	Module 6 Andragogy	
Module objectives	The participants being trainers are expected to be reasonably comfortable with training techniques. Accordingly, the objective of this module is to reinforce their knowledge in training methodologies.	
Essential Reading	The entire module	
Learning Activities	(i)	A session on training methodology every day for 3 days
	(ii)	Participants should conduct the some of the group discussions envisaged in TOT modules. Participants' work a faculty will be video recorded and shown to the class. The evaluation will be done by participants themselves.

1. Andragogy or Adult Learning

1.1   Training Styles

1.1.1   The "Classical" style of teaching is based on the instructive or didactic style. It is generally regarded as teacher- led and subject- centered, and is referred to as the pedagogical style. However, the facilitative/ participatory training style - in which the trainer guides the learner to "discover" what is to be learned, is considered to be more appropriate for adult learners. It is defined as trainer-facilitated and learner- centered, better suited in most cases for the andragogical (adult) learning style.

1.1.2   Most adult learning situations are more suited to the facilitative/ participatory style; however, the instructive/ didactic style has its place in certain situations.

1.1.3   When the trainer is aware of the differences in learning and teaching styles, then he or she can consciously apply what is most appropriate for the learner and the situation.

1.1.4   The following scale will help to assess your training methods and style, from the participatory (1) to the didactic (5).

1.2   Training Methods- An Overview

1.2.1   Put a group of trainers together, and you will probably find as many opinions about training methods as the number of trainers in the group. They will all no doubt have their own preferred techniques, tried and tested from experience. Some will argue for more traditional trainer- centered styles; others will expound the virtues of learner-centered methods. The former may argue that 'modern' methods are little more than fashion, unsupported in practice or by research. The latter may say that 'up front, chalk and talk' methods are out-of-date or worse that they may fill trainees with facts or skills but they don't help them to solve problems or cope in new situations. Whatever our viewpoint we can probably all agree that:

- A method that works well with one group in one situation does not necessarily work on every occasion even though it is with a very similar group in a very similar situation

- Trainers will tend to use the methods that they themselves were trained with; this may be healthy, more likely, it will lead to a lack of responsiveness to change

	Gathering information		Processing information	
	Active	Passive	Deductive	Inductive
Lecture/Presentation		X	X	
Group discussion	X		X	
Readings		X	X	
Simulation & Role Play	X			X
Programmed Instruction	X			X
Games	X		X	X
Panels		X		
Demonstration		X		X
Case study	X		X	

- In training adults, methods must be chosen that allow for the characteristics of adult learners; i.e. methods that are participative, that built on learner experience, that can be immediately applied and that take account of the learners role in society

- Change in society, the workplace or the environment gathers pace ever more rapidly; inevitably this effects training needs, training content and learning outcomes. Knowledge and skills relevant today can be worthless tomorrow. In such a situation product training objectives perhaps become less important than process objectives. Methodology plays an integral part especially in the achievement of process objectives.
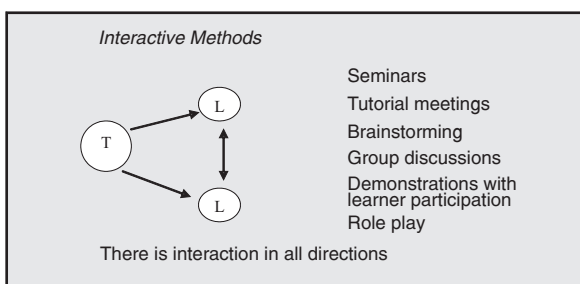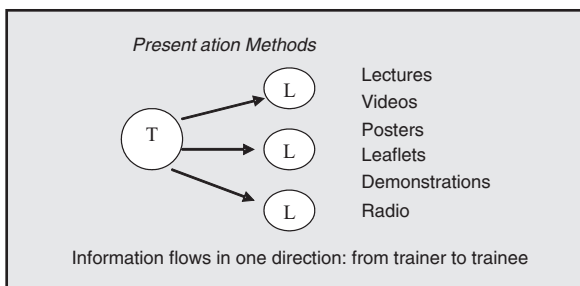
1.2.2   Every trainer needs to explore a variety of methods; variety helps to maintain both trainee and trainer interest. It's the trainer's task to develop as wide range of techniques as possible and to choose the most appropriate for each training situation.

1.3   Training Methods in Brief

Training methods can be categorized into three main groups:

Presentation (or Didactic) Methods

1.3.1   These are methods where the trainer presents new ideas, or information or shows the learner how to do things. In these trainer centered methods, the flow of information is mainly in one direction; the learners are passi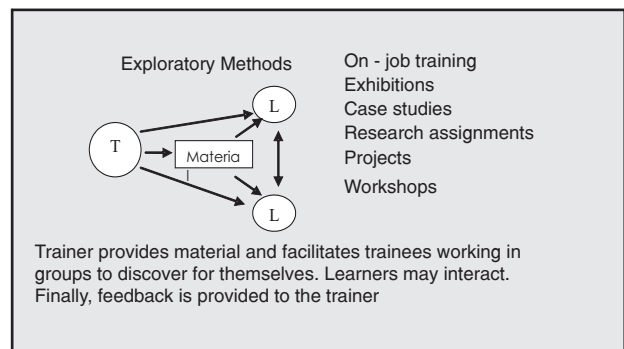ve; the focus is on the product rather than the process. Trainers need to recognize their limitations and to use them in combination with methods which involve more learner participation.

Interactive Participative Methods

1.3.2   Here learners are encouraged to interact with each other and there is a two-way flow of communication between trainers and learners. Greater involvement means that changes in attitudes and skills are more easily achieved as well as changes in knowledge. Participation and interaction between learners encourages informal, unplanned learning; ideas are shared. These methods are more learner-centered and process- centered, and are often found to be more interesting, which is also important for the motivation of learners. Motivation and participation are vital for effective learning.

Exploratory Participative Methods

1.3.3   These methods use the important principle of learning by discovery; again they are learner-centered and process-focused. The trainer becomes a facilitator who provides material and sets tasks, leaving learners to find out for themselves. The trainer is still the manager and needs to keep a check on learners' progress. At the end, new learning needs to be expressed by feedback to the trainer. This can take many forms; demonstration of new skills, exhibitions of work done, verbal and written presentations. Exploratory methods can take a lot of time. They usually result in deeper, more permanent learning changes.

Presentation Methods

Lectures
Videos
Posters
Leaflets
Demonstrations
Radio

Information flows in one direction: from trainer to trainee

Interactive Methods

Seminars
Tutorial meetings
Brainstorming
Group discussions
Demonstrations with learner participation
Role play

There is interaction in all directions

Exploratory Methods

On - job training
Exhibitions
Case studies
Research assignments
Projects
Workshops

Trainer provides material and facilitates trainees working in groups to discover for themselves. Learners may interact. Finally, feedback is provided to the trainer

1.4   Choice of Training Method

Training Methods

1.4.1   There are different training methods. They range from the lecture, with few opportunities to ask questions, to discussions, discovery methods and practical training. We learn best if we are actively involved, either mentally or practically or both.

1.4.2   The members of your target group may have experienced a variety of different training approaches. In many cases most of these will have tended to be rather formal. Your target group may feel more comfortable with formal, passive approaches but they may not be the best. Try introducing new techniques, but do this in a way which your target group does not find threatening. Once people have been introduced to more participatory approaches they generally prefer them and feel that they have learned more effectively and enjoyed the experience. Try to use methods that involve the trainees and give them opportunities for thinking, seeing and doing.

1.4.3   Do not make general judgments about your target group. Many small farmers around the world are illiterate. The fact that these small farmers are illiterate does not mean that they are unintelligent.

1.4.4.   Which method we choose to use on a given occasion with a particular learner group will depend on a number of factors

The objectives to be achieved	Do the outcomes refer to knowledge, skills or attitudes? At what level is the outcome in the hierarchy of objectives? Trainees are unlikely to learn problem-" solving skills from a lecture.
The subject matter	Different subjects lend themselves to different training methods. Much of Farm Management for example can be taught through a case study approach.
Learner group size	Different methods are appropriate to different size of group.
The needs and characteristics of the learners	Different learners learn in different ways, so unless the training is one-to-one, the choice of training method is inevitably a compromise. One learner may learn better through group interaction, another by individual exploration, a third by didactic instruction. This is one reason (of several) why variety of training method is so important.
The ability of the learners	Aptitude, academic level, 'intelligence' and previous experience all need to be considered.
The motivation of thelearners	Some strategies would be inappropriate with highly motivated learners. Some methods can motivate the unmotivated.
The time available	Some methods are perhaps more. time- consuming than the other
The resources available	Some methods depend on certain resources being in place; e.g., a reading assignment clearly needs a reasonable library

1.5 Target Groups

1.5.1 If we carry out any extension or training work we want it to be successful. This means that the people we are working with must be able to remember, understand and apply the material we cover. This in turn means that we must understand them and be able to communicate with them. The target group is the group of people at whom we are aiming the training. The nature of our target group will affect the content of the training and the way that we seek to communicate. There are many ways in which the group may vary. We need to think about several points when we are matching training to a target group, including the following:

1.6 Language

1.6.1 As a start we must decide if we should use English, a national language or a local language. We must also decide on the form of this language which is appropriate. If we take the example of English being used in England, there are many differences between the way it is used by a small farmer in a remote rural area, an office worker in Wolverhampton and an office manager in London. Generally aim at using the sort of language your target group uses in everyday life.

1.7 Technical Terms

1.7.1 This is a special aspect of language. Technical terms are usually very accurate for the target group which normally uses them and are easily understood by them.

1.7.2 "Desiree is a cultivar of Solanum tubersoum" is more accurate than "Desiree is a potato variety, but will it be widely understood?

1.7.3 Sometimes we are unable to find a simpler form of a technical term. Then we have to decide if we should use the term, simply explain what we mean or, perhaps we should do both in order to introduce the term.

1.7.4 Try to only use technical terms which you know are familiar to your target group. If necessary check the group understands. If you have to use other technical terms for accuracy, make sure that you explain them clearly.

1.8 Level

1.8.1 We all like to impress other people with our knowledge. But we must decide what depth our target group can understand and, more importantly, what depth they need. Practical farmers or foresters do not normally need to be taught the scientific basis for how planting conditions affect root development in cuttings. They do need to know how to provide the best conditions.

1.9 Speed

1.9.1 The members of different target groups will be able to learn and understand at different speeds. Note that the speed of learning will often vary between theoretical and practical topics with the same individual. An individual's speed of learning may also vary between different subject areas. Previous experience is very important in determining the speed that someone can learn.

1.9.2 Early in the training check that the members of your target group are able to cope with the pace of training and also that it is not too slow and therefore boring for them.

1.10 Range of Content

1.10.1 We learn by linking new topics to our existing experiences. In training we should be making links between the new work and the previous experience of our target group. If we are covering a wide range of new topics the members of the target group may have difficulty in switching between the different ideas and building them on their existing knowledge. They may have difficulty in organising the material in their minds without confusing different aspects.

1.10.2 Do not try to cover too many topics in a session. It is better to teach a smaller number of topics effectively rather than a larger number with very limited effectiveness.
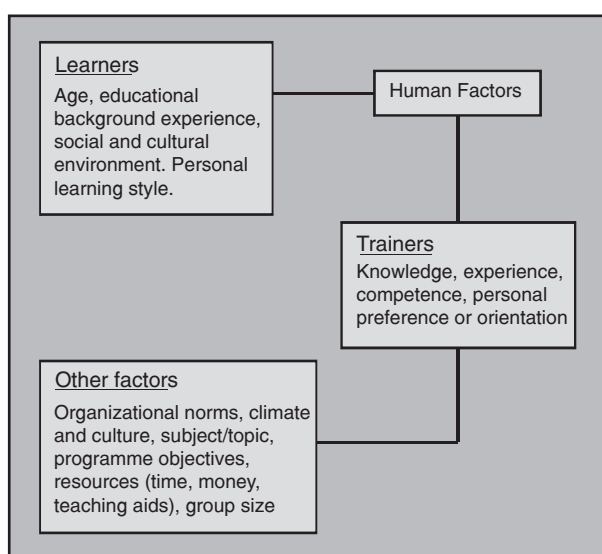
1.11 Learning in Groups and Choice of Methods

Introduction

"I never teach my pupils. I only attempt to provide the conditions in which they can learn."

