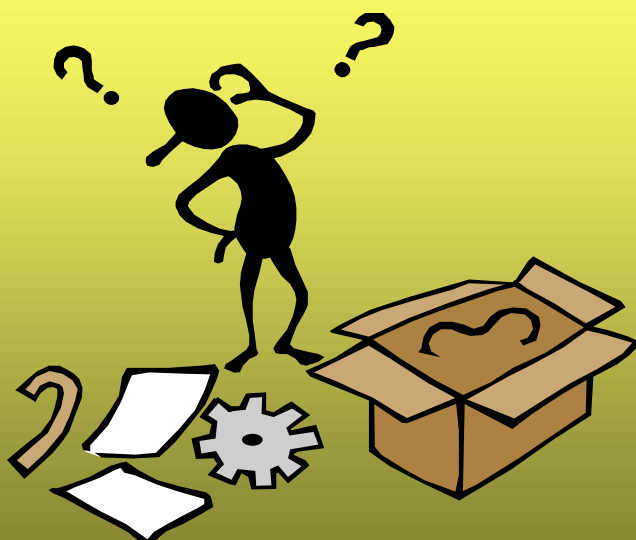




TRAINING DESIGN & TRAINING TOOLKIT



To look is one thing.
To see what you look at is another.
To understand what you see is a third.
To learn from what you understand is still something else.
But to act on what you learn is all that really matters.
Michael LeBoeuf

The purpose of this Training Manual is to introduce you the experiential learning concepts, to persuade you that learning from and through experience is always effective, and to present you a set concepts and “training tools” to be used in the design of interactive, participatory experiential learning events.

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ADULT LEARNING

Learning is a process hard to pin down, but the results of the process are clear:

- New knowledge
- New skills
- New attitudes
- Improved performance

Learning is about change in the trainees' knowledge, skills and attitudes. The trainer fundamental job is to support this change to happen by creating the process through which individuals can learn more effectively.

That means that more we understand how learning occurs, how adults – our training target clients - learn more effectively, the better we will be able to design and deliver effective training programs.

Carl Rogers, a highly respected authority on adult learning, stated several principles that are widely accepted by professional educators and trainers active in influencing the learning of adults. According to Rogers, adults are motivated to learn those things *they* see as relevant to their immediate needs. He suggests that much significant learning is acquired by doing. He makes this statement based on the fact that brief, intensive learning programs are especially effective for individuals who need what they are learning to cope with problems they are currently experiencing. Today we refer to such learning opportunities as "just in time training."

Roger's position is that adults expect to be active participants in the learning process and not merely "passive" recipients of the learning content. With these and other principles in mind, Rogers concludes that the trainer's task is to function as a learning facilitator rather than a teacher in the conventional sense. Gone is the old-fashioned trainer, focused on maintaining tight-fisted control over the learning content and offering large blocks of information in a traditional "one-way" lecture format. The effective trainer, influenced by the new adult learning paradigm, creates an environment within which participants with similar learning needs and goals have access to relevant learning resources and are given opportunities to interact with one another and the trainer. These principles of adult learning, stated with such profound simplicity by Dr. Rogers, should guide us in the preparation of learning designs.

To synthesize:

- *Adults are self-directed learners*
Our need and ability to be self-directed learners grow as we mature, along with our ability to use experience for learning and to organize our learning around our life problems.
- *Adults tend to be active participants*
During the learning process adults tolerate with difficulty a passive experience, such as the one provided by the formal education process, unless that is an explicit contract to do so and the benefits are made clear.
- *Adults tend to validate all new information*
Adults use their own standards and experience in the validating process.
- *Adults need less support during the learning process than children.*
- *Adults learn better in a collaborative environment*
Adults are not empty vessels to be filled with knowledge and skills by an all-knowing trainer. The learning process should be based on an equal partnership between trainer and trainees. They learn from each other. Everyone is responsible for his/her own learning. The trainer primary responsibility is to create the context where it is easy for people to learn.

The supporting context for learning that trainer creates has to:

- Be open and safe to explore and experiment
- Give opportunities to people to feel free to express themselves
- Give opportunity to people to take responsibility for their own learning and use their own experience as learning resource.

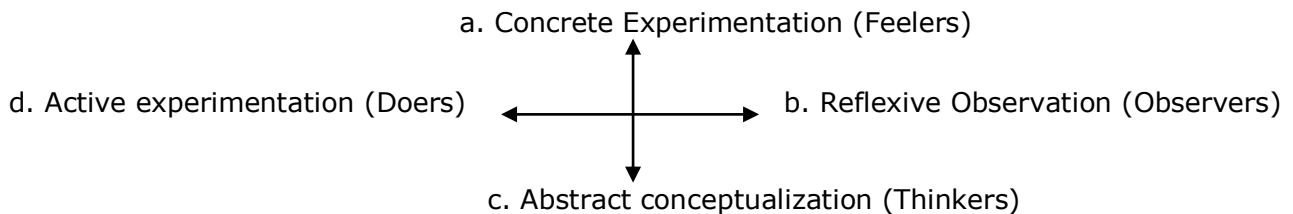
Elaborated by Ana Vasilache based on

Designing Human Settlements Training in European Countries, Volume 2 – Tool Kit, UN HABITAT, by Fred Fisher and David Tees

The model of the experiential learning puts emphasis on the learning from experience and considers experimentation as a source for new concepts and ideas. The model has been formalized by David Kolb in his work on learning styles.

The model identifies four stages in our learning process:

- a. *Concrete experimentation*: Learning starts from a concrete experience
- b. *Reflexive observation*: The individual reflects on the experience and gathers information
- c. *Abstract conceptualization*: The individual begins to generalize what happened in the experience
- d. *Active experimentation*: The lessons learned are applied and tested in new situations



During these different stages the individual plays different roles from (a) the person who is involved in the experience – the feeler, to (c) the person who analyzes with detachment the experience – the thinker, from (d) actor – the doer to (b) the observer.

There are conflicts and tensions between these roles, experience versus theory (feeling vs. thinking), and action versus observation. Each role requires different types of abilities to be effectively performed, such as:

a. Concrete experimentation

The person has to be able to involve him/herself in an open way in new experiences. The person is a "*Feeler*", people-oriented, enjoying affective learning and open, unstructured learning environments, willing to work in groups and share opinions and experiences.

b. Reflexive observation

The person has to be able to observe and reflect on facts and experiences, analyzing them from different points of view. The person is an "*Observer*" liking to watch and listen, tending to be reserved and quiet, and needing time before acting or participating; enjoying learning experiences that allow himself/herself to consider various ideas and opinions and learn through discovery

c. Abstract conceptualization

The person has to be able to create new concepts, integrating observations in a logical frame. The person is a "*Thinker*" relying on logic and reason, enjoying opportunities to share ideas and concepts, preferring activities that require him/her to analyse and evaluate, to work independently; often the thinker questions the relevance of role plays and simulations.

d. Active experimentation

The person has to be able to use theories in new concrete situations, like problem-solving or decision-making processes. The person is a "*Doer*" liking to be involved in the learning process, taking charge of in-group activities and dominating the discussions, enjoying opportunities to practice what they learned, being particularly interested in knowing how to apply what they learned in the real world, preferring information that is presented clearly and concisely.

