Chapter 1

An Introduction to Training & Development

1.0 Basic Concept of Training, Education and Development

Training may be defined as a planned programme designed to improve performance and bring about changes in knowledge, skills, attitude and social behaviour of employees. The major objective as well as outcome of training is learning and its subsequent application. Training is an important subsystem of HRD, the other subsystems being career planning, performance management, organization development (OD), job enrichment etc. The individuals discover and exploit their own inner potential through training.

Some people make a distinction between training and education. To them, training is concerned with the teaching of specific, factual, narrow-scoped subject matter and skills primarily of a motor or mechanical nature, while education is concerned with broader subject matter of a conceptual or theoretical nature and the development of personal attitudes and philosophies. But people basically act as integrated beings, whose knowledge, skills, and attitudes are interrelated and inseparable. To make a distinction between training and education is to ignore these interrelationships. The development of knowledge, skills, and attitudes cannot be compartmentalized. A distinction is sometimes made between training and development. Training is thought of as formal classroom learning activities, while development is thought of as all learning experiences, both on and off the job, including formal, classroom training. This distinction is important because it serves to emphasize the notion that formal classroom learning will be minimally effective at best, if on-the-job experience and learning are not consistent with and supportive of it (Watson, 1979).
Generally the training policies are formulated by the HR manager at the request of line managers. The training objectives are laid down keeping in view the company’s goals and objectives. But the general objectives of any training programme are:

- To impart the basic knowledge and skill to the new entrants and enable them to perform their jobs well.
- To equip the employees to meet the changing requirements of the job and the organization.
- To help the employees learn the new techniques and ways of performing the job or operations.
- To prepare employees for higher level tasks and build up a second line of competent managers (Rao, 2000).

1.1 Principles of Adult Learning

Learning is a relatively permanent change in behaviour that occurs as a result of insight, practice or experience. It is simply an addition (new information/knowledge) or subtraction (i.e. unlearning some old habit) or modification (adjusting new knowledge to old). In the training-learning area there are two concepts – one is Pedagogy (art and science of teaching children) and the other one is Andragogy (art and science of helping adults learn). Though there are many things common between the two, here the emphasis will be given on the Andragogy concept. Learning (in terms of Knowledge, Skill, Attitude etc.) is a complicated process. No one can authentically claim to know how it occurs. However, we do know that learning takes place more readily in some circumstances than in others, and that it can to a great extent be influenced. To facilitated, learning, a trainer needs to understand the various factors (mentioned below) which bear upon the learning process (Verma, 1998).
• Motivation: The most important factor in learning is "motivation to learn". Usually for any individual, more the motivation to learn, more the learning is. What motivates one person to learn may of course be quite different from what motivates another. So, the motivation is learner-specific.

• Stimulus, Response and Reinforcement: Rewarded behaviour is learned and tends to be repeated under similar conditions in future and vice-versa.

• Feedback or knowledge of results: The learner needs to know (from the trainer or colleagues or the learning situation itself) if he has been successful. The more the learner knows about what he is doing, the more rapidly is he able to make improvements in his performance.

• Participation and Practice: The more a trainee participates in the learning situation, the more effective will be the learning. Most trainees need to repeat the behaviour several times before they remember it. This is more so when an adult learner develops some skill.

There are several types of learning situation, each with its own ways of producing learning. Psychologists have named these kinds of learning as (1) Classical conditioning, (2) Operant conditioning & (3) Cognitive learning (Singh, 1998).

• Classical conditioning: For a particular human being, it is found that a particular kind of emotional response is produced against a particular stimulus. Emotional response to stimuli might have been acquired in childhood. As some emotional responses to stimuli have been learned through repetitions, they can also be unlearned by conscious efforts. The extinction and reconditioning of, say, disturbing emotional
responses (i.e. one form of behaviour therapy) through continued practice is a great example of classical conditioning.

- **Operant conditioning:** This is another learning situation considered distinct from classical conditioning. Reinforcement is the key word for understanding operant behaviour. Reinforcer is something like a reward. For example, “well done” from the boss after accomplishment is an example of reinforcer. Some of our beliefs, customs etc. may be learned through the mechanism of operant conditioning. It helps us to shape / reshape human behaviour.

- **Cognitive learning:** People learn many things just by being exposed to them. For example, someone reads a book and learns something. Learning situations where information is stored and processed by mind without explicit manipulation of reinforcers is called cognitive. The literal meaning of the word cognitive is “processing of input from the senses”. Cognitive learning can be defined as a change in the way information is processed as a result of experience a person has had.

### 1.2 A Systematic Approach to Training (SAT)

Earlier days there was one form of on-the-job training called “Sitting by Nellie”. Here Nellie was an experienced craftsman from whom the trainees would learn the things slowly in a less than professional manner. This “Nellie” training is based on observing an expert and learning by “psychological osmosis” (Verma, 1998). This training has many drawbacks and is not very systematic.

But, training is most effective when it is planned, implemented and evaluated in a systematic way. Unplanned, uncoordinated and haphazard training efforts greatly reduce the learning that can be expected (Rao, 2000). Table 1.1 shows 3 major components of a Systematic Approach to Training.
Table 1.1 A Systematic Approach to Training

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<tr>
<th>1. Assessment</th>
<th>2. Implementation</th>
<th>3. Evaluation</th>
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<td>• Determine training needs</td>
<td>• Select training methods</td>
<td>• Compare training outcomes against criteria.</td>
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<td>• Identify training objectives</td>
<td>• Conduct training</td>
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Many organisations are imparting training as per the SAT. For example, Steel Authority of India Limited (SAIL) is encouraging its managers to learn SAT in detail (through a training programme called “Manager as Trainer”) before they become trainers for various training programmes. These trained trainers are then assessing the training needs, conducting programmes and evaluating their impact with all seriousness as laid down in the Systematic Approach to Training.

