

Training and Development

Theme

- To understand the conceptual framework of training and development with a veiw to take it in right perspective.
- To understand how training and development needs can be assessed so that efforts are put on developing relevant competencies.
- To identify the methods of training and development so that only relevant methods are applied.
- To understand how training and development programmes are organised so that these programmes are made effective.
- To understand the mechanism of evaluating training and development effectiveness to assess whether training and development investment gives commensurate return.

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[&]quot;You cannot manage third generation strategies with second generation organisations and first generation managers."

Sumantra Ghoshal, ex-professor, strategic leadership

The efficiency and effectiveness of an organisation depends on how capable The efficiency and effectiveness of an organisation of achieving organisation personnel are and how effectively they are utilised for achieving organisation personnel are and how effectively they are utilised for achieving organisation of the personnel are and how effectively they are utilised for achieving organisation. personnel are and how effectively they are defined on how much skills he has developed objectives. Capability of a person depends on how much skills he has developed objectives. Capability of a person depends of file.

Skill development involves learning which is a sort of enduring change in Skill development involves learning which is behaviour. This learning emerges out of one's experience, education, training behaviour. This learning emerges out of one's experience, education, training behaviour. This learning emerges out of one of the standing and development. Since an organisation is responsible, to a great extent, for and development. Since an organisation is reployees, our focus is on these concepts in this chapter.

Concept of Training and Development

There are three terms which are used in the context of learning—education, training and development. The term education is used in a broader sense involving the development of an individual socially, mentally, and physically, Often confusion arises in using the terms training and development. Therefore, understanding of the nature of training and development is important.

Training

Training is concerned with imparting and developing specific skills for a particular purpose. For example, Flippo has defined training as "the act of increasing the skills of an employee for doing a particular job." Thus, training is a process of learning a sequence of programmed behaviour. This behaviour, being programmed, is relevant to a specific phenomenon, that is, a job.

In earlier practice, training programmes focussed more on preparation for improved performance in a particular job. Most of the trainees used to be from operative levels like mechanics, machine operators and other kinds of skilled workers. When the problems of supervision increased, the steps were taken to train supervisors for better supervision, however, the emphasis was more on mechanical aspects. Gradually, the problems increased in other areas like human relations besides the technical aspects of the job. Similar problems were also experienced in management group too, that is, how managers can change their approach and attitude in order to face new challenges. This required the total change in utilising the concept of training beyond operative level to supervisory and management groups. However, the utilisation of training methods for managers did not have the same objective, that is, providing training to managers to perform a specific job but it extended to multi-skill training so that managers may be able to handle a variety of jobs in the organisation People in management group have to perform more varied jobs because of their vertical and horizontal movement in the organisation. Therefore, managers should be trained and developed to handle a variety of jobs. Thus, the old concept of training does not suit the development of managerial personnel and it was replaced by executive development or management development or simply development without any prefix.

Edwin B. Flippo, Personnel Management, New York: McGraw-Hill, 1984, p. 192.

pevelopment

The term development refers broadly to the nature and direction of change induced in employees, particularly managerial personnel, through the process of training and educative process. National Industrial Conference Board has defined development as follows:

"Management development is all those activities and programmes when recognised and controlled, have substantial influence in changing the capacity of the individual to perform his assignment better and in doing so are likely to increase his potential for future assignments."²

Thus, management development is not merely a training or a combination of various training programmes, though some kind of training is necessary; it is the overall development of the competency of managerial personnel in the light of the present requirement as well as the future requirement. For example, S.B. Budhiraja, former Managing Director of Indian Oil Corporation, has viewed that:

"Any activity designed to improve the performance of existing managers and to provide for a planned growth of managers to meet future organisational requirements is management development."

He has further emphasised that development is highly individual. There are many approaches to management development. Different approaches work better with different types of managers. Based on the above concepts, we may derive that management development is based on following assumptions:

- Management development is a continuous process as there is no time limit for learning to occur. It is not one-shot programme but continues throughout the career of a manager. Though there may be certain one-shot training programmes, these are not the only elements for management development; these are only one type of inputs in management development.
- 2. Management development, or for that matter any kind of learning, is based on the assumption that there, always, exists a gap between an individual's performance and his potential for the performance. The untapped potential can be translated into actual performance through management development process. Thus, what is required in the process is to inculcate complementary skills in the individual to utilise his full potential.
- 3. Management development seldom takes place in completely peaceful and relaxed atmosphere; development involves stresses and strains. Often, development, itself, becomes a challenging job. It may be accompanied by errors and failures. However, these errors and failures, perhaps, provide more challenge to a motivated manager for further development.

²National Industrial Conference Board, *The Management Record*, New York: NICB, 1971. ³S.B. Budhiraja, "Superior-Subordinate Axis", *Industrial Times*, August 29,1977, p. 8.

- 4. Management development requires clear setting of goals, that is, what one wants to achieve through development; how this can be achieved and the time frame for completing the various stages of development, Setting clear goals helps in providing the direction for development and adopting relevant strategies for that.
- Management development requires conducive environment which should be encouraging and stimulating with continuous feedback about the degree of development. The environment should be such that learned behaviour is appropriately applied to achieve the desired performance.

Training and Development : A Comparison

Training and development differ from each other in terms of their objectives and consequently in terms of their contents. Steinmetz has differentiated the two concepts as follows :

"Training is a short-term process utilising a systematic and organised procedure by which non-managerial personnel learn technical knowledge and skills for a definite purpose. Development is a long-term educational process utilising a systematic and organised procedure by which managerial personnel learn conceptual and theoretical knowledge for general purpose."4

Campbell has differentiated the two terms as follows :

"Training courses are typically designed for a short-term, stated set purpose such as the operation of some pieces of machinery, while development involves a broader education for long-term purposes,"5

Based on these descriptions, the difference between training and development can be made in term of four Ws: Who is learning? What is he learning? Why does such learning take place? When does learning take place as shown in Table 14.1.

Table 14.1: Training and Development: A Comparison

· in dimension	Training	Development
Learning dimension	Non-managerial personnel	Managerial personnel
Who?	Technical and mechanical	Conceptual ideas
What?	For specific job	For a variety of jobs
Why?		Long-term
When?	Short-term	Dolig-term

Training and development may be seen in the context of a continuum in which training content proceeds in continuity rather than in discrete form because an individual proceeds in his job hierarchy and what he has learned

⁴Lawrence L. Steinmetz, "Age: Unrecognised Enigma of Executive Development", Management of Personnel Quarterly, Vol. VIII, 1969.

⁵John P. Campbell. "Personnel Training and Development", Annual Review of Psychology, 1971.

at a particular job is transferred to another job because of transfer of learning. The transferability of this learning is more when two jobs have some kind of relationship in terms of use of skills, for example, the job of a semi-skilled worker and highly-skilled worker in the same job hierarchy. Training and development continuum has been presented in Figure 14.1.

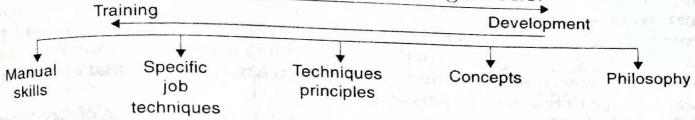


FIGURE 14.1: Training and development continuum

Training-development continuum has manual training at the one end and philosophy at the other end. The extreme left hand denotes the manual training which is given to operatives for performing specific jobs. Much of this training is job-oriented rather than career-oriented. As we go up in the hierarchy of the organisation, we find more emphasis on other points of the continuum. Managerial personnel have greater needs for conceptual and human relations skills as compared to job-related skills. Therefore, their need for training does not remain confined to the development of skills needed for specific jobs. They require skills and competence for future managerial jobs besides their present jobs. Thus, distinction between training and development is more on account of contents rather than on account of process involved.

ROLE OF TRAINING AND DEVELOPMENT

No organisation has a choice of whether to train its employees or not. the only choice is that of methods. The primary concern of an organisation is its viability, and hence its efficiency. There is continuous environmental pressure for efficiency, and if the organisation does not respond to this pressure, it may find itself rapidly losing whatever share of market it has. Training imparts skills and knowledge to employees in order that they contribute to the organisation's efficiency and be able to cope up with the pressures of changing environment. The viability of an organisation depends to a considerable extent on the skills of different employees, specially that of managerial cadre, to relate the organisation with its environment.

Bass has identified three factors which necessitate continuous training in an organisation. These factors are technological advances, organisational complexity and human relations.⁶ All these factors are related to each other. For example, technological advances tend to increase the size of the organisation which increases its complexity. Similarly technological advances create human problems also. Thus, training can play the following roles in an organisation:

B.M. Bass and J.A. Vaughan, *Training in Industry: The Management of Learning*, London: Tavistock Publications, 1989.

- 1. Increase in Efficiency. Training plays active role in increasing efficiency of employees in an organisation. Training increases skills for doing a job in better way. Though an employee can learn many things while he is put on a job, he can do much better if he learns how to do the job. This becomes more important specially in the context of changing technology because the old method of working may not be relevant. In such a case, training is required even to maintain minimum level of output. For example, working on automatic, machine requires skills different than that required to handle manually-operated machines. Raw employees cannot handle such a machine. Similar changes are taking place in managerial jobs also.
- 2. Increase in Morale of Employees. Training increases morale of employees. Morale is a mental condition of an individual or group which determines the willingness to cooperate. High morale is evidenced by employee enthusiasm, voluntary conformation with regulations and willingness to cooperate with others to achieve organisational objectives. Training increases employee morale by relating their skills with their job requirements. Possession of skills necessary to perform a job well often tends to meet such human needs as security and ego satisfaction. Trained employees can see the jobs in more meaningful way because they are able to relate their skills with jobs.
- **3. Better Human Relations.** Training attempts to increase the quality of human relations in an organisation. Growing complexity of organisations has led to various human problems like alienation, inter-personal and inter-group problems. Many of these problems can be overcome by suitable human relations training. Many techniques have been developed through which people can be trained and developed to tackle problems of social and psychological nature.
- **4. Reduced Supervision.** Trained employees require less supervision. They require more autonomy and freedom. Such autonomy and freedom can be given if the employees are trained properly to handle their jobs without the help of supervision. With reduced supervision, a manager can increase his span of management. This may result into lesser number of intermediate levels in the organisation which can save much cost to the organisation.
- 5. Increased Organisational Viability and Flexibility. Trained people are necessary to maintain organisational viability and flexibility. Viability relates to survival of the organisation during bad days and flexibility relates to sustain adjustments with the existing personnel. Such adjustment is possible if the organisation has trained people who can occupy the positions vacated by key personnel. The organisation, which does not prepare a second line of personnel in the absence of such key personnel for whatever the reason. In fact, there is no greater organisational asset than trained and motivated personnel, because these people can turn the other assets into productive whole.

Planning Training and Development Activities

Training and development comprises various activities spread into four stages as shown in Figure 14.2:

FIGURE 14.2: Model for planning training and development activities.

According to model for planning training and development activities, an organisation has to go through the following four stages:

- Assessing training and development needs and defining training and development objectives in the light of these-assessment stage.
- Identifying training and development methods that may fulfil the above needs and objectives-methodology stage.
- Organising training and development programmes that incorporate the above methods—organising stage.
- 4. Evaluating the effectiveness of training and development programmes in the light of T & D objectives—evaluation stage.

In each of the above stages, various critical issues are involved which must be addressed to effectively to make the training and development system effective.

Assessing Training and Development Needs

Need for training and development arises to maintain the match between employees' capability and their job requirements in terms of knowledge, skills, and attitudes. Knowledge refers to the possession of information, facts and techniques of a particular field. Skills refer to the proficiency required to use the knowledge to do a work. Attitudes refer to the persistent tendency to feel and behave in a favourable or unfavourable way towards some persons, objects and ideas. The gap in match between employee characteristics and job requirements, either existing presently or likely to exist in future, indicates need for training. In the changing business environment, job requirements go on changing. Similarly, employees move upward in organisational hierarchy. This phenomenon also results into mismatch between employees and job requirements. Therefore, identification of training and development needs arises on continuous basis.

In the light of the above, the key issues at assessing training and development needs are as follows:

1. Are all the gaps between employees and job requirements are to be filled through training and development programmes? It may be mentioned that training and development is a costly affair, and it should not be viewed as a cure-all for what ails the organisation.

