

# 12 Training and Development

It is common knowledge that without a continuous development of employees' competencies no organisation can survive today, let alone grow or compete. To be effective every manufacturing organisation needs competent people in all areas whether they be cost reduction, reduction in delays, increased customers' satisfaction, better quality, prompt service, improved market image, and so on. Human competencies are even more critical for service organisations such as banking, rural development, health, education, etc. where one has to deal constantly with people. In short, all types of organisations which want to grow, diversify, renew, change, improve or stabilise need competent employees.

Talking specifically about India, while wage bills are bloating, quality of man power is deteriorating and while there is a surfeit of graduates, their employability is low, due to poor skills. According to Asia-Pacific head of Kelly Services, the world's fourth largest recruitment company, people efficiency in India in 2007 was barely 50-60 per cent against a global average of 80-90 per cent. According to a survey by temping firm Teamlease, only one-fifth of 2 million graduates churned out by Indian universities every year are employable. Of these, only 30 per cent of IT graduates, 25 per cent of engineering graduates, 15 per cent of finance and accounting professionals and 10 per cent of other professionals are suitable to be employed in multinational companies. This, according to Teamlease, is due to knowledge and skill set gaps.<sup>1</sup> Training and executive development thus become important functions of a personnel manager. Efforts are also needed to retain employees by planning their career and satisfying their innate aspirations for growth and development in their roles. This chapter deals with all these issues in detail.

## Training, Education and Development

The terms 'training', 'education' and 'development' are closely related but their meanings have important distinctions. Training is the act of increasing the knowledge and skill of an employee for doing a *particular* job. It is concerned with imparting *specific skills* for particular purposes. On the other hand, education is concerned with increasing general knowledge and understanding of the employee's total environment. Thus, when we teach a person how to assemble two objects and tighten a nut, we are training him to do a specific job but when we are giving him a course in engineering, it is education. The distinction between the two is like the distinction between pure and applied sciences. Some more examples are given below to make this distinction clear.

- (a) A course in marketing management is education because no one specific technique or procedure is taught but certain fundamentals common to all business situations are emphasised.
- (b) A football coach who knows the theory of the game but who is utterly useless as a player is educated but not trained.
- (c) A clerk who can compute quickly and accurately the loan value of any insurance policy is no doubt trained but not necessarily educated also for he may be unaware of the actuarial principles upon which the values are determined.
- (d) A mechanic who repairs an automobile better than an engineer is only trained and not educated for he does not know engineering education and principles.

Following are some important distinctions between training and education :

1. The content and scope of training is always specific, narrow and job-related; the content and scope of education is always broad and general.
2. Training is always applied and practical; education is usually pure and theoretical.
3. Training is of short duration; education is of long duration.
4. Training gives quick and apparent results; the results of education are not so quick and apparent. Although both training and employee development are similar in the methods used to affect

1. *Business World*, 5th May, 2008.

learning, their time frames differ. Training is more present-day oriented; its focus is on individual's current job, enhancing those specific skills and abilities to immediately perform his job. Employee development, on the other hand, generally focuses on future jobs in the organisation. As an individual's job and career progress, new skills and abilities are required. Employee development is grooming the individual for positions of greater responsibility.

### Distinction between Training and Development

- (a) The aim of training is to develop some specific skill needed by the individual on his current job. The aim of development is to develop the individual for future job.
- (b) Training is a one-shot affair. Development is a continuous process.
- (c) Training being mostly a preparation to meet an individual's present needs can be seen as a reactive process. Development being a preparation to meet his future needs can be seen as a proactive process.

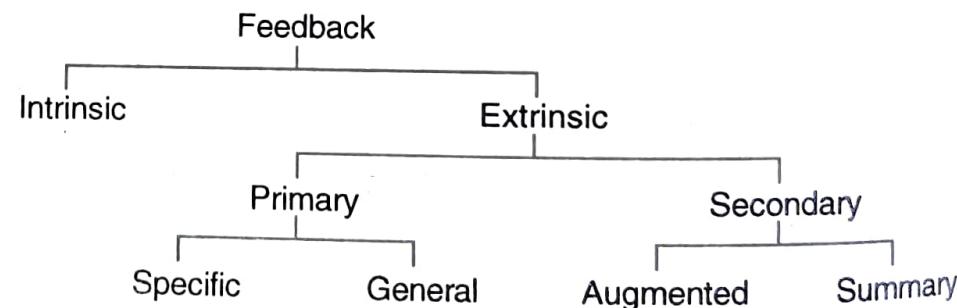
## Principles of Learning

The following principles should be followed if a training programme is to be effective:

**1. Knowledge of Results.** Every employee in a learning situation wants to know what is expected of him and how well he is doing. He seeks information, appraisal and guidance about his progress, and is made uneasy by the possibility that he may be making some serious error in his behaviour and not knowing that he is doing so. Knowledge of results affects learning in two ways : (a) It provides the trainee the basis for *correcting his error*. In some tasks as that of a crane operator, knowledge of results is mandatory for learning. (b) It produces *motivational effect* on the trainee. Once he comes to know what is right his tendency to repeat it is strengthened.

Researches on feedback have shown that : (a) Positive feedback (*i.e.*, telling the trainee what is appropriate) has a better effect than negative feedback (*i.e.*, telling him that he is not correct); (b) Delay in feedback is detrimental to learning; and (c) Trainee should not be overburdened with feedback.

Feedback can be of various types as shown in the following chart :



When feedback comes from cues internal to the organism it is called internal feedback. When it comes from cues external to the organism it is called extrinsic feedback. For example, in target shooting the feeling that one has shot accurately may either come from cues in the body (such as contraction of muscles, etc.) or from cues outside the body (such as the hole made by the bullet in the target). In the first case it is intrinsic feedback, in the second it is extrinsic feedback. Extrinsic feedback can be either primary or secondary. It is secondary if some one else has collected it. Thus in our example of target shooting if the learner himself determines his success or failure in hitting the target it is primary feedback. But if he is given feedback by the trainer or some one else it is secondary feedback. Primary feedback can be specific (if it pinpoints the errors) or general (if it does not do so).

Secondary feedback can be augmented (if it is given simultaneously with the performance, e.g., the trainer exclaiming 'fine' simultaneously with the shooting) or summary (if it is given some time after the performance).

**2. Motivation.** A motivated worker learns better than an unmotivated one. Until the worker has become convinced of the need of training and of the worthwhileness of the returns the level of motivation will be low and learning will be perfunctory and slow.

**3. Reinforcement.** In order for behaviour to be acquired, modified and sustained, it must be rewarded (reinforced). But reward should be distributed cautiously or discreetly. Praising an inefficient and poor learner may disappoint the good trainees.

Principle of reinforcement also states that punishment is less effective in learning than reward. Punishment tends to fix the undesirable behaviour rather than to eliminate it. It may also develop in the trainee a dislike for the punishment-giver. However, mild punishment is quite effective if administered immediately following the incorrect response. Similarly, fairly immediate reinforcement (reward) should be provided for desirable behaviour.

**4. Supporting Climate and Practice.** Learning is best accomplished by doing. Practice makes a man perfect. Once a reporter asked a great musician how he (the musician) had achieved perfection. And the reply was : "Simple, I practise daily. If I miss one day, I feel the difference. If I miss two days, my critics feel the difference. And if I miss 3 days my audience feels the difference." In order that the trainee may not revert back to the old behaviour it is essential that he practises the new learning daily. The internal environment of many organisations is hostile to this. Too often the trainee is not able to implement in his work place what he has learned during the training session.

**5. Part Versus Whole Learning.** This controversial issue is concerned with whether it is more efficient to practise a whole task all at once, or whether sub-tasks or component tasks should be mastered first before integrating them into whole task performance. In a comprehensive literature review, Naylor<sup>1</sup> found that the answer to this question seemed to depend on the characteristics of the tasks which the trainees were attempting to master. Tasks were seen to differ in complexity (the difficulty of each of the separate task component viewed individually) and organisation (the extent to which such tasks are interrelated). Naylor then suggested the following training principles :

Given a task of relatively high organisation, as task complexity is increased whole task training should become relatively more efficient than the part task methods.

Given a task of relatively low organisation, an increase in task complexity should result in part methods becoming relatively superior to the whole task training.

**6. Transfer of Learning.** Transfer of learning from the training situation to the job would depend upon the extent to which there are identical elements in the two. Thus, if the devices and facilities used in training are similar to the devices and facilities used on the job (a phenomenon called 'physical fidelity') and if the human elements involved in the training are similar to those on the job (a phenomenon called 'psychological fidelity') there would be positive transfer of learning. This means that the trained employee by virtue of his training would display superior performance on the job to untrained individual. But if the physical and psychological fidelities are wanting there would be negative transfer of learning. This means that the trained employee would display inferior performance on the job.

Although one can easily ensure physical fidelity in a training programme it is not always easy to ensure psychological fidelity. For example, an employee on return from the training programme to the factory may find that his supervisor is a very different kind of person from the perhaps, encouraging, understanding training director or his working group is less friendly. The impact of such differences can be controlled to some extent by taking the following steps:

1. Naylor, J.C. : *Parameters affecting the relative efficiency of part and whole practice methods : A review of the literature*, United States Naval Training Devices Centre, Technical Report No. 950-1, February 1962.

First, transfer at least two trainees to the same section. The support they can give each other is vital to their morale.

Second, let the production supervisor be involved with the training programme and have relations with the training director.

Third, on the day of transfer, let the trainer accompany the trainees to their new section, stay with them a little while and check them at regular intervals for some time subsequently.

## Training

### Responsibility for Training

Normally, the personnel department of an organisation is entrusted with the training function. But the existence of this department does not relieve the line managers of training responsibilities. Personnel department cannot do the whole job or even the main job. Training is the function of every line executive, manager and supervisor. The personnel department can no doubt:

- sell the idea of training as vital force in the organisation and develop an atmosphere conducive to sound manpower development,
- devise, recommend and execute strong policies for training and education,
- administer desired programmes,
- manage the training facilities, and
- carry out continuous study, analysis and evaluation of the organisation's training needs and current training programme. But the decision to train and the authority behind the training must come from the line manager because it is he who continually shapes the behaviour of his people all day and every day—whether consciously or unconsciously, by his actions and beliefs. Learning inevitably takes place when people watch him doing a job or behaving in a particular manner.

### Training Policy

It is always essential for an organisation, whether big or small, to have a comprehensive training policy which should incorporate details on the following points :

1. Place of training in company management.
2. Objectives which are to be covered in company training.
3. Determination of training needs.
4. Selection of trainees and trainers.
5. Training forms and methods for operatives.
6. Evaluation of training programme.