1.3 Changes in training practice

Today training has in fact gone beyond SAT. The simplicities of 30 years ago that had qualified a trainer to be in complete charge of his/her session are over. Those days, the whole training programme would be announced in advance with topics and times detailed and the participants / trainees would follow it almost in letter and spirit. At present, training has come of age and is expected to make an adult contribution measured by effectiveness and cost. In today’s turbulent, high-tech, global and mobile environment, training practice has broadened in scope and also in essential relationships. Overall, changes in three directions (as detailed below) strike us as particularly important (Lynton & Pareek, 2000):

- Looking outward: Looking beyond designing and implementing immediate training programs demands more time, energy and
organized effort of trainers, program directors, and institution heads than in the past. Here, three different matters deserve attention. One is the productive relationship between trainers and the change managers (or the policy makers). Because training is not an isolated process. The second point is the technology-oriented training. Possibilities of Distance Learning (using E-mail, Internet, Interactive TV etc.) have multiplied and more are in the offing. The third important point is the collegial support amongst the training practitioners so that they can continuously learn from their own experiences. Regular contact with colleagues for sharing significant experiences and learning together is still very less, rivalries and commercial competition for contracts hold them back. Wider professional sharing with essential rigour is going to be available with the trainers as a regular habit in near future.

- Looking inward: Looking inward into the training domain is essential for making training a highly participative process. The learning motivation of individual participants in the training context vary a lot. Participants’ attitudes may range from eager excitement to high apprehension, wide openness to determined rejection. Helping the group develop a shared culture for learning remains a key part of a trainer’s task. General mood of the participants – at the starting of the programme, during the training programme and also when they try to use their learning back in the familiar settings of colleagues, family or neighbourhood – is a major determining factor as to whether the training is successful or not. Though the participants’ attitude depends much on the organizational and society-wide cultures and climates, the trainers (of course, with the resources provided by the policy makers and change managers) can always establish a conducive learning environment and help the participants learn from each other. This is a
softer aspect of training on which more and more importance is being given.

- Learning as Appreciative Enquiry: The most fundamental change in training practice is rooted deeper still, in recent neurological research about thinking habits. Research traces an individual’s thinking habits and learning habits to neurological pathways developed very early in life which are then fine-honed into virtually automatic use over the years and so become ingrained and very personal. The stubborn persistence of such dominant habits sets the stage for training. Participants’ habitual ways of seeing and doing things in a training setup are very difficult to shift. Today’s trainers create a warm atmosphere of openness during training and praise all signs of “forward movement” by the participants in stead of the old technique i.e. reprimanding for failure. Furthermore, in stead of colliding head-on with the learners’ deep-rooted habits resistant to change, the modern trainers try to attune training to the habitual paths to perception and learning that participants bring to learning. In this case the learners learn by “appreciative enquiry” and they apply their thinking and feeling both for learning new things. So, the learning becomes easier, more enjoyable, more effective and comparatively permanent in nature.

Now-a-days, the trainers have to play expanding roles to make training trainee-oriented which leads to self-directed learning. Unlike the earlier situation when “quick-fix” results would be expected from training, today’s training and trainers have to work patiently and rigorously and take care of the diversity of participants’ cultural background and their very own learning style for better results. Hopefully, this will happen more so in future.
1.4 Organisation as a Learning System

Now “turbulence” is recognized as the normal state of the business environment throughout the world. So, just making a learning effort from time-to-time and here and there in the organization is not sufficient. Today a “continuously learning organization” is essential and such kind of an organization can be made by collaborative effort. Chris Argyris says: single loop learning (something learned that improves task performance) is incomplete, but what is needed is “Double Loop Learning” (learning for improvement of task performance plus modification of organizational policies, structure, ways of operating etc. at the same time). In single loop learning, even if it be organization-wide, the organizational framework remains unchanged. In Double Loop Learning, the organization uses the learning for changing its framework as well (Lynton & Pareek, 2000).

For any new learning to take place through the training programmes held in the organization, some unlearning of the existing knowledge is a must. The participants have to first accomplish the “abandonment of a familiar position” to make room for any new learning. New knowledge and understanding has to displace or at least modify impressions already there. So unlearning precedes learning and the trainers are the catalysts in this unlearning-learning process (Lynton & Pareek, 2000).

Learning is for individuals, for the teams, for the whole organization and also for the organization-in-its-environment (i.e. the system). In any organization, learning is continuous and lifelong. So the concept of “learning organization” has gained such a heavy momentum that people are viewing the organization as a learning system. Training is a full partner in the learning system and not just a resource to it (Lynton & Pareek, 2000).
The learning organization paradigm has a number of major tenets as given below:

(1) Responding boldly to partial understanding, (2) Appreciating complexity, (3) Constant collaboration, (4) Learning to create the future, (5) Mastering personal excellence and (6) Experimenting continuously and learning how to learn (Lynton & Pareek, 2000).

The participants can benefit greatly if he can be helped “to learn how to learn” effectively from his day to day experiences. It is important for a trainee to acquire the ability to creatively process his own experiences and learn from them. The inculcation of a capacity to learn can be of important practical significance for job environments in which the individual is called upon to adjust rapidly to changes in equipment and technology (Singh, 1998).

Strong companies learn from their very best. Internal best practice discovery is one of their most important rituals. For that they set up an “internal university”. The main function of this “university” should be to provide a forum for showcasing how your best, in every role, do what they do. As far as possible, every employee should be exposed to the thinking, the actions, and the satisfactions of your best, in every role. Your employees can learn many other things at this “university” – policies, rules, techniques – but the main focus should be a presentation of internal best practices. This “university” can be as flexible, informal, and brief as the size and complexity of your organization requires – the important thing is “to learn from your best in a disciplined way” (Buckingham & Coffman, 2000).

1.5 Managers as Partners at Different Stages of Training

Training is not an isolated process. Training and Development (T&D) professionals must transform themselves into knowledgeable business people who also understand the overall framework in which their organization operates. The training manager is a major player on the organisational field. Similarly, the functional managers must also understand and feel the essence of T&D activities in the organization. Ideally, the training managers and the
functional managers should be “partners” in the process of organizational change and development, which is in fact a continuous affair. But the reality is different. The range of “quality of relationship” between the functional managers and the T&D managers varies widely (from worst i.e. hostile to best i.e. full partner) as shown in figure 1.1.