2. Should training and development needs assessment cover all employees at all levels or should it be restricted to few groups of employees? 3. Should training and development needs assessment take only present

requirements or future requirements too?

4. What model of training and development needs assessment be applied? 5. From where and how relevant information will be collected?

6. Who will be responsible for collecting information, analysing it, and reporting its results?

MODEL FOR ASSESSING TRAINING AND DEVELOPMENT NEEDS

McGhee and Thayer have presented a model for identifying training and development needs which involves organisational analysis, task analysis and man analysis.7

Organisation Analysis. Organisation analysis is the first factor for identifying training needs. It is a systematic effort to understand where training effort needs to be emphasised in the organisation. It involves a detailed analysis of the organisation structure, objectives, human resources, and future plans. An indepth analysis of these factors would facilitate an understanding of deficiencies that need to be rectified. However, since training cannot overcome all these deficiencies, other inputs can also be used in conjunction with training inputs. The starting point in organisation analysis is the identification of its long-term objectives and defining its operational objectives. These operational objectives will give idea about the type of activities to be undertaken by the organisation. Based on these, organisation structure and consequently manpower planning can be prepared which will give the idea about the type of people required. Thus, managers can anticipate if there are any training inputs that can help in achieving organisational objectives. For example, organisation structure has to be realigned keeping in view the organisational objectives, growth and diversification, or the possibility of need for greater decentralisation, or induction of new employees and redefined jobs. All these will have implications on each individual job-role in the organisation necessitating the training of employees.

Task Analysis. Task analysis entails a detailed examination of job, its various operations and the conditions under which it has to be performed. As discussed earlier, job analysis will provide job description and job specification. The organisation will be able to know the kind of jobs that are to be performed and the type of people that are required to perform these jobs. In task analysis, following guidelines may be adopted:

- 1. List the duties and responsibilities of the task under consideration using job description as a guide.
- 2. List the standards of job performance.
- Compare actual performance against standards.
- If there is gap between the two, identify the parts of the job which are giving troubles in effective job performance.
- Define training needed to overcome those troubles.

William McGhee and Paul W. Thayer, Training in Business and Industry, New York: John Wiley, 1991 (ed.).

Man Analysis. The focus of man analysis is on the individual employee, his abilities, his skills, and the inputs required for job performance, or individual growth and development in terms of career planning. Man analysis helps to identify whether the individual employee requires training and, if so, what kind of training. Clues to training needs can come from an analysis of individual's or a group's typical behaviour. Major sources of information for man analysis may be: observation at the workplace, interviews with his superior and peers, personal records, production records, various tests, etc. These sources will provide clue about the difference between the existing skills and attitudes of employee and that he should possess. Thus, the difference between these two sets can be overcome through training.

Model given by McGhee and Thayer is internally focused and also based on reactive approach. Therefore, assessment of training and development needs of organisational personnel, particularly at managerial levels, is not very effective in the fast-changing environment.

PARAMETERS TO TRAINING AND DEVELOPMENT

Parameters to training and development needs assessment approach take into account what is happening in the world and what skills are required by different groups of employees to create and sustain competitive advantage. While skill parameters can be prescribed more easily for lower-level employees who are trained for specific jobs like operatives and supervisors, prescribing of skill parameters for managerial personnel is more difficult as they need training and development for developing their careers and not just for performing a particular job. For example, operatives need training for handling equipment, maintaining product/service quality, safety, etc.; supervisors need training to develop skills for operational planning, communication, supervision, evaluation and appraisal of operatives, and knowledge about technical aspects of the job, organisational policies and procedures relevant to managing operatives, and some legal provisions regarding managing operatives' working at the workplace. As against this, managerial skills should be developed in the context of overall requirements of a manager.

Typical Characteristics of a Manager. A manager is quite mobile in the organisation, both vertically and horizontally. In this context, Dill *et al* have identified the following characteristics of a manager:

- 1. He moves rapidly from job to job. It takes 20 years on the average to rise from the first level manager to president, during which time, there are seven geographical moves, eleven promotional ones, and countless numbers of special project assignments. More than before, successful manager's career may include moving from one company to another.
- 2. He is flexible, realistic, and sensitive to the complexities of his work environment. Compared with less successful managers, he is both challenged by, and comfortable in, situations filled with high risk and ambiguity.

- 3. He learns his spurs by handling critical assignments, which are m_{Ore} important than routine work well done.
- 4. Very often, he has a sponsor, someone from the higher management who is impressed by his abilities, finds him useful to have around, and who looks after his interests. It helps if the sponsor is himself moving up rapidly.
- 5. He engages in 'anticipatory socialisation'; at each stage, he copies the values of those who are a step above him.
- 6. He is not necessarily an 'organisation comformist'. High-level managers tend to be more 'inner-directed' and less 'outer-directed' and less concerned with pleasing others than are those at lower levels.⁸

From the above discussion, it appears that skill requirements of a manager are much more varied and wide as compared to supervisors and operatives.

Further, all managers do not require the same set of skills but their skill requirements go on changing with their upward movement in organisational hierarchy. For example, Katz has grouped various managerial skills into three broad categories with varying amount of these skills required for a manager depending on his level in the organisation. These skills are technical, human, and conceptual and their relevance depends on the level of management as shown in Figure 14.3.

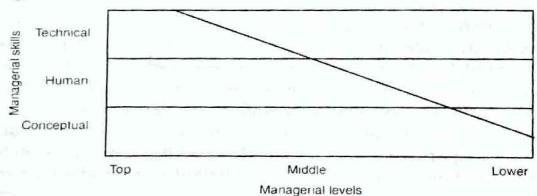


FIGURE 14.3 : Skill requirement at different managerial levels

Technical Skills. Technical skills are concerned with what is done. These pertain to knowledge and proficiency in activities involving methods, procedures, and processes. These involve working with specific tools and techniques. Such skills are learned by accountants, engineers and time and motion study men and are developed by the actual practice on the job.

Human Skills. Human skills, also referred to as human relations skills, involve to work effectively with others on a person-to-person basis and to build up

Robert L. Katz, "Skills of an Effective Administrator", Harvard Business Review, January February, 1955, pp. 33-42. Also "Retrospective Commentary", Harvard Business Review, September-October, 1974, pp. 101-102.

William R. Dill, Thomas L. Hilton, and Walter R. Reitman, "The New Manager", in George Strauss and Leonard Sayles, Personnel: The Human Problems of Management, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, 1986, p. 492.

 $_{\rm cooperative}$ group relations to accomplish organisational objectives. Such skills $_{\rm are}$ required to motivate and lead people in the organisation in such a way that $_{\rm not}$ only personal satisfaction is achieved but organisational objectives are also achieved.

Conceptual Skills. Conceptual skills, or general management skills, are concerned with why a thing is done. These skills refer to the ability to see the whole picture, to recognise significant elements in a situation, and to understand the relationship among these elements. Such skills are necessary to deal with abstractions, to set models, and to formulate plans.

Thus, technical skills deal with things, human skills deal with people, and conceptual skills deal with ideas. Since people in the organisation perform different kinds of job, they require different kinds of skill mix. Generally, as one goes higher up in the organisation, one needs to develop conceptual skills more as shown in Figure 14.2. ¹⁰ Thus, in management development process, efforts should be directed to develop relevant skills in the managerial personnel not only for their present roles but future expected roles. From this point of view, development needs of top-level management and middle-level management differ.

Skill Requirements for Top Management

In the academic world, much attention has been focused on the skills and their development in top management because this level is the major driving force in an organisation. Osmond has identified eight specific skills required for a toplevel manager. These are skills relating to balancing, integrating, setting priorities, setting and developing standards, conceptualising, leading, matching oneself with one's job, and delegating.11 In a recent survey of 90 global chief executives, conducted by Anderson Consulting, a US-based consultancy firm, shows that the chief executives require 14 skills. Accordingly, a chief executive thinks globally, anticipates opportunities, creates a shared vision, develops and empowers people, appreciates cultural diversity, builds teamwork and partnerships, embraces changes, shows technological savvy, encourages constructive challenge, ensures customer satisfaction, achieves a competitive advantage, demonstrates personal mastery, shares leadership, and lives the values. 12 In Indian context, one such study of 125 chief executives 13 has identified various relevant personal skills as analytical skills, creativity, sense of high achievement, risk-taking aptitudes, business aptitudes, leadership; job-related skills such as corporate perspective, knowledge of external environment, outside

¹⁰ Ibid.

N. Osmond, "Top Management: Tasks, Roles and Skills", in Barnard Taylor and Keith Macmillan (eds.), Top Management, London: Longman, 1973, p. 84.

¹² Quoted in *The Economic Times*, June 11, 1999, p. 2 (Supplement).

Rajendra K. Sah, *Top Managerial Effectiveness*, Surat : South Gujarat University, 1990 (Unpublished Ph. D. Dissertation).

contacts, planning processes and accuracy in work. A. Dasgupta has visualised that top management development should focus on the following: 14

- To improve thought processes and analytical ability in order to uncover and examine problems and make decisions in the best interests of the country;
 - To broaden the outlook of the executive in regard to his role, position, and responsibilities in the organisation and outside;
 - 3. To think through problems which may confront the organisation now and in future;
 - 4. To understand economic, technical, and institutional forces in order to solve business problems; and
 - 5. To acquire knowledge about the problems of human relations.

Skill Requirements for Middle Management

In middle management group, there may be managers at different levels placed between the top management and supervisors. Usually, they are concerned with a particular functional area of the organisation. There is a tendency of faster upward movement of this group of managers. Therefore, they require variety of skills which must be relevant for their entire career. While at the lower end of middle management, more of job-related skills and human skills are required; at the higher end of middle management, more creative and integrative skills are required. Dasgupta has categorised middle management into two parts so far as skill development is concerned: middle line management and middle functional executives and specialists.

Middle Line Management. The objective of middle line management development is two-fold: to develop them intellectually and to broaden the outlook and improve the ability to make decisions along with some knowledge of specialised fields. Therefore, management development should focus on the following:

- 1. To establish a clear picture of managerial functions and responsibilities:
- To bring about an awarness of the broad aspects of management problems, and acquaintance with, and appreciation of, interdepartmental relations;
- 3. To develop the ability to analyse problems and to take appropriate action:
- 4. To develop familiarity with the magagerial uses of financial accounting psychology, business law and business statistics;
- 5. To inculcate knowledge of human motivation and human relationships; and
- 6. To develop responsible leadership.

Middle Functional Executives and Specialists. Management development at this level should focus on the following:

A. Dasgupta, Business and Management in India, New Delhi: Vikas Publishing, 1974, pp. 112-113.

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- 1. To increase knowledge of business functions and operations in specialised fields of marketing, production, finance, personnel, etc.;
- 2. To increase proficiency in management techniques, e.g., work study, inventory control, operations research, quality control, etc.
- 3. To stimulate creative thinking in order to improve methods and procedures;
- 4. To understand the functions performed in the company;
- 5. To understand human relations problems; and
- 6. To develop the ability to analyse problems in one's areas of functions.

From the normative prescription of skill parameters for different levels of managers, an organisation can assess whether these skills are relevant for its managers and whether these managers possess those skills. The gap between desired skills and skills actually possessed by the managers has to be fulfilled by training and development programmes.

For collecting information to assess training and development needs, following methods are used :

- Performance and potential appraisal.
- Tests for training and development.
- Morale survey.
- Suggestion systems.
- Specifically designed questionnaires.
- Interview and personal discussion.
- Group discussion.
- 8. Recommendations of immediate and other superiors.
- Requests from likely trainees.

Generally, the HR department coordinates the activities related to collection of information, its analysis, and making recommendations about the competencies to be developed.

Exhibit 14.1 shows the competencies that are developed by Hindustan Lever Limited in its managerial personnel.

EXHIBIT 14.1: Management development inputs at Hindustan Lever Limited

Hindustan Lever Limited has highly structured management development system which aims at the following:

- 1. Helping employees satisfy their personal goals through higher level of skills and competencies.
- 2. Facilitating higher contribution at their present jobs and preparing them for the next level of responsibility.
- Developing individuals and teams to meet the total needs of the organisation.