Each person has a natural tendency and ability to play these roles: some learn easier by doing, others by observing. Regardless each person preferences, for an effective learning one

needs to go through all stages and improve abilities to play all the roles. The trainers using different training methods can emphasize one or the other of the learning stages. But for the learning to be effective all stages have to be made and all learning styles used.

Malcolm Knowles, who introduced the term *Andragogy* to define the study of learning in adults, in one of his many works on this subject, uses a pyramid figure to illustrate the relationship between various types of learning tools or activities and the type of learning impact. For example, self-study or a verbal presentation might be used to produce knowledge (what we have to know about something), a role-play or simulation to produce skill (what we can do with something), and an instrument with feedback to produce a change of attitude (how we feel about or react to something). This is an important insight for trainers. Being able to define each of the objectives of a training design as new knowledge, new skill or a change of attitude provides with a rationale for the selection of the learning resources/tools to include in the training design.

EFFECTIVE TRAINING DESIGN

"What part of the training process do you feel is the most challenging?" If you were asked that question as an experienced trainer, what would you say? If your answer is "*designing effective learning experiences*," you are in good company. Most trainers who have been in the business for a while would agree with your assessment.

There is no argument that training design is a complicated affair. The trainer, as designer, is much like the architect who is commissioned to build a proper living or working environment for a client. The architect must be intimately acquainted with the client's requirements, a master of various design options and possessed with the ability to meet the client's needs without sacrificing essential design principles. Likewise, with one eye on purpose and the other on the numerous design options available, the trainer must set about to make a plan for involving a group of participants in a significant learning experience. Then, with the process underway, the trainer must be prepared to discard or revamp the design should things not go as planned.

Good training designers know the importance of selecting the right activities, of planning the flow of events for achieving the learning objectives, of organizing and sequencing the content to facilitate the learning. The components/stages of a training process that is based on the experiential learning model are:

- *The stage of presenting*, during which the trainer convey information and theoretical concepts on a specific subject (through readings, lectures, questions and answers, audio/visual aids, demonstrations);
- The stage of *processing*, during which the trainer processes/analyzes the information or the experience, linking it with participants concrete experiences, trying to draw conclusions and lessons learned (through questions and answers, instrumentation, case studies, critical incidents, small group discussions, observation/feedback);
- *The stage of applying* during which the trainer creates opportunities during the learning event for participants to apply the newly acquired knowledge, skill, attitudes (through worksheets, reflection, action planning, role-plays, simulations, case studies).

While there are various sequencing options available, new trainers tend to use the same sequence over and over again – *present, process, apply*. In other words, after being exposed to new information, participants are asked to reflect on the ideas - to process them, and after that to apply them in simulated situations, during the training event.

While the *present, process, apply* sequence may be the most appropriate for some learning situations, it may not be for others. For example, a program for trainers designed to demonstrate the shortcomings of a particular training intervention might be sequenced this way: *apply, process and present*. In this situation, participants might be asked to go through an exercise, "being thrown into the water before knowing how to swim". They will struggle to resolve the situation, and after, they may process the experience by discussing what they have learned. At the end the trainer may present the theoretical concepts, generalizing the lessons learned so that they can be applied in a similar situation in the future. The skilled training designer will consider the pros and cons of various ways to sequence learning events. Sometimes, the importance of a particular sequence will persuade the designer to make more fundamental design changes such as to abandon one or more of the planned activities and to substitute something more appropriate for the new sequence.

A good training design cannot be developed without having clear and accurate *training/learning objectives*. If you know the story of Alice and her magical adventures in Wonderland, you may recall that Alice encountered on her visit to Wonderland the Cheshire Cat. It was the cat that cautioned Alice that *if you don't know where you are going it doesn't matter what road you take*. For a training designer the cat's observation is relevant for appreciating the value of clear learning objectives.

A remarkable little book by Bob Mager has for many years been a guide for writing training objectives. Mager said that training objectives should have three parts:

- A precise description of the *performance* that would be the result of the training;
- *Criteria* by which to measure the extent of performance actually achieved; and,
- The *conditions* under which the performance could be expected to take place.

It was also evident from the Cheshire Cat that objectives would be of little use without some way to determine whether or not the training had been successful in achieving them. From association with the work of Donald Kirkpatrick and his classic four levels of evaluation (see box), it was apparent that a process for finding out these things must be introduced early in the design process. More than the post-training “whoopie sheet,” it became clear that evaluation must be carefully planned and introduced not after the training but at various points during the training and, when possible, after participants have returned home from the training.

- | | |
|--|---|
| 1. <i>Reaction</i> – did they like it? | 3. <i>Behavior</i> – are they using it? |
| 2. <i>Learning</i> – did they get it? | 4. <i>Results</i> – did it make a difference? |

How often do you see a trainer make a significant change in the content or process of a program after it is underway? Not often? That is the usual answer for at least two reasons. First, the trainer may be pressing ahead with the training without pausing from time to time to “take a reading” of participants reactions. As a result, this trainer is ignorant of anything being wrong and oblivious to possible flaws in the training design.

Second, the trainer may suspect that something is wrong but lack the confidence to ask participants for feedback that could confirm these suspicions. For trainers lacking in self-confidence, the prospect of changing the program “in mid stream” is quite depressing. Admission of a design flaw may seem to some trainers as a personal failure. They may blame themselves for not correctly assessing the needs of the participant group or for creating exercises that participants do not see as relevant to their job responsibilities.

It is easier for trainers with confidence problems to just deny that anything is wrong. Or these trainers may conclude that something is wrong but that the fault is with the participants, not the design. For them, participants are either lacking in the desire to learn or are attending the program for the wrong reasons.

The design a responsible trainer presents to the group on the opening day of a program is only a “work in progress.” It may look very different after the program than it did at the start, and the trainer must be prepared for that. Recognition of this fact is very important. It is not enjoyable the prospect of expending time and mental energy re-thinking the training design at the eleventh hour. On the other hand, we should be committed to remain sensitive to what is going on with the group from one activity to another and to consider design changes should they be necessary consistent with our discoveries.

Two important names in the training and development business in the United States, McGehee and Thayer, once said: “Many training efforts are begun without any reason, continued with no purpose, and end in no results.” Good training design can help to prevent this unsatisfactory outcome. Make it your business to design well and to re-design willingly.