- Albert Einstein

1.11.1 The fundamental objective of training is to effectively contribute and influence the work behaviour of the learners. For this purpose, a training system has to develop sensitivity to the needs and aspirations of learners, involve them in the process of learning and also build up and sustain their motivation to learn. These concerns assume greater significance in the context of adult learners. In their case, training effectiveness is influenced by many factors. These factors are:

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┌─────────────────────────────────────────────┐
│  ┌──────────────────────┐                    │
│  │ Learners             │   ┌──────────────┐ │
│  │ Age, educational     │───│ Human Factors│ │
│  │ background experience,│  └──────────────┘ │
│  │ social and cultural  │                    │
│  │ environment. Personal│                    │
│  │ learning style.      │                    │
│  └──────────────────────┘                    │
│            ┌──────────────────────┐          │
│            │ Trainers             │          │
│            │ Knowledge, experience,│         │
│            │ competence, personal │          │
│            │ preference or orientation│      │
│            └──────────────────────┘          │
│  ┌──────────────────────┐                    │
│  │ Other factors        │                    │
│  │ Organizational norms, climate│            │
│  │ and culture, subject/topic,  │            │
│  │ programme objectives,│                    │
│  │ resources (time, money,│                  │
│  │ teaching aids), group size│               │
│  └──────────────────────┘                    │
└─────────────────────────────────────────────┘
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1.11.2 There are a lot many constraints which are beyond the control of a trainer and yet he has to be effective in providing knowledge, kill and attitudes to the learners. In such a situation, trainer's task becomes all the more difficult. He has to manage these constraints and develop compatibility so as to, become effective in transferring learning. Depending on the above variables and their maneuverability, the trainer, at times, may have to opt for the second or successive choice if the most appropriate method is not feasible. There is no one miracle method of training and the choice is multidimensional. The methods can be termed as highways which help us in reaching the goal and the teaching/ learning aids can be taken as the ingredients of these highways that smoothen the process. A trainer may have to be very clear about the expected exit behaviour of the learners while determining a particular method/ method mix, which he finds suitable for the topic and the group of trainees.

Need and Scope of Group Methods

1.11.3 Group is a reality of work life. People work with and through people. Experiences in the training/ learning situations are similar. Adults prefer to learn better in congenial and non- threatening environment through their own and others' experiences. Group mode provides opportunities for all this.

1.11.4 Hence group mode is suited to pass on knowledge and skills to the trainees. Group composition is an important factor contributing to selection of training strategy and choice of group methods and technique. Normally a large group size will attract trainer centered strategy and if the size is small, trainee centered strategy may be better.

Advantages of Group Learning

1.11.5 It has been widely accepted that experiential methods facilitate better learning. Participants value their own knowledge and experience and tend to exchange their ideas and experiences. This process of lateral interaction and sharing is encouraged in a group process where free exchange of knowledge, ideas, views, opinions among the trainers and the learners is facilitated. Some of the advantages of group methods are:

i.   It provides for trainee-centered learning

ii. It establishes a common experience shared by all members in the learning groups

iii. It is flexible in selecting experiences in tune with objectives of learning

iv. It affords opportunity for giving and receiving lateral feedback by group members and helps balancing, correcting and modifying individual behaviours.

1.11.6 *Limitations of Group Method*

i.   It is not effective in passing out completely new/ unknown information and knowledge to participants

ii. Outcome of group work is not certain. It depends on participation and involvement of group members and individual's ability to relate specific experience to general principles and learn knowledge and skills.

Objectives of Learning in Groups

1.11.7 A few prominent objectives of learning in groups are indicated below:

I. It promotes learning between group members and between the group members and the trainer

ii. It facilitates learning by gainfully utilizing resources and experiences available within the group

iii. It develops participation and involvement of learners. It places group members in active learning situation

iv. It builds up and sustains motivation among group members to learn from peer feedback

v. It helps building up non- threatening learning environment

vi. It stimulates critical thinking to the existing and new material. As a result agenda for change is easily generated and accepted by the group members

vii. It provides opportunity for group members to practice and improve their social skills through studying group process, group norms and group dynamics

viii. It helps in developing oral communication skills (including listening skills) of the group members

ix. It helps in building up faith in one's own self and enhances trust level and cooperation with other group members

x. It helps group members to become more self-reliant and less dependent on trainer/ supervisor

xi. It helps in developing problem resolution skills of the members and sharpens their decision making style by developing creativity and innovation

xii. The members tend to develop sense of belonging to the organisation

In other words groups meet to:

- Discuss an issue/ analyse a situation
- Resolve a problem
- Make a decision
- Consider a subject area / topic
- View a skill
- Carry out role play
- Develop a project playa simulation game

- Listen and talk to a panel
- Hold a tutorial or a seminar
- Share information / experience
- Recommend/ suggest action
- Create/ generate ideas
- Develop new skills (may be a training course)

Group Structure

1.11.8 In the context of training, a group is defined as three or more persons whose interaction contributes to promoting learning. Similarly, a group discussion is an activity where group members learn through communication and interaction with others in the group. Group structure refers to the number, composition and organisation of people who form the group. Generally two to eleven persons comprise small groups while 12 and above constitute large groups. There is no upward ceiling of number for the large groups. Also, there is no hard and fast rule prescribing the number in groups. Numerical divisions are, at times, seen as arbitrary. Nevertheless, group composition and size are effective variables for exercising the choice in respect of particular group delivery method.
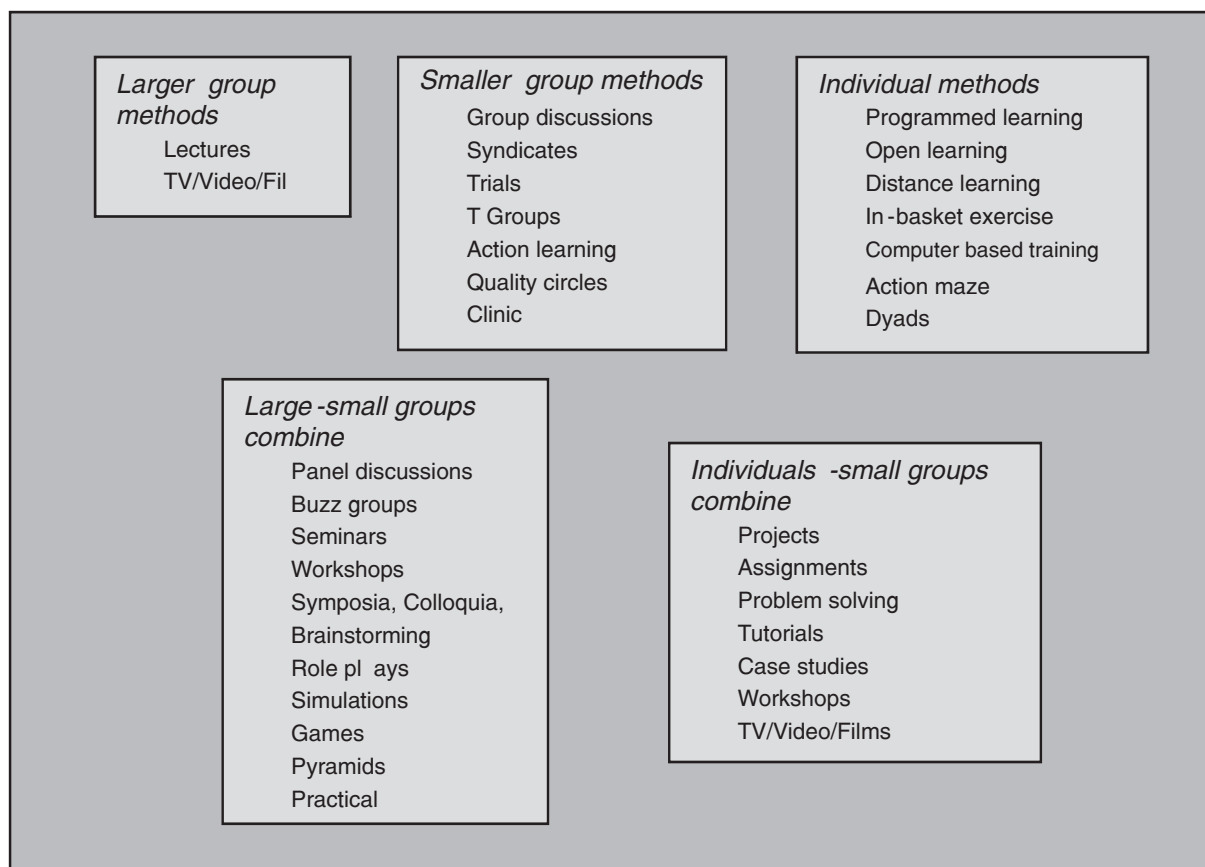
Types of Group Methods

1.11.9 Some of the group delivery methods which are considered more suitable for a particular group composition or size are indicated in the following chart

Stages in Group Work

1.11.10 Different stages in group work are listed below:

i. Plan

   a. Overall purpose of learning of the unit and specific objectives of the exercise

   b. Ascertain entry behaviour of the participants and see how the exercise suits their learning preference

   c. Learning time and the event/ exercise

   d. Ways to assess performance after the event

ii. Trial run with another group

iii. List out the facilities, e.g.

   a. Materials

Larger group methods	Smaller group methods	Individual methods
Lectures	Group discussions	Programmed learning
TV/Video/Fil	Syndicates	Open learning
	Trials	Distance learning
	T Groups	In -basket exercise
	Action learning	Computer based training
	Quality circles	Action maze
	Clinic	Dyads

Large -small groups combine	Individuals -small groups combine
Panel discussions	Projects
Buzz groups	Assignments
Seminars	Problem solving
Workshops	Tutorials
Symposia, Colloquia,	Case studies
Brainstorming	Workshops
Role pl ays	TV/Video/Films
Simulations	
Games	
Pyramids	
Practical	

b. Accommodation

c. Number of participants d. Time

iv. Design the role of the participants, their activity and time

v. Identify learning aids to be used

vi. Brief the participants and the observers

vii. Conduct the exercise

viii. Collect the information

ix. Discuss the issues- describe experiences, analyse it and develop general concepts and

x. Plan for contingencies

Stages in Group Development

1.11.11 There are four stages in group development. These are:

i. **Forming**- at the initial stage of group formulation, members experience uncertainties, anxieties and need to be assured by group leader/ other speakers

ii. **Storming**- at this stage conflicts arise, dissensions take place about roles of group members

iii. **Norming**- at this stage clarifications are received, roles are accepted, norms are laid down and tasks are specified. Group cohesion develops and the group environment becomes congenial for group work.

iv. **Performing**- at this stage, a central concern for successfully performing the task emerges, interpersonal obstacles are sorted out and group performs the task.

Characteristics of Effective Group Discussions

1.11.12 Some distinctive characteristics, which have been observed in effective groups and increase group effectiveness are listed below:

● Group members accept and recognize the group objectives and work for realizing the same. Group possesses adequate information, knowledge and skills for the purpose of undertaking analysis and learning

- Some members exhibit greater experience, expertise and credibility compared to others

- Group approach to the discussion tends to be systematic and focused towards resolving problems rather than beating around the bush

- Group members talk the same/ similar language

- Effective groups involve all the members and learn by discussing and interacting among themselves

- Group cohesion is developed and sustained and group synergy is easily achieved

- Towards the end, group members learn new skills, develop new attitudes and take their personal agenda for action

Group Dynamics

1.11.13 Contents and process are the two elements of group mode. Content relates to questions about what people are working upon like a topic, skill, task, problem solving, decision making, etc. Process refers to the atmosphere in the group and addresses areas like participation and interaction among group members, conflicts, cooperation, leadership, barriers, etc. Group dynamics is defined as forces, processes and relationships, which interact within a group. In effective groups, the group develops its own personality and this is different from that of the personality of individuals. Work-shy individuals convert into productive group members and presence of others helps in releasing latent energies.

1.11.14 Group cohesion plays an important role in achieving successful results. The chances are quite likely that with passage of more time, cohesiveness increases and this may lead to successful outcome.