In order to achieve the above, Hindustan Lever has adopted the strategy of developing 'differential competencies' as practised by its parent Unilever. These differential competencies are as follows:

- 1. Clarity of purpose—understands totality of a situation and sees clearly what needs to be done and how to achieve it.
- 2. Practical creativity—creates business insight which can be turned into new and realistic plans.

- 3. Objective analytical power—develops accurate, objective assessments of what needs to be done, even in complex and difficult situations.
- 4. External orientation—has a deep understanding of developments in the external world specially in society, consumers and technology and developments elsewhere in Unilever understands and assesses the needs of the customers inside as well as outside Unilever
- 5. Entrepreneurial drive—is constantly energised to improve business results in both the short term and long term; takes initiatives often involving calculated risks and has the capacity and resilience to ensure achievement.

6. Leadership of teams—inspires teams to support business direction, develops team capability and respects cultural differences.

7. Leadership of individuals—inspires subordinates, sets high standards of performance. holds subordinates accountable for achieving them, builds skills and capabilities of subordinates.

8. Adaptive influential skills—successfully influences without hierarchical power and maintains positive relationships with colleagues.

9. Self-confident integrity—stands to convictions and values and takes difficult decisions.

10. Team commitment—works cooperatively as a member of a team and is committed to the overall team objectives rather than own interests.

11. Learning from experience—actively learns from own failures and successes and those of others.

STATING TRAINING AND DEVELOPMENT OBJECTIVES

Before organising training and development programmes, it is desirable to state the objectives of training and development. These objectives must be derived from assessment of training and development needs. In stating training and development objectives, there are some problems because training and development objectives cannot be stated always in quantitative terms. For example, objective of changing behaviour through training and development is difficult to quantify. In such a case, either objectives may be stated in narration form for immediate use or these can be stated in the form of behaviour likely to be shown by the trainess at workplace after receiving the training. In whatever forms objectives of training and development are stated, these provide base to trainees, trainers, and evaluation of effectiveness of training and development.

Exhibit 14.2 presents the objectives of training and development set out by petro-major Indian Oil Corporation Limited (IOC).

EXHIBIT 14.2: Training and development objectives of IOC

- 1. To impart new entrants the basic knowledge and skills they need for an intelligent performance of definite tasks.
- 2. To assist employees to function more effectively in their present positions by exposing them to the latest concepts, information and techniques, and developing the skills they will need in their particular fields.
- 3. To build a second line of competent officers and prepare them to occupy more responsible positions.
- 4. To broaden the minds of senior managers by providing them opportunities for an interchange of experience within and outside with a view to correcting the narrowness of the outlook that may arise from over-specialisation.
- To impart customer education for the purpose of meeting their training needs of Corporations which deal mainly with the public. e.g.. State Road Transport Corporations, major transporters, major petro-products users, etc.

Training and Development Methods

Training and development methods are means of attaining the desired objectives Training of the desired objectives in a learning situation. After identifying the needs of training and development, an organisation can go for searching training and development, and organisation can go for searching training and development methods that will satisfy these needs. Today, training and development methods that will satisfy these needs. something for everyone—from pre-employment preparation for the first job to pre-retirement courses for those who are due for retirement soon. These training and development methods can be grouped on the following two bases :

1. Training and development methods can be grouped on the basis of level of personnel in an organisation because three categories of personnel operatives, supervisors, managers—have different training and development needs and, therefore, different training and development methods are suitable for

2. Training and development methods can be grouped on the basis of the emphasis which they put on the training and development process. Thus, training and development methods may be on-the-job oriented like experience on a particular job, job rotation, vestibule school, apprenticeship, etc.; simulation methods like role playing, case study, management game, and inbasket exercise; experiential methods like sensitivity training and transactional analysis; knowledge-based like lectures, seminars, workshops, programmed instructions, etc.

Each of these training and development methods predominantly targets on developing a particular skill set though other skills may also develop to some extent in this process. Table 14.2 presents information about skills and knowledge required by personnel, training and development methods relevant for these, and target trainees.

Table 14.2: Training and development methods for various skills

Skills	T & D methods	Target trainees
Technical skills	Job instruction training	Operative
	Vestibule training	Operative
	Apprenticeship	Operative
Behavioural skills	Sensitivity training	Supervisory, managerial
	Transactional analysis	Supervisory, managerial
	Role playing	Supervisory, managerial
Decision-making	Case study	Managerial
skills	In-basket exercise	Managerial
	Management game	Managerial
	Brainstorming	Managerial
	Syndicate	Managerial
Multi-skills	Job rotation	Managerial
	Coaching/understudy	Managerial
	Mentoring	Managerial
Knowledge	Deliberation	Supervisory, managerial
	Lecture/conference	Supervisory, managerial

Some of these training and development methods can be used on the job while others can be used off the job.

On-the-job Training and Development. On-the-job training and develop. ment is the most common in organisations of any type or size and covers all ment is the most common in organisacions of display the categories of personnel. It involves 'learning by doing itself'. In this method, the categories of personnel. It involves learning by doing a job. This engagement may trainee learns while he is actually engaged in doing a job. This engagement may trainee learns while he is actually engaged in doing of the most important may be on a specific job or there may be job rotation. For operatives who are engaged be on a specific job or there may be job rotation ing is the most important tool in routine and repetitive job, on-the-job training is the most important tool Initially, an operative requires the help of a trainer to learn how he should proceed in the job performance. Gradually, he learns the methods of doing and gets perfection over these. This concept is applied to managerial personnel too at gets perfection over these. This concept is applied in job rotation. Experience is a the initial level. Subsequently, they may be put on job rotation. valuable asset if used wisely. It contributes to better way of doing the things because the person may weed out the undesirable practices over the period of time and may retain only the desirable practices. However, this process of learning may take lot of time on the part of the person to make distinction between what is desirable and what is undesirable. If he has knowledge of the relevant theories of doing a job, he can do so in much lesser time.

Off-the job Training and Development. Off-the-job training and development is a kind of supplement to on-the-job training and development. In a dynamic environment where things change at a fast pace, new ways of doing things are required which cannot be generated by on-the-job training and development Therefore, personnel are required to learn something away from their workplace. Generally, as an individual moves upward in organisational hierarchy, more learning is required through off-the-job training and development. Therefore, there is a need for combining on-the-job and off-the-job training and

development.

Table 14.3 shows various on-the-job and off-the-job training and development methods.

Table 14.3: On-the-job and off-the-job training and development methods

On-the-job methods	Off-the-job methods
Job instruction training	Vestibule training
×Apprenticeship	Lectures and conferences
Coaching/understudy	Syndicate
Mentoring	Brainstorming
Job rotation	Simulation training
Participation in deliberation	Sensitivity training
	Transactional analysis

Discussion of the above training and development methods has been presented below.

Job Instruction Training

Job instruction training (JIT), also known as 'training through step-by-step'. involves listing of all necessary steps involved in the job performance with a sequential arrangement of all steps. These steps show what is to be done, how to be done and why to be done. JIT involves the following steps:

- Providing job information to the trainees by emphasising its importance, general description of the job and duties and responsi-
- Positioning the trainees at workplace and explaining them the various steps involved in job performance and the reasons for these steps;
- Allowing the trainees to try out work performance on the basis of the steps involved and correcting the errors committed by them;
- Encouraging the trainees to ask questions about the job performance and satisfying them with further explanation.

Many companies adopt programmed instruction method of JIT in which the learning materials are compiled in the booklet form which the trainees have to read and work accordingly. Sometimes, these instructions are computerised and the method is known as computer-assisted instruction (CAI). These methods are useful for educated operatives.

Apprenticeship

Apprenticeship as a method of training in crafts, trades and technical areas is one of the oldest and the most commonly used method specially when proficiency in a job is the result of a relatively long period of training. The areas in which apprenticeship training is offered are numerous ranging from the job of a draughtsman, machinist, printer, tool-maker, engraver, electrician, etc. In the apprenticeship training, a major part of the training time is spent on the productive job. Each trainee is given a programme of assignments according to a pre-determined schedule which provides training in the concerned trade. In India, the Apprentices Act, 1961 (amended in 1973) makes it obligatory on the part of all employers in the specified industries to place apprentices in the designated trades in terms of standard laid down. The apprenticeship involves basic on-the-job training with related instruction embracing the entire period of training. During this period, each trainee is paid certain amount of stipend as stipulated in the Act. The basic advantage of apprenticeship training is that the organisation can build a pool of technically trained personnel with much higher lovalty to it.

Vestibule Training

The concept of vestibule is related to a cavity serving as entrance to another. specially a part of railway carriage connecting and giving access to the next. In the context of training, it is known as training-centre training. The concept of vestibule school/training centre is that people will learn and develop skills while working in the situations similar to what they will face after they are put on the actual job. Many organisations establish training centres to train people for skilled work particularly in production department. Vestibule training consists of two parts. First, there is lecture method which is conducted in class rooms meant for this purpose. The lecture focuses on theoretical framework and principles involved in the job performance. Second, there is practical exercise based on the theoretical aspects in a workshop which is similar to the shopfloor in production department. Vestibule training offers various advantages:

- 1. As the training is provided in a different place, there is lesser distraction of trainees' attention.
- Trainees feel more freedom for experimentation as they are away from the actual workplace. They do not have the psychological fear of being criticised from supervisors and co-workers.

3. Since the training is away from the actual production process, it is not

affected by the training process.

However, this method of training can be adopted only when there are large number of trainees because it requires additional investment for creating training facilities. This method is suitable for those employees who are required certain specific technical skills before they are engaged in actual operations.

Coaching/Understudy

Coaching is a learning through on-the-job experience. A manager can learn when he is put on a specific job. He can develop skills for doing the job in a better way over the period of time. However, he can learn better if he is given some guidance either in the form of coaching or understudy. Coaching involves direct personal instructions and guidance usually with demonstration and continuous critical evaluation and correction. In understudy method, the trainee works normally as assistant under the direction and supervision of a person. Normally, this method is applied by industrialists to develop their family members or sponsored candidates to develop them for occupying key positions in the organisation concerned.

The coaching method offers certain advantages. It provides an opportunity to a trainee to develop himself even if formal management development programmes are not undertaken in an organisation. It provides quick feedback to the trainee as well as to the trainer where the trainee lacks and what measures can be taken to overcome various shortcomings. However, coaching system has certain drawbacks. One of the main drawbacks is that trainer's styles of working, which may not necessarily be suitable, percolate in the trainee. Therefore, if this method is relied on heavily, there is a chance for the development of organisational traditionalism which works as resistant to change. Further, the trainer may be preoccupied with his work and he may not be able to give sufficient time to the trainee concerned.

However, coaching can be an effective management tool if followed properly. To be effective, coaching demands that the superior renders assistance when the trainee needs it. The superior should have the ability to communicate and stimulate the trainee and have patience to develop the trainee. Decenzo and Robbins observe that "coaching will work well if the coach provides a good model with whom the trainee can identify; if both can be open with each other; if the coach accepts his responsibility fully and if he provides the trainee with recognition of his improvement and suitable rewards." A recent survey (1999) by Cedar International, a UK-based personnel consultancy firm, shows that out of 80 per cent of 70 managing directors/personnel managers from blue-chip companies included in the survey shows that coaching is right for their business. However, 84 per cent of them feel that they lack skills for providing meaningful coaching. The report, further, emphasises that coaching in the form of team is more effective as compared to individual coaching. People get confidence and move to areas they would not have thought of going to before.

¹⁶Cedar International, "Coaching Teams in Business", partly reproduced in The Times of India, June 28, 2000, p. I (Supplement).

¹⁵David A. Decenzo and Stephen P. Robbins, Personnel/Human Resource Management, New Delhi: Prentice-Hall of India, 1989, p. 269.

Mentoring

Mentoring is a technique for human resource development which has entered Mentoring the business field quite recently but it has been in practice in ancient world. For the pushing ancient Greek, Oddysseus entrusted his friend named Mentor with the responsibility of his son Telemachu's education and development in his absence. The relationship between Telemachu and Mentor came to be known as absence. Since then, this term has been used to denote development of human beings. This concept has also been followed in India. For example, Chanakya served as mentor to Chandragupta.