Each of the above points is described below.

#### *Place of Training in Company Management*

Some organisations regard training as unnecessary. They think that cost of training is high and not worth it. In these organisations training is accorded a low status and is treated as a *peripheral activity*. The budget for training is also kept very low. Trainees are selected casually and at random without any objective standards. Training opportunities are doled out to employees as a reward for their good behaviour or for long service or to get relief for some time from a trouble-making employee. This policy lowers employee morale and fails to produce any good results. Another variant of this policy are those organisations where training is treated merely as a showpiece to look modern. In these organisations training is more decorative than functional.

Some organisations treat training as a *device to overcome certain specific problems*. Here training is accepted as desirable when clear-cut need is identified. Typically, the training in this case is a course with a definite, limited objective; once given, the effort is discontinued.

Finally, there are only few organisations which regard training as a *continuous strategic activity*. These organisations understand that due to several reasons such as advanced technology, work design, mergers and acquisitions, outsourcing, workforce diversity, etc. training has emerged as a *continuous strategic activity*, which means that in order to remain competitive today one must learn more, learn it faster and learn continuously. In fact, learning must become a part of organisation's culture. Prof. M. Senge calls such organisations *Learning Organisations*.

The above view about training and development is known as the *Strategic Management View*. It regards training as an investment in human capital and a *strategy* which cannot be copied by others. To achieve this it is necessary that the organisation has a clear corporate strategy and all training efforts are tailored to its demand.

Miles and Snow<sup>1</sup> explain the above point by giving the examples of different skills which two different types of corporate business strategy need. Read the following table.

**Linkage between Strategy, Staffing and Training Practices**

Type of Business Strategy	Characteristics	HRM Requirements	Staffing and Training Practices
1. Defender Compete on the basis of low price and high quality; stable environment	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>— Functional structure</li> <li>— Division of labour</li> <li>— Long-term perspective</li> <li>— Limited product line</li> <li>— Emphasis on technical skill, process engineering and cost control</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>— Skill specialisation</li> <li>— Emphasis on production and cost control</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>— In-house training in production and finance functions</li> <li>— High amount of training</li> </ul>
2. Prospector Compete on the basis of new markets and new products, unstable environment.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>— Product or geographically divisionalised structure</li> <li>— Decentralised</li> <li>— Low formalisation</li> <li>— Emphasis on product/ market innovation</li> <li>— Diverse product lines</li> <li>— Multiple technologies</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>— Skill flexibility</li> <li>— Skill in product research</li> <li>— Innovative skill</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>— External staffing</li> <li>— Training in market research and development</li> <li>— Low amount of training</li> </ul>

### Need and Objectives

The major objectives of training are as follows:

1. To familiarise the employee with the company's culture.
2. To enable the employee to do new jobs and prevent his skills from becoming obsolete.
3. To increase the employee's quantity and quality of output and services to customers.
4. To prepare the employee for promotion to higher jobs. Opportunity for upward mobility reduces turnover.
5. To reduce supervision, wastage and accidents.
6. To build second line of workers.
7. To teach the employee how to adjust better with different members of his role set.

### Determining Training Needs

In order to determine the training needs of an organisation the personnel manager should seek information on the following points :

- (a) Whether training is needed?
- (b) Where training is needed?

1. Miles, R.E. and C.C. Snow 1984, "Designing Strategic Human Resource Systems," *Organisational Dynamics*, Vol. 13, No. 1, pp. 36-52.

*Whether training is needed?* Early hints that training is necessary probably result from problems such as :

- standards of work performance not being met;
- accidents;
- excessive scrap;
- frequent need for equipment repair;
- high rate of transfer and turnover;
- too many low ratings on employee evaluation reports;
- many people using different methods to do the same job;
- excessive fatigue, fumbling, struggling with the job;
- bottlenecks and deadlines not being met;
- ignorance about policies, procedures and rules;
- gender and culture conflict;
- lack of team spirit.

Various sources from which evidence of training needs may be gathered are :

- (a) Organisational analysis of strategic initiatives;
- (b) Job analysis or job descriptions and specifications; and
- (c) Person analysis done through:

1. Informal observation
2. Performance appraisals
3. Suggestion system
4. Group discussion
5. Questionnaire to trainees or to supervisors
6. Morale surveys
7. Tests
8. Interviews with union officials
9. Selection or exit interview
10. Analysis of reports relating to costs, turnover, grievance's etc.
11. Employee counselling.

*Where Training is Needed?* Once the need for training has been established in terms of the gap between the current and desired level of proficiency of each individual, the second step lies in stating the *areas needing training*. These areas may be:

Knowledge — for the person who does not know (for instance, the knowledge of company's policies and practices, sales process, product information' etc.). See Box.

Many consumer product organisations are now realising that it is simply not enough for their sales teams to obtain commitment to buy from the key decision-maker. Besides there being several legal and accounting hassles there are also chances of this decision being vetoed by some body. Delays in the execution of purchase may occur due to several reasons such as the head of the purchasing department who needs to sign the purchasing order is on a long leave or sadly little understands the order or harangues over the price or does not know how to buy if it is something which he has never bought before. Hence the sales team needs to be trained in :

- Identifying blocks and delays in sales executions;
- Establishing the authority for making a buying decision;
- Writing and reviewing (with the customer contact) a formal document describing exactly how the decision to buy is made and exactly how it will get executed; and
- Building a customer road map for the future.

- Skill — for the person who knows but cannot do (for instance, the skill required for communication, for selling products).
- Attitude — for the person who does not care (for instance, the attitude toward safety, authority, etc.).
- Habits — for the person who knows, can do, cares but just has not made the desired behaviour part of his daily routine.
- Understanding — for the person who is not properly motivated to accept what he is told. The result hoped for is the removal of the person's tendency to block, delay or fail to cooperate with certain people.

### *Selection of Trainees and Trainers*

Although it is true that in selecting persons for training a company generally gives primary consideration to its own benefits and secondary consideration to the benefits accruing to the individual, yet the standards used for selecting training programme participants should be carefully devised and communicated widely throughout the organisation. Training a person who has no ability and willingness to learn is like sending an ass to college. All one can hope to get back is an educated mule.

Whenever an individual is sponsored for training he should be told categorically the reasons for sponsoring him and the expectations of the organisation from him after he returns from the programme. Most companies do not inform the employees why they have been sponsored; such a practice reduces learning, as the employees sponsored are more concerned about the reasons for being sponsored than actually getting involved in and benefiting from the training.

A very important decision connected with the selection of trainees is the determination of the number. This can be arrived at thus :

$$\text{Number of persons to be trained} = \frac{\text{Number required at some future date}}{\text{Number to be recruited from outside}} - \text{Number available internally after taking into account the possible wastage due to deaths, retirements, resignations, transfers and dropouts taking place during the course of training.}$$

Selection of trainers is as important as the selection of trainees. In a two-day technical training programme for engineers of an IT company, the external faculty was an average communicator and even below average in subject-matter expertise as it became evident in the company's evaluation form. The result was that on the afternoon of the first day, a bunch of engineers walked out of the training, never to come back again and the second day had only the trainer and the training manager in the room!

### *Forms of Training*

New forms of work and organisational structure and changes in the business environment have thrown up some *special forms* of training programmes. Thus, we have:

*Team Training* in which a group of individuals is taught about team building, problem solving, group decision making, trusts building, conflict management, etc. when working in a group.

*Diversity Training* in which individuals are taught to effectively deal with problems arising out of sex, religion, and culture differences. They are made to change their stereotypes, improve communication and work relationships and remove employment discrimination.

*Induction or Orientation Training* in which a new employee is included in the social setting of his work.

*Promotional Training* in which an employee is imparted training to acquire competencies needed for the new post.

*Corrective Training* in which an erring employee is disciplined.

*Cross-cultural Training* in which an expatriate manager and his family are:

- made proficient in foreign language;
- given background information about foreign country;
- made aware of cultural norms and etiquettes of conducting business in a foreign country;
- made transcultural.

### *Training Methods for Operatives*

No simple formula defines the type of training to be given to operatives. Their skill needs, the size and traditions of the company, the abilities of trainers, the time and money available for training and the experience of the company about the training activities that have been carried on in the past, all will affect the type of training that will be most successful in a given situation. Nevertheless it will be helpful to indicate briefly the principal alternatives from which the manager may choose:

(1) **Training-on-the-job.** The most important type of training is training-on-the-job. The experience of actually doing something makes a lasting impression and has a reality that other types of training cannot provide. The worker in this method learns to master the operations involved on the actual job situation under the supervision of his immediate boss. Some important advantages of this type of training are as follows:

- (a) It can be learned in a relatively short period of time, say, a week or two.
- (b) No elaborate programme is necessary as far as subject content is concerned.
- (c) There is no line-staff conflict because the worker's own supervisor is the instructor.
- (d) It is highly economical.
- (e) It is not located in an artificial situation, either physically or psychologically and, therefore eliminates the possible problem of transfer of learning.

For training-on-the-job to be effective the personnel manager must take time to see that learning really occurs. In other words, it is necessary to make sure that the supervisor who is imparting training is trained and motivated to be a good trainer. If he views this training as burdensome and nuisance, it will produce no good effect.

A training method of carrying out on-the-job training which has been found to be of great value is known as the *Training Within Industry* (TWI) or the 'capsule method'. The method was devised in the United States during the Second World War when a large number of people had to be trained in a short period. It involves the following steps :

(a) **Preparation of the Instructor.** This includes four steps as under : (i) Have a time-table. How much skill does the instructor expect the worker to have and by what date? (ii) Break down the job. List important steps, (iii) Have everything ready—the right equipment, materials and supplies, and (iv) Have the work place properly arranged just as the worker will be expected to keep it.

(b) **How to instruct.** This includes the following four steps :

Step 1. *Prepare the worker*

- Put him at ease.
- State the job and find out what he already knows about it.
- Get him interested in learning the job.
- Place in correct position.

**Step 2. Present the operation**

- Tell, show, and illustrate one *Important Step* at a time.
- Stress each *Key Point*.
- Instruct clearly, completely, and patiently, but no more than he can master.

**Step 3. Try out performance**

- Have him do the job—correct errors.
- Have him explain each *Key Point* to you as he does the job again.
- Continue until *You know He knows*.

**Step 4. Follow-up**

- Put him on his own. Designate to whom he goes for help.
- Check frequently. Encourage questions.
- Taper off extra coaching and close follow-up.