Remember that the process of creating training designs that achieve learning objectives, while exasperating at times, can be one of the most rewarding parts of the trainer’s task.

TRAINING TOOL KIT

INTRODUCTION

Ask any experienced trainer and you will be told that good training doesn't just happen - it's carefully designed. When we speak of designing training, we mean not only deciding on the learning sequences but also on the learning resources we intend to use and how we intend to use them to reach our objectives.

Our purpose is to introduce some of the learning resources we can rely on to meet our own training goals. What do we mean by learning resources? Imagine we are carpenters who have just been hired to build a house for an important client. We are excited. "A house to build and a big house too," we say. "That's great!" However, in a little while, the initial flush of excitement is replaced by something else - a measure of doubt and uncertainty. Maybe we've never built a big house before. Where should we start? What materials do we need? What tools? Shouldn't we have a set of plans before ordering anything? What does the client mean by a "big" house, anyway? So, what do carpenters and big houses have to do with training? Just this: We might think of the house in our story as a training program - a big training program. Likewise, we might think of the resources we need as tools - the tools a carpenter might need for a house-building task. That is why we chose the name for this chapter "Training Tool Kit".

Our tool kit is easy to use. Each tool is explained in detail. In many cases, the explanation is followed by a practical demonstration of the tools, we have used in different training programs. One caution! Our examples should be considered as guidelines for making up tool kits of your own - with tools that will be understood and accepted easily by the people who will be attending your programs.

Bellow there are two diagrams. In the first diagram, the learning tools are presented in relation to the three stages of the learning process described above: presenting, processing and applying. In the second diagram, the same tools are presented in relation to their usefulness for facilitating learning for individuals, groups and organizations. Each of the tools is shaded according to the area of learning emphasis and organization focus: black = "mostly used;" gray = "somewhat used;" and white "seldom used."

	Presenti	Processi	Applying
Lecture	Mostly	Somewhat	Seldom
Visual Aids	Mostly	Seldom	Seldom
Question and Answer	Somewhat	Mostly	Somewhat
Discussion	Somewhat	Mostly	Somewhat
Demonstration	Mostly	Somewhat	Seldom
Simulation	Mostly	Mostly	Somewhat
Case method	Mostly	Mostly	Mostly
Critical Incident	Seldom	Mostly	Somewhat
Role-play	Seldom	Mostly	Somewhat
Instrumentation	Mostly	Seldom	Seldom
Brainstorming	Mostly	Seldom	Seldom
Nominal group technique	Mostly	Somewhat	Somewhat
Role negotiation	Seldom	Mostly	Mostly
Inter-group conflict intervention	Seldom	Mostly	Mostly
	Mostly	Somewhat	Seldom

	Individu	Group	Organiza
Lecture	Seldom	Mostly	Seldom
Visual Aids	Seldom	Mostly	Seldom
Question and Answer	Somewhat	Mostly	Seldom
Discussion	Somewhat	Mostly	Seldom
Demonstration	Somewhat	Mostly	Seldom
Simulation	Seldom	Mostly	Seldom
Case method	Seldom	Mostly	Seldom
Critical Incident	Seldom	Mostly	Seldom
Role-play	Seldom	Mostly	Seldom
Instrumentation	Mostly	Mostly	Mostly
Brainstorming	Seldom	Mostly	Seldom
Nominal group technique	Seldom	Mostly	Seldom
Role negotiation	Seldom	Mostly	Mostly
Inter-group conflict intervention	Seldom	Mostly	Mostly
	Mostly	Somewhat	Seldom

THE LECTURE

Learning Emphasis
Organization Focus

Hearing a learned person talk is like sitting in a spring breeze
Chinese Proverb

The lecture is a presentation made by a trainer to provide the information needed by a group to carry out task-relevant activities. Lectures are used to convey concepts and subject-matter details and to stimulate critical thinking. Used correctly in conjunction with other learning methods, lectures can get people informed, involved and comfortable with learning new things. When used as the sole or principal learning technique, however, the lecture is generally ineffective compared with other methods.

Lectures can produce an "I talk, you listen" expectation between trainer and participants. As students in school, we all learned what its like to be "lectured" to. When we think of the lecture, what comes to mind for most of us is a teacher we had as children in school, up there at the front of the room, speaking at length on a subject, gesturing and, perhaps, making notes on a chalkboard, while we listened patiently and took notes on everything being said. When exposed to the lecture method again, as adults, we are likely to behave the way we did as children in school - mostly passive and apathetic.

It is hard to imagine that any trainer wants passive and apathetic participants. Yet, that is the inevitable result of using the lecture as the principal teaching technique. What is the alternative? It's not to use the lecture as an end in itself as many teachers do. Rather, the alternative is to use the lecture to support other planned activities that can stimulate participants to be actively involved in the learning process.

Lectures are more than just a way of presenting information. They can be used at the start of a program to establish the working climate for a group, promote interest in learning and reduce participant anxiety. They may be used at any point to stimulate task-related thinking, to introduce skill practice exercises, to prevent misunderstanding or to test progress. Finally, lectures may be used at the conclusion of training to summarize important learning and to encourage learning transfer.

In other words, the lecture is a dynamic and versatile method in the hands of a trainer who knows how to use it in an effective, participant-centered way. Effective, participant-centered lectures have three characteristics in common. First, they take into account the amount of information on a subject that a group of participants can absorb and retain at one time. Secondly, they are structured appropriately for their intended purpose. Thirdly, they employ a variety of techniques to engage participants actively in the process of learning.

One idea at a time

People have limited short-term memories; that is, they can only absorb so much information at one time before reaching saturation. Delivering information is like pouring liquid through a funnel. If we pour too fast, the liquid will spill over the sides of the funnel, but, if we pour more slowly, we can prevent spillage, or we can stop from time to time to allow the liquid to drain before we continue. Funnels and lectures have much in common. If the trainer's objectives is to achieve better performance on the job, participants must be given a chance to absorb one thing thoroughly (understand how it works, practice using it, make plans to apply it or even apply it) before more information is delivered.

Another consideration in the delivery of information is the use of repetition to enhance participant retention of important points. According to Albert Mehrabian, when people are exposed to an idea one time, they retain 10 per cent or less of it after 30 days. Yet when exposed to the same idea six times, with reinforcement at intervals, their retention rate is 90

per cent after 30 days. The implication for trainers is to design lectures that repeat key points many times following this familiar rule of learning reinforcement:

"First, you tell 'em what you're gonna tell 'em; you tell 'em; and then, you tell 'em what you told 'em."

The principal message: It is better to design a lecture that will insure the mastery and job application of just one new skill than to cover 10 skills superficially and see no result.

A three-part structure

Lectures are by necessity brief and to the point. They limit the information to be presented to one or a couple of related points. Their structure consists of a provocative beginning, a convincing middle and a strong ending.