The literal meaning of mentoring is to provide wise counselling. As a method of human resource development, in mentoring, a senior manager acts as a friend, philosopher and guide to a new recruit and provides him the support that the latter needs. The important support that is needed by a new recruit is in the forms of emotional support, teaching, coaching, counselling and guiding. The mentor provides such support to develop the overall personality of his mentee. While organisational training takes care of knowledge base and skill set, mentoring complements this by taking care of other aspects of development of the mentee. Many companies use mentoring to develop their employees from initial stage, some prominent ones being Smithkline Beecham Consumer Healthcare, Cadbury, Hewlett-Packard, McKinsey & Co., and so on. mentoring, hurdles of the following types may emerge:

1. Lack of time on the part of the mentor.

- 2. Lack of role clarity of both mentor and mentee in terms of expectations from each other.
- 3. Lack of information about mentee in terms of his career goals and aspiration.
- 4. Lack of proper attitudes both on the part of mentor and mentee.
- 5. Lack of relevant skills on the part of mentor to develop a mentee.

Mentoring as a tool of development of human resources can be made effective if the following conditions exist:

- 1. Top management support the mentoring process.
- 2. Mentors take genuine interest in their mentees.
- 3. Individual ideas are respected.
- 4. Employees are made to sharpen their skills.

Exhibit 14.2 presents the mentoring process adopted by Smithkline Beecham Consumer Healthcare Limited.

EXHIBIT 14.3: Mentoring at Smithkline Beecham Consumer Healthcare

The company has adopted the mentoring as a tool for human resource development. The process consists of seven steps which are as follows:

1. One-day workshop for profiling mentees and deciding on the match for effective behaviour

modelling and allotment of mentors.

2. Five-day induction at the head office and first mentor-mentee meeting for familiarising mentees with corporate functions and smoother initiation.

- 3. Role-clarity workshop for mentors and weekly meeting with mentees within the first month for avoidance of mentor-manager role conflict and forging closer ties with mentees. for avoidance of mentor-manager role conflict and is say.

 4. Fortnightly mentor-mentee meetings and assigning of budgets for extending the concept to
- the peer level. the peer level.

 5. Need-based meetings supplemented by phone calls and e-mail for reinforcing formal and
- informal learning. 6. Review of the process by mentors and mentees for revising the process to generate feedback.
- 7. Final presentation by the mentees on mentoring for crystalising the feedback for corrective

The company's mentoring programme is quite successful in developing the new recruites.

Job Rotation

Job rotation, or channel method of development, involves movement of a manager from one job to another job, from one plan to another plan on a planned basis. Such movement may be for a period ranging from 6 months to 2 years before a person is established in a particular job or department. In this case, the movement is not meant for transfer but is meant for learning the interdependence of various jobs so that the trainee can look at his job in broader perspective. Job rotation may be restricted to different jobs falling within a broad functional area like sales to marketing research, or to sales promotion; or may extend beyond the functional area like movement from marketing to production or vice-versa. Normally, job rotation is useful when it is undertaken in interdependent jobs or functions.

Job rotation as a means for management development offers certain positive contributions. It allows the managers to appreciate the intricacies involved in different jobs and how their own jobs are affected by such intricacies. This way, they can develop more cooperative approach to different functions in the organisation. Further, managers may develop broader horizon and perspective of a generalist rather than the more narrow horizon of a specialist. It may be mentioned that a generalist uses system frame of reference in arriving at a decision as compared to elemental frame of reference used by a functional specialist. Job rotation develops this system frame of reference. However, job rotation may have certain drawbacks which must be taken care of while designing such a policy. It may create confusion in the mind of a trainee and he may not be able to understand the rationale of job rotation if not properly counselled. This may affect his performance as well as that of others with whom he works. Therefore, the trainees must understand the rationale behind job rotation and those moved to different jobs should be helped to learn these thoroughly, view the change as an opportunity for a genuine learning experience.

Participation in Deliberations

Managerial personnel may be developed through their participation in deliberations and decision making in group form such as committees, task forces, project assignments, etc. Though all these groups are formed for different purposes, they contribute to the development of personnel in similar manner.

These groups are created by taking managers across a number of functional areas to solve particular problems being faced by the organisation. In fact, committees of different types, both standing and ad hoc, are found in every organisation. Group decision-making process in committees is such that it contributes to the development of participants. Decision-making in committees is through the process of committee deliberations. Normally, group decisionmaking passes through three stages. First, at the initial stage, the group tires to acquire the largest pool of common information about the facts of the situation. Second, the group tries to make inferences and evaluation of information and to form common opinions in a general way. Third, it gets around more specific suggestions and solution to the problem. After agreement is achieved on the essential facts of the situation, every member is given opportunities to express his views. At this level, there may be emotional tension in deliberations and the chairman should direct the group back to the facts and begin anew from there. This returning back to the facts of the problem works as cooling effect on the members and agreement may be arrived at because members may look at the problem in a sounder way.

A committee can be used as a tool of management development like many other tools. A manager can be developed through learning from experience. While experience of a manager on his job may restrict him to know about his job only, committees may widen his knowledge and he can learn how his job is related with others; in what way it affects others and is affected by others. Such type of learning enables him to take an integrated view of solving various problems faced by him.

Lectures and Conferences

Lectures and conferences are knowledge-based management development methods. In these methods, an effort is made to expose participants to concepts and theories, basic principles and pure and applied knowledge in any particular area. Basically, these aim at transmission of knowledge pertaining to the relevant area. While lecture method emphasises on one-way communication, conference method provides opportunity for two-way communication. Many organisations have adopted guided discussion type of conferences for meaningful interaction among participants. In this method, the resource personnel present their ideas and invite discussion on those ideas with a veiw to assimilate these and to provide way as to how these ideas can be translated into action.

Syndicate

Syndicate method of development has been introduced by Administrative Staff College at Henley-on-Thames. As a method of management development, syndicate refers to a group of trainees and involves the analysis of a problem by different groups with each group consisting of 8-10 members. Each group

works on the problems on the basis of briefs and background papers provided by the resource person. After the preliminary exercise a group presents its ideas on the issues involved alongwith other groups. After the presentation of ideas, these are evaluated by group members with the help of the resource person and group members evaluate where they have lacked. Such exercises are repeated so as to enable the participants to look at the problems in right perspectives. The syndicate method is quite helpful in developing analytical skills in the participants and their approach for understanding others, if conducted properly.

Brainstorming

Brainstorming is a technique to stimulate idea generation for decision-making. Originally applied by Osborn in 1938 in an American company, the technique is now widely used by many companies, educational institutions and other organisations for building ideas. Osborn has defined brainstorming simply as 'using the brain to storm the problem'. Webster Dictionary defines brainstorming as "a conference technique by which a group attempts to find a solution for a specific problem by amassing all the ideas spontaneously contributed by its members." For brainstorming, a group of 10 to 15 persons is constituted. The participants should be connected with the problem directly or closely, though they need not necessarily be from the same discipline. The process in brainstorming goes in the following ways:

- 1. The problem on which decision is required is given to the group. Problem is stated clearly and precisely so that members of the group can focus their direct attention on it.
- 2. Each member is asked to give ideas through which the problem can be solved. Here, the emphasis is on quantity of ideas and quality may follow later. The brainstorming session is meant to be a free, frank and relaxed one to generate maximum number of ideas irrespective of qualities. Factors inhibiting the idea generation are pushed back. The basic theme behind idea generation is that though a big chunk of ideas collected during the session may not be worthwhile, yet a small percentage of it may provide sufficient useful list to work upon.
- 3. The members are expected to put their ideas for problem solution without taking into consideration any limitations—financial, procedural, legal, organisational or otherwise. Such limitations only act as deterrent to free flow of ideas because the participants will limit themselves in these limitations.

4. Idea-evaluation is deferred to a later stage because it does not flow in the direction of idea generation. Hence, any criticism, judgement, or comment is strictly prohibited and the members are told to abstain from it. Anyone violating this, is chided gently in order to generate genial atmosphere for free flow of ideas.

Brainstorming has strong potential for developing creativity in participants because it provokes them to think without any constraints or limitations. It provides opportunity to remove various social and psychological blocks which come in the way of idea-generation and creates favourable atmosphere for imaginative power to fly in unknown and untrodden lands to generate ideas for problem solving.

Simulation Training

Simulated method of training involves the duplication of organisational situations in a learning environment. It is a mock-up of real thing. Though there are different methods of training under simulated situations and each of these involves a particular procedure, simulated learning involves the following:

- 1. In simulation, essential characteristics of a real-life situation are presented in abstracted form as whole characteristics are difficult to be simulated.
- 2. A simulation often involves a telescopic, or compressing, of time events; a single session may be equated with a month or many months of real-time situations. Further, the events and situations may be presented in brief, leaving out many details.
- 3. Participants in the training programme are required to do according to the situation prescribed and to see the problem from the perspectives of various roles given in the situations.
- 4. The role of instructor is quite restricted to allow the trainees to participate fully.
- 5. After the exercise is over, the instructor provides the feedback to the participants to evaluate themselves and to strengthen themselves by overcoming their weak points.

Though it is not possible to simulate the real life exactly in the learning situations, simulated training provides participants an opportunity to learn which may be useful in their actual work situations. The training aids to develop diagnostic and decision-making skills in particular. There are four commonly adopted simulated training methods: role playing, in-basket exercise, case study, and management game.

Role playing, as a method of learning, was introduced by Moreno, a Vatican psychiatrist. He introduced the terms 'role-playing', 'role-reversal', 'psychdrama', and a variety of specialised terms, with emphasis on learning human relations through insight into one's own behaviour and its impact on others. Role playing as a method of learning involves human interaction in imaginary situation. In drama and play, actors play various roles.

While While playing these roles, they assume themselves as the persons whose role they also be the they also be the they also be the they also be they als they play. Similar is the case in role playing training. Role playing technique is used in groups where various individuals are given the roles of different managers who are required to solve a problem or to arrive at a decision. Thus, it is spontaneous acting in a situation involving two or more persons under training situation. Dialogues grow spontaneously as the role playing proceeds. Since people perform different roles every day in their real life, they are experienced in role playing and with certain amount of imagination, they can project themselves into role other than their own. At the end of the role playing session, there is critique session in which trainees are given feedback about their role playing.

Role playing helps the trainees to develop better perspective in performing their jobs because they may see the jobs from different angles. It also develops sensitivity among trainees which is quite helpful in maintaining better human relations. This training method provides immediate feedback about one's role during the training session which helps him in developing better understanding. However, role playing training is not quite suitable at higher management level.

In-basket Exercise. In-basket exercise is a simulation technique designed around the 'incoming mail' of a manager. A variety of situations is presented in this exercise which would usually be dealt by a manager in his typical working day. One method of this exercise is to present mail of various types to a trainee whose reactions on these are noted. A slight variation in this method may be in the form of incident method. In this method, the trainee is given certain incidents and his reactions are noted down. Some trainees may even play surprise roles which interrupt the manager and give him two or more simultaneous problems more like real on-the-job pressures. Through the feedback of his behaviour, the trainee comes to know his behavioural pattern and tries to overcome the one which is not productive or functional. Thus, he can learn techniques of giving priorities to various problems faced by him.

Case Study. Case study is one of the most frequently used pedagogical tools in management education and development. Case method of learning has the following objectives:

- 1. The description of real business situation to acquaint the learner with the principles and practices obtained in work setting;
- 2. Introduction of realism into formal instruction;
- 3. Demonstration of various types of goals, problems, facts, conditions. conflicts and personalities obtained in organisational settings;
- 4. Development of decision-making ability; and
- 5. Development of independent thinking but cooperative approach to work in

A case is a description of a situation involving problems to be solved. However, the case may not have as complete information about the problem as a reader wishes. The amount of detail required would make the case too long to read and too detailed to analyse. In fact, this is the reality with the decision making in actual business operations. Managers seldom have enough information because (i) it is not available, or (ii) it is not available at appropriate time, or (iii) to acquire the information is too costly. The result is that managers

make decisions on the basis of information at hand and after making reasonable assumptions about the unknowns. So with cases, the analyst must work the information he has and must make reasonable assumptions. Further, a case may have information of varying importance; some may be very useful, some partially useful, and some may not be useful at all. This is similar with the actual practice. A manager may be bombarded with the information and he must find out what is relevant or irrelevant to him. Thus, case also provides an opportunity to learn to separate the wheat from the chaff.