1.11.15 Group commitment soars very high when it is compatible with commitment of individual members. This coupled with behavioral patterns of the group members is mainly responsible for developing group climate and accomplishing the tasks. Some of the basic questions that bother a group member in the initial stages of group formation are:

i.   What am I supposed to be doing in this group?
ii. What am I after the group work? and,
iii. Do I like the way the group works?

Positive Behavior Pattern

1.11.16 Positive behaviours are perceptibly noticed in successful groups both in their task and relationship behaviours. A list of patterns noticed in their interaction is given below:

1.   Initiating/ suggesting/ giving ideas/giving information
ii. Receiving suggestions/ ideas/ information
iii. Clarifying/ asking questions/ agreeing to suggestions
iv. Showing solidarity with group v. conciliating
vi. Releasing tension
vii. Encouraging
viii. Setting norms
ix. Listening and
x.   Giving constructive feedback

Negative Behaviour Pattern

1.11.17 However, in case the positive group climate does not develop or individual member(s) feel alienated or ignored, barrier patterns start operating which hinder groups' climate and group work. Some of the negative behaviours generally exhibited in the above situations are indicated below:

i.   The aggressors
ii. The defenders
iii. The blockers
iv. The ulteriorists
v.   The hoarders

Role of the Trainer

1.11.18 A group exercise is essentially a simulation. It makes provision for active participation and common experiences. Purpose of group exercise is not merely to bring variety or add interest to it. It affords an opportunity for each member to get involved in doing something and learn from it. The entire process can be summed up as under:

1.11.19 In view of the fact that the group method aims at giving experience to members through substitute
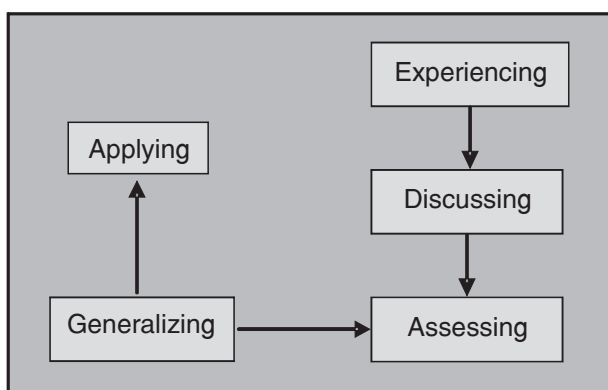
task and relates the group's behaviour to general principles, the role of trainer/ facilitator assumes crucial importance in the whole process. Although it is difficult to catalogue what all is expected of him, an illustrative list thereof is given below:

ii.   He should be sure that the method is appropriate to the objectives

iii. He should be thorough with the procedure for conducting group exercises

iv.   He should be meticulous in planning the discussions and should be thorough with analysis and implications

v.   The trainer should have faith and orientation towards this method

vi.   He should not use group method

    a.   Merely to fill in time

    b.   To provide for variety

    c.   To see what happens

    d.   Merely because he has a liking for it

1.12   Discussion Leading (DL)

1.12.1 Discussion leading does not teach new knowledge. Like any other group method, the basic assumption is that more experience lies with the learners rather than trainers and that the learners prefer organised exchange of ideas and opinions rather than being told about it by the trainer. The main objectives in DL are:

    1.   Sharing experience

    2.   Collecting ideas

iii. Shifting/ changing attitudes and

iv.   Stimulating commitment in the group members

1.12.2   The expected outcome of DL is realizing better solutions to the problems, generating agenda for action building commitment to act upon it and developing team work skill in members. The group size may be confined to 8- 12 for better results. If the group size is large (more than 20), there is every likelihood of someone in the group dominating and other(s) withdrawing. The key factors contributing to success in the DL are active participation of the members and the basic belief of the trainer that they can learn from each other.

1.12.3   Structure of discussion in DL differs from one group to the other. However the important stages are as under:

Effectiveness in DL depends on two variables. While one variable is the quality of questioning, the other is the behaviour of the members in the group. The role of the trainer is crucial for success of the DL. The role is very much demanding yet it does not want him to be aggressive. He should

i.   Stimulate discussions and facilitate group exercise

ii.   Be supportive and encouraging

iii. Be impartial

iv.   Be able to manage within the time constraints

v.   Be a member of the group and not an outside centre of attraction or power

vii. Facilitate members to discuss issues in depth by intervening with right questions at appropriate occasions and

viii. Summarize towards the end, the conclusions and help group members achieve learning

1.12.4   The trainer should be clear about the objectives, should have assessed the entry behaviour If the group members and should plan the learning event with great care. His articulation lies in introducing the DL exercise and paraphrasing the key question as also additional questions. He should also ensure that the group contribution is getting recorded for subsequent discussions and analysis. The discussion leader has also to plan the sitting arrangements in such a say that the discussion is facilitated, members are able to see each other and also have an easy view or the leader, audio- visual aids, etc. as and when used.

1.12.5 While making a final summary, the leader should thank the group members for participating, acknowledge specific contributions made by them, review the points covered, reinforce the understanding and focus on the future action issues including details as to who does it, how it is to be done and when action is to be taken.

1.13 Using Group Exercises

Introduction

1.13.1 Training activities are influenced to a quite marked extent by the entry behaviour of participants (the things they already know and can do and the attitudes they adopt). This is especially true when the learning group consists of mature, experienced, adults.

1.13.2 Each participant will bring his or her own mixture of status, knowledge, skills, attitudes, opinions, prejudices, motivation, good and bad experiences, and so on, to the learning event. What is missing is an experience common to all members of the group, around which they can learn.

1.13.3 A group exercise can establish the common ground around which trainees can learn. Instead of basing their thinking on an abstract theory, trainees can start from their experience in an exercise and build up to a principle or a theory.

What is a Group Exercise?

1.13.4 A group of managers on a course is given the task of counting the number of pebbles in a square metre of beach; or to build a tall tower using only A4 sheets of paper and staples; or to invent a new game using a pack of playing cards. These are all examples of possible group exercises used in training mature and experienced managers. The purpose in the mind of the trainer might be to develop good group working relationships.

1.13.5 Clearly the approach is a very different one from starting with a lecture about the views of a distinguished theorist. The major differences are that:

a. The trainees are given something active to do; and

b. That their learning is developed from their experience in performing that activity.

1.13.6 A group exercise is a kind of simulation. It is a substitute task, one intended to simulate in a simplified form a situation that the trainees could face at work. We can define a group exercise as a learning event in which selected parts of a physical and or social situation are either reduced in size and complexity or simulated, so that we can recreate essential elements for learning purposes. Active participation in learning is an important feature of good training; especially for adult, mature and experienced trainees. For example, the theories of motivation could be introduced to trainees by means of a group exercise and we could discuss this common experience in its relation to their work. Given the right choice of group exercise, trainees are likely to remember their experiences doing it and significant learning points. They will remember this long after they have forgotten the theories of various experts they were told as passive recipients of a lecture.

1.13.7 A group exercise prepares for active participation because we give the group a task to perform. This gives trainees an opportunity to study and put into practice the knowledge, skills and attitudes involved in the human aspects of working in a group. There is a task- something to be done. Nevertheless, because we normally make the task intentionally simple, the attention of the group is focused not on the task itself- the content of what is done- but on how it is done- the process. Group exercises should be used for training because they provide a common experience, active participation and practice. They should not be used merely to provide variety or add interest.

Group Exercises and Learning

1.13.8 Group exercises provide an opportunity for each member of the group to be involved in doing something and to learn from what he or she does. Trainees have an opportunity to try different ways of doing things without the risk involved if they tried the same things in a real working environment. The impact of this experience and the realism of the simulated situation can change behaviour and should help the process of transferring arid applying what they have learnt to their work situations. We can represent the process in this way:

Experiencing

1.13.9 This process starts with experiencing something in the group exercise. The trainee becomes involved in the group activity- for example doing, saying or observing something. This involvement becomes the basis of the whole process.

Discussing

1.13.10 The trainee discusses with other members of the group his or her reactions to and observations on the activity that they have also experienced or observed. We discuss what occurred in the exercise arid group members assess its significance.

Generalizing

1.13.11 The group members need to do more than just discuss their specific experience in the exercise. They need to go on to develop general principles derived from the experience to their own work situation.

Applying

1.13.12 Finally the group members should plan how they can apply the general principles to the situations they face at work.

Why Use Group Exercises for Training?

1.13.13 To those unaccustomed to training practices, group exercises may be a curious method of training. It might be asked why simple tasks should be used, or activities apparently unrelated to what people do at work. It might seem more appropriate, for example, to use a case study containing a description of a situation similar to one the trainees would face in their work, rather than ask them to participate in, for example, competitions and paper folding tasks. However, the reasons for using group exercises are:

I) To give practice and experience through substitute tasks

1.13.14 Real life situations from the working environment are often too complex for the underlying principles about the behaviour used by participants to emerge clearly. In real life there are all kinds of procedures, practices, technical considerations, etc, which affect what is done. Group exercises strip away most of these factors to enable trainees to see more clearly the principles underlying their behaviour.

II) To focus on PROCESS rather than CONTENT

1.13.15 The simpler the task is, (i.e. the content) the better. Because of the simplicity of the task attention can more easily be focused on the behaviour of the participants- the process. There is a danger that if we too closely relate the task to real life, the participants will give so much attention to its technical content that little learning about the process will take place.

III) To relate the group's behaviour to general principles

1.13.16 The basis of the discussion that follows a group exercise is the behaviour of the group- what the participants said or did or the way it was said or done. We then relate this to general principles. This approach generally has greater impact and more learning takes place than would occur if we adopted the alternative approach, i.e. explaining the general principles or theories first and then attempting to put them into practice.

IV) To reduce risk and 'save face'

1.13.17 Experimenting with behaviour in the real life situation often involves an unacceptable degree of risk. Group exercise, on the other hand, enable the trainer to use what trainees actually say or do as the basis of discussion in a non- threatening situation. While if trainees feel threatened by the situation they face in an exercise or their behaviour is shown up as inappropriate, they can "save face" because the task is not a significant or real one in work terms. A business executive need not feel any sense of failure because he or she failed to build a tall tower made of sheets of paper and staples!

Some Subject Areas for Group Exercises

1.13.18 Group exercises are generally used for studying and developing interpersonal skills. The skills involved include the following

- Leadership
- Communications
- Motivation
- Negotiation
- Problem- solving
- Decision- making

- Working in groups
- Team building
- Contributing to Meetings

Selecting and Using a Group Exercise

1.13.19 Some do's and don'ts are suggested below to help in making group exercises as effective as possible.

1.13.20 As the trainer, you should:

- Make sure that you are thoroughly familiar with the subject matter.

- Flexibility is needed to adapt the discussion of the material to what actually happens in the exercise, while making sure that the main points it was intended to bring out are covered.

- Make sure that the exercise is appropriate to the objectives of the learning unit and to the abilities and attitudes of the trainees.

- Consider whether there is a need to adapt, restructure, rewrite or modify a generally suitable exercise, so that it fits the objectives or the needs of the particular group.

- Make sure that you are thoroughly familiar with the procedure for conducting the exercise.

- Consider the various possible outcomes and relate these to the subsequent discussion of what has been learnt.

- Plan the discussion. We must allow time for a thorough analysis of what happened in the exercise and its implications. Remember that this is more important than the exercise itself. The exercise is only the means of producing the material to be analysed and discussed. It will have limited value unless the issues arising from it are fully explored with the group.

1.13.21 As the trainer, you should not:

- Use group exercises merely

    - to fill in time
    - to provide variety
    - to 'see what happens'
    - because you like using them

- Use an exercise in the same way for all groups and irrespective of the objectives of the training.

- Structure the discussion in a pre-determined way, irrespective of what happened during the exercise.

Preparation and Planning

1.13.22 It follows from what was said above that careful preparation and planning are required to use a group exercise. You must decide:

What is the Purpose of the Training?

1.13.23 The exercise should be chosen to suit the overall purpose of the learning unit. It should also suit the trainees and you.

Objective

1.13.24 What learning outcome is expected from the exercise? Will the exercise in its existing form enable this to be achieved or does it need to be modified?

Entry Behaviour

1.13.25 How does the exercise suit the trainees' knowledge, skills, attitudes, experience, maturity and learning style? Does it need to be modified in any way to make it more suitable? How many trainees are likely to be present?

