experience, than at any other time before or after (Thompson, 1992). If therefore, the learner has been de-stabilised and is disoriented, the tutor can use this opportunity to promote learning.

However, the resistance is associated with the possibility of return to previous ways of working or understanding: there is a continuing need to hold out hope that it is all going to be worth it, to minimise the loss, and to protect the learner through the vulnerability of acquiring new skills and understanding, particularly when the practice environment may create pressures for return to the old ways. What is required is an approach which both stimulates change, and is prepared to work through the resistances, but also contains the loss experienced by the learner. There is no single recipe, and gifted teachers have always been able to achieve it, but it remains for better or for worse a rather hit-and-miss process. One important question is whether it ought not in fact to remain so: the issue of overcoming resistances to

learning raises serious debate about the nature and extent of the tutors authority and the rights of the learner.

4.3 Blockages to learning

Individuals sometimes find that their ability to learn is blocked for one or more reasons. The following list is based on the work of Temporal and Boydel. It includes some factors which we have already considered. The rest speak for themselves.

Perceptual

Not seeing that there is a problem

Cultural

The way things are here...

Emotional/

Fear or insecurity

Motivational

Unwillingness to take risks

Cognitive/

Previous learning experience

Intellectual

Limited learning style, Poor learning skills

Expressive

Poor communication skills

Situational

Lack of opportunities

Physical

Place, time

Specific

Boss / colleague unsupportive environment

5. Tips about Learning

5.1 The laws of Learning

Effective learning experiences have things in common - whether we are learning to drive a car, make bread, repair a car or read a simple sentence. As trainers, you'll need to be aware of what these things are and how you can use them to design successful lessons.

The Law of Doing

Participants don't learn as the result of what trainers do, but as the result of what trainers get them to do. This basic principle is equally important for participants and

trainers to understand. The student who expects to learn by simply sitting back and listening is likely to be disappointed. The trainer, on the other hand, who relies solely on the "I'll lecture, you listen" type of teaching is not likely to see much learning take place.

Why is this? Learning is a change - behavioral change in an individual. Behavioral changes don't truly become a part of a person until he has reinforced them through use. For example, a student can memorize the operation of a piece of equipment or a new word for his vocabulary. But he doesn't actually "learn" those things until he practices operating the equipment or using the new word. The student, in short, must be involved in the process of learning.

The Law of Effect

People tend to accept and repeat responses that are pleasant and satisfying, and to avoid those that are annoying. If an adult finds that he is learning to read and enjoying the process as well, he will tend to keep returning to class. In short, "nothing succeeds like success". Participants should experience personal satisfaction from each learning activity and should achieve some success in each class period.

The Law of Exercise

The more often an act is repeated, the more quickly a habit is established. Practice makes perfect - if the practice is the right kind. Practicing the wrong thing will become a habit too, one which is hard to break. The tutor should be sure that her participants are performing a skill correctly.

The Law of Primacy

First impressions are the most lasting. This means that those first lessons are all important. The tutor should arouse interest, provide subject matter that meets the participant's needs, and help him to learn it correctly the first time.

5.2 Conditions for successful learning in an adult

- He must be motivated to learn

The facilitator who is skillful in helping the participants realize what their needs are, is best positioned to help them satisfy these needs and instill a willingness to learn.

- He must agree with the objectives outlined for the course

The facilitator must therefore present the course objectives, have the participants express their expectations, match these with the course objectives and clarify any discrepancies.

- He needs to know what will happen.

The course leader must present the course outline, the working methodology and his own expectations regarding participation. He will also need to reinforce these periodically.

- He learns by participating actively and by bringing his own experience in that participation.

The leader should therefore favor role playing and group activities where individuals can bring this experience. The more an adult invests his ideas, his values and his personality, the better he learns. Therefore, the leader will favor practice over theory.

- He is more at ease in equal to equal relationships.

The leader should not pose as an expert, but rather as a facilitator or guide.

- He likes to deal with concrete situations.

Again, the facilitator will favor participation and activities.

- He needs to know the opinion of others.

Group activities allow exchanges of opinions and should be privileged. Facilitators should also provide frequent positive feedback. He needs to be listened to, understood and supported.

6. More information about learning

6.1 Reflective Practice in Adult Education.

Increasingly, the term reflective practice is appearing in the vocabulary of adult education. Based on the notion that skills cannot be acquired in isolation from context, the reflective practice movement has emerged as a reaction to technical and competency based strategies common in the 1970s (Rose 1992). First, the concept is defined, including its strengths and weaknesses. Then, the relevance of reflective practice to adult education is discussed. Suggested strategies for becoming more reflective in practice conclude the digest.

6.2 Reflective practice defined and described

Reflective practice is a mode that integrates or links thought and action with reflection. It involves thinking about and critically analyzing one's actions with the goal of improving one's professional practice. Engaging in reflective practice requires individuals to assume the perspective of an external observer in order to identify the assumptions and feelings underlying their practice and then to speculate about how these assumptions and feelings affect practice (Kottkamp 1990; Osterman 1990; Peters 1991). According to "[it] is a special kind of practice...[that] involves a systematic inquiry into the practice itself."

Educators have become familiar with the concept of reflective practice through Donald Schon's (1983, 1988) writings about reflective practitioners. Schon's work has an historical foundation in a tradition of learning supported by Dewey, Lewin, and Piaget, each of whom advocated that learning is dependent upon the integration of experience with reflection and of theory with practice. Although each argued that experience is the basis for learning, they also maintained that learning cannot take place without reflection. In reflective practice, reflection is the essential part of the learning process because it results in making sense of or extracting meaning from the experience (Osterman 1990).

According to Schon (1988), the stage is set for reflection when "knowing-in-action"-the sort of knowledge that professionals come to depend on to perform their work spontaneously - produces an unexpected outcome or surprise. This surprise can lead to one of two kinds of reflection: reflection on action, which occurs either following or by interrupting the activity, or reflection in action, which occurs during (without interrupting) the activity by thinking about how to reshape the activity while it is underway.

Kotkamp (1990) uses the terms "offline" and "online" to distinguish between reflection-on-action and reflection-in-action. Reflection-on-action takes place after the activity (i.e., offline), when full attention can be given to analysis without the necessity for immediate action and when there is opportunity for the professional to receive assistance from others in analyzing the event. Reflection-in-action, which occurs during the event, may be more effective in improving practice. It results in online experiments to adjust and improve actions even though it requires simultaneous attention to the behavior and the analysis as if from an external perspective. Schon (1983) states that when reflecting in action, a professional becomes a researcher in the context of practice, freed from established theory and techniques and able to construct a new theory to fit the unique situation.

Before professionals' theories or ideas about practice can be changed, they must be identified. However, in skillful knowing-in-action much of the "skillful action reveals a knowing more than we can say," a tacit knowledge (Schon 1983, p. 51). In other words, professionals are not able to describe what they do to accomplish an activity. However, Osterman (1990) maintains that an important part of reflective practice is developing the ability to articulate that tacit knowledge in order to share professional skills and enhance the body of professional knowledge.

The values, assumptions, and strategies supporting theories and ideas about practice need to be examined. If this clarification does not occur, professionals may find themselves in the position of espousing one theory but using another in practice, that is, their actions are not consistent with their intent. In reflective practice, professionals can expose their actions to critical assessment to discover the values and assumptions underlying their practice. As professionals become more aware of their theories-in-use, they become more conscious of the contradictions between what they do and what they hope to do (Osterman 1990; Schon 1988).

Reflective practice has both advantages and disadvantages. It can positively affect professional growth and development by leading to greater self-awareness, to the development of new knowledge about professional practice, and to a broader understanding of the problems that confront practitioners (Osterman 1990). However, it is a time-consuming process and it may involve personal risk because the questioning of practice requires that practitioners be open to an examination of beliefs, values, and feelings about which there may be great sensitivity (Peters 1991; Rose 1992).

Engaging in reflective practice requires both knowledge of practice and awareness of professional and personal philosophy. Reflection without an understanding of the rules or techniques that constitute good practice may lead to a repetition of mistakes, whereas reflection without philosophical awareness can lead to a preoccupation with technique (Lasley 1989). Schon (1988) suggests that professionals learn to reflect in action by first learning to recognize and apply standard practice rules and techniques, then to reason from general rules to problematic cases characteristic of the profession, and only then to develop and test new forms of understanding and action when familiar patterns of doing things fail.

6.3 The role of reflective practice in adult education

In adult education, as in most other professions, there are many prescriptions for effective practice, and professionals are perceived as having specialized expertise that they apply to problems in well-defined practice situations. In reality, however, adult education programs take place in settings that are characterized by a great deal of ambiguity, complexity, variety, and conflicting values that make unique demands on the adult educator's skills and knowledge. As a result, adult educators are constantly making choices about the nature of practice problems and how to solve them (Cervero 1988, 1989).

Cervero (1988) maintains that the essence of effective practice in adult education is the ability to reflect-in-action. Adult educators must be able to change ill-defined practice situations into those in which they are more certain about the most appropriate course of action to pursue. They must engage in reflective practice and use their "repertoire of past experiences ...to make sense of the current situation", conducting spontaneous experiments in order to decide on appropriate courses of action.

Reflective practice in adult education can also be a tool for revealing discrepancies between espoused theories (what we say we do) and theories-in-use (what we actually do). For example, the andragogical model and its four underlying assumptions has been widely adopted by adult educators with one result being the assumption that training adults should differ from teaching children and adolescents. However, a summary (Imel 1989) of research investigating these differences revealed that although teachers perceive adults as being different, these perceptions do not automatically translate into differences in approaches to teaching.

6.4 Strategies for reflective practice

Engaging in reflective practice takes time and effort but the rewards can be great. The following list summarizes reflective practice processes (Roth 1989):

- Questioning what, why, and how one does things and asking what, why, and how others do things:
- Seeking alternatives
- Keeping an open mind
- Comparing and contrasting
- Seeking the framework, theoretical basis, and/or underlying rationale
- Viewing from various perspectives
- Asking "what if...?"
- Asking for others' ideas and viewpoints
- Using prescriptive models only when adapted to the situation
- Considering consequences
- Hypothesizing
- Synthesizing and testing
- Seeking, identifying, and resolving problems

Fortunately, there are a number of resources available for those interested in developing habits of reflective practice. For example, Peters (1991,) describes a process called DATA that consists of four steps: describe, analyze, theorize, and act. First, the problem, task, or incident representing some critical aspect of practice that the practitioner desires to change is described. For example, a teacher may wish to become less directive and more collaborative in her instructional processes. In the DATA model, she would identify the context in which instruction takes place, how she feels about the directive approach, and reasons for changing it.

Next, through analysis, she would identify factors that contribute to her current directive approach. An important part of this stage is to identify the assumptions that support this approach and bring to light underlying beliefs, rules, and motives governing teaching and learning. Here, the teacher can uncover the theory behind her directive approach.

The third step of the DATA process involves theorizing about alternative ways of approaching teaching by taking the theory derived from the previous step and developing it into a new one. In this step, the teacher is developing an espoused theory to govern her new, collaborative approach.

Finally, she will act and try out her new theory. The goal of this step will be to minimize any discrepancies between the espoused theory and the theory in use, but this will only occur through further thought and reflection.

Additional sources that contain strategies to help adult educators become more reflective in practice are Brookfield's (1988) work on critical thinking and Mezirow's (1990) on fostering critical reflectivity. Although more general, Kottkamp (1990) also contains strategies for "sparking, facilitating, and sustaining reflection at various levels and preparatory stages of professional practice" (p. 182). These resources can help adult educators approach their practice in a reflective manner and deal more effectively with a field characterized by uncertainty, complexity, and variety.

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Nonformal education

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1. Educational systems and learning

1.1 What is Education?

Numerous definitions exist. Some of the older ones are some of the better ones. For me education means learning knowledge, skills, and attitudes. The most important of these is learning how to learn. Learning means deciding about your own lifestyle.

Teaching, by itself, does not constitute learning; neither does passive listening. Learners must decide to incorporate any knowledge, skill or attitude into their own set of values and behaviors (lifestyle), or the learning is not meaningful. Learning happens outside the classroom as well as within. Some learning results from teachers and some does not. Some learning is intended and some is accidental.

1.2 Education and learning

Usually, when referring to education, we refer to planned educational activities; there are activities which provide a framework and process for learning to take place. Learning stresses participants, their needs and interests – it refers to the cognitive process internal to the person undergoing the learning. Learning can occur incidentally and within planned educational activities. People learn in different ways. This recognition, and the ability to plan for it, is of particular importance for training in multicultural settings.

1.3 Conditions and educational environment for a proper learning

Pedagogy– The art and science of teaching learning

Andragogy- The art and science of helping adults learn (Knowles, 1970)

Andragogy (M. Knowles)

Knowles' theory of andragogy is an attempt to develop a theory specifically for adult learning. Knowles emphasizes that adults are self-directed and expect to take responsibility for decisions. Adult learning programs must accommodate this fundamental aspect.

Andragogy makes the following assumptions about the design of learning:

- 1) Adults need to know why they need to learn something
- 2) Adults need to learn experientially
- 3) Adults approach learning as problem-solving,
- 4) Adults learn best when the topic is of immediate value.

In practical terms, andragogy means that instruction for adults needs to focus more on the process and less on the content being taught. Strategies such as case studies, role playing, simulations, and self-evaluation are most useful. Instructors adopt a role of facilitator or resource rather than lecturer or grader.

Application of Andragogy

Andragogy applies to any form of adult learning and has been used extensively in the design of organizational training programs (especially for "soft skill" domains such as management development).

Example:

Knowles (1984) provides an example of applying andragogy principles to the design of personal computer training:

1. There is a need to explain why specific things are being taught (e.g., certain commands, functions, operations, etc.)
2. Instruction should be task - oriented instead of memorization - learning activities should be in the context of common tasks to be performed.
3. Instruction should take into account the wide range of different backgrounds of learners; learning materials and activities should allow for different levels/types of previous experience with computers.
4. Since adults are self-directed, instruction should allow learners to discover things for themselves, providing guidance and help when mistakes are made.

Principles of andragogy

1. Adults need to be involved in the planning and evaluation of their instruction.
2. Experience (including mistakes) provides the basis for learning activities.
3. Adults are most interested in learning subjects that have immediate relevance to their job or personal life.
4. Adult learning is problem-centered rather than content-oriented.

Critical elements of Pedagogy and Andragogy

Critical Element	Pedagogy	Andragogy
Dependent/Independent	Teacher directs what is learned, how the subject is taught. The teacher encourages and nurtures this and acts as the sole arbitrator to see if what was taught was learned.	The learner moves towards independent self-direction.
Readiness to Learn	People learn what society expects them to learn (standardized curriculum)	People learn what they need to know. (Learning around life application)
The Learner's Experience	Of little worth. Teaching is didactic.	A rich resource for learning. Teaching methods include discussion and problem-solving
Orientation to Learning	Acquisition of subject matter (Curriculum organized by subjects)	The learning experience is based on problems since learners are performance-centered when learning.

There were moves in UNESCO toward lifelong education and notions of 'the learning society' which culminated in Learning to Be. Lifelong learning was to be the 'master concept' that should shape educational systems (UNESCO 1972). What emerged was

an influential tripartite categorization of learning systems. Its best known statement comes from the work of Combs with Prosser and Ahmed (1973).

2. Educational systems

Combs with Prosser and Ahmed (1973) developed a tripartite categorisation of learning systems:

2.1 Formal education

Formal education is properly associated with schools. A more precise definition is supplied by Coombs (1973), “the hierarchically structured, chronologically graded educational system running from primary school through the university and including, in addition to general academic studies, a variety of specialized programs and institutions for full-time technical and professional training”.

2.2 Informal education:

Even less structured is informal education which deals with everyday experiences which are not planned or organized (incidental learning). When these experiences are interpreted or explained by elders or peers they constitute informal education (Kleis, 1973).

Informal education is the truly lifelong process whereby every individual acquires attitudes, values, skills and knowledge from daily experience and the educative influences and resources in his or her environment - from family and neighbours, from work and play, from the market place, the library and the mass media.

While the idea of informal education has a significant history, recent policy discussions tend to view it through a bureaucratic frame. It is set against formal (state sponsored systems) and non-formal (organized activity outside the formal system) education, and viewed as 'unorganized, unsystematic and even unintentional at times' (Coombs and Ahmed 1974). It consists of the learning acquired through participation in daily life. We have taken a different view here - focusing on process and purpose rather than matters of institutional sponsorship. For us informal, like formal, education entails consciously setting out to foster learning. It:

- works through, and is driven by, conversation.
- involves exploring and enlarging experience.
- can take place in any setting.

- does not have predefined objectives, but does have as an underlying aim the fostering of democracy.

2.3 Non-formal education:

It is any organised educational activity outside the established formal system - whether operating separately or as an important feature of some broader activity - that is intended to serve identifiable learning clienteles and learning objectives.

1. Definitions and understandings

Symposium participants may have been hesitant to perceive and adopt a single and unambiguous definition of non-formal education, but there is in fact no shortage of existing definitions from which they might have wished to choose.³⁰ Taken together, such definitions are united in describing non-formal education as both purposive yet highly-varied learning contexts. They are more likely not to specify that non-formal education is directed at particular age-groups, but definitions that come from the youth sector and its representatives at the Council of Europe are inclined to suggest a specific link between non-formal education and young people's needs and demands.

How should we spell nonformal education? According to Webster's Dictionary (1988) "non" is a prefix which means "not: absence of; reverse of.". In other words the "opposite of" something. But nonformal education is not the opposite of formal education. In many ways they are similar or overlap. Since nonformal education has a definition and unique philosophy, "nonformal education" is the more accurate spelling. Save "non-formal" for occasions when you wish to communicate absence of formality or the complete opposite of formal. If any doubts still remain, go to your local university library and find nonformal education in the computer (or card catalog). Although you will find both forms of spelling, the most common usage in current literature is "nonformal education." (*Prof. Arlen Etling – The Pennsylvania State University*)

The distinction made is largely administrative. Formal education is linked with schools and training institutions; non-formal with community groups and other organizations; and informal covers what is left, e.g. interactions with friends, family and work colleagues. (See, for example, Coombs and Ahmed 1974). The problem with this is that people often organize educational events as part of their everyday experience and so the lines blur rapidly. As Fordham (1993) comments, these definitions do not imply hard and fast categories. In particular, there may well be some overlap (and confusion) between the informal and the non-formal.

Nonformal (NFE) has been defined (Kleis, 1973) as any intentional and systematic educational enterprise (usually outside of traditional schooling) in which content is adapted to the unique needs of the students (or unique situations) in order to maximize learning and minimize other elements which often occupy formal school teachers (i.e. taking roll, enforcing discipline, writing reports, supervising study hall, etc.).

Nonformal education is more learner centered than most formal education. It has to be. Learners can leave anytime they are not motivated. NFE tends to emphasize a cafeteria curriculum (options, choices) rather than the prescribed, sequential curriculum found in schools. In NFE human relationships are more informal (roles of teachers and students are less rigid and often switch) than in schools where student-teacher and teacher administrator roles are hierarchical and seldom change in the short term. NFE focuses on practical skills and knowledge while schools often focus on information which may have delayed application. Overall NFE has a lower level of structure (and therefore more flexibility) than schools.

Just how helpful a focus on administrative setting or institutional sponsorship is a matter of some debate. Once we recognize that a considerable amount of education happens beyond the school wall it may be that a simple division between formal and informal education will suffice. It has certainly been the argument of Jeffs and Smith (1990) that the notion of non-formal education has limited use when thinking about process.

All definitions refer in some way to differences in the degree and type of organisation of learning activities between the formal and non-formal sectors; they generally also make reference to differing styles of learning, suggesting that the non-formal sector provides alternative and complementary styles. The Council of Europe and European Youth Forum definitions notably and explicitly refer to particular contents and methods as additional defining characteristics of non-formal education.

Finally, the certification of learning outcomes as a distinguishing criterion between formal and non-formal education is included in EU, OECD and Council of Europe definitions, but interestingly, the latest CDEJ definition makes specific mention of the fact that non-formal learning experience "might also be certificated" as well as the fact that "these programmes are carried out by trained leaders". These elements clearly mark the direction taken by current discussions around the need for greater recognition of the full range of learning outcomes and of the professional expertise of non-formal learning practitioners.

2. Common elements in existing definitions of non-formal education

- purposive learning
- diverse contexts
- different and lighter organisation of provision and delivery
- alternative/complementary teaching and learning styles
- less developed recognition of outcomes and quality

Specific accents in any given definition then result, as one would expect, from the particular interests of the definers and the broader social context in which a definition has been produced. These accents will include, for example, a focus on particular target groups; the differential weight given to structural features of provision and delivery as opposed to features of learning content and process; or the emphasis given to intrinsic versus instrumental and personal versus social aims of non-formal education.

How does this compare with the views expressed by the symposium participants, all of whom are working in, with or for the youth policy and action domain? The strong emphasis placed on the link between non-formal education and young people's needs and demands is readily explicable and defensible, but whence the definitional hesitancy? Part of the answer must lie in the tacit and context-bound nature of knowledge and expertise in the non-formal education sector as a whole, an issue raised in the introduction to this report. Previous attempts to elicit views on what non-formal learning is and the role of youth organisations as education providers have certainly resulted in low response rates, lack of consensus on definitions and understandings, and relative lack of awareness of the nature and scale of the contribution being made.

But this is not the only reason. Youth sector actors are reluctant *on principle* to subscribe to common and clear definition and understanding of non-formal education - this in itself can be seen as a formalisation process that risks imposing unnecessary constraints on teachers' and learners' autonomy of action. The consensus at the symposium was that a universally valid definition is neither possible nor desirable: no-one wants to risk 'fossilisation' and everyone wants to respect diversity of perspective and practice. The catalogue of written contributions from the participants reinforces the consensus that emerged in discussion: non-formal education is perceived above all in terms of freedom from authority and from constraints on what and how to learn. Nevertheless, in practical terms participants were in no doubt about the essential features of non-formal learning in the youth domain. These are summarised immediately below.

3. Essential features of non-formal learning

- Balanced co-existence and interaction between cognitive, affective and practical dimensions of learning
- Linking individual and social learning, partnership-oriented solidary and symmetrical teaching/learning relations
- Participatory and learner – centred
- Holistic and process-oriented
- Close to real life concerns, experiential and oriented to learning by doing, using intercultural exchanges and encounters as learning devices
- Voluntary and (ideally) open-access
- Aims above all to convey and practice the values and skills of democratic life

This list includes reference to content (the values and skills of democratic life) but emphasises, above all, a range of framing conditions for learning that might have a variety of purposes and contents. In sum, the symposium participants subscribe in the first instance to practice-based and contextual understandings of non-formal education. Their list contains far less reference to the way learning is organised, delivered and recognised than the more formalised definitions discussed earlier. This is not surprising: institutionally-produced understandings have different purposes and priorities than do those developed closer to and in the field. But this does help explain why it is that defining non-formal learning becomes such a contentious and fraught issue. It also suggests that what is really needed are multi-layer definitions, which

relate to each other but express common understandings at different levels and for different purposes.

More broadly, useful understandings of non-formal education are necessarily relational in character. It is time to move beyond regarding formal and non-formal learning as a binary opposition, in which non-formal represents all that is 'good' and formal represents all that is 'bad'. In reality, the boundaries between the two are not firmly fixed. Their respective features fade into one another towards the centre of what is ultimately a continuum of learning contexts, contents and methods. Furthermore, the specificities of given national and cultural traditions and systems mean that the boundary lines between what is understood to fall into the formal and non-formal sectors are objectively placed at different points on that continuum. Finally, in practical terms, the symposium's catalogue of projects itself shows up very significant differences between countries both in policy perspectives on non-formal education and in the levels of human and financial resources on which the sector can rely. Productive communication, dialogue and exchange across borders, sectors and groups demands that educational activities are placed in explicit relation both to their specific context and to the continuum of teaching and learning as a whole. This is the basis for demonstrating and improving the quality and standards of learning in the non-formal sector, no less so than in the formal sector.

4. Lifelong Education and Non-formal Education

Principles and philosophies of lifelong education; current education philosophies; evolution of the Thai educational system; present structure of the Thai educational system; current status and problems of Thai education; education and development; principles, philosophies and values of nonformal education; nonformal education and economic, social, and political development; evolution of nonformal education; current status and problems in nonformal education management in Thailand; relationships between formal and nonformal education; types of and activities in nonformal education; institutes providing nonformal education (public and private); nonformal education in urban and rural communities; comparative studies of nonformal education; future trends and issues of nonformal education.

5. Nonformal Education Management

Principles and concepts for planning education management related to human foundations and community needs; specific characteristics of nonformal education projects; planning processes and nonformal education projects; government roles in nonformal education; exploring community needs for planning nonformal education projects; nonformal education projects administration; nonformal education personnel administration; administration of office work, finance, equipment and buildings; nonformal education curricula development and supervision; follow-up evaluation and research on nonformal education; the decentralization of nonformal education administration; organizing centers for providing information services; advice and counseling in nonformal education; public relations for nonformal education.

6. Contrasts between 'formal' and 'non-formal' programmes

Simkins (1976) analysed non-formal education programme in terms of purposes, timing, content delivery systems and control, and contrasted these with formal educational programmes. The resulting ideal-types provide a useful framework - and bring out the extent to which non-formal education initiatives, while emphasizing flexibility, localness and responsiveness remain located within a curricula form of education (in contrast with those forms driven by conversation).

<i>Ideal-type models of normal and non-formal education</i>		
	<i>Formal</i>	<i>Nonformal</i>
Purpose	Long-term & general Credential-based	Short-term & specific Non-credential-based
Timing	long cycle / preparatory / full-time	short cycle / recurrent / part-time
Content	standardized / input centred academic entry requirements determine clientele	individualized / output centred practical clientele determine entry requirements
Delivery system	institution-based, isolated from environment. rigidly structured, teacher-centred and resource intensive	environment-based, community related. flexible, learner-centred and resource saving
Control	external / hierarchical	self-governing / democratic

(Adapted by Fordham 1993 from Simkins 1977)

2.4 Learning and Teaching in Nonformal Settings

Imagine a child playing on a beach. A rock is used as a shovel, a stick quickly becomes the flagpole for a sand castle, and a leaf becomes an alligator floating in the moat. Children invent alternate uses for everyday objects all the time. How does this help them learn? What can we do as parents, educators, and volunteer leaders to foster this creativity?

Much of our understanding about how children learn comes from Swiss psychologist, Jean Piaget. Piaget, who developed some of the most influential theories on intelligence development in children in the 1920, was also one of the first psychologists to understand that a child constructs new mental processes as he or she interacts with the environment.

"What I have found in my research seems to me to speak in favor of an active methodology in teaching. Children should be able to do their own experimenting and their own research. Teachers, of course, can guide them by providing appropriate materials, but the essential thing is that in order for a child to understand something he

must construct it himself, he must reinvent it. Every time we teach a child something, we keep him from inventing it himself. On the other hand, that which we allow him to discover by himself will remain with him visible for all the rest of his life" (Piaget, 1972).

Works by Piaget and others have helped in understanding how people make meaning or construct knowledge from experiences. Their theory, called constructivism, lays the foundation for how learning takes place.

2.5 Constructivism view about nonformal education

Constructivism is a theory rooted in cognitive psychology. Constructs are bits of information in the brain that store and organize knowledge and that give meaning to what is learned (Bartlett, 1932). Constructs help the learner understand what to expect, as well as how to select and process incoming information. Youth learn best when they construct their own science understanding.

In the past, traditional science education has been based on a transmission or absorption model of teaching and learning. In this model, youth passively absorb scientific structures invented by others and recorded in texts or known by authoritative adults. Constructivism is in sharp contrast to the absorption/transmission model of teaching and learning. The application of constructivism to education is based on five basic tenets: invention, reflection, interpretation, social processing, and sense-making of knowledge (Clements and Battista, 1990).

1. Invention

Knowledge is actively created or invented by the youngster, not passively received from the environment. For example, the idea of energy cannot be directly detected by a youth's senses. It is a relation that the youth superimposes on specific experiences. This relation is constructed by the youth as he or she reflects on his or her experiences involving energy, such as running out of energy when pedaling a bike. Although the leader may have demonstrated the concept of energy for youth, the mental entity energy can be created only by the youth's thought. Youth do not discover the way the world works in the same way that Ben Franklin stumbled upon electricity. They invent new ways of thinking about the world.

2. Reflection

Children create new science knowledge by reflecting on their physical and mental actions. Ideas are constructed, or made meaningful, when children integrate them into their existing structures of knowledge.

3. Interpretation

No one true reality exists, only individual interpretations of the world. Interpretations are shaped by experience and social interactions. Learning science should be thought of as a process of adapting to and organizing one's living and nonliving world, not discovering pre-existing ideas imposed by others.

4. Social Processing

Learning is a social process in which youth grow into the intellectual life of those around them. Scientific ideas and truths, both in use and in meaning, are cooperatively established by the members of a culture. The constructivist application to a youth organization is seen as a developing culture in which youth are involved not only in discovery and invention, but also in social discourse involving explanation, negotiation, sharing, and evaluation.

5. Sense-making

Youth's beliefs about the nature of science come from the perspective of science as sense-making rather than science as learning set procedures that make little sense. When a leader demands that youth use set scientific methods, the sense-making activity is seriously curtailed. Youth tend to mimic the methods by rote so that they can appear to achieve the leader's goals.

Tenets of constructiveness

1. Knowledge is actively created or invented by the youngster.
2. Children create new science knowledge through reflection.
3. Individual interpretations of the world are reality (seen through one's own eyes).
4. Learning is a social process that goes on within a culture.
5. Science is sense-making for the individual learner.

A constructivist perspective implies two major outcomes for nonformal science education. First, youth should develop scientific structures that are more complex, abstract, and powerful than the ones they currently possess, so that they are increasingly capable of applying science to their daily lives. Second, youth should become independent and self-motivated in their scientific activities. These individuals believe that science is a way of thinking about the world. They believe that they do not get scientific knowledge from others as much as from their own explorations, thinking, and participation in discussions. Constructivism shifts the emphasis from youth's "correct" replication of what the leader does to youth's successful organization of his or her own experiences (Driver and Leach, 1993).

2.6 Teaching and learning methods

The palette of non-formal teaching and learning methods derives quite directly from the essential features of non-formal education.

Nonformal teaching and learning methods

- b) communication-based methods: interaction, dialogue, meditation
- c) activity-based methods: experience, practice, experimentation
- d) socially-focused methods: partnership, teamwork, networking
- e) self-directed methods: creativity, discovery, responsibility

Quite evidently, these methods are not unique to the youth sector - they have equally long been used in a wide range of community education and adult education practice. Indeed, it can be argued that basic education for adults, most especially those living in isolated regions and developing countries, has been the paradigmatic context in which non-formal teaching and learning methods were developed and practised. By contrast,

youth work traditions have been strongly influenced by social pedagogies of 'care and control', whereas youth organisations have always incorporated - implicitly or explicitly - a socio-political role and mission. Conscious awareness of the educational dimensions of youth sector activities has developed relatively slowly and patchily, and with some resistance at times since, after all, the whole point is *not* to be 'like school'. Greater awareness of the educational dimension and the concomitant development of appropriate methods has been, above all, shaped on the terrains of political education and intercultural learning. These themes have provided the teaching and learning content that lies at the heart of non-formal education in the youth sector, and it is the demands of this kind of content that have influenced the choice of methods. A key aspect of this choice is the conviction that learning to be interculturally competent and to become an active democratic citizen can only succeed if the words match the deeds, and if the theory is accompanied by direct practice. Speaking about equal rights must be matched by symmetrical relations between teachers and learners. Tolerance of the unfamiliar and the ambiguous is acquired through (carefully prepared) exposure to and confrontation with the strange and incomprehensible. An appreciation of the virtues of parliamentary debate as a form of democratic decision making becomes real and useful when young people also learn the practical skills of group discussion, negotiation and compromise.

Practitioners who work in formal education settings would immediately argue that they, too, make use of these kinds of teaching and learning methods- and in most cases their claim would be justified. The difference lies in the fact that this is not all that formal learning environments do, and in many respects it is not the majority of what they do. Firstly, schools and colleges literally *must* cover a much wider curriculum, which is still almost wholly subject-based and for which subject-specific didactics have been firmly established. The adoption of more 'open' methods of teaching and learning has taken place more easily in some subjects than others - for example, history over against physics. An extensive literature tries to understand and explain these kinds of differences, further discussion of which is not appropriate in this report.

The interesting question that arises for non-formal education in the youth sector is rather: are there particular kinds of content that are genuinely unsuitable for non-formal learning contexts and methods? If so, why; if not, why not? Asking these kinds of questions would help to clarify more precisely the *genuinely salient* distinctions between formal and non-formal learning. The answers could also help to demonstrate the value of non-formal methods *across the board* of learning contexts altogether.

Secondly, whatever the content at hand, there is one crucial difference between the formal and non-formal education sectors: learners in the former are assessed, and these assessments have a critical and increasing impact on their life chances and risks. Moreover, assessment methods in Europe as a whole are still heavily dominated by quite traditional forms of testing and examination, perhaps most heavily of all in the secondary education sector. And whatever the precise form of assessment, there is plenty of evidence to show that its very existence influences teaching and learning methods (as in 'teaching to the syllabus' or 'cramming for the exam'). Once again, there is an extensive literature on the complex effects of formal assessment upon learner motivation and learning outcomes. There are also numerous well-documented examples of committed attempts to modernise assessment methods, to make them not

only more effective (i.e. valid, reliable and relevant) but also more 'human'. Nevertheless, the fact that the youth sector regards with some circumspection the call to "valorise competencies acquired non-formally" by young people, and to "work towards a system for European-level recognition" of non-formal learning practitioners, is perfectly understandable. Appropriate teaching and learning methods must be matched by appropriate methods of recognition and evaluation for the non-formal sector.

2.7 Six dimensions of nonformal education

1. **Learner-centred** means that emphasis is on learning rather than on teaching. The learner participates in determining educational objectives and exerts substantial control over content and method. Attitudes of self-awareness and power to control environment are fostered. Local initiative, self-help and innovation are encouraged in order to equip learners to analyse critically and take action to resolve their own practical problems.
2. **Cafeteria-curriculum** (options, variety and flexibility) is featured in place of the sequential, prescribed curriculum associated with schools. Curriculum is generated primarily by learners. A strong entertainment feature is included. Examples include local games, puppets and epic narrative. Resources and skills need not be imported or professional.
3. **Informal human relationships** are essential. Learners and educators are roles which, ideally, switch back and forth among participants. Informal relations based on mutual respect are necessary if education is to be learner-centred and if learners are to choose from a cafeteria of learning opportunities. While this value position is often difficult for professional teachers to accept, local nonprofessionals "facilitators" who see their role as catalyst, helper, or enabler are often more effective than lecturer or academics.
4. **Reliance on local resources** means that costs are kept low without sacrificing quality, are deployed efficiently. Expensive technology is not necessary and often undesirable. Because learners often bear part of the costs, higher motivation and greater program accountability usually result.
5. **Immediate usefulness** refers to educational content and methodology directly related to learners' life styles. Formal schooling often has a delayed impact through its orientation to future application. Nonformal education should involve short term activities with a present time orientation and immediate impact.
6. **Low level of structure** is necessary when local situations vary tremendously between and within themselves. Since a high level of structure means a high level of control, learner-centred approaches, informal human relationships and immediate usefulness are all difficult under tightly controlled situations. Flexibility is sacrificed for control. But flexibility is necessary for the needs of individuals, subcultures, and minorities. Voluntary organizations and amateurs who learn on the job are favored over governmental programs featuring bureaucratic approaches to local problems.

If these six dimensions are carefully considered by nonformal educators, participatory planning and decision making will be much easier. These dimensions need to be considered in the structure of the educational organization, in its mission statement, in its choice of priorities, in its inservice training of educators, and in its use of

educational methods and techniques. To be truly effective in the future, nonformal educators will need to shape their organization, both at national level and at the local community level, to be flexible in responding to the needs of clients rather than requiring clients to adapt to a rigid and unresponsive organization.

Educators will need to give special attention to the way educational programs are planned. The steps in program planning do not change with formal and nonformal education. The involvement of people and the techniques used to plan programs collaboratively, however, are strikingly different.

3. Recommendation on the promotion and recognition of non-formal education/learning of young people

(Secretariat memorandum prepared by the Directorate of Youth and Sport of Council of Europe - Strassbourg, February 2003)

European Steering Committee for Youth (CDEJ) – Draft Decision

- approved the revised draft recommendation on the recognition and promotion of non-formal education/learning presented in document of CDEJ (2003)
- agreed to submit it to the Committee of Ministers for adoption and asked the Committee of Ministers their authorization for the publication of the explanatory memorandum attached to the draft recommendation.

3.1 Explanatory memorandum

Introduction

In the final Declaration of the 5th Conference of Ministers responsible for Youth, held in Bucharest (Romania) from 27 to 29 April 1998, the ministers encouraged the member States to promote equal opportunities by recognising training and skills acquired by young people through non-formal education/learning, and by identifying various ways to certify experiences and qualifications acquired in this framework.

Furthermore, the Parliamentary Assembly of the Council of Europe, in 2000, adopted Recommendation 1437 on non-formal education, “encouraging all those who shape educational policies to acknowledge that non-formal education is an essential part of the educational process...” and “ calling on governments and the appropriate authorities of member States to recognise non-formal education as a de facto partner in the lifelong learning process and in youth policy...”

Against this background, the enclosed recommendation aims at further encouraging member States to recognise and promote non-formal education/learning of young people on the basis of a common understanding of its concept, and to further develop the conditions and criteria for its recognition (see Appendix).

1. Non-formal education/learning should be recognized as an integral part of the learning process (paragraphs 1, 2 and 3 of the draft recommendation)

In our increasingly complex contemporary societies, which are subject to rapid changes resulting in a greater diversification of educational and training needs, non-formal education/learning plays an increasingly important role within the lifelong learning process.

Non-formal education/learning deserves therefore to be given its full place within the education field, alongside the formal education system, which covers schools, universities and, in part, at least, vocational training. It contributes, together with other forms of learning, to the individual's personal development and his/her preparation for active participation in civil society and in the labour market. Non-formal education/learning is complementary to formal education and represents an added value within the learning process. In addition to the fact that it takes place "outside school", non-formal education/learning focuses on social learning, while combining it with individual learning; it has direct connections to real concerns and, is based on experience. Furthermore, non-formal education learning is intentional, voluntary, participative and centred on the learner.

Moreover, due to the variety of its structures and methods of delivery, it offers additional possibilities for providing diversified responses to new and emerging educational and training needs and to deal with young school drop-outs, for example. It is therefore important to promote non-formal education/learning and to reinforce links with formal education, including as regards recognition of non-formal qualifications.

However, a closer cooperation between non-formal education/learning and formal education systems must by no means end up in formalizing non-formal education/learning. Crediting accomplishments acquired in non-formal educational/learning settings might lead to assessment systems which 'kill' the spirit of non-formal education/learning and which repel those who need support most. Therefore, thought must be given to the different possibilities and ways of cooperation, with a view to identifying appropriate criteria and standards for the recognition and certification of experiences, skills and knowledge acquired in the framework of non-formal education/learning.

2. Non-formal education/learning is a powerful form of learning which should be used for functioning in knowledge-based societies and economies (paragraphs 6 and 8 of the draft recommendation)

It could be argued that formal education is the strongest of all learning forms because it gains the most social and institutional recognition, including in the labour market. Therefore, in the light of point 1 above, it is apparent that non-formal education/learning can and, to a large extent, already makes an important contribution

to enriching lifelong learning in Europe. European as well as national bodies should stimulate the possibilities offered by non-formal education/learning in this respect, in particular, by developing trust and better mutual understanding between the actors of formal education and non-formal education/learning.

3. Non-formal education/learning provides a good vehicle for the development and the promotion of core values in young Europeans (paragraph 5 of the draft recommendation)

Because of its voluntary and open character, young people feel that they have much say in the learning experiences offered by non-formal education/learning. Thus, it is important to counteract one tendency observable in youth work, which is to gear non-formal-education/learning too strongly or even exclusively to perceived labour market needs. Inasmuch as that happens, non-formal education/learning risks suffering from the same evils as formal education: demotivated learners and weak participation.

Core aspects of non-formal education/learning of young people are strongly oriented towards the individual and access to autonomy. They promote social development, participation and democratic citizenship; human rights, peace and the fight against all kinds of discrimination and social exclusion. Furthermore, non-formal education/learning provides the means to put these values into practice.

Core values are by definition broad; they transgress specific subjects, which often make up school curricula. Moreover, in 'formal schools', which have to work under severe time pressure and other restrictions, there is less room for students to discuss and – more importantly – experience the reality of core values. In this respect also, non-formal education/learning can play a complementary role in relation to formal education.

4. Non-formal education/learning offers additional possibilities for intercultural understanding (paragraphs 5 and 7 of the draft recommendation)

Although knowledge production and dissemination is becoming increasingly global and young Europeans are, and will be, ever more mobile, formal educational systems are still designed and function according to national models (in terms of identity and culture). This is why, in order to overcome these mental-cultural national borders, young people, notably university students, are provided with increased possibilities to participate in exchange programmes (e.g. Erasmus, Socrates).

In this context also, the complementary role of non-formal education/learning in relation to formal education needs to be underlined. Non-formal education/learning has the advantage of not being subject to the same institutional constraints as formal education. It is therefore in a favourable position to propose to a wide range of young people (with varying levels of education and social conditions), a variety of intercultural experiences which are likely to facilitate their social and cultural integration. Young people play an active role in European construction by introducing a European dimension into their projects, and by developing sustainable international partnerships. Transnational voluntary service, for example, allows young people to commit themselves in areas such as environment, art, culture, activities for children or

old people, sport and leisure, in a country other than their own. It offers them the possibility to work in groups and take responsibilities in an international context. Participation of vulnerable young people or young school drop-outs in these programmes is positively evaluated.

5. Non-formal education/learning can serve different needs and can fulfil specific functions in transition countries (paragraph 7 of the draft recommendation)

In post-communist countries, the school-to-work transitions have lost uniformity; overnight there was no longer a standard “biography pathway” for young people anymore, leading them through education and straight into the state-controlled labour market with guaranteed work. Young people had to adjust to a totally new and unpredictable situation.

The main characteristics of educational change in these countries are the depolitisation of education and the breakdown of the state educational monopoly by allowing private and confessional schools to be established. At the same time youth work and youth associations underwent a dramatic devaluation because they had been under the control of the state and the governing party and were deprived of their most important asset: voluntary participation. Non-formal education/learning has to be established as a new and attractive concept to convince young people of the value of participation.

While new “biographic pathways” become possible, school-to-work transitions have become chaotic and youth wages have declined dramatically. Young Europeans in transition countries cannot rely on state support in case of unemployment. They are dependent on their own initiative and on their parents. Formal education for them is both an absolute prerequisite for improving their labour market chances and a highly uncertain investment because of high rates of youth unemployment. Non-formal learning projects and training schemes can help young people to get a job.

Furthermore, non-formal-education/learning offers opportunities for furthering education for democracy and human rights as well as for promoting education for peace, and intercultural dialogue in areas affected by recent conflicts.

6. The links between non-formal education/learning and formal education should be further researched on a national as well as European level (paragraphs 6, 8 and 9 of the draft recommendation)

Formal education and non-formal education/learning should be better linked to one another in order to serve young Europeans and to develop the community of European nations further. But such linkages are not self-evident and do not happen on their own. Many questions and problems remain open and need clarification. One of the main tasks to be solved is how to combine the strengths of both formal education and non-formal education/learning and create a new learning environment for young people.

The European network of national research correspondents of the Council of Europe’s youth sector should be encouraged to develop dialogue and co-operation with researchers of different scientific disciplines and different European regions. In view

of the important cultural differences between European countries, research would have to take closely into account national educational traditions and develop a comprehensive educational frame, which goes beyond national schemes.

7. Non-formal education/learning methods and professional training courses should be developed on a European level (paragraphs 1 (a), 4, 9 and 11 of the draft recommendation)

Besides national systems of professionalising non-formal educators, all non-formal education/learning providers at European level should see to it that further professionalisation takes place on a European level as well. That implies giving adequate resources to the development of new methods and crediting systems, which comply with national traditions and rules.

In this context, particular attention should be paid to encouraging co-operation between the Council of Europe and the European Union in the field of youth leaders and youth workers training, and to further develop policy indicators and quality criteria in this respect.

8. Non-formal education/learning should become an integral part of European youth policies (paragraphs 10 and 11 of the draft recommendation)

Since the outset, the work of the Council of Europe's youth sector takes place within the framework of non-formal education/learning. The promotion of this form of learning, through the educational programmes of the European Youth Centres and Foundation as well as through intergovernmental co-operation, constitutes one of the priorities of this sector. Its experience and achievements in this area should be used to further encourage member States to include non-formal education/learning as a centrepiece of their youth policies. Such policies should embrace the most important and valuable elements of the experience of the youth sector regarding non-formal-education/learning, in particular, learning in non-coercive ways, experiencing new contexts and meeting new challenges, developing new prospects for a life in knowledge societies, learning to actively participate in relevant areas of society (school, workplace, community) and getting qualifications which contribute to the prevention of social exclusion.

3.2 For a common understanding of non-formal education/learning of young people

Whereas there is little doubt about the definition of formal education, non-formal education/learning is a less clearly defined concept. The terms "non-formal education and non-formal learning" are still subject to different interpretations according to cultures, national traditions and policy objectives¹. For the purposes of this text, non-formal education/learning is meant to differ from formal or traditional school and

¹ The English term "education" usually refers to teaching and training delivered by formal educational institutions. This is why, in the English version of the present draft recommendation, both terms "education/learning" are used

higher education systems in terms of structures, the way it is organised and the type and recognition of qualifications this learning confers. It is seen as complementary to – rather than contradictory or alternative to – formal education.

Furthermore, it is to be seen in the framework of the objectives and working methods of the Council of Europe youth policy. This policy mainly concerns young people within an age bracket between 15 and 29, and encourages particularly youth organisations and networks to be actors of non-formal education/learning.

Having regard to the objectives of the Council of Europe youth policy, it is important to underline that the concept of non-formal education/learning involves, as an integral part of the development of knowledge and skills, a whole range of social and ethical values such as human rights, tolerance, the promotion of peace, solidarity and social justice, inter-generational dialogue, gender equality, democratic citizenship and intercultural learning. In addition, non-formal education/learning puts the stress on participative methods, experience-based learning, autonomy and responsibility.

Formal education takes place in schools, colleges and higher education institutions; it has clearly defined curricula and rules for certification. Non-formal education/learning is above all a process of social learning, centred on the learner, through activities taking place outside the formal educational system while being complementary to it. Non-formal education/learning is by definition voluntary and intentional (although that holds for post-compulsory formal education and vocational training as well) and covers a wide variety of learning fields: youth work, youth clubs, sport associations, voluntary service, and many other activities, which organize learning experiences. In addition to taking place “outside school”, non-formal education/learning also involves “another way of learning” and concerns mainly objectives related to the integration and active participation of learners in society in all respects and therefore often has less clearly framed curricula and less ‘certification power’, which gives it a weaker social and financial position.

Non-formal education/learning should also be differentiated from informal education/learning which could be described as a learning process stemming from social experience, without any conscious educational intention (taking place within the family, peer groups, etc.) and whereby the social actors who provide this education have not necessarily received training to become educators.

Although non-formal education/learning has less clearly defined curricula and rules for certification compared with formal education, it is however important to underline that it should be a structured learning process, based on identified educational and learning objectives, with effective evaluation formats and certifications, and provided by well-trained educators. However, it differs from formal education by the fact that the certification of experiences and skills does not necessarily require the obtaining of diplomas as defined by formal educational and training systems.

The objectives, as well as the methodologies of non-formal education/learning, take into account the overall development of the individual and, to a large extent, the personal experience of the learner. Therefore, non-formal education/learning often provides an appropriate framework for responding to individual aspirations and needs

and to develop creative and social skills. In this context, non-formal education/learning contributes to developing a reserve of experience to which, nowadays, many employers are sensitive.

3.3 Structural features of non-formal education/learning

- takes place outside the structures of the formal education system and differs from this in the way it is organised and the type of recognition this learning confers;
- intentionally and voluntary;
- aims above all to convey and practice the values and skills of democratic life;

3.4 Methodological features of non-formal education/learning

- balanced co-existence and interaction between cognitive, affective and practical dimensions of learning;
- linking individual and social learning, partnership-oriented solidarity and symmetrical teaching /learning realitons;
- participatory and learner-centred
- close to real life concerns, experiential and oriented to learning by doing, using intercultural intercultural exchanges and encounters as learning devices.

3.5 Basis values advocated by non-formal education/learning

Values linked to personal development

- autonomy
- critical attitude
- openness and curiosity
- creativity

Values linked to social development

- communication capacity
- participation and democratic citizenship
- solidarity and social justice
- responsibility
- conflict resolution

Ethical and human values

- tolerance and respect for others
- human rights
- intercultural learning and understanding
- peace/non-violence education
- gender equality
- inter-generational dialogue.

3.6 Key competencies of non-formal learning practitioners

- using collegial and participatory methods;
- using diversity as a positive learning tool;
- making critically reflective links between the concrete and the abstract, in order both to facilitate learning processes and continuously to improve their quality;
- knowledge about young people's lives and cultures in Europe.

3.7 Recommendation on the promotion and the recognition of non-formal education /learning of young people (draft)

The Committee of Ministers, under the terms of Article 15.b of the Statute of the Council of Europe,

- having regard to the objectives of the Council of Europe in the youth field and in the field of education;
- having regard to the final Declaration adopted by the 5th European Conference of Ministers responsible for Youth in Bucharest (27-29 April 1998), in particular the reference to non-formal education, and to the final Declaration of the 6th Conference (Thessaloniki, 7-9 November 2002);
- having regard to Recommendation 1437 (2000) of the Parliamentary Assembly on non-formal education;
- having regard to the experience and achievements of the youth sector of the Council of Europe regarding non-formal education/learning, in particular the work of the European Steering Committee for Youth (CDEJ) and the Symposium on non-formal education held at the European Youth Centre in Strasbourg from 12 to 15 October 2000;
- having regard to Recommendation No. (2002) 6 of the Committee of Ministers to member States on higher education policies in lifelong learning;
- having regard to the activities undertaken since 1999 by the Council of Europe in the field of education for democratic citizenship, and Recommendation No. (2002) 12 on this issue, adopted by the Committee of Ministers;
- considering the important role attached to non-formal learning in the Lisbon process and the present debate on Lifelong Learning in the European Union as well as in the White Paper of the European Commission "A new impetus for European youth"; taking into consideration the ongoing co-operation between the Council of Europe and the European Union in this field;
- Convinced that lifelong learning has an important role to play in reducing social inequality and social exclusion, and in promoting active participation in democratic life; and that Non-formal education/learning can contribute to secure all the knowledge and capacities which young people need to succeed in contemporary societies;
- convinced of the necessity to mobilise the full learning potential within children and young people, in view of the social and cultural transformations resulting from the emergence of knowledge-based economies and societies in Europe and the world as a whole;

3.8 Recommends of the governments of member States:

a. Reaffirm that non-formal education/learning nowadays constitutes a fundamental dimension of the lifelong learning process, and therefore work towards the development of effective standards of recognition of non-formal education/learning as an essential part of general education and vocational training, and this with regard to:

- the qualification of professional and voluntary staff in charge of non-formal education/ learning offers,
- the quality of the learning offer itself,
- the monitoring of learning progress made by participants within non-formal education/ learning programmes, both individually and as part of a larger group;

b. Support the creation and the use of a European portfolio as a description tool aiming to record experiences, skills and knowledge (learning outcomes) acquired through non-formal education/learning, having in mind the example of the European Language Portfolio;

c. Promote equal opportunities for all young people, and in particular for the socially-disadvantaged groups, by creating equitable conditions of access to non-formal education/learning in order to fully develop its potential with regard to reducing social inequality and social exclusion;

d. Actively encourage innovative non-formal education/learning experiences by supporting the effective dissemination of relevant documentation about non-formal good practice, training methods and achievements;

e. Introduce support measures for non-formal education/learning initiatives aiming to encourage young people's commitment and contribution to the promotion of values such as active citizenship, human rights, tolerance, social justice, inter-generational dialogue, peace and intercultural understanding;

f. actively engage the non-formal education/learning sector, alongside the formal educational and vocational training systems, in the development of a common European area for lifelong learning;

g. actively use the potential of non-formal education/learning as a complementary means of facilitating the integration of young people in society, by supporting their increased participation, in particular those from transition countries, in relevant European exchange programmes;

h. promote dialogue between actors of non-formal education/learning and formal education, and encourage better understanding of different approaches concerning non-formal education/learning in the different European countries;

i. support and further develop existing research work in the field of non-formal education/learning, as well as the use of its results; encourage the gathering and diffusion of examples of good practice in the field of non-formal education/learning, at national and European levels; and further support existing co-operation between the Council of Europe and the European Union in this respect;

- j. make non-formal education/learning a significant element of national youth policies, and of European co-operation in this field;
- k. secure sufficient human and financial resources for the implementation and the recognition of non-formal education/learning programmes and their outcomes, with a view to enabling non-formal education/learning to have an adequate space within the learning community.

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Experiential Learning

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What is experiential learning

Definitions of Experiential learning on the Web:

- means learning through experience.
careers.ngfl.gov.uk/help/definitions/13_3_teaching_methods.html
- An approach to learning that actively involves participants and applies the use of new skills through a variety of instructional methods (e.g., case studies and role plays).
www.reproline.jhu.edu/english/6read/6gloss/glossps.htm
- Learning by doing, by using, or experiencing a concept or testing a skill. The experiential learning model is an inductive learning process consisting of five stages or phases: experiencing, reporting or publishing, processing, generalizing, and applying.

www.michigan.gov/printerFriendly/0,1687,7-137--26566--,00.html

- Experiential Learning is composed of three components: 1) Knowledge - concepts, facts, information, and prior experience, 2) Activity - knowledge applied to current, ongoing events, 3) Reflection - thoughtful analysis and assessment of one's own activity and its contribution to personal growth. These three elements combine to structure the experience and make it "value-added." It also provides the learning environment in which all past and present knowledge can be applied to each workshop activity. Formal and informal evaluation (reflection) is an ongoing part of the process and becomes the basis for assessing the experience and engaging in further learning activities. Experiential learning engages participants as active and intentional learners in a process where they become equal partners in the learning process.

www.trainingtheworkforce.com/operative_terms_and_definitions.htm

- A method of training which uses active participation and the applied use of new skills through role playing and on-the-task experience, in addition to lecturing. Topic areas: Staff Development and Organisational Capacity, Volunteer Management

www.nonprofitbasics.org/TopicAreaGlossary.aspx

- A learning activity having a behavioural based hierarchy that allows the participant to experience and practice related tasks and functions during a training session. Back to top Face-to-Face (F2F), trainers and participants are in the same location at the same time.

www.neiu.edu/~dbehrlic/hrd408/glossary.htm

www3.sympatico.ca/krewski/mde615groupec/glossary.html

- Knowledge and skills gained from life experience for which credit may be awarded under certain circumstances.

www.sunyocc.edu/adminfo/glossary.html

- Learning from environmental experiences and learning from action and doing. Includes observing, doing, reflecting, receiving corrective input and practice (more doing). Experiential learners often increase their knowledge and skill through teaching others.

www.msced.edu/~cra/oa/team_building/definitions.htm

- Is constructivist learning, where participants are active learners, constructing their own knowledge, rather than observing the demonstrative behaviour of a trainer. Such learning may involve one or more of the following instructional strategies: experiments, field observations, field trips, focused imaging, games, model building, role plays, simulations, surveys, and synectics.

www.sasked.gov.sk.ca/curr_content/onlineteach/op/resources/glossary.htm

- Learning through experience, either in a real situation such as a workplace or in role play.

www.study pages.com/en/html/COU_GlossaryOfTerms.html

Experiential learning is realised, when participant of a course learns from what he does. Experiential learning is used together with traditional training. But traditional education is limited to necessary minimum, to save time for practical, although often not real assignments.

Experiential learning is not a new thing. You practised it when learnt how to drive a car. You couldn't do it by sitting in a classroom, even though some sessions on driving law were held there.

Driving a car takes some skills. Ability to react quickly is one of them. You might learn it during a driving course. But it will be waste of time and money, if you practice whole, complex driving process only to develop one skill - quick reaction. Your instructor would rather suggest you to go and play one of these video games, where you have to shoot appearing creatures before they shoot you. Shooting itself does not relate to driving, but is a quick way to develop skill needed while driving.

Youth work is like driving a car. Takes certain skills, attitudes and ways of behaviour. You can learn it in everyday life. But if you have problems with meeting deadlines and managing time, developing this skill in everyday work might be pretty expensive to your employer, who will lose another contract because you didn't prepare it on time again. Also, time management skills will be improved very slowly - in normal work you have to focus on many various problems, so you cannot put your whole attention to deadlines.

If you want to learn how to manage time, you can go on the course, listen and try to implement to your work. But you can also, like in a driving example, go and practise exercises not related to your work, but related to time management. As you will **do** them instead of **listening about** them, you will develop your skills much faster. You might not get knowledge - this must be done in traditional way and I do not suggest you to resign from that part of learning. But by experiential learning you will really change your behaviour rather than only listening and talking about it.

According to Bill Krouwel and Steve Goodwill (Outdoor Training, Kogan Page 1995) experiential learning is based on three assumptions:

- people learn best when personally involved in learning experience
- knowledge, to be truly meaningful, has to be discovered by individual
- people are more committed to learning when they are free to identify and pursue their personal goals.

In a well designed experiential learning people risk, innovate and conclude from their own and other trainees behaviour. They take responsibility for their own behaviour. Although some exercises (like building a raft) are abstract, real are emotions, team roles, time, relationships, planning, communications, problem solving and many others.

Many trainers criticise unreal exercises. "This would never happen in youth work" they say. But in fact, unreal situation is advantage. For two main reasons:

- it is usually simple and short, so gives participants a chance to observe their own behaviour and draw conclusions without losing focus on accomplishing given task
- it is unusual and highly emotional, therefore participants remember much longer tasks and learning related to that. E.g. you remember not only building a raft but also communication problems, that occurred.

What kind of exercises you can use in experiential learning? Before we come to that, let's focus on kinds of education you can use experiential learning for. The most popular and traditional is team building and improving team efficiency. But also personal and interpersonal skills like creativity or communication. You can develop attitudes and such personal attributes like self esteem as well. Finally, experiential learning is the best way to change somebody's behaviour, e.g. if you want to encourage somebody to take more risk. But do not use this concept to give specific knowledge or skills related only to one particular task, e.g. operating crane.

Experiential learning is a great incentive - it incorporates fun and high level of positive emotions. Basically, we learn better when like process of learning.

David Kolb and Experiential Learning

Curtis Kelly
Heian Jogakuin College (Osaka, Japan)

It will soon be twenty years old, but the Theory of Experiential Learning has had little presence in ESL. "Experiential" learning is not just "fieldwork" or "praxis" (the connecting of learning to real life situations) although it is the basis for these approaches, it is a theory that defines the cognitive processes of learning. In particular, it asserts the importance of critical reflection in learning. As we shall see, David Kolb was one of the key contributors.

Background: 20th Century Theories of Learning

In my opinion, the greatest single event in this century that has shaped our view of teaching did not occur in the field of education at all, but rather, in psychology. It was the dramatic shift in the early sixties from the reductionism view of human behavior to non-reductionism view.

In the first half of this century, a reductionism view of human behavior - behaviorism - dominated the field. Behaviorism, a Pavlovian view of human learning developed by Watson, Hull and Thorndike reached its heyday in the 1950's, in B.F. Skinner's work on operant psychology and reinforcement. It was reductionism because it used a "black box" approach based in empiricism, much like the approach a chemist might use. Since one cannot observe what is happening in the brain, we should limit our measurements and theories to merely what is going in - the stimulus - and what is coming out - the response. By mid-century, the S-R view was so powerful

that it dominated other fields of human science as well: education, linguistics and sociology. But such a simplified view left much to be desired. Classical conditioning alone could not explain what Jean Piaget had observed, that children go through stages of development that have no relation to external stimuli. Somehow, he proposed, the brain itself is actively involved in the learning process.

As a result, the sixties and seventies saw the reductionism view displaced by far more complex non-reductionism views. The break was so dramatic as to be a major paradigm shift. It occurred in psychology through the work of Piaget - child development and schema - and Gagne - eight categories of learning (Travers, 1977), while in linguistics it occurred as a result of Noam Chomsky's introduction of transformational grammar. The non-reductionism perspective did not lead directly to the Theory of Experiential Learning itself, but, it spawned a number of its predecessors: new interpretations known as cognitive theories and revitalized progressivism known as humanist theories. Cognitive theorists, such as Bloom, dealt with the hierarchical nature of knowledge in the cognitive domain, while humanists, such as Maslow, concentrated on the affective domain and how "learners attempt to take control of their own life processes" (Rogers, 1996).

Both fields acknowledged the importance of experience, but neither could formulate an adequate theory as to its function in learning. Even as late as 1980, experience was seen as merely being a source of stimuli. Even in the fourth edition of Travers' widely-used *Essentials of Learning*, a college-level textbook on Educational Psychology, there is no index entry for "experience" and learning is defined as "a relative permanent change in a response R as a result of exposure to stimuli S." (Travers, 1977)

However, cognitive and humanistic research pointed more and more towards the importance of experience. For example, we can see the rudiments of the experiential theory in Saljo's 1979 hierarchy of participant views of learning.

1. Learning brings about increase in knowledge (knowing a lot)
2. Learning is memorizing (storing information for easy recall)
3. Learning is about developing skills and methods, and acquiring facts that can be used as necessary.
4. Learning is about making sense of information, extracting meaning and relating information to everyday life.
5. Learning is about understanding the world through reinterpreting knowledge.

Saljo found that the more life experience a participant has the more likely they are to view learning as an internal, experience-based process, as in steps four and five, rather than as an external process as in steps one through three (Saljo, 1979, summarized in Banyard, 1994). Nonetheless, the theory of experiential learning did not gain prominence until the work of Mezirow, Freire, Kolb and Gregorc in the 1980's.

Experiential Learning Theory

In the early 1980's, Mezirow, Freire and others stressed that the heart of all learning lies in the way we process experience, in particular, our critical reflection of experience. They spoke of learning as a cycle that begins with experience, continues

with reflection and later leads to action, which itself becomes a concrete experience for reflection (Rogers, 1996). Reflection of this experience would involve trying to explain it to oneself: comparing it to previous experiences to determine what is the same and what is unique, analyzing it according to personal or institutional standards, and formulating a course of action connected to the experiences of others. Talking to other trainers, the action, will then lead to further reflection.

Kolb further refined the concept of reflection by dividing it into two separate learning activities, perceiving and processing (Algonquin, 1996). He thus added another stage, called "Abstract Conceptualization." Whereas in the Critical Reflection stage we ask questions about the experience in terms of previous experiences, in the Abstract Conceptualization stage, we try to find the answers. We make generalizations, draw conclusions and form hypotheses about the experience. The Action phase, in light of his interpretation, then becomes a phase of Active Experimentation, where we try the hypotheses out. As Kolb says:

Abstract Conceptualization:

"In this stage, learning involves using logic and ideas, rather than feelings to understand problems or situations. Typically, you would rely on systematic planning and develop theories and ideas to solve problems."

Active Experimentation:

"Learning in this stage takes an active form - experimenting with, influencing or changing situations. You would take a practical approach and be concerned with what really works..."

Kolb went on to develop the Learning Style Inventory to help learners understand their strengths and weaknesses. The inventory measures the learner's preferences in the four stages learning. Preference of one or more stages over others indicates a preferred learning style.

Experiential Learning cycle (David Kolb)

The Theory of Experiential Learning: David A. Kolb

The concept of experiential learning explores the cyclical pattern of all learning from Experience through Reflection and Conceptualizing to Action and on to further Experience. Kolb's work builds on the work of Piaget, Dewey and Lewin, and it explores the processes associated with making sense of concrete experiences and the learning styles involved in doing so.

Experiential learning occurs as a direct result of the learner's participation in events, it utilizes the participants' own experience and their own reflection about that experience. It is a learner centered approach which starts with the premise that people learn best from experience (learning-by-doing). It is particularly effective due to its holistic approach of addressing cognitive, emotional and the physical aspect of the learner.

The learning cycle has been determined by observing that learning invariably follows a pattern that can be divided into four stages. Kolb argues that the learning cycle can begin at any one of the four points however, the following is the most often suggested pattern for the learning process:

Stage I - Concrete Experience (Awareness)

An individual carries out a particular action and then observes the effect of the action in this situation. Experiencing or immersing oneself in the "doing" of a task is the stage in which the learner simply carries out the task assigned. The engaged person is usually not reflecting on the task at this time but rather just carrying it out with intention.

Questions:

What did I SEE, HEAR or FEEL?

What happened during the activity?

Stage II - Reflective Observation (Making Sense of the Experience)

Reflection involves stepping back from task involvement and reviewing what has been done and experienced. The skills of attending, noticing differences, and applying terms helps identify subtle events. One's paradigm (values, attitudes, values, beliefs) influences whether one can differentiate certain events. Understanding of the effects of an action in the particular instance is required in order to anticipate what would follow from the action if it was to be taken again under the same circumstances.

Questions:

What conclusions, HERE AND NOW, can I derive from my observations and experience?

What meaning(s) can I develop? What sense can I make?

What events HELPED or HINDERED progress?

Stage III - Abstract Conceptualization (Generalizing, theorising)

Conceptualization involves interpreting the events that have been noticed and understanding the relationships among them. It is at this stage that theory may be particularly helpful as a template for framing and explaining events. One's paradigm again influences the interpretive range a person is willing to entertain. Understanding the general principle under which the particular instance falls does not imply ability to express the principle in a symbolic medium.

Questions:

How does theory I have read make more meaning of my experience?

What generalizations can I make for the wider world?

What theories of my own can I make?

Stage IV - Active Experimentation (Application to my world)

Application through action in a new circumstance within the range of generalization. Within this context planning enables taking the new understanding and translates it into predictions about what is likely to happen next or what actions should be taken to refine the way the task is handled.

Questions:

How can I change my behavior to be more effective?

What action recommendations can I make for myself or others to be more effective?

What will others see or hear me doing differently?

On short The Learning Cycle:

1. **Experiencing** or immersing oneself in the "doing" of a task is the first stage in which the individual, team or organization simply carries out the task assigned the engaged person is usually not reflecting on the task as this time, but carrying it out with intention.

2. **Reflection** involves stepping back from task involvement and reviewing what has been done and experienced. The skills of attending, noticing differences, and applying terms helps identify subtle events and communicate them clearly to others. One's paradigm (values, attitudes, values, beliefs) influences whether one can differentiate certain events. One's vocabulary is also influential, since without words, it is difficult to verbalize and discuss ones perceptions.

3. **Conceptualization** involves interpreting the events that have been noticed and understanding the relationships among them. It is at this stage that theory may be particularly helpful as a template for framing and explaining events. One's paradigm again influences the interpretive range a person is willing to entertain.

4. **Planning** enables taking the new understanding and translates it into predictions about what is likely to happen next or what actions should be taken to refine the way the task is handled.

Two aspects of the Learning Cycle can be seen as especially noteworthy: the use of concrete, 'here-and-now' experience to test ideas; and use of feedback to change practices and theories.

David Kolb's model of the Learning Cycle has also been described by various authors and researchers over the years including John Dewey, W. Edwards Deming, and Charles Handy (Ross, Smith & Roberts, 1994). The cycle refers to the process by which individuals, teams, and organizations attend to and understand their experiences, and consequently modify their behaviors.

The failure of many efforts result from making repeated mistakes or inability to learn from experience. The Learning Cycle is based on the idea that the more often we reflect on a task, the more often we have the opportunity to modify and refine our efforts.

The timing of the LC is particularly important. If one waits until after a task is completed, there is no opportunity to refine it until a similar task arises. However, continual reflection leaves the person spending more time on thinking than getting the task done--these must be balanced. In general, the learning cycle should be used during initial framing of a problem to see whether past experience may offer an approach; during natural breaks in tasking such as the end of meetings or workdays; when progress is noticeably going well or poorly; or when a crisis occurs that disrupts the process.

The logic of the learning cycle is to make many small and incremental improvements, which when done by many people, constitute major improvements over time. For example, if each day after course or work you reflected on your efforts and identified just one small thing to do differently (that would improve your performance), by the end of the year you would have 365 improvements. Consider the implications for a team or entire organization! When this procedure is implemented as a habit or norm, continual improvement results.

The model can also be applied to teams:

- Doing: the team members are engaged in team task and interaction
- Reflection: Team members use public reflection and open dialog to share perceptions of what has occurred, how they interact, and evaluate facilitative and nonfacilitative team processes
- Interpretation: The team increases cohesiveness and develops a common culture by constructing shared meanings about the events.
- Planning: The team engages in joint planning, deciding, and express commitment to action.

Principles on Experiential learning

- experiential learning recognizes that people learn best from their own experiences and their own reviews
- experiential learning subscribes to the notion that what people do is more important than what they know
- experiential learning renders behaviors and attitudes visible and thereby can become acknowledged and then addressed
- experiential learning is built on the premise that it is not enough to explain to people what to do, they must be shown how to actually do it and then how to improve it
- experiential learning moves beyond knowledge and into skill by generating a learning experience - the more experience the greater the skill
- experiential learning gets to grips with the most important aspect of training and that is to achieve change in behavior and attitude

- experiential learning understands that to be remembered over a long period of time the learning process should be enjoyable, motivating and rewarding

Experiential Learning environment

- experiential learning respects the individuals ideas and choices
- experiential learning gives the individual the right to 'confront' difficult situations with the view to there resolution
- experiential learning provides opportunity to take on challenge in an atmosphere of support and caring (the challenge may be intellectual, emotional, physical, mental, or all four)
- experiential learning generates space and time to stand back and reflect when pressures or doubts become too strong
- experiential learning cultivates a realization that the attempt at doing something new or different is more significant than the result
- experiential learning produces an awareness that effective learning requires small controlled steps outside comfort zones
- Subscribes to the notion that what people do is more important than what they know.
- Moves beyond knowledge and into skill by generating a learning experience.
- Understands that to be remembered over a long period of time the learning process should be enjoyable, motivating and rewarding.
- Provides opportunity to take on challenge in an atmosphere of support.

According to Kolb's Experiential Learning Model, there are four learning environments for experiential learning.

1) Affectively Complex: Trainers assign activities where learners are engaged in activities that simulate or mirror what they would 'in the real world.'

2) Perceptually Complex: Trainers want their participants to gain a deeper understanding of a problem by researching, investigating and exploring relationships.

3) Symbolically Complex: Trainers assign problems that have a correct answer or best possible solution. "In handling such information, the learner is both guided and constrained by externally imposed rules of influence, such as symbols, computer technology, jargon, theorems, graphical keys, or protocols" (Pimentel, 1999).

4) Behaviorally Complex: Trainers assign a practical problem and ask participants to use "active application" in trying to solve the problem. The focus is primarily on "doing."

Each of the four learning environments supports different types of learning styles. Affectively Complex & Concrete Experience, Perceptually Complex & Reflective Observation, Symbolically Complex & Abstract Conceptualization, Behaviorally Complex & Active Experimentation. Kolb also believed there to be 4 types of knowledge: Accommodative, Diverse, Convergent and Assimilative.

Structure of Experiential Learning programme

A training needs analysis is always the starting point for experiential learning programme design. These should take place with representatives from the whole 'system', i.e. external experiential learning representatives as well as internal sponsors and custodians. It is very important during training needs analysis to take into account the training aims and culture of the organisation as a whole as well as the individuals and teams.

The experiential learning design is based on the findings of the training needs analysis. An experiential learning programme can include any combination of planning meetings, workshops, assignments and progress reviews. For clarity we shall use the term 'modules' to refer to a meeting or workshop or assignment or review. Modules can be interwoven or stand alone and are designed to be sequential to build on and anchor experiential learning generated. The experiential learning design uses innovative approaches as described below, to achieve the individual's, team's and organisational goals.

The design of experiential learning modules ensures that they offer challenges of a mental, emotional, intellectual and physical nature to the group - it is therefore an holistic approach. Just like life! In order to achieve positive outcomes, the group must work together to plan, participate, problem solve, make decisions and consider the role of leadership when appropriate. Therefore team building is a key component. Other components of an experiential learning module explore feelings, trust, feedback, listening, effective questioning, communication between generations and levels of management, risk taking, reflection and review.

Subsequent experiential learning modules are designed after the learning from previous modules. Individuals and the group have time to work on action plans and implement those plans between experiential learning modules. Each experiential learning module begins with an evaluation of action plans before moving forward in the experiential learning cycle.

The length of an experiential learning programme is dictated by the group or team's objectives and of course budget. Programmes can have a duration of weeks, months or even years. Much depends upon the effectiveness of inherent team building and

whether experiential learning is part of a continuous improvement, or life skills, or qualification programme, or on the other hand viewed as a short term energiser. Whatever the duration of the experiential learning programme the principle here is for the training consultant(s) to help the group/team apply the learning into their work setting. At the time when both the client and consultant feel that the experiential learning habit has been anchored, the consultant becomes redundant or can occasionally be brought in to facilitate meetings or reviews or conduct team coaching or individual mentoring sessions.

Many trainers use experiential learning only as single exercises not related to the whole course. Or they try to organise a seminar, that includes only experiential learning activities. Neither of them is a good idea.

You can arrange experiential learning within the model awareness - abilities - action.

1. Awareness - experiential learning via fun, outdoor or games

Experiential learning is a very good concept, when you want to let participants of a course realise their needs and areas of development. If you want to develop their communication skills, it is a good idea, to run a competitive communication game in the beginning of a course. It will work not only as an ice breaker. Delegates also will realise, what kinds of mistakes they make and which areas of communication (e.g. listening) do they have to improve most. It will make them aware of the gap between the level of skills they have now and they can have after the course.

2. Abilities - traditional learning with serious, job-related activities

In this phase you might give participants specific techniques and tools, that you want them to use in daily work. As they themselves already found out lack of these techniques (in introductory game), they will be opened to learn. Therefore traditional training used in this part will be more effective.

Just after presenting necessary knowledge and information in traditional way, you might go into interactive training techniques, like case studies or discussion. Participants will have a chance to make sure, that they understood given information well.

This part of training should be quite serious and maximally related to participant's job. E.g. if you just made a session on time management, ask them to implement presented techniques into planning a project they currently run in real life. If they do so, and will find these techniques useful, you reached best possible warranty that they will implement into work, what they've just learned.

In this part try not to lead session, rather facilitate it. Allow participants to make mistakes, ask question and make conclusions. If they will not do it now, they will have to do it later anyway. Here at least you got a chance to focus them on most important things, make them realise mistakes and opportunities.

3. Action - experiential learning via fun, outdoor or games

Finally, once finished this part, again introduce outdoor activities, games and fun. Now delegates will have a chance to practice, what they have learned during the course.

Experiential learning: learning by doing

Adapted from Gibbs, G (1987). Learning by doing: A guide to teaching and learning methods.

To achieve deep learning we need to practice new behaviours and skills, receive feedback, see the consequences of new ways of behaving and in this way integrate new skills into our way of thinking and behaving.

What experiential learning is, and what it is not:

1. Experience is used to test out ideas and assumptions rather than to passively obtain practice. It is active exploration.

2. Experiential learning is not the same as discovery learning. Activities must be carefully designed by trainers, and learners must reflect on their experience in a critical way.

Planning for experience

1. Action plans

Learners can review notes from a lecture concerned with general rules about how to undertake a procedure, and write an action plan about applying these general principles to the job.

2. Setting objectives

Learners can set objectives for themselves before embarking upon an experience.

3. Designing problems

Rather than giving learners a list of instructions to follow, allow them to design their own problems to solve.

4. Observation checklists

Give learners lists of things to look out for during an experiential activity.

5. Devise criteria

Discuss with learners the criteria that you will use to evaluate the outcome of their work. This will help the learners to be attentive to the important aspects of their practical experience.

6. Learning contracts

Combine the setting of objectives, the devising of criteria and the formulating of action plans into a formal structured learning contract between the trainer and learners. This can be done individually or as a group.

Increasing awareness of experience

1. Log books

Keeping a log of events heightens and focuses experience.

2. Listening exercises

Train learners to be aware of effective and ineffective listening skills which they can use in experiences involving listening, to improve their attentiveness and recall ability.

3. Questions

Recording questions which arise during an activity can help afterwards with reflection and with linking the experience to concepts and generalisations.

4. Increase awareness of feelings

Encourage learners to become aware of and express their emotional reactions to activities by making 'I' statements and owning responsibility for their feelings in group work.

5. Silent demonstrations

Increase attention to an activity by demonstrating a procedure in complete silence rather than providing a commentary. Provide learners with a list of things to observe and questions to answer in their heads. Ask for a full description of the procedure at the end.

Reviewing and reflecting upon experience

1. Diaries

Diaries are written after the experience rather than during it such as the log books. They can be used to record reactions to experiences, analysis and conclusions.

2. Using video and audio recordings

These can help learners with detailed recall of what they were thinking and feeling during an activity.

3. Peer appraisal

Having someone watching a learner undertaking a task provides feedback to the learner.

4. Structured discussion

Groups of learners can benefit from sharing experiences. Structure discussions so as to move learners from identifying key incidents, through to analysis of the experience and drawing general conclusions.

5. Structured de-briefing

Structure de-briefings so that learners move through the full experiential learning cycle: description, feelings, evaluation, analysis, general and specific conclusions and personal action plans.

6. Self-assessment

Encourage self-assessment during reflection by making it a formal requirement. Learners can submit self-assessment sheets listing strong and weak features of their work and a self-assigned grade together with every piece of work submitted for assessment.

7. Reflection checklists and questionnaires

Help learners to get started on reflecting about their experience by giving them checklists and questionnaires to elicit attitudes and emotional responses.

8. Shared time and mutual interviewing

In groups of two or three, allow a specific amount of time for each learner to reflect and talk while the others listen silently. When this is done they can then each have a set time to be interviewed by the others in order to dig deeper into difficult issues. This is different to a discussion that can follow once all have finished reflecting.

9. Modelling reflection

Teach learners how to reflect by giving them an example of how to take a critical and analytical approach.

Providing substitute experiences

1. Case studies
2. Should be structured to include understanding of the situation; diagnosis of the problem; creation of alternative solutions; prediction of outcomes; choosing among alternatives; communicating the results of analysis.
3. Role-plays
4. Useful for encourages empathy with the position and feelings of others.
5. Simulations
6. Represent a real situation and can be on going.
7. Assessment simulations
8. Ask learners to complete assessment tasks, which are simulations of real life settings.

Experiential learning is much more than playing games

Many of the activities that you will find in books, seminars or on web site make great party games. But the title is Making Learning Fun. Where does the game stop and the learning start?

The game provides an opportunity to gain an experience. But how do we learn from experience? It is not automatic. Perhaps my favourite definition of inexperience is to

continue to do the same thing and expect to get different results.

Experience turns into learning when we review it, relate it to some underlying theory, perhaps learnt elsewhere, perhaps developed in the light of our experience and review, then choose either to do it again or to do things differently in future.

Dr. David Kolb described an adult learning cycle, which followed the path:
Concrete Experience >>> Reflective Observation >>> Abstract Concepts >>> Active Experimentation >>> new Concrete Experience >>>.