A case may be presented either in structured form or in unstructured form. In a highly structured case, there are leading questions at the end that indicate a focus and predetermine the direction with which the discussion will go. The basic value of a structured case is that the discussion can get off to a quick start, but there is always the danger of oversimplification of problems and prescription of pet solutions. In such a situation, the group process is adversely affected. The session in the class room can degenerate into a question answer session between instructor and participants. In unstructured case, the facts are given but there are no leading questions to suggest the major issues involved in the case. The participants search, through the process of analysis, what problems to choose as focus. This helps them to learn how to get on the real problems in a given situation.

Learning through case method involves analysis of the case to identify problems involved, identifying alternatives for the solution of the problems, evaluation of these alternatives, and to arrive at a decision to solve the problems; case discussion in group to put one's viewpoints and appreciate others'; and written analysis to focus more sharply on what has been discussed. The role of instructor in case discussion should be non-directive. At the end of the case discussion, the instructor presents his own view on the case and provides feedback to the trainees about their peformance.

Case method of development is important if it is handled properly. Often trainees do not take it seriously in the guise that they have solved many such problems in their real life suituations, or the instructor may not handle the case properly, or there may not be appropriate cases. In order to make learning meaningful through case method, following points should be observed:

- The participants should have sufficient theoretical background about the issues involved in a case so that they utilise the concepts in suggesting solution of the problems. Providing solution to the problem in a case based on common sense does not serve any purpose.
- 2. There should be use of appropriate cases during the training session. Appropriateness of cases should be linked to the level of maturity of the participants and their background in terms of education and experience.
- 3. The case should have as much details as possible, particularly on those aspects which are significant in arriving at major decisions. Further, case should be thought-provoking one so that the participants may come forward with their ideas and their evaluation.

Management Game. Management game, or business game, is another popular technique which is used at management education level or at

management development level, which is involvement-oriented process for skill development, particularly analytical and group processes. Management game is a form of simulation which involves a sequential decision-making exercise structured around a hypothetical model of an organisation's operations in which participants assume roles in managing the operations. There may be different types of management games based on the type of skills they inculcate. These are skill games—to develop analytical skills, communication games—to develop biased-free listening and talking, team-building games—to develop skills for collaborative efforts, and strategic games—to develop skills to plan ahead. Usually, the last type of game is more popular.

A game involves the participation of two or more teams depending on the situation with each team having 4 to 7 participants. In a computer-run game, the number of teams can be increased to 10-15 or even more, but in a manual game, the number of teams is kept low, usually 4-6 to manage the computational work. Each competing team is given a company to operate in the light of the situations provided in the game. These situations include nature of market environment, nature of facilitating and restraining factors, factors which may affect decisions, number of time periods, and duration of each time period. Each team makes its own decisions at the initial period in the light of its strategy to suit the situation. When the instructor announces the results of decisions of different teams of the initial period, each team takes a particular stand in the light of this feedback which may be either same or different. This exercise is repeated a number of times with additional inputs from the instructor at each time. Feedback to the participants is provided after certain gap of time during which calculation and compilation of teams' decisions are worked out.

If designed and conducted properly, management games contribute in the development of participants in the following ways:

- 1. There is usually great excitement and enjoyment in playing games by the participants. This helps them to retain what they have learned through games.
- Management games develop various skills in participants, particularly diagnostic and decision-making skills and group interaction skills. The participants learn how to operate in competitive environment, as each team competes for the same outcomes which may be in the form of win-lose situations.

SENSITIVITY TRAINING

Sensitivity training (also known as laboratory or T-group with T standing for training) evolved from the group dynamics concept of Kurt Lewin, and the first sensitivity training session was held in 1946 in State Teachers College. New Britain, USA. Since then it spread to numerous training centres in USA and other countries. Sensitivity training is a small-group interaction process in the unstructured form which requires people to become sensitive to others' feelings

order to develop reasonable group activity. The objectives of sensitivity

1. To make participants increasingly aware of, and sensitive to, the emotional reactions and expressions in themselves and others.

 To increase the ability of participants to perceive, and to learn from, the consequences of their actions through attention to their own and others' feelings.

 To stimulate the clarification and development of personal values and goals consonant with a democratic and scientific approach to problems of personal and social decisions and actions.

4. To develop achievement of behavioural effectiveness in participants.

 To develop concepts and theoretical framework for linking personal values and goals to actions consistent with these inner factors and situational requirements.

Sensitivity training focuses on small group (T-group) with number of members ranging from ten to twelve. Based on the sources from where these members are drawn, there may be three types of T-group: stranger-lab, cousin-lab, and family-lab. In the stranger-lab, all participants are from different organisations and they are strangers to each other. In cousin-lab, all participants are from the same organisation but from different units. They may know each other but not too well. In family-lab, all participants are from the same unit and know each other quite well. Delbecq has described the sequential events which are followed in a T-group. 17 These events run as follows:

1. In the beginning, there is an intentional lack of directive leadership, formal agenda, and recognised power and status. This creates a behavioural vacuum which the participants fill with enormously rich projections of traditional behaviour.

2. In the second phase, the trainer becomes open, non-defensive, and empathetic and expresses his or her own feelings in a minimally evaluative way. However, the major impact on each participant comes from the feedback received from here-and-now behaviour of the other group members.

3. In the third phase, interpersonal relationships develop. The members serve as resources to one another and facilitate experimentation with new personal, interpersonal, and collaborative behaviour.

4. The last phase attempts to explore the relevance of the experience in terms of "back-home" situations and problems.

The above sequence of events is more relevant for stranger-lab. For cousin-lab and family-lab, some adjustment is made in the above sequence and more attention is given to intergroup linkage in the form of interfacing of diagnostic surveys, interviews, and confrontation sessions dealing with a variety of policy. Problem-solving, and interpersonal issues.

¹⁷Andre Delbecq, "Sensitivity Training". Training and Development Journal, January 1970, p. 33.

Sensitivity training has attracted a lot of appraisal as it has both positive consequences and negative consequences.

Positive Consequences. In general, sensitivity training contributes in the following directions:

 Sensitivity training results in more supportive behaviour, more sensitive people and more considerable managers.

2. Participants to the training programme become more open and selfunderstanding.

3. Communication is improved a lot and leadership skills are well developed.

 It provides an opportunity to gain insight into personal blind spots and participants become aware of the group norms, role flexibility and sense of belongingness.

Negative Consequences. Any behavioural training is double-edged sword. It may contribute positively if handled properly; it may damage if handled improperly. For example, those who criticise sensitivity training, offer the following reasons:

- Many participants of sensitivity training have reported a feeling of humiliation, manipulation, decline in self-confidence and psychological damage.
- It incites anxiety with many negative impacts like causing the people to be highly frustrated, unsettled and upset.
- Participants' increased sensitivity may be a continuing source of frustration and problem if they return to their workplace in which openness, trust and sensitivity they were trained to espouse is frowned upon or repulsed.

From the above discussion, it appears that problems in sensitivity training emerge because of two reasons. *First*, some problems emerge in the training process itself specially if it is not conducted properly. *Second*, problems may emerge because of the mismatch between the person so trained and the nature of work environment. Therefore, the work environment should also be suitably changed.

TRANSACTIONAL ANALYSIS

Transactional analysis (TA) offers a model of personality and dynamics of self and its relationship to others that makes possible a clear and meaningful discussion of behaviour. TA refers to a method of analysing and understanding interpersonal behaviour. When people interact, there is a social transaction in

which one person responds to another. The study of these transactions between people is called Transactional Analysis. TA was originally developed by Eric Berne, a psychotherapist, for psychotherapy in 1950. He observed in his patients that often it was as if several different people were inside each person. He also observed that these various 'selves' transmitted with people in different ways. Later on, its application to ordinary interactions was popularised by Harris and Jongeward, besides Berne. To understand TA, structural analysis (ego states), life position and analysis of transactions should be understood.

Ego States. People interact with each other in terms of three psychological positions, or behavioural patterns, known as ego states. Thus, ego states are a person's way of thinking, feeling, and behaving at any time. These ego states are: parent, adult, and child. These have nothing to do with the chronological age of the person, rather they are related with the behavioural aspects of age. Thus, person of any age may have these ego states in varying degrees. A healthy person is able to move from one ego state to another. Further, these three ego states are not concepts like Freud' id. ego, and super ego. They are based on real world behaviour

Parent Ego. The parent ego state incorporates the attitudes and behaviour of all emotionally significant people who serve as parent figure when an individual was a child. The value and behaviour of these people are recorded in the mind of the individual and these become the basic values of the personality. Characteristics of a person acting with the parent ego include being overprotective, distant, dogmatic, indispensible and upright. Physical and verbal clues that someone interacting with the parent ego include the wagging finger to show displeasure, reference to laws and rules and reliance on ways that were successful in the past.

There can be two types of parent ego states-nurturing and critical. Nurturing parent ego state reflects nurturning behaviour not only towards children but also to other people in interaction. Similarly, critical parent ego state reflects critical and evaluative behaviour in interaction with others. Each individual has his unique parent ego state which is likely to be a mixture of helpfulness and

hurtfulness. Awareness of his ego gives more choice over what one does.

Adult Ego. Adult ego state is based upon reasoning, seeking and providing information. Person interacting with adult ego views people as equal, worthy. and reasonable human beings. It is based on rationality. The adult is characterised by logical thinking and reasoning. This ego state can be identified by verbal and physical signs which include thoughtful concentration and factual discussion. The process of adult ego state formation goes through one's own experience, and continuously updating parental injunction by verifying. Though certain values which are formed in the childhood are rarely erased, an individual at the later stage of the life may block his child and parent ego states and use his adult ego only based on his experience. He updates the parent data to determine determine what is valid and what is not. Similarly, he also updates child data to determine which feelings should be expressed. Thus, he keeps and controls emotional expressions appropriately.

Child Ego. Characteristics of child ego include creativity, conformity, depression, anxiety, dependence, fear and hate. Physical and verbal clues that person is acting in the child ego are silent compliance, attention seeking, temper tantrums, giggling and coyness. The child ego is characterised by non-logical and immediate actions which result in immediate satisfaction. Child ego state reflects early childhood conditions and experiences perceived by individuals in their early years of life, that is, before the social birth of an individual, say up to the age of five years. The child has no self-direction, no ability to move out to face life. He takes what comes in his way.

There are three parts of child ego: natural, adaptive, and rebellious. The natural child is affectionate, impulsive, sensuous and does what comes naturally. However, he is also fearful, self-indulgent, self-centred, and aggressive and may engage in many unpleasant roles. The adaptive child is the trained one and he is likely to do what parents insist on, and sometimes learns to feel non-O.K. The adapted child, when overtly inhibited, often becomes the troubled part of the personality. The rebellious child experiences anger, fear, and frustration.

Each person may respond to specific stimulus in quite distinct ways from each ego state. Sometimes these ego states harmonise, sometimes they are in conflict. Some people respond more with one ego state than with others.

Life Positions. The individual's behaviour towards other is largely based on specific assumptions that are made early in life. Very early in the childhood, a person develops from experience a dominant philosophy. Such philosophy is tied into their identity, sense of worth and perceptions of other people. This tends to remain with the person for life time unless major experiences occur to change it. Such positions are called life-positions or psychological positions, and fall into four categories as shown in figure 14.4.

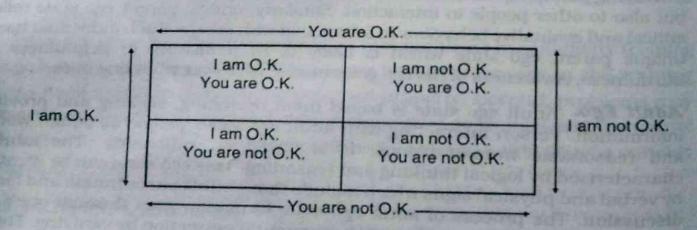


FIGURE 14.4 Psychological positions

1. I am O.K. You are O.K. This is a rationally chosen life position. It is made after the individual has a large number of O.K. experiences with others.

people with this position about themselves and others can solve their problems constructively. They accept the significance of other people and feel that life is worth living. This is based on adult ego. When managers work from this position, worth living are likely to express a more consistent pattern of confidence and competence. They display a much higher level of mutual give and take. They are able to express freely what they feel good about others because it offers little threat to them. They delegate authority and feel comfortable with a spread of authority.