A provocative beginning to a lecture creates interest and a desire to learn more about the subject under discussion. It is incumbent on the trainer to answer the inevitable question in the mind of every participant: "What's in it for me if I learn this material?" This question can be answered with a brief review of (a) what the participants are being asked to learn, (b) why learning it is worthwhile and personally valuable, (c) how learning it will help them reach an important goal or overcome a major obstacle, and (d) how the activities in which they will engage will help them learn it.

Sometimes a provocative statement can be used to focus attention on the subject of a lecture. One of the authors once began a lecture on high-impact writing with this statement. "There are four reasons a writer ought to have his hand cut off." This usually gets the attention of participants. No one seriously believes that anything would justify cutting off someone's hand, but the comment gets attention and creates readiness to hear what comes next.

A convincing middle to a lecture supports the central idea introduced at the beginning. This is the "meat" of the presentation - the substance that gives participants the basis for beginning the process of skill development or behavioral change. The most important thing to keep in mind when presenting information is the KISS principle: "Keep It Simple and Specific." That means using words with which participants are familiar and avoiding ambiguous words, terms and statements that could reduce the credibility of the lecturer.

Beyond being simple and specific, there are other techniques the trainer can use to advance a central idea in a logical and persuasive way. One is to use examples or representative instances of a situation to prove or clarify a general statement. Another is to state facts which are statements about future or past conditions that can be verified by third parties or direct observation. Still another is to quote from authorities - reliable, recognized sources other than the trainer - to support a point. Statistics are a convincing way to express factual relationships in numerical terms. Anecdotes often are used as colorful illustrations of a point to be made.

The lecture can be used in close association with many other training methods described in the tool kit. Encouraging participants to collect their thoughts and develop questions can serve as an effective review and clear up misunderstandings. Use of visual aids, such as flip charts, video-projector/ppt-s or movies, can introduce variety to a lecture and improve participants understanding and information retention. Having participants read and react to handout materials related to the subject can provoke discussions with increased learning value.

The closing to a lecture reinforces key points and suggests how participants might use them to improve back-home performance. This is a good point in a lecture to stop and ask participants to share, either individually or through small group discussion, the ideas they have picked up. The closing serves as a review, provides feedback on whether or not key points have been assimilated, and acts as a transition to the next activity.

For example, the trainer lecturing on how to close a lecture might conclude this way:

"The closing to a lecture is important to building retention and ensuring on-the-job application of new skills. You've experienced it here. You've learned about several valuable tools you can use to close your own lectures. You can improve the quality of your own lectures if you'll just apply the techniques we have been discussing here."

Getting people into the act

Many trainers see their role as information deliverers and not learning facilitators. Getting the message across is the main thing. These trainers often argue against participants' involvement because they fear it will lessen their control over the training process. In fact, it is sometimes argued that time is too short and that there is too much material to cover to allow participation.

What is the trainer's task? Is it simply to cover the material, or is it to enable participants to perform on the job? It has been said that people will tend to support what they help to create. Applied to training, participants can be expected to accept something and believe in it, if they have been given an opportunity to talk about it and try it out first-hand for themselves. This does not happen just by hearing the trainer talk about it. Acceptance and belief require first-hand involvement experiential learning. The trainer must function not only as a presenter of content but as a catalyst for significant participants' involvement in the learning process.

There are several ways a trainer can use the lecture at the start of a program to get a group of participants involved in their own learning. One way is to have them identify their expectations for the program by completing statements like,

"The best thing that could happen for me as a result of my participation in this program is"

Another is to have participants identify personally with the subject of the lecture by completing a sentence about it. In a program on stress management, they might be asked, for example, to finish this sentence:

"Stress is ..."

Still other experiential techniques might be used by a trainer in conjunction with lecture at any point in a training program. One is to have participants think of and discuss situations, which they know about or have experienced personally in order to illustrate a statement like this one:

"A manager may be required to use different styles with different employees."

Another technique a trainer might use in a lecture is to have participants say, in their own words, what they heard the trainer say about a subject. For example, the trainer might ask a question:

"How can communication reduce stress?"

The trainer would then supply the answer. This would be followed by appropriate follow-up questions that participants would be expected to answer.

The trainer might embellish a lecture with other participant-involving techniques. One is to have participants interview one another on a particular topic or point from the lecture and report their findings and/or conclusions. Another is to give participants handout materials that review and summarize the key points covered in a lecture.

Experiential techniques can be useful to the trainer in closing a program. These might include having participants develop a list of questions about something covered in a lecture, and then, working in small groups, having them prepare some questions to ask the trainer.

Also, the trainer might ask participants to make a personal commitment to themselves or to another member of the group to begin using a new skill or behavior discussed in a lecture on returning to the work environment. Examples of other techniques for back-home application of learning are presented elsewhere in the tool kit.

Summary

The lecture is the most important method available to a trainer to convey information and ideas to a group of participants. Successful lectures are carefully planned with three considerations in mind. First, they are brief, focused on a few key ideas and paced to deliver information in "bite sized" chunks. Secondly, they are carefully designed to include provocative beginnings convincing middles and strong endings. Thirdly, lectures should provide participants with an opportunity to be actively involved in their own learning.

VISUAL AIDS

Learning Emphasis		
Organization Focus		

One picture is worth a thousand words

Confucius

Participants in training learn quickly and thoroughly when a lecture is supported by visual aids. Studies at several universities have demonstrated that the time required to present an idea was reduced up to 40 per cent and the prospect of favorable results was enhanced when visual aids were used to augment a verbal presentation. The value of visual aids as a stimulant to learning is emphasized by leading authors on communications effectiveness. David Peoples points out, for example, that a picture is three times more effective than words alone and words and pictures together are six times more effective than words alone. Individuals gain 75 per cent of what they know visually, 13 per cent through hearing and 12 per cent through a combination of touch, smell and taste.

Visual aids come in two varieties - projected and non-projected. Among the projected types are films, videotapes, slides, and computer graphics. Non-projected visual aids include physical objects, pictures, posters, flip charts, maps, etc.

There are many reasons why the trainer should make regular use of properly designed visual materials in lectures. According to Robert Pike, some of the most important are that they:

- Attract and maintain the attention of participants
- Reinforce important ideas
- Support ideas stated verbally
- Increase retention
- Avoid misunderstanding
- Add realism
- Ensure covering key points.