Figure 1.1 Relationship between Line managers and T&D managers

![Diagram showing the range of relationships between Line managers and T&D managers]

In the champion stage the managers give active support to the T&D people and they themselves own training, not merely as the clients but as in-charge of having training meet the purpose(s) they set. At the highest level (i.e. full partnership), the managers actually acquire competencies in T&D and join training teams from time-to-time as colleagues in their role and they become the resource persons in “capacity-building” through training (Lynton & Pareek, 2000).

In the pre-training stage, the involvement of the manager is needed most. Here a couple of things are essential. Selecting suitable participants to be trained and motivating/preparing them for training is the first job to be done jointly by the functional manager and the T&D manager. Then, planning and making a start with getting associated changes ready in time for participants to put their
training to good use as soon as they return is the best contribution managers can make at this stage. This communicates better than anything else that all, they themselves and the whole organization, mean what they keep saying about how vital change is and the training for it. This is all about getting the settings ready for new task performance. In the next stage (i.e. while participants are in training) the functional managers are expected to keep “continuing contact” with the employees / participants in an encouraging manner as they learn the new and useful things. In fact, this improves the “caring and sharing attitude” of the employees undergoing training. And during the follow-up stage (i.e. in the post-training stage), the managers must give full cooperation to the trained employees in terms of their smooth transition from training situation to “back-home” situation so that the employees can put their training to best use quickly and play their part in pushing the change strategy ahead. This way, the “full partnership” between the managers and the trainers can lead to a situation when the training gets aligned with the business. Training no more remains just a special resource to the managers, but becomes their “general partner” (Lynton & Pareek, 2000).

1.6 Training Methods and their Implication

Training can improve the Attitude, Skill & Knowledge (ASK) of people. At present, various training methods / techniques are available and used by the trainers depending upon the type and nature of the programme. For example. Case Study method may be suitable for the managerial training, On-the-job (OJT) method may be chosen for the Technical skill-based training. Training techniques and tools have been in a state of dynamic development over the last couple of decades. The developments in this field have greatly contributed to the individual development and organizational transformation. Some of the comparatively new training techniques related to Concept (i.e.
Concept Training: For improving the conceptual level of the participants the methods used are – Discussion, Questionology, Syndicates, Cases etc. All of these methods are participative in nature. Questionology is a particular variant of the lecture-discussion method and in Syndicate method the small groups are assigned conceptual topics for discussion and presentation.

Skill Training: Through Questionology, Syndicates, Cases there is some scope for skill development such as skills of analysis, communication, presentation and interaction. However, these are indirect methods of skill training. More direct methods are available for skill development such as Role play, Management game Action learning, OJT etc. In Role play two or more individuals are given separate briefs for playing different roles. Sometimes the roles are interchanged. This is known as role reversal. Through role play the participants learn the skills of listening, empathy, conflict resolution and consensus building. Management games have the potential to improve skills of group decision-making, competitive analysis, planning, monitoring and control. Action learning involves studying and observing the intricate and delicate affairs of one enterprise and offering solutions to problems in another enterprise. It helps develop the skills of analysis, problem solving, presentation and consultancy.

Attitudinal Training: This is relatively the most difficult of the three areas of training. Some amount of attitudinal learning may take place in some of the techniques discussed above. But the following techniques are more directly aimed at attitudinal training:

- Laboratory – This is called by various names – T(Training) Group, L(Learning) Group, Sensitivity Training or Group Dynamics. The basic methodology is that a small group or participants are invited to be the “Subjects” as well as “Scientists” of human behaviour as if in a
laboratory. The trainer does not assume a traditional “authority” role. Several new variants of the Laboratory methods have been emerging such as laboratories on Identity, Role, Power, Leadership, Creativity and Conflict Resolution. A variety of attitudinal and value learning can take place in such laboratories.

- **Brainstorming** – While being used for problem solving the brainstorming session can help develop attitude of openness, freedom, tolerance of ambiguity, mutual respect and resource utilization.
- **Workshop** – This again is used primarily for problem solving and action planning. In the process it has considerable scope for attitudinal learning in terms of respect for theory as well as practice and the need to blend both in the optimal proportion.

Off late, appropriate electronic technology (Mishra & Gunguli, 2002) is being used for better implementation of training. These modern training aids/tools/resources are changing the approach of almost all the training methods. Followings are some recent electronic technologies are being used for training:

- Personal Computer (PC)
- Video tapes
- Television
- Compact Disk (CD)
- Computer Aided Instruction (or Programmed instruction)
- Tele conferencing
- Interactive video
- Internet
- Multimedia Projector
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For a broad understanding of the classification and methods of training and their implication, three major dimensions may be kept in view. These dimensions are:

- the amount of participant activity allowed,
- the amount of emphasis on cognitive learning,
- the amount of emphasis on providing experience and scope for experimentation by the participants.

Participant-activity is not necessarily in conflict with trainer activity. The trainer’s role remains central; he directs and controls. Even then the participant-activity can be either high or low. Using the above mentioned three dimensions, the following eight sets of training methods (Lynton & Pareek. 2000) are given below:

- Inspirational methods: These methods are primarily based on high activity on the part of the trainer. For example - Giving a sermon to the participants in the hope that this will change their attitudes and behaviour. In this methodology all the three dimensions are low.

- Expository methods: In these methods, cognitive emphasis is very high, while participant activity and emphasis on experiences is low. A good example of expository is the lecture method.

- Natural learning methods: Learners are left on their own, with free and unplanned activity. The emphasis on learner activity is high, whereas it is low on planned experience or on cognitive inputs. The following examples are worth mentioning in this regard: Trial and error learning. On-the-job training (OJT) and Discussion method.

- Individualized methods: These methods are low on providing experience or experimentation by the learner and high on both participant activity and cognitive emphasis. For example: Programmed Instruction(PI). In PI the participants learn at their own pace, step-by-
step and have questions to be answered by themselves to get a feedback on their learning.