- 2. I am O.K. You are not O.K. This position is taken by people who feel victimised or persecuted. They blame others for their miseries. This is the case of aggrieved persons with an attitude that whatever they do is right. This is a distrustful life position. It usually results when a person was too much ignored when he was a child. These are the people with rebellious child ego. In this life position, persons operate with parent ego. Managers operating with this position are likely to give critical and oppressive remarks. They tend to point out the flaws, the bad things, rarely giving any warm, genuinely carrying feelings. They lack trust or confidence in the intelligence, skills and talents of others. They do not believe in delegation of authority and feel that decentralisation is a threat.
- 3. I am not O.K. You are O.K. This position is common to persons who feel powerlessness in comparison to others. It is based on one's feelings about oneself. Individuals who feel a clear distinction between themselves and the people around them who could do many things that the individuals could not do hold this life position. Persons with this life position always grumble for one thing or the other. Managers operating from this position tend to give and receive bad feelings. They often use their bad feelings as an excuse to act out against others, and then the whole thing comes full circle when they feel guilty for their acts and turn their bad feelings against themselves. They tend to vascillate in their behaviour and are often unpredictable and erratic.
- 4. I am not O.K. You are not O.K. This is a desperate life position. This position is taken by those people who lose interest in living. They feel that life is not worth living at all. In extreme cases, they commit suicide or homicide. This is the case of individuals who are neglected seriously by their parents and are brought up by servants. Managers operating from this position are likely to get put-down strokes from others. They do not make decisions in time; make stupid mistakes or otherwise provide others to give them negative reactions. They lack personal potency and to look others for final decisions.

One of these positions dominates each person's life. The desirable position is one that provides an adult-adult transaction, that is, 'I am O.K. you are O.K.' It shows acceptance of self and others. The adults move into the O.K.-O.K. Position through psychological understanding and conscious choice. This position can be learned through education. The other three positions are less psychologically mature and less effective.

Transactions. When people interact, they involve in a transaction with others. Thus, when a stimulus (verbal or non-verbal) from a person is being responded by another person, a transaction is said to occur. The transaction is routed

from ego states. Depending on the ego states of the persons involved in the transactions, there may be three types of transactions—complementary, crossed and ulterior.

Complementary Transactions. A transaction is complementary when the stimulus and response patterns from one ego state to another are parallel. Thus, message by a person gets the predicted response from other persons. The transaction is complementary because both are acting in the perceived and expected ego states. Usually in such a case, both persons are satisfied and communication is complete. In all, there can be nine complementary transactions. These are adult-adult, parent-child, adult-parent, adult-child, parent-parent, parent-adult, child-parent, child-adult and child-child transactions. However, out of these, adult-adult and parent-child transactions are most desirable.

In adult-adult transaction, the manager in the adult ego tries to reason out issues, clarifies and informs issues and has concern for facts and figures and human needs. His life position is 'I am O.K. you are O.K.' This is the ideal transaction. Complementary transactions in these ego states are very effective because both persons are acting in a rational manner. Data is processed, decisions are made and both parties are working for solutions. Satisfaction is achieved by both persons from solution rather than one person (superior) treating other person (subordinate) a dutiful employee, or the subordinate only trying to please his superior. This transaction can be presented in Figure 14.5

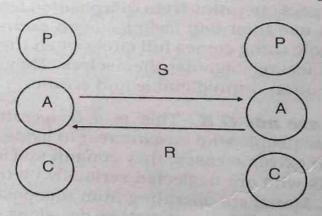


FIGURE 14.5 Adult-adult transaction

S = Stimulus

R = Response

Parent-child complementary transaction may be ideal if the manager is interacting with parent ego and the employee is acting in his child ego. The employee finds this transaction advantageous because it eliminates much responsibility and pressure. The child prevents much conflict and provides for ease operation. However, this situation may not be advantageous in the long run. This transaction depends on the feeling that employees are not capable of doing anything. The employee suffers from this interaction because he has to surrender his adult ego. He may feel frustration because he feels his personality is not developed. This transaction may be presented in Figure 14.6

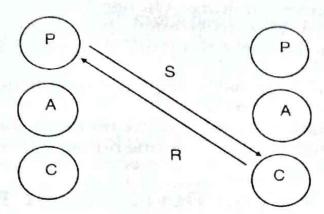


FIGURE 14.6 Parent-child transaction

Non-Complementary Transactions. Non-complementary or crossed transactions may occur when stimulus-response lines are not parallel. This happens when the person who initiates transaction expecting a certain response does not get it. The position has been shown in Figure 14.7

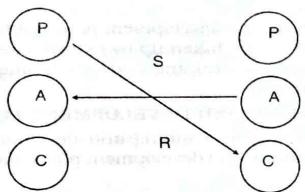


FIGURE 14.7 Non-complementary transaction

In this case, the manager tries to deal with the employee on adult-to-adult basis but the employee responds on child-to-parent basis and the communication is blocked. Crossed transaction is not a satisfactory one because the line of communication is blocked and further transaction does not take place. In such a case, the manager might refuse to play parent-child game and may try again for an adult communication. Another alternative for the manager may be to move parent-child state in order to resume communication with the employee.

Ulterior Transaction. Ulterior transaction is the most complex because the communication has double meaning. When an ulterior message is sent, it is often disguised in a socially acceptable way. On the surface level, the communication has a clear adult message, whereas it carries a hidden message on the psychological level. Ulterior transaction, like crossed transactions, is undesirable.

Benefits and Uses of TA. TA is an approach towards understanding behaviour. Thus, it can be applied to any field of human interactions. This is more particularly related when people come for interaction and that too in interpersonal relationships. Following are some of the specific areas where TA can be applied beneficially:

1. Increasing positive thinking—change from negative feelings like Increasing positive thinking—change confusion, and pessimism to confusion, defeat, fear, frustration, hesitation, and pessimism to confusion, defeat, fear, frustration, positive feelings like clear thinking, victory, achievement, courage optimum fulfilment. optimum fulfilment.

2. Interpersonal effectiveness—engaging in complementary transactions

for better interpersonal relations.

3. Motivating personnel—using positive non-monetary reinforcers. 4. Organisation development—creating humanistic value system in the

organisation.

Organising Training and Development Programmes

After identification of training and development needs and the methods that are likely to meet those needs, the stage of organising training and development programmes begins. The issues that should be sorted out at this stage are as follows:

1. What is the organisational policy regarding organising training and development programmes?

Whether the training and development programmes will be organised

in-house or these will be taken up by external agencies? 3. Who will participate in training and development programmes as trainees and trainers.

ORGANISATIONAL TRAINING AND DEVELOPMENT POLICY

Every organisation formulates its training and development policy, either explicitly or implicitly. A training and development policy includes the following aspects:

1. Training and Development Objectives. Every training and development programme has a specific objective in the form of inculcating new behavioural pattern or acquiring new skills. The organisational policy should indicate the type of skills that should be acquired by the employees; whether these will be developed for a specific job or for different jobs; whether acquisition of skills will be a continuous process or this will be one-shot action. If it is treated to be a continuous process, the organisation should spell out how much will be learned through training programmes and how much learning will take place through continuous practice.

2. Basis of Training and Development. The second aspect relating to training and development policy is the determination of the basis on which the personnel will be selected for training and development programmes. Though all the employees need some kind of training to perform their jobs effectively, the question of deciding the type of employees who will be trained by specially organised programmes becomes important as all employees cannot participate in these programmes. For example, many organisations which acquire technology from abroad send their employees for training to the technology supplier for better assimilation of new technology. Naturally, all employees cannot be sent abroad for such training. Similar such occasions may arise in the arrangement of other training and development programmes. Therefore, the organisation must decide in advance the number of employees to participate in the training and development programmes and the basis of their selection.

- 387 3. Cost of Training. Cost of training is one of the most important considerations 3. Cost of frame a training programme. A training programme involves cost of in designing a training programme in the form of direct arms. in designing a training programme involves cost of different types. These may be in the form of direct expenses incurred in different types are programme which may be incurred on recorded in different types. In the form of direct expenses incurred in organising the programme which may be incurred on resource personnel for organism cost of training materials to be provided asserted. organising the property of training materials to be provided, arrangement of physical and refreshment, etc. Besides these expenses the training, and refreshment, etc. Besides these expenses, the organisation has to facilities, and refreshment of physical facilities, and refreshment of loss of production during facilities, and the form of loss of production during training period. Ideally bear indirect a training programme must be able to govern bear indirect bearing programme must be able to generate more revenues than speaking, a training programme must be able to generate more revenues than speaking. a should be taken into consideration aspects should be taken into consideration.
- 4. Resource Personnel. Another issue requiring policy decision is the 4. Resource personnel who will impart training; whether they will be drawn from within the organisation or taken from outside. or a combination of both. If it is combination of both, what proportion of insiders and outsiders should be. After determining the sources of personnel, the next logical question is who these personnel would be. Sometimes, some companies use to call renowned persons in their field to increase the level of motivation of the participants and to enhance their confidence in the training programme.
- 5. Training Methods. Organisational policy should also spell out the various training methods to be followed. This helps in designing the training programmes accordingly. We have seen earlier in this chapter that an organisation may have a number of training methods to choose from, both on-the-job and off-the-job.

CONDUCTING TRAINING AND DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMMES

An organisation should decide how training and development programmes are to be conducted to derive maximum benefits. In this context, the organisation has two alternatives: organising in-company programmes or nominating the participants to outside programmes. Both of these alternatives have their own benefits and costs. Therefore, both these alternatives should be evaluated in these contexts.

In-Company Training and Development Programmes

For large organisations, where the number of participants is quite large, inhouse developmental facilities should be created. In fact, many large companies in India have their own training and development centres like Hindustan Lever, ITC, Tata group, Larsen & Toubro. ACC, ICI, etc. in private sector; BHEL, Rashtriya Chemicals and Fertilisers, SAIL, Bharat Electronics, most of the scheduled commercial banks, financial institutions, etc. in public sector. A basic advantage of having in-house development centres is that large number of personnel can be developed through regular in-company programmes. Further, the programmes can be tailor-made to suit the specific requirements of managers. However, in-company programmes should have some mix of external faculty in faculty in areas where the in-company resource personnel are lacking. Exhibit 14.4 personnel are lacking. 14.4 presents the example of Manpower Development Group of ITC Limited which operates on the basis of cost-profit centre approach.

EXHIBIT 14.4: Manpower Development Group at ITC Limited

ITC Limited has developed its own management development centre known as Manpower Development Group (MDG) to undertake management development activities of ITC and other group companies. MDG is functioning since 1978 as a cost-profit centre and charges development fees at market rates. The participants of ITC and group companies are free either to go through MDG or external agencies, particularly IIMs and Administrative Staff College, Hyderabad. One of the benefits of this cost-profit approach is that it has made various operating divisions more careful and responsibile in determining their training needs and in selecting personnel for various development programmes because they have to pay for development programmes offered by MDG. Since MDG levies a cancellation charge of 100 per cent for less than 15 days' notice on persons dropping out on account of personal reasons, people have become more disciplined and drop-out rates have fallen considerably from about 30 per cent initially to about 5 per cent. Besides providing training to internal personnel, MDG also undertakes outside consultancy which provides it first-hand experience of other organisations which is used in its training inputs.

External Agencies

Besides in-company organisation of management development programme, there are various agencies which organise such programmes in which participants from different companies participate. These agencies may be grouped into three categories on the basis of geographical areas from which participants come to the programmes. These are all-India level institutes, local management associations and productivity councils, and universities and other academic institutes.