Learning Event

1.13.26 How much time does the exercise require in relation to time available?

What variations are likely to occur during the exercise that might affect subsequent activities?

Performance Assessment

1.13.27 How will you assess whether the expected learning has taken place?

Try out

1.13.28 Before using a group exercise and particularly if you lack experience of running group exercises, you should try it out on a suitable group. This might be a group of colleagues who are prepared to work through the exercise and comment on it. In trying it out, check the following:

- That you are sufficiently familiar with the administration of the exercise
- That the desired issues are raised
- What divergence there is between expected and actual outcomes? (no group will exactly reproduce the results of another).

1.13.29 It is also valuable to have practice in giving feedback on what actually happened in the group- not on what you thought might happen.

Consider

1.13.30 What detailed arrangements will be necessary to conduct the exercise?

For example:

- What materials are required?
- What accommodation is required?
- How many participants will there be?
- Can all participants be allocated a role in the exercise?
- How are the participants likely to behave in the exercise?
- How much time will be needed to conduct the exercise and discuss it?
- What are the possible learning outcomes?

Plan

1.13.31 Consider the following points:

Trainee Activity

– What each trainee's role will be in the exercise?

Time

– How much time to allocate to each part of the exercise (remember that we must allow sufficient time for the discussion afterwards)

Trainer Activity

– What role you will play during the exercise

Learning Aids

– Will we require any learning aids during the exercise or in the discussion afterwards?

The Sequence of Events

– How will the exercise be introduced?
– Does the topic need to be introduced with a mini-lecture?

– Does the exercise need to be presented in distinct stages?
– What kind of information for discussion is the exercise likely to produce?
– Does that information need to be arranged in distinct stages?

Conducting the Group Exercise

You should consider the following points:

Relate to Objectives

1.13.32 You and the participants can easily get so involved in an exercise that its purpose as part of the learning process is forgotten. You should remember throughout the exercise what the objectives are in using it and stick to them.

Plan and Prepare Thoroughly

1.13.33 Make sure that all the administrative details of the exercise are arranged beforehand. Consider also a variety of possible outcomes of the exercise. How can you relate these to the purpose of the exercise and of the learning unit as a whole? All the points you wish to discuss may not emerge from a particular run-through of the exercise; you may need to discuss other possible outcomes. What lines will the discussion follow afterwards, to cover the learning points?

Plan for Contingencies

1.13.34 The exercise may take more or less time than anticipated or have a different outcome. Having alternative material or activities available and ready to be presented is prudent, e.g. for groups that are morel less advanced than the average. Check where we can make changes to the timetable if that should be necessary.

Check Knowledge

1.14.35 As the use of group exercises becomes more common, it is possible that some trainees may already know or have done the exercise. Usually this does not matter, but with some exercises the impact can be ruined if someone in the group already knows how to solve the problem or analyse the situation.

Brief Participants

1.13.36 Explain the procedure and make sure that all

participants understand their roles in the exercise before starting. This may involve:

- Stating the objectives clearly and concisely
- In some cases giving an overview of the subject matter first
- Describing the procedure for the exercise
- Explaining the trainer's role during the exercise
- Explaining why this method of training is being used.

1.13.37 In briefing the group, keep the desired outcomes in mind. However, we should not overload the participants with instructions. Where possible, giving instruction in small amounts at appropriate stages of the exercise is better. Check that the briefing is understood.

Watch Observers

1.13.38 If the exercise involves some participants acting as observers rather than being directly involved in the task, make sure that they do not interfere with the process. They may be tempted to get involved in the task or to give help and advice to participants. Make sure that they stick to their allotted role of observing the process.

Keep Within Broad Guidelines

1.13.39 Exercises involve participants in performing a task in their own way; this is a major reason for using them. However, keeping the exercise within broad guidelines is necessary so that it achieves its objective; otherwise it may deteriorate into a 'fun' activity from which the participants learn nothing.

Collect Information

1.13.40 You should observe the process and make notes, even if we have appointed observers, so that comments afterwards can be related to what happened in the exercise. You can then add to the observers' comments if they have failed to observe some important points.

1.13.41 We should ask that the observers and participants comment on and discus what happened before you make any comments. They will have comments to make and need to be given the opportunity. Also, you will need to concentrate on

leading the discussion away from the specific outcomes of the exercise and on to general principles.

Discuss Issues

1.13.42 Participants should not be left to draw their own conclusions. The exercise should be the source of topics for discussion rather than the context of learning by itself.

Discussion of the issues should normally involve three stages:

1. **Describe the experience**

   Get the group to discuss such questions as:

   What happened? What was said / done?

   What did participants think / feel?

   What problems emerged?

   What courses of action were tried?

   To what extent were aims of the group achieved?

2. **Analyse the experience**

   Get the group to discuss such questions as:

   Why did things happen?

   Why did problems arise?

   Why did the actions taken fail / succeed?

   What were the consequences of what was said or done?

3. **Develop general concepts**

   Get the group to relate their experience in the exercise to the work they do.

   Get them to consider such questions as:

   Do people say/ do things in this way at work?

   What are the consequences?

   Can success/ failure in the exercise be related to success/ failure in work situations?

   Can the group develop a plan of action or general principles for' improved performance at work?

1.13.43 In short, the discussion should start with consideration of the details of what happened and should move on to consider the underlying principles that apply to work situations. Throughout the discussion, the participants should discuss what happened- the behaviour that they observed- not speculate on the underlying motives or personal attributes.

Review the Exercise

1.13.44 After the session has been completed, the trainer should review the exercise. Consider:

- Did it achieve the objective?

- Does it need to be modified, revised or improved?

- Was the exercise run in the most effective way?

- Were the outcomes discussed adequately?

Advantages of Group Exercises

1.13.45 We can summarize the advantages of using group exercises in training as follows:

- They provide for trainee-centered learning

- They provide a common experience, shared by all members of the learning group

- Exercises can be designed / selected/ modified to fit the objective of a learning unit and as a major contributor to a learning event

- All participants can be actively involved and their attention and motivation are therefore more easily maintained

- They minimize the effects of different entry behaviours

- The trainer acts as a coach / mentor. Freed from the role of a direct instructor, he or she can supervise, observe, question and provide feedback.

- Exercises enable complex interpersonal skills to be practiced.

- They can be used to modify attitudes and to develop knowledge and skill

Disadvantages of Group Exercises

1.13.46 The main disadvantages of group exercises are that:

- They require careful preparation and planning to be effective

- The outcome varies from one group to another and is difficult to predict

- What individuals learn depends on their own level of involvement, their ability to relate what happens in the exercise to their existing knowledge, skills and attitudes and their ability to relate very specific experience to general principles.

- The success of group exercises is very dependent on the attitudes and expectations of trainees. They may expect the trainer to "teach" them (i.e. to be the sole source of information and advice). Therefore, they may regard an exercise as light relief or fun, rather than as a serious method for helping them to learn.

1.14   Lecture Method

1.14.1   Lecture is a very common method of instruction. In this method the lecturer or instructor does all the talking. Lecture can be effective if the instructor makes the members of the learning group 'think through' the information as it is being presented. This can be accomplished with the use of various teaching aids.

1.14.2   Lecture keeps data abstract for purposes of training and relies on several assumptions:

a.   That participants are motivated to learn

b.   That the lecturer and participants are on the same wavelength, so that there is a basis for common understanding.

c.   That the lecturer can hit on a speed of delivery, a set of ideas, etc.

d.   That the assembly of participants in the same room and atmosphere produces useful results

e.   That a participant can be himself, with the help of reading and informal contact, build the bridge between the lecture and his work situation, and that intellectual understanding will influence action.

1.14.3   As a training method the purpose of lecture is specific and limited in imparting of knowledge and skill or influencing behaviour. It holds its greatest promise when it is a response to questions raised by participants or thrown up in previous discussion, field work or other exercises. Its duration is also an important factor in its effectiveness.

1.14.4   Lectures may be used to introduce a new

subject. The lecturer can motivate the learners while introducing a subject. With a perfunctory outline he can set the stage for what is to follow.

1.14.5 A lecture can be used also by the facilitator as a summary at the end of a session. It permits the instructor to cover a great deal of material in the least time- without any interruptions, questions or discussions. It also enables him to go directly to the desired objective without any diversion. More often in a large group a lecture may be mandatory.

1.14.6 With the lecture method the individual's role in the group becomes passive. There may not be any exchange of ideas, participation or practice on the side of the learners.

1.14.7 With the lecture method one has to start by motivating the individuals. The introduction should appear challenging and stimulating. The language used should be simple, easy to understand and sentences should be short, correct. It should be directly addressed to the class with attention on individual, so that communication of ideas takes place.

Planning of Lecture

1.14.8 Before embarking on preparation for lecture the trainer must answer four basic questions:

Who: Who is the audience?

Why: What is the purpose of the talk?

How long: What is the time available?

What: What is the subject matter?

Audience

1.14.9 Knowledge about characteristics of the audience, their background, likes and dislikes, cultural differences, level of education, knowledge level, their attitude (friendly? curious? indifferent? hostile? skeptical?, etc.) are desirable, as it helps the trainer/ speaker to tailor his presentation.

Purpose of Talk

1.14.10 The objective or end result of the talk should be clear and the approach will depend on whether the speaker wishes to

a. Give general information on a subject

b. Gain acceptance for a new point of view

c. Change basic attitude

d. Give detailed information

e. Teach a particular skill

Time Available

1.14.11 An effective trainer is one who effectively utilizes the time he has at his disposal. It is always better to have the audience still interested and wanting to know after a fully used time slot/ period.

Preparing the Llecture

Draft the Lecture

1.14.12 Prepare lecture notes, with key words highlighted. Lecture notes must be in spoken language. Check whether you would be able to cover all the material, try out with a friend or on a tape-recorder. Put approximate time frame for each sub-head.

Plan & Prepare Visual Aids

1.14.13 These aids make the learning more meaningful. These aids should be selected and designed properly to ensure attention of participants and help to provide information.

Rehearse

1.14.14 Rehearsal is an essential step, even for an experienced lecturer. This gives a choice to the speaker to try out his presentation and also his audio-visual aids and one, two dry runs would instill confidence in the speaker.

Delivering the Lecture

Setting the Scene

1.14.15 The speaker should arrive at the appointed place in time to check all arrangements.

Posture

1.14.16 Take a posture convenient to, yourself (speaker), but it is advantageous to stand and speak so that everyone can see you. A lecturer who gives equal attention to all parts of the audience is more successful since direct eye contact can win over a day- dreamer as well. Some speakers prefer to use the lectern since it holds the notes at a standing height.

1.15   Discussion Leading

Introduction

1.15.1   As the trainer, responsible for helping others to learn, you may not always be the subject matter expert. Sometimes your learners may know as much as you, or have as much or more experience than you on certain topics. Often you will be helping highly experienced, mature, people who are more likely to respond to an organised exchange or ideas and opinions, rather than to being told or taught. In such a situation you may choose a method that facilitates learning by experience sharing and cross fertilisation of ideas. The Glossary of Training Terms defines the discussion method as:

'A training technique in which the learning derives principally from the participants themselves rather than from an instructor'.

1.15.2   Discussion as a method should not be used to 'teach' knowledge new to the learners. It should be used more for sharing experience, encouraging and developing thinking, modifying attitudes and getting commitment. A discussion for training purposes allows individuals to express their concerns and ideas, and to build upon and develop the ideas of group members. We use the method to continue a learning process started by other training methods, such as case studies and group. The purpose of the discussion may be to:

- Share views
- Collect and generate ideas
- Obtain reactions and agreement
- Develop team work
- Solve problems
- Develop decision-making skills
- Change attitudes
- Consider practical application of theory
- Develop evaluative and synthesizing skills
- Stimulate motivation and commitment

1.15.3   To be effective, discussions must allow every member of the group to contribute. This means that there is a limit to the number of people who can participate in a discussion. Between eight and twelve participants is about the optimum number for effective learning. If there are more members, a discussion may be unwieldy, and if there are less that may not stimulate sufficient ideas for a useful discussion.