*If the worker has not learned, the instructor has not taught.*

There are several types of training programmes which make use of on-the-job training concept. Some of them are described below :

**Job Rotation**

Also known as short-term lateral transfer, this method involves the employee being sent through different jobs, thereby providing him a wider exposure. This method has the following *advantages*:

1. The trainee acquires a more *comprehensive view* of the total organisation.
2. Inter-departmental *cooperation* develops.
3. Fresh *viewpoints* are generated by different position holders.
4. Organisational *flexibility* is promoted.
5. Objective *comparisons* between performances become possible.
6. The trainee comes to know of the job or position which *interests* him most.

**Internship Training**

This refers to a joint programme of training in which schools and business co-operate to enable the students to gain a good balance between theory and practice. Classroom principles are better understood against the practical background in a factory.

**Apprenticeship**

This training is used in those trades, crafts and technical fields in which proficiency can be acquired after a relatively long period of time in direct association with the work and under the direct supervision of experts. In India, Section 4 of the Apprenticeship Act, 1961, provides that no person can be engaged as an apprentice to undergo apprenticeship training in a designated trade unless such person or, if he is a minor, his guardian has entered into a contract of apprenticeship with the employer, and the contract of apprenticeship has been registered with the Apprenticeship Adviser.

**Vestibule School**

When the amount of on-the-job training that has to be done exceeds the capacity of the line supervisor, a portion of this training is taken away from the line and assigned to staff through a vestibule school. The responsibility to operate a vestibule school generally rests with the personnel department.

This training gets its name from the resemblance of the school to a vestibule through which one passes before entering the main room of a house. Vestibule training has the advantage of training large number of persons without hampering on-going operations. It also saves costly machines

from being damaged by mishandling of the untrained workers. Moreover, the trainee avoids the confusion and pressure of the work situation and thus is able to concentrate on learning. The only disadvantages of this type of training are that it is somewhat artificial and there is generally a line-staff conflict.

**(2) General Education Programmes.** Many companies go beyond training employees for specific job skills by offering programme of general educational content, such as courses in economics, arts, science, and so on. These courses are usually voluntary and participants usually take them on their own time. The company's rationale for such programmes is that such programmes will benefit the company in intangible ways through a change in employees' attitudes.

General education programmes rely mainly on traditional classroom methods of instruction. Sometimes the method of *programmed instruction* is also followed.<sup>1</sup>

**(3) Simulators and Training Aids.** Simulators are used to provide trainees with physical equipment that resembles to some degree the equipment that is to be used on the job. Usually such devices are used when it is impracticable for some reason to use the actual equipment (such as possible injury to the trainees or others), or when the cost of the actual equipment is excessive. Such devices may include simple mock-ups, models and prototypes or extremely complex simulators such as those used by the military services for, say, training aircraft pilots. At SAIL, training on simulators helps the operators to simulate critical conditions within the plants and develop skills to deal with those conditions in an effective manner. Training aids may include films and television, charts, blackboards, etc. Films and television are particularly appropriate in those situations where individuals cannot be made to assemble, for example, in demonstrating surgical techniques. Such techniques are more economic than several other techniques since they can be used over and over again.

A new training aid which is growing fast in western countries is the *Video disc*. It is a new method of training employees more rapidly and more enjoyably than the classroom teaching. It consists of portable video disc player, a personal computer and a video screen. The course material is contained in one or more video discs which resemble phonograph records. To take a typical use of this technology, a mechanic who needs to know more about carburetors can get a close-up of an engine on the screen and then use a light pen to simulate what he would do with a vacuum gauge and screw to get the engine tuned. As he adjusts the carburetor, he hears the engine noise changing. When he thinks he has it right, he touches a certain spot on the screen and the computer either congratulates him or sends him back to where he made a mistake.

### *Evaluation of the Training Programme*

This has been described under the Executive Development section below.

## Executive Development

### Need and Objectives

Although it is true that an executive is developed not so much by others as by himself yet a personnel manager needs to organise executive development programmes:

1. to prevent skill obsolescence;
2. to satisfy innate aspiration for growth and development;

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1. Under this method all the material related to a subject is divided into small parts called frames. A student can master each frame at his own pace without the help of a teacher. The student gets immediate feedback on his grasp or lack of grasp of the material as he reads it. There are two main kinds of these programmes : linear and branching. In linear programming one has to learn various frames in a given sequence. In branching programming on reaching specific points, one can move on to other frames of his choice breaking their strict sequence.

3. to provide second line of executives;
4. to meet shortage of executive talent;
5. to create an environment in which self-development is stimulated and facilitated; and
6. to impart awareness about diverse life styles, attitudes, and etiquettes of people in other countries.

### Determining the Need for Executive Development

The three major skills which every executive must possess are the conceptual skill, the technical skill and the human relations skill. The *conceptual skill* refers to the ability to take a broad and farsighted view of the organisation and its future, his ability to do abstract thinking, his ability to analyse the forces working in a situation, his creative and innovative ability, and his ability to assess the environment and change taking place in it. The *technical skill* is the executive's understanding of the nature of job he has to perform. It refers to his knowledge and proficiency in any type of process or technique. *Human relations skill* is the ability to interact effectively with people, and to build team work at all levels.

The relative need of an executive for conceptual skill increases and for technical skill decreases as he moves to higher levels in the organisational hierarchy. His need for human skills, however, remains consistently the same at all levels.

Production departments of manufacturing organisations generally determine the training needs of their first line supervisors either through *observations* of specialists or *questionnaires*. The following is a sample check-list based on observations:

#### Sample Check-List for Supervisors

Items recorded by training specialist	Checked for adequate performance		Possible training need
	Yes	No	
Keeps inventory of tools	✓		
Prepares training outline for apprentices		✓	✓
Takes unsafe machinery out of service	✓		
Checks all repairs	✓		
Maintains 'hours of work' record	✓		
Inspects regularly for quality of product		✓	✓
Informs on elimination of waste	✓		✓
Plans workplace layout	✓		✓
Instructs on cost of materials	✓		✓
Explains company policy to workers	✓		✓

Appendices 1 and 2 give sample questionnaires for surveying the training needs of executives.

With increasing competitive pressure, competency assessment for management development has gained considerable popularity in recent years. Competency is defined as a cluster of related knowledge, skills, and attitudes that affects a major part of an executive's job, that correlates with his performance on the job, that can be measured against well-accepted standards, and that can be improved via training and development.

In this approach, first of all, a competency model is created. This comprises competencies which are required for excellent job performance, not average or poor performance. Each competency is defined and illustrated at three or more levels of efficiency. It should be noted that the same competency may have a different behavioural illustration for a different job.

Competency development is a continuous process. Required competencies are, therefore, revised with changes in job design, contextual conditions, etc.

### **Selection of Trainees**

Development opportunities should not be passed out as a reward for a good behaviour or for long service or to get relief for some time from a trouble-making executive. Fairness in applying the standards is required to boost the morale of all executives in the organisation. Programmes having high selection standards become high status prestige programmes which challenge the best persons in the organisation to make the grade.

### **Executive Development Methods**

All executive development methods can be categorised as under :

- A. Methods which aim at improving the decision-making skills;
- B. Methods which aim at improving the inter-personal skills of executives; and
- C. Methods which aim at improving the executive's knowledge.

#### **A. Methods which Aim at Improving the Decision-making Skills of Executives**

(c) *Case Study Method.* A case is a written account seeking to describe an actual situation. A good case is the vehicle by which a chunk of reality is brought into the classroom to be discussed over by the class and the instructor. Pioneered by the Harvard Business School, the case study method aims at compelling the student to think actively, to analyse and sift evidence, to see beyond the confines of his speciality and to communicate coherently. The student has the benefit of listening to his companions arriving, perhaps at different solutions using the same data. Thus he learns about himself, his assumptions and limitations and comes to see that there are many possible good answers to a problem.

There are two types of case study methods : directed and non-directed. In the directed case study students are presented with the case and given a number of questions to answer or decisions to make. In the non-directed case study the student is simply presented with the material and is expected to explore the possible outcomes.

(2) *Incident Method.* Developed at the Massachusetts Institute of Technology, this method is an outgrowth of dissatisfaction felt by Paul and Pigors with the case method. In the usual case method the entire problem is presented to the student, whereas in the incident method only a brief incident is presented to provoke discussion in the class. The group then puts questions to the instructor to draw out of him the salient facts and additional information needed to arrive at a reasonable solution or resolution of the case. The method draws the participants into discussion with greater emotional involvement. A unique advantage of this method over the case method is the procedure of obtaining information by questions, one that often must take place in actual business situations.

(3) *In-basket Method.* This device consists of letters, notes, documents, and reports designed to simulate on-the-job reality of the manager's in-basket. The trainee deals with the in-basket materials as he would in his job. Usually feedback is provided so that he can appraise his results. The advantages of this method are as follows:

- (a) Trainees learn how to manage time on the basis of exigencies of managerial situations.
  - (b) They learn to confront issues and take creative decisions instead of postponing or asking for more data or following precedents.
  - (c) They learn to base decisions on given facts instead of on assumptions not implicit in the given documents.
  - (d) They develop entrepreneur flair instead of bureaucratic one.
- (4) *Management Games.* A management game has been described as a dynamic training exercise

simulating a real business situation. In these games, participants are divided into various teams which are placed in competition with each other in resolving some problem information about which is supplied to all teams. The game tests player's ability to absorb information quickly and make decisions under fire. Now with the introduction of movies, business games are getting more and more into live 'emulations' and away from traditional 'simulations'.

### B. Methods Which Aim at Improving the Inter-personal Skills of Executives

(1) *Experiential Learning.* Studies show that participants retain only 5% information learnt through lectures, 10% through reading and 30% through demonstration. But they can retain upto 75% information learnt through doing. that is what the experiential learning does. Once the lesson is taught viscerally, not intellectually, it is never forgotten. here the traditional instructive training method is replaced by one based on learning by doing. is believed that as person grows older learning by doing becomes the most powerful way of learning. Trainer-centred traditional training methods work only to limited extent. Experiential learning is more learner-centred.