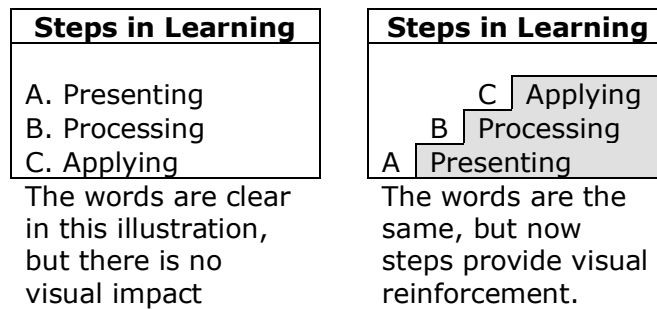
Video Projectors

This is one of the most widely used techniques in the projected visual-aid category. Slides can augment and amplify information presented orally. How effective they are depends on whether or not the trainer:

- Uses professional-looking slides
- Sets up the projection area properly, and

In preparing slides for use in a training session, best results will be obtained if the trainer:

1. Keeps the visuals as simple as possible - no more than six lines per slide and no more than six words per line
2. Presents only few ideas on each image
3. Uses bold, simple - upper- and lower-case letters
4. Uses graphics and charts when possible instead of relying on words or numbers alone
5. Uses active words and short phrases
6. Makes use of "bullets" or numbers in series
7. Uses attractive colors



Locating the video-projector can have an influence on the use of visual aids. In setting up, you should be sure that:

1. Every person in the room can see the visuals comfortably while seated
2. The screen is placed toward the centre of the room
3. The projector does not obstruct the participants' view of the screen
4. The projector beam meets the screen at a 90-degree angle to avoid image distortion or "key stoning"
5. Extension cords and other accessories are on hand

A few simple techniques practiced by the trainer when using visuals can make a noticeable difference. For example, participants will be less distracted if the light is turned off when is a break in presentation.

Films/movies

Films have an advantage over slides in that they portray events in motion. As such, they are a powerful medium for helping participants to identify with people in familiar situations and relationships - a manager counseling an employee or a clerk dealing with a customer's complaint. Used properly, movies can be a valuable learning tool.

When considering the inclusion of a movie in a training program, the trainer should choose carefully by answering these questions:

1. Will participants view the movie's subject matter as relevant to their needs?
2. Will the language of the movie be familiar to the participants, or does it require them to learn new terminology?
3. Do the situations in the movie have direct application in the training?

Several simple techniques can improve the learning value of a movie:

1. Introduce the movie by explaining its purpose and what participants are to look for. Participants might be assigned to small groups and each small group asked to look for specific things in the movie. After the show, participants can take part in a discussion of the things each group was looking for.
2. Unless the movie is short - 10 minutes or less - show it in segments that can be absorbed easily by participants. Involve participants in a discussion of each segment before going on to the rest of the movie.

You Tube is a great resource for small movies in almost all possible topics. Trainer can use them in introducing an idea or as a case study to be discussed and concepts highlighted.

Flip Charts

The flip chart is one of the most widely used tool in the training business for conveying information and ideas visually. It can be used to create visuals to support the lecture. It is better for visuals to be developed in advance. Its ideal use is for groups of 15 to 30 participants.

Several techniques can increase the effectiveness of a flip chart presentation:

1. Prepare the charts ahead of time and cover the key points with strips of paper that can be removed at the appropriate time in a lecture.

2. Print key sentences on the chart ahead of time leaving blank spaces for use in entering words or phrases provided by participants.
3. Print key ideas on cards approximately 13 x 20 cm and post the cards on the chart pad as the points are made orally by the trainer.
4. Use a variety of colors beyond basic black, including bright colors participants may not be accustomed to seeing.
5. Leave the bottom third of flip chart sheets blank. This will help participants see the entire page and leave space for adding information after the sheet is posted on the wall.
6. Underline or box-in key words or phrases to add interest and highlight important ideas.
7. Make use of flip-chart sheets to record information generated by participants.
8. To remove a sheet cleanly, grasp the sheet near the bottom on both sides and pull it straight down and to one side in the direction the sheet is meant to tear.

Summary

Visual aids enhance and accelerate learning. They can be used by a trainer in conjunction with other training methods, such as lectures. The most frequently used visual aids are slides developed using the power point program or the new prezi program, movies and flip charts (non-projected). Best results are obtained with visual aids when the material to be used is of professional quality, the equipment is in good working order and the trainer knows how to use both to facilitate the learning process.

QUESTIONS AND ANSWERS

Learning Emphasis
Organization Focus

A questioning man is halfway to being wise

Irish Proverb

One of the most powerful techniques available to the trainer for involving people in the learning process is the question-and-answer method. By asking the right questions at the right time, a trainer is able to stay in touch with the progress being made by a group of participants in training and to respond effectively to their learning needs. Making successful use of the question-and-answer method involves knowing how to formulate good questions and how to use them to stimulate participant interest, promote understanding and encourage back-home application of learning.

Most people think that questions are used in training to test for the comprehension and recall of information. Certainly, this is one important use of the question-and-answer method, but questions can have many other uses in facilitating learning.

The trainer can use questions at each stage of the *learning process*, to help participants get the greatest possible value from the learning experience. The following questions have been condensed to fit the three stages of learning introduced earlier in the volume.

1. At the ***presentation*** stage of learning, the questions asked aim at generating information from participants, assessing their reactions to a presentation or to the program as a whole.
 - What comes to your mind when you hear....?
 - Would you say more about it?
 - What would you suggest?
 - Could you be more specific?
 - Can you say it in another way?
 - What surprised/puzzled you about it?
 - Does it remind you of anything?
 - Who had the same reaction to it?
 - Who reacted differently to it?
 - What else?
2. At the ***processing*** stage of learning, questions are directed at helping participants understand and interpret the meaning of information or ideas presented to them.
 - What does it mean to you?
 - In what way is it significant?
 - How is it good/bad?
 - How do you feel about it?
 - How many think or feel the same way?
 - Does it help explain something?
 - How is it like/unlike what you have experienced before?
 - What does it suggest about you/others?
 - What do you understand better now about you/others?
3. At the ***applying*** stage of learning, questions asked by the trainer are meant to help participants make use of new ideas and information on returning to their work environments.
 - What would you like to do with it?
 - In what ways would it be useful to you?
 - How could you repeat it back home?
 - What might be the obstacles of making use of it? How could you overcome the obstacles? What would be the consequences of doing/not doing it?

There are a number of things trainers should keep in mind when asking questions.