Some people are inspired to learn (i.e. do things differently, or change) by an experience of their own or perhaps observing someone else's experience.

Think about the second person ever to eat an oyster:

They may have observed the adventurer that tried the first and reflected: Well that didn't seem to do them any harm, in fact he or she has a rather self-satisfied look, and I detect a dramatic change in their libido. I wonder what it would do for me?

The experience was watching the other party eat the oyster;

The reflective observation related to an absence of harm;

The concept was that there was a connection between the smirk and the act of eating the oyster.

The learning will only be complete if the observer carries on with the active experiment of trying an oyster, too and then deciding whether it was a satisfying experience.

I am told that there are people who have tried oysters and not enjoyed the experience. I have never met them, but because the people who told me about them have never been proven to have lied to me about anything else then I am inclined to believe them.

Do you see the learning cycle in that paragraph?

The experience was that I was told something.

My reflection is that in the past the information they have given me has been accurate.

The conceptual framework is that past behaviour is an indicator of future performance.

My active experiment is to choose to believe.

So I have learnt something from information gathered from other people's experience. Which is just as well, because we don't have time to have all of the experiences ourselves.

Another explanation of the eating of the first oyster may well have been that it was two people engaged in a dare. One challenged the other to taste it. The learning commenced with an active experiment. I wonder what would happen if?

Perhaps it started from a report of someone else having successfully eaten an oyster and living. The second consumer was inspired by a lecture - an abstract concept. This is the principle of which multi level marketing is based, as far as I can determine. Other people have made a fortune selling to their friends and colleagues, so you can too. I suspect that those who prefer to learn from active experimentation are those who join the down-line.

Sure, but how does eating oysters or joining a marketing network relate to using games in training.

Those of you who jump on the learning cycle at the reflective observation level have probably already found the answer. You are reflecting on experiences of your own that parallel the examples that I have given.

Those of you who prefer to learn from abstract concepts are becoming a little impatient - OK so much for the stories, but when do we get the facts?

Those of you who prefer to learn from active experimentation are waiting for a way to try it out for yourselves, while those who prefer concrete experiences are waiting to be told what to do next - or perhaps you have already wandered off and started doing something else already.

OK - TRY THIS, all of you!

Without using a computer, a calculator or a cell phone, add the numbers 1 to 1,000 - and show all of the workings on a single sheet of letter sized paper.

It can be done - in about five lines, in fact.

The basis of this problem was once posed by a nineteenth century school trainer to keep the group busy while he went to the contemporary equivalent of the staff room. Before the trainer left the group, one participant had solved the problem, in a way beyond the expectations of the tutor. In its original form there was no suggestion that it could be done on a single sheet of paper.

But what does this example tell us about learning styles?

If you have been exposed to advanced mathematics and can remember the name of the mathematicians as well as the way of doing the problem then you probably tend to prefer abstract concepts as a learning style.

If you have tried to solve the problem then your preference is probably active experimentation. If you have followed the link to the solution and followed the instructions there, then your preference is probably concrete experience. If you are more interested in this review of the approaches to the problem than the problem or the

solution itself, then perhaps reflective observation is your thing.

Your preferred learning style is where you like to start learning.

If you follow through the theory introduced in a lecture and apply them in your life, you show a preference for learning from abstract concepts.

If things become clearer to you through discussion with others, or by reviewing on your own, then you have a preference for reflective observation.

If you prefer the activity part of a structured exercise to get started on the learning cycle, then concrete experience is your thing.

If applying the learning in the real world is what it is all about for you, then you are indicating a preference for abstract concepts.

The point at which the learning becomes interesting is your preferred learning style, but the learning process is not complete until it has passed through the whole cycle.

I have developed a structured activity to examine the differences in learning styles. There is also a survey which one group of seminar participants' put together to indicate how they believed that proponents of different learning styles would act in different situations. Follow the tags in this text or at the end of this article to see this material.

A game becomes an experiential learning activity only when there is an opportunity to reflect on it, relate it to some theoretical concepts and apply it. This may not happen in the classroom. The reflection may take place in the bar after class, or on the bus home or when you tell a friend about it.

Similarly a lecture is not a learning experience, unless the information is applied. As one of the great business speakers, Tom Peters, exhorts his audience: Don't write down what I say, write down what you are going to do about it.

If our preferred learning style is catered for in a presentation, then we find it fun. If we take it from that point and apply it, then it is learning.

Issues that are arising from the Kolb model

It pays insufficient attention to the process of reflection (Boud, 1983). While David A. Kolb's scheme 'has been useful in assisting us in planning learning activities and in helping us to check simply that learners can be effectively engaged', they comment, 'it does not help... to uncover the elements of reflection itself', see reflection.

The claims made for the four different learning styles are extravagant(Jarvis 1987; Tennant 1997). As Tennant comments, even though the four learning styles neatly dovetail with the different dimensions of the experiential learning model, this doesn't necessarily validate them. David Kolb is putting forward a particular learning style. The problem here is that the experiential learning model does not apply to all situations. There are alternatives - such as information assimilation. There are also others such as memorization. Each of these may be appropriate to different situations.

The model takes very little account of different cultural experiences/conditions (Anderson 1988). The Inventory has also been used within a fairly limited range of cultures (an important consideration if we approach learning as situated i.e. affected by environments). As Anderson (1988) highlights, there is a need to take account of differences in cognitive and communication styles that are culturally based. Here we need to attend to different models of selfhood - and the extent to which these may differ from the 'western' assumptions that underpin the Kolb and Fry model.

The idea of stages or steps does not sit well with the reality of thinking. There is a problem here - that of sequence. As Dewey (1933) has said in relation to reflection a number of processes can occur at once, stages can be jumped. This way of presenting things is rather too neat and is simplistic.

Empirical support for the model is weak(Jarvis 1987; Tennant 1997). The initial research base was small, and there have only been a limited number of studies that have sought to test or explore the model. Furthermore, the learning style inventory 'has no capacity to measure the degree of integration of learning styles' (Tennant 1997).

The relationship of learning processes to knowledge is problematic. As Jarvis (1987) again points out, David Kolb is able to show that learning and knowledge are intimately related. However, two problems arise here. David Kolb doesn't really explore the nature of knowledge in any depth. In chapter five of *Experiential Learning* he discusses the structure of knowledge from what is basically a social psychology perspective. He doesn't really connect with the rich and varied debates about the nature of knowledge that raged over the centuries within philosophy and social theory. This means that I do not think he really grasps different ways of knowing. For example, Kolb focuses on processes in the individual mind, rather than seeing

learning as situated. Second, for David Kolb, learning is concerned with the production of knowledge. 'Knowledge results from the combination of grasping experience and transforming it' (Kolb 1984). Here we might contrast this position with Paulo Freire. His focus is upon informed, committed action (praxis).

Given these problems we have to take some care approaching David Kolb's vision of experiential learning. However, as Tennant (1997) points out, 'the model provides an excellent framework for planning teaching and learning activities and it can be usefully employed as a guide for understanding learning difficulties, vocational counseling, academic advising and so on'.

Critiques to Kolb model

Many of us engaged in professional learning have a broad understanding of the work of David Kolb. His highly influential book entitled 'Experiential Learning: Experience as the source of learning and development' was first published in 1984 since when his ideas have had a dramatic impact on the design and development of lifelong learning models. Of course, Kolb's work can be traced back to that famous dictum of Confucius around 450 BC:

"Tell me, and I will forget. Show me, and I may remember. Involve me, and I will understand."

This article aims to help you explore the development of experiential learning from its original proposal into some of its current refinements and applications today, using the World Wide Web (the Internet) as a vast reference library...

A useful place to start this online exploration is David Kolb's own website. Here you need to be careful. There is another and different David Kolb, a professor of philosophy at Bates College, who is a prolific author. The man we seek is the professor of organizational behavior at Weatherhead School of Management. David A Kolb describes himself as a "contemporary advocate of Experiential Learning". His own professional webpage [now at <http://www.learningfromexperience.com>] where you can find information about his background, current work and most well known publications - including references to his most well-known subject - experiential learning and learning styles.

The concept of experiential learning explores the cyclical pattern of all learning from Experience through Reflection and Conceptualizing to Action and on to further Experience. One of the sites which explores the model and its practical application has disappeared but much better anyway is:

<http://www.dmu.ac.uk/~jamesa/learning/experien.htm>

This is a very well known model which now forms the heart of many training and learning events. It also describes the process for recording continuous professional development, through taking time to capture, record and implement learning in our daily work. There are many adaptations and uses of the model. A fascinating one is provided on the Natural Learning website where analogy between this model of learning and organic growth in the plant and gardening worlds is well made: <http://www.humanoptions.com/learning.html>.

David Kolb has extended his original work to explore the different ways in which we all learn. Honey and Mumford defined four styles, based loosely around the four stages of Kolb's cycle: Activists, Reflectors, Theorists and Pragmatists. Perhaps the best exposition of these learning styles, together with a range of fascinating illustrations is to be found at the University of New South Wales, and I would strongly recommend this page: archived at:

<http://www.fbe.unsw.edu.au/Learning/instructionaldesign/styles.htm>

The work on learning styles has been used and developed by many groups and institutions. A Polytechnic in Hong Kong adapted the work to provide Learning to Learn guide for its participants: archived at:

http://www.ic.polyu.edu.hk/posh97/student/Learn/Learning_to_learn.htm. Meanwhile, staff members at Mason College have done a very creditable job of creating a directory of all the main learning style instruments including a summary of their main benefits and features: <http://mason.gmu.edu/~bgiven/models1.html>.

In Britain, the most accessible resource is the best-selling Manual of Learning Styles created by Peter Honey and Alan Mumford, which includes a self-assessment instrument and advice on how to diversify your learning. The Manual is available online at <http://www.peterhoney.co.uk>.

If you want to track down the original publications by David Kolb, or to find other books on experiential education, have a look through [the 'experiential' sections of the Active Learning Bookshop or the Learnativity Bookshop].

Kolb's work has influenced the work of many in the learning, development and education fields. The National Society for Experiential Education is a membership association and networking resource promoting experience-based approaches to teaching and learning (<http://www.nsee.org>). Their site has an extensive library of further resources. The Association for Experiential Education aims to "contribute to making a more just and compassionate world by transforming education" (<http://www.aee.org>). The South African-based International Consortium for Experiential Education organizes its networking activities within four 'villages', two of which are concerned with community action and social change, and with personal growth, self awareness and group effectiveness (<http://www.el.uct.ac.za>)

A further development of these ideas has led to the notion of groups and companies transforming themselves into Learning Organizations. An impressive and highly active network of people are busy exploring all aspects of this field through the email discussion groups to be found at <http://www.learning-org.com>.

Training Zone has itself, in collaboration with the European Consortium for the Learning Organization see <http://www.eclo.org> an open conference about learning organization matters.

We can explore and develop our own learning in an experiential way. The Internet offers a virtually limitless resource for extending our own knowledge as this article seeks to demonstrate. To explore some of these ideas further, look up any of the links from this article, and register for further updates with Training Zone.

Critiques of Kolb's theory from an informal education perspective

On the www.infed.org site you will find some fundamental criticisms of Kolb's theory ... e.g. "In reality, these things may be happening all at once." (Jeffs and Smith, 1999) at <http://www.infed.org/foundations/f-explrn.htm>

Here's a summary of the main criticisms as presented by Mark K. Smith (interestingly including an anachronistic one from Dewey!)

"A number of criticisms can be made of the Kolb model. It pays insufficient attention to the process of reflection (see Boud et al 1983); the claims made for the four different learning styles are extravagant (Jarvis 1987; Tennant 1997); the model takes very little account of different cultural experiences/conditions; the idea of stages or steps does not sit well with the reality of thinking (Dewey 1933); and the empirical support for the model is weak (Jarvis 1987; Tennant 1997)."

For more detail supporting these points see: Experiential Learning

Prepared by Mark K. Smith
© the informal education homepage
<http://www.infed.org/biblio/b-explrn.htm>

Critiques of Kolb's theory from an adult education and ESL perspective

David Kolb, The Theory of Experiential Learning and ESL
by Curtis Kelly, Heian Jogakuin College (Osaka, Japan)

Limitations of Kolb's Theory and Inventory

"Not all writers agree with Kolb's theory. Rogers, for example points out that "learning includes goals, purposes, intentions, choice and decision-making, and it is not at all clear where these elements fit into the learning cycle." (Rogers, 1996) Habermas has also proposed that there are at least three kinds of learning and that we have different learning styles for each. (Rogers, 1996)

"As for the Inventory, Kolb, himself, points out its greatest limitation. The results are based solely on the way learners rate themselves. It does not rate learning style preferences through standards or behavior, as some other personal style inventories do, and it only gives relative strengths within the individual learner, not in relation to others. In my own case, I found the results dubious. The wording in the questions seemed vague and the results did not jive with my own view of my preferred learning style.

"Nonetheless, Kolb's contributions cannot be underestimated. Whatever their limitations, by presenting a model of experience in a scientific form, he has helped move educational thought from the locus of the instructor back to the learner. As many of the major contributors to the field have pointed out, experience has once again become a viable topic of discussion. (Brookfield, 1990; Cross, 1981; Jarvis, 1995; Kemp, 1996; Knowles, 1990, McKeachie, 1994, Peters, 1991)"

The full article (plus references) provides a useful historical overview (placing Kolb in context) with some interesting insights. But I can't quite believe that the role of experience in learning was so completely overlooked until the 1980's. Why, for example, are the writings of Dewey, Kelley and Lewin not referred to in this article? Rogers, A. (1996). *Teaching Adults* (2nd ed.). Buckingham: Open University Press.

Critiques of Kolb's theory from a psychological and philosophical perspective

Feelings and Personhood: Psychology in Another Key (1992) by John Heron (founder of the Human Potential Resources Group at the University of Surrey), includes a four page critique of Kolb's theory of experiential learning. His points include:

- it is too narrow and underdeveloped
- its phenomenal base in psychological modes is too restricted
- its philosophical justification is invalid
- it's all arranged to support Kolb's preferred paradigm of scientific inquiry
- "...the prehension-transformation distinction, as Kolb uses it, is fundamentally incoherent, and cannot be used to support his learning model"
- 'He ... has to tack on other modes such as intuition and imagination in an unsatisfactory way, onto this structure to make up for its limitations.'

Critiques of Kolb's theory from an experiential education perspective

Extracts from the archives of the outdoor research discussion group

Chris Loynes (Sept 2000) writes:

Kolb's theory is based on research measuring the non-conscious development of psychomotor skills. The evidence that other kinds of learning follow this pattern is weak.

The application of Kolb's theory, which models an innate process, to the pedagogy of a deliberate educational event has never been shown convincingly. Neither has the transfer of learning from one context to another been demonstrated.

It remains a powerful planning and thinking tool for facilitators. I wonder if there is evidence of the application of the model stimulating better designed and led sessions resulting in better outcomes?

Tracey Dickson (Sept 2000) writes:

* the research basis of the model particularly with reference to lack of research with people from different backgrounds (eg: cultures, gender, ages, socio-economic, education etc..)

* the seemingly simplistic linear nature of the model (many people I know do not learn in this nice linear way, they are much more random, may "regress" through Kolb's stages, work in different orders)

* the circular model may also give the impression that the stages are equal in time, emphasis etc..

Critiques of Kolb's theory from a lifelong education perspective

"Kolb's learning cycle does not illustrate the fact that empirical (i.e. experiential) thinking based on action has limitations:

- * It may result in false conclusions.
- * It may not help us understand and explain change and new experiences.
- * It may cause mental laziness and dogmatic thinking.

Miettinen also suggest that Kolb's experience and reflection occur in isolation and that there is the necessity for the individual to interact with other humans and the environment in order to enhance the reasoning and conclusions drawn."

Critiques of Kolb's theory from a management education perspective

Beard and Wilson (2002) report that in management education Kolb's theory is "extremely influential" and "is rarely seen as problematic". But they do describe a number of issues raised by others, which I have summarized here:

1. Kolb's theory locates itself in the cognitive psychology tradition, and overlooks or mechanically explains and thus divorces people from the social, historical and cultural aspects of self, thinking and action.

2. The idea of a manager reflecting like a scientist in isolation on events is like an 'intellectual Robinson Crusoe'. The social interactions of a person are very important to the development of self, thought and learning.

3. Progressing sequentially through the cycle is questioned: "Learning can be considered as a process of argumentation in which thinking, reflecting, experiencing and action are different aspects of the same process. It is practical argumentation with oneself and in collaboration with others that actually forms the basis for learning."

Original sources:

- Reynolds, M (1997) Learning styles: a critique, Management Learning, Sage, London
- Holman, D, Pavlica, K and Thorpe, R (1997) Rethinking Kolb's theory of experiential learning in management education, Management Learning, Sage, London

Critiques of Kolb's theory from a pedagogical perspective

James Atherton's 'Learning and teaching' is a superb online presentation, digest and discussion of a wide range of learning and teaching theories. It includes many clear

and colorful diagrams illustrating the theories under discussion. Atherton maintains a critical edge throughout his presentation. His section on 'The Experiential Learning Cycle' is certainly no exception. It is mostly about Kolb's theory. He makes several criticisms, but each criticism is accompanied by a proposal for improving the model. The cumulative effect of adopting all of Atherton's constructive proposals would result in a model very different from the original. It is not clear whether Atherton is tidying up Kolb's theory or making fundamental criticisms of it. Some examples:

On the plus side:

"Kolb (1984) provides one of the most useful descriptive models of the adult learning process available."

"The most direct application of the model is to use it to ensure that teaching and tutoring activities give full value to each stage of the process."

On the other hand:

"This distinction [between 'intention' and 'intension'] is not easily identified by many people, and is one example of where Kolb may go over the top: he does have a tendency to elevate his model to a theory of Life, the Universe and Everything."

Atherton does not consider that Kolb's integration of Piaget's concepts of 'assimilation' and 'accommodation' is very successful.

He also considers that Kolb overlooked the importance of the contrast between the private and public parts of his model.

ATHERTON J S (2002) Learning and Teaching: Learning from experience [On-line]: UK: Available: <http://www.dmu.ac.uk/~jamesa/learning> Accessed: 13 August 2003

Critiques of Kolb's theory from a human potential perspective

[These extracts from the Human Potential Research Group Dictionary criticize the stereotypical application of Kolb's model and question how well the model matches the reality of how people actually learn through experience.]

This experiential learning cycle has been very influential in, for example, education and management development, although it used typically in a much simplified and even stereotypical form that neglects the depth and variation to be found in Kolb (1984). For example (following Lewin and others) Kolb saw the opposite 'poles' of the cycle as important dialectical tensions (e.g. that between concrete experience and abstract conceptualization). The ways in which these dialectics are resolved or handled greatly influences the type and level of learning that ensues.

The model has been criticized for being stronger conceptually than as an accurate representation of the way people actually learn through experience.

Human Potential Research Group Dictionary was at: <http://www.hprg.org/dictef.htm> but now appears to have evolved into the book: Dictionary of Personal Development by Paul Tosey and Josie Gregory
Human Potential Research Group

A critique of Experiential Learning Theory and its hypothesized construct validity

ABSTRACT from Miriam W. Webb's 'A DEFINITIVE CRITIQUE OF EXPERIENTIAL LEARNING THEORY'

The paper is a critique of Experiential Learning Theory and its hypothesized construct validity. A thorough examination of the intellectual and scientific roots of Experiential Learning Theory, its assumptions, and foundational references were analyzed to address three substantive questions fundamental to the theory.

1. What is learning?
2. Are the Experiential Learning Model modes separate and distinct in their functions so as to necessitate a four-stage cycle for learning to take place?
3. Is dialectic tension the mechanism that mediates the relationship between the modes and between the person and the environment?

1. First, the research addresses learning, and the definition derived by Experiential Learning Theory. This section concludes that Experiential Learning Theory's definition is a dramatic distortion of the very epistemological fundamentals it references. The author proposes a different definition more consistent with those fundamentals.

2. Second, the research addresses Experiential Learning Model's foundational propositions, experiential learning modes, their constitutive natures, and their place in relation to learning theory. It concludes that all four modes are not required for learning to take place, and demonstrates that this component of the theory is rife with inherent contradiction and inconsistency. The author suggests ways in which these contradictions could be resolved.

3. Finally, the research addresses the use of dialectic tension as the mediating function of learning, by tracing the meaning of dialectic from its inception with Socrates through Karl Marx and up to its place in Experiential Learning Theory. The research concludes that dialectic tension is not a viable mechanism for mediating modes of learning. The research further substantiates that the proposition that learning, by its very nature, is a tension and conflict-filled process is a misapplication of dialectic tension. The author recommends a complete re-examination of the mechanisms, which mediate between learning modes.

The paper concludes that the infrastructure of Experiential Learning Theory, its Model, and the Learning Style Inventory is faulty at the core, and recommends that the operational evolution of learning styles as a combination of contiguous modes of learning be re-evaluated.

The full abstract and a summary of key points are presented (with the author's permission) on this site at <http://reviewing.co.uk/experiential.learning.theory.critique.htm>

The full critique (including the full abstract) is available in a PDF file at <http://cc.ysu.edu/~mnwebb>

Critique of reflective Constructivist learning theory from a feminist perspective

This is part of a wider critique, not just of Kolb's theory but of all experiential learning theory that upholds the reflective constructivist view. It is quoted from Tara Fenwick's *Classifying Alternate Perspectives in Experiential Learning* (1999 AERC Proceedings)

"From a feminist perspective, Michelson (1996) observes that emphasis on (critical) reflection depersonalizes the learner as an autonomous rational knowledge-making self, disembodied, rising above the dynamics and contingency of experience. The learning process of "reflection" presumes that knowledge is extracted and abstracted from experience by the processing mind. This ignores the possibility that all knowledge is constructed within power-laden social processes, that experience and knowledge are mutually determined, and that experience itself is knowledge-driven and cannot be known outside socially available meanings. Further, argues Michelson (1996), the reflective or constructivist view of development denigrates bodily and intuitive experience, advocating retreat into the loftier domains of rational thought from which 'raw' experience can be disciplined and controlled."

Michelson, E. (1996). Usual suspects: experience, reflection, and the (en) gendering of knowledge. *International Journal of Lifelong Education*

Tips

Thiagi's Thinking on Experiential Learning (and its benefits)

by: Sivasailam Thiagarajan <thiagi@THIAGI.COM>

The Intelligent Choice

Our Australian colleagues Phil Rutherford and John Sleight had very useful comments regarding Pam Wyess' request for explanations why experiential learning works. Here are some additional rationales from another one of my articles:

WHEN TRAINERS CHALLENGE ME with "Why should I use games and experiential activities", I list impressive research findings from cognitive sciences. These findings suggest that traditional training is severely limited - and interactive, experiential techniques have great potential.

Here are some specific details:

YOU ARE OF TWO MINDS. Professor Seymour Epstein at the University of Massachusetts has a groundbreaking theory of intelligence called Cognitive Experiential Self-Theory (CEST), which suggests that we have an experiential mind

and a rational mind. Our experiential mind learns directly, thinks quickly, pays attention to the outcome, and forgets slowly. Our rational mind learns indirectly, thinks deliberately, pays attention to the process, and forgets rapidly. Epstein's contention is that you need both your minds. Games and interactive strategies appeal directly to the experiential mind. When combined with debriefing discussions, they provide a powerfully balanced approach to whole-brain learning.

YOU HAVE THREE INTELLIGENCES. Robert J. Sternberg, IBM Professor of Psychology and Education at Yale University, has demonstrated that someone can be highly creative and practical but have a low IQ. According to Sternberg's research, practical and creative intelligence is better predictors of task effectiveness than analytical intelligence that is measured by IQ tests. Interactive, experiential techniques can develop your practical and creative intelligence and enhance your success.

YOU HAVE SEVEN INTELLIGENCES. Professor Howard Gardner at the Harvard University developed the revolutionary concept of multiple intelligence. According to this theory, you have (at least) seven types of intelligence:

- Linguistic intelligence (thinking in words and using language),
- Logical-mathematical intelligence (quantifying and working with hypotheses),
- Kinesthetic intelligence (acquiring physical skills),
- Spatial intelligence (three-dimensional thinking),
- Musical intelligence (working with pitch, rhythm, timbre, and tone),
- Interpersonal intelligence (interacting with others), and
- intrapersonal intelligence (understanding one's self).

Traditional training caters almost exclusively to the first two intelligence. However, jobs demand other types of intelligence. Games and experiential activities tap into all of your intelligences and get you ready for the real world

ONCE MORE WITH FEELING. In his national bestseller, *Emotional Intelligence*, Daniel Goleman draws upon brain and behavioral research to show that being smart goes beyond your IQ. You need emotional intelligence with self-awareness, impulse control, persistence, motivation, and empathy. The principles and procedures related to emotional intelligence are best learned by experiencing these factors and analyzing their impact. Traditional training fails miserably to sharpen our emotional intelligence. Experiential and interactive approaches are obvious strategies of choice.

THERE ARE NO MAGIC BULLETS. But decades of research studies endorse games, simulations, and other experiential activities that use of different types of intelligence.

Some More Thoughts

The following statements are my opinions based on facilitating experiential activities for the past 97 years. Although you can find empirical data to support any of these opinions in any introductory psychology text, I make no claims about their scientific validity or generalizability.

In the late 60s I took a course on mathematical theories of learning from a brilliant psychologist, Frank Restle. As an impertinent young grad student I decided to reduce all validated principles of learning to seven laws to fulfil the course assignment. Thirty years later I dusted them off and incorporated in an editorial comment in November issue to the GameLetter to explain why experiential learning is so powerful and how they can be made more powerful.

Here's a quick recap of the seven laws of learning that have consistently worked with different groups in different countries. After a brief statement of each law, I discuss how it applies to interactive, experiential learning activities.

LAW OF REINFORCEMENT: Participants learn to repeat behaviors that are rewarded.

I make sure that training activities provide several opportunities for earning rewards. I require participants to make frequent decisions and responses. The scoring system rewards people for correct responses. During the first few rounds of the activity, even partially-correct answers are rewarded. The reward is clearly associated with the response. In addition to score points, participant behaviors earn such social rewards as praise and recognition from team members and spectators.

LAW OF EMOTIONAL LEARNING: Events that are accompanied by intense emotions result in long-lasting learning.

I constantly remind myself that boredom is not conducive to learning. Training games, simulations, and role-plays add emotional element to learning. I make sure that emotions don't become too intense and interfere with learning. I also make sure that participants don't learn dysfunctional behaviors because of intense emotions. I debrief participants after emotional activities to analyze their feelings and learn from their reactions. Sometimes I conduct specially designed games to help participants unlearn undesirable behaviors acquired in the grip of powerful emotions.

LAW OF ACTIVE LEARNING: Active responding produces more effective learning than passive listening or reading.

I intersperse lectures and reading assignments with active-learning episodes such as quizzes and puzzles. I provide participants with ample opportunities to respond by asking questions, encouraging them to ask questions, answering their questions, and questioning their answers.

LAW OF PRACTICE AND FEEDBACK: Learners cannot master skills without repeated practice and relevant feedback.

I don't confuse understanding a procedure with ability to perform it. I invest ample time in conducting activities that provide repeated practice and feedback. I make sure that the training activities incorporate immediate and useful feedback from peers and experts. I use rating scales, checklists, and other devices to ensure that the feedback is objective and useful.

LAW OF PREVIOUS EXPERIENCE: New learning should be linked to (and build upon) the experiences of the learner.

I check the entry level of the participants by using appropriate activities. I remind myself that adults bring a variety of rich experiences to the training group. I design activities to ensure easy adjustments to fit different entry levels and to incorporate relevant experiences. I frequently use Structured Sharing formats (see July TGL) to help participants share their experiences.

LAW OF INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCES: Different people learn in different ways.

My training activities accommodate a variety of learning styles. I make sure that participants can respond by writing, speaking, drawing, and acting out. I encourage and permit participants to learn individually, in pairs, and in teams. Through team-learning activities, I ensure that participants receive individual attention from their peers. I use a variety of scoring systems to encourage different learning styles.

LAW OF RELEVANCE: Effective learning is relevant to the learner's life and work.

I use simulations and role-plays to increase the link between the learning situation and the real world. My games incorporate realistic problems and challenges from a variety of workplace situations. After a training activity, I debrief the participants and discuss strategies for applying what they learned in the game to their real-world context. I require the participants to walk the talk and to demonstrate their ability to transfer abstract theory to concrete conditions.

Are you a law-abiding trainer? Both common sense and empirical research support these seven laws of learning. They apply to all types of learning by all types of learners. Check your most recent training activity against the seven laws. Which ones did you make use of and which ones did you violate? When you design your next training activity use these laws as an evaluation checklist.

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Related links

<http://www.css.edu/users/dswenson/web/PAGEMILL/Kolb.htm>
<http://www.shu.ac.uk/schools/ed/pgclt/resources/tact-mar-2000/index.htm>
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<http://www.nacgt.org.uk/bpdoc/4-3.html>
<http://www.distance.pcc.edu/distancehq/infopages/index.cfm?kbid=4601&DispGroupID=127>
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<http://www.johnsleigh.com.au>

Learning styles

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Learning styles: What are they

Definitions of Learning Style on the Web:

- A mode of learning; an individual's preferred or best manner(s) in which to think, process information, and demonstrate learning. Several ways to name and describe learning styles exist. One of the most common identifies four styles as abstract-random, abstract-sequential, concrete-random, and concrete-sequential. To simplify a complex topic: concretize like to deal with specifics, are more intellectually based than emotionally based, and focus more on tasks than reasons; abstracts like to deal with large issues and reasons and are more emotionally based than intellectually based; sequential like structure and order and prefer to focus on single topics; and randoms comfortably handle chaos and several topics at once and tend to be more inventive.

www.tensigma.org/glossary.html

- Relatively stable and developed ways in which a person perceives, behaves, and interacts in a learning environment.

<http://www.advisorteam.com/user/kts.asp>,
<http://www.womensmedia.com/seminar-learningstyle.html>,
<http://www.gwu.edu/~tip/styles.html>,
<http://www.d.umn.edu/student/loon/acad/strat/lrnsty.html>)
<https://courses.worldcampus.psu.edu/public/faculty/DEGlossary.shtml>

- An individual's unique approach to learning based on strengths, weaknesses, and preferences. Though experts do not agree how to categorize learning styles, an example of a categorization system is one that separates learners into auditory learners, visual learners, and kinesthetic learners. Though spoken as gospel, where's the current research that this isn't all bunk?
www.e-learningguru.com/gloss.htm

- Each person has a very personal preference as to the way he or she learns. This is true for the general behavior while learning as well as the preference for one sense or another and also in the way intake and processing of new information takes place.
it-resources.icsa.ch/Pedagogie/Glossaries/GlossarE.html

- A particular way in which an individual learns. Examples include: Physical, Mathematical, Visual, Linguistic.
add.miningco.com/library/blglossaryl.htm

- A theory of learning in which it is argued that different individual prefers to learn in different ways. Various models of learning style have been put forward, some of the better known being that of Honey and Mumford which is based on activist, reflector, theorist and pragmatist styles.
www.sh.plym.ac.uk/eds/lthe/glossary.htm

- Not all people learn most effectively the same way. Using the three knowledge classes, we can see that the trainee might best learn by induction, deduction or rote; each this is a style. The idiosyncratic way in which a person learns.
www.cee.hw.ac.uk/isl/mobit/glossary.html

- The natural manner in which a participant learns most efficiently. In HOSTS, learning styles are described as global or analytic.
www.hostssupport.com/click_support/pages/yr_glossary.html

- A revealed preference for attending more to a particular aspect of learning task (e.g., auditory aspect).
inl.sitewerks.co.nz/support/glossary

- A composite of the cognitive, affective, and physiological factors that serve as relatively stable indicators of how a learner perceives, interacts with, and responds to the learning environment. Included in this definition are perceptual modalities, information processing styles, and personality patterns.
www3.sympatico.ca/krewski/mde615groupc/glossary.html

- Stages of learning to build habitual skills - unconscious competence, then conscious incompetence, then conscious competence and finally unconscious competence.

www.advancedperception.com/Glossary%20of%20Terms/Glossary%20of%20Terms%20-%20L.htm

- The channels through which a person best understands and retains learning (i.e. vision, hearing, movement, touching, or a combination of these).

www.annikeris.com/glossary_1.html

There are two major differences in how we learn: how we perceive and how we process.

Perception

This is how we take in information, in new situations. Some of us sense and feel our way, while others think things through.

Sensing/feeling people

- Connect experience to meaning (connected knowing)
- Perceive through their senses
- Immerse themselves in concrete reality
- Are intuitive.

Thinking people

- Separate themselves from the experience (separate knowing)
- Stand back and analyze what is happening
- Reason experience
- Perceive with a logical (cognitive) approach.

Concrete experience (Thinking) **TO** (Sensing/Feeling) Abstract Conceptualization
We hover near different places on a continuum.

And the place where we hover is our most comfortable place.

Processing

This is how we process experience and information (how we make it part of ourselves). Some of us jump right in and try it – active doers; while others watch what's happening and reflect on it – reflective watchers.

Reflective people:

- Reflect on new things
- Filter them through their experience to create meaningful connections.

Active people:

- Act on new information immediately
- Reflect only after they have tried it out
- Need to do it in order to make it theirs and extend it into their world.

Active Experimentation (Doing)	TO	Reflective observation (Watching)
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Each method of perceiving and processing has its own strengths and weaknesses; each is equally valuable; and we all need to use each skill at different times.

Learning styles models

David Kolb Learning styles model

Kolb (1984) identified four phases of learning, each of which entails different processes and abilities in acquiring new information:

Concrete experience (feeling): becoming fully involved in a new activity in order to understand it firsthand

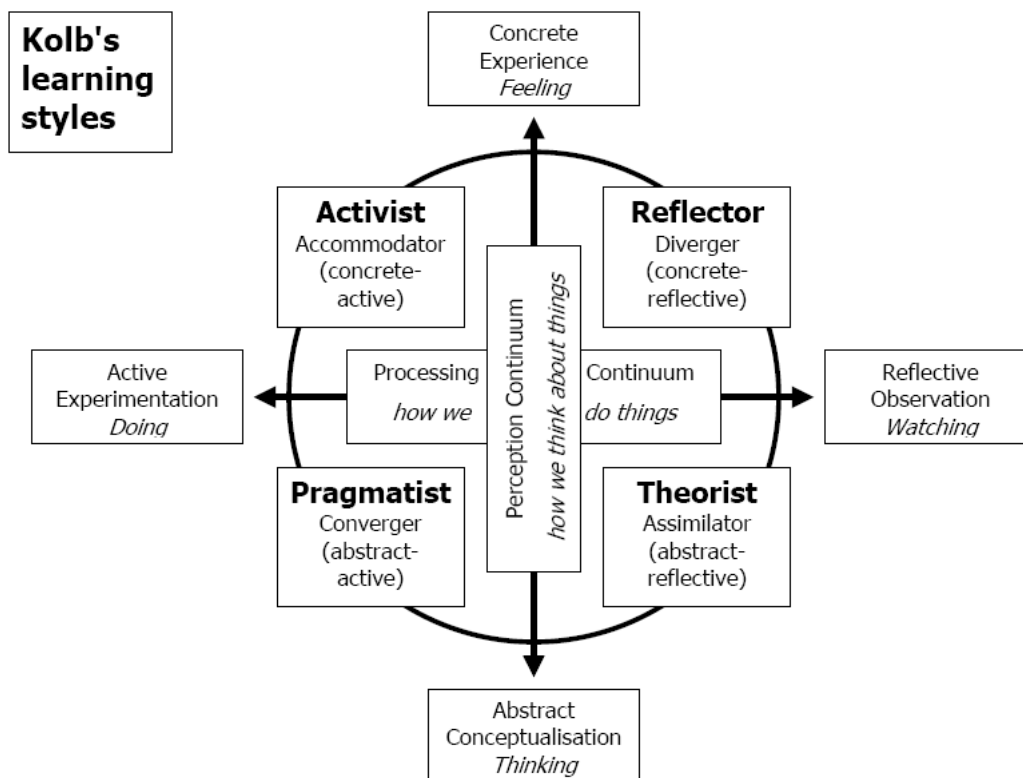
Reflective observation (watching): viewing experiences impartially or from many different perspectives

Abstract conceptualisation (thinking): creating concepts that integrate observations and experiences into theories and developing explanations or hypotheses that can be generalised

Active Experimentation (doing): using theories to make decisions and solve problems and testing and elaborating generalisations in different situations

(Tools for Teaching, Barbara Gross Davis)

According to Kolb, when participants work through all four phases of the learning cycle for each main concept or idea, new information is more meaningful and retained longer. The four learning styles Kolb identifies are:



I. Convergers / Pragmatists

Convergers

These learners rely on abstract conceptualisation and active experimentation. They like to find concrete answers and move quickly to find solutions to problems and they are good at defining problems and making decisions.

Pragmatists

Thinkers and doers take in experience abstractly, and then process what they take in actively. They start with an idea, then they try it out, experimenting and testing it to see if it works. (Practical/common sense people)

II. Divergers/Reflectors

Divergers

These learners use concrete experience and reflective observation to generate a range of ideas and they excel at brainstorming and imagining alternatives.

Reflectors

Sensors/feelers and watchers take in information concretely, and they process what they take in reflectively. They start with what they see, then they generalize. (Imaginative people)

III. Assimilators / Theorist

Assimilators

Learners who prefer this style rely on abstract conceptualisation and reflective observation. They like to assimilate a wide range of information and recast it into a

concise logical form and they are good at planning, developing theories and creating models.

Theorists

Thinkers and watchers take in (perceive) experience abstractly, and they process what they take in reflectively. They start with an idea, then they reflect about it, playing with it, watching it take different shapes. (Theoretical/analytic people)

IV. Accommodators / Activists

Accommodators

Often using trial and error intuitive strategies to solve problems, these learners are best at concrete experience and active experimentation. They also tend to take risks and plunge into problems.

Activists

Sensors/feelers and doers take in experience concretely, and process what they take in actively. They start with what they see, hear, touch, feel. Then they plunge in and try it out in action. (Dynamic/Intuitive people)

Convergers tend to prefer solving problems that have definite answers. *Divergers* may benefit more from discussion groups and working collaboratively on projects. *Assimilators* would feel most comfortable observing, watching role-plays and simulations in class, and then generating concepts. *Accommodators* may prefer hand-on activities.

(Sources: Barbara Gross Davis, 1993; Claxton and Murrell, 1987; Erickson and Strommer, 1991; Fuhrmann and Grasha, 1983)

Learning Model

These four positions on the two dimensions describe a four-step learning model or process. Note that if we only fell along ONE dimension, we would have one of four learning styles:

Feeling or Sensing (*Concrete Experience*) - perceive information. This dimension represents a receptive experience based approach to learning that relies on feeling based judgments. They generally find theoretical approaches to be unhelpful and prefer to treat each situation as a unique case. They learn best from specific examples in which they can be involved. These learners tend to relate to peers, not authority (they are people persons - they want to get along with others, not be bossed around). Theoretical readings are not always helpful while group work and peer feedback often leads to success. Planned activities should apply learned skills. The instructor acts as coach/helper for this self-directed autonomous learner.

Watching (*Reflective Observation*) - reflect on how it will impact some aspect of our life. These individuals rely heavily on careful observation in making judgments. They prefer learning situations such as lectures that allow the role of impartial objective observers. These individuals tend to be introverts. Lectures are helpful to this learner (they are visual and auditory). This learner wants the instructor to provide expert

interpretation. They look for an instructor who is both a taskmaster and a guide. This learner wants their performance to be measured by external criteria.

Thinking (*Abstract Generalization or Conceptualization*) - compare how it fits into our own experiences. These individuals tend to be more oriented towards things and symbols and less towards other people. They learn best in authority-directed, impersonal learning situations that emphasize theory and systematic analysis. They are frustrated by and gain little from unstructured "discovery learning" approaches such as exercises and simulations. Case studies, theoretical readings and reflective thinking exercises help this learner. Very little else helps this learner.

Doing (testing in new situation or *Active Experimentation*) - think about how this information offers new ways for us to act. These individuals learn best when they can engage in such things as projects, homework, or group discussions. They dislike passive learning situations such as lectures. These individuals tend to be extroverts. This learner wants to touch everything (kinesthetic or tactile). Problem solving, small group discussions or games, peer feedback, and self directed work assignments all help this learner. This learner likes to see everything and determine their own criteria for the relevance of the materials.

Learning Style Dimensions

Theorists (or Assimilator) like to learn using *abstract conceptualization and reflective observation* (lecture, papers, analogies) and like to ask such questions as "How does this relate to that?" Training approaches - case studies, theory readings, and thinking alone. Their strengths lie in their ability to create theoretical models. They tend to be less interested in people and less concerned with practical applications of knowledge. They are often more concerned with abstract concepts.

Theorists like to analyze and synthesize. They assimilate and convert disparate facts and observations into coherent, logical theories. Their philosophy prizes rationality and logic above all. They think problems through in a vertical, step-by-step, logical way. They tend to be perfectionists who will not rest easy until things are tidy and fit into a rational scheme. They are keen on basic assumptions, principles, theories, models and systems thinking. They tend to be detached, analytical and dedicated to rational objectivity. They feel uncomfortable with subjective judgements, ambiguity, lateral thinking and anything flippant.

Theorists learn best when they are offered a system, model, concept or theory, even when the application is not clear and the ideas may be distant from current reality. They like to work in structured situations with a clear purpose, and be allowed to explore associations and interrelationships, to question assumptions and logic and to analyze reasons and generalize. They like to be intellectually stretched.

Theorists learn least well when asked to do something without apparent purpose, when activities are unstructured and ambiguous and when emotion is emphasized. They do not learn well when faced with activities lacking depth, when data to support the subject are unavailable, and when they feel "out of tune" with the rest of the group.

Theorists are often found in research and planning departments. This learning style is more characteristics of basic science and mathematics than applied sciences.

Pragmatists (or Converger) like to learn using *abstract conceptualization* and *active experimentation* (laboratories, fieldwork, and observations). They ask "How can I apply this in practice?" Training approach - peer feedback; activities that apply skills; trainer is coach/helper for a self-directed autonomous learner. The pragmatist's greatest strength is in the practical application of idea. They tend to be relatively unemotional. They prefer to deal with things rather than people.

Pragmatists are keen on trying out ideas, theories and techniques to see if they work in practice. They positively search out new ideas and take the first opportunity to experiment with applications. They are the sort of people who return from management courses bursting with new ideas, which they want to try out in practice. They like to get on with things, and act quickly and confidently on ideas that attract them. They tend to be impatient with ruminating and open-ended discussions. They are essentially practical, down-to-earth people, who like making practical decisions and solving problems. They respond to problems and opportunities "as a challenge". Their philosophy is "There is always a better way" and "If it works, it is good".

Pragmatists learn best when there is an obvious link between the subject-matter and their current job. They like being exposed to techniques or processes that are clearly practical, have immediate relevance and which they are likely to have the opportunity to implement.

Pragmatists learn least well where there are no immediate benefits or rewards from the activity and the learning events or their organizers seem distant from reality.

As a learner, you should know your areas of strength and weakness, you are in a much better position to choose learning experiences and opportunities which suit you, or to develop your weaker styles in order to be able to extend the range of experiences from which you are able to learn.

They tend to have narrow technical interests and quite often choose to specialize in the physical sciences.

Activists (or Accommodator) like to learn using *concrete experience* and *active experimentation* (simulations, case study, and homework). They tell themselves "I'm game for anything." Training approach - practicing the skill, problem solving, small group discussions, peer feedback; trainer should be a model of a professional, leaving the learner to determine her own criteria for relevance of materials. Their strengths lie in doing things and involving themselves in new experiences. They are called accommodators because they excel in adapting to specific immediate circumstances.

Activists involve themselves fully and without bias in new experiences. They enjoy the here and now and are happy to be dominated by immediate experiences. They are open-ended not skeptical and this tends to make them enthusiastic about anything new. Their philosophy is "I will try anything once". Their days are filled with activity. They tackle problems by brainstorming. As soon as the excitement from one activity

has died down, they are busy looking for the next. They tend to thrive on the challenge of new experiences but are bored with implementation and longer-term consolidation. They are gregarious people, constantly involving themselves with others but, in doing so, they seek to make themselves the center of all activities.

Activists learn best from novel experiences, from being encouraged to "have a go" and from being thrown into things. They enjoy relatively short "here and now" learning activities like business games and competitive team exercises. They tend to solve problems intuitively, relying on others for information. Accommodators are often found working in marketing and sales. The accommodator is at ease with people but is sometimes seen as impatient and pushy.

Activists learn least well from passive situations like reading, watching or listening to lectures, particularly those on concept or theory. They do not enjoy solitary work, repetitive tasks, situations that require detailed preparation, or being asked to review their learning opportunities and achievements.

This learner's educational background is often in technical or practical fields such as business.

Reflectors (or Diverger) like to learn using *reflective observation* and *concrete experience* (logs, journals, brainstorming). They like time to think about the subject. Training approach - lectures with plenty of reflection time; trainer should provide expert interpretation - taskmaster/guide; judge performance by external criteria. Their strengths lie in an imaginative ability. They tend to be interested in people and emotional elements..

Reflectors like to stand back to ponder experiences and observe them from many different perspectives. They collect data, both first-hand and from others, and prefer to analyze them thoroughly and think about them from every possible angle before coming to any definite conclusions. These they postpone as long as possible. Their philosophy is to be cautious. They enjoy watching other people in action and prefer to take a back seat in meetings and discussions. They think before they speak. They tend to adopt a low profile and have a slightly distant, tolerant, unruffled air about them. When they act, it is part of a wide picture, which includes the past as well as the present and others' observations as well as their own.

Reflectors learn best from activities where they are able to stand back, listen and observe. They like to have a chance to collect information and be given time to think about it before commenting or acting. They like to review what has happened.

Reflectors learn least well when they are rushed into things with insufficient data or without time to plan, when they are forced into the limelight by being required to role-play or chair a meeting, or when asked to take short-cuts or do a superficial job.

People with this learning style tend to become counselors, organizational development specialists and personnel managers. They have broad cultural interests and tend to specialize in the arts. This style is characterizes individuals from humanities and liberal arts backgrounds.

A reminder that we learn from all four experiences (quadrants), but one of the four is our favorite. The ideal training environment would include each of the four processes. For example, the cycle might begin with the learner's personal involvement through concrete experiences; next, the learner reflects on this experience, looking for meaning; then the learner applies this meaning to form a logical conclusion; and finally, the learner experiments with similar problems, which result in new concrete experiences. The learning cycle might begin anew due to new and different experiences.

The training activities should be flexible so that each learner could spend additional time on his or her preferred learning style. Also, you can enter the learning cycle at any one of the four processes.

Clearly, a training of up to fifty people will likely have a wide variety of learning styles represented within the group. If the instruction can be tailored to regularly engage different learning styles without preferring one style to another, every participant has a better chance of learning in a satisfying manner.

David Kolb and Roger Fry (1975) argue that effective learning entails the possession of four different abilities (as indicated on each pole of their model): concrete experience abilities, reflective observation abilities, abstract conceptualization abilities and active experimentation abilities. Few of us can approach the 'ideal' in this respect and tend, they suggest, to develop a strength in, or orientation to, in one of the poles of each dimension. As a result they developed a learning style inventory (Kolb 1976) which was designed to place people on a line between concrete experience and abstract conceptualization; and active experimentation and reflective observation. Using this Kolb and Fry proceeded to identify four basic learning styles.

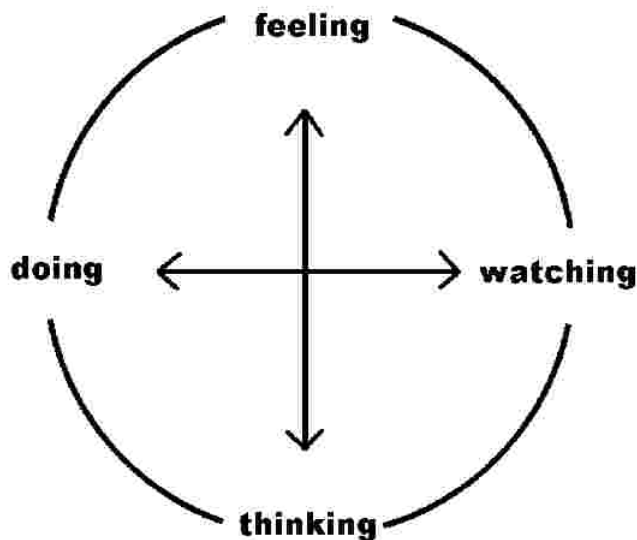
Learning style	Description	Learning characteristic
Converger	Abstract conceptualization + active experimentation	strong in practical application of ideas · can focus on hypo-deductive reasoning on specific problems · unemotional · has narrow interests
Diverger	Concrete experience + reflective observation	· strong in imaginative ability · good at generating ideas and seeing things from different perspectives · interested in people · broad cultural interests

Assimilator	Abstract conceptualization + reflective observation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> · strong ability to create theoretical models · excels in inductive reasoning · concerned with abstract concepts rather than people
Accommodator	Concrete experience + active experimentation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> · greatest strength is doing things · more of a risk taker · performs well when required to react to immediate circumstances · solves problems intuitively

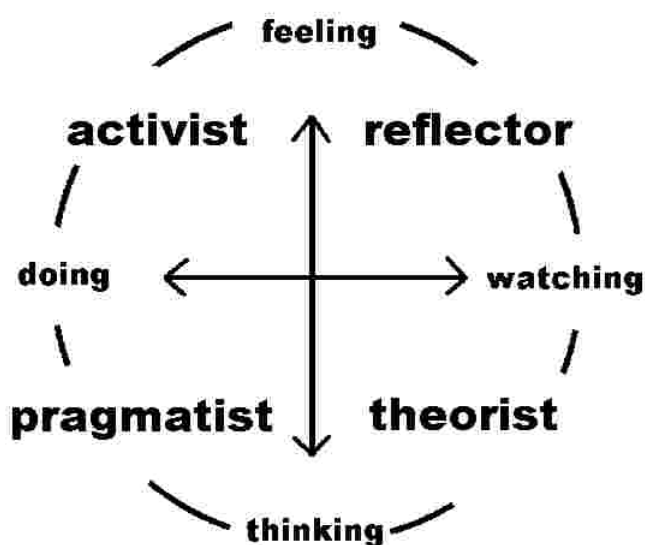
In developing this model Kolb and Fry have helped, along with Witkin (1950), have helped to challenge those models of learning that seek to reduce potential to one dimension such as intelligence (Tennant 1997). They also recognize that there are strengths and weaknesses associated with each style (and that being 'locked into' one style can put a learner at a serious disadvantage). However, there are a number of problems with the model.

Kolb's learning styles model is based on two lines of axis (continuums): our approach to a task - (preferring to do or watch), and our emotional response (preferring to think or feel). The theory sets out these four preferences, which are also possible different learning methods:

- doing (active experimentation)
- watching (reflective observation)
 - feeling (concrete experience)
- thinking (abstract - conceptualization)



These learning styles characteristics are normally shown as two lines of axis. The east-west axis is called the Processing Continuum (how we approach a task), and the north-south axis is called the Perception Continuum (our emotional response, or how we think or feel). This also describes four different learning styles (and also methods):



The combination of where our preference lies on each axis produces four possible learning style types:

- activist (doing and feeling preferences, or concrete-active)
- reflector (watching and doing, or concrete-reflective)
- theorist (watching and thinking, or abstract-reflective)

- pragmatist (thinking and doing, or abstract-active)

Knowing a person's (and your own) learning style enables learning to be orientated according to the preferred method. That said, everyone responds to and needs the stimulus of all types of learning style - it's a matter of using emphasis that fits best with a person's learning style preferences:

- Activist - hands-on, relies on intuition rather than logic, uses other people's analysis, and likes practical, experiential approach.
- Reflector (watching and doing, or concrete-reflective) - able to look at things from different perspectives, sensitive, prefers to watch rather than do it, gathers information and uses imagination to solve problems.
- Theorist (watching and thinking, or abstract-reflective) - concise, logical approach, ideas and concepts are more important than people, requires good clear explanation rather than practical opportunity.
- Pragmatist (thinking and doing, or abstract-active) - can solve problems and will use learning to apply to finding solutions to practical issues, prefers technical tasks, less concerned with people and interpersonal aspects.

For instance - don't expect theorists to be comfortable being thrown in at the deep end without notes and instructions. Conversely, activists may become frustrated if unable to get hands on experience as soon as possible.

As with any other model, this is a guide, not an absolute set of rules.

Learning Style Inventory (LSI)

"The Learning Style Inventory (LSI) is a simple self-description test, based on experiential learning theory, that is designed to measure your strengths and weaknesses as a learner. Experiential learning is conceived as a four-stage cycle:

- (1) Immediate concrete experience is the basis for
- (2) Observation and reflection;
- (3) These observations are assimilated into a "theory" from which new implications for action can be deduced;
- (4) These implications or hypotheses then serve as guides in acting to create new experiences.

The effective learner relies on four different learning modes: Concrete Experience (CE), Reflective Observation (RO), Abstract Conceptualization (AC), and Active Experimentation (AE). That is, he must be able to involve himself fully, openly, and without bias in new experiences (CE), he must be able to reflect on and observe these experiences from many perspectives (RO), he must be able to create concepts that integrate his observations into logically sound theories (AC), and he must be able to use these theories to make decisions and solve problems (AE).

A high score on Concrete Experience represents a receptive, experience-based approach to learning that relies heavily on feeling-based judgments. High CE individuals tend to be empathetic and "people-oriented." They generally find theoretical approaches to be unhelpful and prefer to treat each situation as a unique case. They learn best from specific examples in which they can become involved. Individuals who emphasize Concrete Experience tend to be oriented more towards peers and less toward authority in their approach to learning, and benefit most from feedback and discussion with fellow CE learners.

A high score on Abstract Conceptualization indicates an analytical, conceptual approach to learning that relies heavily on logical thinking and rational evaluation. High AC individuals tend to be oriented more towards things and symbols and less towards other people. They learn best in authority-directed, impersonal learning situations that emphasize theory and systematic analysis. They are frustrated by and benefit little from unstructured "discovery" learning approaches like exercises and simulations.

A high score on Active Experimentation indicates an active, "doing" orientation to learning that relies heavily on experimentation. High AE individuals learn best when they can engage in such things as projects, homework, or small group discussions. They dislike passive learning situation such as lectures. These individuals tend to be extroverts.

A high score on Reflective Observation indicates a tentative, impartial and reflective approach to learning. High RO individuals rely heavily on careful observation in making judgments, and prefer learning situations such as lectures that allow them to take the role of impartial objective observers. These individuals tend to be introverts.

The following summary of the four basic learning style types is based on both research and clinical observation of these patterns of LSI scores.

The CONVERGER's dominant learning abilities are Abstract Conceptualization (AC) and Active Experimentation (AE). This person's greatest strength lies in the practical application of ideas. A person with this style seems to do best in those situations like conventional intelligence tests where there is a single correct answer or solution to a question or problem. This person's knowledge is organized in such a way that through hypothetical-deductive reasoning this person can focus it on specific problems. Research on this style of learning shows that Converger's are relatively unemotional, preferring to deal with things rather than people. They tend to have narrow technical interests, and choose to specialize in the physical sciences. This learning style is characteristic of many engineers.

The DIVERGER has the opposite learning strengths of the converger. This person is best at Concrete Experience (CE) and Reflective Observation (RO). This person's greatest strength lies in imaginative ability. This person excels in the ability to view concrete situations from many perspectives. We have labeled this style Diverger because a person with this style performs better in situations that call for generation of ideas such as a "brainstorming" idea session. Research shows that Divergers are

interested in people and tend to be imaginative and emotional. They have broad cultural interests and tend to specialize in the arts. This style is characteristic of individuals from humanities and liberal arts backgrounds. Counselors, organization development specialists and personnel managers tend to be characterized by this learning style.

The ASSIMILATOR's dominant learning abilities are Abstract Conceptualization (AC) and Reflective Observation (RO). This person's greatest strength lies in the ability to create theoretical models. This person excels in inductive reasoning and in assimilating disparate observations into an integrated explanation. This person, like the converger, is less interested in people and more concerned with abstract concepts, but is less concerned with the practical use of theories. For this person it is more important that the theory is logically sound and precise; in a situation where a theory or plan does not fit the "facts," the Assimilator would be likely to disregard or re-examine the facts. As a result, this learning style is more characteristic of the basic sciences and mathematics rather than the applied sciences. In organizations this learning style is found most often in the research and planning departments.

The ACCOMMODATOR has the opposite learning strengths of the Assimilator. This person is best at Concrete Experience (CE) and Active Experimentation (AE). This person's greatest strength lies in doing things in carrying out plans and experiments and involving oneself in new experiences. This person tends to be more of a risk-taker than people with the other three learning styles. We have labeled this person "Accommodator" because this person tends to excel in those situations where one must adapt oneself to specific immediate circumstances. In situations where a theory or plan does not fit the "facts," this person will most likely discard the plan or theory. This person tends to solve problems in an intuitive trial and error manner, relying heavily on other people for information rather than on one's own analytic ability. The Accommodator is at ease with people but is sometimes seen as impatient and "pushy." This person's educational background is often in technical or practical fields such as business. In organizations people with this learning style are found in "action-oriented" jobs often in marketing or sales."

In short: Kolb's model is actually two models in one:

- A four step learning process:
- Watching [introvert - reflection]
- Thinking [mind]
- Feeling [emotion]
- Doing [extrovert - muscle]

Which then goes on to describe the four learning styles used within the learning process:

- Reflectors
- Theorists
- Pragmatists
- Activists

VAK - Learning styles

The VAK learning Style uses the three main sensory receivers - Vision, Auditory, and Kinesthetic (movement) to determine the dominant learning style.

Learners use all three to receive information. However, one or more of these receiving styles is normally dominant. This dominant style defines the best way for a person to learn new information by filtering what is to be learned. This style may not always be the same for some tasks. The learner may prefer one style of learning for one task, and a combination of others for another task.

As trainers, we need to present information using all three styles. This allows all learners, no matter what their preferred style is, the opportunity to become involved. It also allows a learner to be presented with the other two methods for reinforcement. Just because we prefer one style, does not mean that the other two do us no good. Quite the contrary, they help us to learn even faster by reinforcing the material. Some hints for recognizing and implementing the three styles are:

Auditory learners usually talk to themselves a lot. They also may move their lips and read out loud. They may have difficulty with reading and writing tasks. They often do better talking to a colleague or a tape recorder and hearing what was said. To integrate this style into the learning environment:

Visual learners have two subchannels - *linguistic* and *spatial*. Learners who are *visual-linguistic* like to learn through written language, such as reading and writing tasks. They remember what has been written down, even if they do not read it more than once. They like to write down directions and pay better attention to lectures if they watch them. Learners who are *visual-spatial* usually have difficulty with written language and do better with charts, demonstrations, videos, and other visual materials. They easily visualize faces and places by using their imagination and seldom get lost in new surroundings. To integrate this style into the learning environment: Use graphs, charts, illustrations, etc.; Include outlines, agendas, handouts, etc. for reading and taking notes on; Include plenty of content in handouts to reread after the learning session.; Leave white space in handouts for note taking.; Invite questions to help them stay alert in auditory environments.; Post flip charts to show what will come and what has been presented.; Emphasize key points to cue when to take notes.; Eliminate potential distractions.; Supplement textual information with illustrations whenever possible.; Have them draw pictures in the margins. ; Show diagrams and then explain them. ; Have the learners envision the topic or have them act out the subject matter.

Kinesthetic learners do best while touching and moving. It also has two subchannels - kinesthetic (movement) and tactile (touch). They tend to lose concentration if there is little or no external stimulation or movement. When listening to lectures they may want to take notes. When reading, they like to scan the material first, and then focus in on the details (get the big picture first). They typically use color highlighters and take notes by drawing pictures, diagrams, or doodling. To integrate this style into the learning environment: Use activities that get the learners up and moving.; Play music, when appropriate, during activities.; Use colored markers to emphasize key points on flipcharts or white boards.; Give frequent stretch breaks (brain breaks).; Provide toys such as Koosh balls and Play-Dough to give them something to do with their hands.; To highlight a point, provide gum, candy, scents, etc. which provides a cross link of

scent (aroma) to the topic at hand (scent can be a powerful cue).; Provide highlighters, colored pens and/or pencils.; Guide learners through a visualization of complex tasks.; Have them transfer information from the text to another medium such as a keyboard or a tablet.

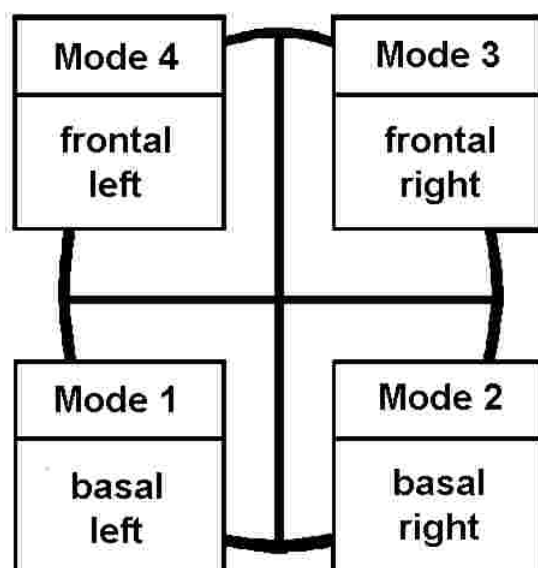
Benziger - personality assessment, thinking and working styles

Dr Katherine Benziger is a true pioneer and leading expert in her field. Her work has for the past 25 years focused on the proper and ethical development and application of personality assessing in the global business environment. Significantly, Dr Benziger prefers the term personality assessing, rather than personality testing, to describe her approach. Katherine Benziger is keen to distance herself from the 'personality testing' industry, for which 'falsification of type', and the interests of the individual - rather than the organization - are not generally seen as a priority concerns. For Dr Benziger they are.

Also importantly, Benziger's systems are not psychometric tests. Many non-scientific people now use the term 'psychometrics' to cover the wide range of systems and tools used in testing, measuring and assessing all kinds of attributes in people, but strictly speaking this is incorrect. The term 'psychometrics' actually means the psychological theory or technique of mental measurement. Psychometrics and psychometric tests in this pure sense are often (and in certain countries necessarily) practiced and administered only by people holding a Ph.D. in psychology. This inherently can cause 'pure' psychometrics theory and testing tools to be less accessible for typical business and organizational applications.

Benziger's work, model and assessment systems are instead based on the measurement of brain function and energy consumption in the brain. This study of brain function is a different science, and a more recent one than psychology and psychometrics. The accessibility and application of Benziger's work and systems do not suffer the same restrictions and limitations as pure psychometrics, and as such offer potentially enormous benefits to organizations.

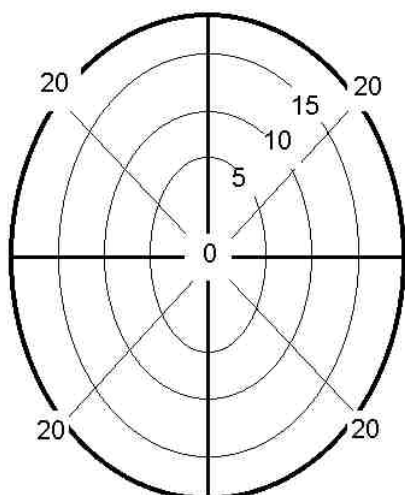
Benziger is keen to focus on the common tendency of people in work, whether being assessed or not, to 'falsify type'. She rightly says that when people adapt their natural thinking and working styles to fit expectations of others, normally created by work and career, tension and stress results. People are not happy and effective if they behave in unnatural ways, and much of Benziger's work focuses on dealing with these issues and the costs of falsifying, for which Benziger developed the term Prolonged Adaptive Stress Syndrome (PASS).



Benziger's principal assessment system is called the BTSA (Benziger Thinking Styles Assessment), and it's also available online as the eBTSA from the Benziger website, where you can learn more about Katherine Benziger and her ideas. I'd also strongly recommend you read Katherine's book, *Thriving in Mind*, available via her website. The book enables the reader to perform a basic personality assessment using the Benziger model, which is highly illuminating.

Here is a brief overview of Katherine Benziger's model: The brain has four specialized areas. Each is responsible for different brain functions (which imply strengths, behavior and thinking style). The specialized areas are called 'modes'.

Each of us possesses natural strengths in only one of these specialized areas, which cause us to favor and use a certain style ahead of others. (Outside of that one style, we may have strengths and weaknesses which are based on what competencies we have been exposed to, or developed, and indeed which competencies we have not been exposed to.) Dr Benziger refers to the natural specialized area as the preferred thinking and behavioral mode. If you buy the book there's an excellent and simple assessment to illustrate this point, although it relies on complete honesty when answering - if you are 'falsifying your type' then you will distort the analysis.



Dr Benziger illustrates a person's brain dominance (preferences and tendencies) in terms of a brain diagram (viewed from above) when the relative strengths for each specialized area are plotted using scores from an assessment to produce a rhombus or kite shape. There is no right or wrong shape. The diagram is simply a way of visualizing the bias of a person's brain, and the parts used more and better than the others.

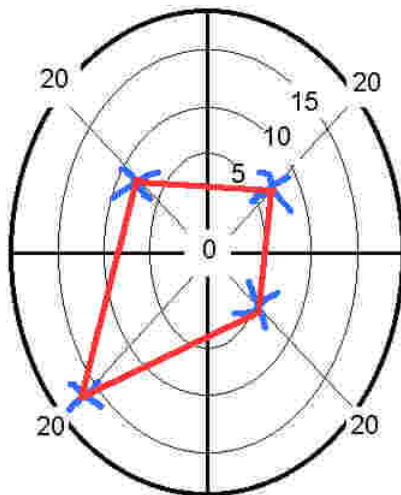
Benziger's model uses this representation of the brain (viewed from above, top is front) and the definitions below.

mode	Specialized area	brain functions	response to stimulus
1	basal left	Order and habit Ordered procedures Sequential routines	Remembers definitions. What is, is as described.
2	basal right	Spiritual experience Rhythm and feeling Harmony	Picks up emotional tone and the presence or absence of harmony (including harmony between people). What is, how we feel about it.
3	frontal right	Internal imaging Metaphor and imagination Expressiveness	Sees the essence of things, in pictures and metaphors. What is, is something meaning or enabling something else.
4	frontal left	Structural analysis Prioritizing and logic Mathematics	Converts into logical results or effects. What is, leads to, or produces results.

Benziger says that people can have one and only one natural lead in which their brain is naturally efficient. They can and often do develop competencies in other modes. When they do in practice they will be using more areas of their brain, and when they do this the competencies outside their natural lead are always very draining.

Using the Benziger methodology and descriptions, here are some examples of brain types (which determine thinking and working styles), starting with the four modes and descriptions of each, shown as single-brain patterns. If you want to learn what your own thinking and working style is, get the book *Thriving In Mind*, or visit the Benziger website <http://www.benziger.org/>.

Basal left - mode 1

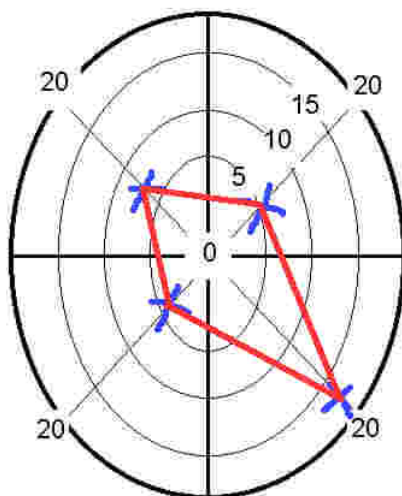


Strong basal left gives good routine, sequential, process skills. Detailed, structured, ordered, efficient, dependable, reliable, builds and maintains orderly foundations. Follows instructions, does things by the book, step-by-step. Communicates in writing, detailed.

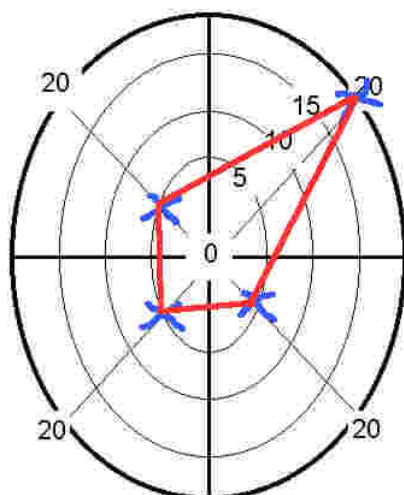
Meets deadlines through following schedules and processes. Disciplined. Good attention to detail.

Can appear laboured, bureaucratic, or obstinate.

Basal right - mode 2



Strong basal right gives good abilities in intuition, feelings, empathy, relationships, connecting with people. Good active listening skills, understands how people feel, sensitive, picks up moods and feelings. Singing, dancing, speaking and listening with the eyes, touching, reaching out to people. Caring, compassionate. Non-verbally able, notices body-language. Interpersonally good, attentive to relationships and people. Internal language is feelings. Likes to harmonize with their environment. Can be a soft-touch, making too many personal sacrifices, and can find it difficult to say no. Doesn't like to upset people.

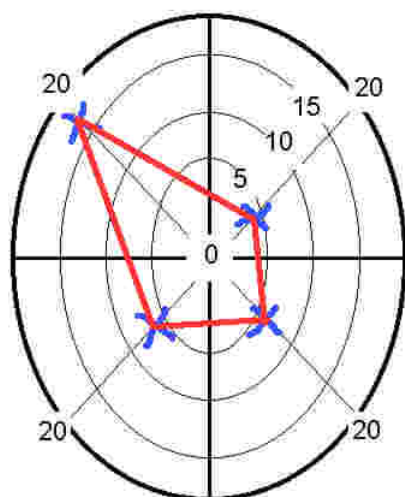


Frontal right - mode 3

Strong frontal right gives good spatial and internal imaging, innovating and adapting. Can visualize, conceptualize, (eg good at packing a car boot/trunk. Able to grasp whole pictures, themes, from vague outlines or ideas. relates to cartoons and models and caricatures. They file visually - where they can see things, in stacks.

Attentive to new ideas. Uses language to think out loud. Uses metaphors and word pictures. Expressive, at times looking within themselves to find or examine how best to paint the next word-

picture. Enthusiastic and likes change. Gets bored. Can appear out of step, whacky, off-the-wall. Quirky sense of humor. At times to others can appear to have 'lost touch with reality'. Can change for change's sake. Good starters, not good finishers.

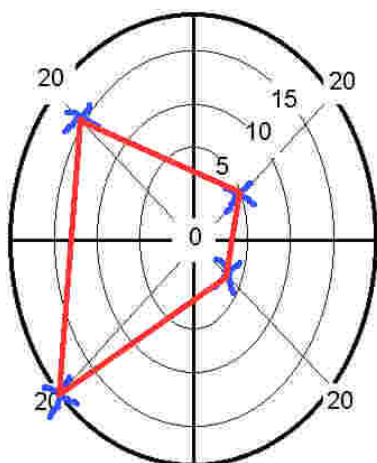


Frontal left - mode 4

Strong frontal left gives good analytical skills. Good at mathematics. Uses signage and labels to analyze and store data Physical and mental data storage. Nonemotional. Uses critical analysis to assess causes and effects, to make decisions and announce actions to meet goals. Makes judgements. Results orientated. Calculates and uses diagnostic thinking. Logical, good at verbal argument. tactics, goal-setting and goal achievement. Manages resources to achieve objectives. Uses operational principles.

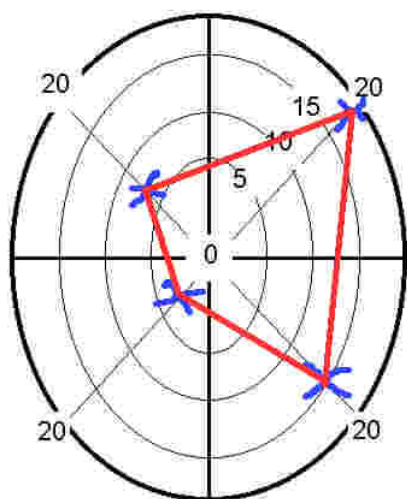
Communicates in concise no-nonsense terms.

Can be seen as cold and manipulating, uncaring, unfeeling. Puts the task before people. Will bend rules. Will make new rules. Not strongly creative. Not good with people directly. Not strongly supportive or nurturing.



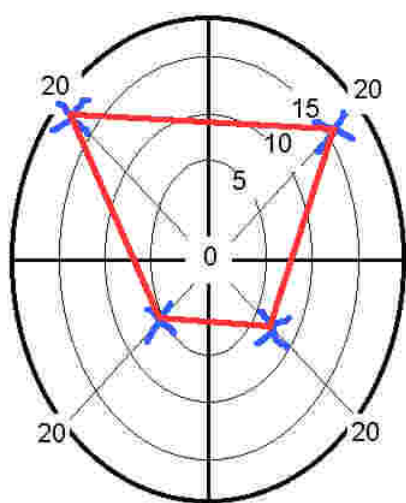
Dual-brained - double left (modes 1 and 4)

Strong frontal left and basal left skills.



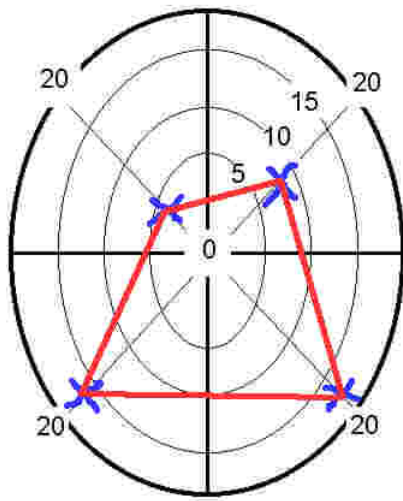
Dual-brained - double right (modes 2 and 3)

Strong basal right and front right skills.



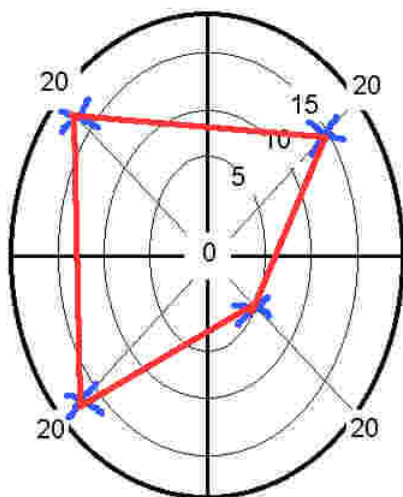
Dual-brained - double frontal (modes 3 and 4)

Strong frontal left and frontal right skills.



Dual-brained - double basal (modes 1 and 2)

Strong basal left and basal right skills.



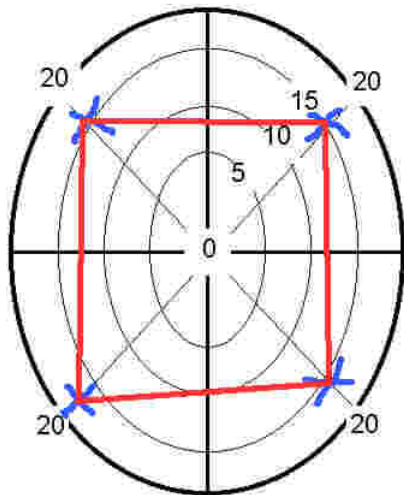
Triple-brained pattern example

Skills of strong frontal right and double left.

The three other triple brain patterns:

bl/br/fr, br/fr/fl, fl/bl/br.

Triple-brained people are often 'translators', helping people with single or dual patterns to understand each other and co-operate.



Whole-brained pattern

Only 5% of people are whole-brained.

Strong in all four modes.

A 'translator', helping others to understand each other and co-operate, but can be prone to indecision, and can dramatically change direction of career or personal direction.

Benziger gives examples of jobs that are often comfortable with people who have developed a particular combination of modes. The list is by no means exhaustive:

www.businessballs.com

Jung and Briggs

During the early 1900s, Carl Jung established a field identifying distinct personality patterns. Many theorists have since broken these patterns into categories attempting to make them easier to understand. Carl Jung was a contemporary of Sigmund Freud and a leading exponent of Gestalt personality theory. Jung developed a groundbreaking personality theory that introduced two attitudes - extraversion and introversion. Later he described human behavior as a combination of four psychic functions - thinking/feeling and intuition/sensation. Thinking and feeling are said to be rational functions because they both require acts of judgments. Sensation and intuition involve immediate experiences.

The most widely used personality survey instrument is the Myers Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI), followed closely by the assessment (Carlson Learning). The MBTI can be an aid in understanding the individual differences. This is why it is more complicated than the other models discussed here, since they are strictly learning models why the MBTI is a personality model. However, our personality does play an important part in determining our learning style. And it does tie in within the other models so we will discuss its part in the learning process.

Scores obtained from the MBTI indicate a person's preference on each of four dichotomous dimensions:

- Extroversion (E) versus Introversion (I) [similar to two dimensional behavioral models and Kolb's Learning Style Inventory]
- Sensing (S) versus iNtuition (N)
- Thinking (T) versus Feeling (F) [similar to two dimensional behavioral models and Kolb's Learning Style Inventory]
- Judging (J) versus Perceptive (P)

1. Extroversion (E) versus Introversion (I)

This indicates whether a learner prefers to direct attention towards the external world of people and things or toward the internal world of concepts and ideas. This preference tells us from where people get their energy.

Introverts find energy in the inner world of ideas, concepts, and abstractions. They can be sociable but need tranquility to regain their energy. They want to understand the world; they concentrate and tend to be reflective thinkers. They think more than talk. Introverted learners want to develop frameworks that integrate or connect the information that they learn, this becomes knowledge is the interconnection of the material and to see a global view.

Extroverts find energy in things and people. They prefer interaction with others, and tend to be action-oriented. They also tend to think on their feet. They talk more than listen. Extroverted learners learn by teaching others. They do not normally understand the subject until they try to explain it to themselves or others (working in groups). Problem Based Learning and Collaborative Learning are good teaching techniques for this group.

2. Sensing (S) versus iNtuition (N)

This indicates whether a learner prefers to perceive the world by directly observing the surrounding reality or through impressions and imagining possibilities.

Sensing people choose to rely on their five senses. They are detail-oriented, they want facts, and they trust them. Sensing learners prefer organized, linear, and structured lectures (systematic instruction or step-by-step learning).

Intuitive people seek out patterns and relationships among the facts they have gathered. They trust hunches ("sixth" sense) and their intuition and look for the "big picture." They also value imagination and innovation. Intuitive learners prefer various forms of discovery learning and must have the big picture (metaphors and analogies), or an integrating framework in order to understand a subject. They like concept maps or and often compare and contrast tables.

3. Thinking (T) versus Feeling (F)

This indicates how the learner makes decisions, either through logic or by using fairness and human values.

Thinkers decide things impersonally based on analysis, logic, and principle. They value fairness - focusing on the situation's logic, and placing great weight on objective criteria in making a decision. They naturally see flaws and tend to be critical. Thinking learners prefer clear goal and objectives. They want to see precise, action-oriented cognitive, affective and psychomotor objective. They also want to know what they have to do to learn the material.

Feelers value harmony by focusing on human values. They focus on human values and needs as they make decisions or arrive at judgments. They tend to be good at persuasion and facilitating differences among group members. They value empathy and harmony. Feeling learners enjoy the small group exercises, especially harmonious groups.