Experiential learning uses a host of techniques which are given the generic name Encounter Groups. The goal of each technique is to teach individuals to learn faster, and help technique is to teach individuals to learn faster, and help them understand themselves and others better. These techniques:

draw attention to inter-personal dynamics aswellas personal attitudes and behaviours that have a direct bearing on workplace relationships;

- create team synergy;
- build trust;
- develop team working and team development skills and
- help managers learn about conflict management,

Following are some important techniques used in this type of learning:

(a) *Outward Bound learning Technique.* This involves throwing the participants into physically demanding outdoor exercises such as climbing rugged mountains, rafting through tough rapids, trekking with maps through unknown terrain and gliding through wind. At the end of each such activity, the trainer assists participants in introspecting on their experiences and consolidating their learnings from them.

(b) *Creating simulated situations that focus on different aspects of one's work life.* For example, putting people in pairs to resolve a conflict or creating a task force comprising a group of individuals to solve a given problem.

(1) *Sensitivity Training (or laboratory training).* This involves the use of a training-group, in which ten to fifteen persons are put into a face-to-face situation. This group has no agenda, no established roles, no established norms of performance. This creates a tension and anxiety which group members attempt to relieve by withdrawing from active participation or by attempting to provide the missing structural elements, assuming leadership, establishing goals, setting up an agenda—attempts which may not meet with unanimous approval, but which do reveal the needs of individuals and some of their habitual reactions to stress. The trainer may use outrageous statements to provoke participants into reacting from their get rather than their conditioned intellect. Academic debates give way to more 'basic reactions such as breaking down and loss of tempor which seveal the subtle prejudices and bises that govern group dynamics. These exaggerated situations help participants become aware of their deep rooted and hidden biases, which they them have to learn to address.

The requirement in this method is to develop situations which will induce the individual to examine his incongruities and discrepancies and endeavour to integrate his behaviour, values, need, knowledge and feelings, constituting his inner world with the expectations of the social environment. In short, the laboratory programme aims at achieving behavioural effectiveness in transactions with

one's environment. This method depends for its success on the following conditions : (i) There should be exploration of each other's feelings. Without bringing forth one's own feelings and thoughts, and knowing the reactions of others the individual may not recognise needed changes in his behaviour. (ii) There should be trust for each other. In a competitive or hostile atmosphere, exposure of self can lead toward rejection, loss of reputation or ridicule. Laboratory conditions must encourage trust among members and thus reduce the threats inherent in self-exposure.

(2) **Role Playing.** Discussion of case studies, in the area of 'interpersonal relations, generally remains at an unemotional intellectual level. To correct this deficiency, role-playing has been developed. In this method the instructor assigns parts taken from case materials to group members. The role players attempt to act their parts as they would behave in a real life situation, working without a script or memorised lines and improvising as they play the parts. It has been shown in a number of experiments that the very act of arguing for another view, even if it is purely an exercise, exposes the person to some of its virtues which he had previously denied. Thus, a supervisor might play the role of a subordinate, a salesperson the role of a customer and a nurse's aide the role of a hospital patient. The role playing lasts 20-30 minutes, after which data are collected about the performance of each role-player and a discussion takes place. Role playing tends to be enjoyed by participants; it develops empathy and sensitivity in them; it allows for their emotional release in a fairly harmless manner, it promotes insight and emphasises the importance of acceptability in decision-making.

(3) **Transactional Analysis.** Introduced over two decades ago by Berne<sup>1</sup> and further popularised by Harris<sup>2</sup> and Jongewald<sup>3</sup>, Transactional Analysis (TA) provides an individual with a practical and useful method for analysis and understanding of human behaviour. In fact, it is a method of analysing a transaction. A transaction is nothing but a social intercourse between two or more people who encounter each other. In every social intercourse there is a stimulus provided by one individual and a response to that stimulus given by another individual. This stimulus-response relationship between two individuals is a transaction.

Analysis of any transaction can be done by analysing the personality of an individual. Berne says that every normal individual functions from three ego states—parent, adult and child. An ego state is a system of feelings accompanied by a related set of behaviour patterns. Each ego state can be described as under:

### **Parent**

The parent ego is nothing but a huge collection of recordings in the brain of an individual of attitudes and behaviours imposed on him in his early years (roughly first five years) from various external sources, primarily his parents. The characteristics of this ego are to be overprotective, officious, distant, dogmatic, etc. Verbal clues that a person is operating from the parent ego state are his use of such words as 'always', 'never', 'should', 'ought', etc. when he uses his language of threat or tries to resolve conflict by force. There are physical clues also like raised eyebrows, pointing an accusing finger at somebody, and so on.

### **Child**

The child ego is also a collection of recordings in the brain of an individual of attitudes, behaviours

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1. Berne, E., "Transactional Analysis—A New and Effective Method of Group Theory", *American Journal of Psychotherapy*, 1958.
  2. Harris, T.A., *I am O.K., You are O.K. : A Practical Guide to Transactional Analysis*, New York; Harper & Row, 1967.
  3. James, H. and Jongewald, D., *Born to Win*, Reading, Mass : Addison-Wesley Publishing Company.

and impulses which come to him naturally from his own seeing, hearing, feeling and understanding as a child. Characteristics of a person acting in the child state include being curious, impulsive, sensuous, affectionate, dependent, fearful and depressed. Verbal clues that the person is operating from the child ego state are the use of words like "I wish", "I guess", "I do not care", and so on. There are physical clues also like temper tantrums, attention seeking, giggling, coyness, silent compliance, etc. The child in us is likely to lead us to behave as dependents, as competitive and to approach conflict resolution through avoidance or smoothing.

**Adult**

This ego state consists of reality testing, rational behaviour and decision-making or problem-solving analysis. An individual in this state processes, verifies and updates the data which he has received from the other two states. In other words, this state is a shift from the "taught and felt concept" to "tested concepts". Adult data is gathered as a result of an individual's ability to find out for himself as to what is the difference between life as it was taught and demonstrated to him (parent), life as he felt, wished or fantasied (child) and life as he figures out by testing (adult).

The functioning of the adult-ego state does not try to do away with parent and child data. Rather it examines these data and tries to update them in the reality of the external world. The adult in an individual shows itself in a variety of ways. Phrases like "I see", "I think", "It is my opinion", words with an emphasis on data collection, e.g., why, where, when, who, how, what, and an emphasis on data processing and problem-solving are the indicators of the adult-ego state in an individual.

All of us evoke behaviour from one ego state which is responded to by the other individual from any one of these three ego states. This gives rise to three types of transactions : complementary, crossed and ulterior.

A complementary transaction is one in which the stimulus and response ego states are complementary to each other so that the communication between any two individuals runs along parallel lines between them (Fig. 12.1). Thus, the parent in one individual is responded to by the child in the other or the adult in one is responded to by the adult in the other. In this type of transaction both parties feel satisfied.

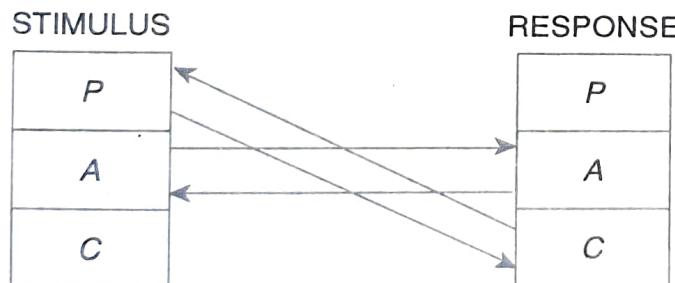


Fig. 12.1.

**Examples :**

1. Worker  
Foreman
  2. Foreman  
Worker
- : I cannot do this job myself. Please help me. Will you? (Child-Parent)
  - : Sure, I am coming just now. (Parent-Child)
  - : Have you finished the job? (Adult-Adult)
  - : Yes, I finished it long back and it has already been delivered to the assembly line. (Adult-Adult)

When communication runs along crossed lines between individuals, the transactions are *crossed*. In this communication further transactions stop.

**Example :**

- Foreman to Worker : How many pieces have you made by now? (A-A)

Worker to Foreman : Do not disturb me. When I complete the whole work I will let you know.  
(P-C)

Ulterior transaction has double meaning. On the surface level it is a clear adult message but it also carries a hidden message. For example, husband while sitting on the dining table may find the table dirty. If he writes on the table "I love you" to be read by his wife he is on the surface using his child ego state but his ulterior motive is to hint her that she has not cleaned the table. In other words, his message is proceeding from the parent state and his wife must respond to it from her child state by cleaning the table.

Thus TA gives an insight into the fundamentals of human psychology and helps to improve interpersonal relations.

**(4) The Johari Window.** The Johari Window is a conceptual model for increasing personal effectiveness. It was developed by Joseph Luft and Harry Ingham (the name Johari combines their first names). As shown in the following figure this model divides an individual's personality into four parts. The part which is known both to the individual and others is called 'Arena'. That part which is known to the individual but not to others is called 'Closed'. That part which is known to others but not to the individual is called 'Blind'. And that part which is not known both to the individual and to others is called 'Dark'.

		Known to self	Not known to self
Known to others	Arena	Blind	
	Closed	Dark	

The implication of this model is that in order to make oneself effective in interpersonal relations one should expand one's arena. Alternatively, one must try to reduce the other three areas. 'Blind area' can be reduced by 'receiving feedback from others'. 'Closed area' can be reduced by self-disclosure. 'Dark area' can be reduced by special psycho-analysis techniques.

**(5) Building Emotional Intelligence.** Many people are emotionally unintelligent, i.e., they do not know how to handle their emotions (such as anger, fear, love, happiness, sadness, etc.) intelligently. Such people express their emotional illiteracy in a number of ways such as lying and cheating, arguing a lot, being mean to fellow workers, disobeying the boss, talking too much, having a hot temper, using violence, acting without thinking, being too nervous to concentrate, having many fears and worries, being secretive, being overly dependent, seeing themselves as victims of injustices, sexually harrassing women workers, making destructive criticism of their subordinates and so on. These people need to be taught that the above moods do not just descend on them without their having control over them, but that *they can change the way they feel by what they think*.

Emotional intelligence trains people how to bring intelligence to emotions. It teaches them that their deep perceptual biases and low thresholds for upsets coupled with their impulsivity generally account for their above types of behaviour. The training aims at helping people in finding an intelligent balance of their rational and emotional feelings. It is harmonising head and heart. This is achieved by developing in the trainees different kinds of emotional, cognitive and behavioural skills. They are taught:

- How to control their impulses (which make them burst into action) and delay gratification?
- How to handle stress and anxiety?
- How to read and interpret social cues?
- How to understand the perspective of others?

- How to develop realistic expectations about oneself?
- How to make effective verbal and non-verbal communication (through eye contact, facial expression, tone of voice, gestures, etc.)?