- **Behaviour control methods:** These are very low on the cognitive dimension and on active participation of learners. The main emphasis is on helping the learner experience, and experiment with, some behaviour. Two examples are worth mentioning here: One is Behaviour reinforcement (In this method, each act of desired behaviour is rewarded and reinforced and the learner experiences and experiments various phenomena and learns) and the other one is Modelling (Here, the participant observes as her/his model the trainers and the general climate prevailing in the institution and learns the desirable norms of behaviour).

- **Controlled exposure methods:** A low level of participation by the trainees and a high emphasis on experience and cognitive learning characterize these methods. A good example is Demonstration, where the trainer shows some action and experimentation and the participants observe and learn.

- **Encounter methods:** These methods emphasize both experiencing by the learner as well as learner-activity, they are not high on cognitive learning. In fact, the main aim of these methods is to help the participant learn new behaviour and practice it. Examples are – Laboratory training, Creativity training, Motivation development etc.

- **Discovery methods:** When the emphasis is high on all the three dimensions, i.e., cognitive learning, activity by the learner, and experience & experimenting by the learner, we have methods in which people discover knowledge for themselves. These methods are very effective in producing change in behavior. The rationale of these methods is that change in behaviour does not occur only by new experience and reinforcement but also by the development of proper
cognitive framework, so that people learn why certain things happen and be able to understand and advance their insight further. Several such methods are available, such as Experiments, Field training, Case teaching, Role playing and Behaviour simulation.

1.7 Importance of Management Training

Management training – sometimes called by Management Development– refer to activities designed to improve the performance and qualities of the existing managers and to provide a supply of managers to meet the need of the organization in future and extend the understanding of the management activities by drawing from the following three resource areas (Singh, 1998):

- Knowledge, skills and teaching abilities manifested by the academic world.
- Experience, Expertise and resources provided by the organization within which the trainee operates.
- Trainee himself / herself.

Some examples of Management Development Programmes (MDPs) which are generally conducted in the business organizations are – Enhancing Managerial Effectiveness, Presentation & Communication skills, Team Building & Motivation, Managing Self etc. Reasons for conducting the MDPs in the organizations are as follows:

- They broaden the manager’s vision and understanding in preparation for additional responsibility.
- They provide the manager with the latest information on business theory and practice.
- They stimulate a more creative and innovative approach to problem solving and decision making.
• They give the manager the opportunity to discuss ideas and problems with other businesspeople.
• They allow the manager to reflect upon and assess his or her career development and work role.

In effect, Management Training can produce important benefits to the managers as well as the organizations. It can communicate to managers the corporate philosophy and policies and help them learn the consequences of different leadership styles under different situations. MDPs stimulate thinking and provide new and deeper insights to the managers through face-to-face discussion. They help the managers develop various managerial skills. Management training can change the managers’ attitudes (Watson, 1979) and improve organizations’ efficiency and effectiveness.

Many multinational companies (MNCs) have established their own universities or management schools (Dowling, Welch & Schuler, 2001) for training and development of their managers and leaders. They make their managers suitably trained and internationally oriented for getting competitive advantage on a continuous basis. In-house management development centres of various organizations help develop the leadership skills and attitudes through the need-based managerial training programmes. The MNCs also design and conduct various Cultural Awareness Programmes for preparing their managers in respect of cross-cultural skill development with a view to managing the international assignments effectively.

1.8 Developing Individuals and Teams for Organizational Transformation
As per the Action Centred Leadership model – which is also known as Action Leadership model proposed by John Adair – the entire gamut of business management includes three things (diagrammatically represented by three
circles of equal size), namely – to develop individuals, to build teams and to achieve tasks. Out of these three essential components, if any one is left out then the organization’s objectives will not be realized. The complex organizational task are performed through the effort of teams, each consisting of developed individuals. The development of individuals as well as teams becomes more important during the changing times i.e. “turbulence”. A trainer can play the vital role of a change agent during organizational transformation. “He counts heavily on a body of valid knowledge in order to realize his aims, under guidance of certain ethical principles, and with the client’s interest in mind. This last point should be emphasized; the change agent must defer his own personal gratification in his dealings with the target system of his client, particularly in dealing with something as important as a large and complex organization where the change agent’s actions may affect thousands of individual – he must continually check his own needs, motives, and wishes against the reality of the client’s needs” (Verma, 1998).

Is training really necessary in this age of electronic revolution? A proposition is that the organizational change and development can take place by training just a few masters to get work done through force and manipulation exercised on a large no. of servants. Because force is the primary moving power of traditional relationships in some situations. Even, some people advocate the use of force – openly or camouflaged – for large-scale changes. But, it has got serious limitations. On the other hand, training can lead to sustained, self-generating, deep-rooted, broad-based development. Training is a part of the grand march toward greater equality between people, more widespread opportunities, participation, involvement, collaboration and rising expectations. So, a kind of reorientation from force culture to training culture is needed today for successful organizational transformation (Lynton & Pareek, 2000).
In the context of the organizational values, “OCTAPACE” is the centrepiece for all improvement plans in the organization. The OCTAPACE culture – as advocated by Prof. Udai Pareek – is the most desired culture in the organizations today. O stands for openness and implies confronting problems squarely rather than avoiding them; C Stands for confrontation, and implies facing the problems and exploring ways of improving relationships among individuals and for searching solutions to problems facing the organization; T stands for trust and for generating mutuality in the organization; A stands for authenticity which underlies trust and which means acknowledging the feelings one has and accepting both, oneself as well as others who relate to one as a person, which helps in the development of mutuality of trust; P stands for proaction, which means that the organization should take the initiative to influence the situation instead of merely reacting to it; A stands for autonomy and involves collaboration and mutuality, it also means that individuals do not feel threatened while seeking help from others in coping with the problems, and seeking help is not derogatory or taken as a weakness; C stands for collaboration and implies that individuals work in teams and develop commitment to their roles and to the organization, E stands for experimentation. This implies that the organization uses and encourages innovative approaches to problem solving. It uses feedback for improvements and encourages creativity. It also means that the organization is capable of taking a fresh look at things (Prasad, 1996). So, the concept of OCTAPACE advocates – alongside the other core values – the formation, development and nurturing of teams consisting of collaborative and competent individuals in the interest of the organizations.
1.9 Three Phases in the Training Process

The training process is separated into three phases: Pre-training, Training and Post-training i.e. Preparation, Training and Follow-up respectively. These three phases are described below:

Phase 1: Pre-training

The process starts with understanding the situation requiring more effective behaviour. The answer to the following basic question is to be found out. What and whose performance is to be improved? If this performance improvement is found possible through training effort, then target population, training needs and the programme objectives & contents have to be decided. During the pre-training phase, two most important jobs are Assessment of training needs and Designing the training programme.