Structure of a Discussion

1.15.4   To ensure a dynamic, stimulating and effective discussion you need to consider how we can structure a discussion. The figure below illustrates a model that has proved helpful in planning and running discussions. The discussion begins with a brief introduction from the leader. This should settle the group, establish the topic for discussion, and stimulate interest and willingness to participate in the discussion. We should plan the introduction before the discussion. After the introduction, the group needs a thought-provoking and demanding question that will make them think and want to contribute. We call such a question a Key Question. The first Key Question is critical to the success of the discussion. It needs to be considered beforehand and carefully prepared to:

- Introduce the subject.
- Explain in purpose and reason for the discussion.
- Link the discussion to prior learning experiences.
- State the objective, if appropriate.

The structure of discussion
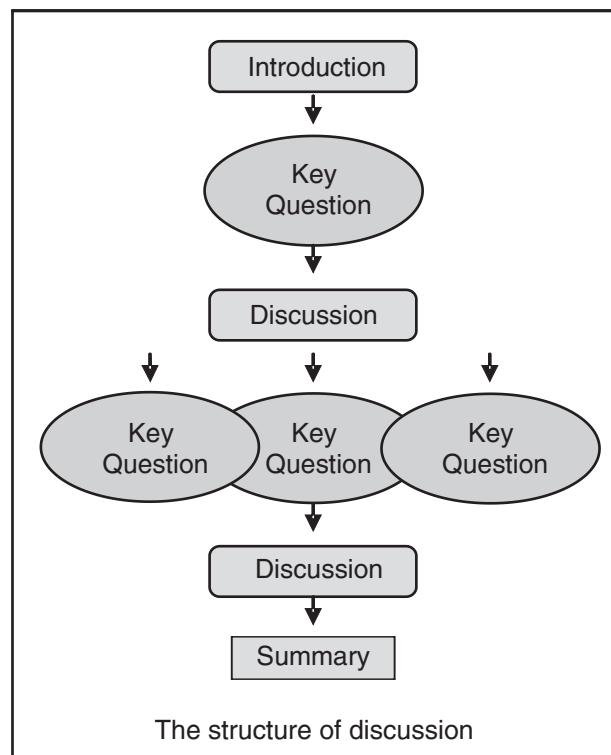
1.15.5   After the leader has posed the Key Question, discussion takes place within the group. You will be involved in that discussion actively listening and occasionally making contributions, depending upon the needs of the group. When we have extracted the learning benefits from the first key question, the group moves on with another key question.

1.15.6   Additional Key Question can be prepared in advance, at least in outline. The diagram shows that the sequence may vary depending upon the reaction of the group, and the direction in which they are going. The problem you may face is that this direction could be different from what you had planned. Prepare an outline sequence, but be flexible so that you meet the group's progress in the discussion. Remember that you are not in control of the content to the same extent as in a lecture or presentation. Because of this the, planned sequence may not make sense in the actual discussion. So, you may need to adapt to a different sequence as the discussion develops.

1.15.7   At the end of the discussion the discussion leader should summarise what has come out of the contributions and the conclusions reached, if any. Summarising it between Key Questions to consolidate may also be helpful and clarify what has been said and to lead into the next Key Question. This is a matter of judgment and will depend on the circumstances. Sometimes, for example, a group member will make a statement that summarizes several earlier contributions: a summary from the leader is then unnecessary.

Preparing to Lead a Discussion

1.15.8   As with all learning events, preparation is important. The better the preparation the more confident you can feel as the discussion leader. Also, the more learning likely to take place for your learners. You should undertake the following in preparing for a discussion:

- Set an objective
- Analyze the topic
- Consider the group
- Identify and prepare Key Questions
- Prepare an introduction
- Decide if any other resources would be helpful, e.g. a flip chart

- Organize physical arrangements

We should not take these activities in strict order because decisions about one of them may influence others.

Set an Objective

1.15.9   The objective should identify what they can do at the end of the discussion. This is often difficult to define with discussion leading where ideas, attitudes and motivation are usually involved.

1.15.10 Sometimes you can write the objective before you do anything else. Occasionally you may start with a topic you want discussed and only after analysing the topic can you clarify the objective. The discussion method is generally more appropriate for objectives that deal with feelings, opinions and attitudes. Of necessity these are less precise than objectives dealing with facts or skills. The outcome is less predictable and controllable than say, the outcome of a lecture. The details of the content come from the group and it is less easy to control than when using other methods. Success in achieving the objective is also less easy to measure.

Example of objectives for discussion leading are:

1.   "-------group members can describe the role of a leader in management roll

2.   "------- participants can analyse the difficulties in conducting audits"

3.   "-------group members will identify the impact of word processors on their jobs"

1.15.11 The benefit of producing an objective is that it helps you focus on what the discussion is to achieve. You can get people to talk about most things. To use the discussion of a topic to achieve a specific learning objective makes the investment of time and effort worthwhile. .

Analyze the Topic

1.15.12 In preparing to lead a discussion you may start with objective or just a topic heading. You yourself must know quite a lot about that topic - which may lso apply to other participants in the discussion. You job is to help the group to explore the topic and achieve the objective.

1.15.13 To help you lead the discussion, and to get the group's attention on useful areas of the topic, you need to analyze the topic. This process will enable you to identify the key areas for discussion.

1.15.14 As there is usually no specific body of knowledge to be learned to achieve the objective (if there were, another training method would probably be more appropriate) it is difficult to undertake systematic analysis. You can read material published on the subject matter or talk about it with other people to develop your knowledge of the subject and the way other people view it.

1.15.15 One starting point is to think through the topic and its various aspects and implications. During this process there is a danger of forgetting useful thoughts and ideas that would stimulate discussion. It is worth recording your thoughts to help you review and organize them.

1.15.16 Starting with a blank sheet of paper, head it up with the topic title. Then jot down key points, words or questions you think should be discussed about the topic. When you have completed your list of points, you may go back over what you have done, looking for pattern or groupings. This can help you identify areas that the discussion needs to cover. Key points may be questions to which there is no easy answer, or perhaps there is no answer. However, getting to an answer is not the point. The point is to generate learning through a discussion of the issues involved.

1.15.17 The benefit of analyzing the topic is that it can help you to decide:

a.   What knowledge input may be necessary in the introduction
b.   What information the group may need
c.   What areas of the topic are irrelevant to the objective
d.   Exactly what the objective is
e.   Key question to be put to the group
f.   In what order you should discuss the various aspects of the topic

1.15.18 You are responsible for helping the group members to achieve the objective. This will require you to decide which contributions are relevant and are

helping the group which is side tracking the group. The clearer you are before the discussion on where you want the discussion to go the easier those decisions will be during the discussion.

1.15.19 Analysis of the topic may help you identify what may be a natural sequence of development for the discussion. This can give you a framework for planning and introducing the discussion. The discussion may develop in a very different way from your planned sequence because the group will talk about the topic as they see it, a new sequence may emerge. You must decide how important it is to follow one path rather than another. If you direct the discussion back to your planned sequence, you may take out some spontaneity and interest for group members. This may make the discussion harder work for you and less effective for the group members.

Consider the Group

1.15.20 A group discussion depends for success upon the participation and contributions of members. Each member of the group needs to recognize that he or she has something useful to contribute. They must also realize that they can learn from each other. It is the job of the discussion leader to identify the contributions that individuals can make and encourage them to make them.

1.15.21 In planning the discussion you need to consider:

◆   Size of the group

   ●   Less than 5 is too small to generate sufficient ideas and points of view. More than 12 is too large to keep them discussing 'as a single group in which everyone participates. You need to split into subgroups.

◆   What knowledge is shared by everyone in the group?

   ●   Breadth of experience in relation to the topic
   ●   Likely reactions to the topic
   ●   Your relationship with the group
   ●   Their position compared with yours

1.15.22 Finding out about the learners and planning the discussion around them should help you avoid unpleasant surprises during the discussion. It will also

make it easier for the group members to achieve the objective.

1.15.23 Having analyzed the topic and considered the sequence you can probably identify most key points to be discussed. In a perfect discussion the leader would introduce each Key Point with a Key Question. The Key Question would then stimulate sufficient relevant discussion within the group to cover completely the Key Point. The discussion leader would not need to intervene to bring the discussion back because the question would succeed in focusing attention entirely upon the Key Point. Once the Key Point is covered, you can summarise and move on to another Key Point. This should be introduced with another Key Question.

1.15.24 This model of a perfect discussion infers that the Key Question has been effective in stimulating interest, focusing attention and encouraging everyone to contribute. Key Questions need to be carefully thought out and planned. They must make the group think and use their experience. The wording of a question should not be threatening to individuals in the discussion group. There should not be any easy answer to Key Question and answering it should raise other issues that will stimulate further discussion. When you are planning Key Questions you need to consider:

- Objective of the discussion
- Group members
- Time
- Topic analysis

1.15.25 The Key Question to follow your introduction can be planned word for word. Later questions should be prepared in an outline so that they can be phrased to fit into the context of the preceding discussion. Just one good Key Question might keep a group going for twenty. After the first Key Question

1.15.26 The number of Key Questions required for a discussion will depend upon the complexity of the subject, the depth of the discussion required, the experience of the group and the time available. The number of Key Questions required for a discussion will depend upon the complexity of the subject, the depth of discussion required, the experience of the group and the time available. Just one 'good' key question might keep a group going for twenty minutes. After the

first Key Question the group themselves may develop other questions that cover the points identified by the leader. This is good in that it reduces the need for interventions by the leader and increases the confidence and ownership of the group in what is happening.

1.15.27 The sequence of Key Questions in a discussion should reflect the topic and the way the group have developed the discussion. This make planning a sequence difficult in advance because imposing the leader's sequence may reduce the flow and sense of the discussion. When we have exhausted a key question, the next key question should be selected to link on to the previous discussion and phrased to reflect the way the group have been discussing the topic.

Time

1.15.28 This is a major constraint. Generally, highly effective discussions require a considerable amount of time. Failure to provide sufficient time or arbitrary closure of a discussion creates a major barrier to effective discussion. Unfortunately, discussion timing is extremely difficult to predict and depends upon:

- The interest and experience of group members.
- The quality of key questions posed by the leader.
- The way in which group behaviour helps or hinders development of discussions.
- The complexity of the objective to be achieved
- The diversity of opinion of the group

Prepare an Introduction

1.15.29 An important role for a discussion leader is to get the discussion going by means of an introduction. We require a delicate balance between a comprehensive introduction that switches the group off and a short one that leaves them puzzled. When preparing an introduction you should aim for brevity and consider covering the following:

- State the topic to be discussed
- State the purpose of discussion
- Outline limits to topic and timing
- Set the scene
- Establish links with the experience of the group

- Bring everyone to a common starting point
- Arouse interest
- Prepare the group to contribute
- Lead up to first Key Question

1.15.30 While the list is long, many items can be included very briefly and often grouped together. The introduction should reassure group members that they have something to say, encourage them to say it and listen to what others have to say.

Decide Upon Visual Aids

1.15.31 You must decide whether visual aids are suitable and helpful for your learners in the discussions you lead.

1.15.32 Visual aids can promote learning and stimulate interest. Prepared visuals are not possible except for topic headings and the first key question. If you feel able to prepare visual aid material it suggests you are intending to give some form of presentation.

1.15.33 Where ideas are being sought, having a flip chart is very helpful. The sheets are easily displayed, using 'blue tac' or masking tape, and can be referred to and kept for future circulation and use.

Organise Physical Arrangements

1.15.34 Ideal accomraodation is seldom available, but the discussion leader should make the best of what is available.

1.15.35 The room should be well lit and ventilated. Chairs should be comfortable to sit on for an hour or so, but not so comfortable that people fall asleep. If possible, we should provide tables - without them the atmosphere is apt to become too relaxed and reduce active thought and participation.

1.15.36 The layout is extremely important because it can affect the discussion. The seating arrangements need to allow participants to see each other clearly and comfortably. Discussion is very difficult to maintain without eye contact between participants. The discussion leader needs to be seated as part of the group so as not to dominate the discussion and prevent interactions between other group members. The most participative arrangement is the circular table or square table, as shown below.