4. Judging (J) versus Perceptive (P)

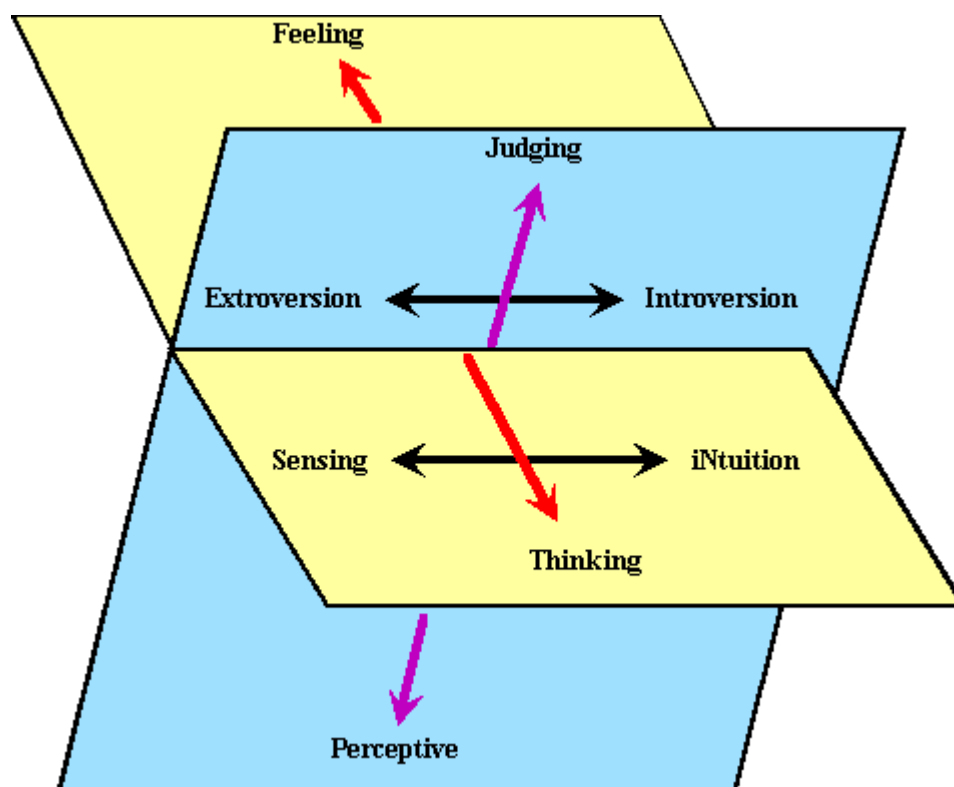
This indicates how the learner views the world, either as a structured and planned environment or as a spontaneous environment.

Judging people are decisive, self-starters and self-regimented. They also focus on completing the task, knowing the essentials, and they take action quickly. They plan their work and work their plan. Deadlines are sacred as they see time as a finite resource. Judging learners need tools that help them to plan their work and work their plan. They want guides that give quick tips. They can be encouraged by offering self-improvement.

Perceptive learners are curious, adaptable, and spontaneous. They start many tasks, want to know everything about each task, and often find it difficult to complete a task. Deadlines are meant to be stretched while more information is gathered as they see time as a renewable resource. They like to leave their options open. Perceptive learners often postpone doing an assignment until the last minute. They are not lazy, they are merely seeking information up to the very last minute. Breaking down a complex project into a series of sub-assignments and providing deadlines will keep perceptive learners on target. Also they are often process oriented (emphasis is on how the task is completed) and will easily adapt as long as they know the how.

MBTI Model

The MBTI model would have two dimensions - height and width, similar to Kolb's and other models, but it would also have a third dimension - depth. Extroversion/Introversion would be on the horizontal axis, while Feeling/Thinking would be on the vertical axis. This is represented by the model below.



The depth (third dimension) of Extroversion/Introversion (EI) would be Judging/Perceptive (JP). This might be thought of as how much time (JP) we are willing to stick to a task (EI) rather it be actively engaging in it or reflecting on it.

The depth (third dimension) of Feeling/Thinking (FT) would be Sensing/Intuition (SN). This might be thought of as using our various senses, to include our "sixth sense" (SN) when thinking or feeling (FT) about a subject.

Learning styles: a multiple intelligence approach

Howard Gardner theorized that there are multiple intelligences, and that we all use one or two for the most effective learning. Our cultures teach, test, reinforce and reward primarily two kinds of intelligence: verbal/linguistic and logical/mathematical. His theory proposes that there are at least eight other kinds of intelligence that are equally important. They are "languages" that most people speak, and that cut through cultural, educational, and ability differences.

The mind is not comprised of a single representation or a single language of representations. Rather, we harbor numerous internal representations in our minds. Some scholars speak of "modules of mind," some of a "society of mind," in this case it is "multiple intelligences." They include

Verbal Linguistic intelligence (sensitive to the meaning and order of words as in a poet). Use activities that involve hearing, listening, impromptu or formal speaking, tongue twisters, humor, oral or silent reading, documentation, creative writing, spelling, journal, poetry.

Logical-mathematical intelligence (able to handle chains of reasoning and recognize patterns and orders as in a scientist). Use activities that involve abstract symbols/formulas, outlining, graphic organizers, numeric sequences, calculation, deciphering codes, problem solving.

Musical intelligence (sensitive to pitch, melody, rhythm, and tone as in a composer). Use activities that involve audiotape, music recitals, singing on key, whistling, humming, environmental sounds, percussion vibrations, rhythmic patterns, music composition, tonal patterns.

Spatial intelligence (perceives the world accurately and try to re-create or transform aspects of that world as in a sculptor or airplane pilot). Use activities that involve art, pictures, sculpture, drawings, doodling, mind mapping, patterns/designs, color schemes, active imagination, imagery, block building.

Bodily Kinesthetic intelligence (able to use the body skillfully and handle objects adroitly, as in an athlete or dancer). Use activities that involve role playing, physical gestures, drama, inventing, ball passing, sports games, physical exercise, body language, dancing.

Interpersonal intelligence (understand people and relationship as in a salesman or trainer). learners think by bouncing ideas off of each other (socializers who are people

smart). Use activities that involve group projects, division of labor, sensing others' motives, receiving/giving feedback, collaboration skills.

Intrapersonal intelligence (possess access to one's emotional life as a means to understand oneself and others exhibited by individuals with accurate views of themselves). Use activities that involve emotional processing, silent reflection methods, thinking strategies, concentration skills, higher order reasoning, "centering" practices, meta-cognitive techniques.

Naturalist (connected to the intricacies and subtleties in nature such as Charles Darwin and Meriwether Lewis of Lewis and Clark fame). Use activities that involve bringing the outdoors into the class, relating to the natural world, charting, mapping changes, observing wildlife, keeping journals or logs.

According to multiple intelligences theory, not only do all individuals possess numerous mental representations and intellectual languages, but individuals also differ from one another in the forms of these representations, their relative strengths, and the ways in which (and ease with which) these representations can be changed.

Acommodating learning styles

Much has been said about the importance of incorporating various teaching techniques and methods into the training courses to better accommodate the range of learning styles or preferences of our participants. In the mid-eighties researcher David Kolb surmised that because many faculty members tend themselves to be field-independent, analytical, verbal, and observational learners who learn best from lectures and classroom discussions, that those are the methods that we most frequently employ in our teaching. By the late eighties, researchers into learning styles or preferences had developed so many different perspectives and resulting taxonomies that others felt the need to group the various models of learning styles into four general categories: personality models (i.e., extrovert/introvert), information-processing models (i.e., linear thinking v. broader conceptualizing), social-interaction models (i.e., learning oriented v. grade oriented), and instructional preference models (i.e, listening v. reading v. experiential learning, etc.). Each of these schools of thought enjoys some following.

One learning style model which has developed a significant following in training and higher education circles involves David Kolb's "learning cycle" which posits that there are four "phases" of learning: 1) concretely experiencing the new activity, 2) reflecting upon the new activity, 3) abstracting or drawing generalizations from the new activity, and 4) using the generalizations to make decisions and solve problems. Kolb identifies four different learning styles based upon the tendencies of individuals to emphasize certain phases of this "learning cycle" over others. According to Kolb's taxonomy, "convergers" are those who prefer to solve problems that have definite answers. They

enjoy defining problems, will reason their way to a solution, and will then seek to put their solution into practice. "Divergers," are participants who prefer to engage in collaborative open reflection upon their experiences and to develop a range of solutions or possibilities rather than simply finding "the" right answer. "Assimilators" are participants who like the process of gathering and recasting their reflections and observations into new plans or generalizations. "Accommodators" are participants who enjoy tackling problems by trial-and-error, are freely willing to take risks, and prefer a hands-on learning environment. While some trainers have used Kolb's and other learning preference taxonomies to facilitate classroom discussion and to configure participant teams for various purposes, others caution that any procedures that result, intentionally or unintentionally, in the "labeling" of a participant's predominant learning style may be problematic in that such labeling ignores the fact that her/his "learning preference" is likely to vary situational and/or over time.

Researchers have used taxonomies of learning preferences in subsequent research projects and have discovered that there may also be general differences in the preferred learning styles of various groups of participants (using readily identifiable characteristics such as gender, age, and ethnicity). They have noted, as well, that there are obvious dangers in applying these or other generalizations to individuals based upon this sort of research.

It is safe to say that research into learning styles does support the position that any group of participants is likely to benefit from instructional methods which accommodate learning differences through the intentional use of a variety of teaching techniques or approaches.

Apart from learning preferences, there is another important factor impacting contemporary college teaching namely the varied levels of preparedness of contemporary college participants. A trainer can no longer assume (if she/he ever really could) that all (or even most) of her/his participants will have the requisite reading, quantitative, writing, study, or note-taking skills to succeed in their courses. Robert Menges writes of these participants, "leaving [the under-prepared participants] alone condemns them to almost certain failure. Most [trainers] are not qualified, nor do [they] have the time, to teach them basic skills. It seems that purposeful and careful coordination with our learning centers represents our best chance of helping under-prepared participants get the skills they need. Participants working (individually and/or in small groups) with other successful participants may be the most effective way of giving under-prepared participants the boost they need to succeed in the university environment.

Menges notes that with this tendency towards the deterioration of basic skills, we are facing the increasingly daunting challenge of teaching to classes with no little or no "middle". One trainer told me that he intentionally teaches to the "bottom" of the class relying in the hope that the "top" participants can largely fend for themselves.

Each year, it seems that we are asking more and more of ourselves. We need to know more about our participants and to consider their strengths and weaknesses as we plan our classes. We feel the need to constantly adjust our teaching to better accommodate our participants' widening range of talents and levels of preparation and motivation. I reflect, once again, on the words of Carnegie Trainer of the Year Award winner Peter

Beidler who said, "why do we think we deserve smart, self-motivated, hard-working, wide-awake participants – participants who do not really need to be taught?"

Training strategies for each learning styles

ACTIVE AND REFLECTIVE LEARNERS

- Active learners tend to retain and understand information best by doing something active with it-discussing or applying it or explaining it to others. Reflective learners prefer to think about it quietly first.
- Let's try it out and see how it works" is an active learner's phrase; "Let's think it through first" is the reflective learner's response.
- Active learners tend to like group work more than reflective learners, who prefer working alone.
- Sitting through lectures without getting to do anything physical but take notes is hard for both learning types, but particularly hard for active learners.

Everybody is active sometimes and reflective sometimes. Your preference for one category or the other may be strong, moderate, or mild. A balance of the two is desirable. If you always act before reflecting you can jump into things prematurely and get into trouble, while if you spend too much time reflecting you may never get anything done.

How can active learners help themselves?

If you are an active learner in a class that allows little or no class time for discussion or problem-solving activities, you should try to compensate for these lacks when you study. Study in a group in which the members take turns explaining different topics to each other. Work with others to guess what you will be asked on the next test and figure out how you will answer. You will always retain information better if you find ways to do something with it.

How can reflective learners help themselves?

If you are a reflective learner in a class that allows little or no class time for thinking about new information, you should try to compensate for this lack when you study. Don't simply read or memorize the material; stop periodically to review what you have read and to think of possible questions or applications. You might find it helpful to write short summaries of readings or class notes in your own words. Doing so may take extra time but will enable you to retain the material more effectively.

SENSING AND INTUITIVE LEARNERS

- Sensing learners tend to like learning facts, intuitive learners often prefer discovering possibilities and relationships.
- Sensors often like solving problems by well-established methods and dislike complications and surprises; intuitors like innovation and dislike repetition. Sensors are more likely than intuitors to resent being tested on material that has not been explicitly covered in class.
- Sensors tend to be patient with details and good at memorizing facts and doing hands-on (laboratory) work; intuitors may be better at grasping new concepts and are often more comfortable than sensors with abstractions and mathematical formulations.
- Sensors tend to be more practical and careful than intuitors; intuitors tend to work faster and to be more innovative than sensors.
- Sensors don't like courses that have no apparent connection to the real world; intuitors don't like "plug-and-chug" courses that involve a lot of memorization and routine calculations.

Everybody is sensing sometimes and intuitive sometimes. Your preference for one or the other may be strong, moderate, or mild. To be effective as a learner and problem solver, you need to be able to function both ways. If you overemphasize intuition, you may miss important details or make careless mistakes in calculations or hands-on work; if you overemphasize sensing, you may rely too much on memorization and familiar methods and not concentrate enough on understanding and innovative thinking.

How can sensing learners help themselves?

Sensors remember and understand information best if they can see how it connects to the real world. If you are in a class where most of the material is abstract and theoretical, you may have difficulty. Ask your instructor for specific examples of concepts and procedures, and find out how the concepts apply in practice. If the trainer does not provide enough specifics, try to find some in your course text or other references or by brainstorming with friends or classmates.

How can intuitive learners help themselves?

Many college lecture classes are aimed at intuitors. However, if you are an intuitor and you happen to be in a class that deals primarily with memorization and rote substitution in formulas, you may have trouble with boredom. Ask your instructor for interpretations or theories that link the facts, or try to find the connections yourself. You may also be prone to careless mistakes on test because you are impatient with details and don't like repetition (as in checking your completed solutions). Take time to read the entire question before you start answering and be sure to check your results

VISUAL AND VERBAL LEARNERS

Visual learners remember best what they see-pictures, diagrams, flow charts, time lines, films, and demonstrations. Verbal learners get more out of words-written and spoken explanations. Everyone learns more when information is presented both

visually and verbally.

In most courses very little visual information is presented: participants mainly listen to lectures and read material written on chalkboards and in textbooks and handouts. Unfortunately, most people are visual learners, which means that most participants do not get nearly as much as they would if more visual presentation were used in class. Good learners are capable of processing information presented either visually or verbally.

How can visual learners help themselves?

If you are a visual learner, try to find diagrams, sketches, schematics, photographs, flow charts, or any other visual representation of course material that is predominantly verbal. Ask your instructor, consult reference books, and see if any videotapes or CD-ROM displays of the course material are available. Prepare a concept map by listing key points, enclosing them in boxes or circles, and drawing lines with arrows between concepts to show connections. Color-code your notes with a highlighter so that everything relating to one topic is the same color.

How can verbal learners help themselves?

Write summaries or outlines of course material in your own words. Working in groups can be particularly effective: you gain understanding of material by hearing classmates' explanations and you learn even more when you do the explaining.

SEQUENTIAL AND GLOBAL LEARNERS

- Sequential learners tend to gain understanding in linear steps, with each step following logically from the previous one. Global learners tend to learn in large jumps, absorbing material almost randomly without seeing connections, and then suddenly "getting it."
- Sequential learners tend to follow logical stepwise paths in finding solutions; global learners may be able to solve complex problems quickly or put things together in novel ways once they have grasped the big picture, but they may have difficulty explaining how they did it.

Many people who read this description may conclude incorrectly that they are global, since everyone has experienced bewilderment followed by a sudden flash of understanding. What makes you global or not is what happens before the light bulb goes on. Sequential learners may not fully understand the material but they can nevertheless do something with it (like solve the homework problems or pass the test) since the pieces they have absorbed are logically connected. Strongly global learners who lack good sequential thinking abilities, on the other hand, may have serious difficulties until they have the big picture. Even after they have it, they may be fuzzy about the details of the subject, while sequential learners may know a lot about specific aspects of a subject but may have trouble relating them to different aspects of the same subject or to different subjects.

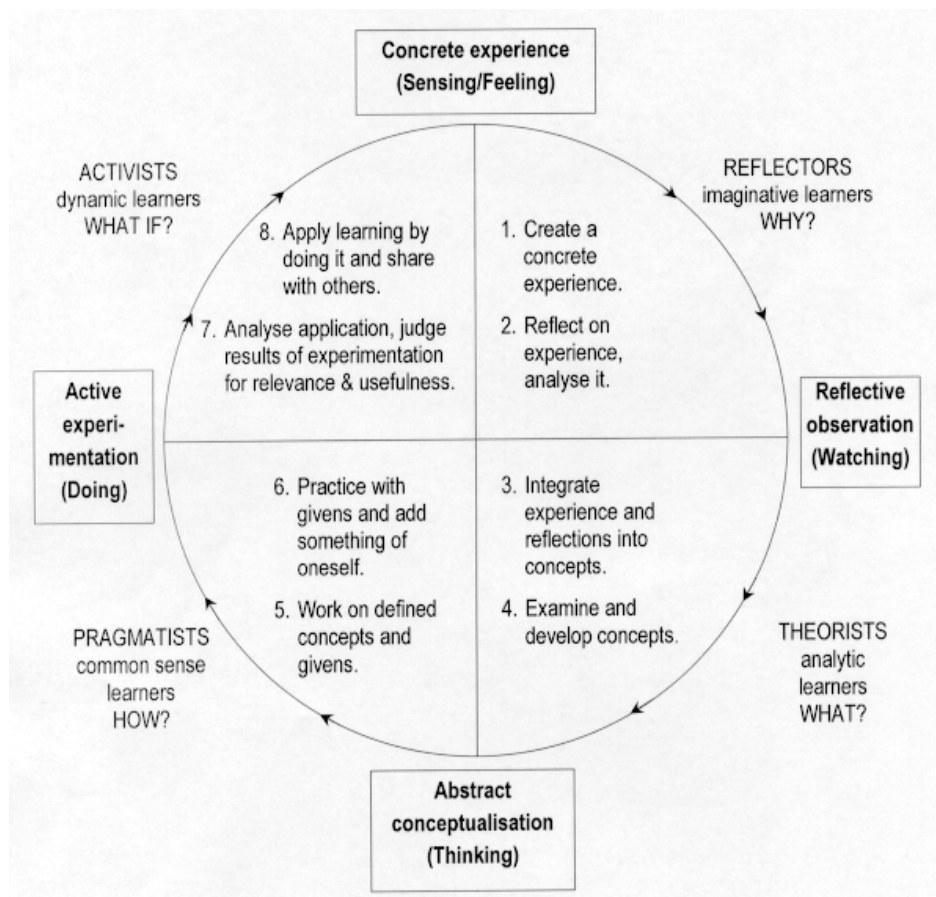
How can sequential learners help themselves?

Most courses are taught in a sequential manner. However, if you are a sequential learner and you have an instructor who jumps around from topic to topic or skips steps, you may have difficulty following and remembering. Ask the instructor to fill in the skipped steps, or fill them by yourself by consulting references. When you are studying, take the time to outline the lecture material for yourself in logical order. In the long run doing so will save you time. You might also try to strengthen your global thinking skills by relating each new topic you study to things you already know. The more you can do so, the deeper your understanding of the topic is likely to be.

How can global learners help themselves?

If you are a global learner, just recognizing that you aren't slow or stupid but simply function differently from most of your colleagues can help a great deal. However, there are some steps you can take that may help you get the big picture more quickly. Before you begin to study the first section of a chapter in a text, skim through the entire chapter to get an overview. Doing so may be time-consuming initially but it may save you from going over and over individual parts later. Instead of spending a short time on every subject every night, you might find it more productive to immerse yourself in individual subjects for large blocks. Try to relate the subject to things you already know, either by asking the instructor to help you see connections or by consulting references. Above all, don't lose faith in yourself; you will eventually understand the new material, and once you do your understanding of how it connects to other topics and disciplines may enable you to apply it in ways that most sequential thinkers would never dream of.

(article written by Richard M. Felder and Barbara A. Soloman)



1. Why?

Type One learners (reflectors) are primarily interested in personal meaning.

Trainer needs to create a reason.

Trainer's role: motivator/witness.

Method: simulation or discussion.

Skills: observing, questioning, visualizing, imagining, inferring, diverging, brainstorming, listening, speaking, and interacting.

Activities: need time to think over, assimilate and prepare for activities, or review what has happened and reach decisions without pressures and tight deadlines.

2. What?

Type Two learners (theorists) are primarily interested in facts as they lead to conceptual understanding.

Trainer needs to give them the facts that deepen understanding.

Trainer's role: trainer.

Method: structured, informational and intellectually challenging.

Skills: patterning, organizing, analyzing, seeing relationships and interrelationships, identifying parts, ordering, prioritizing, classifying, and comparing.

Activities: need opportunities to question, probe and explore methodically the assumptions and logic, and the interrelationships between ideas and events.

3. How?

Type Three learners (pragmatists) are primarily interested in how things work.

Trainers need to let them try it.

Trainer's role: coach.

Method: facilitation.

Skills: inquiring, exploring, problem solving, experimenting, seeing, predicting, tinkering, recording, and making things work.

Activities: need to practice techniques with coaching/feedback from a credible expert, and they must see a link between the subject matter and a problem or opportunity on the job.

4. *What if?*

Type Four learners (activists) are primarily interested in self-discovery.

Trainer needs to let them teach it to themselves and to others.

Trainer's role: evaluator/remediator.

Method: self-discovery.

Skills: integrating, evaluating, verifying, explaining, summarizing, and synthesizing.

Activities: need a variety of new and challenging activities where they can have a lot of the limelight—business games, competitive tasks, role playing exercises

Learning skills vs. learning styles

Contrary to widespread belief, learning styles (which have to do with people's preferences for the way in which learning material or experiences are presented to them) and learning skills (which have to do with a body of skills to *process* that material or experience) are not related to each other. Simply put, all learners have 'the same amount of' learning style but they have differing amounts of learning skills, which can be increased and honed for more appropriate application.

Research conducted in the UK by Trainer Sylvia Downs suggests that helping people to become aware of their learning styles assists them in understanding that "people are different", and thus can promote better communication and problem solving amongst individuals, teams and departments. The research also indicates, however, that awareness of learning style does not assist people to become better at learning and adapting to change. Even in situations where people are able to make conscious efforts to change or adapt their learning style once becoming aware of their natural preferences, this does not result in more effective learning, particularly if their set of learning skills is limited.

From a different perspective, the utility of knowing people's learning styles in the training situation is questionable. Even with this knowledge it is unlikely that any trainer, faced with a group of learners, will be able to, from a purely practical and logistical point of view, present the material in different ways to suit different learning styles. The best advice to a trainer is often to ensure that a variety of methods appealing at various stages to different learners, are used.

Finally, linked to the above point, it is clear that in today's organizations, with the prominence of on-the-task learning, learners will more and more need to be able to learn from a wider range of experiences, and generally need to become more flexible. For this they need a larger repertoire of ways of learning (i.e. "skills") when they find that their preferred method is not available to them. Learning styles are notoriously "sticky", i.e. they are not readily changed, whereas many different studies have shown how people can expand both the range and appropriate application of learning skills and that this makes them measurably better at learning and adapting to change.

(Article written by Sue von Hirschfeld)

Learning style and preferences

Most individuals have a preferred way of gathering, interpreting, organising and thinking about information. Some learn best by active manipulation, others by reading, still others by talking about information. No one style of learning has been shown to be better than any other and no single style leads to better learning. Nonetheless, it is important to recognise that a variety of learning styles exist and they can explain the differences you will likely observe among participants and consequently the need to develop a range of teaching strategies.

Four Categories of Learning Styles

Personality Models refer to basic personality characteristics, such as introvert versus extrovert.

Information-processing Models reflect how people take in and process information. For example, some seek a global understanding while others prefer a step-by-step approach.

Social Interaction Models focus on the ways participants interact and behave in the classroom. Some participants are learner oriented while others are grade oriented.

Instructional Preference Models focus on the medium in which learning occurs. This could be reading, listening, observing, engaging in direct experience. (Claxton and Murrell, 1987)

When participants are studying with methods compatible with their preferred way of learning, they tend to be more satisfied and productive. Learners move from one style to another depending on the situation. Trainers/presenters should try to use a variety of activities when presenting material. In that way you will meet a broad range of participant learning styles and help your participants expand their repertoire of learning strategies.

References

The literature around this area can be pretty dire. We have picked one or two of the better collections/explorations plus a couple 'standards'.

Boud, D. et al (eds.) (1985) *Reflection. Turning experience into learning*, London: Kogan Page. 170 pages. Good collection of readings which examine the nature of reflection. The early chapters make particular use of Dewey and Kolb.

Boud, D. and Miller, N. (eds.) (1997) *Working with Experience: animating learning*, London: Routledge. Useful collection of pieces exploring experiential learning. The editors focus on animation (not so much in the French and Italian senses as 'breathing life into' - to activate, enliven, vivify. Includes introductory and closing pieces by the editors: Brookfield on breaking dependence on experts; Smyth on socially critical educators; Heron on helping whole people learn; Tisdell on life experience and feminist theory; Harris on animating learning in teams; and Mace on writing and power.

Fraser, W. (1995) *Learning From Experience. Empowerment or incorporation*, Leicester: National Institute of Adult Continuing Education. Examines APL / APEL and asks what is lost and gained in the translation of private experience into the public sphere. Based on the experience of various courses.

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Creating opportunities for learning

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Characteristics of adult learning

Often the adult's biggest fear is that of not being able to learn anymore. He must remember that FEAR is False Evidence that Appears Real

Often he is entirely occupied with his function and he canal easily feel his knowledge is outdated. He canal then develop a deep anxiety if he feels that ha has a lot of catching up to do. Especially if the course is based only on theory and deals with abstract concepts rather than concrete experience.

Selective exposition, selective distortion and selective retention amplifies with age. Therefore, in the adult, learning is aquired more and more through experience.

Adults also prefer ready made formulas, that is the pattern that their brain recognizes. Adults need to integrate new learning experiences within the whole of their current knowledge structure. They will be better able to learn if the facilitator links the ideas, concepts to their own experience.

Adults can learn given the proper conditions and environment.

Conditions for successful learning in an adult

- He must be motivated to learn

The facilitator who is skillful in helping the participants realize what their needs are, is best positioned to help them satisfy these needs and instill a willingness to learn.

- He must agree with the objectives outlined for the course

The facilitator must therefore present the course objectives, have the participants express their expectations, match these with the course objectives and clarify any discrepancies.

- He needs to know what will happen.

The course leader must present the course outline, the working methodology and his own expectations regarding participation. He will also need to reinforce these periodically.

- He learns by participating actively and by bringing his own experience in that participation.

The leader should therefore favor role playing and group activities where individuals can bring this experience. The more an adult invests his ideas, his values and his personality, the better he learns. Therefore, the leader will favor practice over theory.

- He is more at ease in equal to equal relationships.

The leader should not pose as an expert, but rather as a facilitator or guide.

- He likes to deal with concrete situations.

Again, the facilitator will favor participation and activities.

- He needs to know the opinion of others.

Group activities allow exchanges of opinions and should be privileged. Facilitators should also provide frequent positive feedback.

- He needs to be listened to, understood and supported.

HOW WE LEARN

10% of what we read

20% of what we hear

30% of what we see

50% of what we see and hear

70% of what we say when talking

90% of what we say while doing something

How we remember what we are taught

How Adults Learn – a REVELATION

Relevance: people learn best when they see the point of what they are doing.

Experience: people learn best when experience is used to illuminate and earth practice.

Variety: adults learn best when they are offered a variety of opportunities.

Enjoyment: people learn best when they are in a reasonably comfortable welcoming atmosphere.

Learning skills: people learn best when they are given help with learning skills, which they probably were not taught at school.

Acceptance: people learn best when they feel themselves to be accepted for what they are.

Tutoring skills: adults learn best when tutors practise what they preach.

Individual differences: people learn best when individual progress is affirmed.

Opportunities to act: people learn best when there are opportunities for practising and so reinforcing what has been learned.

Nurture others: people learn best when they are given the chance to nurture and teach others.

Yvonne Craig: *Learning for Life* (Mowbrays, 1994)

Learning zones

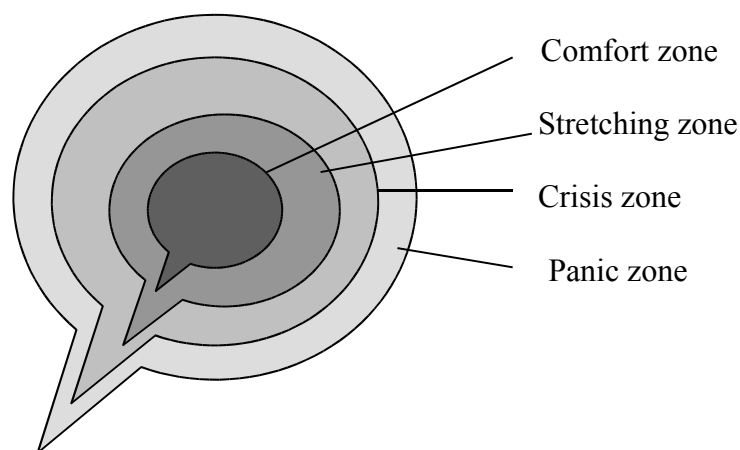
It follows that the next essential task of program planning is defining the educational approach. How do you want to deal with the contents? Which methodology will be the most useful for the participants and help you best to reach the training objectives? How do you like to work?

The methodology and methods you choose should serve to create learning opportunities for the participants. One way of thinking of learning opportunities is to look at *zones* that participants might enter during different moments of the training course. As visualised by TE-9 below, the zones indicate the degrees of personal challenge that the course may create for individual participants.

In the *comfort zone*, no specific challenges are encountered. It may be a new experience, and new knowledge may be received, but personal values, convictions and perceptions remain relatively untouched. Learning is comfortable. A participant enters the *stretching zone* when she will reflect about others' and her own perceptions, attitudes or behaviour. In the stretching zone, questions are raised and changes of perception, attitude or behaviour are possible. In this stage, participants can become uncertain and vulnerable. If the stretching goes too far, then participants might get into the *crisis zone*. It is possible that particularly sensitive points have been touched, convictions and perceptions have been weakened and a high tolerance of ambiguity is called for. In the crisis zone, participants are very vulnerable. But we also learn from anxiety, and crisis can be a valuable learning experience when its energy is channelled constructively. However, from crisis to the *panic zone* is only a small slip. When people panic they block, fall back on comforting certainties, and learning becomes impossible. At this stage, participants might undergo emotional processes that cannot be contained and dealt with in a training course.

This model suggests that our program will be most effective if participants reach the stretching zone, and possibly even the crisis zone, at certain moments during the training. But we need to keep in mind that while experiential learning should stretch and challenge participants, crises should remain an exception and participants should not be made panic. Teams need to be able to support participants during moments of personal challenge, don't open something you can't close!

TE-9



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Suggestions for reflection

1. Different levels of experience among the participants will make it more difficult to create learning opportunities for the whole group. How do you read the diversity of your group? How far can you go with your group?
2. Have you encountered panic in a group you have worked with? What caused it? How did you deal with it? Did your team have the capacities to deal with crisis and panic?

Types of participants

Handling Problem people

Summary

Some of the more problematical character types, and their distinctive behaviour. Suggested responses to neutralize these.

It was often been remarked, and it is undoubtedly true, that training courses would run a great deal smoother if they didn't involve people. Unfortunately, it is equally true that there wouldn't be much point in running courses without them. The only solution to this dilemma is for a trainer to develop a capacity to deal with different people and personalities.

Fortunately, it quickly becomes apparent that although the individuals in the group are unique, the behaviour that they often display is more limited. This means that it is possible to recognize broad character types in the composition of any group even though not *all* characters will present all for the time.

The Talking Terror

Character

The talking terror talks incessantly. In his most irksome form he is a loud mouth who dominates a group and monopolizes any discussions. In his less irritating, but equally disruptive form, he is the constant chatterer who has always had something similar happen to him. Whatever manifestation the talking terror might appear in, the group will be looking to you to maintain control.

Causes

Although the end results may vary somewhat, the cause of talking is invariably the consequence of insecurity. The talker often feels that he must prove himself before the trainer and/or group. Consequently, he may spend much of his time trying to demonstrate to the group the depth of his knowledge in order to convince them that he is deserving of their respect (this is the 'know it all' talker). Or he may be seeking approval by showing his enthusiasms for the topic under discussion (the 'eager beaver'). Or he may just want to be noticed by the group as someone worthy of attention and acceptance (the 'chatter box').

Favourite Phrases

“I believe I’m right in saying...” “What I always do...” “I”

Control

Look for an opportunity to intervene. This may be a pause for breath or a moment’s hesitation. Thank or agree with the talker (few talkers will want to interrupt this vote of support) and then, having regained the group’s attention press home your advantage by redirecting their concentration elsewhere. For example: “Yes, Max, that would make sense. Does anyone else know of ways that we could achieve this?”

Check your understanding and then move on. For example: “Just a moment Max – so what are you saying is X, Y, Z; has anyone else got a view of this?”

Speak to him during a convenient break and explain that you are pleased that he is participating but that you want to involve other members of the group in the discussion.

Channel his energies elsewhere. Ask him to record all the ideas generated by the group on to a flipchart or seek his assistance as a technical operator for equipment or as an observer for the purposes of an exercise.

The Great Griper

Character

Although a certain amount of constructive criticism is often encouraged on training courses, the problem with the 'Great Griper' is that he regards *every* discussion as an opportunity to air his grievances about the company, the people he works with, the conditions he works under... in fact it could be anything at all. If he is allowed the chance to raise his 'pet peeve' his negative approach can completely undermine the enthusiasm of the rest of the group.

Causes

the Great Griper needs to convince himself that he is entitled to feel the way that he does and that others share his beliefs. It’s not that he actually wants to change everything, because even if the cause of his indignation was eradicated overnight, he would still find something else to moan about. No, the important thing is that while he can point to something that is wrong he can have a justifiable reason for behaving in the way that he does. His attitude is “why should I put myself out to do X when life / the company / rest of the world – does Z?”

Favourite Phrases

“The trouble is...” “Well that’s all well and good, but...”

Control

The danger in dealing with the Great Griper is that you can allow yourself to be drawn into a discussion on his favourite topic rather than dealing with the matters you should be covering. Don’t get ensnared.

Allow him to say *once*. Let him clear it off his chest then and then move on. “Fred, I can see that you feel strongly about this. Supposing we set aside three minutes now to discuss this and then let’s agree to drop the matter until after the course”

Turn the problem round and ask him what he would do about the problem and what action he would take. It could be that a simple solution does exist, in which case why hasn’t he acted upon it? “Fred, you’ve explained the problem to us. What would you want to see happen to resolve it?”. Acknowledge the gripe without accepting its validity and then:

Take some form of positive action to lay it to rest. “I can appreciate why this might upset you, Fred, so, let’s get together at lunch time and see if we can draft a memo to

the MD/Sales Director/Chief Executive and get it sorted out”.

Doubting Thomas

Character

The Doubting Thomas is a variant of a Great Griper. The main difference is that while the Great Griper often has only one or two areas of sensitivity, the Doubting Thomas has developed an all encompassing cynism. Once again, if this negative attitude is allowed to develop it, can be contagious and cast doom and gloom over the whole group.

Causes

Invariably the Doubting Thomas is someone with a number of years seniority. If this is the case his attitude may be the product of seeing many such bright ideas tried and fail. It could well be that some of the ideas that were never given a chance where here his and that this has made him less receptive to the ideas of the others. Finally, it might be that the sceptic (young or old) might feel that he might not be able to master these new approaches, processes, or procedures and therefore regards them as a threat best eliminated by dismissing with disdain.

Favourite phrases

“That’ll never work” “We’ve tried that before”

Control

Gain acceptance step by step. First buy getting agreement that if an idea or process did work it would justify the time and effort spent learning it. If this is forthcoming, albeit reluctantly, step 2 is to suggest that the Doubting Thomas agrees to suspend his judgement until the course is over and the end result can be evaluated.

If the Doubting Thomas does not believe there is merit in the process ask him to be specific about why he believes this and then seek his acceptance the only way of proving who is right and who is wrong is by giving the process a fair chance. Then go back to step 2.

The Pot Plant

Character

The Pot Plant is so called because, apart from sitting in the group and looking decorative, he seems to contribute very little to the group except a touch of additional colour.

Causes

There are all sorts of reasons why a Pot Plant might remain silent or withdrawn from the group, and not all of them arise from his own personality. It may be that he believes that if he says anything he will make a fool of himself and so feels inhibited. There again, the problem might not be inhibition but motivation. The topic could be one that the Pot Plant has no interest in and regards as of little benefit. Alternatively it might be that he finds it difficult to articulate his thoughts and finds it more comfortable to just sit and listen.

Favourite Phrases

“Sorry”

Control

The approach that you take will depend on the reasons you feel the Pot plant has for his lack of participation. In all cases your response should be to find a suitable opening to get the Pot Plant involved.

If you assess his reluctance stems from insecurity, build up his confidence before the group by directing a question towards him which you know he will be able to answer. Where the non-involvement is through lack of motivation it could be that the Plot Plant doesn't appreciate how the topic relates to him. Take time to demonstrate the subject's impact. (You might also consider whether a more stimulating training approach might help).

If the root cause for withdrawal is an inability to articulate ideas, this can be quickly remedied by phrasing questions in a way that draws a response without requiring a full explanation.

For example:

“Adam, do you find that asking closed questions can be a helpful means of overcoming shyness?”

“Yes”

For those whose preference is to listen rather than speak it is for the trainer to accept that there can still be involvement without overt or active participation.

The Jolly Jester

Character

It may seem hard to believe that anyone could take exception to the Jolly jester. He brings a smile to everyone's face and can always be counted upon to have a merry quip to meet every occasion. In fact it is this capacity to find humour in any situation which appears eventually to drive the remainder of the group insane.

In moderation his sense of humour can be a considerable asset. It helps to break down barriers, relax the group and build up a sense of camaraderie. However, when subjected to frequent or prolonged exposure the effects can be likened to eating too much chocolate. After the novelty has worn off all that remains is an after-taste and nausea. The group lives in constant fear of saying something which might give rise to innuendo, double entendre or provide the cue for a joke.

Cause

It is unlikely that a jester will ever realise the anguish that often causes through insensitive remarks or inopportune humour. In fact if these factors were pointed out to him the chances are that he would be devastated. His driving aim to be 'one of the lads' and accepted as part of the group.

Favourite Phrases

“That reminds me...” “I knew this main once...”

Control

The difficulty in controlling the Jolly jester is in maintaining the delicate balance between fun and over indulgence.

The amenities of keeping control is to adopt the view that prevention is better than cure. Once he has begun a witty story it becomes almost impossible to cut him off mid-flow. So the moment he appears to be laying the foundation for a joke or humorous tale explain that there will be ample opportunity during the breaks or lunch to regale the group with anecdotes but that training time is at a premium. “Sorry, Martin I know that we would all love to hear what happened when you went for an interview but unfortunately we haven't the time now. Perhaps you could buy us all a drink at the end of the session and tell us then.”

Alternatively, use peer pressure to discourage him from making unwarranted interruptions.

The Conspirators

Character

Unlike the preceding categories, conspirators cannot work alone. For conspirators to work successfully they need to join forces with one or more people. Despite the title, their actions are rarely sinister, but arise from the manner in which they can be seen absorbed in their own private discussion in total disregard of those around them.

Causes

Often the purpose of the conversation is to clarify a point that one of the party is uncertain about. Where the behaviour occurs immediately following a break it is likely to be to conclude a conversation started earlier.

Favourite Phrases

“Where are we?” (Said in half whisper.)

Control

If the reason for the conspiratorial conversation appears to be to improve understanding it may be that you are not explaining the material thoroughly or that there is some confusion. In either case you will need to ask those involved whether a problem exists.

When the discussion appears to be unrelated to the training there are four possible approaches:

- If the conversation seems to be coming to a close ignore it and carry on.
- Stop talking and look at the conversationalists so that they become conscious that they are distracting you. If this doesn't happen immediately, wait and often someone else on the course will interrupt on your behalf.
- Ask them if there is an issue they would want to explore with the rest of group. In practice this is difficult to say without sounding like a school teacher. The better approach would be to acknowledge that they have matters they wish to pursue but that they will have the opportunity to do so in 30 minutes when they break.
- Using the name of one of the conspirators, pose a question to them as if oblivious of their current conversation. “Chris -are there any other ways we might ...?”

CHAPTER REVIEW

<i>Character</i>	<i>Description</i>	<i>Response</i>
Talking terror	Constant talking	1. Look for an opportunity to intervene, thank them for contributing and quickly re-direct group's attention 2. Check understanding and move on 3. Seek co-operation 4. Channel energies elsewhere
Great griper	negative	1. Allow opinions to be voiced once and move on 2. Ask for solution 3. Put matter to rest
Doubting Thomas	Cynical	Gain commitments change
Pot Plant	Non-contributor	Discover the cause and seek changes for involvement

<i>Character</i>	<i>Description</i>	<i>Response</i>
Jolly Jester	joking	1. limit opportunities 2. Use peer pressure to inhibit
Conspirators	whispering	1. Check reason and resolve misunderstandings 2. Discourage talking

Deal with Aggressive Behavior

- 1. Maintain a relaxed posture.** Telegraph to the group that you are open. Keep your arms at your sides, smile, sit on a table, lean forward, or just let your "body language" create an open posture.
- 2. Remain nondefensive.** Refrain from trying to personally defend the training, the organization's strategy or the feeling you need to be right.
- 3. Clarify and acknowledge.** show the participants you really want to hear them by paraphrasing key statements, checking for understanding, and generally letting people know you can see their point of view.
- 4. Clearly state behavior change needed.** Be specific about what behavior you want the participant to either stop or start as well as the impact of their current behavior. Give them the choice to act on your feedback.
- 5. Use a problem-solving approach.** To avoid becoming part of the problem, move the focus to problems solving. (ex: "What are some other approaches that could be taken to solve this issue?"
- 6. Let the group help you deal with the problem.** Give the group a chance to work out some of the issues. (ex: "Do you feel we've talked enough about defects in general? Is it time to move on?")
- 7. Ask to discuss problem privately.** Call a break. Take a minute or two to stretch, and then catch the participant alone to address the concerns that are bothering you. In private, use a combination of the techniques listed here to resolve the issue.
- 8. Allow other person to save face.** Acknowledge the other person's point of view and the value of their concerns.

Questions and answers

Questions and reponses

The ability to ask and respond to questions is an essential skili. Everyday we are asked hundreds of questions. And we ask just as many questions. By posing a question we show that we are listening and that we are interested. in practice there are two principal categories of questions.

1. Training Questions - which are designed to *devefop* understanding.
2. Testing questions " which are designed to provide control or *evatuaie* the group's understanding,

Both of these play an important role in training and each one has particular properties of its own.

Training questions. for exampie:

- Arouse interest: asking a well-timed and relevant question can provide a change in the pace and direction and stimulate the group.
- Enhance participation: successfui training depends on getting people 'involved'.
- Encourage thinking: even when the question asked is rhetorical and no response is required from the group, -the effect will still be to get the group thinking about the answer they might have given. An illustration might be: Who hasn't at some time, experienced a simiiar probiem to this?"

Testing questions are useful to:

Check understanding: are there areas which need to be clarified, repeated or emphasised ?

Guide the group: if the group doesn't understand, further questions can explore the areas where help is needed. Similarly, where discussion has wandered away from the original topic, a well-structured question can return the group to the matter in hand.

The principal types of question are:

open	leading	reffective
closed	loaded	focused

Open questions

This does not mean vague. Open questions are ideal for encouraging two-way communication. They invite the person to respond freely and usually begin with 'what' or 'how'.

An exampie would be: 'How exactly did you do that?'

Closed questions

The closed question is one which requires only a one word reply, often 'yes' or 'no'. Closed questions are useful for checking understanding or narrowing down options. Examples would be; 'Have you finished the exercise?', 'Is this method right or wrong?', 'How many times did this occur?'.

TRAINER' S TIP:

Avoid too many closed questions; they will inhibit participation and sound like interrogation.

Leading Question

As the title suggests this is a question which indicates the response that the questioner wants or expects to hear. As an approach it should be discouraged because it prevents the person questioned from answering freely. It is often disliked as being manipulative and can result in the responder becoming defensive.

Examples of leading questions are: 'You understand why we do it this way, don't you?' 'This would be a useful course for you, wouldn't it ? '

Loaded questions

Although both leading and loaded questions prevent the respondent from answering freely, the loaded question is more subtle in its approach. It is biased to bring unfair pressure to bear on the respondent to answer in a particular manner.

Examples include: 'Do you agree with the experts that Y is better than X?' 'You'd have to be mad to want Z wouldn't you?'

Reflective questions

They are used to reflect understanding, demonstrate comprehension or develop an answer or to encourage further discussion.

Examples would be: 'Are you saying that without overtime these targets cannot be met?' 'Is your plan to invest in new equipment?'

Focused questions

Focused questions provide a means of guiding the group by drawing their attention to a particular area. It is a particularly useful method of highlighting the learning points before looking at the other aspects.

Examples include: 'Can you tell us a bit more about how you researched your market?' 'So how many processes have we covered in this preliminary stage?'

Asking the right questions

What you ask depends on when you ask it. You use questions at different points for different purposes.

In the beginning the trainer will use questions to establish the extent of trainees' existing knowledge. Once this has been established, it is possible to tailor the level and approach to suit the group. During the course itself, questions are used to provide a change of pace, greater participation and to check that the information given has been satisfactorily understood. If further clarity is required, this will become apparent at this stage and areas of weakness can then be eliminated. Finally at the end of the session, questioning is used to reinforce learning points and to gauge whether the course objectives have been achieved.

Approach to questioning

The ultimate purpose in posing questions is to receive an answer and lead to a wider understanding by the group. The objective is not to impress the group with the extent of your knowledge, nor to highlight the lack of knowledge on their part. Questions should be framed in a way that won't embarrass or threaten an individual.

The approach most widely applied in posing questions is Socratic Direction. In its simplest form starts by knowing the answers you want to receive and working backwards to the questions necessary to prompt these answers.

TRAINER'S TIP:

The stages of Socratic Direction can be easily remembered through the mnemonic KOPSA

K Know the answers you want the group to provide.

O Open questioning should be used to tease out the answers.

P Paraphrase the answer once it has been given

S Summarise all the contributions provided and stress these where it seems appropriate.

A Add any other information or explanations which will clarify the answer given before asking further questions.

Creeping poison

This is where the questions are asked in sequence around the group so that group members can predict that the third question you will ask will be addressed to them.

Advantage: everyone has an equal opportunity to answer questions and that no one is overlooked or victimised.

Disadvantage: this method leads to increased pressure within the group. Group members can become so preoccupied about the question that they may lose concentration as they await their turn. Those who have already answered a question feel that they need not pay attention.

Heart failure

This is where a trainer questions individuals in the group without any prior warning.

Advantage: the random nature of the questioning technique means that the group has to 'keep on its toes' and pay attention.

Disadvantage: the pressure of being put on the spot might result in panic, the mind going blank or an ill-considered answer.

Popcorn questioning

This method is less direct and so less threatening. Here the trainer poses a question to the whole group and, as with popping corn, allows the group to heat up gradually, answering questions as soon as they feel confident to do so.

Advantage: enhances team spirit and enables greater participation.

Disadvantage: care must be taken to avoid the same people answering questions each time.

Responding to answers

The ability to frame a question in the right way is only part of the skill! in questioning a group. The other major factor is in responding to the answer that the group gives. When an individual answers a question, it is important to realise that the group will be looking at how that answer is received and how they would feel if they were in the respondent's shoes. Insensitively handling these responses can result in discouraging the group from any further participation..

Reacting to answers

Acknowledge every contribution

Ignoring a contribution is an indication that the response was unworthy of comment and

will discourage that person and the rest of the group.

Always acknowledge reactions immediately

Whether the response is correct or incorrect, always react immediately. Failure to do so could result in learning points being missed or incorrect responses being assumed to be correct.

Correct responses

If the response provided is what was required, praise the responder, repeat the answer given and emphasise or expand upon the issue, moving on to further questions if appropriate.

'Thank you John. That's a good point. Financial considerations are not the only factor, human factors must also be taken into account. Can anyone think?'

Broadly correct responses

Emphasise the correct elements and seek further information about the remainder.

'Yes,

the cost element is one factor here but are there any others we need to consider?'

Incorrect answers

Try to find something in the answer given which could be of merit. A possible approach might be to acknowledge the answer given, explore the reasons for reaching that conclusion and/or empathise with the respondent. Then either (1) restate the question to provide an opportunity to the individual to correct that answer or (2) put

the answer given to the group for comment.

1. 'Michael, I can understand why might be one way of dealing with the problem but do you think it would provide the best approach to handling?'
2. So, Michael, your suggestion would be to to discourage further complaints. Does the group agree that this would be the best approach to handling customer complaints?'

Where the answer doesn't make sense

Many people understand the question but find it difficult to put their thoughts into words. A solution might be to help clarify the underlying meaning and check back. The objective is to clarify or paraphrase the individual ideas, not to ignore them and impose your own.

Where the response is completely irrelevant

Before you start questioning your sanity or that of the group, check that the question was

understood and, if not, restate in a clearer form.

The cause might be that some trainees are answering a question that they think you ought to have asked or that they believe you will be asking. A response to this would be

to thank them for the contribution and indicate that the topic will be covered at a later stage or that it touches on matters outside the boundaries of the present topic.

'Thank you, Helen, but you are ahead of me. That's good point that we will be pursuing

later. Could you make sure that I cover it when we look at that topic next week?'

Responding to questions

Effective training requires that you are able to answer questions too.

It is always a wise idea to establish at the outset when you intend to deal with any problems or questions.

There are a number of reasons for asking a trainer questions. The most obvious reason is to seek an answer to a particular issue. There are also a number of less obvious reasons for posing questions:

Testing credibility

Often the test questioner already has the answer but wants to see how you handle it. If this is the case your credibility as a trainer depends on your honesty. Trainers are not expected to be the font of all knowledge but it is often felt that if they admit that they don't know they will lose all credibility.

This is not the case. It is infinitely better to remain silent and be thought a fool than to open your mouth and prove it beyond a doubt. If you don't know - don't bluff.

Providing the questioner doesn't seek basic information that you should know, the best approach is to congratulate the questioner on raising an important issue, admit that an answer doesn't readily spring to mind and promise to provide a definitive response later on.

TRAINER'S TIP:

When the information sought is basic information that you should know there is no excuse for not knowing it. However one approach is to commend the questioner and pass the question back to the group for an answer.

That's an interesting question, Charles. What does the group feel Charles should do in those circumstances?' This approach should not be overused and the trainer should take steps to redress the lack of knowledge as soon as possible.

Displaying knowledge

The purpose is to impress upon others how knowledgeable the questioner is. All he or she is looking for is confirmation of his intelligence in front of the group and providing his facts are correct, you can win him over by flattery. If the information is not accurate, considerable care must be taken to reinforce those areas which are right and tactfully correct those areas where the questioner might be misinformed.

The side-tracking question

The objective of such a question is to move the group's attention into an area which holds greater interest for the questioner. The reasons might be deliberate or unintentional but in either case the trainer should resist the temptation to be led off the track. 'We will be looking at just that problem tomorrow morning, Rose, so it might be better to save that question for then.

Challenge questions

Sometimes referred to as the 'Gotcha question', it often takes the form of using information provided by the trainer earlier to contradict the views currently being stated. Your response in this situation is very important. The rule here is never take the criticism or challenge personally even if it is meant that way! An emotional response will not be a rational one.

The correct approach is to pause, admit that the point is an interesting one, and use the time gained to think carefully about your response. If you can't justify what you have said don't try to. Defending the indefensible will mean that far from winning the person over you will convince the rest of the group of the validity of his concern. Instead, admit your mistake and emphasise the correct solution.

Equally if there is a good reason for the inconsistency of your answers, don't use this as an opportunity to score points. If you belittle the questioner in front of the group, at best he will be alienated, at worst he or she will seek revenge later. Demonstrate that you are above such things and you will gain the respect of the whole group.

Adapted from: Designing and Delivering Training for Groups •by David Leigh, Second Edition, Practical Trainer Series, 1996, Kogan Page

Questions and Responses

Developing and responding to questions is an essential trainer's skill.

Asking questions

Two types of question:

1. Training questions – which develop understanding.
- testing questions – which control the group or evaluate understanding.

Six types of questions:

- Open questions – invite a free response
- Closed questions - can receive a one word reply
- Leading questions - indicate in the question the answer required
- Loaded questions – provide pressure to reply in a particular way
- Reflective questions - used to demonstrate understanding
- Focused questions - highlight particular areas.

Approach to questioning

K – Know the answers required from the group

O – Open questions are employed to prompt these answers

P – Paraphrase the answer

S - Summarize all contributions

A – Add any further information

Three methods of asking questions

- Creeping poison – asking the group questions in sequence
- Heart failure – addressing v to individuals without warning
- Popcorn questioning – seeking answers by encouraging group participation

Make sure questions are clear:

- Keep them short
- Ensure they are fair and distributed evenly
- Discourage guessing
- Avoid vague questions
- Eliminate classroom type questions
- DON'T ANSWER QUESTION YOURSELF.

Responding to Answers

- Acknowledge every contribution
- Respond to answers immediately
- Congratulate right answers
- Find merit even in wrong responses
- Check understanding

Dos and Don'ts of Asking Questions

Do make sure that the questions is clear

it is impossible to answer anything correctly if you don't understand the question. Avoid jargon and technical language which might not be understood, and phrase the question in a way that will not be ambiguous.

Keep it short

There is little point in asking a question which is so long-winded or confusing that the respondent has to ask for it to be repeated. Where a question is complicated, break it down into digestible chunks.

Keep it fair

The aptly questioned should be able to answer the question from the knowledge gained on the course or from knowledge he could reasonably be expected to have already. It is unfair to ask beginners on a book-keeping course to do a bank reconciliation if that is what they are there to learn.

Do distribute questions evenly

Tailor the question to suit the person questioned. Part of keeping it fair is making sure that individuals don't feel that they are being victimized and that questions are always addressed to them. Questions are occasionally used as a method of keeping particular group members alert and under control. Although this is an acceptable approach it shouldn't be carried out in a manner which leaves the person feeling 'picked upon'.

Don't ask 50 / 50 questions

Ask questions which require an answer to be thought out and not just to be guessed at. Avoid questions like 'which would you press, the red button or the blue button?'

Don't ask vague questions

Questions like 'What: is the first thing you would expect to see in any office?' are too wide or indistinct to be of any value. Questions should be precise enough to indicate the knowledge required to answer correctly.

Don't seek public confessions

It is unfair to expect a response to questions such as 'Has anyone ever been ill through stress?' Even the most sensitive issue can be raised by questioning in an appropriate way. 'What sort of illnesses can be attributed to stress?' 'What sort of effects can stress produce?' will often result in a wider and more enthusiastic response.

Don't ask questions reminiscent of the classroom

Classroom questions are those questions which can be completed in one word, such as 'We call this a ..?' with a pause for the group to provide a response.

Don't answer the question yourself

Trainers are often so concerned that they won't get the answer they want (or worse yet, any answer at all) that they finish up answering the question themselves. Don't give up too easily. If the group does fail to react it might be that they don't understand what you are asking, so phrase the question in another way.

Effective training

Creating the Most Effective Training

By Mark Rose, University of Oklahoma Outreach Executive Program - Team Quest

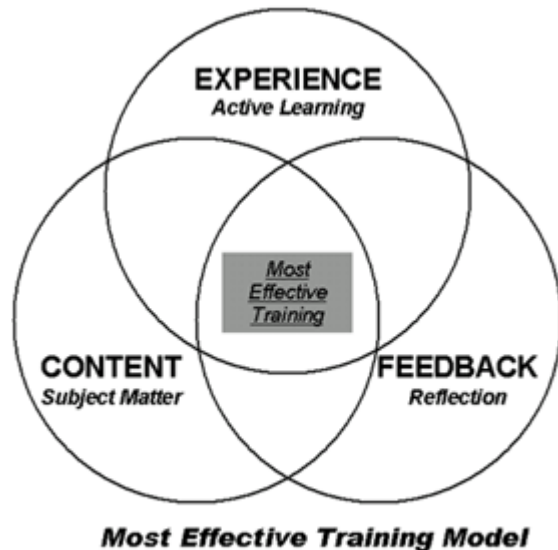
I'm often asked what I do in my job. It usually goes something like, "What do you do for the University of Oklahoma?" "I help equip teams with skills and tools to become more effective," I reply. "My main focus is using experiential learning for team development." This answer typically results in glassy eyes, a nod of the head and a quick change of the subject.

To be fair, most people don't know the amount of work it takes to be a trainer, much less care. But, to be a good trainer, there has to be some structure to it. The good news is that there is a model for the design of effective training. Most trainers have learned that no matter what they are teaching, they have to use different ways to meet the variety of learning styles of their participants. Some trainers might intuitively use different ways to cover their content but not know why it works - they just know that it does. Good trainers know how and why using a variety of delivery components can create the most effective training.

The premise for creating the most effective training is built on the foundation of Malcolm Knowles' work (originally in 1973) who was critical in developing the idea of Andragogy or Adult Learning Theory. Andragogy is based on several assumptions:

- # Adults need to know why they should learn something.
- # Adults need to direct their own learning.
- # Adults have a variety of experiences that can be used as resources for other adult learners, and they prefer experiential techniques.
- # Adults are ready to learn when they have a need for a knowledge or skill that can be applied to their life.
- # Adults have a life-centered orientation to learning.
- # Most adults are motivated to continue growing and developing.

Using these assumptions of Adult Learning Theory, we modified a common model for instructional design that uses three different components for effective training. The



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model shows that a relatively equal distribution of these three components provides the most effective training for adult learners.

Content-This is the subject matter as illustrated by notes in the Participant's Handbook, lecture, notes created by the learners, etc. It relates to the competencies presented in the training.

Experience-This is the active learning that participants experience which encourages their discovery of a learning point or their practice of a new skill. It can be a game or physical activity, but it can also be a written exercise or group discussion. A session should offer a variety of auditory, visual and kinesthetic experiences, neither all games nor all discussions.

Feedback-This is the participants' reflection upon a competency's relevance, their personal application of the session's content or the significance of their own experience. It is frequently facilitated by the trainer, but may also be facilitated by the group.

For example, you might be providing training on stages of group development with a newly formed work team. The Content component could include a paper copy of Tuckman's Stages of Group Development (1965). You would explain the model and the characteristics of each stage. This would be a brief overview so that the team members could have a common language about the model. Some trainers call this 'frontloading' which is a way to introduce a topic to your group before an experience. The Experience component could be any type of activity where the group is engaged in learning about group development. Examples of this component could be watching a video of another group interacting.

Finally, the Feedback component would include some type of reflection about the activity they experienced. After watching the video of another group interacting, the facilitator might ask group members questions about what they saw and where that fits into the stages of group development.

This is just one example of how a trainer might use this three component model for designing effective training. An important thing to remember is for the most effective training to take place, the delivery of each major topic should include approximately equal proportions of all three components - Content, Experience and Feedback. Throughout each training, the order of the components should be varied so that each is modeled introducing, exploring and summarizing a topic.

Develop participation

1. Keep air time under 40% Resist the temptation to lecture or be the expert. By deferring questions back to the group and using a variety of techniques for developing participation, you can encourage participants to do at least 60% of the talking.

- 2. Ask open-ended questions.** These questions are used when you want to gain more information. Open-ended questions usually can't be answered with just a "yes" or "no." They usually start with "what," "how," "tell me about," or "explain." (ex: "What does quality mean to you?" "How would you implement that idea?" "What do you think the effect would be if...")
- 3. Count to 10.** Wait a full 10 seconds after asking your questions (counting one, one thousand; two, one thousand). If there is no response, rephrase or ask your question again.
- 4. Use polling.** This technique enables you to test assumptions about your group and get people interested in your topic. Polling can bring out otherwise silent people or equalize the overly talkative participant. Used together with asking an open-ended question, it can increase participation easily. (ex: "Let's see a show of hands from those of you who have used problem-solving skills," or "How many here have been to a facilitation skills seminar?")
- 5. Call on someone by name.** Select someone who looks like they might know the answer. Otherwise, this technique can embarrass or make people uneasy. Use the name first, then follow with the question or request. (ex: "Tell me, Kim, how do you accomplish your goal setting?" "Eduardo, how many PCs does your group own?")
- 6. Give verbal reinforcement.** Reinforce participation and involvement rather than the content of the response. (ex: "Thank you," "I'm pleased you brought that up.")
- 7. Give nonverbal reinforcement.** Show your participants you're pleased with what's going on or what has been said. (ex: Smile, nod, "thumbs up," write their ideas on the flipchart word-for-word, or walk toward the group.)
- 8. Use networking.** Get participants to talk to each other rather than have them interact only with you. (ex: "Take a few minutes and ask the person next to you how they use that process in their department." "Michelle, you've dealt with that issue before. Which Key Actions should Tom be especially careful to cover?")
- 9. Defer to the group.** Rather than answering questions yourself, let the group bring its expertise to the situation. (ex: "What about it group?" "What are your thoughts and opinions about which approach we should choose?")
- 10. Provide examples.** Whether a personal experience or an example drawn from another, examples can provide a visual illustration of a question or concept you are presenting. Be aware of maintaining confidentiality if you are sharing an example based on someone else's experience. (ex: "I once faced a situation as a supervisor that I needed coaching on, but I didn't get it. This is what happened....")

Manage Over Participation

1. Refer to ground rules. If you have established ground rules and participants have agreed to uphold the ground rules, you can now use them to encourage the kind of participation needed.

2. Ask closed-ended questions. Begin your questions with phrases that solicit only a yes or no, or a one-word response. *Do you, can you, and have you* are examples of closed-ended questions. (ex: "Do you plan to set requirements with your future customers?" "Can you tell me how many of you are members of a process improvement team?").

3. Ask for link to topic. Get the group or participant to bring themselves back on target. (ex: "Chuck, how does the situation you just described fit into the step we are discussing?")

4. Use reflecting statements. "Reflecting" is a form of paraphrasing, using some of the speaker's own words and eliminating the normal preamble to paraphrasing, e.g., "If I'm hearing you correctly," or "So, what you're saying is..." This creates a "mirror" of feedback that tells the speaker, "I understand you." This forces you to listen intently, since you know you will have to repeat back what was said.

Example: If an over participant says, "This has been a really frustrating year with all the turnover because of the mistrust and animosity among our employees, which everybody knows we can't do anything about...And besides that, with most of our customers cutting back on orders, we'll probably have layoffs and all that...and on top of that, I'm working seven days a week trying to pick up the slack..."

Respond by reflecting and making a link to the topic at hand: "Turnover and possible layoffs are causing poor morale and you're frustrated because you're working seven days a week and don't see any end in sight. Everything you've mentioned makes this session, 'Positive Responses to Negative Situations' even more important. So let's take a look at the Key Actions.

5. Ask others for opinions. Tactfully refocusing attention away from an over participant, Direct open-ended questions at the group or another individual. This can accomplish two things if done effectively: manage an over participant and develop additional participation. (ex: "Thanks, Bob. How does everyone else feel about this issue?").

6. Summarize and move on. Transitions are important. A quick summary of material signals an intent to continue. Let participants know you've completed your material by capturing key points and introducing the next ones. (ex: "We've just completed our prework discussion of...Now let's apply that information to next topic of..").

Give Clear and Concise Instructions

- 1. Use simple sentences.** Keep your delivery straightforward and uncomplicated. Phrase things in the easiest way possible.
- 2. Give step-by-step instructions.** Help your participants master the material by telling them where you are going and why you are going there. Providing clear, distinct and logical instructions can help ensure positive results. (ex: "Read page 10. Then fill out pages 12 and 14. I'll give you 15 minutes to complete this exercise.")
- 3. Make smooth transitions.** Help participants understand how one learning activity or idea is linked to another by using clear transitions to make the connections for them. (ex: "We've just finished discussing why it's so important for a manager to recognize an employee's efforts. now we're going to discuss how to do that.")
- 4. Speak clearly and audibly.** Use your voice to its advantage. Project your voice a little beyond your participants. Speak in a manner that can be easily heard and plainly understood.
- 5. Use visual aids effectively.** Enhance material, if appropriate, with additional flipcharts, posters or other props that graphically reinforce understanding and learning. Be careful not to over-do the visual aids so as to distract from the participants' learning.
- 6. Check for understanding.** This technique gives the speaker an opportunity to clarify points. Let your participants know you're interested in them and in whether or not they understand. (ex: "Who would like to summarize their understanding of the exercise we're about to do?")
- 7. Ask participants to summarize.** Have your participants share in the responsibility of summarizing what you've just covered and check their comprehension at the same time. (ex: "We've spent a lot of time discussing....What are some of the major points to remember?")

Establish a Comfortable Learning Environment

- 1. Ground Rules should be established and upheld.** Ground rules help encourage the development of positive group behaviors and help limit negative ones. Ask the participants what ground rules they would like to see established and then add your own. Be sure to ask for participant commitment to the ground rules. (ex. "What are some ground rules that would help you get the most out of our time together? Can we all agree to these ground rules? Would any of these ground rules be difficult to uphold?")

Examples of Ground rules:

- Enter into the discussion enthusiastically
- Give freely of your experience

- Keep confidences and assume others will.
- Follow The Basic Principles
- Confine your discussion to the topic.
- Appreciate the other person's point of view.

2. Show interest. Send the message that you are interested in what participants have to say, the experiences they bring, and the issues they face in the organization. You can do this by maintaining eye contact, smiling, moving towards participants, and nodding your head.

3. Listen for content and feelings. Actively listen for the emotion behind the words as well as the message between the lines. Respond to both.

4. Look for nonverbal cues. Fidgeting, avoiding eye contact, sighing, pulling on a sweater, or leaving and entering are examples of cues that participants are uncomfortable with something (the room temperature, the subject matter, outside issues).

5. Use humor as appropriate. Humor, appropriately used, can often put participants at ease and set the stage for a fun and interactive session. Be cautious of making humor your main "style of communication" as it may detract from the seriousness of the message. In addition, be aware that jokes may offend participants in ways that are not readily obvious.

6. Control distractors. Distractors can include environmental (uncomfortable room temperature, noise from the next room, poor lighting) or personal (jingling change, tapping pencils, shuffling papers, playing with jewelry) disturbances. It is the responsibility of the facilitator to identify and correct any distractor that may hinder the learning experience. (ex: It seems to be getting a little cold in here. How does the temperature feel to the group?)")

7. Maintain eye contact with participants. Use your eyes to let people know you are interested and pick up cues to how the participants are reacting. Maintain 80% eye contact. Avoid rapid, sweeping head movements. If you need to use your Instructor's Unit Guide, glance at the guide and then re-establish eye contact before speaking.

8. Link to organizational issues and other training. Generate participant interest in the topic by making it relevant to what's currently going on in the organization, what they are currently learning, or what is going to be covered in other training sessions. (ex: "How is the example we just discussed similar to what we are experiencing within the Libraries?" "The skills we'll cover today go hand-in-hand with those you learned last week."

Focusing the program on the participants

Considerations of content and methodological approaches have to be grounded in the needs of the participants and group, and a reflection upon their roles and responsibilities in the running of the program. The following factors provide a basis for working this through:

Participants' needs and expectations: The needs, motivations and expectations of the participants for the training course give you important information for measuring the relevance of the training for the people taking part in it. Needs and expectations can be identified before or at the beginning of the training, but allow for the possibility of them changing during the activity (see 5.4.1). Looking at the participants' needs and expectations also encompasses considering how the experience of the training will relate to their reality. How, or to what extent, can it be ensured that the participants can use the training experience in subsequent work?

Recognition of the participants' prior knowledge: Keep in mind that participants come with a training history and range of experiences. Depending on the levels of experience present in your group, recognising prior knowledge and using the resources of participants in the course can be an essential element for actively involving them in the training process and facilitating peer education. Create spaces where all participants have the opportunity to share their experiences. Participants with relevant knowledge or skills might contribute in specific ways, for instance by giving inputs or running a workshop.

Responsibility for the learning process: On the one hand, people might only take in what they want to learn and what they feel they need. On the other, they might have learning needs that they are not immediately aware of. What do you consider to be the respective responsibilities of the participants and trainers for the learning process? Who can and who should determine what the participants need to learn?

Group size and development. When planning a program, the size of the group provides an immediate framework. For instance, creating an intense experiential learning process for a group of 50 participants might be a very difficult undertaking. A group also undergoes different phases during a training course, so adapt your content, methods and program flow to the relevant stages of group development (see 5.3.2)

Use of the environment, space and resources of the group: How can you make use of the environment in which the training takes place? Or, asked the other way around, what environment do you need for your program? How can you use the city, local youth structures, youth organisations and projects, forests or fields around the training site in the program? And how can you work best with the resources present in the group itself? For instance, if you want to work on cultural perceptions and images with a group of participants, do you run a simulation exercise, work with what happens in the group, or send the group into the streets to observe and report?

Structure and flexibility in the program preparation: Working with the resources present in the group and involving the participants' needs and expectations demands a

certain readiness flexibility in preparation. Sometimes you can only isolate the real learning needs and most valuable contributions during the training course. Discuss within the team the extent to which you can be open and flexible. How much structure do you want to provide? Which elements need to be settled in advance to target the objectives and to feel comfortable with the program?

Involving the playfull spirit in training

Article written by Leslie Brunker, Portland, OR. 503-233-3859, litenup@ipinc.net

This is not going to be an article listing the seven habits of highly playful trainers. Nor is it going to be a how-to guide on being a comedian. The approach I'm taking with the subject of humor and playfulness is more of a story format. It is my intention that as you read the story you will have an "aha" experience, or perhaps, in this case, an "a-ha-ha" experience. When I was in college I did not know that I wanted to teach for a living. I didn't study teaching or education. I thought I would be a counselor and help individuals solve their personal and inter-relational problems.

I have always been a very skilled swimmer. I did some competition and then got interested in teaching others how to swim. So I got certified and then was hired by a swim school where I worked my way through college. As I look back on what I've learned from my experience teaching swimming, I realize that I learned more about training there than anywhere else.

Learning to swim is such a terrific metaphor for learning anything. It's a great metaphor for training. Here's why I think so. As a swim instructor I recognized that I had students who were entering a foreign and threatening environment; the water. When human beings are in threatening environments we tend to get very distracted with the need to survive. When we are so distracted we cannot learn new techniques or skills. There just isn't room in our minds or in our attention. So my approach to teaching people how to swim was that I first got people *safe in the environment*. When people were so distracted by fear how could I teach them survival skills? What I did was to override their distraction with another distraction. Play!

I admit this was easier to do with children than with adults. Children are so willing and accustomed to play. Adults tend to be very serious, especially when it comes to their own performance expectations. My approach to teaching people how to swim was to take all of my own enthusiasm (which is part of our expression of spirit) and my own playful spirit, and invite my students to play in the water with me. We blew bubbles, made noises, made big movements, we splashed, we pretended, we danced, we laughed. Integrated within the play were the skills to swim. Then one day, often to their surprise, they could suddenly swim across the pool. It was like magic! They had learned the skills without realizing it because they were so busy playing.

Sometimes there would be parents who were watching my classes and would come up to me after several days and say, "When are you going to get to the actual lesson?" These parents were concerned that if we were playing so much their children couldn't

really be learning anything. I would ask them to be patient and trust my methods. Some had a very difficult time with it. As adults we have come to think of learning as hard, serious, laborious, and often painful. From that framework it's a real stretch to accept that people not only *can* learn from play, but actually tend to learn *better* through play.

When I got out of college I went into the field of counseling. After about three years I noticed that I missed the teaching. I started working with small groups and loved the dynamics. I enjoyed the opportunity to take on more of a teaching role with these groups. Then I became interested in what happens in larger systems; family and organizational systems. So, I returned to school to get a graduate degree in Applied Behavioral Sciences, emphasizing organizational systems development. I designed some training programs related to interpersonal skills and started marketing them to companies. I took my learning from the swimming pool into the corporate "classroom", realizing that people needed to feel safe before they could learn any new skills.

When the playful spirit is present there is a common bond between people that creates safety. Even when (healthy) competition is present, people tend to feel safe and more open to learning. This is why I have become so interested in the development and use of games and simulations as learning tools. They help to bring out the playful spirit, and people learn while they don't even realize they're learning. Magic!

In my work I have the opportunity to teach and coach trainers, which I find to be great fun. So many ask how to make their training more fun and more humorous. I have to say that fun and play are not what we *make* happen, but more what we *allow* to happen. We allow it through invoking the playful spirit, both in ourselves and in our participants. Notice I didn't say our "audience". What I'm talking about is your "presence", not your presentation.

The more you can be "present" with yourself, the safer *you* will feel as a trainer. The safer you feel, the safer your participants will feel. Just like in the pool. If I am nervous or afraid about myself or my students, they will feel it and, as a result, they will be more afraid for themselves.

On the other hand, if I am "present" with them and their fear, they can start to let it go and begin to trust me, then trust the environment. People can read signals of fear and anxiety in others. If they read it in you as a trainer, it will escalate any fear or anxiety they already have themselves.

This is why it is extremely important for good trainers to develop their skills not just in their content area, but also in how to be "present". This amounts to getting lots of varied experience in the *environment of training*. Take risks in order to stretch your own survival skills. And mostly have a sense of humor about yourself! Not just laughing, but also having that sense of acceptance toward yourself so that you give yourself a break for being human. Invoking the playful spirit means having the "presence" to see the absurdities in the moment and playing on them. It isn't that we need to learn a certain number of jokes to tell during our "presentation."

Instead we need to realize that we are in service to our participants and that this training is *their* show, not ours. There isn't a formula or specific technique to follow. Each group is going to be different and unique. We honor our participants by recognizing this fact and helping to raise the safety factor through our "presence."

To invoke the playful spirit in training we must remember to first pay attention to the safety of the learners in this environment. At the same time we must notice the common bond we all have in being human. Then challenge ourselves, moment to

moment, to accept the absurdities of our perspectives and play with the magic that comes from taking *ourselves* a little more lightly.

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Debriefing

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What is debriefing

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What is debriefing

Def: the process of reflecting upon the outcome of an activity; one or more meetings, sessions, discussions or documents in which this process of reflection takes place.

Definitions of Debriefing on the Web:

Giving subjects previously undisclosed information about the research project following completion of their participation in research.

www.gulflink.osd.mil/medsearch/glossary/glossary_d.shtml

– Giving subjects previously undisclosed information about the research project following completion of their participation in research.

www.clemson.edu/research/orcSite/orcIRB_DefsD.htm

the process of reflecting upon the outcome of an activity; one or more meetings, sessions, discussions or documents in which this process of reflection takes place

www.ideels.uni-bremen.de/glossary.html

Informing unsuccessful offerors of the basis for the selection decision and contract award. This information includes the Government's evaluation of the significant weak or deficient factors in the offeror's proposal.

www.dla.mil/J-8/A-76/appendixK.html

Group activity designed to elicit participant reactions, thoughts, and responses to a process. Debriefings can be initiated by asking participants: "What happened?" and "How did we feel about it?"

www.nsrfharmony.org/glossary.html

The process of informing research participant(s) of the actual purpose of the research, furnishing additional information regarding the research and providing an additional opportunity to withdraw data provided by the participant. The RRB requires a copy of the debriefing procedure whenever deception is involved.

spectrum.troyst.edu/~research/definitions.html

In the procurement process, informing bidders about the strengths and weaknesses of their proposal.

www.projectauditors.com/Dictionary/D.html

a planned interaction after every user test in which the user is allowed to ask and receive answer to questions about the system, tasks, or goals of the study

ei.cs.vt.edu/~cs5714/glossary.html

A review and discussion on the outcome of a training event based on a formative assessment of that event. Briefing and debriefing are always included as an integral part of the training technique.

www.eurocontrol.int/eatmp/glossary/terms/terms-04.htm

A critical examination of an operation done to evaluate actions for documentation and future improvements. (CIMS)

www.fire.org.nz/Rural/publications/glossary/

The presentation of research findings to clients.

www.rigneyassoc.com/glossary.html

Process following a research session through which participants are informed about the rationale for the research in which they participated, about the need for any deception, and about their specific contribution to the research. Important goals of debriefing are to clear up any misconceptions and to leave participants with a positive feeling toward psychological research.

highered.mcgraw-hill.com/sites/0072494468/student_view0/chapter3/glossary.html

report of a mission or task

www.cogsci.princeton.edu/cgi-bin/webwn

Article on debriefing published in Jac Geurts, Cisca Joldersma , Ellie Roelofs (Eds.), Gaming/Simulation for Policy Development and Organizational Change. Tilburg University Press, 1998

Games/simulations are made to be learned from. All activities, such as designing a simulation or playing it, can help to learn about the real life situation the simulation refers to. However, it is not the case that one learns by merely playing a

game/simulation. Participants are not always able to draw conclusions from their experiences acquired during the game, and, subsequently, to apply them to a 'real life' situation. Their cognitive skills may not (yet) be adequate, or the discrepancy between the game/simulation and the reference system (i.e. the real life situation) can be very great, which hinders the effective transfer of experiences. Even more important is the fact that, in general, participants only develop a partial image of what is going on during the game/simulation. However, it is possible to reconstruct what has happened during the game from the perspective of the participants, and, by doing so, to show the limitations of their perspectives.

In order to utilise the opportunities for learning, an evaluative session is often held after the simulation, generally referred to as the final debriefing. In the literature, relatively limited attention has been paid to debriefing (exceptions are, e.g., Lederman, 1992; Thiagarajan, 1992; Petranek et al., 1992; Steinwachs, 1992), and even less attention to the way debriefing can contribute to learning. A few publications focus on particular aspects of debriefing, such as transfer, retention, and differences between participants in terms of cognitive styles and positions. The special issue on debriefing of *Simulations and Gaming, An international Journal*, opened with the observation that: "Debriefing is perhaps the most important part of a simulation/game, and yet it tends to be the most neglected, if not in practice, at least in literature". This special issue, published in 1992, was supposed to be an impulse for renewed attention for the subject of debriefing. Apart from a few publications in the years that followed there seems to have been no big improvement on this point.

Each game/simulation, whatever its objective, should be concluded by a form of debriefing that helps the participants to leave their role and the game in a sound way. In this article, we focus on the function of debriefing in helping people to learn from games/simulations. We assume that the design of debriefing sessions should be tailored to the general and specific goals of a game/simulation. The next section presents a simple classification model for different objectives of games/simulations. Next, we will tentatively elaborate on the purpose and process of debriefing in each of the situations presented.

A MODEL FOR DEBRIEFING: WHAT SHOULD BE LEARNED AND BY WHOM?