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1. Plan the questions. Don't throw them in at random. Know why a question is being used. For instance, is the question to obtain information, "Where do you work?" or to gather opinions, "What do you think about this plan?"
2. Ask questions that are short, clear and easy for participants to understand. Avoid asking questions like, "Which of the three phases of the adult learning cycle - presenting, processing or applying - is the most important?" In writing, the question seems simple enough, but, asked orally to an individual or group, it becomes confusing. If you must ask a lengthy question, illustrate it with a flip chart or on a slide. That way, participants aren't trying so hard to remember the question content.
3. Avoid asking questions that call for a *yes* or *no* answer and questions where the answer is implied. Also, take care not to answer questions before participants have a chance to answer, and avoid cross-examining them.
4. Make it a habit to use this simple procedure when asking questions:
 - Address the question to the group as a whole. Look at no one participant in particular
 - Pause for two or three seconds
 - Establish and maintain eye contact while the participant is responding
 - If the participant has trouble answering, rephrase or refocus the question - as an alternative, ask another participant to answer it
 - When the correct answer is given, repeat it, and
 - Reinforce the correct answer by saying, "Yes, that's right, the ..."
5. Ask each question at a time. Avoid asking more than one question and wait for the answers, before going on to the next question.

Equally important to being a good questioner is being a good responder. There are a few key things to keep in mind when participants are asking questions.

1. Be sure to acknowledge every question. It's a good idea to paraphrase the question to show that you understand it. You might say, for example, "If I understand what you're asking, it's this ..."
2. Answer the question as completely and accurately as possible. Verify that you have met the needs of the person asking the question. "Is that what you were looking for?" "Have I said enough about that?" Be ready to offer additional facts or evidence if any questions remain.
3. When asked a question that a participant might be able to answer, divert the question back to the group before offering an answer of your own. This is another way to keep participants actively involved in their own learning.
4. Be careful not to go off on a tangent. When somebody asks a question, don't say, "That reminds me of a time when . . ." and then proceed to a 10-minute personal reflection that may have little to do with the topic. By the time you are finished, nobody will remember the question, including you.

Summary

The question-and-answer method is one of the trainer's most versatile techniques for stimulating conversation and guiding communication. Questions are useful for finding out what people need to know, what their interests are, how much they are learning and what they are likely to do with new skills and behaviors once a program is over. They can be used spontaneously to get on-the-spot information or better they may be planned carefully, included in the design of other training tools, at all stages of the learning process.

DISCUSSION

Learning Emphasis
Organization Focus

***Good communication is stimulating as black coffee,
and just as hard to sleep after***

Anne Morrow Lindbergh

In order for people to apply what they have learned when they return to their jobs, they must understand and retain enough of the information presented to them.

Involvement is the key to retention, and one of the most effective methods available to the trainer to encourage participant involvement in learning, is group discussion. Discussion is the interaction of two or more people on a topic of mutual interest. Discussions come in at least three varieties, depending on the role played by the trainer.

In the guided discussion, the trainer takes an active and direct part in the discussion. In the structured discussion, the trainer allows participants to manage the discussion, following trainer-established rules and procedures. In the free discussion, the trainer sets the process in motion by introducing a topic and leaves questions of how to proceed up to the participants themselves.

Guided discussion

The guided discussion is a trainer-centered activity. It requires a trainer that is a subject-matter expert in the topic under discussion, is familiar with question-and-answer method, and knows the direction the discussion is to take. To a large extent, guided discussion is a two-way activity - the trainer interacts with various training participants, one at a time, while other participants observe. Through a series of questions that build logically upon one another, the trainer attempts to lead the participant toward a predetermined decision. For this reason, guided discussion is not a suitable technique for making decisions. Rather, it is designed to encourage participants to think about, relate to and internalize new ideas.

Structured discussion

The structured discussion might be described as a trainer-designed, participant-centered activity that can be used to engage participants at a training program in-group problem-solving. A structured discussion does not require the trainer to have subject matter expertise. Normally, the trainer divides the group into several small groups of about equal size and assigns the same or different tasks to each group. After tasks are assigned, a period of time is allowed for the small groups to discuss the task. Instructions may be given to the small groups about appointing a leader, a reporter and a timekeeper. At the end of the discussion phase, small groups are asked to come back together and to report their findings, sometimes written on flip-chart paper and taped to a wall of the training room.

Free discussion

A free discussion could be called a trainer-facilitated, participant-centered activity in which participants take the responsibility for what happens. Free discussions are used to share information, test out new ways of thinking and build group unity and consensus. The discussion is initiated by the trainer who introduces the topic and then steps aside to allow the group to function in any way it wishes. As a facilitator, the trainer rarely intervenes in the task of the group but focuses instead on the process used by the group to carry out the task. The trainer must have good listening and observational skills and be able to interpret what is taking place in the group, so that participants can learn from it.

Summary

Each of the three discussion methods can stimulate some degree of participant involvement in the learning process. Guided discussions are of value principally in stimulating logical thinking. However, much subject-matter expertise is required of the trainer who plans to lead a guided discussion. Participant-centered techniques, on the other hand, help participants become more

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self-reliant as a team and less dependent on the trainer. The role of the trainer in discussions of this kind shifts to coach and interpreter. Through mutual exploration, struggle and discovery, participants gain insights that are truly their own and the self-confidence that comes from having attained these insights.

DEMONSTRATION

Learning Emphasis
Organization Focus

***More and more I used the quickness of my mind
to pick the minds of other people
and use their knowledge as my own***

Eleanor Roosevelt

Demonstration is one of the oldest teaching methods. It takes place anytime one person shows another person how to do something. As children, we all experienced being shown how to tie our shoes by a patient father or mother. The parent would tie their shoe while we watched. After doing it a time or two, the parent would help us do it. Usually, they would take the two ends of the lace and put one in each of our hands. Then, with their hands over ours, we would together go through the motions of forming the tie. After doing this together once or twice, we would be asked to try it alone. Uncertainly, we would then try to repeat the process we had observed and been helped to do, now with the parent simply watching, coaching and, maybe, even reaching in to correct a wrong movement.

In the world of work, many examples of demonstration come to mind. Apprentice mechanics are taught to repair vehicles, and beginning masons to lay bricks, through demonstration. In most modern organizations, office workers are taught to use different equipments primarily through demonstration.

Demonstration involves learning mind/body coordination in relation to a task. In other words, the mind of the learner is fed with information on how something is done as the eyes observe the process of doing it through demonstration. The mind of the learner then launches a coordinated attempt to repeat what was observed.

Demonstration may be used one-on-one or in groups. It may provide a means for illustrating or clarifying how something is done to several people at one time, without having them attempt to perform themselves - this is often necessary when a large number of people are involved - or learners may watch the trainer perform the task and then try it themselves, as when learning how to change a tire or repair a radio.

Step 1

Explain how the task is to be performed to help the learner grasp the idea intellectually. The trainer might convey task instructions using the lecture and possibly visual aids. Of course, this step might be accomplished without the use of demonstration with the learner working alone, aided by an instruction manual or computer tutorial with examples and exercises.

Step 2

Check out how much has been absorbed. If several learners are involved, the trainer might engage them in a discussion at this point, to find out how well the learners understand the task and how it is to be performed.

Step 3

After explaining how the task is done, show the learner.