Lead discussant

Circular seating
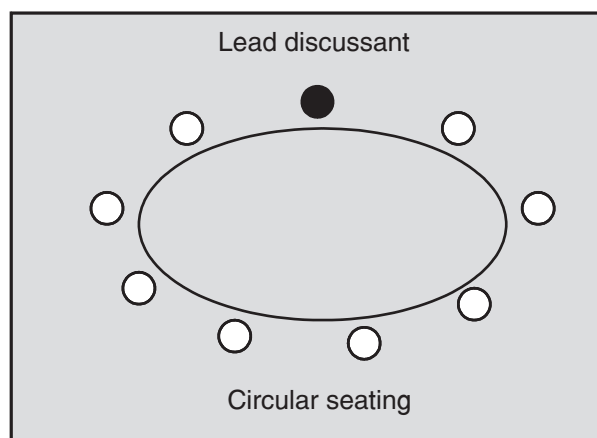
1.15.37 The "U" formation, shown below places the leader in a more obvious position of power but retains easy contact among all members of the group. It is also a convenient layout for other training methods so it can be used without major furniture shifting.

Leader

U Seating
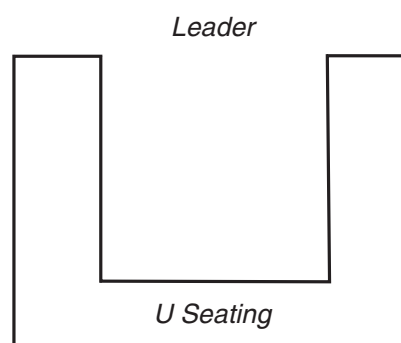
In both layouts any visual aid can be put alongside the discussion leader. The circular arrangement can make it difficult for group members next to the leader to see the visual aid comfortably as they have to twist round to face it.

Leading a Group Discussion

1.15.38 Once the group has assembled and settled down you can present your prepared introduction. This should be brief but adequate to arouse interest and give guidelines to tie discussion. Then the first prepared Key Question should be posed to the whole group rather than to a nominated person. You should be prepared to sit quietly to give the group time for thought. By looking around the group you can identify those with something to say, those who are confused or uncertain and those who do not wish to contribute.

You must use your judgment on whether your question has been successful in stimulating thought and desire to contribute, or if it needs some qualification of rephrasing. Often your silence will encourage someone to start the discussion by attempting to answer the question. If no-one is prepared to speak spontaneously, you may nominate someone who appears to have something to say or you know has something to contribute on the question.

1.15.39 During its early stage a discussion may go 'through the chair' where every contribution is addressed to the leader. The leader responds and then someone else is brought into the discussion. This tends to reflect dominance by the discussion leader. It only takes a few questions nominating individuals to reply for the whole group to sit back and wait for 'their turn'. On occasions such discussions can suddenly 'take off; without warning group members are talking directly to one another and exploring their views. Debate and disagreement between members is to be welcomed because, well directed and controlled it helps learning.

1.15.40 To avoid discussions 'through the chair' you should address Key Questions to the whole group. Contributions addressed to you should be passed on immediately to another group member for elaboration or comment. Your physical presence should not dominate the group either through position or posture.

Increasing Effectiveness of a Discussion

1.15.41 An important distinction between giving a lecture and leading a discussion is that careful preparation beforehand can work the content and framework of the lecture out in detail. The discussion, of course, also requires careful preparation beforehand. However, the framework cannot be imposed and the detailed content depends on interaction between group members, and with you, during the discussion. In an extreme case, it is possible to visualize a situation where a trainer prepares a lecture, which an actor then delivers: this simply could not happen with a discussion.

1.15.42 During the discussion you should manage a fragile relationship between members of the group, and between them and you. The intention should be to generate effective learning, not conflict, dissent or alienation: aim to generate 'light' rather than 'heat'. We

can identify two factors that, well managed, will significantly increase the effectiveness of a discussion, we illustrate them in figure below.
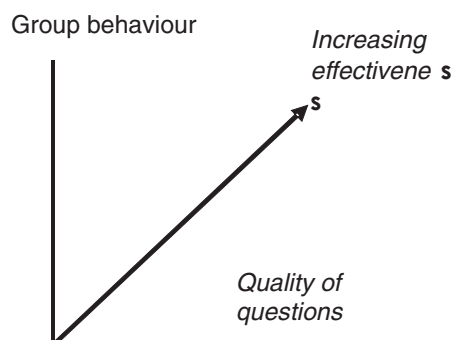
Quality of Questions

1.15.43 A key factor in successful discussion leading is the use of questions. They provide twv essential services:

- They promote learning. Questions that are perceptive, challenging and appropriate create an environment where members of the discussion group can gain a deeper insight and understanding of the topic under discussion. We will call these question learning questions

- They help in the general management and control of the discussion. By appropriate use of questions and discussions leader can control the discussion and provide opportunities for all members of the group to participate. We will call these questions Tactical questions.

1.15.44 To enable a group to obtain maximum value from a discussion, you must consider how to manage the event. You must promote learning by the sensitive use of learning questions and, also, control the discussion by using a variety of tactical questions.

1.15.45 An analogy can be drawn with building a wall - a wall of understanding. The bricks in the wall are the learning questions used to promote a better understanding of the topic. The mortar between the bricks is the tactical questioning, maintaining control of the discussion and generally directing its development towards achieving the objective.

Learning Questions

1.15.46 The technique of using questions to promote learning dates back to the days of Socrates in the fifth

century BC. The leader of a discussion uses the "Socratic Approach", as it is now called, to challenge assumptions, compare opinions, and generally encourage the development of a deeper understanding of the topic under discussion. Learning questions can be considered to fall into two broad categories, low order questions and high order questions.

Low Order Question

1.15.47 Essential, these test existing knowledge. They make only a limited contribution to a discussion because they usually require a factual answer. Low order questions are of value in discussion to check understanding and to establish a common base of information. There are three main types of low order question:

Recall questions that ask group members to contribute facts.
e.g. How many..........?

Comprehension questions that ask group members to describe or check understanding of something, 1O establish a common starting point for the discussion.
e.g. "What do we understand by the term   ?"

Application questions that ask group members to relate an issue or a simple problem to their own situation and consider how they might apply a proposed solution.
e.g. "How would that work in your department   ?"

High Order Questions

1.15.48 These provoke discussion because there is no clear-cut answer. Group members may interpret the question differently and apply their own experience, opinion and attitudes in their response. This leads to a wide diversity of views that can be used as the basis for discussion. Almost certainly, there will be no 'right' or 'wrong' answer. It is the exchange of a variety of comments that can lead to a much wider understanding of the topic or problem being discussed. The following are types of high order questions:

1.15.49 Analysis question asks group members to make deductions. They are encouraged to organize their thoughts and to look for evidence to interpret and

to make generalizations. The value of these questions is that the leader can draw on the experience of members. The question can be illustrated by reference to similar situations that encourage members to express opinions.

e.g. "So what does that mean for other sections?"

1.15.50 Synthesis question stimulates the group's creative potential. They require people to reflect and work together as a team, encouraging participants to develop ideas and suggestions.

e,g, "Can we build on that idea somehow?"

1.15.51 Evaluation questions can be considered the highest level of thinking to be obtained from a discussion group. No matter how brilliantly a conclusion from other categories of questions, they must evaluate it and consider its worth. It encourages members to give reasons for their judgments and to assess different ideas and solutions.

e.g. "Which of these possible approaches do you prefer, and why?"

Application of Learning Questions

1.15.52 In planning the types of question to ask, you should consider:

- The level of the questions. If too low, the group may see the discussion as a pointless recall of knowledge. If too high a level, the group may feel threatened and respond in a defensive manner. High order questions can make the group feel that they are being asked to contribute outside their level of expertise and experience.

- What alternative questions to ask, either further up or lower down the order. This should provide a degree of flexibility and permit you to adapt to the learning needs of the group.

- The time available. Low order questions require a relatively simple answer: they are less likely to provoke controversy and can be concluded quickly. High order questions are likely to do the opposite.

Tactical Questions

1.15.53 We need tactical questions when group behaviour is limiting the learning from the discussion.

They may be necessary to bring some participants into the discussion, to acknowledge the contribution of others and to get the discussion to move on. Tactical questions are devices for directing the discussion and generally controlling the event. In themselves tactical questions do not promote much learning; their main purpose is to focus discussion on the high-order learning questions.

They help the discussion leader to:

- Ensure that learning questions are fully understood, before the detailed discussion.
- Manage the participation of group members.
- Control the allocation of time to each aspect of the topic.
- Summarize and check for understanding and agreement.

Tactical questions can be considered within three broad categories:

- Open Questions
- Probing Questions
- Closed Questions

Open Questions

1.15.54 To establish rapport: Introductory questions used to establish an initial relationship with the group.

Example :

- 'Didn't you use to work in the audit department?"
- 'Have we met?'

To explore the background

Used to establish a common basis upon which to build the discussion.

Examples:

- 'Please tell us about   ?'
- 'How does the (topic) affect your department?"

To explore, opinions or attitudes

Again, used to establish a common basis, but the emphasis is now on the individual member's opinion or attitude towards the topic, Examples:

- 'To what extent to do you feel...?"
- 'Just how far do you think?"

Probing Questions

To show interest or encouragement

1.15.55 Where the leader encourages a member of the group by making supporti statements, or repeating key words to encourage responses from others.

Examples:
- That is interesting
- ....'I see........?' (tell us more)

To seek further information

Used to develop a member's statement by promoting further comment.

Example:
- 'Why?'
- 'What would you do if ?'

To explore in detail

Where comments of potentially great significance are highlighted by seeking further opinions: Examples:

- 'Just how far do you think?
- 'You feel that ?'

To establish understanding

Where the leader controls the discussion by summarizing a particular aspect of the topic.
Examples:
- 'As I understand it   ?'
- 'The consensus is.......?

Closed Questions

1.15.56 These are especially useful for establishing facts, or to control a discussion in danger of falling apart through lack of understanding.
Example:
- 'Are you……………………………….?'
- 'How often do you   ?'.

Group Behaviour

1.15.57 During a discussion you have the responsibility to control the group's participation. You have to:

- Understand the contribution of each member.

- Help group members to understand each contribution
- Ensure that the contributions relate to the Key Question
- Summarize the contributions and record main points
- Summarize each aspect of the topic at an appropriate time
- Encourage contributions from everyone in the group
- Limit contributions
- Keep to time constraints

By improving the quality of group participation and planning high quality questions you can increase the effectiveness of the discussion.

1.15.58 During the discussion you may be faced with group members who are either not helping or are actively hindering the group.

- You may be faced with group members who talk too much. If you 'shut them up' you may lose them for the rest of the session; if you let them go on for too long, you may lose the group who by that time get bored and have 'switched off. Supplementary questions and summaries can be useful to clarify and break into an individual's contribution. Asking another individual to comment upon what has been said can also help to widen the discussion.

- Do not put too much pressure on 'silent members'. It may do more harm than good. Silence does not mean that they are not learning. However, encouraging looks, or asking silent members to help with recording contributions can be useful to bring them into the body of the group.

You can use three major techniques to control the discussion:

Questions

1.15.59 The quality of the discussion is very dependent on the quality of questions. This applies to both key questions and supplementary questions. Good questions can help people to think, clarify understanding, and stimulate an active approach to the topic.

1.15.60 It is essential that you ask questions with a genuine desire to understand or clarify. We should frame questions in a way that avoids any member feeling attacked. Any attempt to make a member of the group look foolish, or to score off a member, will often lead to a breakdown of effective discussion.

1.15.61 Asking how one contribution relates to an earlier one will help to keep the discussion together and develop understanding of the topic.

Silence

1.15.62 Silence can be a most valuable contribution to a discussion. During silences, people can think. To use silence you should make sure that the group has a good, challenging question to help them to think. Then remain seated and be silent yourself.

1.15.63 Associated with silence is the art of listening. It can be helpful if you note down useful comments from members of the group and encourage them to do also. The skill of listening is one of the most demanding in discussion leading. As a discussion leader you should listen carefully to the contributions being made; decide whether you have understood; decide whether the rest of the group understood, and perhaps phrase a clarifying question and at some stage summarizes the content. Doing all these things together is very difficult and very tiring. Your attention will almost slip from time to time, so note taking can be helpful in keeping concentration and providing a reminder to which you can refer for summaries.