In the context of any organization’s development, the gap between its “current level of performance” and the “desired level of performance” is the basis for finding out the training needs. In most of the situations this “performance gaps” can be addressed through training. The performance gap (or the competence gap) can be translated into the training needs or training objectives. In an organization not only the individual but the group or even the organizational culture need to be developed to set in organizational effectiveness. Thus training needs can be said to exist at following three levels (Soni, 1997):

- Individual needs
  
  Skill, knowledge and attitude are the three dimensions of a performer which contribute towards his/her total effectiveness or the competence. One can have basic knowledge and skill to justify for the job description but the improvement in these dimensions with reference to the occupational and organizational needs can bring out better results.
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Amongst the individual needs supervisory skill development. Managerial/Executive Development, Decision making needs etc. are important needs.

- Occupational needs
  The need to fulfill the competence gap to perform quality output breaking the barriers of interpersonal group effectiveness, developing confidence to take up challenges and initiatives; generally clarifies the occupational need. Team Development, Group dynamism, OJT, etc. can be considered as occupational needs.

- Organisational needs
  Every organization strives for excellence in job performance to achieve total dynamism in respect of fulfilling its objectives. Therefore there must be an approach to develop the individual by way of correcting his attitude, appraising and counseling him/her etc. which can promote harmonious work culture. The management development programmes, OD etc. are the common organizational needs.

Major sources for identifying Training & Development needs (TNI) of individuals are performance appraisal (or performance management), career plans and system introduction/improvement (Singh, 1998). Firstly, in the Performance Management system there is scope to identify the difference between the organisation’s expectations and the individual’s performance. Generally, TNI forms a part of management appraisal system. Secondly, based on the advance information made available about changes (like job enrichment, transfer, promotion) in content/context of the job of an individual, the training manager organizes suitable inputs to prepare the individual for the change. The details of inputs to be given to the individual emerges from discussions the Training Manager has with the concerned employees and his superiors, both
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present and future. Thirdly, new systems and procedures, when introduced, call for intervention from the Training & Development function. Implementation of new systems becomes much easier, if all individuals/groups concerned are explained in advance about the change and how to make the best use of the same. One more source of TNI is “Competency Mapping” which is being held in many organizations now-a-days. It is an organization-wide activity to find out the present/future competency needs and the competencies available in the organization.

During the pre-training phase, the other very important job – other than TNI – is Designing the training programme. Designing starts from setting the clear training objectives. Generally, the trainers – sometimes with the help and participation of the functional managers – take the responsibility of designing the programme. But the programme designed first time may not be the final programme in terms of contents, sequence, methodology, faculty selection, resource allocation, use of training aids and training evaluation. Usually, the trainers quickly put forward a standard readymade “package” that would actually address the particular objectives only crudely or partly. In fact, the designing of the final training programme happens through “Successive Approximations” (Lynton & Pareek, 2000) and it takes enough time, effort and active participation of the trainers and the managers of the user departments. Designing a training programme involves five steps: First step is “roughing out” an overall design depending on the organization’s training strategy. The second step is to break the general training objectives into constituent parts like knowledge, understanding and skill. The third step is to use the specifications of different training methods in order to arrive at the total time and facilities required for meeting the objectives. The fourth step is to decide on the different packages in which the particular programme could be offered and to ask the organization to select one. The fifth step in designing a training
programme is to dovetail detailed training events into training sequences and finally into the programme as a whole. Presently, an increasing number of institutions are experimenting with composing the training syllabus in subject blocks or “modules” for the ease of understanding by the participants. The modular approach to programme design demand special care in preparation in general and sequencing in particular. In any training programme some amount of flexibility has to be provided. The basic blocks or the core of a programme can be fixed in advance and the details of the other part of the programme can be announced as the participants progress to that part of the programme. Extent of flexibility to be allowed in the programme depends on the nature of the task, trainers’ past experience and the composition of the group of participants. Whatever way a training is designed, there has to be a scope for monitoring and improving training during the programme.

Phase 2 : Training

In this phase (i.e. when the training is being conducted), the participants actually learn. Participants explore in a training situation what interests them and the trainers’ basic task is to provide relevant opportunities. Having explored, participants try out some new behaviour. The main purpose of conducting a training programme is to bring about “more effective behaviour” in the participants. For achieving this, the participants’ level of motivation for learning has to be very high throughout the programme. If the approach and style followed in the programme match with the participants’ preferred learning style, then it is better. In a training situation where lot of interactions take place, grows a general training climate, an ambience, a tone. When the climate is favourable, nothing goes wrong in the programme. The participants enjoy a kind of self-fulfilling learning experience in a conducive learning environment which is open and non-threatening. Climate setting is the skill of a trainer. She/he has to set and maintain a climate of mutual respect.
collaborativeness, supportiveness, mutual trust and of fun. In short, as learning is a human activity, a human climate has to be maintained during the training programme. For conducting a training programme effectively, some of the major abilities / qualities (Verma, 1998) that a trainer must posses and exhibit in a programme are mentioned below:

- Technical competence in the subject area
- High level of interpersonal skills
- Gaining satisfaction from training situation
- Empathy, patience and listening skill
- Having a genuine interest in people
- Flexibility in the use of training tactics.

Phase 3: Post-training

Training is not a cost but an investment. People sharpen their skills and attitudes through training, in the process they develop and their organization flourishes. Training is mandatory for taking higher positions in many organizations today. But every training director faces the nagging questions: What has been the impact and value of the training effort? Does training really do any good? Is it worth the money spent for it? The answers to these and other questions relating to the impact and values of training are difficult and challenging. Even when they are found, they are often subject to problems of measurement and subjective interpretations. The evaluation of training is relatively straightforward for the technical programmes. But, evaluating the management training is challenging because it involves the development of conceptual judgement, problem solving skills and the ability to work with others. Especially, the causal relationships between learning (from a particular MDP) and improved performance is not easily ascertained (Watson, 1979).