As a starting point for our model for debriefing, we will concentrate on the two questions that are indicated in the title of this section. The first question refers to the aspect: what has to be learned from playing the simulation? It refers to the objectives of the game. These may be well-defined and specified beforehand. The objectives are translated into the criteria which will have to be met by participants' performance. So before the game starts it is known which learning results are to be attained. Debriefing focuses on the discussion how closely the participants' performance has approached the target and what can be done to close the gap between the performance and the target even further. It is also possible that a game/simulation has objectives that cannot be precisely defined. Imagine a game/simulation in which the participants can experiment with various kinds of leadership styles. When they are confronted with the consequences of each of these styles, they will get an insight into the style that suits them best under certain conditions. The objectives of these simulations cannot be translated into criteria that have to be met, and, therefore, it is not possible to judge

the performance of the participants against well-defined criteria or targets. Instead, all participants will have to draw their own conclusions about their own performance in the simulation and about their behaviour, attitudes, choices, etc. in future situations. We refer to the two types of game/simulation discussed above as games/simulations with closed objectives and games/simulations with open objectives, or briefly, closed and open simulations respectively.

The second question is: which category of actors has to learn from playing a game/simulation? Many games/simulations are played to give the participants or players the opportunity of learning from their experiences in the game. The experiences during the game give them insight into the subject of the simulation and/or in their own behavior. After the simulation the participants should have acquired new knowledge or insight, either about the simulation's subject, or about themselves. On the other hand, there are games/simulations that have been developed to give other people than the players information. The players play their roles and their behaviour is registered in one way or the other. It is, for example, the client or the facilitator who has to learn about the subject of the game. So, in the end, other people should have acquired knowledge or insight, either about the part of 'real life' the game/simulation was referring to, or about the players in the game/simulation.

The answers to these two questions can be combined, resulting in four types of applications for simulation, as shown in Table 1.

Table 1 Four types of application for games/simulations

Are the performance criteria precisely in advance?/ simulation Who has to learn:	Yes closed	No open simulation
the participants	training/ education	development/ exploration
the facilitator / researcher	assessment/ diagnosis	research

In each of these four cells, debriefing has a different purpose. These purposes can be described as follows: 'maximize' (training), 'judge' (assessment), 'optimize/invent' (exploration), and 'register' (research).

Until now, we have discussed debriefing as the last activity to take place at the end of a game/simulation. In the final debriefing, participants' performance in the game is evaluated and related to 'real life situations'. Another kind of debriefing can be distinguished which takes place during the game. Many games consist of several rounds. In between rounds participants may get feedback from the facilitator or other participants, which can also be seen as a form of debriefing. When discussing the debriefing in each of the four cells, we will focus on both forms of debriefing.

DEBRIEFING IN DIFFERENT CASES

In this section we will briefly describe the nature and the purpose of debriefing in training, assessment, exploration, and research.

Training/education

Gaming/simulation can be used as an instrument to make participants acquire specific knowledge or specific skills. Since it is known beforehand which knowledge or skills have to be acquired, criteria can be formulated for the knowledge and skills one is

suppose to have after the game/simulation. It can be assessed to what degree the participants have acquired the knowledge aimed at, or whether they are capable of carrying out certain actions quickly and accurately.

During the final debriefing session a link is made between the knowledge and skills used in the game/simulation and the knowledge and skills required in the corresponding 'real life situations'. The debriefing focuses on the question whether the participants' performance meets the criteria formulated beforehand. Debriefing in a simulation-as-training focuses not just on the extent to which the criteria have been met, but also helps the participants to see how big the gap is between their performance and the target. During debriefing sessions in between rounds the facilitator can give guidelines to improve the performance of the participants and help them in determining what to do in the next round to reduce the gap and meet the criteria. The purpose of getting the participants' performance as close to the target / criteria as possible can be described as 'maximizing'.

Assessment

Simulation can also be deployed as an instrument to give other people information about the performance of participants. Mostly, there will be a predetermined model or a set of criteria to which the performance is measured. In such a case we have a closed simulation and another person than the participant has to learn from the simulation. An example of assessment is the organizational diagnosis. The use of gaming/simulation as a tool for assessment of personnel is another example. Here the question is whether players (i.e. applicants) possess a combination of knowledge and skills required for a specific function. In these cases, the performance of the participant is compared to some sort of ideal model. Here, the debriefing does not aim at learning by the participants, although this can be a side effect. Instead, the debriefer can form an opinion about the performance of individual participants (in the case of a personnel assessment) or of the organisation (e.g. in case of an organizational diagnosis). This opinion is formed by comparing the performance observed with an ideal model of desired behavior. If this comparison can be made on the basis of measurements of behavior, debriefing is not necessary, unless it is considered necessary to finish the simulation with a sessions that helps the participants to quit their role.

Exploration/development

In a game/simulation-as-exploration the participants have to learn from it, but it is not specifically clear beforehand what should be learned exactly. Exploratory games/simulations may aim at getting to know a certain type of situation, experimenting with your own behaviour in it, testing certain strategies or courses of action in advance, or trying to invent styles of cooperation. In this mode, neither the game designers nor the debriefers have specific ideas about how participants should act or which courses of action are best. The game/simulation only provides a setting in which exploration and experimentation can take place. Participants are explicitly asked to use these options and to find out what they can do within the boundaries and under the conditions in the game/simulation, including perhaps changing these conditions. In the end the participants are the ones who value the different strategies and performances. The debriefing should be tailored to this principle. The debriefing session should help the participants to analyse the developments in the game/simulation and their contributions to it and to evaluate the relevance of the conclusions for real life situations in light of their own value judgments.

As there is no predefined frame for judging or testing performances, this kind of debriefing is the most demanding. Because there are no fixed and pre-specified criteria, the perspectives and interpretations of all participants have to be taken seriously; an extra complicating factor is that these perspectives and interpretations can differ strongly, even after the game is over. This aspect deserves special attention if the simulation is played by a group of persons who also have to work together outside the simulation. In the simulation-as-exploration the participants are made more conscious of their choices and they are challenged and motivated for the next rounds. Feedback or debriefing in between rounds can focus on the diversity of solutions for existing problems, and on the consequences of these solutions. Just as in the final debriefing the values for the different solutions are generated by the participants themselves.

Research

One can devise many applications for games/simulations for research purposes (Visser et al., 1995; Mastik et al., 1995). The game/simulation is mostly designed in such a way that

processes and events enable it to be used to answer a specific research question. The facilitator or the researcher registers what happens and draws his conclusions. Whether the participants learn something from playing the game or not is of minor importance. Debriefing for cooling down and, possibly, for desensitising is mandatory. From the perspective of conducting a research project properly, it could be advisable that the participants are informed afterwards about the purpose of the game/simulation and the expectations of the researcher. It is also important that the participants are asked 'not to discuss the experiment with others', as Lederman (1992) stresses. From the viewpoint of the researcher, a debriefing session can also be necessary as an additional source of information, for example, to examine to what degree the participants judge their acting in the game/simulation to be realistic or to validate the interpretations and conclusions of the researcher), or simply because the research is focused on debriefing or group interaction processes. Whether the debriefing should take place in between rounds depends on the objective of the game/simulation. In some settings feedback may be unwanted in between rounds, since this information may steer the behavior of the players. In other instances the researcher may be interested in the effect of feedback on the players' behavior in the game. The researcher can 'freeze' the game and ask the participants for their considerations. Another possibility is that each round of the game is followed by handing out a questionnaire or using another instrument for data gathering; this will give the researcher insight into changes in behavior, opinions, attitudes and the like. During the final debriefing as well as during debriefing in between rounds it is not intended that participants should make a link with their own real life situation; there is a one way flow:

information flows from the game and from the participants towards the facilitator/researcher.

Conclusions

There is no doubt about the relevance of debriefing in gaming/simulation. Nevertheless the subject is not elaborated on very much in the literature. In the previous sections, we have developed a simple model to distinguish games/simulations with different objectives. On the basis of two questions, 'What has to be learned?' and 'Who has to learn?' we were able to distinguish four types of

applications of games/simulations. The nature and purpose of debriefing in the four typical applications of games/simulation were described subsequently. We also pointed at some differences in the orientation of the debriefing. The distinction made in this article can be a good starting point to investigate the phenomenon of debriefing further. This investigation should, of course, address the question as to how to translate the options identified into specific approaches and techniques for debriefing. Firstly, however, a lot of questions about debriefing have to be answered, such as the relation between debriefing and game design; debriefing and individual and collective learning; debriefers' knowledge of the game/simulation; and the differences between the debriefing in between rounds and final debriefing. Elsewhere we will elaborate these themes and try to formulate some answers.

Methods for promoting debriefing

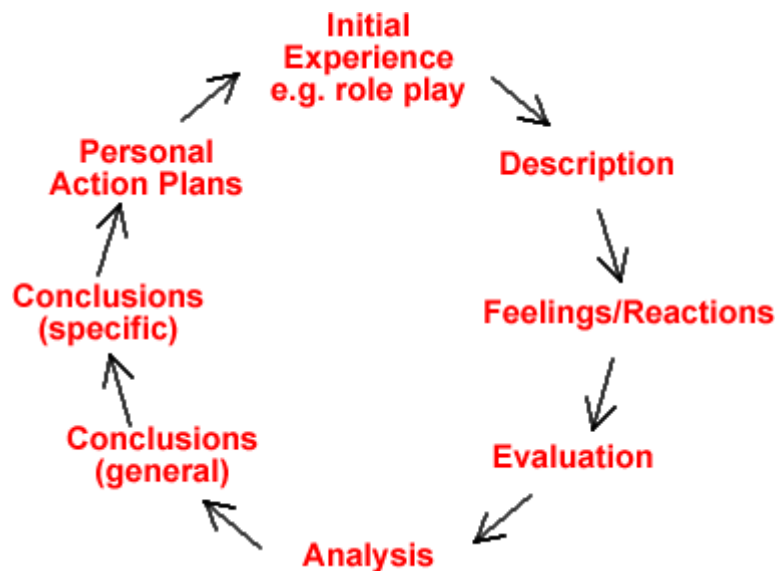
How can reflection be stimulated and promoted? How can one get started? Video and audio recordings are widely used to prompt reflection in areas of professional training (teaching, social work, interpersonal skills training), as is peer appraisal. Questions can be a good way to start - either on your own or in a mutual interviewing situation, and may be particularly useful where you wish to produce a structured written record of the process (in a reflective logbook or in your reflective commentary on your IL project, for instance). Gibbs suggests the following as a structured de-briefing following an experience (or simulated experience); the questions here make very pertinent prompts which you may like to use when writing your own journal or commentary.

- Description: What happened? (Don't make judgements yet or try to draw conclusions; simply describe.)
- Feelings: What were your reactions and feelings? Again don't move on to analysing these yet.
- Evaluation: What was good and bad about the experience? Make value judgements.
- Analysis: What sense can you make of the situation? Bring in ideas from outside the experience to help you. What was really going on? Were different people's experiences similar or different in important ways?
- Conclusion: What can be concluded, in a general sense, from these experiences and the (general) analyses you have undertaken

- **Conclusions:** What can be concluded about your own specific, unique personal situation or (specific) way of working?

- **Personal action:** What are you going to do differently in this type of plans: What steps are you going to take on the basis of what you have learnt?

(Gibbs, op.cit, pp46-7.)



Gibbs shows this debriefing sequence following the experiential learning cycle thus:

Clearly reflection plays a crucial role in effective learning from experience. Donald Schon, in his book *The Reflective Practitioner* (first published 1983) explored how professionals, engineers, managers, town planners, for instance - "reflect-in-action" and "reflect-on-action", and his discussion of the approaches to planning and problem-solving based on such reflection has been very influential in much professional training and practice since. Indeed, the effect of his work can now be seen within the more general sphere of adult learning and teaching (see Cowan, 1998, for example).

Reflection is not, however a part of all learning; simple skills may, for instance, be learnt through imitation or memorizing without any reflection or analysis of the process. This kind of learning is akin to what has been termed surface learning, something we're probably all familiar with from learning facts by rote and regurgitating them in examinations. A deep learning approach, however, is characterized by learners wanting to understand underlying principles and ideas and make them personally meaningful - an approach facilitated by reflection. Which approach you take is generally determined by previous experiences of learning and the nature of the task, (Brennan & Little, 1996, pp 46-7), as well as other factors such as emotion and motivation.

This possibly explains my strategic choice of a surface approach to my A-level history; my goal was to pass the examination, rather than to understand the discipline that is history - though I think the teaching methods used also influenced me.

Questions to use in debrief

Questions about the activity:

- * How did it work?
- * How did the speaker respond when I listened well? When I listened poorly?
- * When did I listen poorly? What did I do?
- * What happened when you used a reflecting response?
- * What approach did you use? How did it work?
- * What happened as you and your partner completed this activity?
- * What happened as you worked with the group in responding?
- * What happened in the negotiation?
- * What happened in your group?
- * What happened in your role play?
- * How did the deadline affect the quality of your work?
 - * What happened in your team as a result of those deadlines? How did you approach each assignment?
- * What information did you consistently want? Why?
- * Where did you disagree with the team? Why?
- * How easy or hard was it compared to the last exercise? Why?
- * What was different between that role play and the last one?
- * How would that have been different if you were actually responding to your own manager?

Questions about feelings and reactions:

- * How do you feel about that activity?
- * Did that role play feel any different when you switched roles?
- * How confident are you about the work you did?
- * How did you feel about that process?
- * How did you feel about the deadlines for your team activity?
- * How did you feel when responding to objections?
- * How do you feel about the number of options available?
- * How do you feel about your potential for success?
- * What was your reaction as we negotiated? Did you get more or less comfortable?
- * Which questions do you like best? Why?

Questions about learning:

- * What did you learn from the feedback from your partner?
- * What did you learn?
- * What do you still need to learn?
- * What insights did you have in that activity?
- * Which personal objectives have been addressed?

Questions about application:

- * How can understanding this process help you on the job?
- * How can you use this on the job?
- * How does this relate to a project in your job/area?
- * What phrases did you learn that you can use on the job?
- * What will you do with this knowledge?
- * Which questions will get you the most useful information?
- * Which questions would you be uncomfortable asking? Why?
- * Why is this important in your job?

Tips for debrief

101 Ways to Enhance a Debrief

Creating a valuable debrief for your learners is kinda like cooking a meal. Like any Dijon Chef you will start your career making allot of cup of soup... cause you can only figure out how to add water, and stir. But with time, experience, and awareness you will make meals into a dining experiences. To help you fast track your skills munch on some of these 101 ways to enhance your debrief:

1. Get the group in a circle sitting knee to knee or standing shoulder to shoulder;
2. Don,t leave any unfinished business, terminate all issues appropriately for every learner;
3. Ensure that you maintain eye contact with whomever is speaking;
4. Feeep aware of others in the circle and nonverbally acknowledge when its their turn to speak or are becoming distracted;
5. Maintain a clear structure or "rules to your debrief a good tool is the Full Value Contract (ie speaker in charge, respecting others and yourself, etc.)
6. Don,t be surprised by peoples resistance to a debrief, it,s often not how learners are used to learning and takes them some getting used to;
7. Treat what people have to say with respect;

8. Encourage those who are not participating to speak by asking them direct, fair, and inclusionary questions;
9. Learn from each facilitation session by being evaluated by peers, learners, and yourself;
10. Sit across the circle from your co-facilitator and establish non-verbal cues to communicate with them while you're co-facilitating (one simple one I have used is leaning forward if I would like to follow a response with a new question direction, and pointing my finger in the air if I have an immediate question);
11. Take discrete notes of the activity the debrief and refer to them when asking direct questions;
12. One structured format that works is Gestalt which has a questioning format of, "What, So What, and Now What;
13. Sometimes it's best to "let the mountain speak for itself;
14. Be creative and humorous (at appropriate times);
15. Keep notes on each learner so you can have them reflect on things that they have already learned or goals they have already set;
16. Take your time, reflect on the learning, make sure you have a solid awareness amongst the group about what just happened so they can effectively and efficiently transfer the learning;
17. Ask the tough questions really challenge your learners;
18. Probe, probe, probe for the deeper meaning within the answer;
19. Read more literature on facilitating a debrief, understand and apply the theory;
20. Challenge what your learners have said in a developmentally appropriate manner that challenges them to develop their thoughts into meaningful understandings;
21. Pick a key word that a learner has used and when they have finished their response simply say the word in an inquisitive manner (ie "Respect?" or "Pressure?);
22. Utilize solution oriented debriefing techniques by asking learners questions about the experiences successes, how learners achieved them, and how the success can be replicated both directly and indirectly;
23. Support your learners responses by nodding and being legitimately interested in what they are saying;
24. Use organizers like coloured beads or items from nature to support leanings (ie Medicine Pouch);
25. Speak with learners outside of the debrief and inquire about how they are, what they've learned or how you are doing;
26. Return to the same location to conduct your debrief as much as possible;
27. Use non-verbal learnings, like painting, poetry or sculpture to support the verbal debrief;
28. Know your audience and speak in a manner in which they will understand, respect, and support you for using;
29. Don't swear, it's a little thing but a nice thing;

30. Watch other people facilitate a debrief and borrow what you like;
31. Be energised about the learning session (when you're into it, so to will others get into it);
32. Integrating food into the debrief can be effective as it releases a pleasure chemical in learners minds (assuming they like what you serve em.)
33. While on the subject of food, snacks or meals are good after intense debriefs it seems to help relax and reenergize the learners;
34. Practice your speaking techniques in front of groups of people, join the toastmasters or simply be more active in conversations with strangers while waiting for the bus or having a coffee alone;
35. Write and plan questions that may be helpful during the debrief prior to your session;
36. Take yourself only so seriously, remember to laugh;
37. Attend conferences and go to sessions on facilitation;
38. Have learners use techniques that involve Creative Visualization, (ie Positive Affirmations, Treasure Mapping, etc. A good resource to learn how to do this is by Shaki Gawain called "Creative Visualization);
39. Let learners stay connected with the event during the debrief by letting maintain contact with elements of the activity (ie rope, mouse trap, soft toy, etc.);
40. Conduct a debrief with your learners blindfolded;
41. Try something new when you debrief, like number 26!;
42. Define and plan your outcomes beforehand as recreational, educational, developmental or therapeutic and structure the debrief accordingly;
43. Practice your questioning techniques on people you meet, friends, family, roommate, etc. it will help you hone your skills;
44. Set goals for yourself and your debriefing ability;
45. Take the time to pet a friendly dog or cat on the street (OK maybe it won't help your facilitation skills but dogs and cats are nice things);
46. Read or experience things that are appropriate to the learning sessions that you provide like research studies on drug abuse, leadership, whatever;
47. Speak clearly when you ask questions and provide clarification and connections with the use of examples from the experience and real life;
48. Create a journal for your learners that speaks to the expected outcomes from each experience;
49. Take photos and collect non private writings during the sessions and send them to your learners post experience as a yearbook or family album;
50. Limit external noise from your experience by locating away from major traffic areas, loud machinery, other groups, etc., but as close as possible to the activity site;
51. Make sure your pants zipper is closed... its always good to remind yourself of that!;

52. Keep an open and inviting posture to your learners by not crossing your arms, legs, or adverse facial expressions, etc.;
53. Smile;
54. Carry a water bottle and drink from it;
55. Try out the Socratic Method of debriefing (a great explanation of that can be found on page 152-153 in *Effective Leadership in Adventure Programming*, by Priest and Gass)
56. Teach others how to create more effective debriefs by evaluating each other;
57. Ensure that your location has good ventilation;
58. Make sure that there is adequate lighting for the debrief, lighting can create mood so use things like candles, campfires, lanterns, etc (the high beams of your car should be used only for interrogations by the FBI);
59. Send you learners a letter that will help them to dress appropriately, to ensure their comfort during the activity and debrief session (ie miniskirts are not necessarily conducive to sitting on the floor for a debrief);
60. Get enough rest prior to your session it helps you become a more effective facilitator of learning, by helping you energetically think on your feet;
61. Know where to refer people for more specialised information or support as you might not necessarily be the most qualified person to continue with a debrief, simply know your limitations, qualifications and external resources;
62. Co-facilitate with professionals (ie counsellors, doctors, etc.) especially when there is the potentiality for psychological first aid to be administered;
63. Read, understand and commit to being an ethical experiential educator, a good resource for this is *Ethics in Experiential Learning* by J. Hunt;
64. Become aware of peoples non verbal reactions to dialogue, they will speak volumes to an experiential educator who is aware;
65. Respect yourself by knowing your limitations;
66. Know the organizations policies and procedures that you are working for and how they effect your role as facilitator;
67. Know your employers or your own ability to insure any legal ramifications that may result from allegations and outcomes of your debrief;
68. Create opportunities for your learners to continue to learn from the experience even post debrief (ie utilize isomorphic connections during the dialogue of the debrief);
69. In all your dealings with your learners ensure that you create a feeling of trust and respect towards you;
70. Let people talk, don,t tell them they,re wrong, just keep the dialogue running until you get the learning piece that you want to probe;
71. Role model the positive behaviours outside of your group that you desire from them;

72. Eat gummy bears;
73. Design and use facilities that is learner focused their comfort is more important than your own (ie with children have lowered windows and light switches);
74. Celebrate successful debriefs by sharing effective tools with them;
75. Finish your debrief as timely as possible, I read once that debriefing was like cheese too much processing makes Velveeta so be cognizant of "over and "under processing;
76. With some high functioning groups you will find that after awhile they will begin to facilitate their own dialogue, stay interested and help shape the debrief to match your planned learning outcomes;
77. Sometimes it helps at the end of a session to summarize and clarify what was said and learned through the debrief, this can be done by you, one of the learners, or the entire group collectively;
78. Be aware of your voice tone, it effects the learners energy;
79. Use peoples names whenever you can;
80. When outside debrief in shaded areas as the sun can draw energy and be tough on the eyes of some learners;
81. When you're outside make sure that you are looking into the sun not your learners whenever possible;
82. Break group into solos, dyads, small and large groups for reflection on learning;
83. Jot down notes while learners are talking through a debrief to remember important points and structure your questioning;
84. Take off your sunglasses because, "the eyes are the window to the soul;
85. Keep groups to a maximum of 15 learners whenever possible;
86. Send learners a letter post program thanking them and support them on their personal pursuits of learning;
87. Be aware of teachable moments and utilize them to their maximum potential for learning by stopping and investigating the learning immediately upon the moments presentation;
88. Evaluate your program against the objectives you set for the session, do this individually as well as invite your learners and colleagues to do the same;
89. Hold a reunion with program learners;
90. As a thumbnail guide schedule your dialoguing sessions to be as long as your doing sessions- but remember don,t "over or "under process the experience;
91. Know where your contracting agent, professional association and group,s position is on confidentiality and adhere to these standards- some groups require you to sign off on a confidentiality clause in your contract;
92. Go camping in your free time.... just cause it,s fun!;
93. If you don,t have time for the debrief post experience, provide the group with a brief summary and make time to debrief later, inform the group of this;

94. Create an atmosphere that encourages learners to contribute questions to the dialogue as well as responses to your questions;
95. Choose to engage in regular dialogues with your learners at established times and locations (ie campfires, after meals, etc.);
96. Gain quick group consensus using scales of 0 to 10, thumbs up or down, etc.;
97. Teach learners to perform relaxation exercises to centre themselves prior to a debrief (ie have the group breath in their nose for 4 seconds, hold their breath for 7 seconds, and push the air out with the tip of their tongue pressed against their back of their front teeth for 8 seconds);
98. Present an open ended statement that learners can complete like, "Right now I am feeling... or My parents are...;
99. Break into dyads and have learners paraphrase and report their partners responses to questions you provide (this is great when you are short on time);
100. Have learners write down their responses prior to speaking, it helps to collect their thoughts and reduce anxiety about speaking;
101. Have fun.

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Feedback

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What is feedback ?

Feedback is the transmission of evaluation findings to parties for whom it is relevant and useful so as to facilitate learning. This may involve the collection and dissemination of findings, conclusions, recommendations and lessons learned from experience. Specifically in the context of evaluation, to return and share the evaluation results with those who participated in the evaluation.

Essentials of feedback

Giving feedback is relaying the effect of behavior to individuals for their learning. In order for feedback to be most productive and beneficial, one aspect of the process must be emphasized.

Feedback should be helpful to the person receiving it. To be helpful, feedback to an individual must be such that the person:

- a. understands the information
- b. is able to accept the information
- c. is able to do something about the information.

Some types of feedback serve only the needs of the giving it and not the needs of the person receiving it. This is likely to produce defensive reactions from the

recipient and are unlikely to amend their behavior as a result.

How to give feedback

1. Feedback should be in terms of specific, observable behavior and the effect of that behavior on you.
2. Perceptions, reactions and opinions should be presented as such and not as facts.
3. Feedback should refer to the relevant performance behavior or outcomes-not to the individual as a person.
4. Feedback regarding an area of performance should include a discussion of what is viewed as the 'high' and 'low' points of that performance and the specific behaviors which appear to be contributing to or limiting full effectiveness or accomplishment.
5. In discussing problem areas in which there are technical or established procedures for achieving solutions, suggestion should be made regarding possible means of improving performance.
6. When feedback has to be evaluative rather than purely descriptive, it should be in terms of established criteria, probable outcomes, or possible improvements as opposed to making judgements of 'good' or 'bad'.
7. Feedback should be concerned with those things over which an individual can exercise some control, and may include indicators of how the feedback can be used for improvement or planning alternative actions.
8. Feedback should avoid terms, which produce emotional reactions and raised defenses.
9. When encountering raised defenses or emotional reactions, the person giving the feedback should deal with those reactions rather than trying to convince, reason or supply additional information.
10. Feedback should be given in a manner, which communicates acceptance of the receiver as a worthwhile person and of that person's right to be different.
11. Usually, feedback is most effective when given as soon as possible after the event (though some aspects of a person's performance may be better dealt with in private).

How to receive feedback

Feedback is always about past behavior and therefore receiving feedback offers the possibility of learning something valuable, which may serve as a base for future development and improvement.

The following steps can increase the value of feedback for the receiver:

1. Listen carefully and actively.

2. Try not to let defenses build, but mentally note questions or disagreements and check them out later.
3. Paraphrase what you think you hear to check your perceptions.
4. Ask questions for clarification in those areas which are unclear, or in which disagreement exists. Paraphrase answers again.
5. Carefully evaluate the accuracy.
6. Gather additional information from other sources or by observing your own behavior and other persons' reactions to it.
7. Do not overreact to feedback, but you may wish to modify your behavior in suggested directions and then evaluate the outcomes.

Giving Feedback

- Focus feedback on behaviour rather than on the person. Refer to what a person does rather than comment on what we imagine he is.
- Focus feedback on observations rather than inferences/interpretations/conclusions. Describe the impact this observable behaviour has on you.
- Focus feedback on description rather than judgement.
- Focus feedback on the sharing of ideas and information rather than on giving advice. Leave the person free to decide for himself whether he wants to change or not.
- Focus feedback on the value it may have to the recipient, not on the value or „release“ that it provides the person giving the feedback.
- Use „I“ statements.
- If possible ask people for their assessment before providing yours. People usually appreciate the opportunity to assess themselves first, and are often more critical of themselves.
- Confirm that people have understood and encourage them to respond.

Receiving Feedback

- I look on feedback as an opportunity to learn and improve.

- I acknowledge my emotions. I avoid letting my emotions either prevent me from hearing or distort what I am hearing.
- I avoid being defensive, explaining or justifying. I listen, then ask questions and paraphrase to check my understanding.
- If not clear, I ask about the impact of my behaviour. The actual impact of my behaviour may be different from my intent.
- I thank other people for giving me feedback.

Constructive Feedback

Constructive feedback helps participants know what is expected of them and how they can improve their performance. Feedback that isn't constructive criticizes participants and lowers their morale and motivation. They then learn they can't trust or benefit from your input.

- Be supportive. Let participants know what you think they are capable. Reinforce their past successes. Offer help and guidance, but don't step in and do the task for them.
- Be positive. Be clear and concise about what behaviors need to improve. Stay away from personal attacks; focus on behavior in question.
- Acknowledge extra effort. Participants who aren't recognized for the value they contribute aren't likely to make extra efforts for long. A sincere "Thank you" or "Good job" goes a long way to making participants feel appreciated.
- Ask participants for feedback on your work performance and your methods of communication. Often we don't realize how people perceive our behavior. We may think we are sending a message that says one thing, but the message is received in a much different way.

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International youth activities: Where do you stand?

You may know this exercise. All participants are asked to come to the middle of the room. On two walls opposite each other are two posters. One says "yes", one says "no". A trainer or facilitator shows the participants a statement dealing with an aspect of a specific subject and then asks them to decide, spontaneously, - do you agree or disagree with this statement?

Participants then move towards the poster that best expresses their opinion. Once two groups have formed, they explain to each other why they chose to agree with "yes" or "no" and discuss the issue until the trainer stops the discussion and presents another statement.

Finding arguments to explain their opinions to each other is a way for participants to start reflecting about a subject and the different arguments presented. This exercise is also about listening to one another, learning more about oneself and taking a stand.

'Where do you stand' is an exercise that, like many, can be played in different ways, with different objectives and on a variety of issues.

Slogans by Sylvain Abrial and Mark Taylor

1. International meetings are a world apart.
2. The learning effect of an intercultural experience can hardly be transferred to a local reality.
3. It is enough to just bring people together in order to have an intercultural learning process.
4. International youth seminars are only interesting in the coffee breaks.
5. A youth exchange? Better spend the money on a new coffee bar for the youth centre!
6. A sport competition makes the most effective youth exchange.
7. Youth exchanges don't teach you anything you can use in everyday life.
8. International youth exchanges don't have any local impact.
9. A youth exchange is the best youth work tool.
10. Work camps are more effective than youth exchanges.
11. European volunteers use up too much supervision and vital resources to be useful.
12. European volunteers should volunteer in their hometown where they can really contribute.
13. You meet more people on the internet than in international youth activities.
14. Minorities benefit most from international youth activities.
15. Everyone should fall in love during an international youth activity.

Taken from COYOTE Magasine No.4 www.training-youth.net

What a trainer should do when choosing a method

- feel confident and convinced about the method
- whenever possible, have experienced the method full as a participant (or be part of a team where people have had that experience and can workshop it with the result of the team)
- be in a position to anticipate the outcomes but also deal with unexpected ones
- be aware of the place of their own opinions and interpretations, and work with the interpretations and associations of the participants
- make the objectives of the program unit clear, while avoiding dogmatic facilitation
- try not to use methods that might cause feelings in participants or the group which cannot be dealt with during the training.
- Accept that some people may not wish to participate in a particular exercise
- have a carefully worked out strategy for debriefing and feedback, which can also be adapted to deal with unexpected outcomes
- be aware that learning is change, and that this can be an uncomfortable experience. Participants may make the method (or, indeed the trainer) responsible for their discomfort. The trainer has to carefully analyse whether the discomfort was caused by the method or by the feelings and discoveries elicited by the method.

Choosing the appropriate method

In relation to the subject

- Which method(s) will suit the subject best?
- How much time is available?
- Are you looking at improving skills, imparting knowledge, or challenging attitudes?
- What equipment is available?
- How deep do you want to go?

In relation to yourself

- f) What is your preferred training style?
- g) What experience do you have?
- h) Are you prepared to take risks?
- i) What are your skills and strengths?

In relation to the students

- Are you aware of their learning styles?
- How many are in the group?
- What are their ages (roughly)?
- What is the gender make-up of the group?
- Are you sufficiently aware of equal opportunities practice?
- What is their cultural background?
- What abilities do they have?
- Do they have special needs which will make a particular method unworkable or difficult to use?
- Will they be able to concentrate for long enough?
- Are you taking into account previous feedback, if any, from the students?

In relation to the setting

- l. How big is the room?
- m. What shape is the room?
- n. What is the lighting like?
- o. Will the temperature affect a particular method (is it too hot for a very active method, or too cold to sit around for long periods)?
- p. How many power points are there, and where are they situated?
- q. Will there be privacy or is the area fairly public?
- r. What equipment is available?
- s. Is the furniture suitable for your needs? (Are there enough tables and chairs of the right kind, and so on?)
- t. Are there enough rooms if you need small groups?
- u. What is the floor covering, if any? How will this affect the methods you choose?
- v. Do you need 'washing-up' facilities after a particular activity?

Action Maze

A printed description of an incident, for analysis, followed by a list of alternative actions is called an action maze. Each action choice directs the participant to a new page, which gives the results of that action and a new set of alternatives from which to choose. The results the participant receives after each step may give more information, as well as a reaction to the action taken. The selection may also lead to a dead end, sending the participant back to the original situation to make another choice.

When to use:

To develop decision-making skills

To develop problem-solving skills

Requirements:

Written instructional materials
Pens, pencils, etc.

Advantages:

Develops an awareness of alternatives and consequences of decisions
Intense skill development
Self-paced

Considerations:

Is costly to construct
Difficult to update. Need to use information that will not change
No opportunity for discussion or interaction with others

Related strategies: Case study, programmed instruction, computer-assisted instruction

Bingo

Description:

The presenter gives a lecture, asking questions at random intervals. The participants pair up and place a check mark in the square of a bingo card that contains the correct answer.

Uses:

3. When the instructional content is primarily factual or conceptual
4. When the participants are capable of working with a partner
5. When you can generate several short-answer questions related to the content of the presentation

Advantages:

- Stimulating and fun
- Engages the group's attention
- Reinforces ideas presented during the lecture or presentation

Things to be aware of before using this method:

- You need to prepare the bingo cards
- If you don't have time to prepare handouts or transparencies, ask the questions in oral form and ask your partners to verify the answers before moving along.
- If you don't have enough time, reserve the final 5 minutes of a presentation for the question interlude.
- If you have too many participants, assemble them into teams of up to five members.
- You might leave some answers blank, and give the participants the opportunity to fill those, to make the game more attractive.

Process:

1. Prepare the activity: have an outline and divide it into approximately 10-15 minute sections. For each section, prepare a set of short-answer questions. Assemble the questions and print them on transparencies (or handouts). Make a list of the answers to the questions; then prepare bingo cards that have these answers arranged in 5 by 5 block matrix. It is not necessary for every answer to appear on each bingo card. If you have more than 25 answers, distribute them among the different cards.
2. Brief the participants: before the presentation, ask the participants to pair up. Give each pair a bingo card. If you have an odd number of participants, the last person should join one of the pairs (rather than work alone). Explain that you will ask questions during the lecture. Each pair should find the answer to each question on lecture, whichever pair has the most sets of five marked squares in a horizontal, vertical or diagonal line is declared the winner. Stress the importance of paying attention to the content of the lecture during the presentation and working together with partners to identify the answers to the questions.
3. Start the presentation: make the presentation on the first section of the topic. When the topic is completely covered, stop the lecture and warn the participants that the first question interlude is about to begin.
4. Present the questions for the first section. Project the transparency with these questions or give a copy of the questions to each partnership. Ask the participants to work with their partners and come up with answers to these questions. Ask them to scan their bingo cards and place check marks on the squares that contain the correct answers. Inform the participants that their particular card may not include every answer. Pause while the participants place their check marks.
5. Have the participants check their answers: request that each pair give their bingo card to a nearby pair. Read each of the questions and give the correct answer. Ask the pairs to look over the bingo cards to see if the square with the answer is marked. If it is, have them write "OK" in the square to show that it was correctly identified. After you have answered all the questions, ask the pairs to look over the bingo cards for any check marks in squares that don't have an "OK". If they find any such check marks, they should erase them. When the pairs are finished, have them return any cards to their owners. Whenever a pair gets back a corrected card with five marked squares in a line horizontally, vertically or diagonally, they should shout "Bingo!" However, they should continue playing, since the pair with the most five-in-a-lines at the end of the session is the winner.
6. Repeat the process: continue with your lecture and present the next section. Repeat the process of stopping the lecture and playing the next round of the bingo game. Supervise each of the interludes and provide the correct-answer feedback as before. As before, whenever a pair gets back a corrected card with five marked squares in a line horizontally, vertically or diagonally, they should shout "Bingo!" However, they should continue playing, since the pair with the most five-in-a-lines at the end of the session is the winner.
7. Conclude the activity: at the end of the last round of questions, ask all the participants to check their bingo cards and count one point for each horizontal, vertical or diagonal line of five marked squares. Identify the partnership with the highest number of bingos. Congratulate the winners and, if you can afford it, give them an appropriate prize.

Brainstorming

Brainstorming is a problem-solving situation in which participants are given a problem and asked to bring into the discussion any ideas that come to mind, no matter how outlandish. All ideas are gathered and recorded, without evaluation, before any are discussed. Idea gathering is usually limited to 5-15 minutes.

When to use:

To develop novel or creative solutions to problems
To develop creativity
To stimulate participation by group members

Requirements:

Board or flipchart for recording ideas
Chalk or pens
Tape for posting flipchart pages

Advantages:

Encourages unusual suggestions.
Breaks mind sets and allows for new approaches.
Although only a small number of the ideas usable, surfaces a significant number of valuable ideas
Maintains interest because of fast-moving pace of session
Encourages participation by all group members

Considerations:

Requires skill on the part of the leader to keep the session moving and the ideas coming, as well as to refrain from judging ideas generated.
Productivity of the group depends upon the abilities of the participants and their understanding of the process.
Requires a non-threatening environment

Related strategies: Creative thinking, problem solving

Carousel

Never mind what group, people have a lot to share. A small exercise to discover it.

When to use:

Can be great to work out common elements or... (it all depends on the task you give)!

4

- Participants are asked to form groups standing in two lines, facing each other.
- Each group has to perform a task related to the group facing it. Roles can be changed afterwards or task performed by both groups in the same time.
- Once this is done, each group takes a big step to the right (or to the left, important is to keep the same direction) facing now another group and performing the same task again, in the same way as before. The group that arrives to the end of a line will move to the first place on the opposite line.
- The groups can change positions several times, till the circle is finished, until first two groups meet for the second time.

Requirements:

Big free space in a room, chairs, some tape or rope to border the places groups will be placed in.

Advantages:

Interaction between all participants.

Sharing information in two ways (from one group to the other and the other way around).

Considerations:

Groups should make the movements to one direction in the same time.

Should be limited to a single task.

Can be loud and chaotic!

Related strategies: Fishbowl

Case Study

A case study is an oral or written account of a realistic situation, including sufficient detail to make it possible for the participants to analyze the problems involved and to determine possible solutions. In many cases, there is no one correct answer. Case studies should, as much as possible, replicate the real world, both in the nature of the content and in the method in which they are presented and completed. While work on the cases may be done either individually or in groups, this method should always conclude with a discussion of the outcomes.

When to use:

To develop critical-thinking, problem-solving, and decision-making skills

To provide realistic and practical experience

To evaluate learning and/or test analytical knowledge or abilities

To learn to separate facts from inferences

Requirements:

The case (written, film, video, or other form of presentation)
Pencils, pens, paper--whatever is necessary to complete case requirements
Board and/or flipchart for case study discussion

Advantages:

Actively involves participants
Keeps interest levels high because of participant activity and relevancy to real world situations
Blends well with other methods (ex. lecture or readings)

Considerations:

Takes time to work and to discuss.
Cases can become outdated by such things as changes in laws, language used, social mores, dates, etc. Periodic revision is essential.
Good case studies can be difficult to write. They need to contain enough facts to be completed without making up information. Yet, the information should be organized in such a way that the solution is not obvious. Incomplete or incorrect information, too much extraneous or confusing information, and cute or funny names often detract from the effectiveness of a case. This can cause the participants to become frustrated and direct their energies toward attacking the case, rather than working it.
To effectively discuss a case, the instructor, if not the developer, must work the case and be thoroughly prepared to answer any questions that may arise.
The instructor must be able to link the case study situation to the "real world," thereby adding credibility to the case.

Related strategies: Action maze, exercises, incident process, in-basket exercises, role play

Demonstration

A technique that shows how something works or gets done is called a demonstration. It is intended to illustrate or clarify an idea, process, or relationship. The participant's role is one of observing, rather than directly participating. Often, this strategy is coupled with participant practicing and receiving feedback on performance.

When to use:

To show how a piece of equipment works
To demonstrate a skill or technique
To show how a technique can be used

Requirements:

Equipment being demonstrated, if applicable
Space requirements as needed

Advantages:

Provides clear, direct example of how something works or is to be done.
Is realistic. Can be linked to hands-on application.
Is inexpensive to develop.
Can use expert to demonstrate and instructor to facilitate learning.

Considerations:

Learner not active, so interest may wane, especially at low learn times of day.
Need to ensure that all can see the demonstration clearly.
Learners may see but not be able to do.

Related strategies: Skit, simulation game, interactive modeling

Exercise

Similar to a case study, the exercise is a short problem focusing on a specific learning point. Most exercises have one correct solution. A group of exercises may be used as a test.

When to use:

To demonstrate newly learned procedures and principles, prior to attempting to apply the knowledge to more difficult and complex case studies

Requirements:

Paper, pens, pencils, etc.

Advantages:

Quickly identifies whether learning has occurred and pinpoint problem areas
Participants actively involved
Helps make transition between conceptualization and application

Considerations:

Should be limited to a single concept or procedure
Takes some time to do and discuss
Need to avoid tendency to make exercise too long or complex
Should be tested to assure it will produce the desired result

Related strategies: Case studies, incident process

Fishbowl

A fishbowl is a discussion group that is divided in two parts: the inner circle, consisting of four or five people who discuss a topic, and the outer group, consisting of up to 20 people who observe (usually standing). Variations include: (1) members of the outer group may "tap in" or exchange places with members of the inner group; (2) the inner group (half the total group) discusses something for a specific period of time and then rotates with the outer group, who then discusses for a specific period of time;

(3) each member of the inner group has an alter ego in the outer group to advise and provide guidance. A fishbowl usually runs 20-30 minutes, enough time to let all interested people express their thoughts but not so long as to drag; it should end on a high note.

When to use:

To open a discussion or stimulate thinking by allowing individuals to present different points of view

To foster group participation

To view group process

To provide formative evaluation

Requirements:

Physical space for inner and outer circles

Chairs

Advantages:

Encourages group participation by all members

Maintains group interest

Surfaces ideas and attitudes concerning a topic area

Considerations:

As the purpose is to stimulate thinking, choice of topic is important.

Should be an open-ended topic and one familiar to all the participants.

This strategy should be coupled with a follow-up strategy which allows for a more in-depth examination of the topic (e.g. work group).

It is wise to have a fail-safe device in the form of a "plant" (a person to help get the discussion started). The role of such an individual would only be to give some direction and ask questions if the group does not appear to be getting involved.

The identity of individual should not be made known to the group

The role of the instructor in this strategy is merely to set it up and to listen.

Participation in the discussion should be only as a "tap-in"

Related strategies:

Brainstorming, creative thinking

Intelligent Interruptions

Description:

According to communication scientists, *interruptability* is a key feature of interactivity. When you are talking with a bunch of friends, everyone interrupts everyone else; these interruptions don't bother anyone. When you are making an instructional presentation, however, most participants will not interrupt you—even if you invite them to do so. This is due to a combination of politeness, fear of attacks by the presenter, and anxiety about ridicule from the other participants. In this interactive lecture format, you actually force the participants to interrupt you.

You stop your presentation at random intervals and select a participant to "interrupt" you. This participant is required to ask questions, make comments, or challenge your statements.

Uses:

- When the instructional content is informational in nature.
- When the participants are capable of asking appropriate questions and making appropriate comments.
- When you can listen to interruptions, react appropriately, and return to your presentation.

Things to be aware before using this method:

- What if you are pressed for time? Reduce the number of interruptions. Use only one type of interruption (such as the paraphrase). Don't pause for preparation. When the timer goes off, immediately pick a card to select a random participant.
- What if you have too many participants? Just ask the selected participant to speak loud enough so that everyone can hear him or her. Alternatively, ask the participant to come to the front of the room.
- What if everyone selects to paraphrase your presentation? When you choose the random participant, you specify which type of interruption you, want.
- What if someone's interruption indicates a major misunderstanding? Don't make fun of the participant. Use this information as valuable feedback. Question a couple of other participants to check how widespread this misunderstanding is. Clarify the issue to correct the misunderstanding.
- session with prepared questions. Also, reduce each press conference to 5 minutes—or to three questions.
- What if a lot of questions are left unanswered because of limited time?
- Collect the unanswered questions and prepare a handout with the answers. Distribute this handout to all participants as a follow-up activity.

Process:

1. **Distribute cards.** When the participants arrive, give each of them a playing card.
2. Take these cards from the top of one of the decks. After the last person has received his or her card, take the same number of cards from the top of the other deck. Shuffle this packet (which has the duplicates of all the cards you distributed to the participants) and place it at some convenient location.
3. **Brief the participants.** Explain that when a timer goes off, you will stop your presentation and pause 30 seconds for everyone to get ready to make an intelligent interruption. You will then pick a card and announce its value. The participant who has the matching card will be forced to make one of the several different types of interruptions. Distribute a handout that lists these types of interruptions and briefly details each type.
4. **Set a timer.** Without letting any participants see the time, set your timer for a
5. random period between 3 and 10 minutes.
6. **Begin your presentation.** Make the presentation in your usual style.
7. **Stop the presentation.** Interrupt the lecture when the timer goes off, in the middle of a sentence if necessary.
8. **Pause while the participants prepare.** Announce a 30-second preparation time. Ask the participants to select any type of interruption from the list and to prepare to make that type of interruption. Encourage them to review the notes and to think back on the main points in the presentation. Set the timer for 30 seconds and start it.
9. **Select a participant.** Shuffle the packet of cards, pick any card, and announce its
10. value. Ask the person with the matching card to stand up and make the interruption.
11. **React to the interruption.** Give feedback on the accuracy and appropriateness of the interruption. Respond to the questions. Provide a non-defensive rebuttal to any criticism. In all cases, remember to reinforce the participant's efforts.
12. **Repeat the procedure.** Set the timer for another random interval. Continue your presentation—and stop it when the timer goes off. Pause for preparation, listen to the interruption, and respond appropriately.
13. **Modify the procedure.** To keep the participants alert, change the procedure from time to time. For example, ask that each participant work with a partner in preparing for the next interruption.
14. **Conclude the presentation.** When you finish the session, conduct a final round of "interruptions." This time, however, tell the participants that any volunteer can present any type of interruption—without the 30-minute preparation time.

In-Basket

The in-basket strategy is a timed variation of a case study. Each participant is provided with an in-basket, including correspondence, reports, memos, and phone messages, some of which may be important to the case or process under study, and some of which may be extraneous.

The participants examine the materials and take the appropriate actions. Each participant works for a set period of time on his or her own material. Every other participant handles the same material. At the conclusion of the processing time, participants record how they handled each item and, based on the actions taken, assess their abilities in the areas on which the case study focused. Usually, there is a group discussion (small group or entire class) of selected items and of approaches taken.

When to use:

To analyze participants' decision-making abilities so that needed training can be provided

To evaluate managerial skills (e.g., supervisory, communications, time management)

To provide practice in decision making

To improve participants' understanding of management theories

Requirements:

In-basket exercise package of materials for each participant

Paper, pens, paper clips, erasers for participants to use

Ample physical space for each participant to work

Advantages:

Actively involves all participants

Interesting because of real world nature of materials

Provides for some competition among participants, if that is needed

Provides a way for participants to assess their skills in the areas on which the exercise focuses

Can be constructed to reflect the problems that a particular group is having

Can be built to fit the time period available to the exercise

Provides immediate feedback as to the possible consequences of actions taken

Easy to conduct, although for discussion, instructor requires good facilitation skills

Considerations:

Takes time, usually three to four hours, to conduct and process

Difficult to develop in-house

Can be costly. Costs for in-basket exercise vary greatly, depending on the types of materials being used. The major cost element is the preparation of the materials

themselves, particularly if large quantities are required. Some commercial vendors sell in-basket programs. Costs usually range from \$40-\$80 per participant

May seem unreal in the sense that the participants are put into a situation with no past relationships with the people they must work through. In reality, actions would probably depend on these relationships

May be difficult for those who have not had experience handling job problems through correspondence (e.g., manufacturing supervisors who tend to handle forms and get oral reports rather than notes and letters)

Related strategies:

Case study, exercise, action maze, incident process, simulation game

Visual Aids

One picture is worth a thousand words - Confucius

Participants in training learn quickly and thoroughly when a lecture is supported by visual aids. Studies at several universities have demonstrated that the time required to present an idea was reduced up to 40 per cent and the prospect of favorable results was enhanced when visual aids were used to augment a verbal presentation. Leading authors on communications effectiveness emphasizes the value of visual aids as a stimulant to learning. David Peoples points out, for example, that a picture is three times more effective than words alone, and words and pictures together are six times more effective than words alone. Individuals gain 75 per cent of what they know visually, 13 per cent through hearing and 12 per cent through a combination of touch, smell and taste.

Visual aids come in two varieties - projected and non-projected. Among the projected types are films, videotapes, slides, filmstrips, computer graphics, opaque projections and overhead transparencies. Non-projected visual aids include physical objects, pictures, posters, flip charts, maps, audiotapes, chalkboards and bulletin boards.

There are many reasons why the trainer should make regular use of properly designed visual materials in lectures. According to Robert Pike, some of the most important are that they:

- Attract and maintain the attention of participants
- Reinforce important ideas
- Support ideas stated verbally
- Increase retention
- Avoid misunderstanding
- Add realism, and
- Ensure covering key points.

Overhead Projectors

This is probably the most widely used technique in the projected visual-aid category. Overheads can augment and amplify information presented orally. How effective they

are depends on whether or not the trainer:

- Uses professional-looking transparencies,
- Sets up the projection area properly, and
- Exercises good technique in the use of transparencies and projection equipment.

In preparing transparencies for use in a training session, best results will be obtained if the trainer:

- Keeps the visuals as simple as possible - no more than six lines per transparency and no more than six words per line
- *Presents only one idea on each transparency*
- Uses bold, simple typefaces - upper- and lower-case letters
- Uses cartoons, graphics and charts when possible instead of relying on words or numbers alone
- Uses active words and short phrases
- Makes use of "bullets" or numbers in series
- Uses tinted film to reduce participant eye strain, and
- Avoids vertical lettering.

Steps in learning	
A Presenting Processing Applying	B Applying Processing Presenting
The words are clear in this illustration, but there is no visual impact.	The words are the same, but now steps provide visual reinforcement.

Locating the projector can have an influence on the use of visual aids. In setting up, be sure that:

1. Every person in the room can see the visuals comfortably while seated
2. The screen is placed in a corner and angled toward the center of the room
3. The projector does not obstruct the participants' view of the screen
4. The projector beam meets the screen at a 90-degree angle to avoid image distortion or "key stoning"

Spare bulbs, extension cords and other accessories are on hand, and the projector lens and plate are clean and free of fingerprints

A few simple techniques practiced by the trainer when using visuals can make a noticeable difference. For example, participants will be less distracted if the lamp is turned off when changing transparencies. Doing this will prevent exposure of participants to strong glare while there is no transparency on the plate. Overlooking details often can cause problems, for example, not having transparencies in the correct order. Choosing the wrong transparency or fumbling around for the right one is embarrassing and it can result in needless loss of credibility for the trainer.

Flip Charts

The flip chart is one of the most widely used tools in the training business for conveying information and ideas visually. It can be used to create visuals as the lecturette takes place, or visuals can be developed in advance. Most material written

on a flip chart cannot be seen at a distance. Hence, its usefulness to the trainer lessens as the size of the group increases. Its ideal use is for groups of 15 to 30 participants. Several techniques can increase the effectiveness of a flip chart presentation:

1. Prepare some of the charts ahead of time and cover the key points with strips of paper that can be removed at the appropriate time in a lecture.
2. Print key sentences on the chart ahead of time leaving blank spaces for use in entering words or phrases provided by participants.
3. Print key ideas on cards approximately 13 x 20 cm and post the cards on the chart pad as the points are made orally by the trainer.
4. Use a variety of colors beyond basic black, including bright colors participants may not be accustomed to seeing.
5. Leave the bottom third of flip chart sheets blank. This will help participants see the entire page and leave space for adding information after the sheet is posted on the wall.
6. Underline or box-in key words or phrases to add interest and highlight important ideas.
7. Make use of flip-chart sheets to record information generated by participants. Use numbers to label each idea and enter a number at the start of each new idea to encourage the continued flow of ideas.
8. To remove a sheet cleanly, grasp the sheet near the bottom on both sides and pull it straight down and to one side in the direction the sheet is meant to tear.

Summary

Visual aids enhance and accelerate teaming. A trainer with a lecture or in conjunction can use them with other training methods. The most frequently used visual aids are overhead projection, film (projected types) and flip charts (non-projected). Best results are obtained with visual aids when the material to be used is professional quality, the equipment is in good working order and the trainer knows how to use both to facilitate the learning process.

Nominal Group Technique

Every partridge knows its way of scratching - Kikuyu Proverb

NGT was developed by Andre L. Delbecq and Andrew H. Van de Ven in 1968. Since that time, NGT has gained extensive recognition throughout the world and has been widely applied in health, social service, education, industrial and governmental organizations.

NGT meetings normally consist of from one to five groups of from five to nine people each seated around tables open on one end. The open end is used for a flip chart pad on an easel to be used by the leader for the collection and public display of ideas furnished by participants of the group. The leader has markers for writing ideas

on the chart pad and masking tape for taping sheets containing ideas on the wall of the room.

Participants of each group are provided with pencils and one dozen small writing cards each.

The leader opens the meeting with a statement about the purpose of the meeting, clarification of the importance of each member's contributions and a clear indication of how the meeting's output will be used.

Although a meeting might involve several groups at separate tables, for purposes of illustration, we shall explain the process as if there was one table consisting of between five and nine participants. The process consists of six steps.

Step 1: Silent generation of ideas in writing

The leader reads the nominal question to participants out loud while writing it in plain sight at the top of the pad. Care must be taken by the leader to choose clear and unambiguous wording for the question so as to generate the most specific responses possible. An appropriate question, "How can we make better use of our time at meetings," for example, should produce many useful ideas. This question is far superior to the more general question: "How can our meetings be more productive." The leader then asks participants to write down as many ideas as they can think of in answer to the question. Participants are cautioned by the leader to work silently and independently.

Step 2; Round-robin recording of ideas

Starting at one end of the table, the leader asks a participant to read one of his/her answers out loud. The answer is recorded by the leader on the pad. The next participant is asked for one of his or her answers. This process is continued until every answer of every participant has been recorded. As sheets on the pad are filled the leader tears them off and tapes them to the wall. Participants are encouraged by the leader to "Pass" if they have nothing further to offer with the understanding that they may re-enter later with any new ideas that may occur to them. Discussion of ideas and side conversations at the table are strongly discouraged by the leader.

Step 3: Discussion for clarification

The leader explains that the purpose of this step is to ensure that everyone understands what is meant by each idea on the pad. The ideas are taken one at a time as written. Discussion of an item is to focus on understanding, not agreement or disagreement. Participants are told that everyone is responsible for clarifying an idea and not just the person who offered it.

Step 4: Preliminary vote on ideas of importance

The leader asks participants to select five ideas from the list of ideas displayed on the sheets taped to the wall and to write each item down on a separate card. The leader collects the cards and shuffles them to retain anonymity. The leader then tallies the vote and records the results on the flip chart in front of the group.

Step 5: Discussion of the preliminary vote

Participants are told by the leader to examine the voting pattern on the chart and to comment on anything about the pattern that seems unusual, surprising or inconsistent. The leader stresses that the discussion may persuade some participants to change their votes but that no one is being pressured to do so.

Step 6: *Final vote*

The final vote is simply a repeat of Step 4. It combines individual judgements into a group decision. When it is over, the leader thanks participants for their efforts, repeats what will be done with the meeting output and closes the meeting.

PROS AND CONS OF NGT

Unlike brainstorming, in which participants interact with one another from the start, NGT is designed to let people work in the presence of one another in a structured manner but to write down their ideas independently rather than talk about them. Because of this characteristic, NGT groups have been found to outperform interactive groups consistently in the quality of ideas produced. This seems to be because participants of NGT groups are less subject to being inhibited by one another and are less prone to make premature judgements.

NGT does have some drawbacks. Considerable preparation for NGT meetings is necessary. For this reason, it is less useful as a spontaneous training technique than brainstorming. These drawbacks can be alleviated, however, by leaving out some of the steps described above thereby simplifying the process and saving time.

Summary

Structured techniques for group problem solving like brainstorming and NGT are valuable additions to the trainers repertoire of learning activities. They are particularly useful as a source of creative ideas and to demonstrate the tremendous potential of a group to analyse and remedy its own problems. NGT is more formal and time-consuming than brainstorming but is sometimes preferred by people in training who are uncomfortable with the more spontaneous, interactive methods.

Incident Process

The incident process is a variation of the case method. Participants are presented with an incident that is short and lacking in detail. Participants then question the instructor to determine the data needed to complete the assignment. The instructor gives out pertinent facts only as the participants ask for them, forcing the participants to reconstruct the entire situation. Often, an observer-reporter records group interaction. This method provides the participants with the opportunity to examine the present, unravel the past events leading up to the incident, and identify future implications resulting from the incident. This strategy emphasizes the process involved in gathering pertinent information in order to arrive at a decision.

When to use:

To develop problem analysis and problem-solving skills
To develop decision-making skills
To develop observation skills
To develop questioning and listening skills

Requirements:

Physical space for participants to work, at times in small groups
Written incident and additional fact sheets, as needed
Pens, pencils, paper, etc.

Advantages:

Actively involves participants
Has a "living quality," as opposed to a case which is all in writing
Provides an opportunity to reconstruct a case from start to finish
Emphasizes fact-finding process more than the solution
Promotes public speaking and development of summaries
Promotes "openness" of ideas and expression
Incident can be modified to suit the level of the participants
Provides an opportunity to examine consequences of a decision

Considerations:

More time consuming than traditional case studies.
Difficult to evaluate transfer of process and utilization on the job.
Best suited to groups of fewer than 20-25 participants.
Extroverted participants tend to monopolize discussion.
Instructor must have all the information needed to respond to the participants' questions.
Information may be given orally or on data sheets.
Instructor must have good facilitation skills

Related strategies: Case study, action maze, exercise, simulation game

Interactive modelling

Interactive modeling is a means of learning new behaviors by observing model or ideal

behavior, trying new behavior, and receiving feedback. This cycle is repeated until the new behavior is learned. The following sequence of four types of behavioral learning activities is involved:

1. *Modeling* -- groups of participants watch filmed or acted supervisor and employee model the desired behavior
2. *Role playing* -- participants take part in extensive practice and rehearsal of these specific behaviors demonstrated by the models

3. *Social reinforcement* -- players receive praise, reward, and constructive feedback from instructor and other participants
4. *Transfer of training* -- participants apply learning by being able to model behavior back on the job

When to use:

To orient new employee to procedures

To learn methods of interviewing, counseling, and other similar tasks

Requirements:

Video, film equipment, or script

Space large enough for viewing and for role plays

Flipchart and board

Advantages:

Provides a step-by-step approach for handling difficult interaction situations.

Provides a positive model, demonstrating how difficult situations can be handled successfully.

Provides practice for each participant in handling difficult situations.

Provides on-the-job environment, which facilitates learning.

Considerations:

May be difficult to isolate step-by-step procedures for each behavior.

Very difficult to find suitable off-the-shelf models.

Usually each organization must develop its own film or video. This is costly and requires

developers who are able to create realistic demonstration.

Purely behaviorist, does not take into account attitudes or feelings.

Is time consuming, since cycle is usually repeated several times for each participant.

Related strategies:

Role play, demonstration

Press Conference

Description: This is one of the first interactive lecture formats I developed—perhaps in a fit of megalomania. It has been used successfully by many people over the past 20 years for training and for disseminating information. You organize the participants into teams and ask them to create and organize questions—and grill an expert in a simulated press conference.

Uses:

- When the instructional content is primarily factual (such as product specifications) or informational (such as new policies and procedures).
- When the participants know enough about the topic to ask intelligent questions (as in the case of a technical update) or when they have enough self-interest to ask relevant questions (as in the case of a new policy).
- When you have enough expertise and experience in the subject matter to handle a variety of questions and to think on your feet.

Things to be aware when you use this method:

- What if you are pressed for time? Eliminate the step during which team members organize and edit the questions; instead, just give each team their question cards and select one team to begin asking you the questions. Also eliminate the team review of the responses and identification of the two important pieces of information.
- What if the participants don't ask important questions? Prepare your own questions and add them to the participants' cards when you distribute them to different teams. Also, after the last round of the press conference, tell the participants that you are going to ask yourself some more questions and answer them.
- What if you are still pressed for time? Ask the participants to come to the session with prepared questions. Also, reduce each press conference to 5 minutes—or to three questions.
- What if a lot of questions are left unanswered because of limited time?
- Collect the unanswered questions and prepare a handout with the answers. Distribute this handout to all participants as a follow-up activity.

Process:

1. **Present an overview.** Keep it short (less than 2 minutes). Provide a rationale for the session. Identify the key objectives and present an outline of the major topics.
2. **Generate questions.** Distribute index cards to the participants and ask them to write questions related to the presentation, one question on each card. Each participant should write at least one question on each topic. They should record the topic number on a line above each question.
3. **Organize the teams.** After collecting the question cards, divide the participants into as many teams as there are topics. Ask the teams to sit at separate tables.
4. **Ask teams to organize the questions.** Give each set of question cards to a different team. Ask the members of the team to review the questions, to eliminate duplicates and trivial questions, and to arrange the remaining questions in a logical order. Announce a suitable time limit for this activity.
5. **Conduct the press conference.** Explain that you will play the role of an expert conducting a press conference on the topic of the presentation. You will select one of the teams to role-play a group of reporters. Members of this team should ask you questions, using the cards they organized. They will have 10 minutes to question you. While you answer these questions, all the participants should take careful notes because a follow-up activity will involve the information you present.
6. **Ask the teams to process the information** ((including the team that asked the questions) to compare their notes and to identify what they consider the two most

important pieces of information presented in your answers. Tell the teams that they have 3 minutes for this activity.

7. **Ask the teams to give their reports.** Ask a representative from each team to read (or to state) what they consider the two most important pieces of information. Listen carefully to each report, and make any appropriate comments.

Role-play

Description:

In a role-play, two or more individuals enact parts in a scenario related to a training topic.

Uses:

1. Helps to change people's attitude
2. Enables people to see the consequences of their actions on others
3. Provides an opportunity for learners to see how others might feel/behave in a given situation
4. Provides a safe environment in which participants can explore problems they may feel uncomfortable about discussing in real life
5. Enables learners to explore alternative approaches to dealing with situations

Advantages:

- Stimulating and fun
- Engages the group's attention
- Simulates the real world

Things to be aware when you are using this method:

- A role play is spontaneous – there is no script to follow
- Actors must have a good understanding of their role for the role play to succeed
- Actors might get carried away with their roles

Process:

- Prepare the actors so they understand their roles and the simulation
- Set the climate so the observers know what the situation involves
- Observe the role play
- Thank the actors and ask them how they felt about the role play – be sure that they get out of their roles and back to their real selves
- Share the reactions and observations of the observers
- Discuss different reactions to what happened
- Ask the learners what they have learned and develop principles
- Ask the learners how the situation relates to their own lives
- Summarize

Simulation

Description:

A simulation is an enactment of a real-life situation.

Uses:

1. Allows learners to experience decision-making in “real” situations without worrying about the consequences of their decisions
2. A way to applying knowledge, develop skills and examine attitudes in the context of an everyday situation

Advantages:

- Practical
- Learners are able to discover and react on their own
- High involvement of the learner
- Immediate feedback

Things to be aware when we will use this method:

- Time-consuming
- The facilitator must be well-prepared, especially with logistics
- A simulation is often a simplistic view of reality

Process:

- Prepare the learners to take on specific roles during the simulation
- Introduce the goals, rules and time frame for the simulation
- Facilitate the simulation
- Ask learners about their reactions to the simulation
- Ask learners what they have learned from the simulation and develop principles
- Ask learners how the simulation relates to their own lives
- Summarize

Skit

The skit is a short, rehearsed, dramatic presentation, acted from a prepared script. It dramatizes an incident that illustrates a problem or a situation. "Actors" can either be instructors and or participants. Skits can be an effective way to create situations similar to those created by role plays. While the lack of participant involvement may make them less effective learning experiences than role plays, they are less threatening and easier to use.

When to use:

To demonstrate a procedure or technique

To present a situation, usually an interpersonal problem situation for the group to discuss

To surface issues

Requirements:

Script and props

Space for "stage" and audience

Advantages:

Roles are rehearsed so that expected action will take place as designed

Members involved in a skit have more responsibility to the purpose of learning than those in role play

A good attention getter, often used to initiate a learning experience

Creates interest in a subject

Usually inexpensive to construct and produce

Entertaining as well as informative

Good way to demonstrate a process

Considerations:

"Actors" may not be totally secure and confident about performing in front of others.

Rehearsals take time but are essential

Difficult to find a skit that specifically meets the goals and objectives of a learning experience and a facilitator. It may require special writing

Difficult to include important points of learning experience in a short skit

Difficult to locate skits already prepared for the educational purposes of adults, since most available materials in skits are related to children or social groups

More time consuming to construct, rehearse, and produce than more traditional learning strategies

Requires imagination and creativity on the part of the facilitator

At times, more attention may be focused on the behavior of the players than on the issues for which the skit is being performed

Instructors must lead the group in discussing the issues that surface in the skit

Related strategies: Role play, interactive modeling, videotape presentations, demonstration

Team-building games

Five Issues to Be Considered in Teambuilding

Darwyn E. Linder, Department of Psychology

Susan Ledlow, Instructional Innovation Network

A group is "a collection of people who come together because they share something in common." (Solomon, Davidson, and Solomon, 1993). What they share could be as insignificant as desire to get on the next bus that will arrive at a particular stop. A team, however, is "a group of people who share a common name, mission, history, set of goals or objectives and expectations." A strategy that can help groups develop into real teams is teambuilding, "the process needed to create, maintain, and enrich the development of a group of people into a cohesive unit." Teambuilding exercises are very important in the development of teams that will work together for an extended period of time on a complex project or a series of activities. Teambuilding is not a silver bullet for fixing dysfunctional teams, or assuring that all of your teams will work well. But, teambuilding exercises can be helpful in developing effective teams, if they are selected to enable teams to explore the five critical issues identified in this outline.

Cohesiveness

This term refers to the attractiveness of group membership. Groups are cohesive to the extent that membership in them is positively valued, and members are drawn toward the group. In task oriented (e.g., learning or project) groups, the concept can be differentiated into two subconcepts: social cohesiveness and task cohesiveness. Social cohesiveness refers to the bonds of interpersonal attraction that link group members. Task cohesiveness refers to the way in which skills and abilities of the group members mesh to allow optimal performance.

Team building exercises that have a component of fun or play are useful in allowing social cohesiveness to develop. Examples include: designing a team logo, sharing information about first jobs, or participating in activities to discover characteristics that team members have in common. To develop task cohesiveness, activities that allow the group members to assess one another's talents, strengths and weaknesses are useful.

Roles and Norms

All groups develop a set of roles and norms over time, whether or not these are explicitly discussed. Norms are the rules governing the behavior of group members. The use of explicitly defined roles enables the group to cope effectively with the requirements of the task. The roles and norms that govern cooperative learning groups are often imposed by the instructor, but that does not preclude a teambuilding exercise in which those roles and norms, as well as some that are specific to a group, are discussed and accepted.

An example of a teambuilder which would help teammates to develop effective norms would be to ask them to develop team groundrules or a "Code of Cooperation." A teambuilder which would help teammates use roles effectively might ask them to select the roles which are most needed to accomplish the task at hand and to assign those roles to team members.

Communication

Effective interpersonal communication is vital to the smooth functioning of any task group. Norms will develop governing communication - do those norms encourage everyone to participate, or do they allow one or two dominant members to claim all the "air time?" Team building exercises can focus on skill development, communication network design, and norms, but even when the exercise is focused on another issue, communication is happening. Watch it! Shape it!

There are many ways of facilitating the learning of effective communication skills. Active listening exercises, practice in giving and receiving feedback, and practice in checking for comprehension of verbal messages are all aimed at developing skills.

Goal Specification

It is very important for group members to have common goals for group achievement, as well as to communicate clearly about individual goals they may have. Some teambuilding sessions consist entirely of goal clarification exercises. The process of clarifying goals may well engage all of the issues on this list. Indeed, shared goals is one of the definitional properties of the concept "team".

A simple, but useful, team building task is to assign a newly formed group the task of producing a mission and goals statement.

Interdependence

This is the issue of how each team member's success is determined, at least in part, by the success of the other members. The structure of the cooperative learning task should be such that it requires positive interdependence: students in a team should "sink or swim" together. Functioning independently of other group members or competing with them should lead to poor performance for the entire group. Both cooperative learning tasks and teambuilding tasks should have such a structure.

A example of a teambuilding exercise designed so that the team becomes aware of, and experiences their interdependence is "Desert Survival." In this exercise, teammates individually rank the importance of items they will need to survive after a plane crash in the desert. The team then comes to consensus on the rankings of the items. Team rankings, almost invariably, are more accurate than most individuals' rankings.

References

Solomon, Richard, Davidson, Neil, & Solomon, Elaine (1993). The handbook for the fourth r: Relationship activities for cooperative and collegial learning. Columbia, MD: National Institute for Relationship Training.

Some of the ideas in this article were adapted the work of University Associates (now Jossey-Bass/Pfeiffer <http://www.pfeiffer.com/>) by Darwyn Linder. He and Susan Ledlow further refined it for use in cooperative learning workshops they offer on the ASU campus.

Presentation

Description:

A presentation is an activity by a resource specialist to convey information, theories or principles. Forms of presentations can range from straight lecture to some involvement of the learner through questions and discussion. Presentations depend more on the trainer for content than does any other training technique.

Uses:

1. To introduce participants to new subject
2. To provide an overview or a synthesis
3. To convey facts, statistics
4. To address a large group

Advantages:

- Covers a lot of material in a short time
- Useful for large groups
- Can be adapted to any kind of learner
- Can precede more practical training techniques
- The lecturer has more control than in other situation

Things to be aware when you are using this method:

- Emphasizes one-way communication
- Is not experiential in approach
- Learner's role is passive
- Lecturer needs skills to be an effective presenter
- Inappropriate for changing behavior or for learning skills
- Learner retention is not as great unless it is followed up with a more practical technique
- A presentation is common in more formal situations

Process:

- Introduce the topic – tell the learners what you’re going to tell them
- Tell them what you want to tell them – present the material using visual aids
- Summarize the key points you’ve made – tell the learner what you’ve told them
- Invite the learners to ask questions

Small group discussion

Description:

A small group discussion is an activity that allows learners to share their experiences and ideas or to solve a problem.

Uses:

1. Enhances problem-solving skills
2. Helps participants to learn from each other
3. Gives participants a greater sense of responsibility in the learning process
4. Promotes team work
5. Clarifies personal values

Advantages:

- Learner develop greater control over their learning
- Participation is encouraged
- Allows for reinforcement and clarification of lesson through discussion

Things to be aware when you are using this method:

- The task given to the group needs to be very clear
- The group should be aware of time limits for the discussion
- Participants should be able to listen to each other, even if they don’t agree
- Group discussion should not be dominated by any one or two people
- Questions help guide the discussion
- Everyone should be encouraged to participate

Process:

- Arrange the learners in groups of four to seven
- Introduce the task that describes what should be discussed
- Ask each group to designate a discussion facilitator, a recorder and a person to present the group's findings to the larger group
- Check to make sure that each group understands the task
- Give groups time to discuss – this should not require the trainer's involvement unless the learners have questions for the trainer
- Have one person from each group summarize the findings of the group (this could be a solution to a problem, answers to a questions or a summary of ideas)
- Identify common themes that were apparent in the groups' presentation
- Ask the learners what they learned from the exercise
- Ask them how they might use what they have learned

Buzz

Description:

A large group is split into several discussion groups followed by reports from appointed chairperson of each smaller group and summary by representative.

Uses:

1. When you want to promote the quick exchange of ideas on a single topic in a short period of time. Ideas are presented back to the larger group for discussion.
2. When the group is too large for general discussion or brainstorming. When the experiences of the learners can lead them to discover solutions for themselves.

Advantages:

- Rewards people for listening.
- Focuses people on the right things.
- Gives you a way to lighten your session.

Things to be aware when you are using this method:

- Dynamics of the group can some times affect the process

Process:

Give participants a list of a concept that you want them to discuss.

Allow them 2-4 minutes to discuss.

Each group will present in plenary the results

Lecture

Description:

The lecture is a presentation made by an instructor to furnish information needed by a group to carry out task-relevant activities. Lectures are used to convey concepts and subject-matter details and to stimulate critical thinking. Used correctly in conjunction with other learning methods, lectures can get people informed, involved and comfortable with learning new things. When used as the sole or principal learning technique, however, the lecture is generally ineffective compared with other methods.

Uses:

- When few if any members of the group are familiar with the subject and when a large amount of information must be presented.

Advantages:

- The lecture is the most important method available to a trainer to convey information and ideas to a group of participants. Successful lectures are carefully planned with three considerations in mind. First, they are brief, focused on a few key ideas and paced to deliver information in "bite sized" chunks. Secondly, they are carefully designed to include provocative beginnings convincing middles and strong endings. Thirdly, lectures provide participants with an opportunity to be actively involved in their own learning.

Things to be aware when you are using this method:

- The most important thing to keep in mind when presenting information is the KISS principle: "Keep it simple and specific." That means using words with which participants are familiar and avoiding ambiguous words, terms and statements that could reduce the credibility of the lecturer.

Process

"First, you tell 'em what you're gonna tell 'em; you tell 'em; and then, you tell 'em what you told 'em."

A provocative beginning to a lecture creates interest and a desire to learn more about the subject under discussion. It is incumbent on the trainer to answer the inevitable question in the mind of every participant: "What's in it for me if I learn this material?" This question can be answered with a brief review of (a) what the participants are being asked to learn, (b) why learning it is worthwhile and personally valuable, (c) how learning it will help them reach an important goal or overcome a major obstacle, and (d) how the activities in which they will engage will help them learn it.

Sometimes a provocative statement can be-used to focus attention on the subject of a lecture. One of the authors once began a lecture on high-impact writing with this statement. "There are four reasons a writer ought to have his hand cut off." This usually gets the attention of participants. No one seriously believes that anything would justify cutting off someone's hand, but the comment gets attention and creates readiness to hear what comes next.

A convincing middle to a lecture supports the central idea introduced at the beginning. This is the "meat" of the presentation - the substance that gives participants the basis for beginning the process of skill development or behavioral change.

Exhibit

Description:

Actual objects, specimens, models, mock-up, graphic aids are placed on display with appropriate captions.

Things to be aware when you are using this method:

- Extra time to prepare.
- Requires special place.
- Can be expensive.
- Requires special display skill.
- Distracting if in constant view.

Process:

Orientation, demonstration, attractiveness, home-made or professional. Publicity, bulletin boards readily available.

Discussion

Good communication is stimulating as black coffee, and just as hard to sleep after
Anne Morrow Lindbergh

DESCRIPTION

Discussion is the interaction of two or more people on a topic of mutual interest. Discussions come in at least three varieties, depending on the role played by the trainer. In the guided discussion, the trainer takes an active and direct part in the discussion. In the structured discussion, the trainer allows participants to manage the discussion, following trainer-established rules and procedures. In the free discussion, the trainer sets the process in motion by introducing a topic and leaves questions of how to proceed up to the participants themselves.

Uses:

Each of the three discussion methods can stimulate some degree of participant involvement in the learning process. Guided discussions are of value principally in stimulating logical thinking. However, much subject-matter expertise is required of the trainer who plans to lead a guided discussion. Participant-center techniques, **on** the other hand, help participants become more self-reliant as a team and less dependent on the trainer. The role of the trainer in discussions of this kind shifts to coach and interpreter. Through mutual exploration, struggle and discovery, participants gain insights that are truly their own and the self-confidence that comes from having attained these insights.

Process:***Guided discussion***

The guided discussion is a trainer-center activity. It requires a trainer that is a subject-matter expert in the topic under discussion, is familiar with question-and-answer method, and knows the direction the discussion is to take. To a large extent, guided discussion is a two-way activity - the trainer interacts with various training participants, one at a time, while other participants observe. Through a series of questions that build logically upon one another, the trainer attempts to lead the participant toward a predetermined decision. For this reason, guided discussion is not a suitable technique for making decisions. Rather, it is designed to encourage participants to think about, relate to and internalize new ideas.

Structures discussion

The structured discussion might be described as a trainer-designed, participant-center activity that can be used to engage participants at a training program in-group problem solving. A structured discussion does not require the trainer to have subject matter expertise. Normally, the trainer divides the group into several small groups of about equal size and assigns the same or different tasks to each group. After tasks are assigned, a period of time is allowed for the small groups to discuss the task. Instructions may be given to the small groups about appointing a leader, a reporter and a timekeeper. At the end of the discussion phase, small groups are asked to come back together and to report their findings, sometimes written on- flip-chart paper and taped to a wall of the training room.

Free discussion

A free discussion could be called a trainer-facilitated, participant-center activity in which participants take the responsibility for what happens. Free discussions are used to share information, test out new ways of thinking and build group unity and consensus. The trainer who introduces the topic and then steps aside to allow the group to function in any way it wishes initiates the discussion. As a facilitator, the trainer rarely intervenes in the task of the group but focuses instead on the process used by the group to carry out the task. The trainer must have good listening and observational skills and be able to interpret what is taking place in the group, so those participants can learn from it.

Game

Description:

The form depends on the game or exercise in question. They generally involve an element of competition or change. In many cases the group is allotted a role in a created environment and provided with data in order to run the activity. It has many forms: energizers, name games, contact games, team-building game etc.

Uses:

- To raise level of attention
- To get to know better other participants
- To develop a cooperative attitude

Advantages:

- 5) Hi level of energy
- 6) It generally takes short time
- 7) Has many forms and can be easily adapted

Things to be aware when you are using this method:

- Some resistance felt to playing 'games'
- Hi enthusiasm and short time might produce little accidents (people falling down, clothes ripped off etc.)

Process:

- Introduce the environment and the rules of the game
- Conduct the activity
- End the activity (in some cases participants might forget to stop)
- Debrief participants (in case needed)

Teamwork Lecture

Description:

The participants are divided into two (or more) groups, and each group is taught part of a procedure. The participants find partners from the other group(s), and teach their partners what they have learned. In this way, every participant acts as both a learner and a teacher.

Uses:

- When the instructional content involves a step-by-step procedure.
- When the participants are capable of teaching and learning from each other.
- When you have several application exercises.

Advantages:

- 1) Participants actively involved in the session
- 2) People learn best from their peers.
- 3) Useful for large groups and/or big amount of content to be presented.
- 4) Trainer remains 'invisible'

Things to be aware when you are using this method:

- Learning depends on participants' skills to present content to each other.
- Not everybody will learn all the provided information
- Each group will learn best the material it has to present.
- Works best on level of knowledge

Process:

- a) Analyze the procedure. Prior to the presentation, divide the procedure into steps. If there are more than six steps, organize them into three to six clusters of approximately equal complexity.
- b) Introduce the procedure. Provide an overview of the procedure. Briefly describe each step and the interrelationship among the different steps.
- c) Divide the participants into groups. Have one group for each step (or each cluster of steps).
- d) Make a separate presentation to each group. Each presentation deals with a single step (or a cluster of steps). In addition, the presentation also identifies major links between one step and the others.
- e) Build teams from different groups. Each team should have one member from each of the different groups. This way, each team includes a person who has listened to each of the five presentations.
- f) Have teams perform a task. Give the teams an application exercise. In completing the exercise, team members should teach each other the different steps of the procedure.