### C. Methods Which Aim at Improving the Executive's Knowledge

(1) **Conferences.** Mutual problems form the subject of discussion in a conference. Participants pool their ideas and experience in attempting to arrive at improved methods of dealing with these problems. The attitude is one of joint exploration. Members of the group come together to teach each other and to learn together. This method is most appropriate for the purpose of presenting new and sometimes complicated material.<sup>1</sup>

(2) **Autonomy Training.** One of the latest approaches to management training, called "autonomy training", is aimed at developing the individual's ability to manage his own training. It involves leaving the trainee almost entirely on his own. He has first to work out what he would like to learn, and then teach himself. The concept on which this method rests is that with the tremendous speed at which new knowledge is replacing the old one it is impossible for standardised course to cater for individual training needs. So managers must be trained to teach themselves new skills as they go along. In this training also, as in the sensitivity training, the situation is kept unstructured. There is no programme and the trainer refuses to direct the programme or give lectures. Instead, he merely indicates a vast array of resources such as books, films, articles, management games, psychological tests, etc. from which the participant must choose in order to build his own programme. Often consultants are available for discussion or counselling, but only if the participant seeks them out. Participants can also consult with each other.

(3) **E-Learning.** This is learning over the internet. The *merits* of this method are:

- (a) It is not tied to the availability of instructors and class rooms;
- (b) It can be shared by a wider audience;
- (c) It enables quicker training cycles; and
- (d) It avoids executive's productive time being wasted in travelling. He benefits by being in his own city and still attend high quality programmes in a way similar to what he would at the campus of a training institute,

The *limitations* of this method are;

- (a) It cannot address on 'the spot' questions from learners; and
- (b) It is not suitable for training behavioural subjects such as personality improvement and leadership. Human trainers can better articulate these subjects.

(4) **Cross-functional Training.** The business imperatives of today are such that having domain expertise in one area is simply not enough. The cross-functional training involves training executives to perform operations in functional areas other than their own. Take the CFO of today, who is so different from the financial head of the past. No longer is the CFO's nose buried solely in accounts, but instead he has to sift out strategies to shore up the bottom line, introduce sustainable measures in the company as well as have an intelligent say in new technologies and HR. Many companies (Like UPS, Marriott and GE) now train executives for multiple positions. Because each manager knows the processes and systems of other units, it results in talent multiplication and there is better synergy between two departments.

### Selection of an Executive Training and Development Method

Selection of an appropriate method depends upon the following six factors :

1. **Training Objective.** It should be noted, however, that this is not easy. It is far more difficult to define the objectives at the managerial level than at the blue-collar level. Experts will agree on the
1. When a conference group is broken up in several small groups of 4-5 participants, it is called buzz session.

form and content of training to be given to a machinist or electrician but they will differ widely in case of a junior executive. This is because they do not know why some senior executives are more effective than others or what does a successful manager know better than his less successful colleagues.

From an opinion survey<sup>1</sup> of 200 training directors of large American companies, it is revealed that—

1. For acquisition of knowledge programmed instruction is the best, lectures are the worst.
2. For changing trainees' attitudes sensitivity training is the best, television lectures are the worst.
3. For increasing trainees' problem-solving skills case method is the best, lectures are the worst.
4. For increasing trainees' interpersonal skills sensitivity training is the best, television lectures are the worst.
5. For increasing trainees' acceptance of the training method conference (discussion) is the best, television lectures are the worst.
6. For trainees' retention of knowledge programmed instruction is the best, television lectures are the worst.

**2. Level of Trainees in the Organisation's Hierarchy.** Training needs of executives at different levels in the organisational hierarchy differ in the degree to which emphasis is placed on various training inputs. This difference makes certain techniques better for one class of employees than for the other.

**3. Method's Ability to Hold and Arouse the Interest of Trainees During the Training Period.** A trainer has to consider alternative methods of presenting training material to participants also from the point of view of their ability to stimulate interest and facilitate retention of the matter. *Learning curve* is sometimes used for comparing two or more methods in the training of operatives.

A learning curve is a graphic representation of the speed with which learning takes place in a particular situation. The horizontal scale (X-axis) on the graph represents units of time (e.g., minutes) and the vertical scale (Y-axis) represents the units of learning (e.g., the number of words typed). *This curve is useful for comparing two or more training methods of a particular task.* Marked deflections of the curve, if they are frequent, may indicate that something is wrong with the training method. Broadly speaking there may be three types of these curves:

- (i) *Convex Curves* which depict rapid initial improvement in learning that slows down with time. In the learning situation where the task is simple or the learner has had previous practice on a similar task we usually come across such curves.
- (ii) *Concave Curves* which depict slow initial improvement in learning that increases with time. These types of curves are often seen in learning situations where the task is new or difficult.
- (iii) *Combined Curves* which are generally obtained in the situations where we study the entire learning of a task from zero performance to its mastery. These curves look like the capital letter S and are, therefore, also known as S-curves.

Sometimes, there is a flatness in the learning curve which indicates a period of no apparent progress and is referred to as a *plateau*. There are many reasons for the appearance of such a plateau. It may be the result of lack of motivation, poor or inefficient performance methods or very often ineffective teaching or training.

**4. Availability of Competent Trainers.** A trainer can be regarded as competent if he has :

- both conceptual clarity and practical proficiency in his area,
- interpersonal competence,
- communication skill, and
- drive to achieve success.

**5. Availability of Finance.**

**6. Availability of Time.**

1. Stephen J. Carroll Jr., Frank T. Paine, John O. Ivancevich : "The Relative Effectiveness of Training Methods—Expert Opinion & Research", *Personnel Psychology*, 1972, 25, pp. 495-509.

## Evaluation of Training and Development

An essential characteristic of all training and development programmes is a built-in provision for evaluation. The four main dimensions of evaluation are:

- (a) Evaluation of contextual factors,
- (b) Evaluation of training inputs,
- (c) Evaluation of the training process, and
- (d) Evaluation of training outcomes.

(a) **Evaluation of Contextual Factors.** This involves evaluation of the pre-training and post-training work. Pre-training work includes proper identification of training needs, developing criteria of who should be sent for training, how many at a time and in what sequence, helping people to volunteer for training, building expectations of prospective participants from training, etc. Post-training work includes helping the concerned managers to plan to utilise the participants' training, and provide the needed support to them, building linkages between the training section and the line departments, and so on.

(b) **Evaluation of Training Inputs.** This involves the evaluation of training curriculum and its sequencing.

(c) **Evaluation of Training Process.** The climate of the training organisation, the relationship between participants and trainers, the general attitudes and approaches of the trainers, training methods, etc. are some of the important elements of the training process which also need to be evaluated.

(d) **Evaluation of Training Outcomes.** Measuring the carry-home value of a training programme in terms of what has been achieved and how much is the main task of evaluation. This, however, is a complex technical and professional task. Benefits of a training programme are not always obvious and they are not readily measurable. Payoffs from training are intangible and rather slow to become apparent. A central problem is the absence of objective criteria and specific definitions of relevant variables by which to measure the effectiveness either of specific programmes or of results in terms of general employee development or changes in employee behaviour. Nevertheless, good personnel managers do make an effort to systematically appraise the benefits and result of their programmes.

In job-related training, where the objective is to train people for specific job skills so that their productivity may increase, evaluation can be done either according to the direct criterion of increase in output or according to the indirect criteria of decrease in cost, breakage or rejects. But here also to measure the performance or contribution of a single individual becomes difficult since many people contribute. The most difficult problems of evaluation lie in the area of human relations skills training which is given to the supervisors and middle-level managers. Supervisory and managerial training programmes are, for this reason, less amenable to objective review procedures. Much subjectivity enters into evaluations of these programmes, since exact standards and criteria are hard to devise, but management in this, as in other personnel programmes, wants the evidence that rupee expenditures are providing comparable improvements in operations.

### How Evaluation is done?

Most training evaluation methods seem to fall into one of the following two categories: (a) reaction evaluation, and (b) outcome evaluation.

#### Reaction Evaluation

Opinion surveys of participants or people who have seen the participants in action are *reaction evaluations*. There are several variations of this method :

(a) Generally, a questionnaire is given to the participant at the end of the programme which asks him to rate in terms of his personal perceptions what he liked best, what he liked least and any other comments he might have about the programme.

- (b) Sometimes scalar ratings are also given against every question and the trainee is required to check off the degree of satisfaction which he found in each answer. (See Appendix 3 given at the end.)
- (c) Participants are required to give daily ratings for each segment of the programme. One advantage of this method is that it provides the manager of the training programme an immediate feedback which he can use for the adjustment and improvement of the following day's programme.
- (d) Sometimes a management representative may drop around during a coffee break and by putting questions to one or two participants, informally collect information about the success of the training programme. Since such samplings are not scientifically designed, the results may not be always accurate.
- (e) Sometimes the participants may be asked to send their opinions by mail on reaching their organisations. The theory here is that opinions given immediately at the conclusion of the course cannot possibly have the objectivity which is desired in the appraisal of the programme.

### **Outcome Evaluation**

Reaction evaluations do not take one very far. The main object of evaluation is in fact served by outcome evaluation. Outcome evaluation may be done at three levels : immediate, intermediate and ultimate.

#### **Immediate**

This form of evaluation measures improvement in the *learning* (knowledge, skills and attitudes) of trainees soon after they have finished training. Skill learning can be measured by performance tests (such as operating a machine). Similarly, information recall tests or problem-solving exercises can be used to gauge knowledge. Devices such as attitude scales, role-playing, simulations, critical incident cases, etc. may throw light on trainee's progress in attitude learning.

#### **Intermediate**

This form of evaluation measures changes in the *behaviour* of trainees when they have returned to their jobs. The assumption here is that if positive transfer of learning has taken place from training to the job situation it should be reflected in the trainees' improved behaviour.

#### **Ultimate**

This form of evaluation measures changes in the ultimate *results* achieved by trainees. For this purpose, indexes of productivity, labour turnover, absenteeism, accidents, grievances, quality control, etc. are taken as the ultimate results achieved by trainees.

There are three basic techniques followed under outcome evaluation. These are : (i) controlled experimentation, (ii) 'before-and-after' comparison, and (iii) after the training study. Controlled experimentation requires the use of two groups of employees, namely, 'training' group and a 'control' group. Performance is measured of both the groups *before* training is started. The training group is then given the training, while the control group is not (the group continues to perform the job without training). After the first group is trained, performance of both the groups is again measured. A subsequent comparison is then made of the improvement in both groups to determine if the training group improves significantly more than the control group. The second method involves the use of a single training group with performance being measured *before* and *after* the training. The third method also involves a single training group but with performance being measured *after* the training (but not before).