When any formal training concludes, the situation changes. Participants once again give full attention to real-life tasks, colleagues and families. In the
“back-home situation” a process of adjustment begins for everyone involved. For instance, newly learned skills undergo modification to fit the actual home situation. The post-training phase includes the evaluation of training effectiveness and follow-up. It starts when the programme is about to end and may continue for quite a long time. The basic purpose of training evaluation (TE) is to improve the quality of training, trainees, trainers, training institute and the organization as a whole. Evaluation results can be divided into two parts – namely Tangibles and Intangibles. One way of evaluating training is to check whether and how much the set of training objectives have been met. Another concept of training impact evaluation which many organizations follow is “Training Audit” with reference to some predetermined standard. TE is done at various levels and different levels of evaluation are conducted at different times such as just after the programme or three months after the programme etc. TE is done by various agencies like the trainers or / and the participants or / and the line managers or / and some third party. Evaluation information are needed by various people – e.g. the trainers, training directors and CEOs – for various reasons. But the ultimate purpose of post-training evaluation is the enhancement of the quality and quantity of training for organizational transformation which means that TE is done with a view to “better learning” and ensuring “better transfer of learning” to the “real world” i.e. the organization or the society.

1.10 Models of Training Evaluation

Evaluation means the assessment of value or worth. Evaluation of training is the act of judging whether or not it is worthwhile in terms of set criteria(objectives). Hamblin (1970) defined TE as “any attempt to obtain information (feedback) on the effects of training programme and to assess the value of training in the light of that information for improving further
training.” There are a number of models available for TE. The following four distinct TE models are given here:

Model-1: Korb’s TE model (1956)
According to Korb, training can be measured with respect to the following three sets of criteria:

a) In-course evaluation of participants’ progress (This is an appraisal of the effects of training at the “training room” level).

b) Impact on the participants after training (This is an appraisal of the effects of training as revealed by subsequent, modified behaviour on the job).

c) Impact on the organization (This involves a determination of the extent to which training has played a part in organizational success).

Model-2: Kirkpatrick’s TE model (1967)
This approach to training evaluation involves measuring the effectiveness of a training programme in terms of four criteria:

a. Reaction – How well did the participants like the program?

b. Learning – What principles, facts and techniques were learned?

c. Behaviour – What changes in job behaviour resulted from the training?

d. Results – What were the tangible results of the training program in terms of reduced cost, improved quality, improved quantity, etc.?

Model-3: Hamblin’s TE model (1974)
This model extends Kirkpatrick’s ideas one step further. Hamblin’s evaluation scheme thus involves five levels of TE which he labels as the following:

a) Reactions – Reactions of participants to the learning experience and to those who presented it (i.e., coordinators and trainers). Reactions of programme coordinator and the various trainers in the programme regarding the learning environment and experience. Reactions consist of
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opinions and conclusions based on first-hand observations. They may be collected during, immediately after, or several months after the training occurs.

b) Learning – Measures of changes in attitudes, knowledge, and skills of the trainees. These changes may be measures immediately after the training experience to determine a programme’s immediate impact and several weeks or months later to measure retention.

c) Job behaviour – An assessment of how trainees behave differently because of their training. The biggest question this aspect of the evaluation process aims to answer is how and to what extent have trainees applied the various concepts and processes learned? It also seeks to determine who among the trainees have been changed as a result of the training.

d) Organizational impact – This involves assessing the effects of attitude and behavioural changes caused by the training on both the functioning and the ability to function of the organization to which the trainees belong. The aim of this phase of evaluation is to ascertain both quantitative and qualitative changes in organizational performance which can be attributed to the training directly or indirectly.

e) Additional outcomes – Other results or by-products of the training are not identified or assessed by the other four areas. This includes such things as the “social value of training”. To what extent do trainees feel better about themselves? Has the training helped people satisfy some of their personal goals? Has it assisted them in their career development? Whereas organizational impact refers to an assessment of contributions of training to the direction it has chosen to head or would like to head, the assessment of additional outcomes involves an examination of the impacts training has had on the organization’s performance or capacity to perform with respect to measures it presently does not use.
Model-4: Virmani & Premila's TE model (1985)

According to this model, Training Evaluation is a three-stage system. The three stages are mentioned below:

a) Pre-training evaluation – Pre-training evaluation is a useful precedence to the training process. It would not only help the management and the trainee in identifying training needs but also help the trainers to become acquainted with the diverse training needs of the participants of a particular training programme.

b) Context & Input evaluation – Once clarity about the objectives and expectations from training is achieved and the profile of the participants being trained is known, the trainer ought to have at least some information about the context in which the trainee has to work after training. The work and organizational climate, the hierarchical level occupied by the trainee, his job characteristics and other organizational factors aids in the formulation of a training design which best suits their requirements. Besides the context evaluation, input evaluation helps determine whether the training inputs:

i) give the trainees an opportunity to learn;

ii) result in enduring learning;

iii) influence the trainees' subsequent work performance and

iv) result in demonstrable benefits to the organization

c) Post-training evaluation – This stage consists of following five levels of evaluation:

i) Reaction evaluation – The participants' impressions about the course in general and about immediate specific inputs are measured during and after the course.

ii) Learning evaluation – Based on the research findings, Virmani and Premila have suggested arriving at a “Learning Index” (L.I)
with the help of pre-training and post-training score. Greater the LI for any particular programme, better it is in respect of participant’s learning. LI is defined as follows:

\[
LI = \frac{\text{Post-training score(\%)} - \text{Pre-training score(\%)}}{100 - \text{Pre-training score(\%)}} \times 100
\]

iii) Job improvement plan (JIP) – It is recommended that the preparation of an individual action plan called JIP helps improve the trainee’s job-performance subsequent to training. Preparation of JIP is found to stimulate the participant and provide him/her an opportunity to evaluate his/her own learning and subsequently the transfer of learning to job. JIP may be prepared / modified by the trainee in consultation with his/her superiors and colleagues and the trainers concerned.