Icebreakers

The Encyclopedia of Icebreakers (University Associates, 1983) says that icebreakers "are tools that enable the group leader to foster interaction, stimulate creative thinking, challenge basic assumptions, illustrate new concepts, and introduce specific material." (pg. 1). As such, icebreakers can be used nearly any time a facilitator has a need to gather a group, get them together, and help them move forward. Energizers can be used to the same ends, and are generally thought of as best for points in the midst of a meeting, training, workshop, or other group learning experience.

The Use of Icebreakers

Although the following points can easily be overdone, it is wise to consider a few basic elements before choosing (or inventing) and using Icebreakers.

Contracting

First, icebreakers tend to work best when participants have contracted around their participation in the activity chosen by the trainer. Contracting involves giving participants:

1. The rationale for the activity.
2. The objectives of the activity.
3. The structure of the activity.
4. The opportunity to ask questions.
5. The permission to participate at their own level of comfort.

This last point is critical, and is often missed. A single, prominent, announcement at the beginning of a training program (the point at which icebreakers are used!) will often suffice for making the point that participants are not "bound" to participation in every activity. Although this approach may run counter to events where facilitators hope for 100% participation, a bit of explanation may help. Although participants will not always verbalize concerns to facilitator(s), any given training activity can place undue stress on people for a variety of reasons. Be it the deeply introverted person who is placed in their least resourceful state in highenergy group activities; the person in perpetual physical pain who avoids going "inside" themselves for reasons of pain management; the person with painful memories of a childhood filled with concerns about their physical ability; or, simply, the person who is simply having "a bad day," participants vary in their degree of comfort with icebreakers and energizers. When they perceive a poor fit between their state of mind and the requirements of the icebreaker, people will either publicly or privately "opt out" of participation. When given the freedom to choose, people tend to take greater ownership of their participation and are less able to claim "they made me do it." Ironically, when given choice, the vast majority of people will choose participation over either public or private opting out.

To maximize genuine participation in icebreakers, it is best to formally state that people have the right to "pass" at any point. When given the explicit option, participants only rarely "opt out."

Appropriateness

Tone

Icebreakers "set the tone" for some aspect(s) of the event they precede. Given this, it makes sense to choose an icebreaker that is consonant with this tone. Sometimes "more serious" icebreakers inadvertently send a message that "there will be no fun here!" At other times, "silly" icebreakers can have unintended impacts with a particular audience, or provide just the right break at the start of a multi-session program or when used as an energizer. Generally, then, it makes sense to be deliberate in your choice of icebreakers.

Length

Some of the icebreakers in this compilation are best for very short programs, while others make most sense when used in programs that last for several days. As a rough rule-of-thumb, an icebreaker that lasts more than 1/16th of the total time for a program (a half-hour in an eight-hour day, for example) is probably too long (unless, of course, the icebreaker provides in-depth learning experiences that are integral to the entire program).

Teaching Points

Some trainers and facilitators prefer to use icebreakers that contain significant learnings that are part of the overall learning objectives of the programs. Others prefer to use icebreakers that avoid relationship to the program's learning points.

Likely best is the realization that icebreakers are dynamic and provide intended, and unintended, learnings. A consideration of these potential learnings, prior to the facilitation of any particular icebreaker, can help you optimize contracting and process learning experiences.

Processing Learnings

Again, trainers differ on the degree to which they prefer to use icebreakers and energizers as teaching opportunities. In general, given the "1/16th" rule-of-thumb (above), detailed processing of icebreakers can disrupt the momentum generated by the application of the icebreaker itself.

Safety

Apart from the type of "psychological safety" described above (under "Contracting"), icebreakers and energizers that require complicated or challenging physical exertion should be considered carefully prior to execution. Again, though we may carry the attitude of "no one has to participate," such an attitude has little beneficial impact if not shared publicly with participants.

A Partial List of Resources

Bell, Chip R. & Margolis, Fredric H. (1984). *Managing the Learning Process*. Minneapolis, MN: Training Books.

Forbess-Greene, Sue (1983). *The Encyclopedia of Icebreakers*. San Diego, CA: University Associates, Inc.

Pfeiffer, J. William (Ed.) (1989). *The Encyclopedia of Group Activities*. San Diego, CA: University Associates, Inc.

Reddy, W. Brendan & Henderson, Clenard C. (1987). *Training Theory and Practice*. Alexandria, VA: NTL Institute for Applied Behavioral Science.

10 Great Ways to Close a Session

Koosh Learning Toss

Have each person in the group share one thing they learned in the training. Use a Koosh ball, and have each person share their learning when they get the ball.

Next Steps

Have each person share one thing they will do in the next week to apply the training. For example, if they are in project management training, have them share the next action they will take on a current project.

Ask the Experts

At the beginning of the training, have each person write down a question they want answered during the session. At the end of the class, mix up the questions and have participants answer each other's questions.

Sing a Song

Have trios write and perform a song about something they learned in the training. For example, in a motorcycle safety class one team sang "Row Row Row Your Boat" with words describing how to safely make a turn.

Crossword Competition

Create a crossword puzzle (very affordable software is available in stores and at www.crosswordkit.com) with clues describing key concepts from the training. Turn the puzzle into posters at your local quick print store (or with a poster maker) and give teams 5 minutes to complete the puzzles. Award prizes to any teams that get all answers correct in the time allotted.

Wish You Were Here

Give each person a post card. Have them write their name and address (or e-mail address) on one side and a goal they plan to achieve in the next month on the other side. Collect the cards and send them out to participants 1 month later, asking them for feedback about how well their goals have been met.

Group Mural

Tape a large piece of freezer paper to one wall (long enough for all participants to write on it at the same time). Have each participant draw a picture representing what they learned in the training. Then have others guess what each picture represents.

Star Moments

At the end of a team building session, ask each person to share a "star moment" they saw in someone else. A star moment is when someone's gift as a team member was shining through. As they share a star moment, have them place a star on the person they are recognizing. Ensure that each person is given a star moment. If necessary, mention some star moments you observed.

Action Steps

Place stickers of footprints (real size) on the floor, staggered in a line or horseshoe. Have the group stand in the first set of footprints (the one's furthest back). Ask them to share one thing they will do in the next week to move forward in the training area. As they share their action, have them take a step forward. Continue until all have shared. Then state that they have taken the first step in application — making a commitment to do something.

Thank You

To emphasize how people have learned from each other in training, ask them to thank someone else in the group (other than the instructor) who helped them learn something or gain an insight into the training topic. Coach the person on the receiving end of the "Thank You" to simply say, "You're Welcome." This helps people both give and receive compliments.

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Elements of design

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Analyzing training requirements

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- Defining SPIRO objectives**
- Developing objectives and learning outcomes and relating them to assessment**
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Clarifying the frame and purpose of the training

Every program is constructed within a specific context that defines the purpose of the training. Here are some suggestions for team consideration when laying the basis for program-planning:

Needs assessment, personal motivations, and organisational aims/institutional context: These factors indicate the general social and political frame of the training course.

- What training needs have been expressed, and by whom?
- What needs exist for the kind of training being organised?
- Why is the organisation or institution running this training course?
- What are your personal motivations for being the trainers of this course?

There are several basic Needs Assessment techniques. Use a combination of some of these, as appropriate:

- direct observation
- questionnaires
- consultation with persons in key positions, and/or with specific knowledge
- review of relevant literature
- interviews
- focus groups
- tests
- records & report studies
- work samples

Remember that actual needs are not always the same as perceived needs, or "wants". Look for what the organization and people really need they may not know what they need, but may have strong opinions about what they want.

Training aims

- 5) What are the general aims of the training?
- 6) Do you, as a training team, have a common understanding of these aims?

Resources

- What financial and material resources are available to implement this training course?
- What are your resources as trainers, your knowledge, capacities and abilities, the level of energy and time you can invest?

Objectives of the training

- What is it that this particular course can and should do to?
- What specifically do you want to reach with this training?
- Which outcomes and results do you expect?

Profile of participants

- g) If your training course addresses youth workers or youth leaders, what then is the specific profile of the participants that this course wants to reach?
- h) What kind and level of experience, background, needs, motivations and interests should the participants have?

Defining program content elements

Deciding on content elements is usually the first 'real' step of drafting the program. What subjects should the training course address? Focusing on the contents of the training in a team process, where different ideas need to be considered, co-ordinated and structured, can be difficult. Ideas may be lost in the discussion because

they are not taken up and properly discussed by other team members. It is therefore helpful to keep track of ideas visually, on a flipchart for everyone to see.

Usually, the process of defining the contents of the program includes several steps:

- Listing possible content elements
- Discussing content elements – what do we actually understand by the contents?
- Agreeing on content elements
- Prioritising content elements – which are the most important elements? What do we want to spend most time on?
- Putting the content elements in order – creating a program flow which incorporates a consideration of group dynamics and the training strategy.
- Creating a day-by-day program of content units
- Creating session plans for all units

The exercise below is one way of facilitating team discussion and definition of content elements.

Collecting contents elements on post-its to create a program

Step 1:	All trainers write down the content elements they wish to see in the program, one element per post-it. All post-its are then put up on the wall for the whole team to see.
Step 2:	Clarify elements, where necessary. Group similar elements together.
Step 3:	Make titles for the groups of elements on different colour post-its. What is it that makes them a group?
Step 4:	Take off all post-its except those with the titles and put them aside. The remaining post-its (with the titles) will be your program content elements.
Step 5:	Discuss the outcome. Are you happy with these elements? Is anything missing? If needed, have a look at the original post-its again.
Step 6:	Arrange the elements into a program flow.
Step 6:	Draw up a day to day program based on this program flow.
Materials: Post-its in two colours, markers for all team members, a large wall to group the different papers.	

Focusing the program on the participants

Considerations of content and methodological approaches have to be grounded in the needs of the participants and group, and a reflection upon their roles and responsibilities in the running of the program. The following factors provide a basis for working this through:

Participants' needs and expectations: The needs, motivations and expectations of the participants for the training course give you important information for measuring the relevance of the training for the people taking part in it. Needs and expectations can be identified before or at the beginning of the training, but allow for the possibility of them changing during the activity. Looking at the participants' needs and expectations also encompasses considering how the experience of the training will relate to their

reality. How, or to what extent, can it be ensured that the participants can use the training experience in subsequent work?

Recognition of the participants' prior knowledge: Keep in mind that participants come with a training history and range of experiences. Depending on the levels of experience present in your group, recognising prior knowledge and using the resources of participants in the course can be an essential element for actively involving them in the training process and facilitating peer education. Create spaces where all participants have the opportunity to share their experiences. Participants with relevant knowledge or skills might contribute in specific ways, for instance by giving inputs or running a workshop.

Responsibility for the learning process: On the one hand, people might only take in what they want to learn and what they feel they need. On the other, they might have learning needs that they are not immediately aware of. What do you consider to be the respective responsibilities of the participants and trainers for the learning process? Who can and who should determine what the participants need to learn?

Group size and development. When planning a program, the size of the group provides an immediate framework. For instance, creating an intense experiential learning process for a group of 50 participants might be a very difficult undertaking. A group also undergoes different phases during a training course, so adapt your content, methods and program flow to the relevant stages of group development (see 5.3.2)

Use of the environment, space and resources of the group: How can you make use of the environment in which the training takes place? Or, asked the other way around, what environment do you need for your program? How can you use the city, local youth structures, youth organisations and projects, forests or fields around the training site in the program? And how can you work best with the resources present in the group itself? For instance, if you want to work on cultural perceptions and images with a group of participants, do you run a simulation exercise, work with what happens in the group, or send the group into the streets to observe and report?

Structure and flexibility in the program preparation: Working with the resources present in the group and involving the participants' needs and expectations demands a certain readiness flexibility in preparation. Sometimes you can only isolate the real learning needs and most valuable contributions during the training course. Discuss within the team the extent to which you can be open and flexible. How much structure do you want to provide? Which elements need to be settled in advance to target the objectives and to feel comfortable with the program? (See section 5.4)

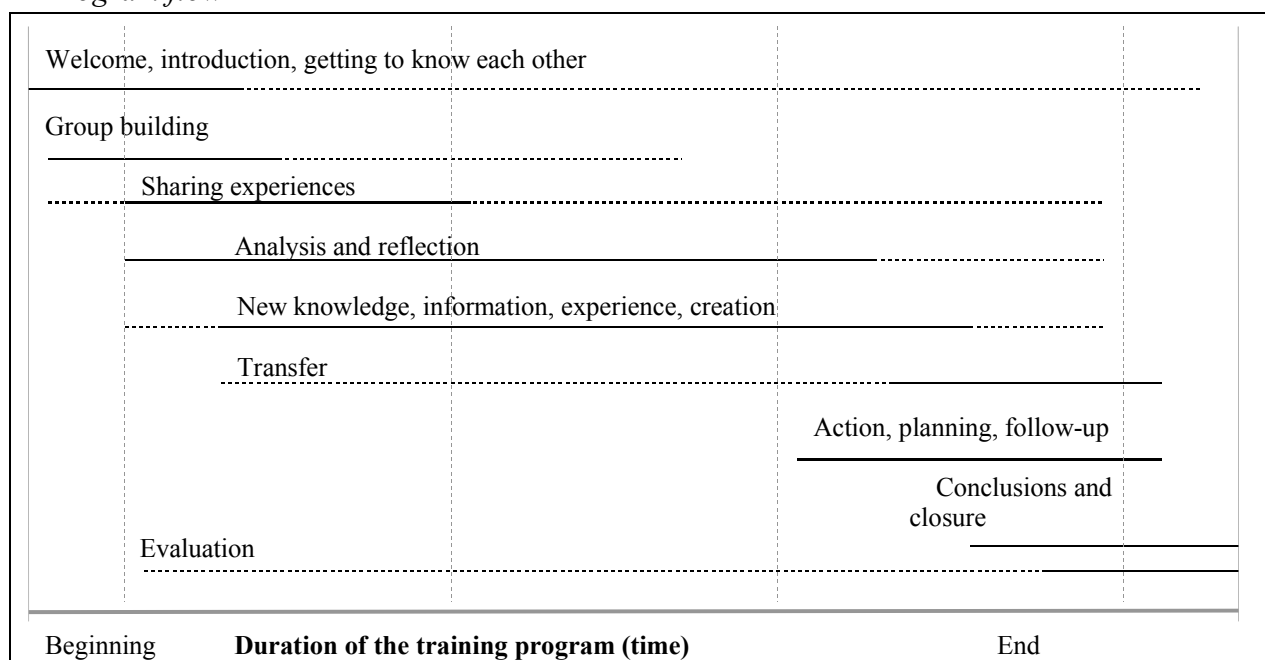
Time planning: Time is always limited, how can you best use what is available without over-loading it? How does the program balance free time, social time, and working time? How can you deal with unexpected events during the training course? Section 5.4.6 takes a closer look at time management.

Program phases and program flow

Some phases are common to almost every program, regardless of the specificity of context, objectives and content. Every program needs to work with the resources, dynamics and development of the group, introduce new knowledge and create possibilities for new experiences and applied transfer. These generic program phases are informed by group dynamics, theories of learning styles and cycles, and common training strategies. All of these phases constitute essential parts of a program. As is visualised in the graph below, some of them can be quite flexibly arranged throughout the entire program, others come more logically towards the beginning or end of an activity. Sharing experiences, analysis and reflection and gaining new knowledge, skills and experiences are integral parts of the whole training process. Transfer and evaluation should also be ever present, to support and monitor the learning process. The process of the group is integral to determining your program flow, as it is likely that the group will be in various stages of cohesion and motivation throughout the activity. Whatever the order, it is important to create a program flow in which all of the component parts build, and can be seen to build, on each other.

The welcome, introduction and getting to know each other phase is, let's say, useful at the beginning. Participants are welcomed to the training course, personal, technical and thematic introductions are made. This period overlaps with a concerted group-building phase, essential in laying the foundations for integration, trust and genuine participation. Group building is also the first step in recognising, valuing and working with the differences and resources present in the group. Sharing experiences compounds these aims by giving participants opportunities to share their backgrounds and realise the scope of the resources present in a multicultural group. What are their former experiences with intercultural learning, youth work or project development? How is the situation of young people and youth work in their countries or communities? How does their organisation work? How does this relate to the training course? While sharing experiences should be an ongoing characteristic, focusing on it at this stage reflects the principle of working from the particular to the general, while also providing a space for identity negotiations within this temporary collective.

Program flow



Receiving new knowledge, learning new skills and undertaking new experiences is the essence of training. The body of the training is built on specific content elements, methods and exercises aimed at involving participants in meaningful learning experiences. A general emphasis on analysis and reflection, as well as focusing through debriefing and specific program components, is essential in driving the learning process. It helps participants to supply political and social contexts to their training knowledge, and to become more conscious and reflexive about their personal learning process. This is necessary if a training event is to be relevant to the participants' life and work situations. Transfer involves fitting the experience of the training to their realities, and adapting the newly acquired ideas and skills to their own work. The transfer phase is not limited to the physical end of the activity, as the internet creates increased possibilities for participants to pose questions and reflect with the team and together for a certain period after the training. A regular aim of training is to facilitate, as far as is practically feasible, action planning, and follow-up. How can participants be encouraged to follow up the training concretely? What action should they take? Are they expected to implement actual projects? How do they incorporate what they have learned to their organisation or project group? Addressing the question of follow-up also mentally prepares the participants for going home. As well as striving for results beyond its own lifetime, training activities need to consider their conclusions and effect closure. Are there final conclusions to be made, a final report or recommendations to be drafted, final decisions to be taken by the group? Closing the program also means closing the circle of the training. It can include recalling the training process, its main learning points and experiences. Allied to this, evaluation helps the trainers assess the impact of the training course, and the participants to focus on what they have learned. As such it constitutes an element of the learning process itself (adapted from Ohana, [2000] pp. 45-48). Proper evaluation is ongoing, with a final concentration at the end of the course.

A training process which is relevant to multicultural groups should include different levels of learning and work with the classic elements of head, heart, hands and health. When creating your program flow, reflect upon how you, as trainer and in your team, see learning happening. For instance, what relation exists between experience and theory? What place should emotional learning have? Do you give enough space to reflection?

Types of programs and program components: some examples

While we have argued that most programs contain similar phases, this does not mean that all programs are any way similar in type, not to mention their components. This non-exhaustive section looks at major choices with regard to the program type, their relation to educational objectives, and briefly considers how to cater for a diversity of learning styles and needs within a group

Planning a program in advance or developing it with participants?

Much of the focus has been on developing a structured training program, prepared to a large extent in advance. This is an overwhelming common approach, although clearly within this general frame a variety of different program flows can be created. An important advantage of preparing a program in advance is that it ensures that important elements are included. Allied to this, it can be presented with clarity to participants while providing a clear frame and stability to the team. As has been pointed out in other sections however, preparation rarely has access to a crystal ball to foretell the future, and a highly detailed program may prove inflexible and unable to respond to particular group dynamics and training needs that emerge during the process. That is why many trainings do not just reserve space for participant input and consultation, but also build the program around the experiences and resources of the group (further information on all of the strategies outlined here can be found in the reference section).

- w. *Group experiential learning* prioritises group development and stated needs, and training is built on the evolving situation. Participants are involved in deciding the program from day to day, and can learn at their own speed. Reflection with other participants and trainers on the experience constitutes an essential element of the learning process. This approach of content as process and process as content can create an intensive and charged learning environment, and conflicts may need to be handled by the group. For the trainers, this type of training demands a high degree of personal involvement, inner stability and the confidence to deal with constant evolution.
- *Open Space Technology* is a way of creating 'open' units in the program where participants can bring in their resources and interests. It usually lasts for at least one whole day, and is run according to some basic rules and under a broad theme. Within pre-defined time-slots, participants can offer to run discussion groups or workshops on subjects of their choice. An essential aspect of Open Space is that it puts the responsibility for the learning process on the participants, in that

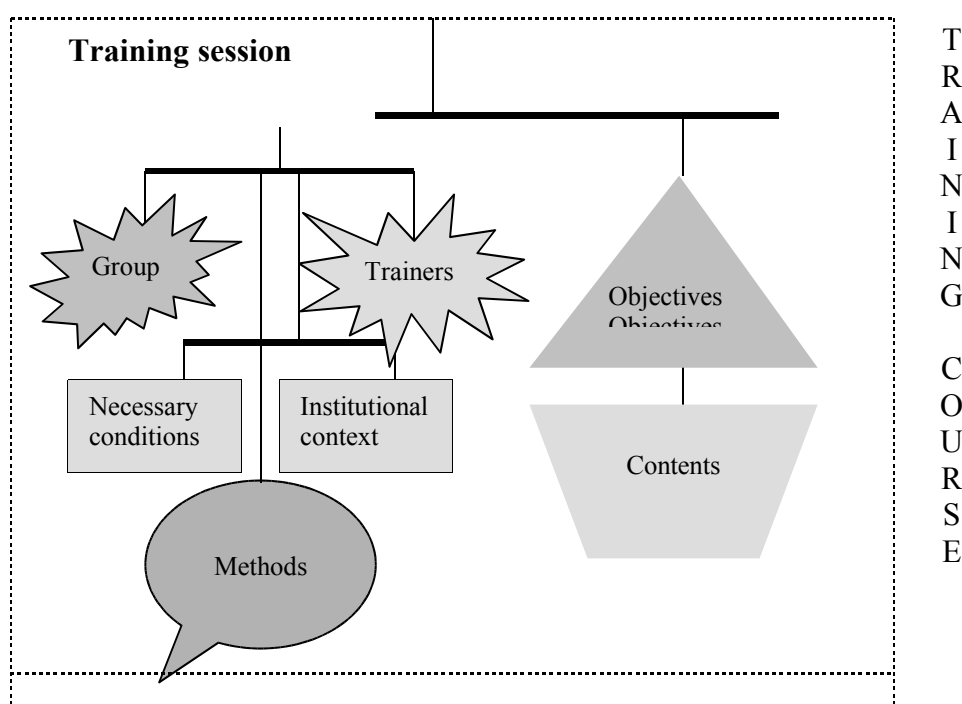
individuals and the group create their own optimum conditions. Rules such as 'whoever comes are the right people' and 'when it starts is the right time' reflect this.

- *Future Factory* involves envisioning and planning strategies for tackling problems in society. In a widely replicated three stage formula, participants draw up problems they are concerned with, put them on cards and on a wall. They then envision their ideal picture, where these problems have been thoroughly addressed. They then bridge these images by reflecting on strategies, actions and developments that can power a transition. A future factory can last a whole day and provide space for participants to grapple with a complex situation and developing feasible solutions.

Creating spaces for in-depth learning for a group with diverse interests and needs involves sub-dividing into smaller working groups for periods of time. This can be done in different ways, depending on your training objectives and the group dynamics you want to create.

- *Mini-seminars* give participants the chance to deepen a specific subject with a small group. The subjects can be defined by the team or by the participants themselves, in line with existing needs and interests and the objectives of the course. Dividing a group for a longer period of time runs the risk of creating subgroups, therefore feedback and sharing of the results is important. From the trainers, mini-seminars demand expertise in the subject matter and the capacity to work with different training processes simultaneously.
- *Workshops* create smaller hands-on training spaces. A round of workshops generally lasts for one to two training sessions and are suited to addressing the development of particular skills and competencies. Workshops need relatively little time, can be used flexibly and targeted at specific interests. For the trainers, workshops can be relatively work-intensive to prepare, while providing a chance for in-depth work with a small group. Workshop rounds need to be well co-ordinated to allow participants to attend a range that correspond to their interests.
- *Creation groups* can have several purposes: preparing actual youth projects, simulating the process of making a project or a project application or preparing a workshop for other participants of the training course. In creation groups, participants create a product of their own and present it to each other. The groups can be formed by the trainers but free association creates stronger ownership of the work. Creating a common product can be a very empowering experience. Creation groups tend to be challenging, involving and creative, but as an intensive learning situation it can be stressful and at times frustrating. It needs to be well debriefed after the groups have finished. The team needs to be clear about the purpose of these groups; is the focus on creating an educational process, developing a real project, experiencing group dynamics or all of these?

Session design



(Graph adapted from: Mewaldt & Gailius, 1997, p. 25)

Once the overall program content and flow are defined, detailed planning can begin. A session is a time-slot in the program. Usually we count four to five sessions per day - two in the morning, two in the afternoon, and possibly another in the evening. Preparing a session involves concentrated planning with an eye on the whole process. How does this session fit in with the ones before and after? What do we need in this session to maintain a balance of methods and learning points? Every session should be prepared like a miniature program, with clear objectives, content and methodology, and an awareness of trainer competencies, the group, environment and institutional context. As is shown in TE-11 above, the objectives and content of each session need to be balanced against all the other factors determining the specific context of the training session.

A checklist for designing a session within a larger training framework:

Objectives: What are the specific objectives you want to reach with this training session? What learning outcomes would you like to see?

Contents: What is the essence of the subject you are working on? Can you reasonably connect subject and objectives? What should the participants experience during this session? How does this subject fit into the process and overall content of the training course?

Trainers: What are your experiences as trainers in working on this subject? When working with other groups, what was positive, and what would you like to avoid? Which methods do you value as trainers and feel capable of using?

Group: What is the present situation of the group? What needs and interests have participants expressed? What prior experience do the participants have in this subject and approach? How is the interaction within the group and between the group and the team at present?

Conditions: What are the working conditions? What limitations do the environment and space present? What materials do you have, what do you need? How much time do you have?

Institutional context: What outside requirements exist? Are there any expectations from the side of the organisation or institution responsible for the training? Are there any legal restrictions?

Methods: Which methods are suitable in this context? Which methods do you know? What methods could you adapt? What have you used already, or are planning to use later during this training course? What is the attention span of the participants?

(Adapted from: Mewaldt & Gailius, 1997, 25)

Some elements to consider when designing a session

- Make the objectives and role of the session in the program clear to the group. Understanding why an issue is being dealt with in this way at this point will help the participants to stay with the process.
- While avoiding showmanship, use a variety of methods within one session. It will help you get the participants involved and keep their attention.
- Conclude the session. Usually, the participants' attention is high during the last minutes of a session, so underline the main learning points and make realistic links to the overall framework.
- Be aware of normal attention spans when designing your session. It will help you see what methods you need to use to keep the group involved. The graph below is basic and not a universal guide, but it does indicate likely fluctuations in attention and suggests that a trainer needs to pace the session and consider the impact of environmental and group factors on attentiveness.

Different types of Methodology:

- Interactive
- Participative
- Experienced Learning
- Take in account individual & group learning
- Use group as a resource

Training cycle and model

Tom W. Goad. Delivering Effective Training. San Diego, CA: University Associates, 1982

Developing a learning event requires planning, execution, and follow-up or revision phases. Tom Goad, training specialist, describes these phases as an inter-related system or continuous cycle.

Analyze

The two primary purposes of this phase are to determine that the training is needed and to make certain that the training is based on reliable and identified training requirements. In this phase, the trainer should identify what the issue is that has posed training as a solution (this is often called "needs assessment"), inquire about the tasks and skills needed to accomplish a function or job, and identify who the learners are.

Design

The trainer/designer determines the strategy to be used in accomplishing the training, gathers data on which to base learning objectives, the driving force behind the design; designs the training approach through looking at the learning objectives; in this phase the trainer/designer also selects training methods, tools, and timing appropriate for the skills to be learned and the learners participating; this would also be the phase during which the need for pre-testing might be determined.

Develop

The trainer develops training methods; these can include experiences, tools, and methods of delivery. In this phase much attention is paid to the look and feel of the final training event, including supportive materials, packets, overheads, technological requirements, etc. The final flow, or blocked out design results from work done in this phase.

Conduct

The trainer conducts the actual training. In addition, the trainer monitors progress and response of learners, attempting to evaluate the effectiveness of the design and delivery as the training unfolds, and adjusting during the session as needed. Notes taken during this phase will be valuable in the evaluation phase.

Evaluate

The training program is evaluated and feedback gathered for updating or revising the training design. This is typically the most neglected phase of the training cycle as the trainers and learners all breathe a sigh of relief. However, if attended to correctly, this phase can create better training programs later, can serve to guide revision of the program, can give the trainer important feedback on his/her performance. This phase leads directly back into the Analysis phase during which data gathered in evaluation is used to determine further training needs.

Elements to consider in analyzing training requirements

Analyzing a training requirement means using a systematic approach to identify, select, describe and review elements which will be used to develop training. Analysis is the act of carefully gathering and looking at as much data as you can, organizing and arranging the data in ways to make it useful, then making sound decisions based on conclusions drawn from results.

- Gather as much data or information as is pertinent to the setting or problem
- Arrange data in meaningful ways:
 - Organize like items together, etc.
 - Look for patterns of arrangement
 - Discard unnecessary or gather additional data as needed
- Define categories or groups, identify sequences or cause-effect relationships

There are five main steps in developing and conducting training:

- f. Analyzing the training requirement
- g. Developing learning objectives
- h. Outlining the training content
- i. Developing the training
- j. Conducting the training

Analysis is the first step in the process because it helps a trainer decide where to start. Once a start point is determined, a trainer works through a development process which builds on the analysis and helps decide what to train and how to do it.

Training Elements to Consider

<i>Element</i>	<i>Description</i>
1. Statement of Training Need	Describe the general or overall training need.
2. Why is Training Required? (<i>Why</i>)	Who requests training, consequences of providing/not providing it, and desired effects on job performance

3. Who are the Learners? (Who)	Who the learners are, what their familiarity is, and anticipated reactions to training
4. What's the Training Content? (What)	The nature of the training content, possible resources, anticipated difficulties in developing content
5. What are the Timing Issues? (When)	Starting dates, length and frequency of training, any other timing-related issues
6. Where will Training be Conducted? (Where)	Location and number of learners, review of space, equipment and other resources needed

Analyzing training requirements

1. Statement of Training Need as Requested

2. Why is Training Needed ?

- Source of Request: Identify person (etc.) requesting the training
- Expected Benefits: Specify positive outcomes that will occur after training
- Negative Consequences: Specify negative outcomes that could occur without training
- Behavior Desired: Record the specific job behaviors expected after training

3. Who are the Learners?

15. Categories/Size: Identify number and learning variations of trainees

16. Familiarity with Content: Identify extent to which learners are familiar with content

4. What is the Training Content?

- Content: Identify subject, topics, job tasks
- Available Resources: Note resources which can or should be used
- Problems Formulating Content: Record any possible difficulties
- Anticipated Reactions: Record anticipated attitudes or potential problems with content

5. What are the Timing Issues?

- Start date: Record date training is to occur
- Length: Record (or estimate) number of hours (days, etc.)
- Frequency: How many times training will occur
- Time Issues: Identify any other issues related (scheduling, registration, etc.)

6. Where will the Training be Conducted ?

- Physical Location: Record where training will be given
- Estimated Number of Learners: Record the estimated number of learners at one time

- Adequacy of Space and Delivery: Determine whether location can meet training needs

Creating a training plan

What's the difference?

What is the difference between a training content outline and training plan?

- Your training content outline lists everything your learners must learn in order to achieve the learning objectives.
- Your training plan will provide a structure for the activities that will take place in the training to help the learners achieve the objectives.

Why a written plan?

A training plan serves functions:

- Planning tool which provides structure;
- Guide for preparing and rehearsing training;
- Outline to follow during training;
- Documentation which can be reviewed and revised in the future.

ROPES

Steps	Purpose
Review	To conduct a review of the learners' general knowledge of and experience with the topic. Can also help identify prerequisites.
Overview	To establish a connection between the learners and the training content that will engage the learner and motivate them to learn. Also helps set context.
Presentation	To present the content to learners in ways that helps them retain the information.
Exercise	To enable the learners to practice using the training content in order to build and reinforce skills.
Summary	To summarize and clarify what was learned and bring closure to the training sessions. Sometimes includes evaluation.

The ROPES model allows you to develop your training plan by applying the methods and training materials you have developed to express the content through a step-by-process.

Steps	Description
1. Start with the Review	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Introduce the lesson topic - Have learner share their knowledge/past experience with topic - Recognize the "local expertise" among the group
2. Develop the overview	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Overview the activities which will occur in the lesson • Cover the learning objective(s). • Establish why it is important to learn the training content.
3. Format the presentation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Cover the content using the 'tell then show (then practice)' approach: • Tell the learners what is to be done and how to do it • Show them how to do it by using examples or demonstration • Have the learners practice the skill or outcome (if necessary or appropriate)
4. Develop an exercise	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Have learners practice their new skills • Provide feedback on their performance • (May be part of presentation as noted above, a separate hands-on exercise, or performed later as 'homework')
5. End with a summary	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Summarize the lesson, stressing importance points • Ask for and answer questions • Make transition to next lesson or on-the-job use

Timing: A Rule of Thumb

Ropes Steps	Percentage of total training time	Check your timing by: 1) Envisioning the activities that occur at each step and approximate the amount of time they take. 2) Practice the whole thing and time each step. 3) Ask others to assume the role of learners and time them as they participate.
Review	5 - 10 %	
Overview	10 - 15 %	
Presentation	25 - 35 %	
Exercise	35 - 50 %	
Summary	5 %	

Use the following Training Plan outline to provide structure to a training session. Identify statements you will make or key points to cover; specific questions you will ask; directions to guide your presentation; the amount of time you allot for that step; and whatever materials you will use at that point.

Ropes Step/Content	Time/Training Materials
I. Review A. [State main training goal] B. [Ask about learner's experiences]	5-10% Transparencies
II. Overview A. [Describe general overview] B. [State specific training objectives] C. [Discuss importance of content]	10-15% Handouts
III. Presentation A. [Describe general concepts] B. [Discuss steps] C. [Demonstrate steps] D. [Give examples]	25-35% Handouts Job aids
IV. Exercise A. [Explain how and why] B. [Facilitate activities] C. [Observe and ask questions] D. [Wrap-up and debrief]	35-50% Flipcharts/whiteboard Self-paced guides
V. Summarize A. [Review objectives] B. [Discuss applications] C. [Ask questions]	5% Transparencies

Writing learning objectives

Defining your objectives for a training is a critical step in the whole development process. Why? Well, without a training objective instructors don't know exactly what it is to be taught, learners don't know what they are to learn, and managers don't know what they are investing their training dollars in.

Think of training objectives as check points on a roadmap. Because if they are done correctly, it clearly defines your the route to get from point "A" to point "B", telling everyone how to get there. A training objective defines what is to be learned, how well it is to be performed, and under what conditions it is to be performed. Naturally, it goes without saying objectives must be clear, honest, complete, and unquestionably correct!

Training objectives provide the basis for all the tasks which follow in the program design process. They can also serve a variety of administrative functions, as well. Some of the important uses are:

- Articulate the goal of the training
Trainers need to know what new skills and behaviors will result from a training course in order to make informed choices about what programs to offer

1) Communicate intent to learner

By dispelling unrealistic expectations learners gain a clear sense of current status and desired outcome to better measure personal progress

– Provides means for evaluation

Objectives establish a framework for measuring the degree to which a learner has acquired a desired skill or can perform a desired function

- Assists in selection of materials, content, methods

Training program designers need to know the effect they wish to achieve to effectively choose appropriate training tools

Essential Characteristics

A training objective must clearly state the task to be done, the conditions under which training will take place and observed, and the standards of learning that should be accomplished.

A complete objective will contain a:

- Task
- Condition
- Standard

The Task: (Description of Performance)

The first requirement is that the objective contain an action verb that describes doing something that can be seen and measured.

While these are legitimate goals, perhaps, but maybe a bit unclear and fuzzy around the edges.

How does an instructor see the action the student is taking when demonstrating that he or she can appreciate, has faith in, etc.? Furthermore, the student does have a clear understanding of just what he or she has to do either. Do not use these words to describe the task the student must perform.

Determine the most accurate action possible. Verbally explaining is not as accurate as explaining in writing. The point is that both you and the student must agree on what you are going to have them do.

Description of task and results -- evidence of achievement

Question: What is the learner doing when demonstrating achievement of the objective?

Conditions:

The conditions under which the behavior is to be observed. The objective will contain the conditions under which action will take place. The student deserves to know what he or she will be given, or not given, to do the task. The questions you need to ask yourself are, do the conditions affect task performance?

If Yes. Do they affect the type and amount of training? Generally the types of conditions to be considered are as follows:

Training aids, handbooks, instructions, preprinted forms, environmental conditions and safety briefing, and other written documents. The student should be told what he or she will be given in order to complete the task.

Conditions under which performance will take place

Question: What are the conditions under which the learner is expected to demonstrate achievement?

Standards:

The standard of performance is the last part of a complete objective. This is what a student must achieve before he or she is considered to have satisfactorily completed the objective.

In other words, "can they walk and chew gum at the same time without falling down."

Now that you have a little more information about objectives, it's also not seldom necessary for a course of instruction to be taught to mastery level, unless that is your intended objective.

In most training environments, the students are taught how to do a task, but then they must practice on the job to be good at it. It's also not usually necessary or reasonable to expect the student to perform without error just to pass a course. Usually, you will set it to a level where the student is expected to solve a certain percentage of problems or meet specific accuracy standards, or to do things within a certain amount of time. These criteria (speed, accuracy, quantity) often become the

standards. They tell the student how well and how fast he or she must complete the task. This should be presented to the students as part of the training objective's.

During the course we go more into developing training objectives. and the tools available for you to use to reach your goal of writing training objectives.

Criterion, standards -- minimum acceptable level

Question: What level of achievement is the learner expected to demonstrate?

Fundamental Rule of Thumb: Objectives must be measurable and observable

Defining Learning Objectives

Learning objectives measure behaviors and anticipated outcomes as a result of some kind of instruction. Whether you are teaching in a classroom, or training staff to do a particular task on an assembly line, learning objectives set a standard for the level of competence expected.

Organizing Tasks:

Before you write out the learning objectives or determine a level of competence, consider your training needs. Review the worksheet you did for analyzing training requirements. What specific tasks did you list? Rank them in order of importance and ask the following questions:

- What do I want the learners to KNOW before the training session?
- What do I WANT them to know after the training session?
- What will they LEARN as a result of the training?

Writing Learning Objectives:

One way to think about writing learning objectives is a mnemonic device called “The A (audience), B (behaviors), C (conditions), D’s (degree) of Writing Objectives.”

Here’s

what it looks like in practice:

Condition: Given the Dewey Decimal classification list,

Audience: the student workers will be able to

Behaviors:

1. Recognize a Dewey call number
2. Organize books in call number order
3. Shelf-Read for proper arrangement of books
4. Re-Organize misshelved books

Degree: with 95% accuracy

Conditions = always written first

Under what circumstances will the learning take place? In this training session, the learner will be given the Dewey Decimal classification list to learn the order of shelving books.

Audience = second part of the objective – but the most important!

Who are you addressing in this training session? What are the individual learning needs – as well as any group needs?

Behaviors = third part of the objective.

What will be demonstrated to show that the training was successful?

Degree = forth part of the objective.

What is the expected level of accomplishment? Why not shoot for 100% accuracy? While that is ideal . . . we need to account for human error. We are not perfect – some days are better than other days. Try to be as realistic as possible with the degree of competence. You don't want to aim too low, but you want the tasks to allow for a margin of error and improvement.

Actions Speak Louder Than Words

In this particular example of a learning objective, the verbs *recognize*, *organize*, *shelf-read*, and *re-organize* represent activities and behaviors that are measurable. Often, when writing learning objectives, we are tempted to use the words “understand” or “appreciate” to say what the learner will be able to do. These are vague terms and not easily measurable. For the most effective assessment of the learning experience, use only measurable action verbs that clearly describe what you expect from the learner.

Learning Objectives should:

- State performance expectations (the degree or level of competence)
- Measure specific behaviors with action verbs

Behavioral objectives

Behavioral objectives, learning objectives, instructional objectives, and performance objectives are terms that refer to descriptions of observable student behavior or performance that are used to make judgments about learning. At some point, almost every teacher, especially new teachers and teacher education students, must learn to write these types of objectives. Here, such objectives are referred to as behavioral objectives. Acquiring this skill is something of a rite of passage in the process of becoming a teacher, yet it is a skill that requires practice, feedback, and experience. Over the past 30 years or so, the emphasis on, and attention paid to

behavioral objectives has waxed and waned as different ideas change about how best to express instructional intent. To clarify a bit, I have included a rationale for developing and using behavioral objectives that provides in-depth information that you might find helpful. Any skill is learned more effectively if the learner understands the reason for learning and practicing it. Learning to compose behavioral objectives is not exception.

Behavioral objectives are about curriculum, not instruction. This is a key point. Many tend to confuse behavioral objectives with objectives a teacher may have that relate to student conduct or behavior in a classroom. Behavioral objectives are learning objectives; they specify what behavior a student must demonstrate or perform in order for a teacher to infer that learning took place. Since learning cannot be seen directly, teachers must make inferences about learning from evidence they can see and measure. Behavioral objectives, if constructed properly, provide an ideal vehicle for making those inferences.

The purpose of a behavioral objective is to communicate. Therefore, a well-constructed behavioral objective should leave little room for doubt about what is intended. A well constructed behavioral objective describes an intended learning outcome and contains three parts, each of which alone means nothing, but when combined into a sentence or two, communicates the conditions under which the behavior is performed, a verb that defines the behavior itself, and the degree (criteria) to which a student must perform the behavior. If any one of these three components is missing, the objective cannot communicate accurately.

Therefore, the parts of a behavioral objective are:

1. Conditions (a statement that describes the conditions under which the behavior is to be performed)
2. Behavioral Verb (an action word that connotes an observable student behavior)
3. Criteria (a statement that specifies how well the student must perform the behavior).

A behavioral objective is the focal point of a lesson plan. It is a description of an intended learning outcome and is the basis for the rest of the lesson. It provides criteria for constructing an assessment for the lesson, as well as for the instructional procedures the teacher designs to implement the lesson. A behavioral objective determines the criteria for any assessment rubric. As you will see, without a behavioral objective, it is difficult, if not impossible to determine exactly what a particular lesson is supposed to accomplish.

In order to write behavioral objectives, one should begin with an understanding of the particular content to which the objectives will relate. Understanding in more than one way the content to be learned should be a goal of teachers as well as students. This implies that teachers or others who prepare objectives as part of lesson plans or curriculum documents and guides should have more than superficial knowledge of the appropriate content. Writing a series of objectives that are within a body of content, but which have neither internal nor external consistency with that body of content is not a productive use of time. However, the purpose of this is not to delve into the area of curriculum consistency, but rather present some pointers to help the reader write better objectives. So, with that in mind, let's begin.

1. The Conditions

The conditions part of an objective specify the circumstances, commands, materials, directions, etc., that the student is given to initiate the behavior. All behavior relevant to intended student learning outcomes can best be understood within a context of the conditions under which the behavior is to be performed or demonstrated. The conditions part of an objective usually begins with a simple declarative statement such as the following:

Upon request the student will (this means the student is given an oral or written request to do something).

Given (some physical object) the student will (this means the student is actually given something, such as a map, a number or multiplication problems, a literary passage, etc., that relates to performing the intended behavior).

Notice that in the examples above, there is no mention of the description of the instruction that precedes the initiation of the behavior. The instruction that leads to the behavior should never be included in the actual objective. Instruction that leads students to accomplishing an objective is a separate issue. Here, we want to concentrate on describing only the conditions under which the desired student behavior is to be performed.

2. The Verb

We all learned in elementary school that a verb is an action word. In a behavioral objective, the verb is also an action word, but it is also a special kind of action word. The verb in a behavioral objective is an action word that connotes an observable behavior. For example, although we as teachers all want our students to appreciate one thing or another, it is impossible to see when a student "appreciates" something. Understand is another noble word that connotes something we want our students to do, but we cannot see "understanding." The best we can do is make inferences that a student appreciates or understands something based on what the student does or says in a controlled situation.

What then are behavioral verbs? The answer is quite simple. A behavioral verb is a word that denotes an observable action, or the creation of an observable product. Verbs such as identify, name, and describe are behavioral because you can observe the act or product of identifying, naming, or describing. Some verbs are embedded in a phrase that gives them a specific behavioral meaning. Examples are state a rule and apply a rule. In this case the behavior is contextual, and the context is the rule in question.

3. The Criteria

The criteria part of a behavioral objective is a declarative statement that describes how well the behavior must be performed to satisfy the intent of the behavioral verb. Usually, criteria are expressed in some minimum number, or as what must be, as a minimum, included in a student response. For example, an objective might be of the form: Given a list of the first 100 numbers arranged in ascending order (conditions), the student will identify (verb) at least nine prime numbers (criteria).

Notice that the objective doesn't specify which nine numbers, and sets a floor of at least nine as a minimum. Also, the method by which the student identifies the minimum nine prime numbers is not specified; that is determined in the actual assessment. The student could circle the numbers, highlight them, draw line through them, etc. It is also implied that the student will be correct if he identifies more than nine correctly, but does not specify whether it is acceptable to identify nine correctly and one or more incorrectly. According to the objective, it would be acceptable to circle the following numbers and still meet the intent of the objective: 2-3-5-7-11-13-17-19-23-24-26, because he got nine correct, and two (24-26) incorrect. If the student must identify only prime numbers, then the objective would need to be modified to include that provision.

Putting it all together

Well-written behavioral objectives are the heart of any lesson plan. If the objectives you compose are "fuzzy" and difficult, if not impossible to assess, the rest of the lesson plan you create that is based on the objective is likely to be flawed. Before you begin to write an objective, spend a little time thinking about what you are describing, and remember to make the student behavior observable. You will find this process helps you to clarify what you intend, and you will be better able to communicate that intent to your students, regardless of their grade level, age, or subject. On the matter of being "fuzzy," remember this: fuzzy thinking might get you through the day, but it will never get you through a career.

Any time you write a behavioral objective, ask yourself the question, "Does this objective clearly communicate and describe the intended learning outcome?" If you can find exceptions or loopholes as a way of meeting the objective, then the objective should be rewritten. Learning to write behavioral objectives that describe what you want takes patience and practice. Make sure you get as much feedback as possible about your efforts. Toward that end, I sincerely hope this short explanation is helpful to you.

Defining SPIRO objectives

Defining the objectives can be seen as operationalising the different learning outcomes identified for a training activity. It should be noted, however, that this does not apply to all of the objectives that may be set for a particular activity. In discussing the types and levels of the learning outcomes, the focus was solely on individual development. In youth work (and in other fields where organisations undertake personnel training), normally two sets of objectives can be defined. The first set is composed of specific objectives on an individual level, outlining the benefits of the training for participants. The second set relates to the organisation that the individual participants belong to, and addresses the potential uses and influences of the learning in the organisation and its environment. If an aim of the course is the creation and motivation of multipliers, this second set of objectives becomes even more important.

This means that the designer of a training activity has two main tasks; translating the individual learning outcomes in training objectives, and secondly, creating objectives that address the organisational improvements that can be expected after participants start using their newly acquired knowledge. These are not easy tasks. The trainer needs a clear idea of what constitutes a training objective, and must formulate comprehensible and achievable ones. Importantly, these must be communicated to the participants as it allows them to negotiate their expectations with the goals of the training.

In our experience, the range of terms which are applied to objectives are counter-productive. Are they aims or objectives? Can we have both, and if so, what's the relationship between them? And what about goals? Or targets? And what happen when we try to translate these into other languages? Instead of getting dizzy, it is easier to see objectives as a set of statements, or projections, which you will try and achieve within the life of the training. The content of the box below suggests the main characteristics of an objective, and guidelines for evaluating them. This is a useful scheme, but there are others, and ultimately each trainer has to decide the format which is most productive for her.

SPIRO model for writing objectives

Specify	Objectives must be specific (what exactly are you going to do?)
Performance	Objectives must focus on high value results, not on activities (what do you intend to accomplish?)
Involvement	Those involved in implementation need to be involved in setting the objectives. (What is your part in the objectives?)
Realism	Objectives need to be realistic and rewarding. If they are too ambitious, they may lead to disappointment. Yet, objectives must also be challenging or there will be no pride in accomplishing them. (Can it be done given the resources available?)
Observable	Objectives need to be measurable or observable. (How will you know whether you have been successful as trainer?)

From: Pfeiffer J.W. & J.E. Jones (1972) (eds.)

Examples of objectives:

➤ *On an individual level (determined in relation to the learning outcomes)*

1. To enable participants to prepare, run and evaluate a project
2. To develop participants' skills in the areas of human rights education, leadership and program development, project management and intercultural learning
3. To increase participants knowledge and awareness of the values underlying European non-formal education
4. To increase the participants competence and motivation for dealing with intercultural learning in youth activities
5. To provide a basic overview of different concepts of training in non-formal education

6. To support participants in assessing their own training needs and in learning from their own experiences
- To develop participant's management and leadership skills
- *On an organisational level (larger environment)*
- To contribute to a marked improvement of communication patterns in the participants' organisations
 - To foster the development of innovative local youth projects on participation and citizenship by the participants in their own organisations and environments

Developing objectives and learning outcomes and relating them to assessment

Aim = general statement of intent

Objectives = 1. known 2. real 3. tangible 4. visible 5. that to which action or feeling is directed 6. purpose aimed at

Outcomes = 1. result 2. effect 3. development 4. emanative

Learning Outcomes = observable behaviours indicating student learning and competencies

Writing Objectives

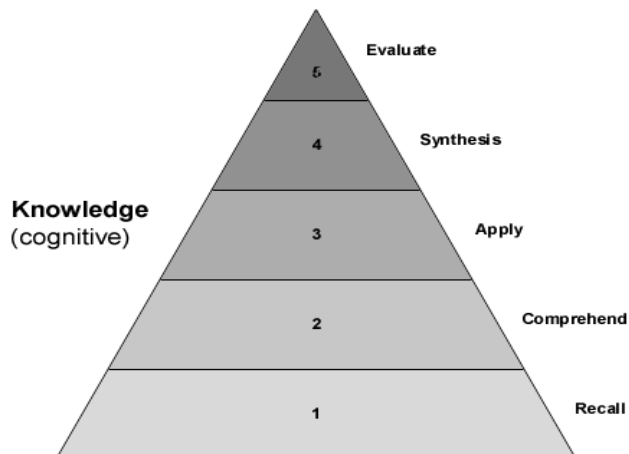
There are various ways of writing objectives. Besides referring to themes, you might also classify according to educational domains. The three groups of domains identified by educational psychologist, Benjamin Bloom are commonly used to group objectives and learning outcomes. These are:

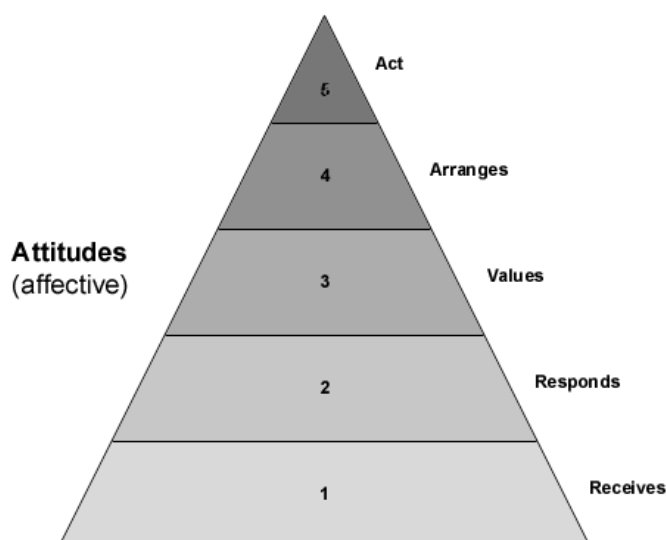
- Cognitive domain – encompasses intellectual or thinking skills (Termed Knowledge Objectives)
- Psychomotor domain – encompasses physical skills or the performance of actions. (Termed Skills Objectives)
- Affective domain – encompasses attitudes and values (Termed Attitudes Objectives)

Levels of objective writing

Within each Domain there are several levels you may wish to specify in your objectives writing. This will depend upon the extent of detail that is required in the curriculum and

what you know about the learning style and readiness of the students.





In each Domain, Bloom identified several levels, each with a list of suitable verbs for describing that level in written objectives. The following table describes the cognitive domain, and levels are arranged from the least complex levels of thinking to the most complex levels of thinking.

Cognitive domain	
Level and Meaning	Use these words in written objectives to describe the associated cognitive level:
Knowledge: The remembering of previously learned material (recall of facts)	define, distinguish, identify, inquire, label, list, match, memorise, name, read, recall, recognize, relate, repeat, record, select
Comprehension: The ability to grasp the meaning of the knowledge being learned	associate, describe, differentiate, discuss, explain, extend, generalise, give examples, illustrate, infer, interpret locate, rearrange, reorder, restate, rewrite, summarize, transform, translate
Application: The ability to use learning materials in a new way	apply, calculate, choose, classify, demonstrate, develop, generalize, illustrate, operate, organize, practise, restructure, sketch, solve, transfer, use

Analysis: The ability to break material down into its parts so that its organizational structure may be understood	analyse, categorize, classify, compare, contrast, deduce, describe, detect, diagram, discriminate, differentiate, distinguish, experiment, group, inspect, point out, put into lists, question, sub-divide, test
Synthesis: The ability to combine previous experiences with new material to form a whole new structure	combine, compile, create, design, generate, integrate, modify, plan, produce, propose, solve
Evaluation: The ability to judge the value of material for a given purpose	appraise, assess, choose, compare, conclude, consider, criticize, evaluate, judge, measure, rate, score, select, support, validate, value

(Source: Bloom, B., *Taxonomy of Educational Objectives*, 1956)

Knowledge of terminology; specific facts; ways and means of dealing with specifics (conventions, trends and sequences, classifications and categories, criteria, methodology); universals and abstractions in a field (principles and generalizations, theories and structures):

Knowledge is (here) defined as the remembering (recalling) of appropriate, previously learned information.

Comprehension: Grasping (understanding) the meaning of informational materials.

Application: The use of previously learned information in new and concrete situations to solve problems that have single or best answers.

Analysis: The breaking down of informational materials into their component parts, examining (and trying to understand the organizational structure of) such information to develop divergent conclusions by identifying motives or causes, making inferences, and/or finding evidence to support generalizations.

Synthesis: Creatively or divergently applying prior knowledge and skills to produce a new or original whole.

Evaluation: Judging the value of material based on personal values/opinions, resulting in an end product, with a given purpose, without real right or wrong answers.

A variety of cognitive levels should be represented in the objectives.

Some objectives should deal with *facts*, some with *concepts* and some with the *application* of the information. Assuming that the objectives are well written, this will also lead to exam questions that address a variety of cognitive levels.

Using Bloom's Taxonomy of Cognitive Levels for grouping objectives, the following provides some examples of how you might use these for assessment purposes:

Knowledge – Can students RECALL information?

Who, What, Where, When, How	Which one
How much	Name
Describe	Label
Define	List
Memorise	Reproduce
Literal questions	Recall

Comprehension – Can students EXPLAIN ideas?

Explain	What are they saying
Describe in your own words	Explain what is happening
Inferential questions	Give an example
Summarise	State in 5 words
What would go better	Explain what is meant
Select the definition	What restriction would you add
Read the graph table	Translate
This represents	Outline
Condense this paragraph	Locate
What part doesn't fit	Match

Application – Can students USE ideas?

What is this used for?	How would you use
Make a model	Tell what would happen
If...how	Demonstrate how
Construct how	Show how
How much would there be if...	Design a lesson
Choose the statements that don't apply	

Analysis – Do students SEE relationships?

Whole into parts	Analyse, Research, Survey
Group, Categorise, Compare and Contrast	What inconsistencies, fallacies
Arrange	What is the relationship
Chart	What is the function of
Diagram	What conclusions
Reason for...	What does the author believe
Investigate	Make a distinction
Cause for	What motive is there
Conclude	State the point of view
Separate	What relationship
Similar	Graph
Like	Differentiate
Dissect	Categorize
Distinguish fact from fiction, fact and inference, disadvantage from poor reason	fact from opinion, advantage from What persuasive technique

Synthesis – Can students combine ideas and CREATE a new entity?

New ways of doing	Take risks
Consider the unexpected	Pose an alternative
Hypothesis	create

Compose	Solve
Design	Blend
Construct	How else would you
Build	Combine
Solve the following	Imagine
Plan	Predict
Link concepts in an unusual and flexible way	Make
What if	Make a film
Invent	Propose an alternative

Evaluation – Can students make JUDGEMENTS and support them?

Evaluate quality, relevance, reliability, truth	Which is best
Accuracy and effectiveness	Choose and explain why
Rate	Rank
Defend	Choose
Grade	Order
Verify	Dispute
Criticise	Defend
Find the errors	Editorialise
Appraise	Judge
What fallacies, consistencies, inconsistencies appear	
Which is more important, better, moral, appropriate, inappropriate, useful, clearer, suits the purpose, achieves the goal, logical, valid	

Stating objectives clearly

In order for objectives to provide a useful basis for creating test questions, they must contain verbs that describe *observable, measurable, achievable* actions and *specific levels of thinking*, because these are things that can be tested. The words in the left of the table below are difficult to assess, to recognise whether the objective has been achieved.

<i>Avoid words like.....</i>	<i>Use words like.....</i>
Know	List
Understand	Describe, explain
Be familiar with	Evaluate
Appreciate	Identify
Be aware of	Design
Have a good grasp of	Explain
Have a knowledge of	Select
Realise the significance of	Distinguish
Believe	Construct
Be interested in	Solve

Steps in writing objectives

Review existing course aims, objectives, literature, course documents and reports to benchmark appropriate standards required for objectives writing.

1. Identify professional attributes of ideal graduating students
 2. Deduce learning outcomes
 3. Assign priority to the course themes
 4. Assign priority to learning levels (knowledge, skills, attitudes).
 5. Agree on a basic educational philosophy which captures preferred teaching methodologies and assessment approaches
- Establish ways of measuring attainment of objectives/learning outcomes via the selection of appropriate assessment tools
 - Review the appropriateness of objectives and their correlation with what is taught and assessed.

Specific Objectives

Learning Outcomes are specific objectives which provide greater detail about the learning expected to occur, and are often used for a particular teaching session. The number of learning outcomes will vary for each teaching session

The following example of Learning Outcomes for Obstetrics and Gynaecology, Year 5, relates to a clinical attachment where the emphasis is primarily on diagnosis and management. Here the specific learning outcomes are related to themes.

Checking the quality of objectives

2. Do objectives reflect appropriately all the intended outcomes and do they sit well with the present state of knowledge of the students?
1. Are they observable and measurable and the outcomes clearly defined to a specified standard or set of conditions?
1. Are they attainable by intended learners and in the time available?
1. Do they reflect the course and curriculum aims?

Remember, objectives should:

1. define specific outcomes or competencies to be achieved in terms of skills, content mastery, attitudes or values
2. form the basis upon which to select or design instruction materials, content or techniques
3. provide the basis for determining or assessing when the instruction purpose has been accomplished
4. provide a framework within which learners can organize their efforts to complete the learning tasks

Well written Objectives and Learning Outcomes:

- Are carefully worded to include standards, conditions and terms which must be met.

Criteria/standards:
- defined levels of accuracy,
quality, quantity, time constraints

- include special conditions that apply to the actual activity that the learner will perform

Performance:
the learner will..(verb)...

- specify the degree of accuracy or proficiency that the learner must meet.

Conditions:
given “x”.... without “y “

What are learning outcomes and how are they different from Course Objectives ?

Those of us who have always written course objectives beginning with appropriate verbs, at appropriate cognitive levels and that describe desirable behaviour which can be measured, are somewhat at a loss to understand what is so new about “Learning Outcomes”. Learning Outcomes are written in such a way that they consider the effectiveness of the learning that has taken place, and attempts to measure whether objectives have been attained (by qualifying and quantifying). Take for example, an objective such as:

“To develop students’ communications skills” which would be insufficiently precise as a basis of determining whether students had, or had not, achieved the objective. A more appropriate objective might be

“To enable students to write accurate laboratory reports that conform to the conventions of the subject.”

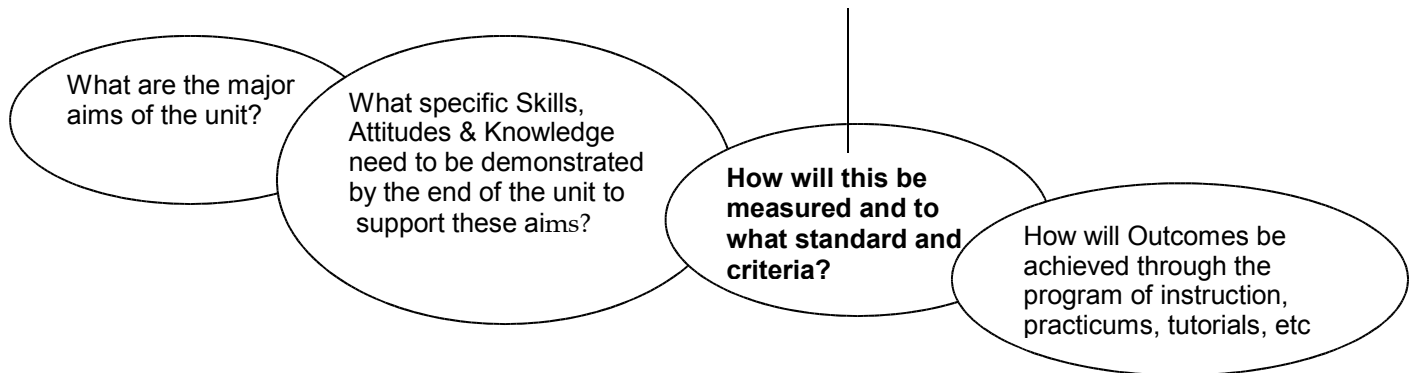
What has been presented here is an example of a Learning Outcome because, unlike the original objective, it indicates how well the actual and anticipated outcome will be measured.

Build into your objectives a list of indicators that consider the effectiveness of the learning that you anticipate will take place, in other words the standard of performance. Then you can call your objectives “Learning Outcomes”.

How to write learning outcomes ?

Like Objectives, Learning Outcomes should be written in clear language in the future tense. identify important learning requirements and be able to be assessed.

There must be agreement on pre-defined criteria or conditions to ensure that learners have achieved the appropriate standard in each of the outcomes. Expected standards of performance must be clearly specified in the wording of the Learning Outcome.



It's all in the Design: Eight Steps to Planning an Effective Training Event

"...the 'good' trainer...is one who has a good design and knows how to use it."
(Showers, Joyce, and Bennett, 1997)

What is a training design?

A training design is a blueprint for a training event or experience. It is a detailed plan for what you will do, why you will be doing it, and the best ways to reach your training objectives. This document offers an eight-step model for designing an effective training event that meets the needs of participants and trainers alike. This model includes the following eight steps:

- Step 1. Define purpose of the training and target audience
- Step 2. Determine participants' needs
- Step 3. Define training goals and objectives
- Step 4. Outline training content
- Step 5. Develop instructional activities
- Step 6. Prepare the written training design
- Step 7. Prepare participant evaluation form(s)
- Step 8. Determine follow-up activities for the event

Each of these steps can be applied to a variety of training formats, including face-to-face, online-, and interactive, satellite-based trainings.

Step 1. Define Purpose of the Training and Target Audience

The first step to designing a training is to become clear about what your training needs to accomplish. For some trainings your purpose and audience will be clear-determined by funders or well-established professional development needs. At other times, you may need to sort through and prioritize a spectrum of training needs before determining a training focus. Once you have a clear sense of the training's purpose and target audience, write it down! Then use this description to promote your program to prospective participants.

Step 2. Determine Participants' Needs

The specific needs of training participants will influence the development of learning objectives and guide the choice of activities and training strategies. The more you know about participants, the greater the likelihood you will design a training event that will be meaningful to them. There are several ways to find out about the needs and expectations of training participants:

- Have all participants complete a brief, written survey as part of their registration packet. This will allow you to collect general information from all participants.
- Survey a random sample of registrants by phone. This will allow you to collect detailed information from a few participants.
- Review evaluation and feedback forms from past-related training events.

You will want to collect the following participant information:

- current roles and responsibilities
- previous training on this topic
- reasons for attendance
- specific needs and expectations for the event

Conduct the needs assessment early enough to use the information that you collect in designing your training!

Step 3. Define Training Goals and Objectives

After assessing the needs and expectations of the participants, you are ready to define the goals and objectives for the training. Clearly defined goals and objectives provide criteria for:

- clarifying expected outcomes
- outlining training content

- planning specific training activities
- selecting/developing materials
- designing evaluation procedures
- communicating program intent to the training participants and others (such as program administrators and supervisors)
- ensuring that the training is realistic and appropriate for the purpose intended

A training goal should be broad, spelling out who will be affected and what will change as a result of the training.

Sample goal: To increase knowledge of HIV/AIDS among health educators in Philadelphia

Objectives are more precise, specifying a path for achieving the program goal (s). They should state as specifically as possible the after-training result that you are trying to achieve, including what will change, who will change, under what conditions, and to what extent.

Sample Objective: By the end of the training, participants will be able to identify three ways that HIV is transmitted.

Sample Objective: By the end of the training, participants will be able to list five ways to decrease the risk of becoming infected with HIV.

When developing your objectives, ask yourself what you want participants to know, say, and be able to do after leaving the training, and/or what actions you'd like them to take. Then follow these steps, adapted from Jeary and Gerold's *Training Other People to Train: A Workshop on Training Adult Learners* (1999):

8. List the ways you would like the training to benefit participants-desired outcomes.
9. Work these desired outcomes into written objectives, keeping in mind that participants want practical, usable knowledge.
10. Check your objectives from the perspective of the training participants. Will this objective meet their needs? Will it help you meet your training goal(s)?
11. Set training priorities. Rank objectives according to their importance, recognizing that you may not be able to address all of them during one training session.

Remember to develop both overall objectives (for the entire training session) and separate objectives for each segment and/or day of the training workshop. Present the objectives to participants at the start of each segment and/or day. Having a clear direction helps to frame the segment and/or day.

Step 4. Outline Training Content

Most trainings are divided into three key segments: an introduction, a learning component, and a wrap-up and evaluation component.

Introduction. The introduction establishes a positive learning environment. Opening activities should stimulate interest and enthusiasm about the training, reduce anxiety among participants, and build community. It's important to build some content into introductory activities, so that participants experience these activities as meaningful. Nonetheless, the development of group rapport can't be rushed, so make sure to allow time for participants to become comfortable with one another.

Learning component. This is the body of the program. During this part of the program, participants engage in activities designed to accomplish the training objectives. Concepts and ideas are taught and explored, attitudes are examined, resources are shared, and teaching strategies and skills are demonstrated, practiced, and discussed. To be most effective, activities should actively involve participants in acquiring knowledge or practicing skills. Step 5 offers detailed information about designing learning activities.

Wrap-up and evaluation segment. This segment should help bridge the gap between training and implementation and promote a positive feeling of closure. It is your opportunity to "pull it all together": highlight essential learnings, summarize central concepts and themes, and describe next steps. Participants should also have an opportunity to ask questions, discuss concerns, and provide feedback to the trainers. Finally, it is helpful to review the group's expectations and identify resources to help satisfy those that have not been met. (Keep in mind that multi-day training events will need a brief introduction component and wrap-up component each day.)

Once you have established your priorities and begun to organize the training, create a rough training outline. Consider the following "rules of thumb":

- Block out the time schedule into large chunks. Fill in "known" elements-such as meals and breaks-followed by specific activities. Finally, assign a designated amount of time to each activity.
- Start with simple concepts and proceed to ones that are more complex.
- Proceed from topics that are less "threatening" to ones that may be more sensitive in nature.

Schedule activities which require the greatest concentration during times when people will be focused and energetic- such as first thing in the morning-and interactive sessions during low energy times-such as right after lunch.

Give yourself-and the participants-a break! Build into your training design at least one 10-15 minute break in the morning and afternoon. Provide enough time for lunch.

Build in time for reflection, discussion, and for questions and answers.

During a multi-day event, allow time at the beginning of each day to introduce the day's events, bridge one day to the next, discuss comments or questions, and make general announcements.

Schedule 8-10 minutes at the end of each day for feedback, announcements, and to provide closure to the day's activities.

Review your plan with a critical eye. You may need to reduce the number of objectives you plan to address if you really want learning to take place.

Be flexible! Although your design is a detailed road map, you may encounter detours along the way. The best training design not only accomplishes the objectives of the training, but also meets the emergent needs of participants.

Remember! Always return to your stated objectives and outcomes to guide program content and remind you of your purpose. It's easy to go astray!

Step 5. Develop Instructional Activities

Developing a training design consists of organizing learning activities so that outcomes identified by your objectives are achieved. Each activity should have an introduction, a main segment, and a wrap-up segment, paralleling the overall structure of the training session. During the introduction, provide a brief description of the purpose and content of the activity and develop a connection between the activity and the one that preceded it. Make sure that activities flow logically from one to the next.

As you develop activities, select training strategies that are most likely to help you meet your objectives. For example, skill development is best achieved through modeling, practice, and feedback, while information acquisition can be achieved through group discussion or collaborative group work. Keep in mind that people learn in a variety of ways: some learn best by listening, others by reading, and most by doing. An effective training design incorporates a variety of training strategies, taking into account:

- participant learning style
- principles of adult learning
- group size
- prior experience and/or education level of participants
- type of skill or information to be presented
- trainer's style

Some strategies that promote active learning include brainstorming, games, mini-lectures, small group work, cooperative group work, simulations, role-playing, and case studies.

When deciding which activities to use, consider these questions:

- Do we know that this activity is effective?
- Have we used it before? Are we comfortable with this technique? Do we have the expertise to use it effectively?
- Does the activity require prior knowledge or skills on the part of participants?
- Will we have the time, space, and resources needed to accomplish the activity?
- Will the activity encourage learning without confusing participants?

Make sure that each activity includes a wrap-up component that brings closure by reviewing concepts, answering questions, and discussing applications. As part of your wrap-up, you may consider posing questions like: What will you do as a result of...? What major themes emerged? or What is your response to...?

Finally, decide on the amount of time you will need to carry out each activity and to achieve your objectives. It's better to drop an objective than to rush through

activities and frustrate participants or make yourself work at an unreasonable pace!

Remember that you will also need to develop resource materials to support these activities! These may include handouts, case studies, bibliographies, or questionnaires. Leave adequate time to draft the materials, obtain feedback, and make necessary revisions.

Step 6. Prepare the Written Training Design

Create a written document that provides a detailed plan of the training session, including your goals and objectives; the sequence of specific learning activities and time allotted to each; directions and key points to cover during each activity; and the trainer who will be responsible for the activity.

Consider the skill, expertise, training style, and comfort level of each of your trainers in making this designation. Also consider identifying specific trainers who will take the lead in "fleshing out" different sections of the training and creating the necessary supporting materials. A sample training design is included in Appendix C.

Use your written training design to stay on track during the training event, make mid-course corrections, and document training details.

Step 7. Prepare Participant Evaluation Forms

The purpose of the evaluation is to determine the extent to which the training achieved its objectives and to identify what adjustments, if any, need to be made to the training design or follow-up process. Some issues to address through the evaluation form:

- Did the participants acquire the knowledge and skills that the training was supposed to provide?
- Were the trainers knowledgeable about training content?
- Were the activities interesting and effective?
- Was the training format appropriate?
- Is more training on this or related topics needed to support participants in their work?

During a multi-day training, have participants complete an evaluation form at the end of each day and a summary evaluation at the end of the training. Trainers should review the evaluation feedback immediately and, if necessary, modify the training agenda for the remainder of the training. A sample evaluation form is included in Appendix D.

Step 8. Determine Follow-up Activities for the Event

Without follow-up, the benefits of training may quickly be forgotten or never used. Follow-up activities provide the continued support and feedback necessary for the successful implementation of new ideas and practices. To be effective, follow-up activities should be planned as you develop your training design, and should include a

range of opportunities for participants to reflect on both the content of what they learned during the training and the process of implementation. Some follow-up strategies which have been shown to improve the adoption of new training practices include:

- Newsletters and Web site postings;
- Peer observation and coaching, in which individuals observe one another performing a newly acquired skill, then meet to discuss and reflect on their observations;
- Mentoring, in which individuals receive on-site, personal support and technical assistance from someone with experience in the method being learned;
- Study groups, in which individuals meet regularly to support one another during the implementation of a new idea or practice;
- Booster sessions, in which training participants are brought together two to three months after the training event to reinforce the knowledge and skills acquired during the training;
- Ongoing communication between participants and trainers via phone or electronic mail

Keep in mind that some follow-up activities require more resources than others, but may increase the likelihood that significant learning will occur.

Professional development includes a broad spectrum of ongoing activities designed to enhance the professional knowledge, skills, and attitudes of educators so that they might, in turn, improve the learning of others. Training events can be effective ways to share ideas and information with large groups of educators, particularly when supplemented by well thought out follow-up activities. However, the success of these events depends on a well-developed and executed training design.

Implementation

How to implement the design...

One of the key aspects in the implementation of a design is the way in which it gets done. It can influence all other aspects of the session, the way in which the participants perceive it. It is the essence of making the session efficient and therefore of obtaining the expected outcomes.

Since most of the training session include some kind of presentation, we have included in this brochure some practical advices about how you can influence your presentation from the point of view of communicating with the participants, in terms of verbal and nonverbal communication.

Verbal expression

Tonality

After speaking for a while, if there are no variations in the tonality of your voice, it will become monotonous. Try to speak naturally, don't use the same tonality in your voice.

Rhythm

The presentation doesn't have to be made too slowly because it can irritate the audience, but not too fast either, because the participants need to assimilate the new information. Speak clearly. Speed up or slow down the rhythm depending on the context.

For the most important messages, a slower rhythm would be more appropriate.

Break

Use breaks to underline ideas and also for separating the different sections of your presentation. It will help the audience understanding your message. It is also advisable for not getting in situation when you need to catch your breath. .

Volume

May be also used in order to underline ideas. Speak up and speak clearly, but don't shout. Be careful: if the participants need to make an effort in order to hear you, they won't do it.

Nonverbal expression

The nonverbal communication of the trainer with the audience, the so-called “body language” has a big contribution to the way in which a person communicates. The following elements are very important:

Presence

First impressions have the greatest impact. The participants react to the physical presence of the trainer, and this reactions reaction can influence whether the presentation is “accepted” or “rejected”. The presence should relieve openness, self-confidence...

Visual contact

The visual contact is essential. It establishes a relationship with the participants. Their learning process is stimulated when feeling involved. In small groups this can even instantly produce feed-back. Be careful: all the audience must be involved, don't just focus on one or two persons.

Gestures

Include the expression of your face. Smile to the audience. Use natural gestures, opened gestures, in order to underline certain things. Avoid theatrical, extravagant gestures.

Effective materials

This following section deals with a very practical aspect of implementation, the effective preparation of the materials which will be used during the training sessions. More precisely it will especially focus on organising the printed materials in order to make them more attractive, more efficient and functional.

Training Manuals Types

Primarily written material, training manuals can be effectively used in a more formal training situation as well as a reference or point of information source. Training manuals consist of several types of materials. These are:

Workbooks - often used in a more formal training session, a workbook provides background information, examples, and exercises.

Self-paced guides - are meant for learners to use on their own time or as they have time to learn. Self-paced guides need to be an encapsulated instructional session.

Reference manuals - meant for highly detailed and technical directions and information.

Handouts - also used in more formal training session, usually provide general knowledge, exercises, or examples.

Job aids/pathfinders - can be used in conjunction with workbooks and handouts, most often used as a resource for on the job and provides specific step-by-step instructions on how to do a process.

Training manuals are important training aids to consider, particularly if you want to:

1. Have learners use the information at a later time (during the training or after the training.)
2. Allow learners to absorb information at their own pace
3. Eliminate the need for learners to memorize or take notes

Purpose of the training materials

Understanding the audience – coupled with knowing how the materials are likely to be used – simplifies effective content and design choices. Form follows function. Think of menus – their primary purpose is to list and describe the food choices for the designated restaurant. Their secondary purpose is to promote the image and atmosphere of the restaurant. Diners handle the menus repeatedly, so typically they are sturdy, either by laminating or thick binding or both.

They are sectioned into appetizers, entrees, beverages, and desserts. They may even provide pictures to promote certain dishes. Identifying which instructional material(s) you are going to use is important because they need to support and be relevant to your objectives and overall goal. As well as carry out or support the strategies you have selected. The look and feel of materials must support the learning objectives, be audience friendly, and be physically built to last through their intended use. Some of the common mistakes made when using instructional aids, are:

- too much information is included or provided
- the information is not relevant

- not enough information is included or provided

One of the first things you need to think about and decide is, 'what do you want your print manual to do and be.' One thing to keep in mind is that if the print manual never gets used in the instructional setting, it was a waste of your time developing it.

Content Consideration

There are many components that play into what content should be included. The purpose of the materials greatly influences the content, as do the objectives. This is a practical list of "Do"s and "Don't"s

- Do Don't Be specific
- Do Don't Use the words You and I
- Do Don't Use the active voice
- Do Don't Stereotype people by gender, age, ethnic group, religion, or culture
- Do Don't Use simple, adult vocabulary
- Do Don't Be positive
- Do Don't Tell why a person should take or avoid an action
- Do Don't Use clichés
- Do Don't Consider the legal implications of your subject matter
- Do Don't Use humor sparingly and cautiously
- Do Don't Use gender-neutral terms
- Do Don't Spell out or explain abbreviations, initials, and acronyms
- Do Don't Use technical jargon
- Do Don't Use appropriate terms to accommodate the cultural mix of the audience
- Do Don't Repeat words and similar phrases
- Do Don't Misspell

Graphic Design & Layout Principles

One of the hardest things about creating training aids is making them look interesting enough for learners to want to use them or be motivated by them. By using some general graphic design and layout "rules of thumb" most training aids can be made to look interesting and still effectively convey the appropriate information.

Proximity

Group related items together so they appear to be a cohesive unit. This is a visual clue of what is related and what isn't. The basic purpose of proximity is to organize. Other principles come into play as well, but simply grouping related elements together into closer proximity automatically creates organization. You should be able to follow a logical progression through the piece, from a definite beginning to a definite end. Be aware of where your eye is going:

- 1) Where do you start looking
- 2) What path do you follow
- 3) Where do you end up
- 4) After you've read, where does your eye go next?

How to get it

- Squint your eyes slightly and count the number of visual element on the page by counting the number of times your eye stops.
- Identify which of these elements can be grouped together
- Put related items physically close to each other
- Keep unrelated items apart from each other
- Don't be afraid of white space, use it to enhance visual clues

What to avoid

- Avoid too many separate elements on a page.
- Don't stick things in the corners and in the middle.
- Avoid leaving equal amounts of white space between elements unless each groups is part of a subset.
- Avoid even a split second of confusion over whether a headline, a subhead, a caption, a graphic, etc belongs what its related material. Create a relations ship among elements with close proximity.
- Don't create relationships with elements that don't belong together! If they are not *related*, move them apart from each other.

Alignment

How text and graphics are aligned can either help or hinder the learner. The basic purpose of alignment is to unify and organize the page. Nothing should be placed on the page arbitrarily. Every element should have some visual connection with another element on the page. All the elements on the page need to appear unified, connected, and interrelated. Each element can have this with related elements simply by their placement.

How to get it

- Be conscious of where you place elements
- Always find something else on the page to align with, even if the two objects are physically far away from each other.
- Keep the left edges of text flush and same distance from the edge of the paper
- Align graphics vertically along the same edge

What to avoid

- f. Avoid using more than one text alignment on the page (don't cemtne some text and right-align other text).
- i) Avoid centred alignment unless you are consciously trying to create a more formal, sedate (boring?) presentation. Choose a centred alignment consciously, not by default.