The most prominent management development courses are offered by IIMs, Administrative Staff College, and Management Development Institute. Besides, All India Management Association also conducts programmes on all-India basis. These institutes conduct programmes mostly relevant for senior and higher-level managers. The programmes cover a variety of fields ranging from different functional areas to the development of specific skills. Their emphasis is on cross-fertilisation of ideas. The programmes run by local management associations and productivity councils are attended by local participants and those from nearby areas. Usually, such programmes are organised for junior-level managers. Universities having management departments and other institutes offering management courses offer management development programmes mostly for local and nearby participants. Duration of such programmes is comparatively much shorter and the programmes have educational orientation.

Since in-company development programmes are tailor-made and outside programmes are uniform for different organisations, making effective use of the latter requires several considerations. Since these programmes have very wide variation in terms of their cost, content, quality, and duration, an organisation should determine three aspects before taking the advantage of these. These are selection of programme and agency, nomination of participants, and use of trained personnel.

Selection of Programme and Agency. The first basic issue that comes to consideration is the programme in which participants should be sent to training. Usually, this must be linked with the need of training to a participant in the light of the process of identifying training needs as discussed earlier. Another relevant issue in this context is the choice of agency which imparts such a training. Here, we find wide variation as mentioned above. While the agencies

offering programmes on all-India basis have excellent track records, these programmes are quite costly which may be a deterent factor for smaller organisations. Therefore, the choice is between quality and cost.

Nomination of Participants. Another issue relevant in this context is the nomination of participants in a programme. In many cases, the nomination of participants is not governed by objective criteria but many subjective criteria enter into decision making. For example, Ritesh Agrawal, a manager in a leading textile company observes that, "in most organisations, including those who swear by continual development of their employees, the selection of participants in training programme, somehow, is not strictly based on proper training need assessment tools or even identified needs as per a systematic performance management system. Rather, it tends to be influenced by various reasons. largely the wrong ones."18 These reasons may be to show favour to one against another, nominating personnel based on seniority, not nominating a right person as he may be too busy in the organisational work, and so on. These reasons often result in wrong nominations. In order to make effective use of outside training programmes, the nomination should be based on certain objective criteria, though these may appear harsh to those who are denied nominations. Such objective criteria may be developed on the basis of mutual exercise by HR department and operative department from where the nominees are to be selected and nominees' needs for training.

Use of Trained Personnel. Though it may appear to be somewhat funny issue for most of the organisations as how to use newly-trained person because they would like to use the person in the manner in which they were using in pre-training stage. However, it has some serious implications. When the person returns from the training, he would like to use the knowledge and skills which he must have acquired through the training. But he may find that these are not workable in the old pattern of working. In this situation, either he may develop negative feeling towards the training or towards the organisation. In fact, there are instances in which the performance of personnel trained by outside agencies has gone down because of this mismatch. Therefore, the organisation should make itself ready to take the advantage of trained personnel by creating right environment.

ONSIDERING FACTORS IN T&D EFFECTIVENESS

Whether training and development programme is conducted in-house or by an outside agency, those factors should be considered adequately which affect the effectiveness of a training and development programme. These factors are as follows:

- Learning principles.
- 2. Pedagogy and andragogy.
 - 3. Characteristics of trainees.
- 4. Characteristics of trainers.

¹⁸Ritesh Agrawal, "Nonsensical Nominations", The Economic Times, August 30, 1999.

Learning Principles

Training and development endeavours to induce learning, a relatively enduring Training and development endeavours to induct the principles help to design change in knowledge, skills, and attitudes. Learning principles help to design change in knowledge, skills, and attitudes. Bearing training and development programmes in a more effective manner. Learning principles are as follows:

principles are as follows:

1. Conditions of Practice. For maximum learning, active practice of skills to 1. Conditions of Practice. For maximum realists to the point where the task be acquired is necessary. Practice should continue to the point where the task be acquired is necessary. Practice should contributed practice seesions are can be performed successfully several times. Distributed practice seesions are more effective than massed practice, a fact often ignored in training and development programmes for the sake of expediency.

2. Knowledge of Results. Every trainee wants to know what is expected of him and how well he is doing in the light of this expectation. Knowledge of results affects learning in two ways: (i) It provides the trainee a basis for correcting his errors. (ii) It has motivational effect on the trainee; once he comes to know what is right, his tendency to repeat it is strengthened.

3. Relevance of Material. Material that is relevant to trainees is more easily understood and learned. Material can be made meaningful by providing an overview of how the training and development fits the job and how the training and development sequences fit together.

4. Transfer of Learning. How learning can be transferred to the job is the critical issue in any training and development programme because adequate emphasis is not placed on how newly-learned behaviour can be applied on the job. This happens in the case of those concepts which are new to the organisation concerned. In such a case, applying new concepts in the old work situation faces resistance from various quarters. Therefore, the trainees must be trained in how to overcome this resistance.

Pedagogy and Andragogy

There are two groups of theories of learning and teaching-pedagogy and andragogy. These are based on two models of man. Pedagogy is based on mechanistic model of man in which the man is regarded as passive and reactive organism. Activity in him is viewed as the result of external forces. According to this model, the purpose of education is viewed as transmission of knowledge and skills and shaping the individual to a pre-determined mould. As a consequence, pedagogy emphasises designing the content of learning in advance. Thus, in the training and development programme, the trainer decides about knowledge and skill contents, arranges these into logical units, selects the most appropriate means for transmitting them (lectures, films, tapes, laboratory exercises, etc.) and plans them to present these units in a sequence to trainees. While pedagogical approach finds its full relevance in education in general, it has very limited role in training and development.

Andragogy is an organic approach to learning and is based on organic man model. In this model, a man is regarded as an inherently organic organism the source of acts rather than the collection of acts initiated by the external forces. According to this model, the purpose of education is the continuous development of individuals towards their full potential. As a consequence,

andragogy's emphasis is on the significance of processes over products and on qualitative change over quantitative change. It puts emphasis on the role of qualitation of development. Containing the role of development rather than role of training experience of development. Contemporary human resource development efforts are based on andragogy. The andragogical teacher (generally known as facilitator, change agent, and so on) prepares a set of procedures for involving learners comprising the following aspects:

Establishing a climate conducive to learning.

Creating a mechanism for mutual planning.

Diagnosing the needs for learning. 3.

Formulating programme objectives and contents to satisfy learning 4. needs.

Designing a pattern of learning experiences in which the learner can examine the implications of his behaviour, experiment with changed behaviour, and finally reflect his experience.

6. Evaluating the learning outcomes and redesigning learning needs.

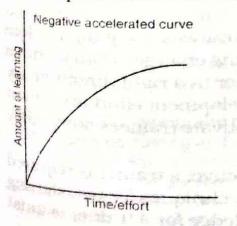
characteristics of Trainees

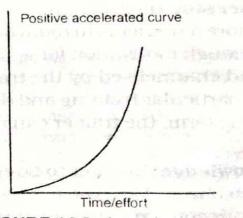
While designing and implementing a training and development programme, characteristics of the trainees should be kept in mind. Even if training and development needs remaining the same for a group of trainees, their learning may differ because of individual differences in the form of learnability (ability to learn) and motivation to learn. Rate of learning by individuals is expressed through learning curve.

Learning Curve. If the progress of learning is recorded on a graph in terms of time or efforts, the resultant curve is known as learning curve. Thus, for plotting a learning curve, two variables are required—learning as an independent variable and time or effort as dependent variable. In learning curve, independent variable may be elimination of a negative behaviour or inculcation of a positive behaviour. There may be three types of learning curves:

1. Negative accelerated curve which is formed when learning is not difficult in beginning and learning progresses easily. This shows rise from the beginning.

2. Positive accelerated curve which is formed when learning is difficult in beginning. Therefore, the progress in learning is at slow pace at the initial stage, and its speed increases after adjustment.





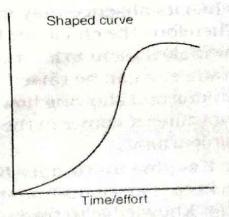


FIGURE 14.8: Learning curves

3. S-shaped curve which is formed when the progress of learning is at slow pace, averages thereafter, and slows again. S-shaped curve may take the form of plateau curve at the upper end of S shape in which the rate of learning becomes very slow or negligible. This may be due to a number factors like learner's attitudes towards learning, lack of curiosity, lack of motivation to learn, or environmental impact like incomprehensive learning material, demotivating environment, etc.

The three types of learning curves have been shown in Figure 14.8.

The three types of learning curves have been learning and development: Learning curve has following implications for training and development: 1. Rate of learning may vary with individuals; some may be fast learners.

others may be slow learners. In the present fast-changing environment, there is a need for converting slow learners into fast learners.

2. Shape of a learning curve and pace of learning are not entirely dependent on trainees' learnability and motivation but are affected by a number of organisational factors like learning and development culture, the way training and development programmes are organised, and the types of reinforcement provided to the trainees. The organisation can make suitable amendments in these to make them conducive for learning.

3. In every organisation, there may be some plateaued employees who do not learn beyond a certain point. The organisation should decide what to do

with such employees.

Characteristics of Trainers

Characteristics of trainers are quite important variable affecting outcomes of training and development programmes. In the present environment, a trainer has to face many challenges which are of the following nature:

1. Creating Learning Environment. Learning takes place in an environment. If this environment is conducive, learning takes place effectively. In its absence, learning is affected adversely irrespective of the high quality learning materials. Learning environment with high pressure increases the likelihood of stress and has negative impact on learning while environment with features of support, cohesion, and affiliation has positive impact on learning. A trainer can create conducive environment by developing rapport with trainers, developing empathy with them to look at the problem from their point of view, and providing opportunity for open communication and discussion.

2. **Motivating Trainees.** Motivation to learn quickens the process of learning while its absence may either stop the learning or slow the process of learning. Therefore, the challenge before a trainer is to motivate trainees adequately before he makes them to learn. Though motivation for learning emerges from within a trainee, it can be raised and channelised by the trainer in a right direction. By linking and showing how a particular training and development effort is relevant for learning.

3. **Keeping up-to-date Knowledge.** In order to be effective, a trainer is required to keep himself up-to-date in terms of knowledge and techniques for transferring that knowledge to trainees. Keeping up-to-date knowledge for a trainer is must

because in the fast-changing environment of today, not only rapid changes because in the trainer is not well a solution of today, not only rapid changes are taking place in knowledge but also in techniques through which knowledge is transferred. If the trainer is not well equipped with such knowledge and is transier. he will become more stale than the trainees themselves and he will techniques. This ineffectiveness will make the whole training and development programme ineffective.

development Trainees of Diverse Nature. Though trainees participate in a 4. Hard and development programme as a group member, their background is quite heterogeneous. This happens more so if the programme covers cross functional areas. Trainees may differ in terms of their educational background with each discipline providing a different basis for measuring effectiveness, in terms of their functional areas with each functional area emphasising on a specific way of working, in terms of personality, attitudes, and other personality constructs. In such a heterogeneous group, the trainer faces the problem of keeping the group members together and concentrating the focus of the trainees to the real issues of training and development. Therefore, the trainer should have personal wisdom to achieve this objective.

5. Delivering Knowledge according to Requirements of Trainees. A training and development programme is relatively more successful when the trainer delivers knowledge in a way that appeals the trainees. While using too many jorgans and technical terms may appear to be sophisticated and highly placed from the trainer's point of view, these may appear to make no sense from the trainees' point of view, if they do not develop adequate understanding in them. Therefore, the trainer is required to match the requirements of the trainees

rather than boasting himself with alien jorgans and terms.

6. Providing Non-threatening Feedback. A trainer is required to provide feedback to the trainees either individually to everyone or in the group. Feedback relates to how the trainees have performed in learning. Providing a positive feedback is easy because everyone is pleased with this but providing negative feedback is really a tedious job because it may be perceived by the trainees as a reflection on their abilities. Therefore, the trainer has to provide such a feedback in the most non-threatening way by creating a congenial environment and developing interpersonal trust with trainees. He may also impress the trainees how they can overcome their deficiencies and make themselves more skilled.

In facing the above challenges, the trainer has to work as a friend, a facilitator, an expert and a feedback provider, rather than imposing and boasting his knowledge unnecessarily.

Exhibit 14.5 shows training and development programmes undertaken by Tata Iron and Steel Company Limited (TISCO).