Of these, the first technique (controlled experimentation) is considered as the most scientific one that really provides a solid basis for evaluation of the outcome. The second technique does not

provide the basis for knowing how much improvement would have occurred *without* training. The third technique does not provide any basis for knowing how much improvement actually occurred during training.

If evaluation by any method is to be effective, it must fulfil the following characteristics :

1. It must be *planned*. What is to be evaluated, when, by what means, and by whom must be determined in advance.
2. It must be *objective*. It should not be a mere eyewash—an attempt by the trainer to vindicate the programme instead of to verify it.
3. It must be *verifiable*. Results can be confirmed by the same or different means.
4. It must be *participative*. It must involve all who are a part of or affected by the training and development programme. It is not a contest between the evaluator and the subject of evaluation.
5. It must be *continuous*.
6. It must be *specific*, i.e., it should tell about specific strengths and weaknesses and should not make vague generalisations.
7. It must be *quantitative*.
8. It must be *feasible*. It must be administratively manageable.
9. It must be *cost effective*, i.e., the results must be commensurate with the costs incurred.

### Executive Training and Development Practices in India

Several studies have been made about the training practices in Indian industries. Notable among them are:

1. A.R. Negandhi and Barnard Estafen's study<sup>1</sup> of 36 companies in five major towns in India done in 1965.
2. Vijay K. Pathak's study<sup>2</sup> of 104 'non-user' enterprises, that is, those enterprises which had not utilised the management training and development programmes offered by the three leading national management education institutions, viz., the Administrative Staff College of India at Hyderabad and the Indian Institutes of Management at Calcutta and Ahmedabad during the four-year period of 1964-69.
3. M.N. Rudrabasavaraj's study<sup>3</sup> of 12 leading organisations in the private sector done in 1976.
4. Lynton and Pareek's study<sup>4</sup> of the training practices in Indian organisations. The features of our training practices which emerge from these studies are as follows:

1. *In the majority of Indian organisations, training and development have remained neglected and secondary function.* Some organisations strongly hold the traditional view that managers are born and not made. These organisations just do not believe in training. There are also some organisations which think that the cost of training is high and not worth it. These organisations think that it is better to get an executive move to them after he has been trained in another organisation rather than spend on the training of their own employees. In many organisations training is regarded as a non-essential or peripheral activity rather than a central one. It is more decorative than functional. These organisations start a training department in order to look modern. In some other organisations training activity is assigned to the personnel department. The low status accorded to this activity is also

1. "Personnel Management Practices: A Comparative Study" by Y.K. Shetty, *The Indian Journal of Social Work*, July 1970, Vol. XXXI.

2. Vijay K. Pathak : "Organisation Setting, Value Attitudes and Modernisation of Management," *Indian Journal of Industrial Relations*, July 1970, Vol. 6, No. 1.

3. M.N. Rudrabasavaraj : *Executive Development in India* (1977).

4. R.P. Lynton & Uday Pareek : *Training for Development* (1970). The Dorsey Press, Homewood, Illinois.

revealed from the fact that the training departments of several organisations are headed by inconvenient or unwanted employees rather than employees of outstanding merit. Many organisations do not have a separate budget for training and development and in no case the provision comes up to even one per cent of the sales turnover of a company.

**2. Only in a few big industrial organisations in our country training programmes are conducted in terms of specific organisational needs and the peculiarities of the industry concerned.**

Most of the training institutes in the country assume these needs and develop some "free size" programmes which the organisations try to fit among their executives.

**3. In the majority of Indian organisations the procedure to select people for various training programmes is irrational.** Not infrequently those persons are sent for training who either find themselves at a loose end (no suitable slot being readily available for their posting) or want a holiday at company expense.

**4. In many organisations the fact of a particular employee having attended a specialised training course is not taken into account at the time of his subsequent postings.** In these organisations one can come across hundreds of examples of square pegs sitting in round holes.

**5. Many organisations treat the training of their employees as a single shot operation. They do not look upon training as an integral part of their employees' career plans.** Career planning, in fact, is conspicuous by its absence in most organisations. Appointments to even most crucial posts are made more on the basis of pulls and personal preferences than on the basis of employee's specialised experience or training.

**6. Talking specifically about management development programmes one finds that there is very little commitment to these programmes from the top.** Sharu S. Rangnekar rightly observes that the basic problem of these programmes is that we have an untrainable top, a confused middle and a frustrated bottom.<sup>1</sup> Everybody knows that the top management in India, whether in administration or in industry, is untrainable. One can see the top only at the inauguration or the valediction. For the remaining part of a development programme these 'omniscient' people are conspicuous by their absence. These people consider development programmes a luxury when the going is good; and when the going gets tough they make these programmes the first victim of their economic drive.

Managers at the middle level are the most confused lot so far as these development programmes are concerned. They find that the ideas of participative management, delegation, innovation, etc. which they learn during such programmes are mostly irrelevant and of marginal value because there does not exist in Indian industry that professional environment in which these ideas may be practised.

Managers at the bottom are the most frustrated lot because the people have to content themselves with occasional development programmes of general orientation nature. To achieve economy these programmes are carried out internally in the company on a part-time basis using amateur faculty consisting of company executives.

**7. Organisations in India have generally remained unconcerned about the evaluative follow-up of their management development and training programmes.** Some outside researchers have, however, done some such studies, their results show that there is hardly reany material evidence that management attitudes change as a result of training. Even cognitive or intellectual learning does not seem to take place. At the most, managers take home a new vocabulary of management. Only semantic learning occurs. Even when learning does occur significantly, it is not retained over a length of time, largely due to disuse. Not only othat new learnings, do not get used, but in organisational practice they are interfere with.

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1. *Industrial Times*, July 19, 1976.

*8. There is a great dearth of professional trainers in India.* The Indian Institutes of Management and the Indian Society for Training and Development cannot meet all our needs. With the exponential growth of technology the rate of obsolescence is also accelerating sharply. Many management experts feel that in the twenty-first century professionals would have to re-learn their trade thrice over during their life time if they have to remain in the race. This would need a very large number of highly professionalised trainers in our country. How rightly some one has said, "There is not a letter in the alphabet which cannot be used for composing a sacred mantra. There is not a herb which has no medicinal value. Similarly, there is no human being who cannot be made to develop his competencies through training. Only a trainer is difficult to find."

## Institutional and Government Efforts for Training Operatives

1. Our Second Five Year Plan which was designed to have an industrial bias recognised the importance of *vocational training institutes* as the principal means of turning out skilled workers. As a result, we have today 4,274 *Industrial Training Institutes* in the country preparing hundreds of young men and women in different production jobs such as metal cutting, turning, fitting, electrical, etc. Of these 1,654 are in the government sector and the remaining are in the private sector. Recognising that the main demand on the products of these institutes would come from industrial employers, it was considered necessary to work out arrangements for consultation with the prospective employers of these trainees. The Government, therefore, constituted in 1957 the National Council for Training in Vocational Trades (NCTVT), consisting of representatives of employers, workers and technical institutes, for seeking advice on all aspects of vocational training and for correlating training facilities with the requirements of industry.
2. In 1961, the Government of India enacted the Apprentices Act to supplement the above programme of institutional training by on-the-job training and to make recruitment of apprentices by the employers compulsory for this purpose. Under this Act the Central Government determines and notifies in the *Official Gazette* the ratio of trade apprentices to workers in each designated trade. All employers in the notified industries are statutorily required to recruit and select apprentices not below this ratio. The minimum age for being an apprentice is 14 years. The minimum educational qualification varies from trade to trade. The duration of apprenticeship training ranges from 6 months to 4 years. At the end of training, the apprentices are required to appear for a final all-India Trade Test conducted by the National Council for Training in Vocational Trades (NCTVT).

The Second NCL has made the following recommendations for improving vocational education and training :

1. The ITIs should *review and revise curriculum* every 5 years and discontinue obsolete courses.
2. There should be *greater interaction* of ITIs with industry.
3. Vocational education should be *integrated* at the school level.
4. *New delivery mechanisms* such as web-based training and distance learning should be introduced to make timings, pace and contents more flexible.
5. *Skill Development Fund* (out of contributions made by the employer, employee and the government) should be created for retraining of workers.
6. *Competency based continuing training system* should be established. For this purpose an independent regulatory authority should be created to lay down standards both for competencies required for a particular occupation and for accreditation of individuals and institutions imparting training and conducting tests. A worker should be free to undertake Evaluation Test as and when he feels that he has acquired the desired competency. But his competency should be considered as valid only for a predefined period after which he should revalidate his competency by again undertaking the Evaluation Test.

## Workers' Education

Workers' education is a special kind of education designed to give workers a better understanding of their status, rights and responsibilities as workers, as union members, as family members and as citizens. It differs from vocational and professional education (which is for individual advancement) in that it emphasises group advancement.

The scope of workers' education is very wide. It aims at developing among workers an understanding of:

- the economy, industry and the business organisation of which they are a part;
- the changes in technology and work processes;
- alternative forms of organisation such as cooperatives;
- the history of collective bargaining in order to grow organically and retain a collective identity;
- a sense of belonging and team spirit and enthusiasm for the success of industrial growth and harmonious relation; and
- trade union leadership qualities.

Since its inception in 1958, the Central Board of Workers' Education (CBWE) has been doing a significant work in the above areas. The Board is a tripartite body registered under the Societies Registration Act of 1880. It has its headquarters at Nagpur and has a network of 4 zonal directorates, 49 regional directorates, and 10 sub-regional directorates spread throughout the length and breadth of the country. The Board also runs an apex training institute *viz.*, Indian Institute of Workers' Education at Mumbai. Presently, the Board organises 20 to 25 types of programmes for the workers in the organised, unorganised and rural sectors.

The Board's programme of workers' education consists of three stages. In the first stage the Board trains *education officers* and posts them at the regional centres. In the second stage these education officers train selected number of workers as *worker teachers*. In the final stage these worker teachers train the *rank and file of workers*. The Board also conducts programmes of leadership development, worker participation in management, productivity, industrial health and safety, etc. Special programmes are conducted for women and child workers and for workers in the unorganised sector.

V.V. Giri National Institute, Noida is another important institution which provides training to workers on subjects related to industrial relations. Some major unions which organise worker education programmes are INTUC-run Ambedkar Institute of Labour Studies, Mumbai, Maniben Kara Institute of HMS, Mumbai, Indian Institute of Labour of NFITU, Kolkata, Vishwakarma Labour Institute of BMS and Vasavada Labour Institute of NLO, Ahmedabad.