iv) On-the-Job evaluation – This step is not purely evaluative, but needs to be integrated with the training process since it involves gathering information about the constraints in transfer of training and offering guidelines to the organization for facilitating the transfer.

v) Follow-up of evaluation – Evaluation at this stage involves monitoring and follow-up of the trainees’ performance in the back-home situation to assess the contribution of training to the organization on a continuous basis. It also helps in identifying specific areas where improvements have been effected and in evaluating outcome in cost-benefit terms. The JIP can be used as a reference point to check action steps (a) implemented, (b) to be implemented and (c) could not be implemented.
All the training evaluation models discussed above can be applied to the management development programmes (MDPs) and also for the other types of training programmes. The various levels of evaluation of the different models are not mutually exclusive, rather they may have some commonality. But still, on overall basis each of the models has some speciality and uniqueness in terms of the approach to and total no. of levels of evaluation. Any business organization – while framing its “evaluation design” for training – can even consider using more than one model (in full or in part) in a combined form if it finds it suitable and effective from the viewpoint of the continuous improvement in the quality of training and development in the organization.

1.11 Evaluating the Management Development Programmes

Evaluating any training programme is a key area and also a difficult area of T&D. Because, evaluating the learning in general and “transfer of learning” in particular is a complex affair. It is much more difficult to measure the learning as well as the transfer of learning when it comes to evaluating the management training. The nature and variability of managerial tasks make measurement of the on-the-job performance in some situations unrealistic (Verma, 1998). Moreover, what part of the improvement in on-the-job performance can be attributed to the MDP cannot be articulated easily.

The four common imbalances that happen in the training programmes are :-

Input overload, Unrealistic learning goals, Alienation and Linkage failure. The negative effects of these imbalances are clearly reflected during the post training evaluation phase. Input overload happens when the trainers attempt to cram too much into the programme or they schedule a major group task very late. By this, a high level of excitement may be generated amongst the participants at the end of the programme which is often mistaken as the success of training. Secondly, the participants sometimes set their learning goals too high. And then, even though these unrealistic goals are unattainable all along.
the trainers fail to dislodge them from the participants' minds. Sometimes the participants engage themselves in competitive goal-setting without considering the realities of actual situations. Many participants who take the unrealistic goals back are bound to fail and to become disenchanted. Next is Alienation. As participants draw closer to each other during the training programme, they separate themselves from family, friends and colleagues who stay behind. The separation is usually widened by the new things participants learn from the programme. The gap is particularly noticeable if it occurs in attitudes and values (it happens more in MDPs). In this kind of situation the participants find it difficult to communicate their learning to others in the back-home situation. Alienation or isolation can be most painful to the participant. Lastly, the Linkage failure happens when the nature of work (present as well as future jobs) of the participant and that of the training programme are not in congruence with each other. Training and work must be linked with the help of some planned organizational efforts. The organization's preparedness to give wholehearted support to the trained participants in the implementation of their new learning takes care of the problem of linkage failure to a great extent. Each of the four common imbalances discussed above has to be taken care of and minimized during the Pre-training phase (i.e. training-designing or redesigning phase) so that the "transfer of learning" happens effectively (Lynton & Pareek, 2000).

Evaluating the MDPs may be problematic, but the techniques of measuring the training effectiveness are available. Some of the techniques of data collection are: Questionnaires (say, for learning and reaction level evaluation), Paper and pencil tests (say for learning level), Job performance test (say for behavioural level evaluation), Interviews (say for behavioural level and result level), Visual observation (say for JIP evaluation) and Rating forms (say for reaction level and behaviour level). In the past, there was widespread belief
that the programmes designed to promote “soft skills” could not be evaluated. But today it is no longer so because the tools are available to conduct evaluations of most training programmes designed to promote even social competence (Singh, 2003). As an example of evaluation of management training, a programme named “Supervisory Development Programme” or SDP is considered here for discussion. This programme is conducted in a PSU once in a month taking 15 to 20 supervisor-participants in a batch. The pre-requisite for the participants is that he / she must have at least 5 year’s working experience as a supervisor in some department at the time of joining the programme. The duration of the programme is 6 days and the programme is held at the Central Training Institute of the company. The SDP covers the areas of Communication, Motivation, Teamworking, Total Quality Process, Self-development and Developing others. Various methods like lecture / discussion, case study, management game, individual exercise, presentation are employed in SDP. The topics covered are very important but subjective in nature. But, still the company has certain evaluation system for SDP. This programme is evaluated at 4 levels in a unique way. At the end of the programme each participant has to respond to a detailed and well-structured questionnaire which covers both the participant’s reaction and also the participant’s learning / knowledge gathered from the programme. Each participant has to answer a structured questionnaire covering relevant management topics at the beginning of the programme as a test of his knowledge level before any input is given to him. This way the reaction / satisfaction / dissatisfaction of each participant and the improvement in his knowledge level due to the programme is measured objectively. In this programme each participant fixes up his individual learning goals (and action plans, if any) in consultation with his immediate boss and the trainers. There is a system of behaviour level evaluation also for each individual participant. Three to four months after the programme is held, the immediate supervisor of
each participant is distributed a specially designed questionnaire for judging the behavioural change in the participant with reference to his own learning goals (in terms of his communication skill, teambuilding activities, ability to motivate and develop self and others etc.). The immediate supervisor concerned is also interviewed in an informal and open atmosphere for the same purpose as a back-up method. Finally, those departments are searched where at least 30 percent of the supervisors have been trained on SDP in the past one year. For those identified departments, the organizational level evaluation is held jointly by the training managers and the functional managers through the “SDP opinion survey” where the respondents are the senior supervisors, managers, sectional heads and departmental heads. Through this survey an attempt is made to find out whether any tangible or intangible benefits have taken place in the department / organization which can be attributed to SDP. Through out this evaluation process an attempt is also made to find out the ways in which the existing SDP can be modified and improved for achieving better organizational impact. In all the questionnaires mentioned above some of the questions are objective type (multiple choice, five-point Likert scale etc.) and rests are subjective type open-ended questions so that the questionnaires become balanced and effective. Finally a “comprehensive department-wise SDP evaluation report” considering all related factors is prepared by a small committee of trainers and practicing managers mainly with a view to improving the quality and effectiveness of the SDP, the participants, the trainers and the organization.