EXHIBIT 14.5: Training and development at TISCO

TISCO takes up training and development activities in an integrated way which include all levels of employees. It has its own training centre named as 'TISCO Management Development Centre' (TMDC). Besides, its personnel are trained at Tata Management Training Centre (TMTC) at Pune and outside specialised institutions like Administrative Staff College of India and Indian Institutes of Management. Training needs of various levels of employees are assessed on the basis of

manpower planning and deliberations between training manager and concerned line managers manpower planning and deliberations between training manager and employees for assessing training needs. Discussions are also held between training manager and employees for assessing training needs. Keeping in view the large number of its employees and their training needs, TISCO organises

Keeping in view the large number of its employees and the development courses, (2) the following types of training programmes: (1) 4-tier management development courses, (2) the following types of training programmes: (1) 2-tier table courses, (4) need-based seminary the following types of training programmes: (1) 4-ties files, (2) need-based seminars, (3) functional and cross-functional courses, (3) orientation courses are meant for junior manages, (5) functional and cross-functional courses, (3) offerhalion body are meant for junior management lecture meetings, and (6) evening programmes. These courses are various courses on the courses of the course of the course of the course of the courses of the course of the cour lecture meetings, and (6) evening programmes. These solutions are various courses on technical level, management trainees, and supervisors. Besides there are various courses on technical level, management trainees, and supervisors. Besides and controls, systems analysis, etc. In these aspects like maintenance, production techniques and controls, systems analysis, etc. In these aspects like maintenance, production techniques and an agement development programmes programmes, only technical people are taken. Four-tier management development programmes are normally run on the following lines:

6-day supervisory development course for assistant foremen and foremen 6-day senior supervisory development course for assistant general forement

general foremen, assistant engineers/engineers. Tier-II

12-day management development course for heads and assistant heads Tier-III

of departments.

5-day senior management courses for senior executives

The company offers refresher courses for supervisors, senior supervisors, and managers. The duration of these courses is for three days. Functional and cross functional courses are offered in the areas of materials management, systematic management, work simplification, job safety, etc. There are occasional programmes on specific areas like manpower planning, performance appraisal, etc. In addition, need-based seminars, panel discussions, and film-aided discussions are also held. Senior managers are also sent for training at TMTC, Administrative Staff College of India, Indian Institutes of Management. However, more preference is given to TMTC, a training centre established by Tata-group companies.

Evaluation of Training and Development

Evaluation of training and development is the last stage in training and development activities. Evaluation of training and development involves assessing whether it is achieving its objectives; it is effective or not. However, it is very difficult to measure the effectiveness of training and development because of its abstract nature and long-term impact on the trainees and the organisation. There cannot be any concrete quantitative proof of effectiveness of training and development; at best, there can be some qualitative measures. However, training and development effectiveness can be evaluated more meaningfully if the following process is adopted: training and development objectives. fixation of evaluation criteria based on these objectives, collection of information relevant to evaluation of training and development, and analysis of information.

1. Training and Development Objectives. Training and development plays role in several areas. Therefore, its contributions can be measured in these. However, to be more precise, training and development objectives should be fixed in clear terms because all training and development programmes do not contribute in all areas. Hamblin has classified training and development objectives into four categories 19: reaction objectives—intended to stimulate a high level of involvement and interest; learning objectives—concerned with acquiring knowledge. skills and attitudes; job behaviour objectives—learning to bring about desired changes in job behaviour; and organisational objectives-

¹⁹A.C. Hamblin, Evaluation and Control of Training, New York: McGraw-Hill, 1974, p. 8.

intended to promote overall results. Since a particular training and development programme emphasises on a particular objective or multiple objectives, its selecprogram will be governed by the objectives of training and development. At the same tion with these objectives can be used for evaluation of training and development also. 2 Evaluation Criteria. Fixing evaluation criteria for evaluating effectiveness of training and development is the most trouble some work because these enteria are based on objectives of training and development which are of multiple nature as discussed above. Therefore, it is more convenient to consider two enteria for evaluating training and development: internal and external. Internal criteria are associated with the content of a training and development programme. (There are many approaches for determining internal criteria discussed later in this chapter.) External criteria are related to the ultimate objective of training and development, often expressed in terms of cost-benefit analysis (discussed later).

3. Collection of Information. After fixing the factors to be measured and enteria fixed in respect of these, evaluator has to collect the relevant information which may be helpful in arriving at certain conclusions. Information can be collected on the basis of facts like production records, cost controls, etc. This may be used for measuring the achievement of ultimate objectives of training. For measuring immediate objectives, information may be collected on various aspects through observation of employee's behaviour on job. conducting interview, and administering psychological tests to unearth behavioural changes which cannot be observed or which cannot be measured by interview. Often multiple sources of information should be used for more reliability.

4. Analysis. Collected information can be analysed to interpret the impact of training on various aspects, and consequently its effectiveness. If a particular aspect is being affected by several factors, the analysis may be carried out further to identify the contribution of training and development. Two points are important in information collection and its analysis. First, information to measure the immediate impact of training and development should be collected immediately after training because employees may tend to observe the old behaviour even after training if the new behaviour is not gratifying due to various organisational constraints. Second, there should be feedback of such evaluation to employees concerned so that they are also able to know the results of their training.

INTERNAL CRITERIA FOR TRAINING AND DEVELOPMENT EVALUATION

There are many approaches for evaluating training and development effectiveness like Uirle-Patrick approach. CIRO approach, and CIPP approach. Besides, several companies have developed their own approaches for evaluating training and development effectiveness. Discussion of the three approaches is presented below.

Uirle-Patrick Approach

This approach involves four levels of evaluation and answers to four questions :

Questions Level

Reaction Were the participants pleased with the programme? What did the participants learn from the programme? Behaviour Did the participants change their behaviour

based on what was learned?

Results Did the change in behaviour positively affect the

organisation?

CIRO Approach

This approach gives importance to training and development evaluation in terms of context, input, reaction, and output (CIRO).

Context Evaluation. It involves collecting of information about performance deficiency and setting objectives with three levels—immediate, intermediate, and ultimate.

Immediate Objective: New knowledge, skills, and attitudes required to reach intermediate objective.

Intermediate Objective: Change in employees work balance necessary for ultimate objective.

Ultimate Objective: Particular deficiency in the organisation that will be eliminated.

Input Evaluation. For evaluating the input of training and development, following questions are put:

1. What are the relative merits and demerits of different training and development methods?

2. Is it feasible for an outside agency to conduct the programme more effectively?

3. Should it be organised with the internal resources?

4. Should the line managers be involved in the programme?

5. How much time is available for training and development programme?

6. What results were obtained when a similar programme was conducted in the past?

Reaction Evaluation. This includes subjective reports from the participants about the whole programme and contains questions about training and development materials, instructors, pedagogy, presentation, facilities, etc.

Outcome Evaluation. This includes the following aspects:

1. Defining training and development objectives.

2. Constructing measures of these objectives.

3. Assessing the results and using them to improve future programmes.

CIPP Approach

This approach takes context, input, process, and product (CIPP) for evaluation. Context evaluation-Involves evaluation of training and development

needs analysis and formulating objectives in the light of these needs.

Input evaluation—Involves evaluation of determining policies, budget, schedules, and procedures for organising programme.

Process evaluation—Involves evaluation of preparation of reaction sheets.

rating scales, and analysis of relevant records.

Product evaluation—Involves measuring and interpreting the attainment of training and development objectives.

COST-BENEFIT ANALYSIS FOR TRAINING AND DEVELOPMENT

Internal evaluation criteria put emphasis on measuring output of training and development and do not take cost involved in it. Since organisations are emphasising to create and sustain competitive advantage based on the quality of human resources, they are spending lot of money on training and development. For example, Infosys Technologies, an IT major, spends four per cent of its employee cost annually on training and development; employee cost being the major cost for an IT company. Similar is the case with other companies in IT sector as well as in other sectors. However, in many cases, this much of investment in training and development has no commensurate return. For example, Broad and Newstrom observe that "more often than not, investment in training and development is wasted because most of the knowledge and skills aimed in training are not fully applied by those employees on the job."20 Baldwin and Ford have estimated that "not more than 10 per cent of training and development expenditure actually results in transfer to the job."21 Since training and development cost is increasing in every successive year, there is a need for measuring training and development effectiveness in terms of cost involved and benefits derived. In fact, cost-benefit analysis is being applied in many of the areas whose outcomes are not quantifiable like information systems, social services undertaken by organisations, etc. Cost-benefit analysis for training and development is undertaken to determine whether costs involved in training and development are offset by its benefits. Cost-benefit analysis involves determination of costs and benefits of training and development and making comparison between the two.

Costs of Training and Development

Training and development costs can be divided into one-time costs involved in creating facilities for training and development and on-going costs involved in implementing training and development programmes. Table 14.4 shows various costs of training and development.

Table 14.4: Costs of training and development

Facilities

Classrooms

Laboratories

Offices

Libraries

Equipment

Laboratory equipment

Training devices

Computer

Personnel

Managers

Office personnel

Instructors

Programme designers

Consultants

Artists

Evaluators

Materials

Books and magazines Slides/tapes/films

Stationery

²⁰M.L. Broad and J.W. Newstrom. Transfer of Training, Reading, Mass.: Addison-Wesley, 1997.

²¹T.T. Baldwin and J.K. Ford, "Transfer of Training: A Review and Directions for Future Research", *Personnel Psychology*, Vol. 41 (2), 1988.

The above costs are involved when an organisation operates its own training and development centre. When the organisation does not have such a centre, it can measure costs of training and development in terms of costs of sending its employees to be trained by outside agencies.

Benefits of Training and Development

Training and development offers several benefits. These can be expressed in terms of training and development outcomes and operational outcomes. Table 14.5 presents both types of outcomes.

Table 14.5: Outcomes of training and development

Training and development outcomes	Operational outcomes
Attitudinal change	Increased productivity
Skill development	Increased sales volume
High morale	Increased customer satisfaction
Higher job satisfaction	Decreased turnover rate
Higher motivatin	Decreased absenteeism
Increased organisational flexibility	Decreased plant failure

It can be mentioned that training and development outcomes lead to operational outcomes. From the organisation's point of view, some of the operational outcomes are intervening variables like increased customer satisfaction, decreased turnover rate, and so on which contribute to top line growth (increased sales volume) and bottom line growth (increased profit). Generally, bottom line growth is taken as the basis for matching costs and benefits of training and development.

Break-even Analysis for Training and development

Break-even analysis for training and development shows the relationship between training and development costs and its operational outcomes, both measured in monetary terms per trained employee per annum. Break-even point in break-even analysis shows the point at which per employee training and development costs equal to per employee value addition. For calculating costs, fixed costs and operating costs are added together. In this case, depreciation and interest on investment required for setting up training and development centre are taken into account. Ideally speaking, an organisation should devise its training and development system in such a way that it operates above the break-even point or, al least, at the break-even point. If it is operating below the break-even point, it must have a re-look at its entire training and development system.

Key Concepts

Andragogy
Apprenticeship
Brainstorming
Challenges to trainers
Coaching
Cost-benefit analysis of T&D

Mentoring
Pedagogy
Role playing
Sensitivity training
Simulation training
Syndicate

Training and Development Evaluation criteria In-basket exercise

Job rotation Learning curve Learning principles

Management game

Training and development evaluation Training and development methods Training and development objectives Transactional analysis Understudy Vestibule training

DISCUSSION QUESTIONS

1. How does training differ from development? Discuss the role of training and development in the present business environment.

What are the four stages of training and development? Identify the

critical issues involved in each of these stages?

3. "Assessing training and development needs is one of the most important aspects in effective training and development system." Discuss this statement and suggest steps for assessing training and development needs.

4. Discuss briefly various on-the-job and off-the-job training and

development methods.

5. What is simulation training? Discuss the major simulation training methods that are relevant for human resource development.

6. What is sensitivity training? What are its objectives and how is it

conducted?

7. What is transactional analysis? How does it help in improving

interpersonal behaviour?

8. "Training and development programme can be conducted either inhouse or by an external agency." Discuss this statement and compare two types of programme. What factors should be taken into consideration while nominating a person in an external training and development programme?

9. How will you evaluate effectiveness of training and development? What

criteria can be used for this purpose?

10. What is cost-benefit analysis for training and development? How will you ensure that the investment made in training and development is beneficial to the organisation?