Repetition/Consistency

Consistency in graphics, headings, etc. helps the learners to visually identify where they are. It is most important for instructional materials of 2 or more pages or part of a series. The basic purpose of repetition is to unify and to add visual interest.

Don't underestimate the visual interest of a page - if a piece looks interesting, it is more likely to be read. Repetition also helps link elements that are apart from each other.

How to get it

Think of repetition as being consistent,
Turn consistent elements into part of the conscious graphic design
Page numbers are always in the same place and look the same
Use the same graphic identifiers throughout the document
Heading fonts are the same size and style

What to avoid

- Avoid repeating the element so much that it becomes annoying or overwhelming.

Contrast

This is essential to visually lead the learner from one section to another. The basic purpose of contrast is two-fold, and both purposes are connected to each other. One, create an interest on the page. Two, aid in the organization of the information. A reader should be able to instantly understand the way the information is organized, to see the logical flow from one item to another. For contrast to be effective, the two elements must be very different.

How to get it

- Add contrast through your typeface choices, line thickness, colours, shapes, sizes, space, etc.
- Create a strong contrast
- Use large and small fonts sizes
- Use a different font for headings
- Visually display information when ever possible

What to avoid

- Don't be a wimp. If you're going to contrast, do it with strength.
- Avoid contrasting a sort-of-heavy line with a sort-of heavier line.
- Avoid contrasting brown text with black headlines.
- Avoid using two or more typefaces that are similar
- Avoid using more than 2 or 3 font types with in the same training aid
- Avoid excessive use of italics, underlining, and all caps - it is difficult to read

About typing

Type is the basic building block of any printed page. It is not uncommon for beginner designers to use multiple fonts for a document. While it is generally recommended to use a maximum of two to three fonts for one document, sometimes it is necessary to use more. In that case, how often and why should be always be in the forefront of the designers mind.

Fonts may come in italic, bold, light, heavy, expanded, or condensed versions. For instructional materials, use a font in the 12-point range, although titles, heading, and even subheadings should be larger. Different fonts have different associations. Imagine the menu of an expensive, upper-class restaurant. You probably envisioned an old European font. Think of the menu of a new, hip restaurant. You are likely to have pictured a decorative font for the header and a sans serif font for the text.

Type can have three types of relationships:

- Concordant When one type family is used often without significant variety in style, size, weight, etc. The affect is harmonious, quiet, sedate, and normal (can be quite boring, too!)
- Conflicting When you combine typefaces that are similar in style, size, and weight. This similarity conflicts because the type is not the same (concordant), nor is it different (contrasting).
- Contrasting When you combine separate typefaces and elements that are clearly distinct from each other. Most designs that attract your attention typically have a lot of contrast built in, and the contrasts are emphasized.

Keep in mind when implementing a training session

The succesful implementation of a training session depends a lot on how well the trainer organises it. This next session deals with detailing some elements which one should keep in mind when organising and implementing a training session. They are related to: Logistic Apects, Contextualisation, Effectiveness, Proffesional aspects, Agenda.

Logistical Aspects

In preparing for the Logistical aspects of a training you have to think about four things:

- | | |
|----------------------------|--|
| 1. Contracts | Negotiated Terms of Reference |
| 2. Administrative Support | Timetabling; Invitations; Clerical & Purchasing Assistance |
| 3. Venue | Utilities, furniture, equipment |
| 4. Materials and Equipment | For preparation & for the training itself |

Contracts

Someone will have called for the training to be done. It is useful to know what they are expecting of the trainer. Are they expecting research, materials production, running workshops and/or follow up? What time frame is being considered? How much money is there available for producing materials, pay for training costs and participants feeding and travel costs and to pay the trainer?

It is useful to negotiate the trainer's Terms of Reference (ToR) which set out in some detail exactly what the trainer is expected to do and/or produce, to what standard, by when, and at what cost.

Administrative Support

If the trainer is external to the organisation then she will need to know how much administrative support she can expect.

- Who can she call upon for day to day advice and support?
- Who is responsible for setting the timetable of events and for sending invitations?
- Who deals with feeding and accommodation and with reimbursing travelling expenses of participants?

Is clerical support available and if so how much and from whom eg stationery supplies, typing, photocopying, collating and binding, purchasing materials and equipment needed for workshops?

Venue

The training will take place in a building. Some buildings are more appropriate than others. Here is a checklist of things to think about:

Heating	does it exist & who is responsible for turning it on?
Lighting	is this adequate and are there blackout facilities if you need to show a film?
Electricity	where are the sockets, will you need an extension cable and adapter?
Furniture	are there enough chairs and tables and is it OK to shift them around?
Walls	is it OK to stick things on the walls or will you have to bring flip chart stands?
Equipment	what equipment is available, is it working, are there spare bulbs? TV aerial?
Kitchen	can food be prepared at the venue or will they have to be brought in?
Toilets	do they exist, are they clean, is there toilet paper, will they be open?
Access	is it easy to find or will participants need a map? Car parking? Disabled access?

Materials and Equipment

The materials and equipment that you need will depend on the methods that you use. Some will be needed for preparation (eg computer, printer & photocopiers) and others during the workshop itself. No list of these things would ever be complete but here are some ideas for starters – you can brainstorm and categorise your own checklist!

Equipment

Blackboard/ Whiteboard
Flip Chart
Overhead projector
Film/ Slide projector
TV/ Video + remotes
Cassette/ CD Players
Sound System + Mikes
Video Camera

Materials

Markers (black/coloured)
Felt pens (water/ spirit)
Flip Chart paper
Sellotape/ masking tape
Blutak
Drawing Pins
Post-it pads
Pens/pencils

Minibus + Driver

Rulers/ geometry sets
Calculators
Scissors
Stapler/ staples
Writing paper
Folders/ files
Overhead Transparencies
Slides/ videos/ cassettes
Storage boxes
Attendance register
Expense claim forms

Contextualisation

Contextualisation is a fancy word for the process of making sure that your training programme blends easily and effortlessly into the local situation.

No two groups of trainees are ever exactly the same so, even if you have dealt with the topic many times before, your materials will probably need fine tuning – if only to the extent of being able to give local illustrative examples. The more that you can demonstrate knowledge and understanding of the details of the local situation the more the trainees are likely to value what you say.

You may also discover that what the organisers want is not the same as what the trainees want or what you feel that they really need - so you might have to act as go-between/ advisor as part of the process of negotiating your Terms of Reference. If you have good answers to each of the following questions then you can be confident that you are well contextualised.

What does the Organisation want?

- If there are no official terms of reference are you as the trainer clear about what is expected of you? If not ask.

What Administrative Support and Materials are already available?

- 1) Are you on your own or are there people who can help you?

What do the trainees know?

- Has a needs analysis already been done (eg an output from a previous workshop)?
- Can you visit some trainees in their workplace to get a better feel for their self defined training needs. What about their customers? Is serious research required here?
- Is there a need to brainstorm and conceptually map at the beginning of the workshop?

What does the trainer know?

- What is the trainer's conceptual map before preparing for the workshop?
- What reference materials are to be consulted? (Local and National)
- Are there previous workshop agendas/outputs or research findings?
- What literature should be addressed? (Written/Electronic; published/grey)

- What videos & resource materials etc might be consulted
- What materials are already available within the organisation?
- Which local 'experts' might be usefully consulted?
- What is the trainer's conceptual map after preparing for the workshop?

What are the aims and objectives of the workshop in terms of:

- j) the desired changes in knowledge, skills and attitudes of the participants, and how will we know if we have been successful?
- k) the concepts developed and recorded and materials produced for use at future workshops and/or as circulars, exemplars, Newsletter or Journal articles etc

Have the logistics been attended to?

- Work your way systematically through the logistical aspects at an early stage.
- Leaving things to the last minute can be very stressful.

Effectiveness

“If you do not know where you are going then any road will take you there”
(Old Arabic saying)

A good trainer is clear in her mind about what needs to be done and she knows that she will be doing the right thing. This means that she will have thought about her aims and objectives and will have written them down. Sometimes these will have been given to her and sometime she will have to decide for herself what they are. Even when they are given, however, there is always the possibility of fine tuning them and sharing them with the learners so that there can be agreement on exactly what a particular course is trying to achieve. She will have three different types of objectives, as shown in the scheme below:

Head	Hand	Heart
Thinking	Doing	Feeling
Knowledge	Skills	Attitudes

Being clear about aims and objectives means being clear about her dream. The next task is to figure out how to make the dream come true. She is doing the right thing but is she going to do it right? Muddling through by the seat of your pants might achieve the results sometimes but it is not a professional way of working. Would you trust a plumber or a brain surgeon that pottered about unsystematically?

Action planning for a trainer means being systematic about the content, the methods and the monitoring and assessment techniques that will be used to achieve the aims and objectives. There are three things to think about regarding content:

Scope: How broad and how deep are you going to go during this course - is it for pre-school or for university? Who are the learners and what is their level of experience of the topic?

Sequence: Where to begin and where to go to next?

Pace: How fast will you move through the content?

When assessment is used to 'grade' students it is a political tool. When assessment is used to give feedback to the student (or the tutor) on the extent to which the objectives are being achieved so that she can improve her performance – then it is a training tool.

All good trainers ensure that learners get a lot of feedback during the course of their learning - many small but detailed corrections along the way are more useful than one big and generalised judgement at the end!

Professional Aspects

In preparing for the professional aspects of a Workshop you have to think about three things:

What you intend to do?

How you are going to do it?

How you will know if you have succeeded?

Aims & Objectives

Content, Methods and Materials

Monitoring and Evaluation

As in most other human affairs, motivation makes a difference. It is generally believed that participation helps to promote ownership and thus motivation. Wherever possible and appropriate the participants should be consulted about the aims and objectives and also possibly on the contents and methods, and the monitoring and evaluation strategies.

When participants are well motivated it is easier to get them to engage in pre-training activities by way of preparing themselves to make optimum contributions to the training, and in post-training activities for consolidation and elaboration.

Agenda

People stop paying attention when they feel uninterested, bored, tired or ignored. Your task is to draw up the training agenda or programme so that none of these things happen. Ideally the trainees will be all eyes and ears and eager to learn. They will be heedful, mindful, alert, on the ball, and missing nothing. Barring serious medical problems (see opposite)) your trainees can be like this if you:

- f. address their felt needs in a manner which suits their learning styles, and
- g. build in plenty of variety so that you do not expect them to keep paying attention to a particular topic, in a particular way for more than 20 minutes at a time.

Trainees can be asked to work on their own for one activity and then in small groups for another and as part of a whole class discussion after that.

If the members of a small group work well together you can let them get together for all small group activities. On the other hand you might find it more useful to regroup the individuals each time there is a small group activity so that everyone

gets a chance to get to know everyone else. A variation on this is to change the group sizes - some activities might require groups of three and others require groups of five - or whatever.

Sometimes it is useful to ask groups to have a structure eg chairperson, secretary and rapporteur. You could then make it a rule that individuals are not allowed to occupy the same role twice in succession. This has the advantage of 'stretching' individuals ie of forcing them out of the sorts of role in which they feel most comfortable.

Three types of action relate to the three types of objectives which can be set:

Thinking

Knowledge

Head

Thinking involves putting on your thinking cap and doing headwork. It requires you to be rational and logical and to deal with the facts. You will use your intelligence in a reasonable and sensible manner such that you can be pragmatic. You might even have to crunch numbers.

Doing

Skills

Hand

Doing involves thinking on your feet and walking the talk. You will be practising what you preach. This may involve being creative and artistic so that you can make it look good and set a mood or so that you can say it with pictures rather than with words. It may involve using your social skills during activities such as games and role plays. Or it may involve you in actually making things from raw materials.

Feeling

Attitudes

Heart

Feeling involves giving attention to your attitudes, opinions, beliefs and values. Are you clear about your passions and phobias, your prejudices and addictions. How are your points of view influenced by your urges, itches, cravings and yens. What drives you into a rage and makes you furious.

You need to put on your creative thinking cap and come up with examples to put in the eighteen boxes – you can rake around in your experiential memory, look through this handbook for prompts and/or look in books. Here are some examples to get you started.

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Other Links

Tips for Trainers

<<http://ideations.com/tips.htm>>

Using Questions in Training

<http://www.estd.wvu.edu/netc/NETCSC_trtips.html#question>

Checklist for Delivering Effective Lectures

<<http://www.reproline.jhu.edu/english/6read/6training/lecture/appendixa.htm>>

Generic Lesson Plan

<<http://www.qualitymag.com/ftp/ojtlesson.doc>>

Using Humor for Effective Presentations

< http://www.presentersuniversity.com/Courses/show_crafting.cfm?RecordID=25>

Evaluation

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Introduction

Evaluation is an integral part of most instructional design (ID) models. Evaluation tools and methodologies help determine the effectiveness of instructional interventions. Despite its importance, there is evidence that evaluations of training programs are often inconsistent or missing (Carnevale & Schulz, 1990; Holcomb, 1993; McMahon & Carter, 1990; Rossi et al., 1979). Possible explanations for inadequate evaluations include: insufficient budget allocated; insufficient time allocated; lack of expertise; blind trust in training solutions; or lack of methods and tools (see, for example, McEvoy & Buller, 1990).

Part of the explanation may be that the task of evaluation is complex in itself. Evaluating training interventions with regard to learning, transfer, and organizational impact involves a number of complexity factors. These complexity factors are associated with the dynamic and ongoing interactions of the various dimensions and attributes of organizational and training goals, trainees, training situations, and instructional technologies.

Evaluation goals involve multiple purposes at different levels. These purposes include evaluation of student learning, evaluation of instructional materials, transfer of training, return on investment, and so on. Attaining these multiple purposes may require the collaboration of different people in different parts of an organization. Furthermore, not all goals may be well defined and some may change.

A Brief Historical Perspective: 1960-1990

Donald Kirkpatrick set forth his four-level approach to the evaluation of training in a series of articles appearing in the journal of what was then known as the American Society of Training Directors. The first of these four articles were published in November of 1959. The remaining three articles were published in the succeeding three months, with the fourth and final article appearing in February of 1960. These articles can be found in *Evaluating Training Programs*, a collection of articles compiled by Kirkpatrick from the pages of the ASTD Journal and published by ASTD in 1975.

In 1959, when Kirkpatrick launched his views, the American Society of Training Directors (ASTD) was about as close-knit a "good old boys" network as one could find. Since its inception in the 1940s, ASTD membership had consisted primarily of training directors, known also as training officers. Even as late as 1969 (the year in which I took up the training profession), ASTD was still dominated by training directors. That the members of ASTD were in fact "old boys" is amply demonstrated by some figures from the 1969 ASTD national conference, which was held in Miami,

Florida (Reith, 1970): Only nine percent of the attendees were 29 years of age or younger. Fully 59 percent were 40 years old or older. Only nine percent of the attendees were females. To elucidate the obvious, 91 percent were males. Any group consisting of more than 90 percent males past the age of 40 certainly seems vulnerable to charges of being a bunch of "good old boys."

Changes, however, were already evident. Of the 1,081 full-time attendees filling out the Miami conference feedback form, almost half or 49 percent were attending their first ASTD national conference. More than 77 percent had been in training assignments for more than three years and roughly 40 percent had been in training assignments for more than 10 years. But, at the same time, more than 50 percent of those attending had been in their present jobs for less than three years.

Elsewhere, the training business was stirring. The likes of Bob Mager, Susan Markle, Tom Gilbert, Geary Rummler, Joe Harless and Karen Brethower were shaking up the training establishment and would continue to do so for several more years. The development business was stirring too. Rensis Likert, Chris Argyris, Douglas McGregor, and George Odiorne were shaking up the management mindset and a new term had entered our vocabulary: "Organization Development (OD)."

The board of governors of the American Society of Training Directors, perhaps sensing some kind of shift in the tide of human and organizational affairs, changed the name of the society from the American Society of Training Directors to the American Society for Training and Development, and moved its headquarters from Madison, Wisconsin to the Washington, D.C. area (Alexandria, Virginia).

Other changes affecting the training and development worlds were taking place during this same time period. Behaviorism flowered for a while then wilted in the face of the shift to knowledge work. Peter Drucker, in book after book, beginning with *Landmarks for Tomorrow* (1959) and continuing through *The New Realities* (1989), kept reminding us that the center of gravity in the employed workforce was shifting from those who worked with their muscles to those who worked with their minds. By 1980, the shift to knowledge work was more or less complete and, three years later, I spelled out some of its consequences for training and trainers (Nickols, 1983).

As perceptions of the locus of working gradually and painfully shifted from the workers' muscles to their minds, the focus of managerial control over work and working shifted from the exercise of direct control over overt physical behavior to a search for ways and means of influencing covert mental processes. In short, the cognitive view gained sway (and it is likely to hold sway for the foreseeable future). Nevertheless, behaviorism, mostly through the efforts of Bob Mager, did give us this central question pertaining to the evaluation of training: "What is the trainee supposed to be able to *do* as a result of training?" -- and the training business hasn't been the same since.

Programmed instruction blossomed for a while too, and was then displaced by its own progeny: self-instructional materials, job aids, and performance technology. Another society, the National Society for Programmed Instruction (NSPI), moved its headquarters from San Antonio, Texas to Washington, D.C., and changed its name to the National Society for Performance and Instruction. (It has most recently become the International Society for Performance Improvement.)

Systems concepts and the systems approach came rushing at us from two very different angles. We didn't stand a chance; we were overwhelmed by superior forces. Systems engineering, apparently obeying the biblical command to be fruitful and multiply, gave us the systems approach to this, that, and the other. Its primary legacy

consists of (1) the instructional systems development (ISD) model originally developed in the military and (2) the computer systems development process found throughout business and industry.

General systems theory (GST) was fertile and prolific too, mostly on the organizational side of things. The concepts of "open" and "socio-technical" systems came into vogue and stayed. "Systems thinking" is with us still, so pervasive now that we hardly give it a second thought. Human relations was a burgeoning movement in this same period. Years earlier, Elton Mayo had given us the "Hawthorne effect" and, in the 1960s and 1970s, his legates gave us sensitivity training, T-groups, and organization development (OD). One of Mayo's philosophical descendants, Len Nadler, coined the term "human resources" and people haven't been looked upon as people since.

Technology was at the heart of much of what was going on from 1960 through 1990. For 10 of those years (1965 to 1975) a brief war was waged between "educational technology" and "instructional technology." It was a civil war, of course, and like a lot of recent wars it ended in a draw; there weren't any clear-cut winners, but at least the hostilities came to an end.

Donald Kirkpatrick's four-level evaluation framework has survived all this turbulence. One might even say that it has prospered. At the very least, one must acknowledge its staying power -- and rightly so, for, although his framework might not be the last or latest word in the evaluation of training, it certainly comes close to being the first word on the subject.

Let us now shift our focus from the past to the present and begin our examination of the evaluation of training problem. Our starting point is with the structural relationship between training and the workplace.

Towards a definition

Providing a sound definition is more than a lexicographic exercise; it can clarify and refine concepts, generating a framework within which to develop a pragmatic approach to the subject. Evaluation is no exception, and the apparent confusion in the minds of many as to the purposes and functions of evaluation corresponds to the ignorance or misunderstanding of what is meant by this and related terms such as research, validation, and assessment. A variety of definitions can be found in the literature, many of them stipulative, and the inconsistencies in the use of the terminology has "muddied the waters" of training evaluation a great deal, affecting the success of evaluation efforts (Wittingslow, 1986, 8).

Bramley & Newby (1984) summarise the diversity of terminology used over the past decade, and offer a most helpful comprehensive table showing the interrelationships between various concepts of evaluation.

Rackham (1974, 454) offers perhaps the most amusing and least academic definition of evaluation, referring to it as a form of training archaeology *where one is obsessively digging up the past in a manner unrelated to the future!*

In the literature reviewed, where a definition of evaluation is given, the majority of writers tend to view it as the gathering of information in order to make a value judgement about the program, such as necessary changes or the possible cessation of the program. Williams (1976, 12) defines evaluation as the assessment of value or worth. Harper & Bell (1982, 24) refer to the planned collection, collation and analysis of information to enable judgements about value and worth. However, as Williams (1976, 12) observes, value is a rather vague concept, and this has contributed to the different interpretations of the term evaluation.

Some definitions (Goldstein, 1978; Siedman, 1979; Snyder et al, 1980) focus on the determination of program effectiveness. Several definitions emphasise evaluation as a basis on which to determine program improvements (Rackham, 1973; Smith, 1980; Brady, 1983; Morris, 1984; Foxon, 1986; Tyson & Birnbrauer, 1985). The distinction between formative and summative evaluation is not mentioned by most of these writers, but is implicit in their definitions.

Many writers not only differ in their definition of evaluation - they also use evaluation terminology interchangeably and in some cases quite confusedly. Burgoyne & Cooper (1975) for example, use the term evaluation research as synonymous with evaluation. While evaluation and research may appear at first sight to be similar, there are clear differences. Research is aimed at the advancement of scientific knowledge - it is not a given that it should be immediately useful or practical. Control groups, experimental designs, and total objectivity characterizes research projects. Unlike research, it is the context of the evaluation, which defines the problem, and the evaluator's task is to test generalizations rather than hypotheses. The evaluator may not be able to avoid making value judgements at every stage whereas the researcher must avoid any subjectivity.

Evaluation is also confused by some with the terms measurement and assessment. Evaluation involves description and judgement; measurement and/or assessment provides the data on which to base the evaluation. This confusion of terms is most obvious when considering the use of "evaluation" and "validation". While most American writers do not see validation as separate from evaluation, there are still British writers who appear to draw the distinction (Hawes & Bailey, 1985; Rae, 1985). Rae regards assessment as the measuring of the practical results of the training in the work environment; this, with validation of the training and training method, comprises evaluation). It must therefore be borne in mind that the terms "validation" and "evaluation", often used in HRD literature, do not always mean one and the same thing.

The literature reveals a broad range of definitions and considerable confusion in the use of associated terms, and it would seem that HRD practitioners have yet to give serious consideration to what the term evaluation actually means.

The Many Purposes of Training

Almost 20 years ago I wrote a brief article addressing what I saw as the need to adopt a "strategic view" of training (Nickols, 1981). My aim then, as now, was to point out that "training is a management tool, not the private domain of those who specialize in

its development or delivery, nor of those who make its development and delivery contingent upon some other methodology." By "some other methodology," I mean performance, which seems to me to view training as little more than an occasionally useful remedy for skill or knowledge deficiencies.

As a management tool, training serves many masters and many purposes. In the article just mentioned purposes for or uses of training are given in the list below. It is not my intent here to elaborate upon these many purposes. Instead, I wish merely to prompt you to think about how the evaluation of training might vary with the purpose or use of the training itself.

1. Focusing energy on issues.
2. Making work and issues visible.
3. Supporting other interventions.
4. Legitimizing issues.
5. Promoting change.
6. Reducing risk.
7. Creating a community based on some shared experience.
8. Building teams.
9. Indoctrinating new staff.
10. Communicating and disseminating knowledge and information.
11. Certifying and licensing.
12. Rewarding past performance.
13. Flagging "fast trackers."
14. Developing skills.

Given the diverse array of purposes listed above, it seems reasonable to conclude that the results sought from the training would also be diverse. And so they are.

Evaluate What and Why?

Evaluate? Evaluate what? Training? What do we mean by training? What's to be evaluated? A particular training course? The trainees? The trainers? The training department? A certain set of training materials? Training in general?

More to the point, why evaluate it? Do we wish to gauge its effectiveness, that is, to see if it works? If so, what is it supposed to do? Change behavior? Shape attitudes? Improve job performance? Reduce defects? Increase sales? Enhance quality?

What about efficiency? How much time does the training consume? Can it be shortened? Can we make do with on-the-job training or can we completely eliminate training by substituting job aids instead?

What does it cost? Whatever it costs, is it worth it? Who says? On what basis? What are we trying to find out? For whom?

The preceding questions illustrate the complexity of any effort to evaluate training and emphasize the importance of being clear about the purposes of and the audiences for any such evaluation.

It is the central thesis of this article that the evaluation of training poses a problem for many trainers, managers, executives, and other professionals with an interest in

training. Further, it is my firm conviction that these problems are most productively addressed by examining their underlying structure. As Dewey (1910) wrote, "A difficulty clearly apprehended is likely to suggest its own solution (p. 94)". This article, then, will examine various elements in the structure of the problem of evaluating training.

The centerpiece for the collection of articles comprising the ASTD Tool Kit for which this paper was originally written is Donald Kirkpatrick's well-known framework for evaluating training, frequently referred to as "Level One," "Level Two," and so on. Much has changed since Kirkpatrick's framework first appeared and it might help to better understand and appreciate the truly seminal nature of his work if we attempt a very brief review of some of the major changes in the training and development world since then.

How Does Training Evaluation Create Value?

The first three levels of training assessment focus on the participants:

- How do they initially respond to the program?
- Do they learn?
- Do their behaviors change?

These assessment levels can be used during training, at training completion, and after return to the workplace. However, the fourth level focuses on the training program's return on investment to the organization. Successful training programs offer clear value to the participants and the organization as a whole. If participants see the value of the training, they will be receptive to it, and they will apply the learning in their workplace. If your organization can measure the value of training, your company's bottom line benefits.

Approaches to Evaluation of Training

Commonly used approaches to educational evaluation have their roots in systematic approaches to the design of training. They are typified by the instructional system development (ISD) methodologies, which emerged in the USA in the 1950s and 1960s and are represented in the works of Gagné and Briggs (1974), Goldstein (1993), and Mager (1962). Evaluation is traditionally represented as the final stage in a systematic approach with the purpose being to improve interventions (formative evaluation) or make a judgment about worth and effectiveness (summative evaluation) (Gustafson & Branch, 1997). More recent ISD models incorporate evaluation throughout the process (see, for example, Tennyson, 1999).

Six general approaches to educational evaluation can be identified (Bramley, 1991; Worthen & Sanders, 1987), as follows:

- Goal-based evaluation
- Goal-free evaluation
- Responsive evaluation
- Systems evaluation
- Professional review
- Quasi-legal

Goal-based and systems-based approaches are predominantly used in the evaluation of training (Philips, 1991). Various frameworks for evaluation of training programs have been proposed under the influence of these two approaches. The most influential framework has come from Kirkpatrick (Carnevale & Schulz, 1990; Dixon, 1996; Gordon, 1991; Philips, 1991, 1997). Kirkpatrick's work generated a great deal of subsequent work (Bramley, 1996; Hamblin, 1974; Warr et al., 1978). Kirkpatrick's model (1959) follows the goal-based evaluation approach and is based on four simple questions that translate into four levels of evaluation. These four levels are widely known as reaction, learning, behavior, and results. On the other hand, under the systems approach, the most influential models include: Context, Input, Process, Product (CIPP) Model (Worthen & Sanders, 1987); Training Validation System (TVS) Approach (Fitz-Enz, 1994); and Input, Process, Output, Outcome (IPO) Model (Bushnell, 1990).

Table 1 presents a comparison of several system-based models (CIPP, IPO, & TVS) with a goal-based model (Kirkpatrick's). Goal-based models (such as Kirkpatrick's four levels) may help practitioners think about the purposes of evaluation ranging from purely technical to covertly political purpose. However, these models do not define the steps necessary to achieve purposes and do not address the ways to utilize results to improve training. The difficulty for practitioners following such models is in selecting and implementing appropriate evaluation methods (quantitative, qualitative, or mixed). Because of their apparent simplicity, "trainers jump feet first into using [such] model[s] without taking the time to assess their needs and resources or to determine how they'll apply the model and the results" (Bernthal, 1995, p. 41). Naturally, many organizations do not use the entire model, and training ends up being evaluated only at the reaction, or at best, at the learning level. As the level of evaluation goes up, the complexities involved increase. This may explain why only

levels 1 and 2 are used.

Kirkpatrick (1959)	CIPP Model (1987)	IPO Model (1990)	TVS Model (1994)
1. Reaction: to gather data on participants reactions at the end of a training program	1. Context: obtaining information about the situation to decide on educational needs and to establish program objectives	1. Input: evaluation of system performance indicators such as trainee qualifications, availability of materials, appropriateness of training, etc.	1. Situation: collecting pre-training data to ascertain current levels of performance within the organization and defining a desirable level of future performance
2. Learning: to assess whether the learning objectives for the program are met	2. Input: identifying educational strategies most likely to achieve the desired result	2. Process: embraces planning, design, development, and delivery of training programs	2. Intervention: identifying the reason for the existence of the gap between the present and desirable performance to find out if training is the solution to the problem
3. Behavior: to assess whether job performance changes as a result of training	3. Process: assessing the implementation of the educational program	3. Output: Gathering data resulting from the training interventions	3. Impact: evaluating the difference between the pre- and post-training data
4. Results: to assess costs vs. benefits of training programs, i.e., organizational impact in terms of reduced costs, improved quality of work, increased quantity of work, etc.	4. Product: gathering information regarding the results of the educational intervention to interpret its worth and merit	4. Outcomes: longer-term results associated with improvement in the corporation's bottom line- its profitability, competitiveness, etc.	4. Value: measuring differences in quality, productivity, service, or sales, all of which can be expressed in terms of dollars

Table 1. Goal-based and systems-based approaches to evaluation

On the other hand, systems-based models (e.g., CIPP, IPO, and TVS) seem to be more useful in terms of thinking about the overall context and situation but they may not provide sufficient granularity. Systems-based models may not represent the dynamic interactions between the design and the evaluation of training. Few of these models provide detailed descriptions of the processes involved in each steps. None provide tools for evaluation. Furthermore, these models do not address the collaborative process of evaluation, that is, the different roles and responsibilities that people may play during an evaluation process.

Basic Suggestions for Evaluating Training

Typically, evaluators look for validity, accuracy and reliability in their evaluations. However, these goals may require more time, people and money than the organization has. Evaluators are also looking for evaluation approaches that are practical and relevant.

Training and development activities can be evaluated before, during and after the activities. Consider the following very basic suggestions:

Before the Implementation Phase

1. Will the selected training and development methods really result in the participants learning the knowledge and skills needed to perform the task or carry out the role? Have other participants used the methods and been successful?
2. Consider applying the methods to a highly skilled employee. Ask the employee of their impressions of the methods.
3. Do the methods conform to the employee's preferences and learning styles? Have the employee briefly review the methods, e.g., documentation, overheads, etc. Does the employee experience any difficulties understanding the methods?

During Implementation of Training

1. Ask the employee how they're doing. Do they understand what's being said?
2. Periodically conduct a short test, e.g., have the employee explain the main points of what was just described to him, e.g., in the lecture.
3. Is the employee enthusiastically taking part in the activities? Is he or she coming late and leaving early. It's surprising how often learners will leave a course or workshop and immediately complain that it was a complete waste of their time. Ask the employee to rate the activities from 1 to 5, with 5 being the highest rating. If the employee gives a rating of anything less than 5, have the employee describe what could be done to get a 5.

After Completion of the Training

1. Give him or her a test before and after the training and development, and compare the results?
2. Interview him or her before and after, and compare results?
3. Watch him or her perform the task or conduct the role?
4. Assign an expert evaluator from inside or outside the organization to evaluate the learner's knowledge and skills?

Models and techniques

As with definitions and purposes, there is great variety in the evaluation models and techniques proposed. In some cases it is very difficult to separate the techniques from the 'model' - the writers are actually presenting an evaluation approach using a specific technique rather than a model.

Nearly 50% of the literature discusses case study or anecdotal material in which models and techniques are referred to, but seldom provides detail useful to the reader wishing to implement these. More than 80% of these articles lacked evidence of background research and many failed to offer practical applications.

If the literature reviewed is a reliable guide, Kirkpatrick's four stage model of evaluation is the one most widely known and used by trainees. Perhaps this is because it is one of the few training-specific models, and is also easily understood. Nearly one

third of the journal articles from all three countries made reference to his model, and of the eleven writers actually presenting a specific model of evaluation (as opposed to the development of an evaluation strategy), five have drawn inspiration from Kirkpatrick's work.

The objectives-driven model also surfaces in various forms in the literature, although Tyler's name with which it is associated is rarely mentioned. This model of evaluation focuses on the extent to which training objectives have been met, and the common method of evaluating transfer of learning is by control groups. The desirability of setting measurable objectives, following a cost-effective plan to meet them, and evaluating to determine the degree to which they are met is a recurring theme in the HRD literature (Elkins, 1977; Freeman, 1978; Keenan, 1983; Del Gaizo, 1984; Larson, 1985).

The literature is cluttered with suggested evaluation techniques ranging from simple questionnaires to complex statistical procedures. Often the one technique is presented under several different names, such as pre & post testing which is variously referred to as pre-then-post testing (Mezoff, 1981), the 3-Test Approach (Rae, 1983), and Time Series Analysis (Bakken and Bernstein, 1982). Similarly, Protocol Analysis (Mmobuosi, 1985) and the journal method of Caliguri (1984) are basically one and the same technique.

Much of the literature reviewed could be regarded as presenting "general techniques" and as such much of it is superficial. For example, in addressing the problem of evaluating the degree to which participants after training use the skills learned back on the job, one reads such statements as "Be sure the instrument [you design] is reliable and delivers consistent results", and "Measure only what is actually taught and measure all the skills taught". Sadly, such broad brush advice is all too common. Even some of the case study articles gave no insight into their methodology or techniques.

There are three categories of evaluation techniques covered in the literature. The first is the interview. This can be of the trainer, trainee or trainee's superior. It may be pre, during or post training; structured or unstructured. Questionnaires can be used to evaluate at several levels, either qualitatively or quantitatively; as self assessment or objective measures. Finally, there are quantitative and statistical measures including control groups, experimental and quasi-experimental designs. These are far less likely to be used.

There appears to be no mid-point between reasonably subjective measures and scientifically controlled measurement available to the HRD evaluator. Evaluation linked to performance indicators is not common and as Goldstein observes, "The field is in danger of being swamped by questionnaire type items. The failure to develop methodologies for systematic observation of behaviour is a serious fault" (1980, 240).

There is an emerging awareness of the need to perform longitudinal evaluation to evaluate more than the immediate reactions or learning of trainees, although some of the suggested techniques lack objectivity, and data are therefore open to whatever interpretations best suit.

Kirkpatrick's Four Levels Model

Evaluation research has developed as a result of substantive support by the federal government, beginning in World War II training and evaluation activities. It provides answers to the questions of "Do we implement or repeat a program or not?" and "If so, what modifications should be made?" Today, measurement in the form of instructor and course evaluations is a fixture of most training programs.

However, when what goes on in the classroom is not the outcome of interest, these are the wrong measurements -- or at least the unimportant ones -- to take. An outcome that is of importance answers the question of "How have you used what you learned?" This type of evaluation is difficult to conduct as it requires being done at three months, six months, or even at 12 months from the time of the training. Adding to the difficulty is the aspect that the evaluators need to be co-workers, managers and outside customers of the participant who took part in the training.

In order to classify areas of evaluation, Donald Kirkpatrick created what is still one of the most widely used approaches, even though it was first developed in 1959. At the time, he was a professor of marketing at the University of Wisconsin. His four levels of evaluation are:

Level 1: Reaction - a measure of satisfaction

Level 2: Learning - a measure of learning

Level 3: Behavior - a measure of behavior change

Level 4: Results - a measure of results

Here are questions that should be asked at each level:

Level 1: Reaction	Were the participants pleased? What do they plan to do with what they learned?
Level 2: Learning	What skills, knowledge, or attitudes have changed? By how much?
Level 3: Behavior	Did the participants change their behavior based on what was learned in the program?
Level 4: Results	Did the change in behavior positively affect the organization?

Despite the fact that the Kirkpatrick model is now nearly 40 years old, its elegant simplicity has caused it to be the most widely used methods of evaluating training programs. ASTD's survey, which reports feedback from almost 300 HRD executives and managers, revealed that 67% of organizations that conduct evaluations use the Kirkpatrick model.

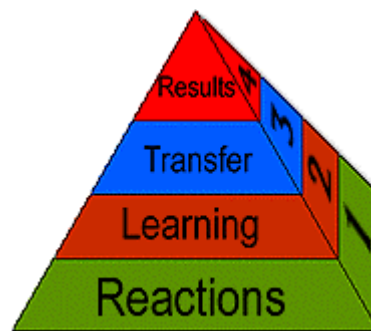
Level 1 Evaluation - Reactions

Just as the word implies, evaluation at this level measures how participants in a training program react to it. It attempts to answer questions regarding the participants' perceptions - Did they like it? Was the material relevant to their work? This type of evaluation is often called a "smilesheet." According to Kirkpatrick, every program should at least be evaluated at this level to provide for the improvement of a training program. In addition, the participants' reactions have important consequences for

learning (level two). Although a positive reaction does not guarantee learning, a negative reaction almost certainly reduces its possibility.

Level 2 Evaluation - Learning

Assessing at this level moves the evaluation beyond learner satisfaction and attempts to assess the extent students have advanced in skills, knowledge, or attitude. Measurement at this level is more difficult and laborious than level one. Methods range from formal to informal testing to team assessment and self-assessment. If possible, participants take the test or assessment before the training (pretest) and after training (post test) to determine the amount of learning that has occurred.



Level 3 Evaluation - Transfer

This level measures the transfer that has occurred in learners' behavior due to the training program. Evaluating at this level attempts to answer the question - Are the newly acquired skills, knowledge, or attitude being used in the everyday environment of the learner? For many trainers this level represents the truest assessment of a program's effectiveness. However, measuring at this level is difficult as it is often impossible to predict when the change in behavior will occur, and thus requires important decisions in terms of when to evaluate, how often to evaluate, and how to evaluate.

Level 4 Evaluation- Results

Frequently thought of as the bottom line, this level measures the success of the program in terms that managers and executives can understand -increased production, improved quality, decreased costs, reduced frequency of accidents, increased sales, and even higher profits or return on investment. From a business and organizational perspective, this is the overall reason for a training program, yet level four results are not typically addressed. Determining results in financial terms is difficult to measure, and is hard to link directly with training.

Methods for Long-Term Evaluation

- Send post-training surveys
- Offer ongoing, sequenced training and coaching over a period of time
- Conduct follow-up needs assessment
- Check metrics (e.g., scrap, re-work, errors, etc.) to measure if participants achieved training objectives
- Interview trainees and their managers, or their customer groups (e.g., patients, other departmental staff)

Why Is Level 3 Evaluation So Hard?

Kirkpatrick (1979) has done the conceptual work by suggesting a framework for evaluating training programs in terms of behavioral changes:

1. A systematic appraisal should be made of on-the-job performance on a before-and-after basis.
2. The appraisal of performance should be made by one or more of the following parties (the more the better):
 - The participant,
 - The participant's superior(s),
 - The participant's subordinates, and/or
 - The participant's peers or other people who are familiar with the participant's performance.
3. A statistical analysis should be made to compare before-and-after performance and to relate changes to the training program
4. The post-training appraisal should be made three months or more after the training so that the participants have an opportunity to practice what they have learned. Subsequent appraisals may add validity to the study.
5. A control group (of people who did not receive the training) should be used.

This is a good description of the steps we need to take to accomplish a Level 3 training evaluation, and we have had it since 1979. But defining the steps is the easy part. The hard part is an assessment of job performance that is good enough to measure a discretionary skill like leadership or mentoring.

Current Trends

Although the Kirkpatrick model has served trainers well in terms of evaluating whether learners liked their instruction, whether they learned something from it, and whether it had some effect for the company, evaluation experts are now pointing out that the four-level approach has weaknesses. Mainly, it can't be used to determine the cost-benefit ratio of training (ROI), and it can't be used diagnostically, i.e., when a training program doesn't deliver the expected results.

When looking at ROI and cost benefit analysis, it is important to remember that:

- Improving efficiency means achieving the same results with lower costs.
- Improving effectiveness means achieving better results with the same costs.
- It is possible to get better results with lower costs, and this is called improved productivity.

In order to calculate ROI, evaluation experts such as like Jack Phillips are recommending the addition of a fifth level to Kirkpatrick's model for some programs. This requires collecting level 4 data, converting the results to monetary values, and then comparing those results with the cost of the training program. Here is Phillips' basic formula for calculating ROI:

- Collect level-4 evaluation data. Ask: Did on-the-job application produce measurable results?
- Isolate the effects of training from other factors that may have contributed to the results.
- Convert the results to monetary benefits. Phillips recommends dividing training results into hard data and soft data. He says hard data are the traditional measures of organizational performance because they're objective, easy to measure, and easy to convert to monetary values. They include output (units produced, items assembled, tasks completed); quality (scrap, waste, rework); time (equipment downtime, employee overtime, time to complete projects); and cost (overhead, accident costs, sales expenses). Conversely, soft data includes such things as work habits (tardiness, absenteeism); work climate (grievances, job satisfaction); attitudes (loyalty, perceptions); and initiative (implementation of new ideas, number of employee suggestions).
- Total the costs of training.
- Compare the monetary benefits with the costs. The non-monetary benefits can be presented as additional - though intangible - evidence of the program's success.

It takes a lot of time and effort to conduct evaluations at this level, and not every program needs this much attention. But when it's important to know the real value of a program, ROI measurement can go a long way to justify company efforts. For example, Magnavox Electronics Systems Company in Torrance, CA, maintains an 18-week literacy program covering verbal and math skills for employees. Here are the results of a five-level evaluation the company conducted:

Level 1: reaction was measured by post-course surveys.

Level 2: learning was measured with the Test of Adult Basic Education.

Level 3: changes in behavior were measured by daily efficiency ratings

Level 4: business results were measured through improvements in productivity and reductions in scrap and rework.

Level 5: ROI was calculated by converting productivity and quality improvements to monetary values. The resulting ROI was 741%.

According to Phillips, the purposes and uses of evaluation are to improve the Human Resources Development process and to decide whether or not to continue this process. He states that evaluation should:

- determine whether or not a program is accomplishing its objectives
- identify the strengths and weaknesses in a Human Resources Program.
- determine the cost/benefit ratio of an HRD program
- decide who should participate in future programs
- identify which participants benefited most or least from the program
- reinforce major points made to the participants
- gather data to assist in marketing future programs
- determine if the program was appropriate (Phillips, 1983)

A New Model?

Not everyone agrees that the Kirkpatrick model should be used for evaluations. **Elwood Holton**, writing in *HRD Quarterly* (1996, 7:1, p. 5-21), goes so far as to say it isn't even a model, but rather merely a taxonomy. The biggest problem, he says, is in trying to use the four levels to determine where a problem exists with a given educational program.

Holton proposes a new model for evaluation of training that, unlike Kirkpatrick's four-level system, will "account for the impact of the primary intervening variables such as motivation to learn, trainability, job attitudes, personal characteristics, and transfer of training conditions." The important differences between this and the Kirkpatrick system are:

Absence of reactions (level one) as a primary outcome.

Individual performance is used instead of *behavior*.

The inclusion of primary and secondary influences on outcomes.

Three primary learning outcome measures are proposed:

Learning: achievement of the learning outcomes desired in the intervention.

Individual performance: change in individual performance as a result of the learning being applied on the job.

Organizational results: consequences of the change in individual performance.

And, according to the model, the three primary influences on learning are:

Trainee reactions

Motivation to learn

Ability

This model has been proposed but needs to be tested, Holton says. A simpler model may emerge from such testing; for example, perhaps measuring only primary intervening variables will be sufficient, or perhaps only a few key variables within each category should be measured. [For a more detailed outline of Holton's paper, see <http://131.96.116.76/msit/vmw/evaluation/new.htm>]

Conclusion

In implementing the evaluation process, Phillips cautions us to remember Murphy's Laws:

1. If things can go wrong, they will.
2. Nothing is as easy as it looks.
3. Everything takes longer than you expect.
4. Projects take longer than they do.

The Results of Training

When we speak of measuring the results of training -- and we mean results beyond those of simply equipping people with the skills and knowledge necessary to carry out their assigned tasks and duties -- we are redefining training as an intervention, as a solution to some problem other than equipping people to do their jobs.

In cases where skill and knowledge deficiencies are leading to mistakes, errors, defects, waste, and so on, one might argue (and many do) that training which eliminates these deficiencies and in turn reduces mistakes, errors, defects, and waste, is a solution to a performance problem. This argument is extended to assert that the reductions in mistakes, errors, defects, and waste, as well as the financial value of any such reductions constitute the "results" of training.

The logic of this argument has a certain superficial appeal but it is far from impeccable and even farther from compelling. In short, it does not withstand serious scrutiny. It is frequently pointless to ask "What business results were achieved as a result of training?" because the goal of training is generally one of *preventing* mistakes, errors, defects, and waste, not correcting them. Thus, by a strange twist of circumstances, the only way to prove that such training is successful is to shut down the training. As is the case with some other things, it is sometimes the case with training that the true measure of its value lies in its absence, not its presence, but shutting down training is hardly a practical way of testing that proposition.

At this point, it seems worthwhile to see if the evaluation of training problem can be cast in a more practical light. To accomplish this aim, we will use a completely fictitious, hypothetical, situation, one in which an equally fictitious executive, Lee Resnick, will play a central role. In short, let's pretend.

An Assessment Process Good Enough for Training Evaluation

What is needed is an assessment tool that can:

- measure behavioral changes in discretionary skills, not just simple, prescribed tasks,
- employ multiple evaluators, not just the supervisor,
- include peers as evaluators without the process becoming a "popularity contest",
- allow self-participation, without self-inflation of actual behavior change,
- assess as few as one trainee or many thousands,
- be deployed online or in paper-and-pencil format,
- run as a continuous program, for multiple training programs simultaneously, from pre-assessment through progressive post-assessments,
- work without consultants or train-the-evaluator programs, and
- provide results that are scientifically valid, controlling bias and favoritism.

Is there a methodology that can meet the demands described above? The answer is yes, with reservations. The reservations refer to the fact that a post-assessment of a program to train discretionary skills will always be a substitute for the real evaluation, which could take many years to determine. If we were trying to develop "mentoring" skills in managers, and could wait 15 or 20 years, we would be able to conclusively

demonstrate its effectiveness. Any post-assessment in the months or year immediately after the training, would have to be viewed as our best estimate of the effect of the program.

Another reservation is that a post-assessment of discretionary skills training is a subjective task. We are not measuring the ultimate effect of the training, only whether the people who work with the person have noticed changes in his or her behavior which can be reasonably connected to the training. Many are uncomfortable with this approach and would prefer a concrete, objective connection. But it can be no other way with discretionary skills. If there existed short-term, observable, concrete evidence of the presence of these skills, we wouldn't call them "discretionary". The people who possess the skills wouldn't be so valuable, they wouldn't be so hard to recruit, the schools that produce them wouldn't be so rare and expensive, and their job performance wouldn't be so hard to evaluate.

The trainer's overall responsibilities - aside from training evaluation

Over the years the trainer's roles have changed, but the basic *raison-d'être* for the trainer is to provide efficient and effective training programmes. The following suggests the elements of the basic role of the trainer, but it must be borne in mind that different circumstances will require modifications of these activities.

1. The basic role of a trainer (or however they may be designated) is to offer and provide efficient and effective training programmes aimed at enabling the participants to learn the knowledge, skills and attitudes required of them.
2. A trainer plans and designs the training programmes, or otherwise obtains them, in accordance with the requirements identified from the results of a TNIA (Training Needs Identification and Analysis) for the relevant staff of an organizations or organizations.
3. The training programmes cited at (1) and (2) must be completely based on the TNIA which has been: (a) completed by the trainer on behalf of and at the request of the relevant organization (b) determined in some other way by the organization.
4. Following discussion with or direction by the organization management who will have taken into account costs and values (eg ROI - Return on Investment in the training), the trainer will agree with the organization management the most appropriate form and methods for the training.
- 5 . If the appropriate form for satisfying the training need is a direct training course or workshop, or an Intranet provided programme, the trainer will design this programme using the most effective approaches, techniques and methods, integrating face-to-face practices with various forms of e-technology wherever this is possible or desirable.
6. If the appropriate form for satisfying the training need is some form of open learning programme or e-technology programme, the trainer, with the support of the organization management obtain, plan the utilization and be prepared to support the

learner in the use of the relevant materials.

7. The trainer, following contact with the potential learners, preferably through their line managers, to seek some pre-programme activity and/or initial evaluation activities, should provide the appropriate training programme(s) to the learners provided by their organization(s). During and at the end of the programme, the trainer should ensure that: (a) an effective form of training/learning validation is followed (b) the learners complete an action plan for implementation of their learning when they return to work.

8. Provide, as necessary, having reviewed the validation results, an analysis of the changes in the knowledge, skills and attitudes of the learners to the organization management with any recommendations deemed necessary. The review would include consideration of the effectiveness of the content of the programme and the effectiveness of the methods used to enable learning, that is whether the programme satisfied the objectives of the programme and those of the learners.

9. Continue to provide effective learning opportunities as required by the organization.

10. Enable their own CPD (Continuing Professional Development) by all possible developmental means - training programmes and self-development methods.

11. Arrange and run educative workshops for line managers on the subject of their fulfillment of their training and evaluation responsibilities.

Conclusion

The literature reviewed for the 17 year period to 1986 suggests that there is a widespread under-evaluation of training programs, and that what is being done is of uneven quality.

It is not difficult to sympathize with the practitioners who agree with the principle of evaluation but express concern about the practice of it. The literature contains a confusing array of concepts, terminology, techniques and models. For instance, more than 80% of the literature reviewed makes no attempt to define or clarify the term evaluation, yet one in four writers propose evaluation models of some description. It was particularly surprising to find this failure to define evaluation in some otherwise quite well researched articles.

Associated with the issue of definition is that of determining the purpose. Many imply their definition when they outline the perceived purpose. If one is unclear as to purpose, the choice of appropriate strategy and methodology will be affected. Nearly one quarter of the articles neither present nor imply any specific purpose for evaluating training. A similar proportion display a superficial understanding of the more complex issues involved, and a paucity of realistic applications.

Woodington (1980) encapsulates these views by highlighting five distinct impressions which can be gained from an overview of training evaluation.

Firstly, many practitioners do not perceive the training program as an instructional system, nor do they fully understand what constitutes the evaluation of training. The nature and type of organisation exerts a subtle influence (possibly control?) over the scope and methods of evaluation, and the conduct of evaluation is also dependent on

whether internal or external evaluators are used. Finally, he draws attention to the lack of personnel trained in evaluation methodology. The obvious constraint determining the type of evaluation chosen is the availability of resources. This includes time, money, and personnel, as well as the evaluator's own expertise. Possibly the latter is the major constraint. Lange (1974,23) expresses similar concerns, stating, "Too many bad evaluations are being presented ... evaluation is a good concept based on solid theoretical thinking. But its practice is not well developed".

The definition and purpose of evaluation enable the evaluator to determine what strategy to adopt. Practitioners need to see evaluation in a broader context than merely a set of techniques to be applied. In a systems approach, evaluation is an integral part of the HRD function which in turn is part of the whole organisational process. This integrated approach contrasts with the more popular view of evaluation as something that is "performed" at certain points and on certain groups; the integrated approach means it is difficult to separate evaluation from needs assessment, course design, course presentation, and transfer of training.

It is not within the scope of this article to expand on this further, but the belief that training programs should be continually evaluated from the earliest design phase in order to modify and improve the product goes unrecognised by many trainers. This would account for the popularity of Kirkpatrick's model, which tends to promote retrospective evaluation rather than formative or summative.

Evaluation techniques are not well written up in the literature, and the use of experimental control groups, statistical analysis and similar methods may be concepts which exist only in academic journals according to Bramley and Newby (1984b,18). The need for measurement of training effectiveness is often referred to, but there are few good examples of rigorous evaluation of training programs. One conclusion must be that practitioners do not know how to do much more than basic assessment. Much of what is labelled evaluation is basically an assessment of the actual training activity (Zenger and Hargis, 1982; Morris, 1984). The choice of techniques will depend on some combination of methodological and pragmatic questions, and there is a need to settle for 'sensible' evaluation - one cannot measure the impact of management training on the whole organisation but must make some compromises. Questionnaires, surveys and structured interviews should be carefully designed and field tested to ensure that worthwhile information is received.

The literature review confirms the belief of Morris (1984) that evaluation is regarded by most practitioners as desirable in principle, difficult in practice. It also highlights the lack of well written and documented articles for practitioners to learn from.

Tips

Tip 1: Organizing Your Thinking About Evaluation

One way to think about evaluation is to use a model that provides concrete definitions of what can be learned from them. Kirkpatrick's four-level framework is one example that can be used. This framework consists of four levels that progress in difficulty

from 1 (the easiest to conduct) to 4 (the hardest). When choosing the levels to include in your assessment, start by identifying the questions your evaluation needs to address.

KIRKPATRICK'S FOUR-LEVEL EVALUATION SCHEME

Level	Measurement focus	Questions addressed
1 - Reaction	Trainees' perceptions	What did trainees think of this training?
2 - Learning	Knowledge/skills gained	Was there an increase in knowledge or skill level?
3 - Behavior	Worksite implementation	Is new knowledge/skill being used on the job?
4 - Results	Impact on organization	What effect did the training have on the organization?

Examples:

Level 1: One way to assess trainee reactions and attitudes is to use a questionnaire.

- Questions can gather opinions about training methods, the instructor, the environment in which training took place, or other aspects of the training process.
- Pencil-and-paper surveys are convenient to use for trainees and the evaluator.

Level 2: Written or performance tests can assess change in knowledge/skills.

- The best way to measure changes in knowledge or skills is to test trainees before and after training.
- Note that even if a positive change is found, it is possible the trainees gained the new knowledge or skill from a source other than the training.
- If it is not possible to test trainees before training, their performance can be tested after training and they can be asked whether or not their understanding or skill came from the training session.

Level 3: Post-training testing or observations can assess use of skills on the job.

- This level must be completed outside of the training after trainees have had an opportunity to use what they have learned.
- This level is more difficult because it requires trainers or some other evaluator to follow-up months after training.

Level 4: Quantifiable measures are often used when assessing organizational impact.

- Some examples of measures that can be used are numbers regarding sales, injuries, or productivity.
- It can be difficult to determine the extent to which other factors besides training (i.e., economics of region) may have contributed to changes in organizational performance.

Key Points to Remember:

Different aspects of training can be evaluated.

- Level 1: Trainees' perceptions
- Level 2: Knowledge/skills gained
- Level 3: Worksite implementation
- Level 4: Impact on organization

Remember to direct your evaluation to specific questions.

- How did the trainees react to the training?
- Do people seem to have increased their skills?
- Are new skills being used?
- Has the organization been impacted?

Reference: Kirkpatrick, D. 2001. The four-level evaluation process. Ch. 12 in *What Smart Trainers Know: The Secrets of Success from the World's Foremost Experts*, L.L. Ukens, ed. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass/Pfeiffer, pp. 122-132.

Tip 2: Planning with the Training Evaluation Worksheet

The training evaluation worksheet can be used to guide evaluation planning. The worksheet is a quick reference for issues to consider and allows information to be recorded in a clear and concise manner for future reference.

Instructions for using the worksheet

Plan the Evaluation

Question 1: Who will be interested in the results?

- Must be addressed by identifying all who will be interested in the results.
- Examples: trainers, managers, organizations, government agencies

Question 2: What questions will be answered?

- Identify questions that are of particular importance for this specific evaluation. These questions should be ones that you expect to answer upon completion of the evaluation.
- Examples: Have people increased their knowledge and/or skills?
Did the information that was learned in training transfer to the workplace?

Question 3: What resources are available for evaluating the training program?

- Determine what resources are currently available for use in the evaluation and/or what kinds of resources you can easily obtain if necessary.
- Examples: money, time, personnel, equipment, materials

Gather the Information

The table provided in this section is useful for specifying the methods you have chosen to use in the evaluation, and when each method will be used. It is important to clearly write the type of method you would like to use and then to circle the choice(s) provided for when the method will be used.

Tip 3: Ways to Gather Data

One of the most important aspects of conducting an evaluation is choosing the right ways to find information. There are questions you can ask before starting your evaluation process to help you choose the methods that are best for your situation.

Questions:

Who is interested in the evaluation results?

- Trainer? Manager? Organization? Government Agency?

What questions do they want answered?

- Are skills/knowledge gained? Did transfer occur? Are there improvements?

What resources are available?

- Financial? Time? Personnel? Equipment? Materials?

There are many ways to gather information. Each has advantages and disadvantages.

Data Gathering Techniques

Questionnaires

- *Advantage:* Allows evaluators to quickly gather data from large groups.
- *Disadvantage:* Not always accurate because of factors such as people not responding honestly or accurately. Some reason for this are an uncomfortable testing environment, the desire to respond in a socially acceptable manner, and misunderstanding the instructions or questions.

Interviews

- *Advantage:* Allows the evaluator to gather data that is more accurate than that from questionnaires since the interviewer can verbally address any misunderstandings or questions. Can also ask for more in-depth information than is practical in written surveys.
- *Disadvantage:* Can be time-consuming and expensive if many questions are asked of many trainees. Analysis of in-depth data also takes a lot of time.

Facial expressions/Body language

- *Advantage:* Allows the evaluator to gather information without being intrusive.
- *Disadvantage:* One person's perception of an expression may not be the same as another.

Performance tests

- *Advantage:* Can measure the skills of a worker in a real or simulated work environment.
- *Disadvantage:* Can be difficult to simulate a work environment. If the test is conducted in the actual work environment, then it must be scheduled with regard to production concerns.

Written tests

- *Advantage:* Often standardized and validated before use. A reliable, valid test is able to consistently measure the same thing every time it is used. Written tests are usually completed in a classroom setting where large groups can be evaluated at the same time.
- *Disadvantage:* If there are problems with the testing environment (i.e., the room is too hot, the chairs are uncomfortable), the test-takers may become distracted and not respond accurately. Literacy or language problems can also be an issue.

Workplace observations

- *Advantage:* Gives clearest data about whether or not training is being used in workplace.
- *Disadvantage:* Requires evaluation some time after training in the work environment. This may interfere with production.

Team Games

- *Advantage:* Can be a creative way to engage individuals and keep their attention.
- *Disadvantage:* Games make it difficult to "measure" or evaluate individual trainees.

Group discussion

- *Advantage:* Can be a great way to gather information about training or to answer questions by creating an open forum where individuals can interact and talk.
- *Disadvantage:* Individual differences exist between those that participate in the discussion, and this factor may influence the type of information received. If some individuals are quieter than others, feel pressure to conform to what others are saying, or are disinterested, they may not share information or report how they really feel about the training.

Analysis of statistics

- *Advantage:* The use of numbers and statistics is highly regarded in providing and understanding information.
- *Disadvantage:* The numbers can sometimes be manipulated in such a way that data can be misleading. Misleading data can lead to incorrect or inaccurate beliefs about the information gathered regarding training.

Conclusion:

If you are clear about the evaluation questions you need to address, you will be able to assess the pros and cons of using various data gathering methods and decide which are best for you.

Tip 4: Recognizing Mistakes in Survey Questions

One common way to do an evaluation is to use a survey. When using or developing a survey, it is important to be able to recognize and avoid writing bad questions. There are certain characteristics that you can look for to ensure that your questions are written properly.

Common Mistakes in Survey Questions:

1. Double-barreling

Double-barreling occurs when one question deals with two or more issues or ideas, which makes it impossible to decide which issue the response really addresses. It is important to address one issue at a time and to use one question for each issue.

2. Leading

Leading occurs when a question encourages a person to respond in a certain manner (positively or negatively). Survey questions should be written in a manner that allows the person to respond without being influenced.

3. Wrong assumptions

Making a wrong assumption occurs when a question is written based upon the idea that the person answering has prior knowledge that is necessary to respond, when they may not. The best approach to writing answerable questions is to keep them simple. When that isn't possible you can expand them or create multiple questions when needed to ensure that each person can accurately respond.

4. Missing response options

The response options for questions must provide an option for every possibility that can accurately answer the question. When an item does not provide enough response options, you risk losing useful information about that which does not fall into the available categories.

5. Incorrect use of scales

One example of incorrect use of a scale occurs when a numerical scale with three or more response options is implemented for a question that can be better answered by only two options. Using appropriate scales will save you a considerable amount of time and effort, and your data will make more sense.

6. Negative behavior responses

If a question is written so that a person can only choose responses that incriminate them for negative behaviors, the response is seen as forced and poorly written. It is often difficult to obtain personal information from surveys, especially that which signifies some negative aspect about a person or their behavior. When seeking this type of information, it is important to phrase your question in a manner that is not intrusive.

Testing Survey Questions

The best way to know if your questions are going to get the answers you need is to test your survey before you use it to gather data. Have a person who has the same understanding of the issues being addressed as those people the survey is intended for review the survey and tell you: 1) if the questions are clear, 2) what he or she thinks each question is asking, 3) if there should be response options other than the ones you have listed, and 4) if they think valuable information will be obtained from these questions.

You can find more information about writing good questions at these links:

- <http://www.ryerson.ca/~mjoppe/ResearchProcess/WriteBetterQuestion.htm>
- <http://www.scantronsurveys.com>

Tip 5: Writing Better Survey Questions

Good questions are needed for an effective survey. Poorly worded questions can confuse people and cause them to provide inaccurate information that will not be useful.

Recognizing Bad Questions:

Following are examples of poorly-written questions. Read each one and think about why it is not a good question. After each question, the problem with it is explained and a better way to ask that question is suggested.

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Annotated bibliography of evaluation literature

Altschuld, J., Thomas, R, McColskey, W. (1984). An Evaluation Model for Development of Technical Training Programs. *Evaluation News*; 5,4, 3-36.

Adoption of Cronbach's Lifecycle model to course development and evaluation.

Anon (1986). Focus On Results. Report of 42nd Annual ASTD Conference. *Behavioural Sciences Newsletter*; Book XV, 13, 14 July.

Reviews material presented on evaluation, referring to Kirkpatrick's model, identifying frequent evaluation pitfalls and barriers to skill transfer.

Bakken, D. & Bernstein, A. (1982). A Systematic Approach To Evaluation. *Training Development Journal*, 36,8, 4-51.

Evaluation considered in terms of key diffusion makers and what information they want to know. Believes most training has multiple objectives so requires multiple measures. Key is to know what to measure in order to determine how.

Blakeslee, G. S. (1982). Evaluating A Communications Training Program. *Training & Development Journal*, 36,11, 84-89.

Case study on Communications program using a post course questionnaire after 6 months to evaluate application back on the job.

Bramely, P. & Newby, A. C. (1984a). The Evaluation Of Training Part I: Clarifying The Concept. *Journal of European & Industrial Training*, 8,6, 10-16.

Summarises the diversity of terminology used in training evaluation; differentiates numerous facets of the training process about which evaluation data may be useful, and provides a framework for linking different evaluation purposes with specific evaluation techniques; discusses the main purposes of evaluation and criteria for selecting an evaluation strategy.

Bramely, P. & Newby, A. C. (1984b). The Evaluation Of Training Part II: The Organisational Context. *Journal of European & Industrial Training*, 8,7,17- 21.

Examines some organisational factors needing consideration in an evaluation study, including 'politics' and the extent to which evaluations can be truly objective; looks at specialised techniques developed outside the profession by non-trainers.

Brethower, G. & Rummler, G. (1979). Evaluating Training. *Training & Development Journal*, 33,5, 14-22

Present a framework for considering evaluation alternatives in terms of a general systems view of training. Identifies four levels of evaluation studies. Looks at ability of various designs e.g. control group, reversal, multiple baseline, pre/post measures.

Brinkerhoff, R. (1981). Making Evaluation More Useful. *Training & Development Journal*, 35,12, 66-70.

Evaluation is the systemic inquiry into training contexts, needs, plans, operations and effects and must be linked to three stages of HR programming: planning, delivering, recycling. Evaluation should collect information to decide what is needed, what is working, how to improve program, what has happened as a result.

Brion, M & Newby, T. (1981). Research & Training-A Two Way Exchange. *Training Officer*, 17,9, 254-56.

Case study involving evaluation of T&D function by Housing Training Project for Dept of Environment, UK. Evaluation project involved five interwoven roles (catalyst, educator, sponsor, source of power, researcher).

Brook, J. A., Shouksmith, G. A. and Brook, R. J. (1983a). Research Report: An Evaluation of Management Training. Pt I Training Needs. *Journal of European Industrial Training*, 7,4, 23-28.

Define and develop various evaluation concepts, and discuss the setting of key performance indicators against which to judge the effectiveness of training.

Brook, J. A., Shouksmith, G. A. and Brook, R. J. (1983b) Research Report: Training. Pt II Changes In Understanding. *Journal of European & Industrial Training*, 7,7, 11-15.

Evaluation is cyclic, corresponding to various levels of objective setting to determine whether time and money are well spent; provides basis for well informed decisions concerning future improvement. Use of control groups and variety of statistical measures discussed.

Brook, J. A., Shouksmith, G. A. and Brook, R. J. (1984). Research Report: Training. Part III Changes in Work Behaviour. *Journal of European & Industrial Training*, 8,3, 11-16.

View training as having three stages - evaluation necessary at each point: (period of prelearning, learning phase, on job application stage) Argue the need for 3, 6, 12 month follow-up and present a case study outlining methods used over a 12 month period.

Brookfield, S. (1982). Evaluation Models & Adult Education. *Studies in Adult Education*, 14 Sept, 95-100.

Provides an overview of educational models and their relevance for adult education.

Brown, M. G. (1980). Evaluating Training Via Multiple Baseline Designs. *Training Development Journal*, 34,10, 11-16.

Discusses internal validity and considers four major research designs based on Brethower and Rummel's work. Purpose of evaluation is to determine what bottom line results can be directly attributed to training.

Bryson, J. M. & Cullen, J. W. (1984). A Contingent Approach To Strategy & Tactics In Formative & Summative Evaluations. *Evaluation & Program Planning*, 7,2, 267-290.

Argue for a move away from 'one best way' approach to a contingency approach.

Burgoyne, J. G. & Cooper, C. L. (1975). Evaluation Methodology. *Journal of Occupational Psychology*, 48, 53-62.

Considers some current issues in the methodology used in research evaluation in the managerial and training fields by comparing US and European approaches. Discuss the 'patient' vs. 'agent' framework in evaluation and point out the framework chosen has implications for the observational methodology. Methodological considerations include the timing of instructional measures, control groups, external and internal criteria, process of selecting measures.

Burgoyne, J. G. & Singh, R. (1977). Evaluation Of Training & Education. *Journal of European & Industrial Training*, 1,1, 17-21.

View evaluation in the context of the training/education process which sets in motion a chain of consequences made up of cause-effect links. Evaluation can be seen either as collecting data about consequences as an end in itself or as part of larger process of the management of education and training to make informed decisions. Discuss micro and macro evaluation (Type D and Type B) in terms of immediate vs. remote objectives and level of decision.

Byham, W. C. (1982). How Assessment Centres Are Used To Evaluate Training's Effectiveness. *Training*, 19,2, 32-38.

Presents case studies of four evaluations of reaming using assessment centres to evaluate.

Caliguri, J. (1984). The Evaluators Journal: A Qualitative Supplement To Program Evaluation. *Evaluation News*, 5,4, 54 58.

Discusses the use of the journal method to evaluate.

Clement, R. W. & Aranda, E. K. (1982). Evaluating Management Training: A Contingency Approach. *Training & Development Journal*, 36,8, 39-43.

Evaluation must consider variables other than just the training course, e.g. organisational setting within which manager attempts to use training, unique characteristics of manager to be trained, nature of the organisational problem to be solved by training. Propose a Contingency Framework for evaluation of management training.

Covert, R. W. (1984). A Checklist For Developing Questionnaires. *Evaluation News*, 15,4, 74-78.

Practical guidance in developing evaluation questionnaires.

Cummings, O. & Nowakowski, A. (1984a). Course Evaluation Procedures In Professional Education. *Evaluation News*, 5,4, 28-32.

Advocate formative evaluation during course development stage. Present a useful three dimensional evaluation model.

Cummings, O. & Nowakowski, A. (1984b). Microcomputer Training Impact Study. *Evaluation News*, 5,4, 43-47.

Discuss how a large accounting firm evaluated a micro computer course.

Del Gaizo, E. (1984). Proof That Supervisory Training Works. *Training & Development Journal*, 38,3, 30-31.

Using Kirkpatrick's model, he gives some guidelines for data collection at each level.

Deming, B. S. & Phillips, J. A. (1974). Systematic Curriculum Evaluation: A Means And Methodology. *Theory Into Practice*, 13,1, 41-45.

Argue that evaluation has often been no more than an application of 'conventional wisdom' which involved describing philosophic underpinnings, intents, process and product of program, checking internal consistency, and applying appropriate external criteria of judgement.

Dhanens, V. (1984). Evaluation Of Instructor Performance. *Evaluation News*, 5,4, 37-40.

Presents a method for instructor evaluation.

Dopyera, J. & Pitone, L. (1983). Decision Points In Planning The Evaluation of Training. *Training & Development Journal*, 37,5, 66-71.

Argues for planned strategy of evaluation involving 8 decision points: (a) should evaluation be done - is it worth time and effort? (b) what purpose? (c) what will be measured? (d) how comprehensive? (e) who has authority and responsibility? (f) source of data? (g) how will data be collected and compiled? (h) how analysed and presented?

Duncan, W. J. (1984). Planning and Evaluating Management Education and Development: Why So Little Attention to Such Basic Concerns? *Journal of Management Development*, 2,4, 57-68.

Considers general trends in management education, focusing on poorly defined goals and lack of evaluation.

Easterby-Smith, M. (1981). The Evaluation of Management Education & Development: An Overview. *Personnel Review*, 10,2, 28-36.

Critically reviews current practices in training course evaluation (finding it to be mainly a ritual); offers reasons for non-evaluation and suggests asking participants and their bosses to complete short evaluation questionnaires before the course, at the end of the course, and some time later as a review of course effects. Contends that such a procedure has potential for aiding the learning process.

Easterby-Smith, M. & Tanton, M. (1985). Turning Course Evaluation From an End to a Means. *Personnel Management*, April, 25-27.

Look at parallel developments in educational evaluation which have relevance for evaluation of management training in three stages: (a) Cost Benefit Analysis prevalent in the 1960s. (b) Importance of context and impact of organisational value systems. (c) Aid to Decision Making. Defines evaluation as including any intervention aimed at providing feedback about the processes and nature of human development, the organisational systems and programs intended to facilitate it and the wider organisational context within which it occurs.

Eckenboy, C. (1983). Evaluating Training Effectiveness: A Form That Seems To Work. *Training*, 20,7, 56-59.

Presents a simple diagnostic tool to identify blatant deficiencies as well as to pinpoint specific weak areas in terms of content, presentation, and applicability. Content and instruction are combined to give a measure of 'program total'. A sample form and how to calculate scores is provided.

Elkins, A. J. (1977). Setting Objectives. *Lifelong Learning*, 46,10, 22-23.

Considers difficulties in evaluating programs where evaluation is linked to set objectives, particularly in adult education where learner-determined and instructor-determined objectives may not be congruent.

Foxon, M. J. (1986). Evaluation of Training: The Art Of The Impossible. *Training Officer*, 22, 5, 133-137.

Singles out four main reasons to evaluate: check if training led to relevant learning; check if transfer occurred; check if skills/knowledge have become integral part of job performance; assess cost effectiveness.

Freeman, A. (1978). Evaluation(sic) The Effectiveness Of Training Programs. *Training & Development In Australia*, 5,4, 20-21.

Effective evaluation requires behavioural objectives, the involvement of supervisors in the training program, and the assessment by someone other than the trainer.

Galagan, P. (1983). The Numbers Game: Puffing Value On Human Resource Development. *Training & Development Journal*, 37,8, 48-51.

Questions whether any of the simple or complex methods do measure HRD in a meaningful way. Proposes a matrix focussed on verification, relevance and diagnosis at four levels (entry capability; end of course performance; mastery of job performance; organisational performance).

Galvin, J. (1983). What Can Trainers Learn From Educators About Evaluating Management Training? *Training & Development Journal*, 37,8, 52-27.

Applies Stufflebeam's CIPP model to management training and refers to an ASTD survey comparing trainer attitudes to Kirkpatrick's and the CIPP models.

Glass, G. V. & Ellett, E. S. (1980). Evaluation Research. *Annual Review of Psychology*, 31, 211-228.

Compare seven alternative conceptions of evaluation to a set of standards (logic, science, ethics). Evaluation may be seen as applied science, as systems management, as decision theory, as assessment of progress to goals, as Jurisprudence, as description or portrayal, and rational empiricism. Best design is a unique compromise between the fundamental purpose of evaluation and the possibilities afforded by situation.

Goldstein, I. (1978). The Pursuit Of Validity In The Evaluation Of Training Programs. *Human Factors*, 20, 2, 131-144.

Discusses three validity issues: did the training make a difference? (internal validity); did they learn? (training validity); are they transferring the learning? (performance validity).

Goldstein, I. (1980). Training In Work Organisations. *Annual Review of Psychology*, 31, 229-272.

Describes the stages which evaluation efforts have gone through (a) anecdotal, training reactions, (b) strict adherence to experimental/academic approach; (c) consideration of validity issues and design methodology; (d) recognition that program and evaluation interact with the organisation. Critical that evaluation skill centre on Kirkpatrick's model and claims that "the failure to develop methodologies for systematic observation of behaviour is a serious fault".

Grenough, J. & Dixon, R. (1982). Using 'Utilization' To Measure Training Results. *Training*, 19, 2, 40-42.

Suggest a strategic evaluation model to generate future oriented management information which is designed to identify whether or not trainees are using their experience. Evaluation should identify what results training should have produced, what results occurred, how worthwhile results are, and how results will be used.

Guyot, J. F. (1978). Management Training & Post-Industrial Apologetics. *California Management Review*, 20, 4, 84-93.

Claims that much of the current research relating to training simply begs the question by focusing not on the results of training but on the assessment of training 'needs'. Points out that carefully measured benefits are often ones which do not count for much, whereas some of the real benefits are not convincingly connected to the training experience because they are so poorly measured by available standards.

Harper, E. (1985). Evaluation As A Client Service. *Journal of European & Industrial Training*, 9, 4, 9-11.

Sees three stages to evaluation process: (a) investigation of context, (b) implementation, (c) reporting. Advocates a comprehensive formative and summative approach to the evaluation of training.

Harper, E. & Bell, C. (1982). Developing Training Materials: An Evaluation-Production Model. *Journal of European & Industrial Training*, 6,4, 24-26.

Present their E-P model with three phases: (a) needs analysis - preparatory evaluation; (b) quality control function on first draft - formative; (c) summative evaluation - the real life evaluation.

Harries, J. M. (1981). Evaluating A Management Development Skills Program in Local Government. *Journal of European & Industrial Training*, 5,1, 2-4.

Present an in-depth evaluation of a management development program using an interview technique and showing what sort of data can be gained from a fairly simple method.

Hawes, M. & Bailey, J. (1985). How A Validation Study of Engineering Courses Was Conducted. *Training & Development*, 4,1, 20-24.

Outlines a case study in which an evaluation based on semi-structured interviews and questionnaires assessed whether the course produced the intended outcomes or should be improved.

Jerrell, J. (1984). Evaluation Experience in Business Settings. *Evaluation News*, 5,4, 15-17.

Relates educational evaluation to HRD evaluation issues.

Kane, J. S. (1976). The Evaluation of Organisational Training Programs. *Journal of European Training*, 5,6, 289-338.

Gives a detailed treatment of the major factors involved in evaluation including validity, quasi-experimental and non- experimental designs.

Kaye, M. (1985). The Myth of Program Evaluation. *Training & Development In Australia*, 12,4, 11.

Argues that learning and performance, not the program, should be evaluated.

Keenan, K. (1983). Evaluation of Training. *Training Officer*, 19,2, 53-55.

Develops the four processes approach of Warr, Bird and Rackham (1970) viz. context (TNA), input (resources), reaction (in order to improve program), and outcome (change in knowledge, skill, attitudes; change on job; overall organisational change).

Kelley, A. I., Orgel, K. F. and Baier, D. M. (1984). Evaluation: The Bottom Line is Closer Than You Think. *Training & Development Journal*, 38,8, 32-37.

Consider evaluation critical to the economic survival of the T&D function and ultimately of the organisation and suggest collection of data measuring profit-relevant behaviours of trainees. Use of graphic analysis of pre/post testing outlined.

Kirkhart, K. (1981). Defining Evaluator competencies: New Light On An Old Issue. *Evaluation News*, 2,2, 188-191.

Discusses the US Standards of utility, feasibility, propriety and accuracy and develops his own 8 categories of evaluation skills.

Kirkpatrick, D. (1983). Four Steps to Measuring Training Effectiveness. *Personnel Administrator*, 28,11, 19-25.

Presents his four stage model.

Kirkpatrick, D. L (1977). Evaluating Training Programs: Evidence vs. Proof. *Training & Development Journal*, 31,11, 9-12.

Outlines features of his four stage model and highlights the difference between evidence and proof in evaluation.

Kruger, M. & Smith, K. (1986). Evaluating Management Training. *Training & Development in Australia*, 13,2, 20-22.

Present a case study in which evaluation is used to determine the impact of management training on student performance using pre/post testing. Agree that evaluation of interpersonal skills is difficult other than at the reactions level.

Lange, R. R. (1974). A Search For Utility In New Evaluation Thought. *Theory Into Practice*, 13,1, 22-30.

Examines the contributions of the major educational evaluators, including Scriven, Provus, Stake, Guba and Stufflebeam, but criticises their failure to provide specific methodologies which practitioners could implement.

Larson, R. E. (1985). The Value In Education. *Training*, 22,1, 92.

Evaluation is necessary to survive cost cutting and involves setting measurable objectives establishing and implementing cost effective plan to meet objectives, and measuring the degree to which objectives are met.

McCullough, J. M. (1984). To Measure In A Vacuum. *Training & Development Journal*, 38,6, 68-70.

Explains the Deficiency Analysis Review Technique (DART) which justifies training by quantifying the cost of not doing it. Suggests evaluating the need for/benefits from training before the design stage.

Mezoff, B. (1981). How to get Accurate Self Reports of Training Outcomes. *Training & Development Journal*, 35,9, 57-61.

Advances reasons why some evaluations show no improved level of learning when it has occurred. Identifies the problem of response shift bias when pre and post testing is used as the main evaluation technique.

Minick, R. & Medlin, S. (1983). Anticipatory Evaluations In HRD Programming. *Training & Development Journal*, 37,5, 89-94.

Propose a model incorporating: (a) anticipatory evaluation which compares organisational needs to program objectives and assesses trial runs; (b) program evaluation which involves program effort evaluation (implementation as agreed) and program effect evaluation (objectives met); (c) organisational impact evaluation which is predictive evaluation (showing impact on organisational effectiveness).

Mmobuosi, I. B. (1985). An Alternative Approach To The Evaluation of Management Training: The Use of Protocol Analysis Method. *Management Education & Development*, 16,3, 262-268.

Offers an alternative to positivist evaluation methods and proposes phenomenological methods which use people's statements and behaviours to interpret their learning and so form the basis of the evaluation.

Morris, M. (1984). The Evaluation of Training. *Industrial & Commercial Training*, 16,2, 9-16.

Proposes a model incorporating eleven steps, but the first five are really an audit of the training function in the context of the organisation. Gives various techniques to be used at reaction, learning, and behaviour levels.