Step 4

Ask the learner to repeat the task as demonstrated. Following instructions, the learner now attempts to repeat what he or she has seen while the trainer observes and offers suggestions. This continues until the procedure to be learned is mastered by the learner.

Good demonstrations require careful preparation. The trainer starts by deciding on the exact steps, which the learners need to observe. The work space and materials should be sufficient for the number of people to be trained. If learners are to repeat the task being demonstrated, each must have enough equipment or other materials to carry out the task. The number of people who are to practice the task being demonstrated should be small enough to be coached adequately by the trainer. Since demonstrations take time, the activity should be scheduled to avoid running out of it.

Summary

The demonstration is an ancient learning technique used to help others do something by showing them how it is done. Typically, learners watch the trainer perform a particular skill and then practice doing it themselves. It is common to find demonstrations accompanied by the use of lectures, discussions and audiovisual materials. On the other hand, demonstrations have particular value when working with people who need to learn new skills, but who have difficulty learning from printed material or information presented orally.

SIMULATION

Learning Emphasis	
Organization Focus	

***I hear and I forget.
I see and I remember.
I do and I understand***

Confucius

One of the most effective things a trainer can do to dramatize real-life situations is to simulate them in a workshop setting. A simulation is an abstraction or simplified model of a particular process that is to be learned by a group of participants in training. By working through a simulation, participants can learn about a process and about themselves as actors in the process, without taking the risks of real-life experimentation.

Some simulations or games are very sophisticated and expensive; but less expensive than the learning from the real life experience could be. Think of pilots or drivers. Considerable research has gone into simulations development to replicate as close as possible the complex reality. Many simulations are computerized, participants receiving information concerning a developing situation, reacting to the information, feeding their reactions back to the computer, and getting results that indicate the efficacy of the actions proposed.

Other simulations are less complicated than this but useful in getting participants emotionally involved in learning about situations that resemble real life. A good example is a management simulation called "The Communication Towers Project." Participants in small groups, using prefabricated construction materials, compete with one another and the clock to build a communication tower. The toy pieces used by the participants to build the tower are given monetary value based on their size and shape. The object of the game is to build the tallest tower with the least amount of costly material. The game is used to assess the effectiveness of leadership, planning and teamwork in competing groups.

Simulation Example

The Inbox Exercise

This "in-basket exercise" sets up a hypothetical management situation in which you, as the manager, are required to take action through letters and memos in your inbox. You are under some severe limitations as to time, newness of the position and absence of certain help you would normally have.

The situation may seem unrealistic, but the problems are realistic in management situations. As soon as you are familiar with the background details of the exercise, try to complete it in one hour.

Caution! - don't get trapped in the details of the organization. The important thing is to deal with the problems.

The Problem

You are Nicolae Florea, newly appointed to the position of utilities department head. You have been selected from outside the organization to fill a position left vacant by William Suvaina, who resigned unexpectedly to an early retirement (age 50), owing to what he called personal matters. Suvaina had been utilities department head for 12 years. Prior to being department head, he had been supervisor under a previous organization that was absorbed by the utilities department. Suvaina had worked his way up from the bottom and had just completed his 28th year with the organization.

You are not as familiar with the organization as you would like to be. However, you have worked in similar organizations and know pretty well what is going on. You reported to work Friday, 3 June, but only had time to greet the staff and tour the facilities. You have come to work this Saturday morning, 4 June, to check the office and become familiar with the surroundings. Because of prior professional commitments to present a technical paper at the

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Annual Governmental Institute Conference, you will not be in the office for the first three days next week.

You must leave for your trip in one hour and you feel the e-mails in your inbox and memos should be cleaned out and not held over. Go through the inbox materials and determine the action you would take on each one. Don't forget, you have to leave in one hour to catch a plane, so do not take too long on each item, but make sure each item is considered properly and given the appropriate attention. Your staff of division heads is known to you mainly through association at conventions of professional organizations and some limited social contacts through the years.

You have made these personal notes on each one:

Petrie Capkova - Engineering

A competent person of considerable formal education; a registered engineer; has been with the organization for 12 years; runs a tight ship; not an outward person (may feel some resentment for not having been appointed to your position).

Ileana Nojorid - Streets and Parks

Well-liked by employees and community; local; 14 years with the organization; age about 42; has been able to bring a lot of change to the community in street and park improvement. She attends the university when she can.

John Morant - Traffic Control

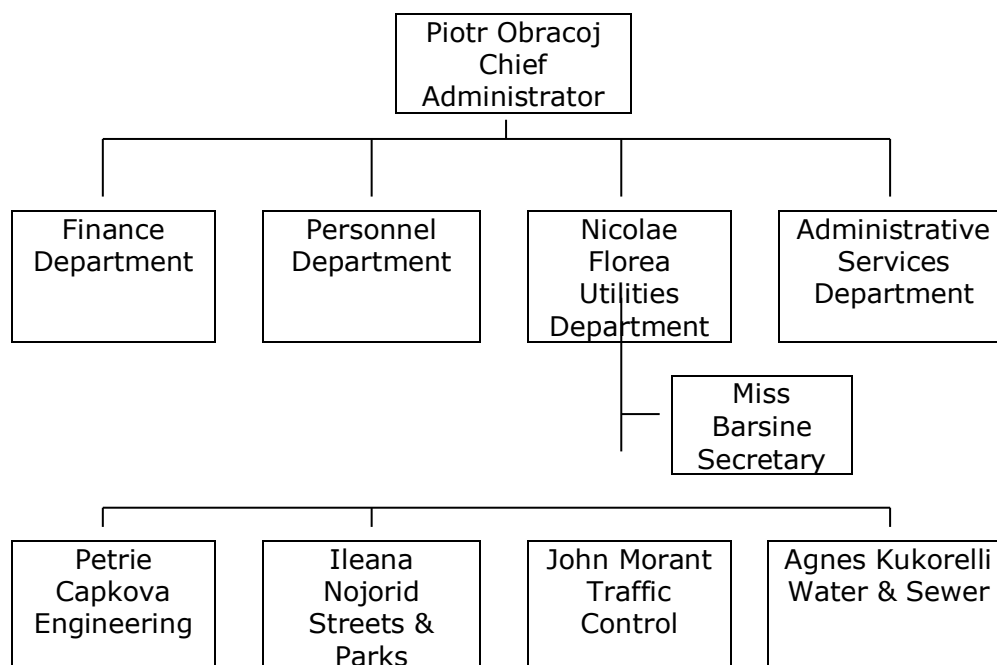
As a hard worker he puts in a lot of extra time; came from Australia about five years ago with a good record in traffic control; has not really utilized the potentials of his employees; may have a morale problem. Morant gets the job done, but does not delegate on a regular basis, only as a panic measure; education: two years at the university.