Basically, the evaluation of the MDPs consists of two activities e.g. collection of data and interpretation of data. For measuring the learning as well as the transfer of learning to job performance in respect of the MDPs, there appear to be essentially three general approaches (Watson, 1979):
• A common-sense approach, which essentially involves a non-
  systematically collected sample of feelings, opinions, and conclusions
  based upon observations.

• A systematic approach, which consists of collecting indicators and
  evidences. The evidences to be collected are decided upon in advance,
  before the training occurs. It includes judgements which can be shown
  to be logically derived from observations and inferences. These may be
  collected by means of interviews, questionnaires and group discussions.

• An experimental approach, which attempts to study changes of
  knowledge, skills and attitudes under controlled conditions.

In case of the MDPs, measuring the changes in attitudes, behaviour, values and
personal competencies is the unique activity. So the measuring instruments
(i.e. questionnaires etc.) have to be constructed / selected very carefully and
they have to be tested for validity and reliability before they are applied. This
way the MDPs’ evaluation can become real, meaningful and effective.

1.12 Future Directions in the Field of Training

In the context of human development (HRD) and organizational
development (OD) the T&D function has the power and potential to make the
organizations vibrant, strong and lively. To make this happen the behaviour,
beliefs and assumptions of the leaders / mentors / trainers in the organizations
have to be very positive and conducive. Today it is expected and believed that
Training is for organizational transformation. Only individual learning cannot
transform the organization. For this, in fact, collective learning must take place
in the organization on a continual basis. The quality and speed of unlearning
and learning have to be more and more in future. A special training cadre will
be created with clear prospects for promotion and career advancement (Lynton
& Pareek, 2000). Provision for “coming in and going back to the service
system after serving a minimum period" will have to be made. Only highly competent people will be placed in the training institutions and special programmes will be organized for enhancing the competency of the trainers. Then latest training infrastructure along with other organizational support is to be provided for better training effectiveness. For all these, the training function must be represented at the strategy-making level of the organizations so that upgrading the quality of training and learning on a non-stop basis becomes a top priority in tomorrow's organizations.

In the coming years the organizations and the human life will be more and more technology driven. At the same time we shall be facing different set of problems. Our focus will be “sustainable development” in the areas of value generation, learning, environment, standard of living and self-management. In the area of learning, the new learning styles may be evolved and used in future. As per the “Learning Style Inventory” model developed by David Kolb of MIT, People actually learn best when they use modes that suit them (Goleman, 2002). There will be scope of lot of freedom for the participants in the training programme. Training will be offered in a more customized form so that “self-directed learning” can take place in a natural rhythm. With the passage of time the nature of training has been changing from “push mode” to “pull mode”. Flexibility in training – within the boundary of the training objectives – will be taking such proportions that the participants and faculty will go in for some kind of negotiation before and during training in the context of programme contents, training sequence and methodology to be known as “learning contract”.

While deciding who is to be sent for what training, the future managers will consider two most important things. One would be the competency requirements in the organization. The other one is the “natural strengths and potential” of the employee concerned. Because, recent thinking expects
training to *let them become more of who they already are* (Buckingham & Coffman, 2000). People will be developed around their strengths to achieve excellence. The underlying philosophy is to focus on each person’s strengths and to manage around his weaknesses.

We are in the age of Knowledge Management (KM). KM is the process by which the organizations generate wealth from their intellectual assets. In the age of KM and IT, the priorities of the business organizations will also be shifting. The role of Training & HRD will be ever more important. Earlier days Training was considered as a *less important function in many organizations*. In future, Training will be taken most seriously by the organizational members and they will be going for creating value from the organization’s intangible assets (Halkar & Gupta, 2005).

In the future days T & D will be chosen as a fit area for research. And the research will be one that starts with the urge to improve training practice. Research is systematic action to enhance knowledge and understanding. It need not be abstract and erudite but does need to be systematic and planned. The training professionals and the functional managers jointly will go for Action Research and rediscover the need, style and effectiveness of Training. Related to this is Action Learning which says that mature people learn best when they are involved in real problems of which answers are not fully known and when there is actual risk involved in the decision making. Learning is a function of past experience, ability to ask right questions and understand through the negotiation of events. In action learning, the participants learn in the action mode. Future of Training will possibly be characterised by Action Research and Action Learning (Singh, 1998).

In the high-tech age the importance of technical competence of the people is of utmost level. But still, the understanding level of the people across the
countries and continents is being on the increase continuously. Sometimes it appears that the world-class organizations are unable to maintain their core competence only through technological means. With the passage of time some other organization will be in a position to emulate them technologically. As a formidable solution to this problem, the organizations of the future have to think and reposition themselves and their strategies. In addition to the state-of-the-art technical competence, some other form of skills and competencies have to be thought of. They have to go in for some process of developing new habits and core values of the employees on a long-term basis. The old habits and values of the collective will have to be replaced by more enabling ones which will help the organization to get transformed. People have to be able to manage stress (due to many reasons) in a much better way. For example, novel techniques like Transcendental Meditation etc. will be employed in the organizational settings. High competition and speed are making people less creative and even blunt due to “burn-out” effect. But in the present and also the future, the need is that any organization has to create and maintain a culture of creativity and innovation for its survival and growth. For doing this, the development of only cognitive and technical skills may not suffice. Tomorrow’s organizations must think and feel differently. When it comes to employee-development, the organizations must give opportunities to employees to become more intelligent intellectually as well as emotionally. In fact, today’s and tomorrow’s employees – the leaders, managers and all others – must develop and use the power of both emotion and intellect in the right mix. The skill development process in the business organizations must include “social skills” alongside the technical skills. The employees will be required to use their emotions intelligently. Collectively, the employees’ Emotional Intelligence will give the organizations as well as the employees themselves a kind of cutting edge and competitive advantage.