Putman, A. O. (1980). Pragmatic Evaluation. *Training & Development Journal*, 34,10, 36-40.

Refutes the academic evaluation approach which is overly concerned with truth and considers this paradigm inappropriate to HRD. HRD evaluation should be future (rather than past) oriented, provide reasonable evidence rather than irrefutable proof and provide an information base to make future decisions.

Rackham, N. (1973). Recent Thoughts On Evaluation. *Industrial & Commercial Training*, 5,10, 454-461.

Discusses his attempts to develop predictive rather than descriptive evaluation methods by distinguishing between short cycle evaluation done during the course (either informally in the session or after each session), and long cycle evaluation (where evaluation and redesign is at the end of the course).

Rae, W. L. (1985). How Valid Is Validation? *Industrial & Commercial Training*, 31,1, 15-20.

Distinguishes between validation, evaluation and assessment. Argues in favour of both subjective and objective measures and expands on a number of techniques including pre/post testing.

Salinger, R. & Deming, B. (1982). Practical Strategies For Evaluating Training. *Training & Development Journal*, 36,8, 20-29.

Suggest evaluation should answer the question "What do you want to know about training?" and identify 6 strategies to address the purpose of evaluation.

Schearer, R. W. (1976). The Course Was Beaut ... But What Happens Now? *Training & Development In Australia*, 3,3, 8-13.

Discusses the need to measure course effectiveness but confuses evaluation and transfer issues.

Siedman, B. (1979). Missing From The Curriculum: The Other Side of Program Evaluation. *Evaluation News*, No.12, Sept, 22-23.

Discusses training evaluation in the context of the organisation and identifies some of the competencies needed.

Smith, M. E. (1980). Evaluating Training Operations And Programs. *Training & Development Journal*, 34,10, 70-78.

Develops an evaluation matrix expanding Kirkpatrick's model, and proposes a 7 phase process to integrate evaluation into the entire training process.

Snyder, R., Raben, C. and Farr, J. (1980). A Model For The Systematic Evaluation of Human Resource Development Programs. *Academy of Management Review*, 5,3, 431-444.

Suggest that evaluators should actively avoid either/or inquisition, recognise that a measure of control is gained by those to whom feedback is given, and develop a framework for the conceptualisation of the evaluation process. Propose a systematic model of evaluation for HRD which is an adaptation of Stufflebeam's CIPP model.

Stake, R. E. (1982). How Sharp Should The Evaluators Teeth Be? *Evaluation News*, 3,3, 79-80.

Discusses the competencies required by an evaluator.

Stevenson, G. (1980). Evaluating Training Daily. *Training & Development Journal*, 34,5, 120-122.

Considers need for ongoing evaluation to tailor a program and suggests daily evaluation meetings of 30 minutes duration with a selection of participants.

Swierczek, F. & Carmichael, L. (1985). The Quantity And Quality Of Evaluating Training. *Training & Development Journal*, 39,1, 95-99.

Discuss Kirkpatrick's model in the context of management training evaluation in order to improve the program, give feedback to planners, managers, and trainees, and to assess skill development.

Thompson, J. (1978). How To Develop A More Systematic Evaluation Strategy. *Training & Development Journal*, 32,7, 88-93.

Trainers must consider why they want to evaluate if they are to develop a strategy which will provide an orderly approach to compare 'what is' with 'what is wanted'.

Trapnell, G. (1984). Putting The Evaluation Puzzle Together. *Training & Development Journal*, 38,5, 90-93.

Considers the purpose of evaluation as assisting in design and replication of successful training programs, and determining reasons for failure.

Tyson, L. A. & Birnbrauer, S. (1985). High-quality Evaluation. *Training & Development Journal*, 39,9, 33-37.

Describe evaluation as a system of quality control for training and HR and identify five steps involving evaluation mission statement, evaluator selection process, evaluator's role, evaluation methods and procedures, and training of evaluator.

Williams, G. (1976). The Validity Of Methods Of Evaluating Learning. *Journal of European Industrial Training*, 5,1, 12-20.

Discusses content, criterion related and construct validity, and highlights the difficulties in evaluating according to objectives. Concludes that the higher levels of objectives are the ones which really count but which are difficult or impossible to evaluate with a reasonable degree of validity.

Wittingslow, G. E. (1986). Making Training Effectiveness Work. *Training & Development in Australia*, 13,4, 8-9.

Claims the distinction between validation and evaluation is blurred and that much of the discussion of evaluation is about validation. Introduces his technique of single case research design, develops the methodology and

discusses applications in context of Kirkpatrick's model.

Woodington, D. (1980). Some Impressions of Evaluation of Training in Industry. *Phi Delta Kappan*, 61,5, 326-8.

Outlines five impressions he has of evaluation: no clear realisation that a training program is an instructional system; no clear perception of what constitutes evaluation; nature of the organisation will influence evaluation strategies; evaluation programs differ depending whether they are in-house or externally done; lack of personnel trained in evaluation methodology.

Zenger, J. & Hargis, K. (1982). Assessing Training Results: Its Time To Take The Plunge. *Training & Development Journal*, 36,1, 11-16.

Practitioners need to consider issues of rigour, relevance and economy when evaluating. Apply these three criteria five types of evaluation, and argue for a defined percent of the total training budget to be allocated to evaluation.

Conflict

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Conflict

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Why do conflicts occur?

Clearly, no two conflicts are ever the same, but we can attempt to group the kinds of motivations which are likely to be present. At a very fundamental level, we could argue that conflict arises from people's *needs* and *desires*, which may often be incompatible and therefore in conflict. Needs can range from questions of material survival and subsistence, to those of security and comfort, to issues of identity and self-worth. Unless the food is really medieval, it may be safe to assume that primary needs will not motivate conflict in a training seminar. In an intercultural group dynamic, it is also safe to assume that any of the other socio-psychological needs may arise. Closely related to these kinds of needs are people's *values*, the guidelines by which they live their lives and interact socially with others. A training offers multiple situations where values may come into opposition, suggesting that a key role of the trainer is to facilitate a safe forum for the potentially valuable exchanges that may result. Yet what happens if values are so deeply held that exchange and compromise becomes impossible, and parties insist that theirs should predominate?

To complicate matters further, needs and values are not always visible and declared. If we dust off the beloved youth work iceberg one more time, we could put it that needs and values lie under the waterline, while *positions* are what are visible as the conflict is played out. The position may be motivated by the needs, as yet unspoken, but may only be expressed in relation to the focus of the conflict and the issue that is in the group domain. It is not surprising that conflict parties rarely voice their needs or interests directly. The dynamics of a conflict demand the adoption of positions; these can be defended. Needs, particularly emotional or personal ones, may be interpreted as displaying weakness in a charged situation, or it may be more strategic to keep them hidden. Needs are not always easily articulated - people may not have a clear focus on their needs, and may have become so concentrated on strengthening their position that the needs involved become more obscured.

Conflict management

The area of conflict studies is loaded with terminology; is a conflict resolved or transformed? What does it mean to manage or intervene? A vast range of theoretical models for engagement with conflicts exist, to be chosen in relation to the kind of analysis we have undertaken above. We have space here only to outline possibilities open to the trainer, and to suggest resources for further study.

Negotiation

An important point to bear in mind is that a conflict can only be resolved by those involved. Arbitration (a solution imposed by an agreed third party) is rarely completely satisfactory, and ill-suited to the peer philosophy of youth education. Negotiation, on the other hand, allows all parties to define the situation in which they find themselves, and to build solutions built on an open analysis of the needs involved. That said, negotiation is also open to manipulation, depending on the strategies employed by the people involved. *Concession-making*, for example, while necessary, may allow for agreement without addressing the underlying needs in a sustainable fashion. Given the bi-polar nature of negotiation, it can also lead to the hardening of basic positions, if a process of *contention* is allowed to develop. Currently, there is an influential body of work advocating the idea of a *win\win approach*; a philosophy and practice of joint-problem solving that attempts to help both parties to achieve their goals. Central to this strategy is a combination of moving from positions to needs, *active listening*, and creatively designing options that can be pursued. What this move from positions to needs also involves is a fundamental focus on the conflict, rather than opposing actors, as the problem. This is easily said, however, as a crucial and unpredictable factor in conflict is emotion, and the trainer involved in a conflict with a team member or participant may find it difficult to implement a careful negotiation strategy while managing their own emotions and dealing with the anger and insecurity which surrounds them . That is why negotiation is often accompanied or superseded by:

Mediation

Mediation involves the use of a third-party to aid agreement and facilitate the process of conflict resolution. An appropriate metaphor is that of the mid-wife, easing the birth of something that the mediator did not create. She is not the fire service, arriving to solve the problem. Instead, mediation involves decision-enabling, and is a skilled process demanding experience and reflexiveness. According to the Mediation Network for Northern Ireland, the key functions of mediation are:

- To facilitate communication
- To improve understanding
- To support creative thinking

- To explore accommodations

Given the often intimate nature of a training, one of the challenges of mediation is communicating neutrality and fairness. Trainers may be called upon to perform what Pruitt and Carnevale have called *emergent mediation*; that is, mediation where the mediator has an ongoing relationship with those in conflict, and is involved in the context of the dispute (1997:167). Therefore the mediator also has a history in relation to the conflict, and is not operating within a formal system of mediation. Guidelines and principles of the process must then be agreed, and consistently applied by the trainer as mediator. Where this question of intertwined histories is important is in relation to the notion of bias. Clearly, biased mediation is as useful, or even less so, than openly taking sides in a dispute. Equally, objectivity is a fiction, in this kind of context the trainer may have views and opinions on the matter being negotiated. Clear guidelines can facilitate an impartial process, but in facilitating this process it could be argued that the mediator needs to be transparent concerning their understanding of the problem. This allows the conflict participants to build a more complete picture of the process, and minimise the possibility of distrust.

Getting to Yes: Negotiating Agreement Without Giving In

In this text, Fisher and Ury describe their four principles for effective negotiation. They also describe three common obstacles to negotiation and discuss ways to overcome those obstacles.

Fisher and Ury explain that a good agreement is one which is wise and efficient, and which improves the parties' relationship. Wise agreements satisfy the parties' interests and are fair and lasting. The authors' goal is to develop a method for reaching good agreements. Negotiations often take the form of positional bargaining. In positional bargaining each part opens with their position on an issue. The parties then bargain from their separate opening positions to agree on one position. Haggling over a price is a typical example of positional bargaining. Fisher and Ury argue that positional bargaining does not tend to produce good agreements. It is an inefficient means of reaching agreements, and the agreements tend to neglect the parties' interests. It encourages stubbornness and so tends to harm the parties' relationship. Principled negotiation provides a better way of reaching good agreements. Fisher and Ury develop four principles of negotiation. Their process of principled negotiation can be used effectively on almost any type of dispute. Their four principles are 1) separate the people from the problem; 2) focus on interests rather than positions; 3) generate a variety of options before settling on an agreement; and 4) insist that the agreement be based on objective criteria.

These principles should be observed at each stage of the negotiation process. The process begins with the analysis of the situation or problem, of the other parties' interests and perceptions, and of the existing options. The next stage is to plan ways of responding to the situation and the other parties. Finally, the parties discuss the

problem trying to find a solution on which they can agree.

Separating People and Issues

Fisher and Ury's first principle is to separate the people from the issues. People tend to become personally involved with the issues and with their side's positions. And so they will tend to take responses to those issues and positions as personal attacks. Separating the people from the issues allows the parties to address the issues without damaging their relationship. It also helps them to get a clearer view of the substantive problem.

The authors identify three basic sorts of people problems. First are differences on perception among the parties. Since most conflicts are based in differing interpretations of the facts, it is crucial for both sides to understand the other's viewpoint. The parties should try to put themselves in the other's place. The parties should not simply assume that their worst fears will become the actions of the other party. Nor should one side blame the other for the problem. Each side should try to make proposals which would be appealing to the other side. The more that the parties are involved in the process, the more likely they are to be involved in and to support the outcome.

Emotions are a second source of people problems. Negotiation can be a frustrating process. People often react with fear or anger when they feel that their interests are threatened. The first step in dealing with emotions is to acknowledge them, and to try to understand their source. The parties must acknowledge the fact that certain emotions are present, even when they don't see those feelings as reasonable. Dismissing another's feelings as unreasonable is likely to provoke an even more intense emotional response. The parties must allow the other side to express their emotions. They must not react emotionally to emotional outbursts. Symbolic gestures such as apologies or an expression of sympathy can help to defuse strong emotions.

Communication is the third main source of people problems. Negotiators may not be speaking to each other, but may simply be grandstanding for their respective constituencies. The parties may not be listening to each other, but may instead be planning their own responses. Even when the parties are speaking to each other and are listening, misunderstandings may occur. To combat these problems, the parties should employ active listening. The listeners should give the speaker their full attention, occasionally summarizing the speaker's points to confirm their understanding. It is important to remember that understanding the other's case does not mean agreeing with it. Speakers should direct their speech toward the other parties and keep focused on what they are trying to communicate. Each side should avoid blaming or attacking the other, and should speak about themselves.

Generally the best way to deal with people problems is to prevent them from arising. People problems are less likely to come up if the parties have a good relationship, and think of each other as partners in negotiation rather than as adversaries.

Focus on Interests

Good agreements focus on the parties' interests, rather than their positions. As Fisher and Ury explain, "Your position is something you have decided upon. Your

interests are what caused you to so decide." [p. 42] Defining a problem in terms of positions means that at least one party will "lose" the dispute. When a problem is defined in terms of the parties' underlying interests it is often possible to find a solution which satisfies both parties' interests.

The first step is to identify the parties' interests regarding the issue at hand. This can be done by asking why they hold the positions they do, and by considering why they don't hold some other possible position. Each party usually has a number of different interests underlying their positions. And interests may differ somewhat among the individual members of each side. However, all people will share certain basic interests or needs, such as the need for security and economic well-being.

Once the parties have identified their interests, they must discuss them together. If a party wants the other side to take their interests into account, that party must explain their interests clearly. The other side will be more motivated to take those interests into account if the first party shows that they are paying attention to the other side's interests. Discussions should look forward to the desired solution, rather than focusing on past events. Parties should keep a clear focus on their interests, but remain open to different proposals and positions.

Generate Options

Fisher and Ury identify four obstacles to generating creative options for solving a problem. Parties may decide prematurely on an option and so fail to consider alternatives. The parties may be intent on narrowing their options to find the single answer. The parties may define the problem in win-lose terms, assuming that the only options are for one side to win and the other to lose. Or a party may decide that it is up to the other side to come up with a solution to the problem.

The authors also suggest four techniques for overcoming these obstacles and generating creative options. First it is important to separate the invention process from the evaluation stage. The parties should come together in an informal atmosphere and brainstorm for all possible solutions to the problem. Wild and creative proposals are encouraged. Brainstorming sessions can be made more creative and productive by encouraging the parties to shift between four types of thinking: stating the problem, analyzing the problem, considering general approaches, and considering specific actions. Parties may suggest partial solutions to the problem. Only after a variety of proposals have been made should the group turn to evaluating the ideas. Evaluation should start with the most promising proposals. The parties may also refine and improve proposals at this point.

Participants can avoid falling into a win-lose mentality by focusing on shared interests. When the parties' interests differ, they should seek options in which those differences can be made compatible or even complementary. The key to reconciling different interests is to "look for items that are of low cost to you and high benefit to them, and vice versa." [p. 79] Each side should try to make proposals that are appealing to the other side, and that the other side would find easy to agree to. To do this it is important to identify the decision makers and target proposals directly toward them. Proposals are easier to agree to when they seem legitimate, or when they are supported by precedent. Threats are usually less effective at motivating agreement than are beneficial offers.

Use Objective Criteria

When interests are directly opposed, the parties should use objective criteria to resolve their differences. Allowing such differences to spark a battle of wills will destroy relationships, is inefficient, and is not likely to produce wise agreements. Decisions based on reasonable standards makes it easier for the parties to agree and preserve their good relationship.

The first step is to develop objective criteria. Usually there are a number of different criteria which could be used. The parties must agree which criteria is best for their situation. Criteria should be both legitimate and practical. Scientific findings, professional standards, or legal precedent are possible sources of objective criteria. One way to test for objectivity is to ask if both sides would agree to be bound by those standards. Rather than agreeing in substantive criteria, the parties may create a fair procedure for resolving their dispute. For example, children may fairly divide a piece of cake by having one child cut it, and the other choose their piece.

There are three points to keep in mind when using objective criteria. First each issue should be approached as a shared search for objective criteria. Ask for the reasoning behind the other party's suggestions. Using the other parties' reasoning to support your own position can be a powerful way to negotiate. Second, each party must keep an open mind. They must be reasonable, and be willing to reconsider their positions when there is reason to. Third, while they should be reasonable, negotiators must never give in to pressure, threats, or bribes. When the other party stubbornly refuses to be reasonable, the first party may shift the discussion from a search for substantive criteria to a search for procedural criteria.

When the Other Party Is More Powerful

No negotiation method can completely overcome differences in power. However, Fisher and Ury suggest ways to protect the weaker party against a poor agreement, and to help the weaker party make the most of their assets.

Often negotiators will establish a "bottom line" in an attempt to protect themselves against a poor agreement. The bottom line is what the party anticipates as the worst acceptable outcome. Negotiators decide in advance of actual negotiations to reject any proposal below that line. Fisher and Ury argue against using bottom lines. Because the bottom line figure is decided upon in advance of discussions, the figure may be arbitrary or unrealistic. Having already committed oneself to a rigid bottom line also inhibits inventiveness in generating options.

Instead the weaker party should concentrate on assessing their best alternative to a negotiated agreement (BATNA). The authors note that "the reason you negotiate is to produce something better than the results you can obtain without negotiating." [p. 104] The weaker party should reject agreements that would leave them worse off than their BATNA. Without a clear idea of their BATNA a party is simply negotiating blindly. The BATNA is also key to making the most of existing assets. Power in a negotiation comes from the ability to walk away from negotiations. Thus the party with the best BATNA is the more powerful party in the negotiation. Generally, the weaker party can take unilateral steps to improve their alternatives to negotiation. They must identify potential opportunities and take steps to further develop those opportunities. The weaker party will have a better understanding of the negotiation

context if they also try to estimate the other side's BATNA. Fisher and Ury conclude that "developing your BATNA thus not only enables you to determine what is a minimally acceptable agreement, it will probably raise that minimum." [p. 111]

When the Other Party Won't Use Principled Negotiation

Sometimes the other side refuses to budge from their positions, makes personal attacks, seeks only to maximize their own gains, and generally refuses to partake in principled negotiations. Fisher and Ury describe three approaches for dealing with opponents who are stuck in positional bargaining. First, one side may simply continue to use the principled approach. The authors point out that this approach is often contagious.

Second, the principled party may use "negotiation jujitsu" to bring the other party in line. The key is to refuse to respond in kind to their positional bargaining. When the other side attacks, the principled party should not counter attack, but should deflect the attack back onto the problem. Positional bargainers usually attack either by asserting their position, or by attacking the other side's ideas or people. When they assert their position, respond by asking for the reasons behind that position. When they attack the other side's ideas, the principled party should take it as constructive criticism and invite further feedback and advice. Personal attacks should be recast as attacks on the problem. Generally the principled party should use questions and strategic silences to draw the other party out.

When the other party remains stuck in positional bargaining, the one-text approach may be used. In this approach a third party is brought in. The third party should interview each side separately to determine what their underlying interests are. The third party then assembles a list of their interests and asks each side for their comments and criticisms of the list. She then takes those comments and draws up a proposal. The proposal is given to the parties for comments, redrafted, and returned again for more comments. This process continues until the third party feels that no further improvements can be made. At that point, the parties must decide whether to accept the refined proposal or to abandon negotiations.

When the Other Party Uses Dirty Tricks

Sometimes parties will use unethical or unpleasant tricks in an attempt to gain an advantage in negotiations such as good guy/bad guy routines, uncomfortable seating, and leaks to the media. The best way to respond to such tricky tactics is to explicitly raise the issue in negotiations, and to engage in principled negotiation to establish procedural ground rules for the negotiation.

Fisher and Ury identify the general types of tricky tactics. Parties may engage in deliberate deception about the facts, their authority, or their intentions. The best way to protect against being deceived is to seek verification of the other side's claims. It may help to ask them for further clarification of a claim, or to put the claim in writing. However, in doing this it is very important not to be seen as calling the other party a liar; that is, as making a personal attack. Another common type of tactic is psychological warfare. When the tricky party uses a stressful environment, the principled party should identify the problematic element and suggest a more

comfortable or fair change. Subtle personal attacks can be made less effective simply by recognizing them for what they are. Explicitly identifying them to the offending party will often put an end to such attacks. Threats are a way to apply psychological pressure. The principled negotiator should ignore them where possible, or undertake principled negotiations on the use of threats in the proceedings.

The last class of trick tactics are positional pressure tactics which attempt to structure negotiations so that only one side can make concessions. The tricky side may refuse to negotiate, hoping to use their entry into negotiations as a bargaining chip, or they may open with extreme demands. The principled negotiator should recognize this as a bargaining tactic, and look into their interests in refusing to negotiate. They may escalate their demands for every concession they make. The principled negotiator should explicitly identify this tactic to the participants, and give the parties a chance to consider whether they want to continue negotiations under such conditions. Parties may try to make irrevocable commitments to certain positions, or to make-take-it-or-leave-it offers. The principled party may decline to recognize the commitment or the finality of the offer, instead treating them as proposals or expressed interests. Insist that any proposals be evaluated on their merits, and don't hesitate to point out dirty tricks.

Roger Fisher and William Ury, *Getting to Yes: Negotiating Agreement Without Giving In*, (New York: Penguin Books, 1983).

Intercultural Learning

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What is Intercultural learning ?

The term intercultural learning can be understood on different levels. On a more literal level, intercultural learning refers to an individual process of acquiring knowledge, attitudes, or behaviour that is connected with the interaction of different cultures. Very often, however, intercultural learning is seen in a larger context to denote a concept of how people with different backgrounds can live together peacefully, and the process that is needed to build such a society. Learning in this context is consequently understood less on a purely individual level, but emphasises the open ended character of this process towards an intercultural society.

Intercultural learning is a process that aims to reduce cultural ignorance.

Objectives of Intercultural learning are:

- to counter discriminatory attitudes
- to promote a positive attitude to difference and cultural diversity
- to question ethnocentric perspectives

What is culture? And what is intercultural?

The term we look at incorporated into intercultural learning is culture. All ideas about intercultural learning build on an implicit or explicit idea about culture. They all have in common that they perceive culture as something human-made. Culture has been

referred to as the software which people use in daily life; it is commonly described as being about basic assumptions, values and norms that people hold. There are many theoretical and practical arguments and discussions about concepts of culture.

Is culture necessarily linked to a group of people, or does individual culture exist?

What are elements of culture?

Can one establish a cultural map of the world?

Do cultures change? Why and how?

How strong is the link between culture and actual behaviour of individuals and groups?

Can one have several cultural backgrounds and what does that imply?

How flexible is culture, how open for individual interpretation?

Very often, looking at culture implies looking at the interaction of cultures. Many authors

have stated that, if it were not for the existence of more than one culture, we would not think about culture at all. The apparent differences of how humans can think, feel and act are what make us aware of culture. Culture, therefore, cannot be thought of simply as culture, it has to be thought of as cultures. Consequently, it makes sense to advance in this chapter from ideas that are mainly focused on culture in itself to ideas that focus more on the interaction of cultures, on intercultural experiences. Some terms are at times used to replace intercultural, such as cross-cultural or multicultural. For some authors, these terms are identical, some others connect largely different meanings to these words.

The Iceberg Model of Culture

One of the most well-known models of culture is the iceberg. Its main focus is on the elements that make up culture, and on the fact, that some of these elements are very visible, whereas others are hard to discover.

Primarily in awareness

Fine arts, Literature, Drama, Classical music, Popular music, Folk-dancing, Games, Cooking, Dress

Primarily out of awareness

Notions of modesty, Conception of beauty, Ideals governing child raising, Rules of descent, Cosmology, Relationship to animals, Patterns of superior/subordinate relations, Definition of sin, Courtship practices, Conception of justice, Incentives to work, Notions of leadership, Patterns of group decision-making, Conception of cleanliness, Attitudes to the dependent, Theory of disease, Approaches to problem solving, Conception of status mobility, Eye behaviour, Roles in relation to status by

age, sex, class, occupation, kinship, etc. Definition of insanity, Nature of friendship, Conception of self, Patterns of visual perception, Body language, Facial expressions, Notions about logic and validity, Patterns of handling emotions, Conversational patterns in various social contexts, Conception of past and future, Ordering of time, Preference for competition or co-operation, Social interaction rate, Notions of adolescence, Arrangement of physical space, Tempo of work Etc.

Source: p.14 AFS Orientation Handbook Vol.4, New York: AFS Intercultural Programs Inc., 1984

The idea behind this model is that culture can be pictured as an iceberg: only a very small

portion of the iceberg can be seen above the water line. This top of the iceberg is supported

by the much larger part of the iceberg, underneath the water line and therefore invisible.

Nonetheless, this lower part of the iceberg is the powerful foundation.

Also in culture, there are some visible parts: architecture, art, cooking, music, language, just to name a few. But the powerful foundations of culture are more difficult to spot: the history of the group of people that hold the culture, their norms, values, basic assumptions about space, nature, time, etc.

The iceberg model implies that the visible parts of culture are just expressions of its invisible parts. It also points out, how difficult it is at times to understand people with different cultural backgrounds because we may spot the visible parts of their iceberg, but we cannot immediately see what are the foundations that these parts rest upon.

On the other hand, the iceberg model leaves a number of the questions raised above unanswered. Most of the time, it is used as a starting point for a more in-depth look at culture, a first visualisation of why sometimes it is so difficult to understand and see culture.

Relevance for youth work

The iceberg model focuses our attention on the hidden aspects of culture. It is a reminder that in intercultural encounters, similarities we might find at first sight turn out to be based

on completely different assumptions about reality. Among young people, cultural differences may sometimes not be so obvious to perceive: across borders young people like

jeans, listen to pop music and need to access their e-mails. Learning interculturally then

means to become firstly aware of the lower part of ones own iceberg, and to be able to talk about it with others in order to understand each other better and find common grounds.

Developmental model of intercultural sensitivity

Milton J. Bennett (1993) defines intercultural sensitivity in terms of stages of personal growth. His developmental model posits a continuum of increasing sophistication in dealing with cultural difference, moving from ethnocentrism through stages of greater recognition and acceptance of difference, which Bennett calls ethnorelativism. The main underlying concept of Bennetts model is what he calls differentiation, and how one develops the ability to recognize and live with difference. Differentiation then refers to two phenomena: first, that people view one and the same thing in a variety of ways, and second, that cultures differ from one another in the way that they maintain patterns of differentiation, or worldviews. This second aspect refers to the fact that in Bennetts view, cultures offer ways on how to interpret reality, how one should perceive the world around us. This interpretation of reality, or worldview, is different from one culture to the other. Developing intercultural sensitivity then means in essence to learn to recognize and deal with, the fundamental difference between cultures in perceiving the world.

A Developmental Model of Intercultural Sensitivity

The Ethnocentric Stages

1. Denial	2. Defense	3. Minimization
Isolation Separation	Denigration Superiority Reversal	Physical Universalism Transcendent Universalism

The Ethnorelative Stages

4. Acceptance	5. Adaptation	6. Integration
Respect for Behavioural Difference Value Difference	Empathy Pluralism	Contextual Evaluation Constructive Marginality

Source: quoted from p. 29, Paige, R. Michael (ed) (1993) Education for the intercultural experience, Yarmouth: Intercultural Press, chapter by Milton J. Bennett 'Towards ethnorelativism: a developmental model of intercultural sensitivity'

The ethnocentric stages

Ethnocentrism is understood by Bennett as a stage where the individual assumes that his/her view of the world is essentially central to reality.

Denial is at the very basic of an ethnocentric worldview, and means that an individual denies that there is any difference, that other views of reality do exist. This denial can be based on isolation, where there are little or no chances to be confronted with difference, so that its existence cannot be experienced; or it can be based on separation, where difference is intentionally separated, where an individual or a group set up barriers between people that are different on purpose, in order not to be confronted with difference. Separation, therefore, needs at least a moment of recognition of difference, and is a development for that reason over isolation. The racial segregation that can still be found in the world is an example of this stage of separation. People of oppressed groups tend not to experience the stage of denial, since it is hard to deny that there is a difference, if it is your being different or viewing the world differently that is being denied.

As a second stage, Bennett describes defense. Cultural difference can be perceived as threatening, since it offers alternatives to ones own sense of reality and thus to ones identity. In the defense stage, therefore, difference is perceived, but it is fought against.

The most common strategy of that fighting is denigration, where the differing worldview is

evaluated negatively. Stereotyping and, in its extreme form, racism are examples of strategies of denigration. The other side of denigration is superiority, where the emphasis is

more on the positive attributes of ones own culture, and no or little attention to the other,

which implicitly is valued lower. Sometimes also a third strategy to deal with the threatening part of difference is encountered; this is called reversal by Bennett. Reversal means that one values the other culture as the superior one, denigrating ones own cultural background. This strategy may appear more sensitive at the first sight, but practically only

means the replacement of one centre of ethnocentrism (ones own cultural background) with another.

The last stage of ethnocentrism Bennett calls minimization. Difference is acknowledged, it

may not be fought any more by strategies of denigration or superiority, but an attempt is

made to minimize its meaning. Similarities are pointed out as far outweighing cultural difference, which by that is trivialized. Many organisations, Bennett points out, seem to perceive what he calls minimization as the final stage of intercultural development, and work towards a world of shared values and common grounds. These common grounds are built on physical universalism, that is on the basic biological similarities between humans. We all must eat, digest and die. If culture is just a sort of continuation of biology, its meaning is minimized.

The ethnorelative stages

Fundamental to ethnorelativism is the assumption that cultures can only be understood relative to one another and that particular behaviour can only be understood within a cultural context. In the ethnorelative stages, difference is not any more perceived as a

threat but as a challenge. An attempt is made to develop new categories for understanding rather than to preserve existing ones.

Ethnorelativism begins with the acceptance of cultural difference. First, this acceptance begins with accepting that verbal and non-verbal behaviour varies across cultures and that all of these variations deserve respect. Second, this acceptance is enlarged to the underlying views of the world and values. This second stage implies knowledge of one's own values, and the perception of these values as culturally made. Values are understood as process and as a tool to organize the world, rather than as something one has. Even values that imply the denigration of a particular group can then be viewed as having a function in organizing the world, without excluding that one has an opinion about that value.

Building on accepting cultural difference, adaptation is the following stage. Adaptation has to be seen in contrast to assimilation, where different values, worldviews, or behaviours are taken over while giving up one's own identity. Adaptation is a process of addition. New behaviour that is appropriate to a different worldview is learned and added to one's repertoire of behaving, with new styles of communication being at the forefront. Culture here needs to be seen as a process, something that develops and flows, rather than a static thing. Central to adaptation is empathy, the ability to experience a situation different from that presented by one's own cultural background. It is the attempt to understand the other by taking up his or her perspective. In the stage of pluralism, empathy is enlarged so that an individual can rely on several distinct frames of reference, or multiple cultural frames. The development of these frames usually necessitates living in a different cultural context for a longer time. Difference is then perceived as part of one's normal self, as one has internalised it in two or more different cultural frames.

Bennett calls his final set of stages integration. Whereas in the adaptation stage several frames of reference exist next to each other within one person, in the integration-stage an attempt is made to integrate the various frames to one that is not a re-establishment of one culture, nor a simple comfort with peaceful co-existence of different worldviews. Integration demands an ongoing definition of one's own identity in terms of lived experiences. It can lead to not belonging to any culture any more, but being an integrated outsider always. Contextual evaluation as the first stage of integration is about the ability to evaluate different situations and worldviews from one or more cultural backgrounds. In all other stages, evaluation has been avoided in order to overcome ethnocentric evaluations. In the stage of contextual evaluation individuals are able to shift between cultural contexts, depending on the circumstances. The evaluation made is one of relative goodness. Bennett gives the example of an intercultural choice: Is it good to refer directly to a mistake you made by yourself or someone else? In most American contexts, it is good. In most Japanese contexts, it is bad. However, it might be good in some cases to use an American style in Japan, and vice versa. The ability to use both styles is part adaptation. The ethical consideration of context in making a choice is part of integration. As a final stage, constructive marginality is described by Bennett as some sort of arrival point, and not as the end of learning. It implies a state of total self-reflectiveness, of not belonging to any culture but being an outsider. Reaching that stage, on the other hand, allows for true intercultural mediation, the ability to operate within different worldviews.

Bennett's model has proven to be a good starting point for the design of trainings and orientations that deal with developing intercultural sensitivity. It underlines the importance of difference in intercultural learning, and points out some of the (non-efficient) strategies of how to deal with difference. Bennett implies that intercultural learning is a process that is characterized by continuous advancement (with the possibility of moving back and forth in that process), and that it is possible to measure the stage an individual has reached in terms of intercultural sensitivity. One may want to ask, however, if the process of intercultural learning will always follow exactly this sequence, with one step being the pre-condition for the next one. But if then interpreted less strictly in terms of stages that have to follow each other, and rather in terms of different strategies to deal with difference that are applied according to circumstances and abilities, the model reveals essential obstacles and helpful ways in intercultural learning.

Relevance for youth work

The different stages that Bennett describes form a useful frame of reference to look at groups and most appropriate contents and methods of training to develop intercultural sensitivity. Is it necessary to raise awareness of difference, or should one concentrate on accepting these differences? The idea of development provides for a very hands-on approach to what needs to be worked on. Bennett suggests himself consequences for training in the various phases. In an international youth event, many of the processes Bennett describe happen in a very condensed way. His model is helpful in looking at and understanding what is going on and how one can deal with that. Lastly, the developmental model clearly suggests what is an aim for working on intercultural learning: to arrive at a stage where difference is perceived as normal, is integrated into one's identity, and where reference can be made to several cultural frames of reference.

Approaching intercultural learning: a question of attitude

One of the challenges associated with intercultural learning is that there is no clearly defined educational discipline known as intercultural learning. This is exciting, because it means that we all have to struggle to make sense of it. Nevertheless, if we adapt or create methods, we will do it in an educational framework, maybe created and influenced by ourselves, the circumstances, the trainers team, the participants. It can be useful to know what does (and does not) serve the objectives of intercultural learning. Here we suggest some basic principles of importance. They are based on and closely linked to the theories and concepts of intercultural learning presented above. They will be even more evident when we bear in mind in which situations this learning process happens nowadays and for young people. The following lines of thoughts are intended to raise awareness, ask questions and give pointers to some relevant educational approaches...

Confidence and Respect

Building up confidence is a cornerstone of intercultural learning in order to achieve the openness necessary for a mutual process. It is a prerequisite that we feel comfortable to share different viewpoints, perceptions and feelings, to arrive at acceptance and understanding. It requires a lot of patience and sensitivity in order to create such a learning atmosphere which enables us to listen to each other as equals, to empower each individuals selfconfidence. This means that we need to give space to everybodys expression; to value all experiences, talents and contributions; our various needs and expectations. When the big part of what we might share is about values, norms and strong basic assumptions, we will need a lot of confidence in the ones we share with. Mutual trust goes hand in hand with mutual respect, honesty in our sharing.

Experiencing Identity

The departure point of Intercultural Learning is our own culture, which means, our own background and experience. It is in our roots where we encounter the obstacles and chances of this learning process. We have all a personal reality which has shaped us, and we will continue to live there, enriched with new knowledge and experience. That means, in intercultural learning processes, we have to deal constantly with where we come from, what we have lived and encountered. Trying to understand ourselves, our own identity, is a prerequisite to encounter others. We might change through the encounter, but not necessarily the reality around us. This is challenging. Therefore, as part of the process, we have as well to deal with the responsibility, potential and limits of being multipliers of new knowledge.

Constructed Realities

Nothing is absolute. There are many ways to read and discern reality. The thesis, that everyone constructs their own worlds, that every reality is its own construction, is one main factor in intercultural learning processes. The variety of different dimensions in many theories which describe cultural difference (see: Hofstede and Hall & Hall) show how differently we can perceive reality, even such basic dimensions as time and space. But still, we all live in one world and that affects our lives. Consequently, the learning process should be accompanied by some efforts: to respect personal freedom and decision, to accept other views equally and seek the reconciliation of different viewpoints, and to be conscious of our personal responsibility. But the difference will and shall persist as constructive. Thats why in the final stage of Bennetts model to develop intercultural sensitivity we are invited to operate within different worldviews.

In Dialogue with the Other

Intercultural learning places the other at the heart of understanding. It starts through dialogue, but yet is a step further. It is challenging to perceive myself and the other as being different, and to comprehend that this difference contributes to what and how I am. Our different beings complement each other. In this understanding, the other becomes indispensable for a new discovery of the self. This experience challenges us, it creates something new, and requires creativity for new solutions. The process towards such an intercultural sensitivity implies understood as a process towards the other to touch and change our very self. Intercultural learning opens up the chance to identify with the perspective of the other, the respectful experience of attempting to walk in each others shoes without pretending to live what the other lives. It can enable us to experience and learn real solidarity, believing in the strength of co-operation. Intercultural learning in this context is as well a way to discover our own capacity for action.

Questions and Change

The experience of intercultural learning is one of constant change (as the world is), it is above all process-oriented. Discussing culture, the tension between stagnation and change, the longing for security and balance appear constantly. We have open questions and will raise new ones. Therefore, we need to accept that there is not always an answer, but remain in constant search, accepting and welcoming change. Reflecting on it, we will need the capacity to question ourselves. We do not always know where this integration leads us. Curiosity is important, new perceptions are desired. And we have to be aware that the construction of something new implies possibly the break down of the old such as ideas, beliefs, traditions. No learning process is free of ruptures and farewells. As trainers, we need to provide good and sensitive accompaniment in it.

Comprehensive Involvement

Intercultural learning is an experience which involves all senses and levels of learning, knowledge, emotions, behaviour in an intensive way. It evokes a lot of feelings; it provokes gaps between them and maybe our reason, what we knew or get to know. The comprehension of the complexity of this process and all its implications demand a lot from us. Language as element of culture is a central aspect in intercultural communication, and at the same time limited, often a source of misunderstanding. It must thereby not be used as a means of dominance especially considering different language skills but can be one tool of communication. All other signs like body language have to be equally respected. Since we are fully involved in this kind of learning, we should allow ourselves to be completely part of the processes happening.

The Potential of Conflict

If we see the variety of perceptions different cultures have of time, space, social and personal relations... it appears evident that conflict is at the heart of intercultural learning and needs to be explored and expressed. At the same time, these models invite us to discuss the differences without labelling it. Consequently, we can try to find the constructive elements and chances of conflict. We need to develop conflict management skills, while considering the complexity when dealing with the notion of

culture. The various expressions of identity, the effort to valorise differences are both challenging. Intercultural learning implies a search, means new insecurities, and this carries a natural conflictive potential. This can be valued as part of the process. Diversity can be experienced as helpful and enriching, towards new forms and new solutions. The variety of competencies is a positive and indispensable contribution towards the whole. Not every conflict has necessarily a solution, but it certainly needs to be expressed.

Under the surface

Intercultural learning aims at very deep processes and changes of attitudes and behaviours.

It means to deal a good part with the invisible forces and elements of our culture, of our inner self (see: Iceberg Model), many things beneath the water surface are unconscious and cannot be expressed clearly. This discovery implies therefore personally and in the encounter some risks, it implies tensions with which we have to deal. It is obviously not easy to accompany people in this process. On the one hand, we need the courage to go further, to challenge ourselves and others. On the other hand, we have to be very careful and respectful to peoples needs and the limits of these processes. It is not always easy to keep both in mind.

A complex matter in a complex world

The theoretical models show already the complexity of intercultural learning, the difficulty

to systematise it. If we set this in the complex situation of todays society, it becomes clear

that we need very careful and comprehensive approaches allowing a maximum of discernment. Even culture goes beyond national borders and knows many forms and overlapping. Many perspectives have to be met, tensions have to be considered: a look at the past, present and future, comparing the sometimes contradictory needs of individual and society.

Fragmented experiences have to be put together. It is a challenge to any educational approach not to simplify the variety of reasons and implications present, the different values emphasised, the different realities and histories lived. Intercultural learning approaches need to respect these diverse experiences, interpretations and knowledge and consequently consider them in the language and terminology used and the choice of different methodologies.

Intercultural Learning Model

Mary O'Hara-Devereaux, Tomi Nagai-Rothe and David Sibbet developed an immersion metaphor for exploring the fundamental challenges that arise when encountering new cultures, issues of diversity and cross-cultural learning and work environments. One strength of this model is that it supports individual, group,

organizational and community level work. Its simplicity encourages many levels of dialogue, mirroring cultural diversities.

Because one never completely adjusts to another culture, cross-cultural work requires a continuous learning process through which one must cycle many times in order to see the inherent logic of another culture and learn the meanings of seemingly similar behaviors. The journey to diversity is not prescribed and can loop through all the stages in various combinations.

The model focuses on the seven primary stages a person continuously experiences, both intra- and interpersonally, when deeply engaged in another culture. The issues of each stage are always present, and each stage builds on the prior ones in an inclusive way. As a result, someone who handles earlier stages well is better prepared to resolve the later-stage issues. The more successful intercultural cycles one completes, the more capacity one builds for embracing cultural differences.

For each stage of the model there are behaviors labeled "resolved" (associated with a successful passage) and others labeled "unresolved" (a strong signal that forward momentum is being lost). The arc-shaped layout represents the constant movement of cultural awareness—from the freedom and comfort of expecting others to be like oneself, to the shock and constraint of one's emotions and projections when they prove not to be.

The stages in the Intercultural Learning Model are:

- Anticipate Similarity
- Encounter Shock
- Consider Possibilities
- Open to the Culture
- Pursue Learning
- Transcend Boundaries
- Appreciate Diversity

Source: Grove Consultants International,
http://www.grove.com/about/model_icl.html

Anticipate Similarity

We enter cross-cultural experiences with a subconscious expectation that others will be similar to us. Deep within we believe that everyone thinks and feels the same way we do.

When we have resolved the issues of this stage, we exhibit the following values:

- Positive Mindset
- Anticipation/Excitement
- Self-confidence

When we are blocked at this stage, we experience crises of:

- Discomfort with Differences
- Resistance to Engagement
- Rigid self-concept

Encounter Shock

A cultural shock occurs when people around us do not behave as expected. An intense emotional reaction occurs and no sense can be made immediately of the differences.

When we have resolved the issues of this stage, we exhibit the following values:

- Amazement/bewilderment
- Deep Emotional Reaction
- Cautious Optimism

When we are blocked at this stage, we experience crises of:

- Irritability
- Fear
- Sense of Inadequacy

Consider Possibilities

A struggle exists between the opportunity to understand these new behaviors and our intense, uncomfortable emotional reaction. Interpretations are based on one's cultural knowledge.

When we have resolved the issues of this stage, we exhibit the following values:

- Curiosity
- Excitement/Stimulation
- Interpret Options

When we are blocked at this stage, we experience crises of:

- Frustration
- Magnified Differences
- Projection-based Expectations

Open to the Culture

Awareness that feelings are a personal reaction to other cultures allows the feelings to subside and opens the way to experience the true cultural situation despite continual discomfort.

When we have resolved the issues of this stage, we exhibit the following values:

- Observe Emotional Reactions
- Recognize Conditioning
- Suspend Judgements

When we are blocked at this stage, we experience crises of:

- Withdrawal/Avoidance
- Routine Criticism
- Helplessness

Pursue Learning

Now there is an opportunity to see and assimilate the logical reasons behind behaviors from the new cultural context and to make accurate interpretations.

When we have resolved the issues of this stage, we exhibit the following values:

- See Differences
- Accurate Interpretations
- Seek Cultural Knowledge

When we are blocked at this stage, we experience crises of:

- Denial of Differences
- Misinterpretations
- Rejection of Learning

Transcend Boundaries

Knowing another culture is simultaneously an inward journey to learning one's own culture. Crossing the boundaries allows you and others to experience one another fully.

When we have resolved the issues of this stage, we exhibit the following values:

- Self-discovery/Sense of Security
- Enjoy New Customs
- Broadened Expectations

When we are blocked at this stage, we experience crises of:

- Loneliness/Sense of Not Fitting In
- Maintenance of Cultural Boundaries
- Over-identification

Appreciate Diversity

You engage each new opportunity with enthusiasm. Cultural differences are more readily apparent. You begin to feel an easy pull toward engagement.

When we have resolved the issues of this stage, we exhibit the following values:

- Expanded Values
- Desire to Learn More
- Comfort with Differences

When we are blocked at this stage, we experience crises of:

- Intellectualized acceptance
- Ethnocentrism

Pedagogics for Intercultural Education

Starting point for a pedagogical approach

In these reflections we have defined culture and identity as dynamic social processes which oblige a culture to adapt to changing conditions of life in which the individual, during a continuing process of socialisation, finds himself confronted with constantly shifting social expectations. Identity is therefore not something which is acquired once and for all but must be continually re-devised and recreated to take into account new expectations and the different identities of partners in the interaction. Hence the individual is creating something new, which is to say his biographical analysis based on the current situation.

Therefore, if identity can be considered as a result of social processes, it can also be defined as a factor of influence and training in the social environment. The obligation to overcome social divergence in everyday life and to match different expectations leads to a criticism of unsatisfactory situations and a rejection of norms which do not concord with people's experience of the world, creating a space which permits a redefinition of the symbols which determine behaviour as well as a creative change in existing value systems. It is on the basis of such an analysis that political education and intercultural learning can develop their pedagogical approaches.

Conditions for intercultural learning

There are intercultural learning situations which are not the result of a targeted and structured learning process, but which stem instead from successful (or not so successful) transfers of alien cultural content into the existing system of reference.

Based on the work of Habermann-Schmidt, Sternecker draws a distinction between 3 such levels of re-interpretation:

The transformation and integration of alien cultural content into the existing system of interpretation. The change in existing values is a prerequisite for the successful integration of foreign cultural content which is not experienced as threatening to the existing identity but rather as personal enrichment.

The acceptance and recognition of other cultures with different or foreign modes of interpretation as the joint realisation of human potential. Intercultural learning with the aim of acceptance reduces distress in the face of foreignness, overcomes a one-dimensional mind-set and ultimately favours the thoughtful use of the existing system of reference.

The pre-requisite for any acceptance or change will be a definition of the scope of the alien cultural content. This conscious demarcation of a foreign culture is

defined as the ability to consciously differentiate foreign elements from existing elements.

It is only by such detachment that a critical process of reflection with regard to existing traditions and their links with reality becomes possible. Finally, through such a reconstruction of the existing cultural identity it becomes possible to arrive at a deeper awareness of our existing attitudes, values and lifestyles which we may then choose to either abandon or retain.

However, such an encounter with a foreign culture is much more likely to culminate in a process of exclusion. As a general rule, in this case exclusion is accompanied by prejudice. Here prejudice is a way of emotionally justifying the preservation of cultural limits. The foreign culture is represented as being erroneous, which justifies its oppression, repression or even destruction. Prejudice, chauvinism, mental blocks in perception and cultural imperialism can all be considered as examples of such a process.

According to Schmidt, a thoughtful analysis of the existing system of cultural reference permits people to detach themselves from immanent reality and makes them capable of recognising the innumerable links, interdependencies and changes which form the cradle of our traditions. Through such an analysis we are able to strip society of any attributes of natural origin, and to accept it as being something of human construction. Such an analytical ability not only develops our critical sense regarding attachment to the existing culture, but it is also a prerequisite for acknowledging other cultures. It is only from our experience of perceiving our own background as a product resulting from a specific tradition, that it will be possible to create openness towards other cultural backgrounds. Similarly, it is only through our perception of others as equals that we will succeed in building something together. This ability to consciously distance ourselves from other cultures therefore constitutes an important factor in detaching ourselves from our own cultural systems of values, and through a critical comparison between universal systems of values enables us to construct systems which are entirely new. Thus intercultural learning is a permanent factor in the creation and development of cultural identity. Schmidt points out that the ability to accept that cultural identity is part of each person's own identity reduces potential distress, since the very existence of such an identity will no longer be called into question. As this threat disappears, so too will the need to act according to a rigid code of behaviour, since a threat hanging over part of a person's identity will always imperil the identity system as a whole.

Haller believes that the following skills are vital to any form of intercultural learning:

- Acceptance of our own cultural origins and of the selectiveness of people's perception, thinking, judgement and feelings;
- Acceptance of the necessity to develop solutions to social issues through a common debate bringing together people and groups from diverse backgrounds with different selection criteria, in order to be in a position to change outlooks;
- The ability to listen to, accept and understand viewpoints which diverge from one's own personal viewpoint.
- Acceptance of others as being equal, with equal rights and equal abilities;
- Through a process of understanding, the ability to renounce a monopolistic mentality which would result in the disappearance of otherness and the foreign element;

- The ability to tolerate what is foreign also as a form of personal re-evaluation.

In order to be in a position to enter into relations with a partner from a different culture, an individual is required to invent new systems of interpretation, based on his own modes of thinking reinterpreted to suit a new context. Divergent theories about life have to be harmonised in a very complex process of cognitive restructuring. We must also take into account expectations and needs which call into question existing systems of reference and modes of thinking. A process of reflection concerning the existing social and cultural context is a prerequisite for our acceptance and comprehension of the guidelines and systems of reference belonging to cultures other than our own.

Such a capacity for critical reflection is the primary pedagogical aim of any form of intercultural learning, the purpose being to learn about other cultures in order to be better able to participate as a citizen in the construction of one's own culture and society. As we are talking about an individual's capacity for intercultural learning, this necessarily forms an integral part of the construction of a strong "self-identity" (*Ich-Identität*), which according to Krappmann's definition, always carries with it an aspect of critical self-analysis of society. In this sense intercultural learning should be understood as a structured pedagogical process whose objective is to develop a "cultural identity", which enriches the "self-concept" through a process of reflection concerning existing modes of reference.

The "self-identity" as a condition and result of inter-cultural learning

Based on Krappmann's concept of identity, the development of appropriate social behaviour cannot be defined as the adaptation of existing social roles, but rather as a permanent process of creation, which eventually leads to a complete restructuring of identity, due to a series of interactions which it is no longer possible to manage within the current framework of action.

Our objective will be to take advantage of the exceptional situations which result from intercultural meetings in order to develop skills for social action, behaviour and reflection which, within the existing social context, will be seen as a basis for the personal autonomy and training of an individual. We therefore define intercultural learning as a process whereby an individual, when he meets people from a different culture, will strive to understand their specific systems for guiding perception, thinking, judgement and action, will integrate them into his own cultural reference system and make use of them within a foreign context.

Intercultural learning, defined as a conscious analysis of a foreign culture, is a specific and deliberate process of communication and interaction. By analogy to what Krappmann described as being fundamental prerequisites to any social action, Otten and Sternecker attempted to define indispensable personal skills which, as constituent elements of cultural identity related to perception, attitudes and behaviour, are at the basis of any successful process of intercultural communication.

Empathy

By empathy we mean the ability to take on board the expectations of communication partners. In order to guarantee effective communication, we must succeed in matching our own expectations, as well as matching them to those of the

person opposite. When making this effort to match social expectations with our own personal aptitude for action, empathy will be a decisive contributory factor for judging the most appropriate behaviour to adopt in the current communication situation, as well as to estimate the likelihood of achieving one's own intentions whilst respecting the other person. In intercultural meetings, the ability to empathise is of particular importance. The people concerned are forced to match culturally divergent systems of interpretation and modes of behaviour in order to arrive at a common system of communication.

Such a community creation process stems from a person's ability to put himself in the shoes of another and, after assessing his own abilities, to adapt. At the same time, anticipated assessment of what is still permitted to be communicated, or of what can be made understood through behaviour, forms part of this empathy. This explains the key role of empathy in any act of metacommunication.

Based on the ability to distance ourselves from our own social role, empathy enables us to actively and creatively cope with the otherness of the person with whom we are dealing during an intercultural encounter. Empathy requires that all the people concerned should make significant efforts at differentiation. Participants are all the better able to respond to these demands when they are prepared for the intercultural meeting. Familiarity with another culture plays an important role in this context. However, the ability to empathise must not be reduced solely to a cognitive effort, since abstract knowledge will never be enough in itself. In the same way, empathy encompasses affective elements such as tolerance, creativity, open-mindedness and freedom from prejudice, which can only be successfully expressed in direct communication and only acquired through intercultural communication.

Detachment from social roles

A first prerequisite for an individual to be capable of constructing and preserving his own identity seems to be that he is capable of standing back to reflect on and interpret social norms. The individual must be capable of presenting himself to others according to the expectations of others. However, at the same time he must be able to demonstrate that he is not entirely identifiable with these expectations. This requires the individual to be able to distance himself from expected social roles in order to be in a position to choose, reject, modify and interpret. Through his detachment from social roles, the individual is in a position to avoid succumbing to a predestined social role, and instead is able to relate it to the general context of other roles. The role which he will ultimately adopt can thus be defined on the basis of the other roles. Each time these roles will need to be redefined in relation to their importance within the current situation. Thus the individual finds himself continually obliged to seek a synthesis of all his social roles.

Within the context of intercultural meetings, detachment from social roles is presented as the ability to understand one's own modes of perception and behaviour as being culturally determined. The structures underpinning the existing culture, which are internalised and used during intercultural communication, will thus be perceived as the result of a process of education, tradition, values and norms. The individual will be forced to develop an awareness of his own social context and to draw from it suitable modes of behaviour for the purpose of anticipation. Within such a process of reflection, the concept of otherness becomes something familiar since it is no longer

presented only as a foreign reality, but can also be deciphered on the basis of one's own characteristics. By contrast, an inability to stand back from and reflect on existing modes of cultural orientation rapidly lead to insecurity and to a reinforcement of existing prejudices and stereotypes. Detachment from social roles constitutes a prerequisite for participants in intercultural meetings to enable them to set aside normal everyday behaviour determined by their culture, and to creatively experiment with new roles. At the same time such detachment gives a critical indication about which cultural objectives and value systems cannot or should not be abandoned. Ultimately it is a prerequisite for the expression of one's own interests and the ability to discuss them with partners from a different culture.

Tolerating ambiguity

Through empathy and detachment from social roles the individual is able to perceive and articulate new and conflicting information and data about the current situation. This can be something of an ordeal for an individual because it confronts him with conflicting expectations. Such inconsistencies are perceived by the two partners since their mutual expectations of communication cannot be satisfied by a consensus with norms which are generally speaking imperfect. Such a conflict is not limited solely to a cognitive level. The obligation to mutually adapt to diverging mutual expectations in order to enable them to arrive at communication and a working consensus, albeit provisional, ensures that no process of communication can ever completely satisfy the needs of both partners. For every communication situation which procures him a certain degree of satisfaction, the individual also finds himself obliged to tolerate a certain level of dissatisfaction. Such mutual consent by partners to accept the expression of divergence whilst maintaining a common basis for communication, makes it possible both to create an identity and to allow the emergence of differences and incompatibilities. Tolerance of ambiguity thus becomes a decisive factor in the creation of identity since it presupposes that the individual is capable of offsetting partial personal dissatisfaction and the resulting tensions. Tolerance of ambiguity is a prerequisite for ridding oneself of a reassuring vision of the world without immediately providing the security of an alternative vision. The insecurities and de-stabilising cognitive elements resulting from a confrontation with differing cultural principles during intercultural encounters can only be experienced where the partners concerned demonstrate a tolerance of ambiguity. It is only on this condition that they will be able to retain their capacity for action in situations where the normal routines are ineffective or where "the individual finds himself confronted by expectations and interpretations that are indistinct and difficult to identify by the partners involved. Tolerance of ambiguity engenders tolerance in situations where our own intentions are not interpreted by our partner as we expected. It leads to an openness of spirit that makes a person capable of taking into account the expectations of others, even if at first they appear to conflict with one's own cultural guidelines.

According to Otten and Sternecker, tolerance of ambiguity is necessary in order to enable us to:

- accept elements which make us feel insecure,
- avoid the temptation to terminate conflicts unilaterally,

- take up new ideas through an acceptance of cultural otherness and equality with the manifestations of a different culture,
- remain willing to search for new common points of interpretation,
- thereby making possible all types of change in behaviour and solidarity,
- in order to develop one's own "self-identity",

Representing identity

As with empathy, detachment from social roles and tolerance of ambiguity are constituent elements of one's "self-identity" and are therefore closely related to any human relationship. Communication skills can be considered as the medium through which these elements are acquired. Communication skills thus themselves become a decisive factor in any form of social action. Krappmann stresses the importance of the term in this context. It is the scale and quality of the language which determine the scale and quality of the impact of the other elements. The capacity to thoughtfully use language constitutes a prerequisite for any interpretation and understanding of the act of communication, or in short, the capacity to practise metacommunication.

Since ultimately intercultural meetings involve the negotiation of new guidelines,

communication skills assume primary importance. Therefore, during intercultural meetings we are first and foremost obliged to consider the linguistic skills of the partners and their knowledge of foreign languages. Indeed numerous publications have pointed out that a lack of foreign language knowledge can constitute a considerable barrier to intercultural communication. In this context intercultural communication cannot be reduced to a knowledge of foreign languages since it depends above all on conditions of learning related to the situation and the dynamics of the group taking part in the meeting in question. Therefore, in order for linguistic barriers to be transcended, a socio-pedagogical approach is called for rather than a didactic method of learning foreign languages.

According to Otten, even very experienced interpreters are sometimes unable to translate specific linguistic points, since homonyms can have a different meaning in two different languages.

Therefore it is extremely difficult to communicate modes of thinking and emotions to others. Emotions aroused by a specific situation and experiences have much more impact than verbal communication would reveal. Therefore, in addition to cognitive and emotional elements, intercultural communication must always take into account the verbal expression of emotions, interests, experiences and observations.

Defining communication skills within an intercultural context is to define intercultural metacommunication. This underlines the importance of communicating problems arising from intercultural relations, the source of which lies in a divergent interpretation of reality due to the different cultural orientation systems of the partners. Metacommunication remains the only means of making the participants aware of the way they consciously or subconsciously structure reality. Treuheit even sees a direct link between the level of intercultural learning and the degree of metacommunication achieved. In the preceding chapters we have attempted to define the prerequisites for the development of communication skills within an intercultural context. In the following chapter we shall endeavour to put these key elements of any social action into practice with the objective of intercultural learning.

Developing a didactic method of intercultural learning

Intercultural learning as a specific form of all social learning

When developing this module for training youth workers we started from the principle of active learning. In other words, cultural learning must be actively experienced during the training course. Thus the active involvement of participants in this process of intercultural learning, which will be alternated with phases of critical reflection, will be an integral part of the learning process. During this training phase trainees will be called upon to analyse with a certain detachment the dynamics of their own existing group, as well as their personal involvement. They will be required to verify how the phases of the process they have experienced could be transferred to intercultural meetings of young people. Particular attention will need to be paid to group dynamics, since constant change between phases of intercultural learning and phases of critical self-analysis imposes severe demands on participants. It is important to realise that the very process of critical self-analysis is itself influenced by the culturally-linked perception of participants. The above-mentioned demands on participants do indeed represent the true pre-conditions and premises for intercultural learning, since they require that the training course should form an integral part of a process of intercultural learning.

Furthermore, according to Otten a training course should satisfy the most important requirement for an intercultural teaching method: "to systematically develop communication skills within a context of social learning". Indeed, we should avoid developing purely cognitive skills since this would run counter to any kind of social interaction which always includes elements of action and therefore emotional and pragmatic elements. Inadequate social skills coupled with adequate information, or conversely, inadequate information coupled with acceptable social skills prevent knowledge ever being put into practice. Personal involvement, objectivity and behaviour cannot be dissociated.

In the formulation of such a didactic method, the pedagogical field is defined as a set of structures designed to permit and consciously develop an approach to communication and behavioural structures which tend to reinforce conscious and critical social participation and to openly analyse personal, social and structural resistance and limitations.

If the development of the ability to act and interact in intercultural situations is seen as the principal objective of an intercultural training course, it is possible to infer pedagogical objectives based on social education. Iben's objectives stemming from a general social education approach confirm the importance of the preceding statements, especially the last point:

1. to learn to know oneself, one's own abilities, possibilities, desires, aims and to assess one's own social situation;
2. to become aware of one's own social situation, through a knowledge of relationships, interests and origins, through detailed observation and analysis of the social environment;
3. to develop communication skills, the verbalisation of one's own feelings and interests, experiences and observations, as well as familiarity with the symbols of verbal and non-verbal language, an understanding of the real conditions inherent in forms of communication and skills in meta-communication;

4. to extend the ability to act and interact, by developing the self-identity, the ability to tolerate frustration, resistance, creativity and curiosity, self-analysis and reducing ego-centrism; by reducing prejudice and increasing empathy and the ability to manage social roles; by developing the ability to co-operate, offer solidarity and cope rationally with conflict; and by learning modes of interaction and strategies for action.

An intercultural learning curriculum for training youth workers should place special emphasis, especially with regard to the case of non-formal education, on structures external to the school system.

Starting from our definition of intercultural learning as being a specific form of social learning in general, and following our reflections concerning basic skills for the development of the "self-identity" and their dynamic characteristics in intercultural encounters, we shall attempt to establish a method of didactic implementing of pedagogical objectives. According to Otten this implementation method must be established in practical terms in the fields of social attitudes, modes of perception and the resulting behaviour which specifically reflects detachment from social roles, empathy and tolerance of ambiguity.

However, when carrying out this method we should always bear in mind the interdependency of the three domains. Attitudes must be understood as being elements which govern behaviour; the objective of social attitudes is to influence behaviour in order to facilitate the way we lead our everyday lives. Social attitudes therefore have a cognitive component, which like an internal representation of reality, leads us to recognise day-to-day perceptions, knowledge, opinions and convictions; an emotional component which is closely linked to this representation of reality in either a positive or a negative way; and a component which is directly associated with behaviour.

ATTITUDES

- an ability to perceive attitudes as being the result of an individual, social, and even cultural process of socialisation - to learn to interpret one's own behaviour and that of others as being an expression of attitudes;
- an ability to keep an open mind when faced with an unfamiliar situation – to learn to express and communicate one's own interests - to be aware of the various functions of behaviour;
- an ability to rationally analyse the behaviour of members of one's own group, as well as that of other nations;
- an ability and willingness to explain the development of one's own behaviour, so that it can be justified, rejected or understood - an ability to accept the differences of others and as required to turn them to good account;
- an ability and willingness to perceive and accept feelings as being constituent elements of social attitudes, and to act accordingly.

PERCEPTION

- an awareness of the interdependence between structures of perception and processes of socialisation (system for interpreting everyday reality);
- acceptance of the subjectivity of perception as part of a particular social and political reality;
- an awareness of the relationship between the process of perception and the socio-cultural system of reference, and a willingness to learn to interpret behaviour

- within this context;
- an ability to perceive oneself as part of a given social reality (detachment from social roles);
- an ability to perceive and accept others in their specific socio-cultural contexts;
- an ability and willingness to realise the different possibilities for interpreting what is perceived, as well as to accept the interpretation of others, and to articulate this experience;
- a willingness to systematically improve perception skills through "trial and error", so that a "reasonable" awareness becomes possible as a precondition for social action (trial and error as an attempt to manage different interpretations).

BEHAVIOUR

- a willingness to apply critical emancipatory attitudes to behavioural analysis and to avoid ethnocentric value judgements;
- an ability to develop interpersonal behaviour characterised by trust, sincerity and curiosity in the face of new situations;
- a willingness to co-operate;
- a willingness and ability to communicate;
- an ability to behave in a conscious manner and a willingness to rationally analyse the effects of behaviour - an ability to analyse behaviour in relation to a situation and to adapt one's own behaviour to new situations;
- an ability to develop a behaviour beneficial to the group and to understand the premises and conditions for such behaviour;
- a willingness to reduce self-protection mechanisms;
- a willingness to consciously integrate new information, and an ability to use it as a basis for changes in behaviour;
- a knowledge of the interdependence between attitudes and behaviour, and an ability to express a critical detachment from one's own social roles through one's behaviour;
- an ability and willingness to cope with different patterns of thinking, habits of speaking, systems of values and forms of emotional expression;
- a willingness to change one's own behaviour to the point of making solidarity possible;
- a willingness to accept the permanent principle of reflecting on one's behaviour, in order to make possible social interaction directed towards solidarity.

Communication as a didactic method

Despite every good intention and claims to tolerance and open-mindedness, the cultural shock suffered during an intercultural encounter can significantly reduce the chances of using this learning experience in a positive way. Hence, defensive reactions may appear due to a feeling of insecurity and impotence.

Thus Schmidt is convinced that three factors must be present for there to be an opportunity for intercultural learning:

- All participants should meet in the full awareness of their differences. They must be conscious of belonging to an independent and valuable culture.
- All participants should meet in the full awareness of their similarities. They must be conscious of living within the same universal community, and of facing

the same problems.

- All participants should meet in the full awareness of mutual respect. The exchange should not be experienced as an assault on one's own identity but based on new interpretations which make personal enrichment possible.

When organising intercultural meetings, participants must be given the possibility of expressing the cultural shock they have experienced, as well as their distress and mental blocks, in order to arrive at a discussion and joint analysis. Thus, through a joint process of reflection on the foreign cultures they have encountered and their conditions of existence, they should ultimately be able to transcend ethnocentric views and to develop new outlooks with respect to their own cultural behaviour which they usually accept as being the norm.

According to Treuheit the following points should be respected when preparing an intercultural meeting:

- take into account differences between cultures,
- give indications as to how to act in an intercultural situation, by taking these differences into account,
- based on a dynamic cultural concept, give indications as to how to develop an attitude which is capable of differentiating between and accepting changes in culturally determined modes of action and thought.

According to Otten, a training course which aims to develop a didactic method of communication, should respond to the following criteria:

5. apply the principles of an open curriculum,
6. enable practical experience gained during the learning process to be integrated,
7. formally develop the active participation of all the participants.

The fundamental requirement for a didactic method whose aim is to develop communication skills, is that the method itself should be communicative, i.e., the pedagogical situation through which intercultural learning is transmitted must itself be impregnated with the sense of value of and the possibilities for communication which facilitate dialogue, in order to arrive at a common construction of reality.

It will be even easier to understand the exemplary value of intercultural learning situations and transfer them to other domains where the pedagogical method is based on the needs and experiences of participants, and takes into account their current specific social situation. Directing the pedagogical method at participants must also take into account both the encounter itself and the daily experiences of participants, as well as their potential for change.

According to Otten, Sternecker and Treuheit, who set out the fundamental principles of Communication Didactics ("kommunikative Didaktik"), intercultural meetings must be organised in such a way that they are not limited to an exchange of intercultural information between participants and make use of qualified interpreters or suitable visual resources. The communication and interaction processes must be considered as a specific field of application, and they must be given the required time and space in order to engender a process of reflection which will enable the constituent elements of intercultural learning to be attained. Within this context, it will not be enough merely to arrive at the personal involvement of participants simply by pointing out the barriers to communication and shortcomings in behaviour which they experienced. Problems of communication and interaction are an expression of the relationship which exists between partners from different cultures. The resolution of such problems is likely to create among participants a profound understanding of

these relations. In order to achieve this significant personal efforts will be required to achieve a knowledge of self and of the differences experienced between types of attitude, perception and behaviour. According to Breitenbach, a knowledge of the common interests of communication partners, as well as metacommunication about these interests, needs and conditions of learning, are a prerequisite for intercultural learning.

Treuheit proposes a catalogue of didactic requirements which ensure that intercultural learning will be even more successful:

- in the first place the cultural diversity of the international group should be highlighted, in spite of a search for common points and a gradual synthesis of specific cultural attitudes and objectives,
- existing differences and contradictions should be made the centre of the debate, by treating the trainees as individuals,
- training content and method should be related to the experiences and problems of participants,
- cultural differences and universality should be successfully related to a training subject which responds to the aspirations of the training course,
- latent conflicts should be made manifest and used as the point of departure for a collective learning process;
- there should be a high degree of metacommunication concerning the content, method and process of training.

Trainers will not only need to demonstrate an appropriate knowledge of foreign languages and a familiarity with the country and culture of participants, but also be capable of developing relatively high levels of sensitivity and didactic imagination in order to seize the learning opportunities presented by intercultural meetings and be able to react in a suitable way to each situation. Trainers will also provide participants with the means to create opportunities for new experiences. To do so, it is indispensable for trainers to have experience of methods of group leadership and dynamics, since both communication and interaction problems and the resulting group conflicts and dynamics must be addressed, presented and managed in the proper manner.

Tips

Gender neutral names

The following names are not gender specific and so are useful for case studies where it is important that sexual stereotyping is avoided:

Pat, Chris, Kerry, Robyn, Frances, Kylie, Sam, Joe, Bernie

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- Vulpe, T., D. Kealey, D. Protheroe, and D. MacDonald. A Profile of the Interculturally Effective Person. 2nd ed. Quebec, Canada: Canadian Department of Foreign Affairs and International Trade, Centre for Intercultural Learning, 2001.
- For further reading, please visit:
<http://www.intercultural.org/resources.html>

Related Links

For a more detailed list of the skills that comprise intercultural awareness skills, see the appendix to the Unesco report

unesco.org/International/Publications/FreePublications/FreePublicationsPdf/batelaan.pdf

The Common European Framework

culture2.coe.int/portfolio/documents/0521803136txt.pdf

Pages 43 and 103-5 have an interesting discussion of intercultural learning and awareness.

European Federation for Intercultural Learning: <http://www.afs.org/efil/>

EFIL is the umbrella organisation of 19 European AFS Organisations who organise intercultural stays for young people in a world-wide network. The web-site includes information on EFIL's activities, on its member organisations and their programs, news, and the Global Education Bulletin.

Country E-thologies: <http://www.ethologies.com/en/default.asp>

Country E-thologies is a collection of Internet sites which are organized by country and topics for ease of use into a one-stop on-line country information research environment.

University of Maryland Diversity Database:
<http://www.inform.umd.edu:8080/EdRes/Topic/Diversity/>

A comprehensive index of multicultural and diversity resource on issues such as age, class, disability, gender, national origin, race and ethnicity, religion and sexual orientation.

Standards: <http://www.colorado.edu/journals/standards/>

The international journal for multicultural studies with volumes on pride, education, resistance, survival and other topics.

In Motion: <http://www.inmotionmagazine.com/>

In Motion Magazine is a multicultural, online U.S. publication about democracy.

http://home.nordnet.fr/~sybeugnet/ve/yo-pages/toolbox/inter_learn-summary.htm

“The very best of” the links to resources in intercultural learning, including ‘Domino’ and ‘Education Pack’ by the Council of Europe’s Directorate of Youth and Sports.

University of Minnesota <http://carla.acad.umn.edu/IS-bibliography.html>

A 1999 bibliography for culture learning, intercultural education and language learning.

Intercultural Press: <http://interculturalpress.com/shop/index.html>

The catalogue of an American publishing house specialised in intercultural issues.

North-South Centre: <http://www.nscentre.org/>

The site of an organisation of the Council of Europe, which provides a framework for European co-operation in raising public awareness on global interdependence issues.

Oxfam: <http://www.oxfam.org.uk/coolplanet/teachers/index.html>

This site makes teaching about the world easier for teachers, by providing high-quality educational packages; homework ideas and activities for children to do on their own; and easy access to educational resources from Oxfam's extensive educational catalogue

ADRI (Agence pour le developpement des relations interculturelles)
<http://www.adri.fr/default2.html>

An organisation promoting the integration of immigrant communities in France and the harmonious development of relations between native and foreign populations . They have a resource centre and a training centre, and the site includes a list of relevant links as well.

Group dynamics

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References

Links

What is a group

Definitions of Group dynamics on the Web:

The interaction among people in a group. An effective moderator can enable group dynamics to promote helpful discussion by various techniques, as well as minimize the potentially negative effects of group dynamics.

www.research.za.net/glossary.html

Understanding the relationships among people in groups and how groups begin, operate and end.

web2.canr.msu.edu/leadnet/order/glossary.cfm

Understanding the relationships among people in groups and how groups begin, operate and end. Topic areas: Governance, Staff Development and Organizational Capacity, Operations Management and Leadership
www.nonprofitbasics.org/TopicAreaGlossary.aspx

Phenomena that occur in groups based upon their interactions and interrelations.
depression.about.com/library/glossary/blglossaryindexg.htm

An on-going process involving the interaction of individuals within a team to achieve a desired objective.
www.oly-wa.us/sqn/Glossary.htm

The diverse composition of people in a group, individual and group characteristics, and how their personal energies come together as a team.
www.mscedu/~cra/oa/team_building/definitions.htm

the branch of social psychology that studies the dynamics of interaction in social groups
www.cogsci.princeton.edu/cgi-bin/webwn

What is a Group?

A group is an organized system, composed of individuals who share norms, needs, common goals and who interact in such a way as to mutually influence their attitudes and behavior

A group of people working in the same room, or even on a common project, does not necessarily invoke the group process. If the group is managed in a totally autocratic manner, there may be little opportunity for interaction relating to the work; if there is factioning within the group, the process may never evolve. On the other hand, the group process may be utilized by normally distant individuals working on different projects; for instance, at IEE colloquia.

In simple terms, the group process leads to a spirit of cooperation, coordination and commonly understood procedures and mores. If this is present within a group of people, then their performance will be enhanced by their mutual support (both practical and moral). If you think this is a nebulous concept when applied to the world of industry, consider the opposite effect that a self-opinionated, cantankerous loud-mouth would have on your performance and then contrast that to working with a friendly, open, helpful associate.

Why a Group?

Groups are particularly good at combining talents and providing innovative solutions to possible unfamiliar problems; in cases where there is no well established approach/procedure, the wider skill and knowledge set of the group has a distinct advantage over that of the individual.

In general, however, there is an overriding advantage in a group-based work force which makes it attractive to Management: that it engenders a fuller utilization of the work force.

A group can be seen as a self managing unit. The range of skills provided by its members and the self monitoring which each group performs makes it a reasonably safe recipient for delegated responsibility. Even if a problem could be decided by a single person, there are two main benefits in involving the people who will carry out the decision. Firstly, the motivational aspect of participating in the decision will clearly enhance its implementation. Secondly, there may well be factors which the implementer understands better than the single person who could supposedly have decided alone.

More indirectly, if the lowest echelons of the workforce each become trained, through participation in group decision making, in an understanding of the companies objectives and work practices, then each will be better able to solve work-related problems in general. Further, they will also individually become a safe recipient for delegated authority which is exemplified in the celebrated right of Japanese car workers to halt the production line.

From the individual's point of view, there is the added incentive that through belonging to a group each can participate in achievements well beyond his/her own individual potential. Less idealistically, the group provides an environment where the individual's self-perceived level of responsibility and authority is enhanced, in an environment where accountability is shared: thus providing a perfect motivator through enhanced self-esteem coupled with low stress.

Finally, a word about the much vaunted "recognition of the worth of the individual" which is often given as the reason for delegating responsibility to groups of subordinates. While I agree with the sentiment, I am dubious that this is a prime motivator - the bottom line is that the individual's talents are better utilized in a group, not that they are wonderful human beings.

Types of Groups

In general the notion of group is linked either to achieving a task or interacting socially.

Formal

- established by management with a mandate to execute tasks and services which will allow the organisation to reach its objectives. The status of each member and expected performance standards are also determined
- Functional which are relatively permanent
- Task or project with a precise mandate limited in time.

Informal

- form naturally with time and the interactions of the members of an organization. Members usually share the same ideas, values, beliefs and social needs.
- Interest
- Friendship

To be human is to belong to groups. We are part of a family, of a class, of a religious group, of a political party, of a circle of friends and of a work group.

Why do we join groups?

The most common motives for joining a group are:

- to satisfy a need for security
- to identify and commit to a common task
- to satisfy a need for affiliation
- to have a possibility of exercising leadership and satisfy needs of self-esteem, power and self-actualization

However, it is very rare that membership in one group will satisfy all of an individual's needs. That is why individuals belong to many groups. They will also leave a group that no longer satisfies their need.

Groups dynamics

First Theoretical approach

The model of group development presented here, draws an evolution on two related levels: what the group is talking about, or its *topic*, and what the group members are privately dealing with, or its *issue*. The interplay between the issue and the topic provides a framework within which group members' behavior can be better understood.

Two guidelines seem to follow from this perspective. The first one involves hearing the *topic* and understanding the *issue*, or listening to relational messages. The second one is to help the group deal with its *issues*, which really means stimulating the group's development.

The **most salient dimensions**, regularly returning in the relevant literature, are elaborated below.

The **in-out** dimension describes people as part of the group, or not (W. Schutz, 1966; R. Bales, 1970). Other words referring to the same idea are *group membership*, or *inclusion*. Young people may well sit in the training room, but not be part of the process as a social environment. They're out: they were rejected, or they rejected the class themselves.

The **up-down** dimension, describes group members in terms of the influence they exert (T. Leary, 1957; W. Schutz, 1966; R. Bales, 1970; F. Cuvelier, 1980): are they dominant, and leading, or subordinate, and following? Are they top-dogs or under-dogs, haves or have-nots?

The **close-far** dimension refers to how tight the link between group members is (W. Schutz, 1966). Who do they address to, who do they answer to, who do they hang out with, or who do they help? 1970; F. Cuvelier, 1980). Is it a relation of agreement, support, and fun, or is their interaction characterized by critique, sarcasm, anger, opposition, competition? Group members can be very close, in a obstructive way!

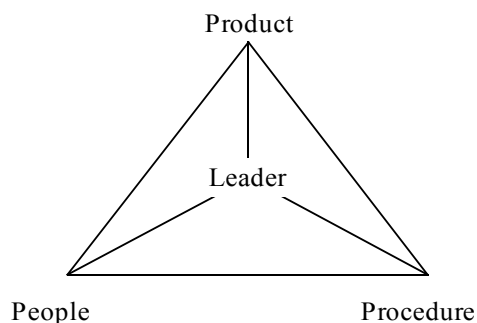
The last basic dimension is **forward-backward** (A.Couch, 1960; R. Bales, 1970). Group members can help the group to move on, or slow it down: they can play a stimulating role, or a stagnating one. What 'moving on' then stands for will become clearer when we describe the stages of group development.

It is important to realize these dimensions intend to be descriptive, not evaluative: neither pole of it is 'good' or 'bad'. The risk of confusion seems especially real for the with-against dimension, by some authors referred to as positive-negative. The labels merely describe a relationship as characterized by agreement or disagreement, by support or by conflict: they don't assume that conflict is bad!

Product, procedure and process

(...) a model which is commonly used in describing group and organizational behavior. The model distinguishes three aspects or orientations in group and organizational activity, respectively referred to as 'product', 'procedure' and 'process'

The *Product - Procedure - People* model offers a lens for viewing groups or individuals at work on a task:



Product: The task, techniques, and quality standards in their execution.

People: The socio-emotional 'people' factor: behavior, emotions of individuals in relationships with others.

Procedures: The way the people organize or structure themselves in order to get the work (product) done: structures (i.e. rules, agreements, roles, timings). As such, the procedures facilitate the link between the task and the people. Procedures are agreements are not task-dependent: they can be applied to a variety of different tasks. Some examples are nominating a coordinator, organizing a brainstorming session, everyone speaking one at a time, decide by voting

These first two aspects - 'Product' and 'People' - should be recognizable from a variety of other models and discussions of groups at work: sometimes called 'task' and 'relation'. In an organizational context, 'Procedures' are a useful addition, as they allow us to discuss the formal organization of work which is part of the daily reality of organizational work. Generally speaking, the larger the organization, the more procedures, but even working alone we make use of procedures to structure our day,

to give a degree of certainty in which to work in.