The two *drawbacks* of our worker education programme are lack of finances and lack of coordination among different institutes.

## (C) Organisation Development (OD)

### Need

Individual-oriented training and development programmes which we have discussed so far do not produce desired benefits. The reasons are that these programmes:

- (i) are commonly undertaken on a piecemeal basis in artificial settings as a reactive measure to meet some situational crisis;
- (ii) are commonly content-based emphasising transmission of theoretical information and concepts;
- (iii) frequently aim at improving one or another part of the organisation with disregard of the whole; and
- (iv) are not collaborative enough to stimulate action.

This has made people realise in recent years the importance and need of a longer-term, more encompassing change approach called Organisation Development. Different writers have defined this term in different ways. Wendell French and Cicil Bell define OD thus :

Organisation development is a *long-range effort* to improve an organisation's *problem-solving and renewal processes*, particularly through a more effective and *collaborative management of organisation culture*—with special emphasis on the culture of formal work teams—with the assistance of a *change agent*, or catalyst, and the use of the theory and technology of *applied behavioural science*, including *action research*.

### Characteristics of OD

From the above definition the following characteristics emerge :

1. *OD is a long-range effort.* It is not an *ad hoc*, one-shot activity. An OD programme usually consists of a number of development techniques (called interventions) which follow one another in a planned way over a long period.
2. *OD aims at improving an organisation's capacity to solve* its problems itself and to quickly change its strategies to suit the changing demands of its environment (called the renewal process).
3. *OD emphasises change in culture.* Although OD frequently includes structural and technological changes, its primary focus is on changing culture. Culture here means prevailing patterns of activities, interactions and sentiments, norms, beliefs, attitudes and values.
4. *OD recognises the importance of collaborative management* (i.e., a shared kind of management—not a hierarchically imposed kind) of all its activities. The key unit in all OD activities (such as collection of data, diagnosis of the problem, planning of interventions and so on) is the work team including both superior and subordinates.
5. *OD requires the services of a change agent.* In early phases of OD programme his services are considered essential mainly for two reasons: his greater expertise and his ability to look at problems more objectively.
6. *OD uses the theory of applied behavioural research including action research.* The change agent draws on the knowledge and technology of various behavioural sciences such as sociology, psychology, political science, economics, etc. Action research refers to the way he goes about introducing all sorts of interventions to solve organisational problems. Briefly, action research involves (a) a preliminary hypothesis of the problem and its solution, (b) taking action, and (c) if the action does not work changing the diagnosis as well as the solution.

### Steps Involved in Implementing an OD Programme

1. Invitation to an outside expert to work for introducing OD in the organisation.
2. Diagnosis of the problem by the outside expert jointly with the client.
3. Determination of the kind of data to be collected and the method of data collection.
4. Communication of rationale behind the OD programme to all employees to allay their fears and rumours.
5. Implementation of specific problem-solving techniques.
6. Measurement of the impact of implementation.
7. Stabilisation of change so that it becomes permanent.
8. Withdrawal of outside expert.

### Conditions for Success of an OD Programme

Experience has shown that the following conditions must exist for the success of an OD programme:

- (a) *Support from the top.* The programme must be supported by the top management. Its behaviour must communicate to the people that they will be rewarded for engaging in OD activities.
- (b) *Match between the professed values and behaviour.* The actual behaviour of the top management must match with its professed values. If the top management preaches participative management and practices authoritative management subordinates lose trust in it and also in the OD programme.
- (c) *Definite goal.* Some organisations promote OD programme without first determining the purpose which these programmes are intended to achieve.
- (d) *Domino effect.* It should be remembered that change in any one part of the organisation calls for a sequence of related and supporting changes in many other parts. If this is not done the change effort may not succeed.
- (e) *Strong Link-pins.* OD can succeed if what Likert describes as 'link-pins' are present in the organisation. These are the roles which connect various levels and various parts of the organisation. They must help in spreading out the change in all directions.
- (f) *Tailor-made programme.* Sometimes an OD programme used elsewhere is borrowed and applied without examining its appropriateness for the present organisation. This adversely affects the success of the programme which should be tailor-made.
- (g) *Difference between OD and Non-OD change efforts.* The OD programme must not be confused with non-OD training activities which are undertaken on a piecemeal basis as a reactive measure to solve isolated and temporary problems. OD is a long-term organisation-wide effort which should not be expected to yield results quickly. A 'trader approach' in OD is not functional.
- (h) *Correct understanding of the role of change agent or consultant.* Very often the expectation with a consultant is that he will diagnose all problems, suggest right solutions, put these all in a voluminous report and then the organisation will know what to do. This may be all right in dealing with technical problems but to bring about a change in the human variables of the total organisation an entirely different model of consultant-client relationship is needed. The stress has to be on developing a relationship in which the organisation members identify their own problems, explore new alternatives, and internalise new methods of problem-solving. In this process the consultant has to provide the role of a catalyst and facilitator with his knowledge, skill, and competence in diagnosing and intervening in the organisation as a professional behaviour scientist. The use of reports in such a process is mainly for feedback record and the work does not end merely by report writing.

OD has been successfully implemented in a number of companies in India. Some notable examples are Kamani Enterprise, Tata Steel, Hindustan Machine Tools Ltd., Hindustan Aeronautics Ltd., State Bank of India, Bokaro Steel and Orient Paper Mills.

### Discussions Questions

1. Why is training a critical strategic issue for organizations? What purposes are served by training and development programmes?
2. Analyse the need for executive development programmes. Do you think the executive development programmes now followed in Indian industry are adequate?
3. How would you determine the training needs in an organisation? What psychological factors in learning could be helpful in making a training programme more effective?

4. (a) Contrast any four methods of operative training from the viewpoints of purpose, organisation, and educational characteristics.
- (b) Distinguish between training and education. Are you trained or educated by a university?
5. Contrast the values of on-the-job training with off-the-job training for managers. What particular values are sought by the simulation methods of development?
6. How would you identify the training needs of managerial personnel in a large industrial undertaking? Also suggest a method for evaluating the effectiveness of 'in-company training programmes' in an organisation.
7. How would you identify the training and development needs of the clerical employees in an organisation? Discuss the use of 'on-the-job' training method for managerial employees.
8. Discuss the nature and value of sensitivity training. Are all or most managers in business insensitive? If they are, of what importance is this?
9. Contrast the varying approaches to evaluating the worth of a specific operative training or a management development programme.
10. Miss Tara Mathur works in the accounts section of a large departmental store. Her supervisor has found a large number of mistakes in a random check of the accounts she is responsible for, and her overall output of work is lower than the department standard.
- (a) How can the supervisor know whether this poor work is due to inadequate training or other causes?
- (b) If this investigation discloses inadequate training, how should he introduce remedial training?
11. Mr. Prakash, director of industrial relations in a company, has made a study of probable losses of managerial manpower during the next 10 years. His study indicates that such losses will be heavy—that the trend is upward in that about six times as many men will probably be lost in the tenth year as in first year. On the basis of this forecast Mr. Prakash has secured an authorisation to undertake a formal management development programme. As his first step, he has asked all executives to nominate candidates for special training. On the basis of these nominations he has selected two men to be sent to a special university executive development programme. It is hoped that on the basis of their experience these two men would, when they return, make suggestions for other parts of the total management development programme. Neither of the two men thus selected wishes to attend the university programme. They give several reasons : twelve weeks is too long to be away from their job; they are not university graduates and will not feel at home in what is essentially a graduate school atmosphere; they think their absence may adversely affect salary adjustment for them in the next year; one of them refuses to leave his family for such an extended period.
- On the basis of the above situation what would you suggest to Mr. Prakash? Does he simply have the wrong candidates? Are the men right in their objections? How would you proceed?
12. What purposes does training serve? Explain the ingredients of a good training programme for the employees at various levels.
13. What is O.D.? What are the steps involved in implementing an O.D. programme?
14. What are the objectives of the National Apprenticeship Training Scheme under the Apprentices Act, 1961? Discuss how far these objectives have been achieved since the legislation was enacted.
15. "Training function in an industry is a gimmick". Discuss in this connection whether there is any need of a training department in an organisation.
16. Explain briefly the operative training methods known to you.
17. Write short notes on :
- (a) Transfer of learning.
  - (b) Learning curve.
  - (c) Workers' education.
  - (d) Transactional analysis.
18. Match the term below with its appropriate definition. Place the letter of the correct definition in the space to the left of the term.
- |                 |  |
|-----------------|--|
| 1. Role playing | (a) It is the act of increasing the knowledge and skill of an employee for doing a particular job. |
| 2. T.A.         | (b) In it trainees attempt to act their parts as they would behave in a real life situation.       |

- \_\_\_\_\_ 3. Training      (c) It aims at developing the total personality of the individual.  
\_\_\_\_\_ 4. Johari Window      (d) It is a training method of analysing a social intercourse.  
\_\_\_\_\_ 5. Education      (e) It is a conceptual model for increasing personal effectiveness.  
[1. (b), 2. (d), 3. (a), 4. (e), 5. (c).]

19. Style Warehouse is a major retailer of men's clothing. Despite the increasing size of the services sector, management of retail personnel is often poor and turnover is high. Further, training is non-existent and the industry is increasingly competitive. Style Warehouse wishes to establish itself as a quality clothier with a high growth and earnings rate, as well as growth in its stock value. Do you think Style Warehouse can distinguish itself from competitors by adopting a comprehensive approach to training? Explain your answer.

If you were the training manager of Style Warehouse:

- (a) What kinds of training programmes would you organise for the employees of the organisation?  
(b) What approach will you follow for evaluating the effectiveness of training?

## APPENDIX 1

# Questionnaire for Executive Training Needs Survey

## Part I

In carrying out your supervisory responsibility, you have probably encountered problems related to some of the following statements. After reading each statement, check the column on the left which indicates the *frequency* of your experience with the problem to which the statement refers. Then, check the column on the right which indicates the *degree of difficulty* you have in coping with or overcoming the problem. Make a check on the left and on the right for each statement:

Frequently a problem	Sometimes problem	Seldom or never a problem	Problem	Very difficult to overcome	Difficult to overcome	Presents no difficulty
			1. Handling requests for personal time off. 2. Making the decision about whom to select from a number of applicants . 3. Having capable employees resigning from the Company. 4. Applying Company policies regarding leaves of absence, etc. 5. Timing hiring of employees to correspond with availability of personnel.			