Summaries

1.15.64 At certain points in the discussion you should gather related contributions together and summarize them. If this is a summary of a Key Question, recording this in writing on the flip chart is useful. This gives you to opportunity to control the movement of the discussion and prevents the group from wandering from the topic; it consolidates what they have learned; and gives the group a sense of achievement.

1.15.65 The summary is useful to control the timing of the discussion. providing a summary can round off a Key Question. It will normally close discussion on that aspect, and allow discussion to move on to the next.

1.15.66 By controlling the discussion in this way, you can apportion the time available. Sometimes spending time on a deeper discussion of one aspect may be more useful for the group than moving on to another. This is a matter of judgment, and will depend on the objectives, the learning value of the discussion, and other constraints. However, members of a discussion group will become extremel frustrated if the leader prematurely concludes their discussion.

1.15.67 The final summary of a discussion can be quite brief and should round off the discussion into a coherent whole. Because the final summary must reflect the content of the discussion, we cannot plan it in advance. The use of the flip chart to record points arising and reference to notes made by the discussion leader can both be very helpful in doing the final summary.

1.15.68 During the final summary you should consider the following points:

- Review the points covered
- Acknowledge specific contributions
- Develop conclusions reached
- Action to be followed - when and by whom
- Reinforce understanding of the topic

The Role of the Leader

1.15.69 The primary purpose of the discussion is to enable participants to learn from each other. The discussion leader should be:

- Impartial in responding to group members.
- Supportive to the group and encouraging contributions.
- Managing the discussion within time constraints.
- Not seen as the'centre of attention.
- A member of the group.
- Prepared to learn as much as any other member of the group.
- Stimulating the group to explore the topic in depth.

1.15.70 The essential feature of your role is to serve the learning needs of group members. You can do this by asking questions to clarify members' understanding and to challenge assumptions, and by summarizing the contributions and conclusions reached in the group to help them achieve the learning objective.

1.15.71 This may appear to make the discussion leader's role more passive than the role of presenting new information in a lecture. The role is, in fact, very demanding and active; attentive listening and a quick grasp of what is being and said are essential. In a discussion, differences in entry behaviour become far more apparent as the people in the group become equal partners. you have to create a learning event that will lead to a full discussion of the subject and the realisation of the objective for the discussion.

2. Conducting the Case Class

2.1 Introduction

2.1.1 The basic premise on which the case method rests is that groups learn more readily under case method because they accept more responsibility for the conduct of the class discussion than in other learning methods. On the other hand, many teachers who start using the case method have had extensive prior experience only with lecturing. It is not surprising, therefore, that a recurring issue in case method classes is, "how much direction should the teacher provide?"

2.1.2 The only satisfactory answer to this question is "it depends"- on the teacher's purpose, on the students' readiness to accept responsibility, on the character and content of the case at hand and a good many other variables. Teaching style should be a matter of conscious decision, not happenstance. The teacher continuously bears the burden of judging whether the students are learning. In case method the teacher has a fine opportunity to discover this by hearing and judging the quality of students' class presentations.

Selecting the Teaching Style

2.1.3 Styles of direction vary. Some case method teachers routinely assign groups of students to prepare case reports and make oral presentations as 'briefings', while the teacher sits in the audience, taking little or no part in the performance. Other teachers assign individual students in rotation to direct the classes from the front of the classroom. These may be thought of as extreme examples of 'non- directive' teaching.

2.1.4 By and large, however, the development of individual analytical skill requires more frequent participation by each student than is provided by a steady progression of group presentations.

2.1.5 A third form of non- directive teaching is for the teacher to remain in the front of the classroom, but merely to call upon one volunteer student after another, interjecting no comments between recitations, venturing no opinions and asking no questions. This technique has occasionally been used successfully with a sophisticated and experienced group of students.

2.1.6 A case teacher firmly rooted in directive teaching makes use of case merely as a basis for a lecture. Students are discouraged day after day, even from interjecting questions. The adverse effect of this technique on students' preparation before class is obvious. If you plan to use this style, it is far better to think of not using case method.

Progression of Case Study Class

2.1.7 Most effective case method teachers operate well within a combination of extremes of style mentioned above. They use a combination of devices, some of which are described below, to keep the discussion moving, provide needed information, encourage widespread participation and give evaluative feedback. At the beginning, the scope of the discussion is narrow, containing only the ideas of the opening speaker. As other students introduce their ideas, conflicting with or amplifying the open era as the teacher asks probing questions or seeks clarification, the matter under discussion becomes much broader in scope and far more complex. Perhaps midway in the discussion and after about one- half to two- thirds of the class period has elapsed, a class that is 'going well' will seem to start to converge. Some competing ideas, having gained no support will be forgotten.

2.1.8 There are certain techniques that the case trainer must adopt to bring the maximum learning out of the case by inducing complete involvement of the learners. Let us consider some of these in the following paragraphs.

2.1.9 Asking probing questions that force students to expand their arguments. In general questions should be asked in neutral, rather than antagonistic words. There are far more students who need encouragement to expand their own thinking than there are those who thrive on direct arguments with the teacher.

2.1.10 Interpreting and reporting illustrative experience: At times a case contains special- purpose words or jargon with which the students are not familiar. The teacher must clarify quickly, to avoid letting the class bog down in speculation about definitions.

2.1.11 Giving 'lecturette': introducing concepts and techniques: Every case method teacher has experienced the need to take a short time in the middle of a class to clarify or amplify a concept or technique. This might be thought of as a 'lecturette'. When participants are ready to receive a bit of information because it will immediately help them to solve a problem in the case at hand, it will take far less time to explain the new idea than it would in a full- blown lecture.

2.1.12 Providing evaluative feedback in words and actions. This activity is central to the role of the teacher. It is important to realize, however, that the feedback process also influences the flow of the class discussion. By appearing to ignore a useful contribution or by welcoming openly a frivolous statement, the teacher has an effect on the other students as well as the speaker.

2.1.13 To avoid making too hasty a negative response, is to ask yourself mentally, "what do I like about the student's statement?". If you can find nothing you like about a recitation, it is better to call on another student quickly without making any comment.

2.1.14 Writing on the chalkboard or other public recording device: By use of the chalkboard the teacher can influence greatly what the class pays attention to. Words and phrases recorded on the board tend to remain "in" the field of discussion. By being a sensitive "secretary", the teacher wields great power over the direction taken by the class discussion.

2.1.15 Choosing the next speaker and deciding how long a recitation is allowed to run on: Many case method teachers make a practice of calling mainly on students who indicate their interest. Other teachers use a "call list", which they prepared in advance, to make sure that they get inputs from students who have otherwise remained silent. What is important is to inform you students in advance what your policy will be, so that they can effectively adapt to the system.

2.1.16 It is worth knowing that if you want to encourage a counter argument you had best call on a student sitting on the other side of the roonm from the previous speaker, all other things being equal.

2.1.17 Very often you would come across any number of trainees asking for approved answer to the situations. Almost never should you answer such questions. Once you have given a statement, students will find it hard to continue their own independent analysis and speculations. Two good ways to respond to directly refer question to the rest of the class or direct it back at the questioner.

Summarizing

2.1.18 At times the class may bog down trying to deal with excessive amounts of complexity. When the class is having difficulty in discarding ideas, the teacher can help start the process by giving a short summary statement of the previous discussion. It is the rare case method teacher who can resist the temptation to give a last- minute summary so that it "come out right", in terms of the teacher's preferred solution to the case problem. It is better to refrain from summing up at the end of the class, or to ask some student to do the summary, than for the teacher to make a constant practice of summarizing. If the students come to expect a neat summary by the teacher they will be happy to stop short of completing the class discussion for themselves.

Pausing

2.1.19 That leads finally to one of the most powerful teaching techniques available to the case method teacher- the pause. Often what is most needed in a class discussion is not for the teacher to rush in to fill a short silence, but to let the silence weigh on the class.

Conclusion

2.1.20 In sum, the successful case method teacher must accept a significantly different role from that of the lecturer. Because students learning under case method are required to prepare before class, they must be given every, possible opportunity to demonstrate their degree of preparation. Since the total amount of time available for a case course is often about the same as that devoted to a lecture series, the teacher must relinquish time so that the students may present ideas. This adjustment is often the most difficult one for the former lecturer to make.

3. Conducting Field Visits

3.1 The Objective

3.1.1 A field visit should be topically relevant or relate to the theme of the training course. For functional training the objective is normally to let the participants appreciate the functional reality outside the classroom. If the functional subject is bond markets, a visit to the dealing room and witnessing the functioning of the online trading platform can powerfully reinforce classroom learning and also bring out the difference between theoretical concepts and their real-life applications. For thematic programmes, filed visits need not be 'hard' or too specific. The trainer in such cases can organize "fuzzy" visits that encourage reflection and discussion on issues relevant to the chosen theme. Even in courses that intend to impart 'skill sets', visits that impact attitudes or ossified ideas can be of great help.

3.1.2 Thus the trainer has to select the purpose of the visit on the basis of what she intends to impart. The only criterion is relevance to the objective of the programme. To address the question of relevance, the trainer may ask the following questions:

- What the visit will give the trainees and how does it relate to the training objective?
- Is it likely that what the trainees going to witness will have elements of novelty for most of them? If the sense of 'oh I have been there!' dominates it can subdue the interest and enthusiasm of the trainees.
- Are the learning points from the visit applicable to the setting in which trainees work?
- If the learnings are not applicable to the work context of some, can the learning change the way they think or do their work?
- Will the visit reinforce class room learning?
- Will the visit help the trainees bring out their latent knowledge by discussing about the visit in class

room? (Such visit could be a jarring experience for the trainees)
- Can the visit impact attitudes: by seeing success where one expected none or by seeing failure of what everybody thought was a great success.

3.1.3 Where to Go & How Long

The answer to this question depends on the time available. Half-day field visits may suit purely functional courses and sometimes risks becoming only an outing. A full day is generally the standard time one should set aside for a field visit. Field visit followed by classroom sessions on the same day may be avoided. It is important that the journey does not dominate the whole exercise. If traveling long distance is necessary, overnight stay at the place of the visit is advisable.

3.1.4 Planning for Field Visit

- Explain clearly to the host personnel the purpose of the visit and the specific things you want them to show.
- Whenever possible involve an influential person in the area in organizing the visit
- Brief the trainees abut the purpose of the visit, what they can expect to see and the possible learnings they can have
- Ensure that every participant jots down some specific learning she expects from the field visit.
- Impress on the trainees that hosts are obliging us by arranging the trip; not vice versa.

3.1.5 Logistics: Some Do's and Don'ts

- Book cars/LMVs if going to visit villages. Many villages have roads where buses can ply only with a lot of difficulty.
- Brief the driver well. The driver must have no doubt about where to go.
- The driver must not take instructions from anyone

other than the course coordinators.

- If traveling by cars/LMVs one coordinator should be in the first car and another coordinator in the last.

- The main coordinator must have the cell number of at least one occupant in each vehicle. Also, at least one occupant in each vehicle must have the cell number of the main coordinator.

- If traveling multiple vehicles, never allow any vehicle to take a different route.

- Avoid carrying cooked food in the vehicle. It creates unpleasant smell inside the vehicle. Always carry adequate number of water bottles.

- Always keep telephone/cell number of the host institution

3.1.6   On the field

- Just before you reach the site, tell the trainees the name of the place, any special features of the place and what they are going to see on that site. Announce the time you are going to spend there and by what time all should be back in the vehicle. Time management is the key to a smooth field visit.

- Discourage the trainees from forming small groups. These groups can stray the course of the visit by making unscheduled demands/requests/behaviour.

- When making unscheduled adjustments to the programme, make sure to take into account the convenience of the substantial majority of the trainees.

- On the field, guide the discussion. Ensure that the discussion does not meander into inanities. Sum up the discussion at appropriate rests.

- Do not allow questions that are uncomfortable to those who form subject of the study or the host organizers.

- Do not allow some participants to hijack the discussion.

- Some participants may be critical of the activity or the process being shown. They tend get into the 'teacher' mode. Discourage them.

- The coordinator should herself take comprehensive notes.

3.1.7   Back to Class

- Begin a discussion by asking the customary 'how was it?' Avoid starting the discussion with questions like 'was the food good?' or 'was the ride comfortable?' This takes away the seriousness of the de-briefing session, besides providing the habitual whiners an opportunity to launch into bemoaning.