Group work and PPP

One concept which can be applied to this triangle is the idea of **balance** between these three aspects:

- Over-emphasis on procedures, for instance, can stifle creative and flexible problem-solving.
- Over-emphasis on the people can undermine efficiency, as group members are not sufficiently task-oriented.
- Over-emphasis on the product can lead to a tense atmosphere, with little openness for one another : people don't learn from their mistakes, scanty encouragement.

A leader can play an important role in helping keep these issues balanced by shifting his focus or 'weight' as necessary to a different aspects of the triangle to bring the team better into balance and help them function more efficiently.

Obviously both the team's focus and the leaders' style are **situationally** determined: different problems require different approaches. 'It depends', in other words. Some tasks are urgent and require immediate action and attention to the task (fighting a fire, for example). Other tasks require much more attention to the people side of the picture (rappeling down a cliff or a discussion about salaries).

It follows reasonably that if a team's focus is situationally determined, that a team should also be able to be **flexible** within this triangle, and place their emphasis where appropriate based on the needs of the situation, rather than constantly being oriented to only one of these three aspects.

The particular focus or 'weight' of the group, and the extent to which a group will be able to be flexible in their focus, is also dependent on the group's development:

Group development and PPP

Frequently a group's (at least in this part of the world) development can also be traced along this triangle:

- Initially groups are frequently very task-oriented (product): the discussion concerns techniques, strategies for solving the task. This is frequently a chaotic stage.
- In response to the chaos, groups frequently propose a number of structures (procedures): a coordinator, giving everyone a turn to speak, setting a time limit on brainstorming, holding a (structured) brainstorming session ...
- As a group matures, they are able to leave behind strict procedures (frequently valid for all group members), work more flexibly, and start addressing individual behavior and emotion (motivation, frustration, etc.) - people.

Individuals and PPP

The model can also be useful for describing a particular **individual's strengths and weaknesses**: some people are very strong in problem analysis (product), but have more difficulty communicating their ideas in way that can be easily received (people). Some people's forte is in keeping meetings and discussions on track (procedures), but in doing so, may frustrate (people) others who prefer less structure.

A combination of such strengths and weaknesses can generate a dynamic balance in a team, allowing a team to function efficiently in a variety of situations.

But, the same issues listed above are also applicable for individuals:

- a particular orientation or focus is situationally dependent: I'm different at home than at work, and different at work depending on the job at hand
- my focus should depend on the situation - I should be able to flexibly shift my focus as needed

Group development

A first relevant distinction concerns the difference between a topic and an issue. The topic is what the group members talk about: it is what they explicitly address. The issue is their underlying concern: it's the students' preoccupation. Depending on the group development the topic and the issue may or may not coincide: participants may directly express their concerns, but rarely do so in initial stages of relational development. The issue then remains implicit, because it is not acceptable as a topic. As long as this is the case, group members silently deal with their issue through talking about their topic. This changes as the **need** to address the issue increases and when the group feels **safe** enough to talk about the issue. Group development can be understood as the resultant of this interplay between a felt need and psychological safety (Hovelynck & Vanden Auweele, 1998).

In addition to the evolution of the topic and the issue, group development typically entails a changing group structure - as a correlate of the interplay between need and safety - and an evolution of the relationship between the group and the facilitator. The four lines of development are represented in Table 1.

Table 1: areas of group development

TOPIC	ISSUE	STRUCTURE	RELATION TO FACILITATOR
Product The <i>task</i> , and other topics that allow superficial conversation	Inclusion Group membership: being part included or excluded from the class group	A pool of individuals: relationships remain superficial	Dependency Unquestioned acceptance of instructions and need for performance evaluation
Procedure <i>Structure</i> and rules needed to accomplish the task	<i>Equality/similarity</i> : similar others are included and supported	Dyads and triads of students who feel alike in some respect	Counterdependency Critique, mild (jokes) to violent aggression, non-acceptance of instructions, rejection of input
<i>Roles</i> needed to organize for task achievement	Influence Conflict over roles and power in the class	Subgroups, conflicting cliques	Beginning interdependency : the relation becomes more cooperative as the influence issue is resolved
Process Individual <i>behavior</i> in the group; personal styles affecting role behavior	<i>Equivalence</i> : mutual acceptance of interpersonal differences	Exchange between the subgroups and spread effect toward the entire group	Continuing interdependency
Socio-emotional <i>action-theory</i>	Intimacy Open exchange; understanding of and respect for differences	Tightly interwoven network	

Trainers in my research capture the importance of relational development for learning in terms of different ways in which the group members “talk” with each other. Initially, group members “**talk about**”: they talk in general terms about the available topic, because they consider talking part of the program they participate in. Such talk is largely based on goodwill toward the program organizer, the facilitator and other group members. As this doesn’t allow the group to be proficient, a build up of frustration propels the group into a different way of talking: “**talking because**”. The group no longer talks because that is what they are supposed to do, but because they want to make things change. The new way of communicating mostly reflects a different kind of commitment, which is a necessary condition for learning. A next stage is characterized by “**talking to**”: group members express their experience, including ‘negative’ experience, directly toward the person involved in that experience.

Second Theoretical approach

Group Development

It is common to view the development of a group as having four stages:

- Forming
- Storming
- Norming
- Performing

Forming is the stage when the group first comes together. Everybody is very polite and very dull. Conflict is seldom voiced directly, mainly personal and definitely destructive. Since the grouping is new, the individuals will be guarded in their own opinions and generally reserved. This is particularly so in terms of the more nervous and/or subordinate members who may never recover. The group tends to defer to a large extent to those who emerge as leaders (poor fools!).

Storming is the next stage, when all Hell breaks loose and the leaders are lynched. Factions form, personalities clash, no-one concedes a single point without first fighting tooth and nail. Most importantly, very little communication occurs since no one is listening and some are still unwilling to talk openly. True, this battle ground may seem a little extreme for the groups to which you belong - but if you look beneath the veil of civility at the seething sarcasm, invective and innuendo, perhaps the picture come more into focus.

Then comes the **Norming**. At this stage the sub-groups begin to recognize the merits of working together and the in-fighting subsides. Since a new spirit of co-operation is evident, every member begins to feel secure in expressing their own view points and these are discussed openly with the whole group. The most significant improvement is that people start to listen to each other. Work methods become established and recognized by the group as a whole.

And finally: **Performing**. This is the culmination, when the group has settled on a system which allows free and frank exchange of views and a high degree of support by the group for each other and its own decisions.

In terms of performance, the group starts at a level slightly below the sum of the individuals' levels and then drops abruptly to its nadir until it climbs during Norming to a new level of Performing which is (hopefully) well above the start. It is this elevated level of performance which is the main justification for using the group process rather than a simple group of staff.

Group Skills

The group process is a series of changes which occur as a group of individuals form into a cohesive and effective operating unit. If the process is understood, it can be accelerated.

There are two main sets of skills which a group must acquire:

- Managerial Skills
- Interpersonal Skills

and the acceleration of the group process is simply the accelerated acquisition of these.

As a self-managing unit, a group has to undertake most of the functions of a Group Leader - collectively. For instance, meetings must be organized, budgets decided, strategic planning undertaken, goals set, performance monitored, reviews scheduled, etc. It is increasingly recognized that it is a fallacy to expect an individual to suddenly assume managerial responsibility without assistance; in the group it is even more so. Even if there are practiced managers in the group, they must first agree on a method, and then convince and train the remainder of the group.

As a collection of people, a group needs to relearn some basic manners and people-management skills. Again, think of that self-opinionated, cantankerous loud-mouth;

he/she should learn good manners, and the group must learn to enforce these manners without destructive confrontation.

5 stages of group development

Stage 1: Forming

In the *Forming* stage, personal relations are characterized by dependence. Group members rely on safe, patterned behavior and look to the group leader for guidance and direction. Group members have a desire for acceptance by the group and a need to be know that the group is safe. They set about gathering impressions and data about the similarities and differences among them and forming preferences for future subgrouping. Rules of behavior seem to be to keep things simple and to avoid controversy. Serious topics and feelings are avoided.

The major task functions also concern orientation. Members attempt to become oriented to the tasks as well as to one another. Discussion centers around defining the scope of the task, how to approach it, and similar concerns. To grow from this stage to the next, each member must relinquish the comfort of non-threatening topics and risk the possibility of conflict.

Stage 2: Storming

The next stage, which Tuckman calls *Storming*, is characterized by competition and conflict in the personal-relations dimension an organization in the task-functions dimension. As the group members attempt to organize for the task, conflict inevitably results in their personal relations. Individuals have to bend and mold their feelings, ideas, attitudes, and beliefs to suit the group organization. Because of "fear of exposure" or "fear of failure," there will be an increased desire for structural clarification and commitment. Although conflicts may or may not surface as group issues, they do exist. Questions will arise about who is going to be responsible for what, what the rules are, what the reward system is, and what criteria for evaluation are. These reflect conflicts over leadership, structure, power, and authority. There may be wide swings in members' behavior based on emerging issues of competition and hostilities. Because of the discomfort generated during this stage, some members may remain completely silent while others attempt to dominate.

In order to progress to the next stage, group members must move from a "testing and proving" mentality to a problem-solving mentality. The most important trait in helping groups to move on to the next stage seems to be the ability to listen.

Stage 3: Norming

In Tuckman's *Norming* stage, interpersonal relations are characterized by cohesion. Group members are engaged in active acknowledgment of all members' contributions, community building and maintenance, and solving of group issues. Members are willing to change theirpreconceived ideas or opinions on the basis of facts presented by other members, and they actively ask questions of one another. Leadership is shared, and cliques dissolve. When members begin to know-and identify with-one another, the level of trust in their personal relations contributes to the development of group cohesion. It is during this stage of development (assuming the group gets this far) that people begin to experience a sense of group belonging and a feeling of relief as a result of resolving interpersonal conflicts.

The major task function of stage three is the data flow between group members: They share feelings and ideas, solicit and give feedback to one another, and explore actions related to the task. Creativity is high. If this stage of data flow and cohesion is attained by the group members, their interactions are characterized by openness and sharing of information on both a personal and task level. They feel good about being part of an effective group.

The major drawback of the norming stage is that members may begin to fear the inevitable future breakup of the group; they may resist change of any sort.

Stage 4: Performing

The *Performing* stage is not reached by all groups. If group members are able to evolve to stage four, their capacity, range, and depth of personal relations expand to true interdependence. In this stage, people can work independently, in subgroups, or as a total unit with equal facility. Their roles and authorities dynamically adjust to the changing needs of the group and individuals. Stage four is marked by interdependence in personal relations and problem solving in the realm of task functions. By now, the group should be most productive. Individual members have become self-assuring, and the need for group approval is past. Members are both highly task oriented and highly people oriented. There is unity: group identity is complete, group morale is high, and group loyalty is intense. The task function becomes genuine problem solving, leading toward optimal solutions and optimum group development. There is support for experimentation in solving problems and an emphasis on achievement. The overall goal is productivity through problem solving and work.

Stage 5: Adjourning

Tuckman's final stage, *Adjourning*, involves the termination of task behaviors and disengagement from relationships. A planned conclusion usually includes recognition for participation and achievement and an opportunity for members to say personal goodbyes. Concluding a group can create some apprehension - in effect, a minor crisis. The termination of the group is a regressive movement from giving up control to giving up inclusion in the group. The most effective interventions in this stage are those that facilitate task termination and the disengagement process.



Accelerating development

It is common practice in accelerating group development to appoint, and if necessary train, a "group facilitator". The role of this person is to continually draw the groups' attention to the group process and to suggest structures and practices to support and enhance the group skills. This must be only a short-term training strategy, however, since the existence of a single facilitator may prevent the group from assuming collective responsibility for the group process. The aim of any group should be that facilitation is performed by every member equally and constantly. If this responsibility is recognised and undertaken from the beginning by all, then the Storming phase may be avoided and the group development passed straight into Norming.

The following is a set of suggestions which may help in group formation. They are offered as suggestions, no more; a group will work towards its own practices and norms.

Focus

The two basic focus should be the *group* and the *task*.

If something is to be decided, it is the group that decides it. If there is a problem, the group solves it. If a member is performing badly, it is the group who asks for change.

If individual conflicts arise, review them in terms of the task. If there is initially a lack of structure and purpose in the deliberations, impose both in terms of the task. If there are disputes between alternative courses of action, negotiate in terms of the task.

Clarification

In any project management, the clarity of the specification is of paramount importance - in group work it is exponentially so. Suppose that there is a 0.8 chance of an individual understanding the task correctly (which is very high). If there are 8 members in the group then the chance of the group all working towards that same task is 0.17. And the same reasoning hold for every decision and action taken throughout the life of the group.

It is the first responsibility of the group to clarify its own task, and to record this understanding so that it can be constantly seen. This *mission statement* may be revised or replaced, but it should always act as a focus for the groups deliberations and actions.

The mouse

In any group, there is always the quiet one in the corner who doesn't say much. That individual is the most under utilized resource in the whole group, and so represents the best return for minimal effort by the group as a whole. It is the responsibility of that individual to speak out and to contribute. It is the responsibility of the group to encourage and develop that person, to include him/her in the discussion and actions, and to provide positive reinforcement each time that happens.

The loud-mouth

In any group, there is always a dominant member whose opinions form a disproportionate share of the discussion. It is the responsibility of each individual to consider whether they are that person. It is the responsibility of the group to ask whether the loud-mouth might like to summarize briefly, and then ask for other views.

The written record

Often a decision which is not recorded will become clouded and have to be rediscussed. This can be avoided simply by recording on a large display (where the group can clearly see) each decision as it is made. This has the further advantage that each decision must be expressed in a clear and concise form which ensures that it is clarified.

Feedback (negative)

All criticism must be neutral: focused on the task and not the personality. So rather than calling Johnie an innumerate moron, point out the error and offer him a calculator. It is wise to adopt the policy of giving feedback frequently, especially for small things - this can be couched as mutual coaching, and it reduces the destructive impact of criticism when things go badly wrong.

Every criticism must be accompanied by a positive suggestion for improvement.

Feedback (positive)

If anyone does something well, praise it. Not only does this reinforce commendable actions, but it also mollifies the negative feedback which may come later. Progress in the task should be emphasised.

Handling failure

The long term success of a group depends upon how it deals with failure. There is the tendency to brush off failure and to get on with the next stage with no more than a mention - it is a very foolish tendency. Any failure should be explored by the group. This is not to attribute blame (for that is shared by the whole group as an individual only acts with delegated responsibility), but rather to examine the causes and to devise a mechanism which either monitors against or prevents repetition. A mistake should only happen once if it is treated correctly.

One practise which is particularly useful is to delegate the agreed solution to the individual or sub-group who made the original error. This allows the group to demonstrate its continuing trust and the penitent to make amends.

Handling deadlock

If two opposing points of view are held in the group then some action must be taken. Several possibly strategies exist. Each sub-group could debate from the other sub-group's view-point in order to better understand it. Common ground could be emphasised, and the differences viewed for a possible middle or alternative strategy. Each could be debated in the light of the original task. But firstly the group should decide how much time the debate actually merits and then guillotine it after that time - then, if the issue is not critical, toss a coin.

Sign posting

As each small point is discussed, the larger picture can be obscured. Thus it is useful frequently to remind the group: this is where we came from, this is where we got to, this is where we should be going.

Avoid single solutions

First ideas are not always best. For any given problem, the group should generate alternatives, evaluate these in terms of the task, pick one and implement it. But most importantly, they must also monitor the outcome, schedule a review and be prepared

to change the plan.

Active communication

Communication is the responsibility of both the speaker and the listener. The speaker must actively seek to express the ideas in a clear and concise manner - the listener must actively seek to understand what has been said and to ask for clarification if unsure. Finally, both parties must be sure that the ideas have been correctly communicated perhaps by the listener summarizing what was said in a different way.

Conclusion

Groups are like relationships - you have to work at them. In the work place, they constitute an important unit of activity but one whose support needs are only recently becoming understood. By making the group itself responsible for its own support, the responsibility becomes an accelerator for the group process. What is vital, is that these needs are recognized and explicitly dealt with by the group. Time and resources must be allocated to this by the group and by Management, and the group process must be planned, monitored and reviewed just like any other managed process.

Initial stage of a group development

Questions Members Often ask Themselves

Will I be accepted or rejected here? ; How will this group be different from my daily interactions? ; What exactly will these sessions be like? ; What risks will I take in here? ; How am I like other people here? Different? ; Will I feel pressured and pushed to perform in some way? ; How important will I be? ; Who will be the real leaders here? What can be achieved here?

Concerns and Fears

I'm afraid I'll look stupid. ; Will I tell too much about myself? ; Will others like me? ; What if I find out what I'm really like? ; What if everyone rejects me? ; What if the group attacks me? ; I'm afraid I'll be withdrawn and passive. ; What will happen if I really open up my feeling? ; Will I embarrass myself? ; What if I'm asked to do something I don't want to do? ; What if others can tell I'm afraid and nervous? ; What if I find out things about myself that I can't cope with?

Characteristics of Initial Stage

Silence and awkwardness. ; High anxiety. ; Impatience to "get the ball rolling". ; Confusion about what everybody is supposed to be doing. ; Storytelling, a tendency to talk about others and focus on people and situations outside of the group. ; Central issue is trust vs. mistrust. ; Testing of each other and the leaders. ; Requests for greater leader involvement. ; Cocktail conversations, safe levels of conversation. ; Vying for informal leadership.

Some Ways to Start a Group Sessions

- q. Go around the room and have each member state what he/she wants from the upcoming session.
- r. As leaders, share your thoughts about where the group is at, how it is progressing, ways the group might be getting stuck, etc.

- s. Ask members if they have any unresolved feelings or thoughts about the previous session: "Did anyone have any after thoughts or leftover feelings about last week's session?"
- t. Ask, "How is each of you feeling about being here today?"
- u. Have each member complete the sentence, "Today I'd like to get actively involved by"
- v. Announce, "As a way of beginning tonight, let's have a brief go-around and have each of you say what you'd most like to be able to say by the end of this session."
- w. Inquire of each member: "what were you thinking and feeling before coming to the group today?" or "Whom (or what) are you most aware of in this room right now, and why?"

Some Ways to End a Group Session

- Ask members to tell the group briefly what they learned about themselves through their relationships with other members in that particular session.
- Ask, "What was it like for you to be in this group tonight?"
- Instruct, "Let's do a quick go-around and have everyone say a few words on how the group is progressing so far and make any suggestions for change."
- Indicate, "Before we close tonight, I'd like to share with you some of my reactions and observations of this session."
- Ask if anybody has any feedback that they would like to give another member or the leaders.
- Determine if there are any issues that members would like to return to or explore in the next session.

Planning a group - Practical Considerations

What is the purpose of the group? ; What are the specific goals of the group? ; What type of group will this be? ; What theory will guide the group? ; What specific techniques and strategies will be used? ; Can I develop a session-by-session plan? ; To what degree will sessions be structured? ; How will I market the group? Obtain referrals? ; What will be the cost of the group? ; How will I screen/evaluate potential members? ; What are the criteria for inclusion/exclusion? ; Where will the group meet? What props do I need? ; What will be the duration and frequency of meetings? ; How many people will participate in the group? ; Will the group be open or closed? ; How many sessions will the group meet? ; Will I use a co-leader? Who? ; What will be the group rules? How will these be conveyed? ; How will I prepare participants for the group? ; What problems can I expect to run into, and how will I deal with those? ; How will I handle dropouts? ; Under what circumstances will I remove a member from the group? ; What paperwork/documentation will be required? ; How will I assess outcomes of the group?

Stages in group problem solving

Based on Hunt J (1979) Managing people at work; Pan Orientation

The relationships of one member with another have to be worked out. Members are disoriented, not able to solve problems realistically. Questions of roles and power have not been resolved - balance has not yet been achieved.

Deliberation

The interactive process of the group is brought to bear on the problem. This is the research, data analysis phase. Roles emerge, task and maintenance role performances are clearer. Claims for power (expertise, experience etc) are signalled by members.

Conflict

Individuals formulate their positions. Unfavourable comments are frequent. Polarization of attitudes occurs, and a reaction to the emergent roles and power distribution. Further counter claims for power are made.

Emergence

There is a reduction in the amount of conflict, and fewer unfavourable comments. Ambiguous comments permit a shift in ground. Role for task orientation and maintenance orientations are implicitly allocated to individuals - ie power is distributed and balanced.

Trust

This stage is marked by the sharing of honest communications. It is the best phase for problem solving, where personal animosities (or organizational games) are minimal. Balance has occurred within the group. Role allocations are accepted by role performers.

Reinforcement

Argument is minimal, as members become aware of the inevitability of the decision they are to make. Balance has been superseded by problem solving as the focus of attention. Decisions are made.

Training groups

Group life in a training

From an educational point of view, people being trained together while very often sharing the same accommodation encourages them to live an unique experience which can support their learning in many ways.

The advantages include:

- Learning together and sharing experiences
- Learning from each other. In peer-group education people share their experience and as positive models can also shape the behaviour and attitudes of their peers.
- A protected learning context in an artificial situation.
- Improving the communication in an organisation when people from one organisation are training together.
- Encountering new people and creating new networks.

This form of residential existence is beneficial for the training process, provided a few guidelines are followed. It is necessary to ensure that *all* the participants are staying overnight at the same place to enable everybody to participate in the same way. A common problem for trainees at an international event in their city or town is removing themselves from their normal routines and avoiding personal or professional distractions. In terms of optimum participation, it is also important to control the group size and to use a range of methods suited to working with different group sizes. The box below gives a general overview of this point. As we shall see however, no group is static and from the beginning of its existence is developing and in a permanent flow. As with all typologies, the ones offered here can only be verified by the reality of the group you are working with.

Group size and participation

Size	Communication in the group	Group structure/methods
3-6 people:	Everyone speaks	Buzz groups like method 66 (6 people share for 6 minutes about a subject), working groups.
7-10 people:	Almost everyone speaks. Quieter people say less. One or two may not speak at all.	Working groups, small thematic workshops
11-18 people:	5 or 6 people speak a lot, 3 or 4 others join in occasionally.	Workshop, plenary session
19-30 people:	3 or 4 people potentially dominate	Plenary session (presentations (results, film), short theoretical input, evaluations) working groups
30+ people:	Little participation possible	(the bigger the group, the shorter the plenary meetings)

Adapted from Rogers (1989)

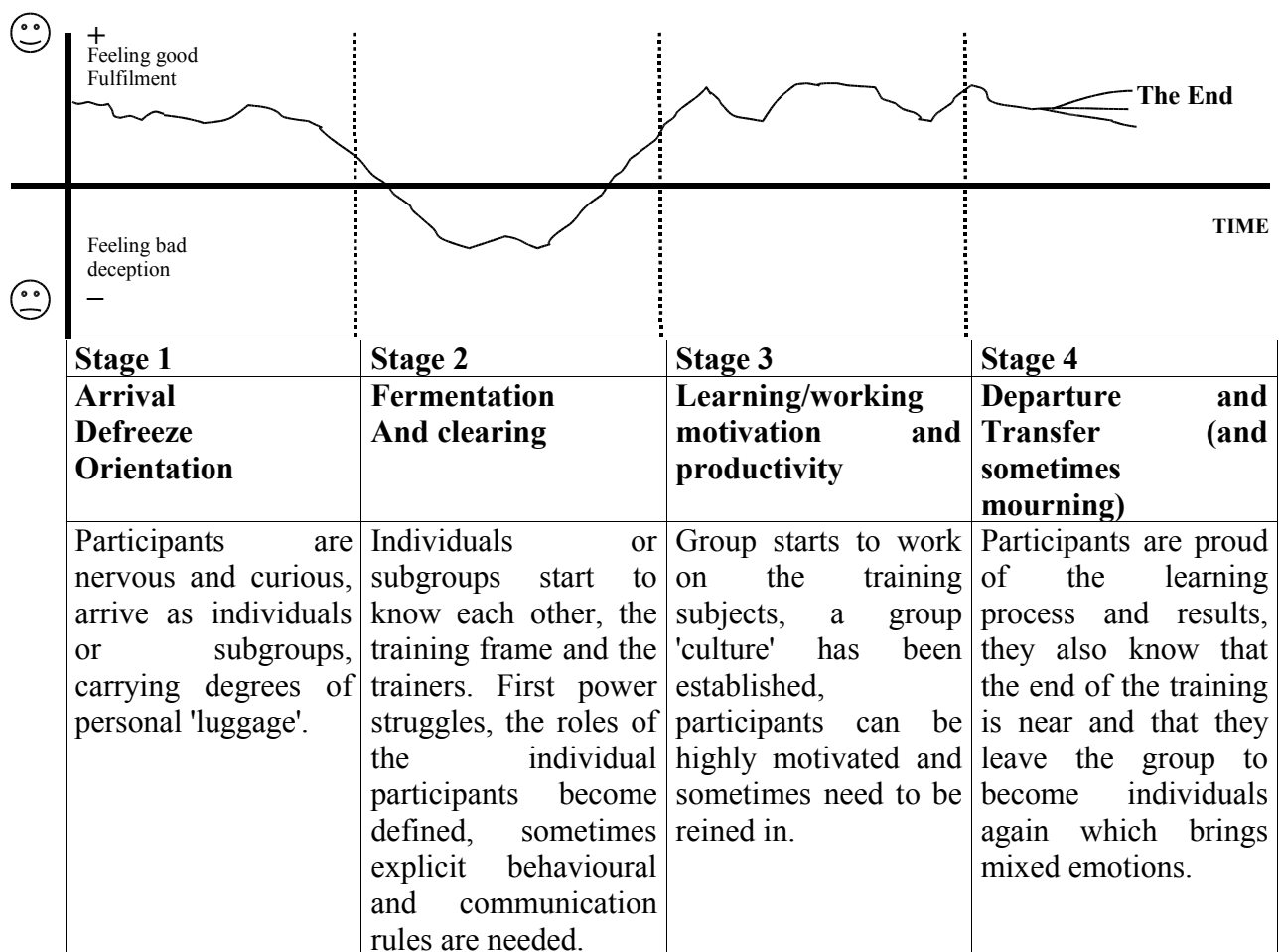
Stages of group development

As a basic starting point, each training group is different. Every group is constituted by different individuals, coming from perhaps many different organisations and a range of cultural, social and educational backgrounds. People arrive with their professional and personal expectations, with their values and prejudices, their hidden

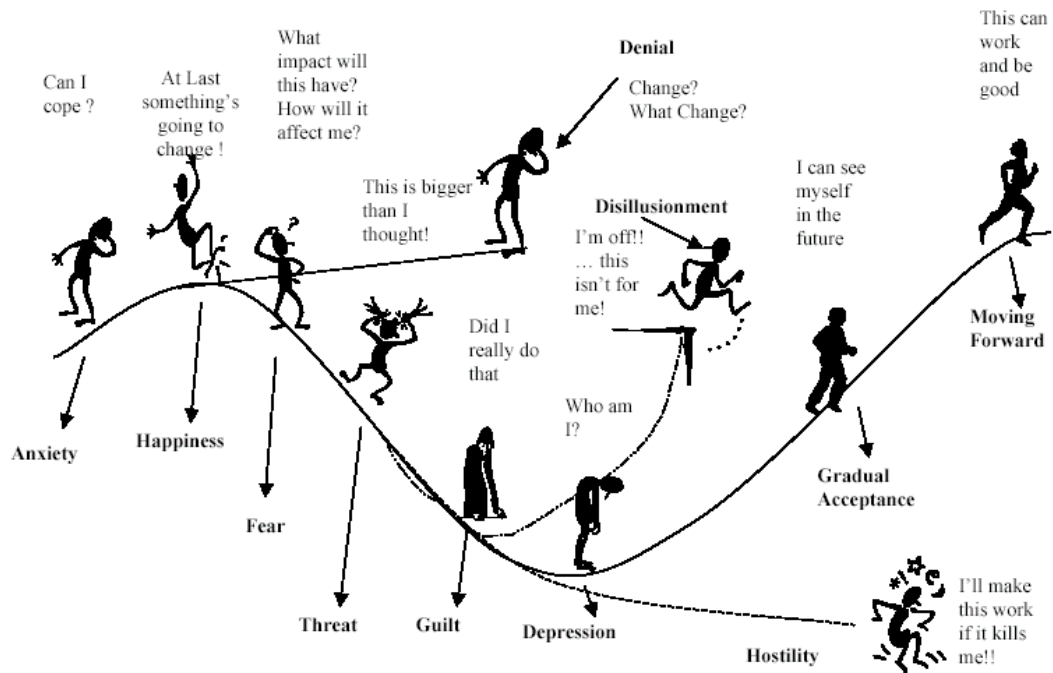
agendas and their personal luggage which may be packed with more or less important things that keep them connected to their 'normal' world. All or any of these aspects can have a big influence on the group, the training process and the dynamics and evolution of group life. If every group is different, it follows that there are as many group dynamics as there are groups.

That said, models based on the observation of groups argue that there are typical stages of group development which are likely to be passed through. *The T-Kit on Organisational Management* (p.47-) deals with this in relation to team development and details the main stages observable in the development of a training group.

TE-14 Typical emotional 'fever curve' and stages of group development in a training



The Process of Transition



Principles of group work

I. Group work is an educational process

In the minds of most people, group leadership and group activities represent a form of recreation. They think of them as a means of spending a few pleasant hours each week and praise them because they "keep the kids off the streets."

Group activity is recreation and is valuable as such. But it is, or should be, much more than that. Essentially and most important, it is an educational process.

As a form of education, then, group work has as its object the development of a physically and mentally healthy child and adult adjusted to his surroundings, his fellow men, and himself, finding wholesome outlets for his abilities, and serving as an intelligent member of society, alive to its needs and active in helping to solve them. The task of the club leader thus involves a responsibility similar to that of the parent, the teacher, the physician; a responsibility for the lives of human beings, their present and future happiness, and for the welfare of society.

II. Objectives of group work

Club work differs from other forms of education, however, in the importance which the group plays in the process. One of the important principles of education is that the most successful learning is that which takes place in natural situations - in life itself.

In utilizing the group, settlement club work is clearly following this axiom, for life today is essentially a group life. Almost everyone belongs to a number of groups - the family, lodge, fraternity, church, scout troop, professional society, gang, political club, and many, many others. We are constantly adjusting to groups, and our actions and attitudes are largely determined by these associations. Our loyalties, friendships, and interests are largely tied up with them.

Through our group associations, we get the feeling that we have friends who appreciate and stand behind us at all times, who recognize and esteem our personal qualities and achievements, who help us find new outlets for our interests so that life continually means something new and enjoyable. All this is necessary and important. Without such security, devotion, recognition, and new experience, life would be unendurable.

In the group, then, the individual may learn to adjust to his associates on a healthy basis and to find a place of importance through his personal accomplishments and through his contribution to the group as a whole. The process of socialization that takes place involves the learning of the fundamental fact that the individual must adapt his desires and aims to the rights of those with whom he lives and shares life's goods, that he cannot live unto himself. Along with this, he may learn how valuable and enjoyable it is to work cooperatively with others.

In addition, the group may serve as a medium for the development of his individual skills and for increasing his fund of knowledge and information. Handcraft, dramatics, music, discussions, trips, and other group activities may be utilized for this purpose. And, at the same time, these group activities may help in correcting many personal behavior problems.

In summary, then, the objectives of group work may be said to include the following:

1. Socialization

- a. Ability to adjust harmoniously to other people and changing situations.
- b. Cooperation within the group and with other groups.
- c. Wider contacts and more varied experiences with other persons.

2. Individual Adjustment and Personal Development

- a. Security.
- b. Self-expression; new experience.
- c. Recognition from others.
- d. To some extent, response (devotion).

e. Remedying behavior problems and eliminating personal maladjustments where they already exist; preventing them in others.

f. Development of personal qualities: initiative, originality, resourcefulness, dependability, persistence, integrity, leadership, etc.

g. Development of physical abilities and skills; opening up new avenues for such expression.

h. Mental development; in the improved ability to think and to make careful analysis and judgment of facts and issues and to secure a larger body of information and knowledge.

3. Group Achievement

a. Active participation in and successful accomplishment of group projects.

b. Progression in the ability of the group to accomplish group aims.

c. Progression in group aims themselves.

These are all fundamental in life today, and are constantly alive in the mind of the intelligent group worker.

III. Principles of Group Work

These objectives cannot be accomplished merely by the good intentions of the leader, however. Something more is needed - a knowledge of the basic principles of progressive education, plus a sympathetic understanding of human nature. No brief statement of these principles can, in itself, prepare one to be a professionally skilled group worker. An attempt, however, will be made to give some knowledge and understanding of them in the hope that these principles will contribute to the development of a more intelligent leadership.

A. The needs of the group are the basis for the program. Many club leaders give so much attention to the development of an extensive program of activities, that the real meaning and purpose of the program tend to become misunderstood. It is vitally important that this be made clear to leaders who work with groups in settlement houses.

The program is not an end in itself. A long list of activities does not necessarily mean that there has been good group work. The aim of group work is to develop people, not programs, and the activities carried on are merely a means by which this aim may be accomplished. Therefore, in developing the program, the leader should constantly ask himself, "What purpose is it serving? Is it advancing the group toward the desired objectives? What is the program accomplishing for the individual members and for the group as a whole?"

Since the program depends upon the objectives sought, the needs of the group will determine the varying degrees of emphasis upon the objectives. The program, therefore, must be based primarily upon the needs of the group and its members-the qualities and abilities which they lack most and in which they fall farthest short of desirable standards of personal social development. These are never exactly the same for any two groups and are constantly changing with time. For this reason, the program must be dynamic and vital and not stereotyped and mechanical.

An illustration may serve to make all this more clear: A group at the University Neighborhood Centers which had been meeting for two years consisted of members who had developed their individual talents in craft work to a high degree of skill but were quite selfish and uncooperative. The leader of this group decided that socialization was, therefore, the greatest need of the members and tried to have the club busy itself mainly with projects that required a great deal of cooperation. This was emphasized by having the members combine their individual abilities in building a model house as a club task, all the boys doing some part of the work, but each one dependent upon the other. At the same time, the leader helped build up the interests of the group in projects that called for their cooperation with other groups, such as planning inter-club parties and helping sponsor and carry through an inter-club stunt night. In reviewing the progress of the year, it was found that definite improvement had resulted in the ability of the boys to work together and in their attitude toward other groups.

In another group, there was an opposite situation: The members could work together well when there was a joint project, but the individual members had developed their own talents to only a small degree. Furthermore, it seemed that these talents differed greatly in the various boys. In searching about for something that would utilize and develop these abilities, the leader struck upon the idea of a play in which a few of the members had expressed interest. This was built up, with the tasks divided according to individual preferences and talent-those interested in acting received the speaking parts, two of the boys skilled mechanically made the scenery, another with a flair for journalism wrote some articles about the play for the house newspaper, while one of the boys who liked to work on electrical projects took charge of the lighting. (As a result of the project, the leader saw a definite development in each of the members, at the same time utilizing their ability to work together well.) Since the members already had built up wholesome relationships with other groups, the inter-club program played a minor role during the period in which the boys were busy working on the play.

It should be clear, too, that the whole group process must be viewed as an organic, unified whole, rather than as a series of separate parts. All of the various parts interact and influence each other, and each must be thought of in relation to the others. No matter which aspect we deal with, the total personality of both the individual and the group is being affected.

When we speak of socialization, improved skills, and personal development, we are not dealing with separate categories. All of these are as a liquid in a bottle, composed of different elements diffused through each other to make a mixture. When we change one of the elements, strengthening or weakening it, the whole mixture is affected and changes accordingly. A person may be bashful and poorly accepted in a group because

there is no quality in him which the others can find to admire. The means of bringing about group acceptance may be to develop one of the individual's special talents. If he can be encouraged to do something worthwhile better than any of the others, he may gain the recognition he needs, develop his talents, and build up his personal confidence - three objectives attained through one activity. In this case, the development of individual skill can clearly bring about improved personality and adjustment.

Similarly, group achievement, individual skills, and socialization have been listed as separate objectives for the group. In reality, when anyone of these is developed, the others are always affected. The group that produced the play strengthened their cooperation (socialization), improved individual skills, and accomplished a distinct group achievement. In addition, better individual adjustment was affected in several of the members, particularly in a boy who had previously been one of the less active members and who presently became one of the leaders through his enthusiasm, hard work, and excellent acting. When we stress one of the objectives in our group program, we must understand that the other phases of the group's development are affected.

B. The program should be developed in accordance with interests of the group.

Although the needs of the group and its members form the underlying basis for the development of the program, this is not the only foundation. When the leader has clearly learned what the outstanding needs are, there remains the problem of building a program that will meet them and yet give pleasure to the group. For unless the group enjoys its activities, it is not likely to remain a group very long. After all, as its members see it, the central purpose of the group is "to have a good time," and this must never be lost sight of by the leader.

What activities will the group enjoy? Naturally, those in which they are interested. The task of the leader is to combine interests and needs so that a program can be developed which the group will thoroughly enjoy and which at the same time will help meet its needs. Unless activities are outlets for real interests, and unless enjoyment attends activity, there is not likely to be any desirable learning taking place no matter how carefully the program is planned in other respects. We learn most when we enjoy what we are doing and we tend to repeat what we enjoy.

C. Discovering interests - a continuous process. Our problem, then, is to discover first what are the needs of the group and what are its interests. This is not always easy. It often requires a long time to find out the needs and new ones are constantly coming to light. It is really a continuous process. The same is true of interests. Hence, the leader must be constantly alert to note them as they appear.

How may these needs and interests be found? In various ways- by talking with the members of the group in informal conversation, learning what they have been doing and what experiences they have enjoyed most; by sharing experiences with them and taking part in their activities; and by watching them as they talk, work, and play. It is important to discover what their hobbies are and what are the basic interests behind them that might be utilized in developing a program in accordance with needs. Thus, a boy may have a hobby of collecting stamps. Is the major interest that of collecting, or

rather the curiosity in regard to the various designs represented? Might it not be in geography, or history, or engraving, or art? Couldn't an activity in any one of these fields be developed in which the boy would find pleasures and at the same time build a better balanced personality? These are the questions which should actuate the leader as he searches about for interests and as he observes and discovers them.

It has been suggested that interests may be revealed through activity and informal conversation. To ask a person, "What are you interested in?" may or may not bring the correct reply. Often he will give the answer he thinks the leader wants or expects, rather than the real answer. Sometimes he really does not know what his interests are. A person who has a knack for drawing may not realize it because he has never had much opportunity to develop this interest through direct activity. Given the opportunity, he may discover that he finds greater pleasure in drawing than in anything he has ever done. The same may be true for handcraft, music, dramatics, and other activities. Thus, the broadening of experience by getting a person actually to do something may be another means of discovering or developing interests - watching people draw, seeing exhibits of art work, going to a play or witnessing a rehearsal, visiting a newspaper plant or an electrical exhibit-are just a few examples of how this may be done.

It is important not to "force" an activity too much, and whether or not it should or can be repeated and developed depends on how well the members of the group respond. Sometimes a leader, in his own enthusiasm for an activity, continues with one which really is not enjoyed by the group, and then no real benefit or desired learning takes place. In fact, by so pressing the activity, the leader may actually develop a dislike for it in the group or a dead set against it.

Reading, tests, and games are other means of discovering interests. The leader may pick up a newspaper and casually mention the headlines, carefully noting those which bring response and comment, or he may describe some book or magazine article he has read. This may bring out what the members have been reading and indicate what types of plots, situations, people, and literature they find attractive. Here again a wealth of channels may be opened for exploration. Tests introduced informally as games prove to be "interest finders." Even a game as simple as "Bird, Beast, and Fish" may be developed to bring out interests in hunting, fishing, trapping, zoos, natural museums, camping, nature study, zoology, and geography. An activity based on one interest often leads to another as it progresses and grows.

D. The program of activities should be flexible and dynamic. Having discovered some of the greatest needs and at least a few interests, the task is to develop a program based upon them. This is a continuous process, rather than one of first learning them and then building the program. The program should be flexible enough to permit changes as needs and interests come to light, so that there is constant adaptation. This does not mean that no projects may be started which will require a long period of time. But the program should be worked out so that new interests may be brought in and utilized at the first opportunity.

Where the interests of the members are similar, there may be little difficulty in having them develop a program which they will find enjoyable. In some cases, however,

interests may differ greatly and bring about dissention which may actually destroy the group. The problem consists in combining the interests in a way satisfactory to all, or in having one faction agree to abide by the will of the majority temporarily and then have the latter follow out the minority's wishes. The former is preferable, for then all are enjoying it. The illustration cited above, of the group that put on the play, showed how a number of different interests might be unified, with each member following out his particular hobby. Where a group does not work together as successfully as this one, a project calling for less cooperation but including the same variety of interests will be necessary. A group that has learned to harmonize its desires and has developed to the point where the individuals are willing to make personal sacrifices for the good of the entire group has really progressed. Where the members of the group cannot agree as to their interests and conflict arises, it is sometimes desirable for the leader to propose something and really "sell" it to the group, to whom he usually appears as more or less of a neutral party.

In developing a program, the beginning must be made close to the level of the group at that time. For example, it may be desirable for the members to learn something about the economic situation in Russia, but as yet they may be hardly interested in their own economic situation. To start with Russia may kill the whole objective and we may have to begin with something so far removed as informal card games just to provide a situation that will lend itself to discussion. But the objective will remain throughout and progress will be made toward the ultimate goal even though this may be hard to discern at first.

Similarly, in a group interested in craft work, but with little previous experience, the leader may think that a metal plaque serving as a club emblem would be an excellent project for the group, and the members might accept this very enthusiastically. At the time, however, they may not have the skill required and are not sufficiently cooperative and the start must be made with simple projects, gradually developing their technique and ability to work together until they are able to make the plaque. In any type of program, care should be taken that the activity does not require more skill, persistent effort, responsibility, and cooperation than can be developed. As the group progresses, the demands and requirements should increase at a corresponding rate, resulting in continual learning and development.

When the group has some particular interest which all the members share, it is easy for the leader to concentrate on this interest, but there is a danger of neglecting other aspects of their development. While it is desirable that the individuals should reach a high degree of skill in the activities they find enjoyable, it is also well to remember that other qualities need to be developed if well-balanced personalities are to result and if the group is to realize its fullest growth. There should be enough variety introduced so that there is always something to challenge and stimulate the members, and monotony avoided. Care should be taken that the group does not become too self-centered. Some contacts and activities with other people should be stimulated. The purpose of group work is to broaden as well as deepen interests and knowledges.

E. There should be a maximum of initiation and participation by the group itself. Activities should be initiated as far as possible by the group itself, and the members themselves encouraged to make suggestions. Learning comes best through doing, and

the more the members conceive, plan, develop, and participate in the activities, the greater will be the value to them. The leader should be careful to draw out ideas from the group and to build up an attitude in the members of having such initiation and participation as a matter of course, rather than have them depend upon the leader to do things for them. A club may win the first prize in an inter-club model airplane contest but if the leader has done most of the work for the boys, the result may be more harmful than good. In the final analysis, the development of the skill and ability in the boys, and the satisfaction of a job well done, is more important than the trophy. A leader should guide the program rather than carry it out himself. In some cases, help from the leader may be necessary; but judgment can hold this to the desired minimum. When the leader initiates the program, it is usually best to abandon this particular program when an interest actually springs from the group itself.

F. Length of an activity - determined by needs and response. As long as the members are interested in an activity and enjoying it thoroughly and it continues to serve their needs, there is a reason for its existence. The greater the interest, the greater should be the attention and time given to the activity. Individuals differ often in the length of time they remain interested in a single activity. Usually young children tire of an activity more quickly than older persons. For this reason, leaders of younger groups must be ready to change their plans and progress at a moment's notice. When an activity begins to die a natural death, something else must be found to take its place immediately. The death of an activity really should be foreseen by the leader before it occurs, and the change should be made before the group has gone through the period of declining interest and monotony. [page 26]

G. Finding new outlets for undesirable behavior. Another very difficult problem is what should be done about undesirable kinds of behavior. How may they be changed into desirable modes of expression? It is well to remember that every problem differs in some aspects from others, and must be treated accordingly. There are a few broad underlying principles, however, that may be helpful.

The first question the leader should ask, and attempt to answer, is, "Why is the group acting in this manner? What need is it filling for the members?" The normal human needs may be classified as those for security, response, recognition, and new experience. The question, then, is which of these four is at the basis of the mode of behavior? Having answered this question, the leader's task is to substitute desirable methods of expression for undesirable ones, rather than merely eliminating or suppressing the latter.

The experience of "Bob Reese" may illustrate how this was accomplished. Bob was a member of a woodwork class and did little more than tease the other boys, play practical jokes on them and the leader, hide tools-in fact, almost everything but woodwork. After a few weeks of perplexity, the leader noticed that Bob had practically no ability in woodcraft and came to the conclusion that the pranks were intended to get Bob the attention that he couldn't gain otherwise. The leader accordingly attempted to discover a more wholesome outlet and hit upon the idea of putting Bob in charge of the tool cabinet. He made a point of stressing the importance of this responsibility to Bob and all the other boys. The pranks soon disappeared, and the "behavior problem" was no more. When the leader later learned that Bob was

better than average at painting, he allowed him to paint a magazine rack the boys were making for the settlement, to Bob's great pride. The boy got the recognition he needed and was no longer a problem. All this was accomplished with hardly a word about his behavior by the leader. By manipulating the situation, the leader achieved results that probably would not have been attained through threats or punishment.

The process becomes one of building on the broad interests of the group. Often merely broadening experiences will open up better channels of expression. There should be no condemning attitude upon the part of the leader; he should not "look down" upon the group and should avoid an attitude of blame or guilt or acting shocked. It is well to remember that behavior traits and attitudes are the result of natural development from the past experience of the members. These traits and attitudes should be analyzed carefully and objectively, and the leader will then be directed by reason rather than emotion.

The leader's main thought should be, "Why are they acting in this manner?" Until the leader can answer this question, any attempt at treatment of the problem is likely to go wide of the mark, or actually be harmful.

H. Adjusting the individual to the group - a process of mutual acceptance. One of the major objectives of group work is to bring about a better balanced personality and development in the individual members of this group, and stable adjustment to one's associates. It is necessary to understand the individual thoroughly in order to know what the possibilities are for the boy's development, and what his abilities and needs are. This is a task requiring intensive and frequent contact between the leader and the members, and goes beyond the activities of the club meetings. If he is to carry out this task satisfactorily, the leader must learn the home background of the individual, his relationship with his parents and relatives, what their attitudes are, what has been the school and work record, how much and what phases of these he has enjoyed, with whom he associates, and what he does outside of club meetings, and many other similar facts. Only in this way can the leader know what has caused the individual to be what he is, and understand the forces affecting him. It means further that the leader must build up a relationship so close that the individual will feel free to confide in him and will value the leader's help in the solution of his difficulties.

An important part of the group work process is the adjustment of the individual to the group, so that he will find in it an avenue for expression and for satisfying his fundamental human drives. Group adjustment involves the acceptance of the group by the individual, and of the individual by the group. He must want them and they must want him. The group provides the natural social setting in which the individual may learn the give-and-take process of society, the necessity of cooperation and personal sacrifice for the good of the whole, and for finding recognition and appreciation of his special abilities. The leader should guide the group towards the fulfillment of this purpose.

I. Conflicts may result in constructive experiences. In handling conflict situations both within the group and with other groups, the leader must understand the basis for the conflict, as the first step. He must determine whether it is a conflict of standards, personalities, or objectives, in order to determine upon the control to be exercised.

That is, he must know if the conflict results from the fact that the group members have different standards of what is right and what is wrong, or if the disagreement arises from the fact that one does not like the other-his habits of behavior and thought, or his appearance. Another type of causes is that of objectives-two or more persons may be pursuing different goals through their club membership or in the group's activities and come into conflict in trying to achieve these. Conflicts between the leader and members of the group may have similar causes.

The type of control will be based on what will provide the greatest learning for those involved, insofar as the immediate situation permits.

There are, of course, several different ways of handling conflicts, and the one used will depend upon the stage of the group's development and the particular situation involved. The most desirable method, perhaps, is that of integration. This is the process in which the members of the group discuss the situation, see all sides of the argument, and then arrive at a new solution which includes the best points of both sides. The group creates something by this process and valuable learning takes place.

When groups have not reached the state where integration is possible, the only practical solution may be a compromise. This means that both sides will give up some of their claims and will agree on something that is only part of what they would like to have. They may not be satisfied with it but it seems the best possible solution.

Compromise is not the same as integration. The following example will make this clear: A group of settlement boys became involved in an argument when planning their activities for the next few weeks. Some of the members wanted to spend the entire time drawing and refused to do anything else. Others wanted a story-writing contest in which each of the members would Write a story and then read it at the next meeting. Three outside judges were to be brought in to decide the winner. After arguing for about an hour, one of the boys exclaimed, "I know how we can satisfy everybody. Why not have the club publish a newspaper for the whole settlement? Nobody's doing it now, and it's certainly needed. Then all those who like to write can be the reporters, and the others can draw pictures for the paper." This suggestion was discussed for another hour, and the boys came to the conclusion that a monthly magazine would be better, which would permit the boys to do some real art work, rather than the cartoons to which they would be limited in a newspaper. The boys who wanted to write could then include short stories (fiction), poems, and essays, as well as news articles. The club enthusiastically agreed to this, and published a highly successful magazine. In this integrating process, all the boys were even more pleased than they would have been with their original plans, and everyone had an opportunity to do what he wished. If they had compromised, all probably would have spent a few weeks drawing, and a few weeks writing, with none of them completely satisfied.

Sometimes there will be a deadlock, and as a last resort, the leader should not hesitate to step in and suggest a solution as a neutral party. Personal authority must be used by the leader in cases of necessity.

Often an indirect method of solving conflicts may be very effective. By personal example, a leader may show the group that arguments may be solved in other ways

than fighting. He may purposely have them observe him settle some difference of opinion with another person or group calmly and reasonably in a manner that satisfies all concerned. He may also have the members observe another group settle its problems in a desirable manner to show them how this can be done. This is one of the means of conditioning the group toward the best methods of solving its conflicts. A whole series of experiences may thus be developed that will give the members additional information, so that when they come to make their own decision, they will do it in a better way than they would have before.

Conflicts are natural among human beings and should not always immediately be repressed by the leader. He should try to see the conflict in all its aspects and seek to determine how it may be of benefit to the group. The club that has learned to see its own conflicts objectively, to understand them, and to solve them rationally and without bitterness, has definitely progressed.

J. The type of organization depends on the status of the group. Many leaders have the notion that every group must have a constitution, officers, parliamentary procedure, and formal meetings. This is not the case. The organization of any group should be adapted to its needs and functions. Some groups may not need officers and regular formal meetings. They may solve their group problems and make their group decisions informally when the occasions arise. Groups of young children will not understand parliamentary procedure and any formal group meetings must be adapted to their needs, abilities, and interests. The type of activity and the previous experience of the group will determine the kind of organization suitable to it.

K. Group leadership - an opportunity and a challenge. Obviously the leader plays a tremendously important part in the group work process. Both in regard to his responsibilities and the qualifications of personality, interest, effort, and experience, the leader has within his power the opportunity of influencing the lives of his club members and of helping to lay the foundation for a better social democracy.

His own personality is a very important element and the members will be greatly influenced by his habits of thought and action. Therefore, a leader should have the bearing, personal charm, and enthusiasm to win the respect and admiration of the group.

We reiterate that to do the most successful work, the leader must also cultivate a close relationship with all the members of the group in order to know and understand them, and also, to secure their cooperation in dealing with any particular individual. He should make a point of winning their immediate confidence, building the attitude in the members that in him they have a genuine friend. This involves the sharing of experiences and a give-and-take relationship in which the leader is a good listener as well as a good talker. He must sincerely evaluate and appreciate the contribution each member can make.

A mistake very often made by many leaders is the belief that they must be a jack-of-all-trades and be able to function successfully in whatever capacity they may find necessary to meet the wide diversity of interests that appear constantly in their groups. While it is true that the leader should attempt to develop his own abilities and

knowledge along these lines so that he may enjoyably share the experiences of the members, he should also recognize that he can function skillfully and successfully by utilizing the abilities of persons with special talents whenever the occasion seems to warrant. Thus, a leader whose knowledge and ability in crafts is only mediocre should not hesitate to bring in some specialist in this field to assist him if the groups show a strong desire to engage in this activity and if it seems advisable to direct their interests into these channels. Leaders cannot possibly know everything and they should not attempt to give the members the impression that they do. They are certain to be discovered and only harm will result to the development of the boys. The leader is there to help bring about growth in the fullest sense of the term.

Above all, the leader should work closely with the Boys' Work Director of the settlement, who is ready and willing to be of every assistance possible.

Group work is a task calling for the best that a leader can offer in intelligence, self-mastery and control, resourcefulness, imagination, application, and experience. It is not a task to be taken lightly without a full understanding of the responsibilities involved. Group work requires concentrated, intensive effort, and considerable time. Its attraction is the thrill of real constructive achievement - its reward is social well-being and human happiness.

Factors influencing the group process

Introduction

This brief paper addresses seven of the more important factors that affect the performance of an individual :

Goal Clarity

People must have in mind a clear picture of any end or goal they are to achieve. If this picture does not exist, they cannot tell if they are making progress or when they have completed the task or assignment, let alone if it has been completed properly (see feedback below). "Keep the end in view" has been sage advice for almost two thousand years. The time a manager spends in developing, communicating and clarifying the goals or ends to be achieved is time well spent.

Repertoire

To achieve a goal, the people working toward it must possess a suitable, flexible repertoire. They must be able to engage in whatever behaviors are necessary to obtain that goal – despite changing circumstances and environmental disturbances. In some cases, this will involve carrying out a routine that has been specified in advance by someone else. In other cases, it will require figuring out — on the spot — an appropriate course of action. In many situations, the end to be achieved will remain constant but the conditions under which it is to be attained will vary.

Knowledge of Structures

Figuring out what to do in a particular situation requires knowledge of the structure of that situation. People must understand the elements that make up the situation, how those elements are connected to one another and the relationships that exist between and among these elements. This knowledge of the structure of the situation allows people to say how the actions they take will lead to the result they seek. It also allows them to say, for a given result, the actions that will lead to it. Absent this knowledge, action is little more than a shot in the dark and achieving desired results depends mainly on luck or intuition.

Feedback

Without information about actual conditions in relation to intended goals or results, no one can perform to standard. Such information is known as “feedback.” It informs progress, enables corrections and, eventually, signals attainment of the objective.

For most “hard” tasks (i.e., tasks involving tangible products or other immediate and readily measured effects of one’s actions), feedback is generally available without much effort on anyone’s part. We are aware of our actions and their effects.

But, for “soft” tasks (i.e., tasks where the effects of our actions are not tangible, immediate nor readily measured), the feedback loop is essentially open. This is especially true when the main effects of a person’s actions are the reactions of other people.

Mental Models

Absent feedback, people have no choice except to act in ways that are consistent with internally held views or mental models of what is appropriate or what should work instead of externally based information about what is and isn’t actually working.

For this reason, it is worthwhile spending time working with people to identify the mental models they currently use in situations where feedback isn’t readily available. In some cases, this will surface mental models that are inappropriate or inadequate. In other cases, it might surface mental models that are superior to those held by most people.

Motivation

It is one thing to be capable of doing something; it is something else altogether to want to do it. Setting aside the issue of coercion, people generally want to do things for two basic reasons: (1) it serves some purpose of their own or (2) it serves someone else’s purpose and they’ve accepted something in return for doing whatever it is that someone else wants done. Self-satisfaction and incentives; these are the two great motivators.

Environment

Even if the first six factors are present, performance might not occur if the environmental conditions are so unsuitable as to present insurmountable barriers to performance. Most of us can successfully drive our cars on windy days but none of us can drive through a tornado. In less dramatic terms, missing tools and equipment, competing priorities, a repressive climate and other factors can interfere with our ability to perform as expected, regardless of our motives or our repertoire, the presence or absence of feedback and the quality of the mental models that guide our thinking and actions. In short, the task environment must support the desired

performance; at the very least, it must be manageable.

Recapitulation

The seven factors that make performance possible are these:

1. a clear picture of the ends to be attained,
2. a suitable repertoire,
3. knowledge of the structure of the situation,
4. a functioning feedback loop,
5. sound mental models,
6. adequate motivation and
7. a supportive or manageable task environment.

Irvin D. Yalom, in his article about “The theory and practice of group psychotherapy” says that the following elements influences the group process:

- Hope
- Universality of experiences
- Information, understanding of process
- Altruism
- Socialization skills development
- Imitational behavior
- Interpersonal learning
- Cohesion

– Hope

Belief in group success, also from leader’s side. Positive mood, positive examples.

– Universality of experiences

People tend to have a feeling of self-originality (being unique), especially due to the fact that social exclusion is growing in our countries. Most people in ordinary life don’t use a chance to get to know about similar feelings and emotions of others, to confide in others, be understood and accepted.

This group feeling can be described with sentences as:

“Welcome to the human kind”

“We are all in the same boat”

“Misfortune loves company”

Experiment of “the most awful secret” – people were asked to write down most awful secret they know about themselves and mostly the results were common:

6. Deep belief that somewhere in the very base of his personality he is inadequate, feeling that he doesn’t understand something important about his life, that he is just sliding on the surface of life, not living, but skillfully pretending to live.
7. Feeling of interpersonal alienation. In spite of outward appearance, in reality person doesn’t love others and doesn’t care about them, and, maybe, is even not able to love others.
8. Different variations on sexual topics.

That's why most of people are suffering of inferiority complex and inability to communicate with other people.

3. Information, understanding of process

Uncertainty always has been unpleasant for human being, for centuries we strive for putting Universe into order, trying to explain it from religious or scientific side.

To explain the phenomena is the first step on the way to manage it.

Group needs to understand what is going on with them.

9. Altruism

Story of rabbi and God:

"I will show you hell", said God and took rabbi into a room full of exhausted, hungry and desperate people that were standing around big round table. In the center of table there was a big pot with meat, that big that it would be enough of it to feed all those hungry people in the room. Meat was exhaling such a good smell that mouth of rabbi filled with spittle in a moment. But none of people in the room was touching the food – each of them was holding in their hands spoon with very long handle – long enough to reach the meat pot and too long to put it into one's mouth.

Rabbi has understood that sufferings of these people are really enormous.

"And now I will show you paradise" said God and took him to another room, which was exact copy of the first one: same table, meat pot and spoons with long handles. But here there was an atmosphere of happiness, health and joy. Rabbi looked at God in confusion. "Everything is simple", said God, "Just one small skill is needed. These people have learned how to feed each other".

During the group process participants help to each other. Often they accept remarks from their colleagues better than from trainer.

"Best way to help to a person is to allow him to help you"

People need to feel needed and useful.

10. Socialization skills development

In groups people have unique possibility to receive feedback, to play a role, to experiment with behaviors.

New skills: empathy and understanding of others' feelings and ability to express this understanding in a right way.

11. Imitational behavior.

Participants are modeling their behavior (and even their thoughts) orienting themselves on aspects of behavior of other group members.

On first stages of group development people are looking for those, with whom they can identify themselves (more experienced colleagues or leaders). During the course participants are "trying on" pieces of others and then throwing them away as unnecessary.

"Finding out what we are not we make a step to understand what we are"

12. Interpersonal learning

People need people: to be born, to survive, to live, to socialize, to be satisfied. No one – not even dying, not even rejected, not even strong person can be higher than need in interpersonal relationships.

Each group has several tensions: rivalry, competition for leaders' attention, struggle for status and dominance, sexual tensions, differences in social status, education, value systems, cultures etc.

To transform all these tensions into positive learning experience:

9. Participants have to feel the group as safe place where they are supported for open expression of tensions

10. should feel responsibility and give honest feedback to provide effective testing of reality,

According to investigations best learning results bring incidents when other group member is involved (more seldom trainer) and when emotions are touched.

“Here and now” conception – power and effectiveness of a group: group has to experience each other as spontaneously and honest as possible and reflect these experiences to each other (emotions plus intellect)

11. Group as social microcosm: if group is actively avoiding talking about something important, then the conversation about any other topic, having any meaning, will also not go.

13. Cohesiveness (“we” feeling)

Attractiveness of a group for participants (being part of, comfort, appreciation by others, support, acceptance)

To be a member, to be accepted, to be approved.

Horney K “Every individual primary has a tendency for growth and self-realization. Role of a trainer is to remove obstacles that are blocking growth process”

Than more cohesive group is growing more deep and wide.

Cohesiveness \Leftrightarrow comfort. Cohesive group is able to deal with a conflict and to use it in a constructive way.

Cohesive group's participants will:

- Put more efforts to influence other members
- Be more open for influences from other members' side
- to listen to each other with more readiness and to show more mutual trust
- to feel themselves in a group more safe and free of tensions
- be more active during sessions
- be more open
- to stay for group norms and make pressure on those who are not behaving according to them
- to be less vulnerable group as a whole

Yalom believes that "it is only in a cohesive group that conflict can be tolerated and transformed into productive work."

Variables of group effectiveness

Size

Small (3-5)	Large (6+)	
Communication	better	more difficult
Field of action	wider	restricted
Decision making	quick lower quality	slower better quality
Satisfaction	more	lower
Knowledge	less available	wider pool
Unity	strong	tendency to form sub-groups with different objectives

– *Task*

Simple

Complex

– *Composition*

Homogeneous

- compatibility of needs, motivations and personalities means greater effectiveness
- cooperation and communication are favoured
- conformity can be privileged and decrease effectiveness

Mixed

- increased quality in solving
- can generate conflicting situations

– *Leadership style*

- exercises an influence on the evolution of the group

– *Group structure*

- establishes relations between individuals
- directs action towards achieving goals

By Roles

- an individual's role is the behavior that we expect of him
- an individual can have many roles within a group
- possible conflicts arise either because the individual cannot satisfy all the demands of his role or because he is faced with contradictory expectations from 2 roles at the same time

By Norms

- an individual uses a standard to set his attitudes, opinions and behavior in a group
- norms can be formal or informal, most individuals adapt quickly to the norms of a group

– *Status*

- usually this is derived from the person's formal hierarchic position
- it can also come from a person's personal quality
- persons with high status communicate and influence the group more than other individuals

Getting your group think like a genius

Wouldn't it be great to have an Edison or Einstein, or Mozart at your next meeting? If you had a genius at your meeting, do you think you might come up with better results? Let me be the first to tell you that those people won't be at your next meeting. But there are some things you can do as a facilitator - some techniques and tactics that you can use with the group that will help them work better. In this article you will learn some of the strategies of geniuses (adapted from *Thinking Like a Genius*, by Michael Michalko in the May 1998 issue of *The Futurist*), and how to apply them within any group you are working with.

Geniuses look at problems in many different ways

The key to this strategy is helping a group find new perspectives. Often a group gets "locked in" on one specific solution or cause. The goal should be to slow the group down and help them look at their situation from a variety of perspectives. Once a group has an initial approach, encourage them to stop and force a new perspective - force them to reconceptualize the problem.

How To Do It

Once a group has settled in on an approach, encourage them to step out of the room. When they return, explain the concept of looking at the problem from another perspective. Ask the group to list three or more other perspectives that this situation could be viewed from. From that list, pick one for the group to reconsider the situation from. (If the group is large enough have sub groups work different perspectives.) The time spent in reviewing the situation from the new perspectives should be as rigorous as the first analysis. Once the group has completed their reanalysis, have them look at all of their results. At this point encourage them to make the best decision, given all the data they have at their disposal.

Geniuses make novel combinations

Sometimes geniuses don't come up with new ideas, but combine existing ones to make great advances.

How To Do It

Once a group has a variety of possible solutions (possibly by using some of the steps above), have them try to combine them, rather than just pick one. Spur them on with questions like:

- How could you do both A and B?
- How could you gain the benefits of both A and D, while minimizing the risks?

Geniuses force relationships

This may be the genius' biggest strategy of all, and one you can employ easily with groups.

How To Do It

Always have a few (or a lot) of disparate items on a list. At any time that a group is stuck, ask them to force a relationship between their problem to one of the items on your list. (You could also have pictures of the items, which might spur their creativity even further.) These relationships may be forced, and this may be where the

breakthrough comes. Note: Some groups or individuals will scoff at this idea as silly. Acknowledge this, but encourage them to try anyway. They may be very pleasantly surprised. Remember too, that the quality comes with quantity rule applies here. You may need to try more than one or two forced relationships before real progress is made.

Geniuses make their thought visible

This strategy is often put to use in group meetings, but only at the lowest level. Recording a group's work on a flipchart, or whiteboard, is a small step in this direction, but to take this to the next level (to the genius level!), you need to get more visual.

How To Do It

Have members of a group draw their solutions to a problem, or draw the results of implementing their solution. If you want to look at a variety of solutions at once, have sub groups do this for different scenarios. Focus the group(s) on making it visual and inclusive of their whole idea. The goal is to communicate, not wow the group with artistic abilities. Once the groups have completed their drawings, review all of them to see if new ideas, or combinations of ideas are found.

Geniuses think in opposites

Often it is very revealing to examine the opposite of your situation, or ask the opposite question.

How To Do It

Rather than having the group ask the direct question on their task, have them ask the opposite. For example, if the question is, "How do we attract new Customers?", more new ideas and insights might come from asking, "How could we drive all of our Customers away?" With the answers to the opposite question, tactics and plans for avoiding this outcome can be developed.

Geniuses think metaphorically

Aristotle believed that metaphors were a sign of genius. If they were good enough for Aristotle, they should be good enough for us!

How To Do It

Have the group compare their situation to anything else (another place for your list mentioned above). The more metaphors (or analogies) the group can draw between their situation and these random items the better. The insights will flow from the discussion of these connections. You can also ask the group to tell you what they might compare the situation to, which is another method of initiating the metaphors.

Geniuses prepare themselves for chance

In a group situation, this most likely fits after a solution has been implemented. This "preparation for chance" will be enhanced by the willingness to do two things: admit mistakes, and spend time reviewing the results of the decision or solution.

How To Do It

After a decision is made, encourage the group to schedule time to review the results of the decision. Time might also be scheduled to discuss the process the group used for coming to the decision. By reflecting on the work and the results, often new ideas and improvements can be found. The decision to take this time is seldom the natural inclination of a group. Group dynamics are such that when the result or decision is

made, the group is ready to "cross that item off the list", and move on. As a facilitator you can provide significant value by encouraging this review process.

Geniuses produce

One hallmark of geniuses is that they produced large quantities of work. The key in groups is this phrase: "The more ideas (or possible solutions) we produce, the more likely we are to produce a great idea." Geniuses not only produced large quantities of ideas from which their breakthroughs came, but they also acted on those ideas. So Geniuses not only produce ideas, they produce action.

How to Do It

When the groups seems to have hit a lull in a brainstorming session, push them on to think of more ideas (perhaps combining this thought with other strategies on this list). Remind them that there is value in quantity and that often the best ideas come after the easy ones are already out. Challenge them to add more to the list. Another way to use this strategy is to force the group to come up with a challenging goal of a number of ideas before beginning the brainstorming session. As the facilitator you need to make sure that the number is sufficiently large, to make sure it will be a challenge.

T-groups facilitation

In the summer of 1946 Kurt Lewin along with colleagues and associates from the Research Center for Group Dynamics (Ronald Lippitt, Leland Bradford and Kenneth Benne became involved in leadership and group dynamics training for the Connecticut State Interracial Commission. They designed and implemented a two-week programme that looked to encourage group discussion and decision-making, and where participants (including staff) could treat each other as peers. Research was woven into the event (as might be expected given Lewin's concern for the generation of data and theory). The trainers and researchers collected detailed observations and recordings of group activities (and worked on these during the event). Initially these meetings were just for the staff, but some of the other participants also wanted to be involved.

At the start of one of the early evening observers' sessions, three of the participants asked to be present. Much to the chagrin of the staff, Lewin agreed to this unorthodox request. As the observers reported to the group, one of the participants - a woman - disagreed with the observer on the interpretation of her behaviour that day. One other participant agreed with her assertion and a lively discussion ensued about behaviours and their interpretations. Word of the session spread, and by the next night, more than half of the sixty participants were attending the feedback sessions which, indeed became the focus of the conference. Near the conference's end, the vast majority of participants were attending these sessions, which lasted well into the night. (NTL Institute)

Lippitt (1949) has described how Lewin responded to this and joined with participants in ‘active dialogue about differences of interpretation and observation of the events by those who had participated in them’. A significant innovation in training practice was established. As Kolb (1984: 10) has commented:

Thus the discovery was made that learning is best facilitated in an environment where there is dialectic tension and conflict between immediate, concrete experience and analytic detachment. By bringing together the immediate experiences of the trainees and the conceptual models of the staff in an open atmosphere where inputs from each perspective could challenge and stimulate the other, a learning environment occurred with remarkable vitality and creativity.

It was this experience that led to the establishment of the first National Training Laboratory in Group Development (held at Gould Academy in Bethel, Maine in the summer of 1947). By this time Lewin was dead, but his thinking and practice was very much a part of what happened. This is how Reid (1981: 153) describes what happened:

A central feature of the laboratory was “basic skills training,” in which an observer reported on group processes at set intervals. The skills to be achieved were intended to help an individual function in the role of “change agent”. A change agent was thought to be instrumental in facilitating communication and useful feedback among participants. He was also to be a paragon who was aware of the need for change, could diagnose the problems involved, and could plan for change, implement the plans, and evaluate the results. To become an effective change agent, an understanding of the dynamics of groups was believed necessary.

What we see here is the basic shape of T-group theory and the so-called ‘laboratory method’. Initially the small discussion groups were known as ‘basic skill training groups’ but by 1949 they had been shortened to T-group. In 1950 a sponsoring organization, the National Training Laboratories (NTL) was set up, and the scene was set for a major expansion of the work (reaching its heyday in the 1960s) and the evolution of the encounter group (Yalom 1995: 488).

The approach was not without its critics – in part because of what was perceived as its Gestalt base. In part, because it was seen by some as lacking substance. Reid (1981: 154) reports that Grace Coyle, who had spent time at Bethel, felt that many of the training groups handled group situations badly; and that the leaders were starting to believe that they had ‘discovered everything there was to know about group relations and were unaware of the inquiry and work of others’. There may have been some element of this – but there was also innovation here. Four elements of the T-group are particularly noteworthy here according to Yalom (1995: 488-9) (and they owe a great deal to Lewin’s influence):

Feedback. Lewin had borrowed the term from electrical engineering and applied it to the behavioural sciences. Here it was broadly used to describe the adjustment of a process informed by information about its results or effects. An important element here is the difference between the desired and actual result. There was a concern that organizations, groups and relationships generally suffered from a lack of accurate

information about what was happening around their performance. Feedback became a key ingredient of T-groups and was found to 'be most effective when it stemmed from here-and-now observations, when it followed the generating event as closely as possible, and when the recipient checked with other group members to establish its validity and reduce perceptual distortion' (Yalom 1995: 489).

Unfreezing. This was taken directly from Kurt Lewin's change theory. It describes the process of disconfirming a person's former belief system. 'Motivation for change must be generated before change can occur. One must be helped to re-examine many cherished assumptions about oneself and one's relations to others' (op. cit.). Part of the process of the group, then, had to address this. Trainers sought to create an environment in which values and beliefs could be challenged.

Participant observation. 'Members had to participate emotionally in the group as well as observe themselves and the group objectively' (op. cit.). Connecting concrete (emotional) experience and analytical detachment is not an easy task, and is liable to be resisted by many participants, but it was seen as a essential if people were to learn and develop.

Cognitive aids. This particular aspect was drawn from developments in psychoeducational and cognitive-behavioural group therapy. It entailed the provision of models or organizing ideas through the medium brief lectures and handouts (and later things like film clips or video). Perhaps the best known of these was the Johari Window (named after, and developed by, Joe Luft and Harry Ingram). Yalom (1995: 490) comments, 'The use of such cognitive aids, lectures, reading assignments, and theory sessions demonstrates that the basic allegiance of the T-group was to the classroom rather than the consulting room. The participants were considered students; the task of the T-group was to facilitate learning for its members'.

Group Think

Groupthink occurs when a homogenous highly cohesive group is so concerned with maintaining unanimity that they fail to evaluate all their alternatives and options. Groupthink members see themselves as part of an in-group working against an outgroup opposed to their goals. Groups engaged in groupthink can end up making faulty decisions."A mode of thinking that people engage in when they are deeply involved in a cohesive in-group, when the members' strivings for unanimity override their motivation to realistically appraise alternative courses of action."

"The more amiability and esprit de corps among members of a policy- making in-group, the greater is the danger that independent critical thinking will be replaced by groupthink, which is likely to result in irrational and dehumanizing actions directed against out-groups." You can tell if a group suffers from groupthink if it exhibits these eight symptoms

- 1) Appears to have an illusion of invulnerability - group members believe that they cannot fail.
 - 2) Belief in the rightness of their cause .
 - 3) The collectively rationalise the decisions they make creating an unquestioning atmosphere.
 - 4) Out groups are stereotyped and outsiders disregarded.
 - 5) Self-censorship which eliminates any expression of disagreement.
 - 6) Illusion of unanimity from a lack of alternative arguments.
 - 7) Direct pressure is put on on anyone who disagrees
 - 8) Members (self appointed) take on themselves role to protect a leader by keeping information from the leader. Groupthink can lead to a number of dysfunctional group behaviours / processes - they can fail to adequately look at alternatives or assess the risks associated with decisions, as well as select and use only information that supports their position etc. The consequences are fairly predictable! It has its detractors who will say it is too vague, question the theoretical basis for linking the eight "symptoms" and such like. Is often used when looking at groups with overt political agenda and the 'Bay of Pigs' is cited as a good example as well as the Watergate incidents. Janis, I. (1972). Victims of Groupthink.
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Democracy and groups

Gordon W. Allport, in his introduction to *Resolving Social Conflicts* (Lewin 1948: xi) argues that there is striking kinship between the work of Kurt Lewin and that of John Dewey.

Both agree that democracy must be learned anew in each generation, and that it is a far more difficult form of social structure to attain and to maintain than is autocracy. Both see the intimate dependence of democracy upon social science. Without knowledge of, and obedience to, the laws of human nature in group settings, democracy cannot succeed. And without freedom for research and theory as provided only in a democratic environment, social science will surely fail. Dewey, we might say, is the outstanding philosophical exponent of democracy, Lewin is its outstanding psychological exponent. More clearly than anyone else has he shown us in concrete, operational terms what it means to be a democratic leader, and to create democratic group structure.

One of the most interesting pieces of work in which Lewin was involved concerned the exploration of different styles or types of leadership on group structure and member behaviour. This entailed a collaboration with Ronald Lippitt, among others (Lewin et. al 1939, also written up in Lewin 1948: 71-83). They looked to three classic group leadership models - democratic, autocratic and laissez-faire – and concluded that there was more originality, group-mindedness and friendliness in democratic groups. In contrast, there was more aggression, hostility, scapegoating and

discontent in laissez-faire and autocratic groups (Reid 1981: 115). Lewin concludes that the difference in behaviour in autocratic, democratic and laissez-faire situations is not, on the whole, a result of individual differences. Reflecting on the group experiments conducted with children he had the following to say:

There have been few experiences for me as impressive as seeing the expression in children's faces change during the first day of autocracy. The friendly, open, and co-operative group, full of life, became within a short half-hour a rather apathetic looking gathering without initiative. The change from autocracy to democracy seemed to take somewhat more time than from democracy to autocracy. Autocracy is imposed upon the individual. Democracy he has to learn. (Lewin 1948: 82)

This presentation of democratic of leadership in groups became deeply influential. Unfortunately, as Gastil (1994) notes, Lewin and his colleagues never developed their definition beyond this rough sketch. This has left them open to the charge that their vision of democratic leadership contains within it some worrying themes. In particular Kariel (1956, discussed by Gastil 1994) argued that the notion is rather manipulative and élistist. What is more there has also been some suggestion that Mao's mass-line leadership in China, 'used a model like Lewin's to mask coercion under the guise of participative group processes' (discussed by Gastil 1994). Such a possibility would have been disturbing to Lewin, whose commitments and intentions were democratic. He argued that democracy could not be imposed on people, that it had to be learnt by a process of voluntary and responsible participation (1948: 39). However, the problem becomes clearer when he discusses the nature of democratic leadership at moments of transition. Change needed to be facilitated and guided.

To instigate changes toward democracy a situation has to be created for a certain period where the leader is sufficiently in control to rule out influences he does not want and to manipulate the situation to a sufficient degree. The goal of the democratic leader in this transition period will have to be the same as any good teacher, namely to make himself superfluous, to be replaced by indigenous leaders from the group. (Lewin 1948: 39)

Tips for group training

Excessive intervention

When serious conflict emerges in any group, facilitators or leaders are often tempted to step in. While this is an understandable desire, it will prevent the group from working through this difficult stage and will contribute to a pattern of dependence. The pattern of calling in the authority figure who created the group to work out or mediate the conflict will inhibit group development and undermine the committee members' sense of personal responsibility for the group.ii

Unclear rules

The group rules and boundaries become even more important in the adolescent or storming stage of development. As personal disagreements emerge, the rules will be challenged. Just as adolescent people push the boundaries, so will the individual group members and the group itself. At this point, the internal ground rules need to be clear and the committee's authority (and its limits) must also be carefully defined and maintained.

Unknown process

Many groups struggle in stage 2 to work out how they will make decisions and move forward. Often some struggles can be eased if the committee understands and accepts a common decision making and group process model. For example: Will the group make decisions based on a majority vote, or is broader consensus required? When ESOP Committees are properly trained and understand a process for defining their objectives, generating ideas, discussing alternatives and reaching a common decision, they are more likely to develop a commonly-accepted process. The content of the decision making process is less important than that it be accepted by all members.

Splinters and schisms

When stage 2 is cut short either by excessive intervention, or because serious conflict has caused members to withdraw, individuals and groups may "check out" and refuse to productively participate in the committee. The danger here is two fold: first, unless the individual is brought back into the group, it can not move beyond the adolescent stage; second, splinter groups and schisms may appear. When these groups emerge they are extremely capable of undermining the committee's effectiveness. After all, the individuals chosen for the ESOP Committee carry credibility and informal (or formal) authority with their peers. If they are not fully "on board" or are actively undermining the efforts of the committee, at least partial failure is inevitable.

Suggestions

Bear with it! Stage 2 is often the most difficult for people, groups in general, and ESOP committees specifically. Again, it is critical to keep everyone involved, and active, without preventing or avoiding disagreements that must be worked out. The facilitator needs to be aware of two important points in stage 2: first, the difficulty of this stage is necessary for the group to work through; second, the capacity for conflict will differ in each group member. Therefore, without dampening the disagreement, it is important to keep conflict to a level at which everyone (or nearly everyone) feels only a little uncomfortable. While group members can be "brought back in" if they withdraw at this point, on some level the group will regress when this happens and have to go through the adolescent stage again. Training in group development can help committee members understand what is happening and realize that the conflict is necessary and natural - not a sign that the group is a failure.

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How to cite this piece: Kingman, J. M. and Sidman, S. (1935) 'Some principles of group work' in A Manual of Settlement Boys' Work, National Federation of Settlements. Available in the informal education archives:

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