## Part II

A. *Areas*: Please check the areas listed below in which either you have experienced problems or have felt the need for more adequate information.

1. \_\_\_\_\_ Administration of personnel policies
2. \_\_\_\_\_ Communications
3. \_\_\_\_\_ Employee benefits
4. \_\_\_\_\_ Organisational relationships
5. \_\_\_\_\_ Employee motivation and attitudes
6. \_\_\_\_\_ Human abilities
7. \_\_\_\_\_ Group behaviour
8. \_\_\_\_\_ Budgets and costs
9. \_\_\_\_\_ Business outlook
10. \_\_\_\_\_ Information about Company Products
11. \_\_\_\_\_ Letters and reports
12. \_\_\_\_\_ Methods improvement
13. \_\_\_\_\_ Company sales activities

14. \_\_\_\_\_ Engineering developments
15. \_\_\_\_\_ Company expansion
16. \_\_\_\_\_ Economics and current issues
17. \_\_\_\_\_ Public relations activities
18. \_\_\_\_\_ The basis for company operation
19. \_\_\_\_\_ Product scheduling and distribution
20. \_\_\_\_\_ Others (specify)

*B. Description of Problems:* Referring to the areas you checked above, describe in your own words, and in as much detail as possible, any significant problem(s) you have recently encountered as a supervisor.

### Part III

List below any topics you would like to have discussed in future supervisory conferences.

## APPENDIX 2

**Questionnaire for Staff Supervisory Training Needs Survey****Part I**

Consider each of the following topics and indicate your opinion as to whether or not *additional* training is needed. Check one response for each topic. (Supervisors should answer in terms of their own needs and those of other supervisors they know well. Managers should answer in terms of their own needs and those of supervisors reporting to them.)

Space is also provided for specific comments regarding the nature of the problem involved and/or the type of training that would be most appropriate. Such comments are particularly encouraged wherever the 'Yes' Column is checked. Indicate the number of the topic referred to.

Topic	Training Recommended		Comments
	Yes (1)	No (2)	
1. Organisation and function of major company components 2. Functions of plant and division staff activities (Labour Relations, Controller, Plant Engineering, etc.) 3. Line-staff relationships 4. Interviewing job applicants 5. Making the selection decision 6. Position classification system 7. Salary administration			

**Part II**

Many specialised short courses and seminars of interest to management personnel are offered by various management and professional associations as well as colleges and universities. These courses are intensive and comprehensive programmes of study and application in specific subject areas and generally involve eight to forty clock hours per topic.

A. The following list is a representative sample of possible topics for such specialised short courses. Review this list and check any you would be interested in attending, if offered by the Company (space is provided for suggesting additional topics) :

1. \_\_\_\_\_ The Functions and Goals of Management : Trends and Problems
2. \_\_\_\_\_ Data and Decision : The Use of Electronic Computers in Industry
3. \_\_\_\_\_ Principles and Techniques of Interviewing
4. \_\_\_\_\_ Understanding the Problems of Production Supervision
5. \_\_\_\_\_ Application of Scientific Method in Solving Business Problems
6. \_\_\_\_\_ Stimulating Employee Creativity
7. \_\_\_\_\_ Market Research Activities
8. \_\_\_\_\_ Effective Public Speaking
9. \_\_\_\_\_ Supervising the Professional Employee
10. \_\_\_\_\_ Operations Research Methods
11. \_\_\_\_\_ Work Standards
12. \_\_\_\_\_ Machine Capabilities

13. \_\_\_\_\_ Labour-Management Relationships
  14. \_\_\_\_\_ The Decision-Making Process
  15. \_\_\_\_\_ Recent Research Findings in Industrial Relations
  16. \_\_\_\_\_ Effective Report Writing
  17. \_\_\_\_\_ Manufacturing Automation
  18. \_\_\_\_\_ Human Relations in Industry
  19. \_\_\_\_\_ Company Research and Development Activities
  20. \_\_\_\_\_ Selection of Supervisory Personnel
  21. \_\_\_\_\_ Performance Appraisal
  22. \_\_\_\_\_ Information Theory Applied to Modern Physics and Engineering
  23. \_\_\_\_\_ Metal Processing : Recent Developments
  24. \_\_\_\_\_ Statistical Methods in Industry
  25. \_\_\_\_\_ The Design and Analysis of Industrial Experiments
  26. \_\_\_\_\_ Managing Product Engineering
  27. \_\_\_\_\_ The Future Growth of the National Economy
  28. \_\_\_\_\_ The Economic Challenge of the Soviet Union
  29. \_\_\_\_\_ Business Gaming : Simulating Managerial Decisions
  30. \_\_\_\_\_ Interpersonal Communications
  31. \_\_\_\_\_ Speed Reading.
- 
- 
- 

B. Review the topics you checked in question I above. Rank them in order of importance :

- (a) First choice
- (b) Second choice
- (c) Third choice

C. Consider the topic you ranked as your first choice. Would you regard it to be of sufficient importance and value to justify attending it during normal working hours? Yes/No \_\_\_\_\_

D. Check your present classification.

- (1) \_\_\_\_\_ Manager (Department Manager, Assistant Department Manager)
- (2) \_\_\_\_\_ Supervisor (Section Supervisor, Assistant Section Supervisor, Unit Supervisor)
- (3) \_\_\_\_\_ Other (specify)

#### Note

This questionnaire should *not* be answered by supervisors of production, i.e., Foremen, General Foremen, and Superintendents. (A separate form is available for the latter classifications.)

## Questionnaire to Evaluate a Training Programme

### Part I—General Evaluation

A. Please circle your most appropriate response in the 5 point scale on the right hand side.

	1	2	3	4	5
1. The extent to which you were aware of the objectives of the programme at the time of your nomination for this programme	Very Little	Little	Good	V. Good	Fully
2. The extent to which programme objectives were explained at the commencement of the programme					
3. The extent to which the programme objectives were fulfilled					
4. The extent to which the objective of the programmes was in line with your need					
5. The extent to which your need was satisfied					
6. The participant mix for the programme was	1 Very bad	2 Bad	3 Good	4 V. Good	5 Ideal
7. The duration of the programme was	1 Too Less	2 Less	3 Just Right	4 Much	5 Too Much
8. Do you agree that the programme would have been more beneficial if some background material would have been sent in advance	1 Strongly Agree	2 Agree	3 Difficult to Say	4 Little	5 Not at All
9. The relative coverage of various topics was	1 Highly Inadequate	2 Inadequate	3 Average	4 Sufficient	5 Ideal
10. How well was the programme organised	1 Very Badly	2 Badly	3 Well	4 Very Well	5 Exceptionally Well
11. Usefulness of the programme in direct work situation	1	2	3	4	5
12. Usefulness of the programme in indirect work situation	1	2	3	4	5
13. Usefulness of the programme in off the work situation	1	2	3	4	5
14. Usefulness of the programme in developing others	1	2	3	4	5
15. Usefulness of the programme in long-term	1	2	3	4	5
16. Usefulness of the programme in personal growth & development	1	2	3	4	5

- (a) How was your nomination made for this programme?
- (b) How much in advance you were informed of your nomination?
- (c) What was your expectation from this programme?
- (d) What should be the objective of such programmes?
- (e) What are the reasons for non-fulfilment of the programme objectives?
- (f) Kindly enumerate three important gains to you from this programme.
- (g) Kindly enumerate the topics/sessions needing more coverage and specify the duration wanted.
- (h) Kindly enumerate the topics/sessions which have been given coverage/time more than desired (please indicate the appropriate durations)?
- (i) Kindly enumerate the topics/sessions you would like to be omitted?
- (j) Any other suggestions for improving the programme?

### Part II—Session-wise Evaluation

Please give rating for each of these dimensions on a 5 point scale. For the rating scale please see Annexure 1 to Part II

Session Topic & Speaker	Duration of the session	Level of inputs/deliberations	Relevance & usefulness	Logical order	Training methodology	Communication	Quantity of training material	Quality of training material	Trainee involvement & participation	Level of gains or net contribution of session
	i	ii	iii	iv	v	vi	vii	viii	ix	x

### Annexure 1 to Part II—RATING SCALE

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. Duration of the session			1 Too much	2 Much	3 Just right	4 Less	5 Too Less
2. Level of inputs/deliberation			1 Too Advanced	2 Advanced	3 Just right	4 Elementary	5 Too elementary
3. Relevance and usefulness			1 Very Little	2 Little	3 Just relevant	4 Very Relevant	5 Extremely Relevant
4. Logical order			1 Very poor	2 Poor	3 Good	4 Very good	5 Outstanding
5. Training Methodology used			1 Very poor	2 Poor	3 Good	4 Very good	5 Outstanding
6. Communication			1 Very poor	2 Poor	3 Good	4 Very good	5 Outstanding
7. Quantity of training material			1 Too much	2 Much	3 Just right	4 Less	5 Too Less
8. Quality of training material			1 Very poor	2 Poor	3 Good	4 Very good	5 Outstanding
9. Trainee involvement and participation			1 Very poor	2 Poor	3 Good	4 Very good	5 Outstanding
10. Level of gains (or net contribution of session)			1 Very poor	2 Poor	3 Good	4 Very good	5 Outstanding

**Annexure 2 to Part II—SCORING KEY**

Scores to be given for the participant responses

	1	2	3	4	5
1. Duration of the session	2	4	5	3	1
2. Level of inputs/deliberation	2	4	5	3	1
3. Relevance and usefulness	1	2	3	4	5
4. Logical order	1	2	3	4	5
5. Training Methodology used	1	2	3	4	5
6. Communication	1	2	3	4	5
7. Quantity of Training Material	3	4	5	2	1
8. Quality of Training Material	1	2	3	4	5
9. Trainee involvement and participation	1	2	3	4	5
10. Level of gains (or net contribution of session)	1	2	3	4	5

**PART III—PROGRAMME ADMINISTRATION EVALUATION**

Please circle the responses you find most appropriate—

	1 Very poor	2 Poor	3 Good	4 Very good	5 Outstanding
1. Precourse information	....	....	....	....	....
2. Leadership & Coordination...	....	....	....	....	....
3. Boarding	....	....	....	....	....
4. Lodging	....	....	....	....	....
5. Tea/Snacks	....	....	....	....	....
6. Transportation	....	....	....	....	....
7. Field visits	....	....	....	....	....
8. Social programmes	....	....	....	....	....
9. Secretarial assistance	....	....	....	....	....
10. Any other	....	....	....	....	....