- If there were logistical problems in the visit apologise for it in the beginning and move on from there.

- Ask the every participant what she saw and what her learning from it.

- Give the participants prompts to bring out their observations. Note the observations on a flip chart.

- Summarize the discussion by listing out clear learning points.

Simulation

3.1.8   Simulation is a method of training, which aims to make people experience 'reality of a situation under controlled conditions'. The training activity is set up in such a way as to represent real outside world as closely as possible and participants act and respond to deal with the same. The difference between simulation and other models is that it is an operating model. The fact that environmental changes are built into the model making it dynamic and appear as it represents the resources, restrictions and consequences of the realit that it models.

3.1.9   The decisions/ actions of participants as well as the consequences they produce are made use of to enable the participants learn the functionality oj their actions/ decisions and in the process make them think of other option5 available.

It's History

3.1.10   The roots of simulation is also the same as business games, i.e., war games. However, over a period of time, with technological developments and specialised training needs, simulation in many areas have become highly sophisticated. One of the common uses of simulation today is use of flights imulators to train pilots, with least cost and no risk to lives.

Where to Use Simulation?

3.1.11 Simulation, as mentioned earlier, can be a very effective methodology for types of training where real life situation needs to be brought in the traininl itself. It can be very useful where programme inputs include management concepts, decision making, team building behaviour, awareness of ones behaviour and its impact on others, coping with stress, etc.

Why Simulation

3.1.12 Simulations make participants live through the event personally leading to personal experience and lasting knowledge. Moreover, involvement in an activity, controlled partly by the participant, is more, leading to effective learning. Participants do own the learning as it is from data generated duri simulation. Last of all, it is one of the few methods by which behaviour could be observed and reviewed thus making it a powerful method in debriefing on self-awareness and inter- personal behaviour.

How to Administer Simulation?

3.1.13 Simulation is administered in the same way as games.

3.1.14 Are there any limitations?

a. Careful structuring of simulation is the base of the process. Otherwise it would appear to be an artificial one instead of bringing reality into the minds of the participants.

b. It is a time consuming method requiring adequate time for running the process as well as to debrief on the events.

c. Trainers skills become critical in making simulation a success. If the trainer is not fully equipped with process observation, interpretation, discussion leading and feedback skills, simulation may be taken as a fun activity only.

d. The fun of the activity might become the focus than the potential learnings. Participants may 'play' rather than 'behave'.

e. Simulation events should have firm base in reality. What people face in day to day reality or in their job simulations should be built into a simulation, otherwise simulation becomes less real and hence less useful as a learning mechanism.

4. Conducting Field Visits

4.1   The Objective

4.1.1   A field visit should be topically relevant or relate to the theme of the training programme / course. For functional training, the objective is normally to let the participants appreciate the functional reality outside the classroom. If the functional subject is microfinance, a visit to a self-help group and witnessing a meeting of the group can powerfully reinforce classroom learning. Field visits also bring out the difference between theoretical concepts and their real-life applications. For thematic programmes, field visits need not be 'hard' or too specific. The trainer in such cases can organize "fuzzy" visits that encourage reflection and discussion on issues relevant to the chosen theme. Even in courses that intend to impart 'skill sets', visits that impact attitudes or ossified ideas can be of great help.

4.1.2   Thus, the trainer has to select the purpose of the visit on the basis of what he intends to impart. The only criterion is relevance to the objective of the programme. To address the question of relevance, the trainer may ask the following questions:

●   What will the visit give the trainees? How does it relate to the training objective?

●   Is it likely that what the trainees are going to witness will have elements of novelty for most of them? If the sense of 'oh I have been there!' dominates it can subdue the interest and enthusiasm of the trainees.

●   Are the learning points from the visit applicable to the setting in which trainees work?

●   If the learnings are not applicable to the work context of some, can the learning change the way they think or do their work?

●   Will the visit reinforce class room learning?

●   Will the visit help the trainees bring out their latent

knowledge by discussing about the visit in class room? (Such visit could be a jarring experience for the trainees)

●   Can the visit impact attitudes: by seeing success where one expected none or by seeing failure of what everybody thought was a great success.

Where to go & how long

4.1.3   The answer to this question depends on the time available. Half-day field visits may suit purely functional courses and sometimes risk becoming only an outing. A full day is generally the standard time one should set aside for a field visit. Field visit followed by classroom sessions on the same day may be avoided. It is important that the journey does not dominate the whole exercise. If traveling long distance is necessary, overnight stay at the place of the visit is advisable.

Planning for field visit

●   Explain clearly to the host personnel the purpose of the visit and the specific things you want them to show.

●   Whenever possible, involve an influential person in the area in organizing the visit.

●   Brief the trainees abut the purpose of the visit, what they can expect to see and the possible learnings they can have.

●   Impress on the trainees that hosts are obliging us by arranging the trip; not vice versa.

Logistics: some do's and don'ts

●   Book cars/ LMVs if going to visit villages. Many villages have roads where buses can ply only with a lot of difficulty.

●   If traveling by a bus, ensure that the front two seats are reserved for the courses coordinators. (Sitting in the front reinforces authority that is needed in

managing such visits, besides giving a convenient place from where instructions can be given to the driver)

- Brief the driver well. The driver must have no doubt about where to go.

- The driver must not take instructions from anyone other than the course coordinators.

- If traveling by cars/ LMVs one coordinator should be in the first car and another coordinator in the last.

- The main coordinator must have the cell number of at least one occupant in each vehicle. Also, at least one occupant in each vehicle must have the cell number of the main coordinator.

- If traveling in multiple vehicles, never allow any vehicle to take a different route.

- Avoid carrying cooked food in the vehicle. It creates unpleasant smell inside the vehicle. Always carry adequate number of water bottles.

- Always keep telephone/cell number of the host institution handy.

In the field

- Just before you reach the site, tell the trainees the name of the place, any special features of the place and what they are going to see on that site. Announce the time you are going to spend there and by what time all should be back in the vehicle. Time management is the key to a smooth field visit.

- Discourage the trainees from forming small groups. These groups can stray the course of the visit by making unscheduled demands/ requests/behaviour.

- When making unscheduled adjustments to the programme, make sure to take into account the convenience of the substantial majority of the trainees.

- In the field, guide the discussion. Ensure that the discussion does not meander into inanities. Sum up the discussion at appropriate rests.

- Do not allow questions that are uncomfortable t o those who form subject of the study or the host organizers.

- Do not allow some participants to hijack the discussion.

- Some participants may be critical of the activity or the process being shown. They tend get into the 'teacher' mode. Discourage them.

- The coordinator should herself take comprehensive notes.

Back to class

- Begin a discussion by asking the customary 'how was it?' Avoid starting the discussion with questions like 'was the food good?' or 'was the ride comfortable?' This takes away the seriousness of the de-briefing session, besides providing the habitual whiners an opportunity to launch into bemoaning.

- If there were logistical problems in the visit, apologize for it in the beginning and move on.

- Ask the every participant what she saw and what is her learning from it.

- Give the participants prompts to bring out their observations. Note the observations on a flip chart.

- Summarize the discussion by listing out clear learning points.

Case Study - Apna Bazaar

Nellore, the southernmost district of Andhra Pradesh abutting Tamil Nadu, is famous for rice cultivation. 'Nellore rice' is famous in different parts of south India. In the recent past, prawn culture has become very popular and the district is also called the 'Prawn Capital of India'. Nellore is also famous for the entrepreneurial capacity of its people in the area of construction. Several big construction firms with their base here operate in countries like Afghanistan, Iraq and beyond. The skill of construction labour from Nellore is legendary and construction companies usually operate with integrated crews from the district wherever in the world they undertake projects.

Kasmuru, a small village about 20 kms. from Nellore town has become famous because of a dargah of a local Sufi saint by name Hazrat Sayyad Karimulla Shah Kadri Auliya who is revered by people of all faiths. It is believed that people suffering from chronic ailments who visit the dargah are miraculously healed. While the pilgrim traffic is mostly during the weekends and on special days, there are always some people, especially sick who take accommodation and stay for considerable period in anticipation of being healed from their chronic diseases.

Nellore is also famous for being a pioneer in the Self Help Group movement in Andhra Pradesh. In fact the state-wide anti-arrack campaign erupted from remote Dubaguta village of Nellore district, led by a widow by name Rosamma, which many believe culminated in the change of the State Government. It is believed that the Self Help Group (SHG) movement in Andhra Pradesh gained substantial momentum because it rode on the women's mobilization achieved by the anti-arrack movement.

The Dharani Self Help Group in Kasmuru village was promoted by District Rural Development Agency (DRDA), Nellore and consisted of 14 members, all belonging to socially and economically disadvantaged section of society. The group was considered a showcase group and many VIPs and visitors were brought to the village to interact with the group. By the year 2000, the group had accumulated a corpus of around Rs. 50,000 (including matching grant from DRDA) which was utilised for internal lending mostly for life cycle and consumption needs.

The DRDA was keen to upscale operations of Self Help Groups and graduate them to undertaking group and micro enterprise activities for their own development and creating new livelihood opportunities. Also, as this was a pet programme of the then Chief minister who reviewed achievements at a weekly statewide video conference, there was competition among the District Collectors and Project Directors DRDA to outshine each other. In 2000, the Project Director, DRDA suggested to the group to take up an Apna Bazaar (a departmental chain store) in their village at a cost of Rs. two lakhs, of which Rs. one lakh would be subsidy from DRDA and the rest, a loan from the Pinakini Gramin Bank, the local RRB under whose service area this village came. The Project Director told the group that they had been considered for the scheme out of the thousands of groups in the district due to their excellent working. The group took time to respond, as they were hesitant to take up what in their view was a big project. The RRB also expressed concern about the size of the project and the loan burden that it would put upon the group. However, such doubts were allayed by the Project Director, DRDA who assured that the entire project would be got executed by them

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Case Studies are intended for classroom discussion, to highlight the approach to be taken and techniques to be used rather than arrive at a right or wrong decision.

through Apna Bazaar, Hyderabad and there would be no difficulty.

As there was no suitable building in the village, the group constructed a building by investing Rs. 40,000 on a plot of land belonging to two of the group members.

After this, the 'Apna Bazaar' (the parent unit which owns the brand and franchise) got the racks and furniture costing Rs. 1 lakh installed and gave stocks worth Rs. 1 lakh. The super market was inaugurated with much fanfare with local political leaders and government officials attending the event and complimenting DRDA and the group for undertaking a novel enterprise instead of just doing internal lending of small sums and purchasing milch buffaloes like most other groups. The group employed two of their members to run the shop.

The group began defaulting on their loan instalment to the bank and this rang an alarm bell for the RRB. The branch manager was aware that the group was cohesive and sincere in their working and there could be genuine reasons for falling back in repayment. Based on a visit and interaction with the group leaders and members he gathered the following information:

The daily sales were Rs. 800 on weekdays and Rs. 1400 on weekends, when some pilgrim traffic is there to the village. The average daily sale was Rs. 1200. Their average margin was 8%. The daily surplus was just enough to meet the wages and electricity charges of the shop. The group did not anticipate significant increase in volumes and revenue, although they were stocking goods as per their movement. The group leader and members felt embarrassed that they had not been able to meet their interest payment and loan repayment obligation and for not having shared their problems with the Branch Managers earlier.

How they were going to meet the interest and repayment obligations worried them. Considering their genuine difficulties, the Branch Manager was willing to explore options but he and the group realised that cash flows from the shop were too meager to service the debt, with no likely increase in the near term. Further, what of the money put by them in the building? They had a reduced fund of Rs. 30000 which they were utilising for internal lending. The other members (other than group leaders and members employed in the shop) were asking question how the activity had benefited them and may not be willing to spare money from their corpus and weekly savings and repayments to service the super market loan.

The group leader felt helpless. "We were sold a dream by the DRDA. We got sold to the dream. What do we do now?" she also thought aloud.

The leaders thought that it was appropriate to bring the DRDA officials into the picture, considering that they were the ones who planted the seed, the idea of a supermarket in their village. By this time, the Project Director DRDA who had received accolades for his good work had been rewarded with posting as Project Director, Drought Prone Area Programme (DPAP) in an adjoining district.

Question: As the new Project Director, DRDA, Nellore district, how would you address this issue?