Agnes Kukorelli - Water and Sewer Division

You know Agnes the least; the greatest demand lies in this division because of services needed for the new industrial area in the community. The division will need about 20 additional people next year because of this increased workload. Agnes guards her domain closely and resents anyone poking into what she feels is her business. She has been noted to have controversies with her supervisors. In fact, three years ago, one of her top employees left to take a lesser job with a nearby community.

Miss Barsine - Your Secretary

Knows the operation well and should be a help. She is 58 years old and has held her position for 20 years. She could retire any day but likes the security of work. Last year, she spent a six months' leave of absence in Europe and is already planning a trip to Singapore. She has an assistant, Ileana Vasile, who has been working with her for the past three years.



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Item 1

21 May

Mr. Nicolae Florea, Utilities Department Head

Dear Nicolae

It is with great satisfaction that I learned you were selected as my replacement. A lot of people would say, "I don't care who takes over when I'm gone." But I feel a part of me is still in that job and I would feel bad if the wrong person was there.

You will find Miss Barsine a big help. She knows the department inside and out and can fill you in on any details. She and I have been through a lot together. She really knows how to handle the staff, too.

I am sorry to have left before you started the job. But perhaps it is better this way. I am sure there are things I would not be able to help you with. My being present would have just made for an awkward situation.

The division chiefs are all good and will cooperate, I am sure, in every way.

Give my best to everyone, and best of luck to you in your new position.

Cordially,

William Suvaina

Item 2

MEMORANDUM

TO: Mr. Florea

FROM: Ioan Nedelescu

DATE: 3 June

I previously cleared with Mr. Suvaina to have Tuesday, 7 June, off. I have an appointment with my travel agent in the city.

Item 3

MEMORANDUM

TO: W. Suvaina, Department Head

FROM: A. Kukorelli

DATE: 15 May

William, we've been through this before, but let me remind you that my division is going to need considerable equipment and staff for the increased workload that everyone is talking about. I noticed in the proposed budget that only about half of what I submitted was in the budget. I would like some explanation.

Item 4

MEMORANDUM

TO: Mr. Florea

FROM: Miss Barsine

DATE: 30 May

I thought you would be interested to know that 8 June is Mr. Obracoj's 50th birthday.

Item 5

3 May

74367 Basarab Street, City

Mr. William Suvaina, Director, Utilities Department

Dear Mr. Suvaina

This is to notify you that Petrie Gomory has placed a fence on public property, between my land and the land that I sold to you along the driveway that you built for him because of the right-of-way needed and purchased from him on the other side of his property.

This fence is built over six feet high and is made out of wire and old, rusty iron pipes, and in addition, he has set vines about every 30 centimeters and strung the vines on the wire. These vines grow very rapidly and will soon cover my shrubs, trees, as well as my house, therefore, doing damage to my property.

I want to know what right he has to build this mess on public property. Of course, I know why he did it, and that is to intimidate my wife and me and for no other reason. I am asking you to

have this mess removed at once as I know he has no absolutely no legal right to place this fence unless you authorize him to do so, and I am inclined to doubt that you did. Will you give this matter your prompt attention? I am sure you would not want a mess like this next door to you and I know if you were in my place you certainly would object furiously. Sincerely,
K. Fabrine

Item 6

MEMORANDUM

TO: All Department Heads

FROM: P. Obracoj, Chief Administrator

DATE: 25 May

There will be a monthly department heads staff meeting in my office, 9 June, at 13.00.

AGENDA

- I. Bring your proposed budgets for a final review.
- II. Mr. Nicolae Florea is joining our staff, 3 June, as utilities department head. We will look forward to welcoming him at this meeting.
- III. Proposed reorganizations are in order for discussion.

Item 7

MEMORANDUM

TO: Nicolae Florea, Utilities Director

FROM: Piotr Obracoj, Chief Administrator

DATE: 25 May

Let me take this opportunity to welcome you to our organization. I feel we have come a long way in the three years I have been here. We, the management team, have considerable challenges ahead, I am glad to have you as a part of this team.

There will be a staff meeting Thursday, 6 June, which primarily will be a budget review session. I am requesting that you present a tentative recommendation for changes in your organizational structure at this time.

I hope your conference presentation will be well-accepted and that you will be able to obtain information to utilize in your new position as utilities director.

Item 8

2 May

Director Utilities Department

Dear Sir

This year, as in years past, the third grade of Stefan Primary School would like to visit the Department of Utilities.

We have scheduled our bus for 9 June, and will be arriving with the third graders at 13.00.

The students are now studying public utilities and I'm sure would like to hear from the director of such a fine department as yours.

Thank you.

Cordially yours,

Miss Lados, Teacher

Third Grade, Stefan Primary School

Item 9

MEMORANDUM

TO: Nicolae Florea

FROM: Petrie Capkova, Engineering Division Head

DATE: 29 May

One of my many duties is to keep track of vehicle out-of-service time due to accidents. (This type of administrative duty is taking considerable time from my work as an engineer.)

I would like to bring to your attention that the division of traffic control, has experienced a 100-per cent increase in vehicle out-of-service hours this year compared with the same period last year. My division, I am proud to say, has the lowest vehicle out-of-service rate in the department.

I would like to meet with you to review this and other matters as soon as possible.

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Summary

A simulation is a learning tool that is representative of a process under study. It allows participants to experiment with the process and learn from it with a minimum of personal or occupational risk. Participants who take part in simulations can practice with new ways of doing things and make judgments about learning that are relevant to them.

THE CASE METHOD

Learning Emphasis
Organization Focus

***On the whole, it must be more important to be skillful
in thinking than to be stuffed with facts***

Edward de Bono

The Case Method, created by Teachers in ancient times, and polished in the last century at Harvard, is an instructional technique aimed to develop critical-thinking and decision-making abilities.

For the ancient Chinese and Hebrews learning was a process of active inquiry, so they invented a technique for involving learners in active inquiry. One member of the study group would present a story, often in the form of a parable, than the group would examine the paradox included in the story and explore possible resolutions.

The ancient Greeks used a teaching technique through which a member of the study group would pose a question, than the group would pool their resources to reach an answer.

The modern-day case method evolved from these teaching techniques. Harvard professors developed the case method in 1910 for use in their business school. Professors wrote cases of actual business situations and the issues created. The cases included events, characters, opinions, documents and background information, related to the situation. In class, students would read the case, than through group discussion, dissect the situation and propose solutions to the case issues. No one solution was "correct". Students came to their own conclusions, all of which had to be based on case evidence and reason.

From Harvard, where is still used, the case method spread in many educational/training settings. It is used as a non-directive, educational device aimed at helping students in many professional areas to think effectively. Through case exploration participants learn how to effectively express their views concerning an issue; they exercise their skills in identifying the problems and elaborating solutions. They learn that people with similar backgrounds can differently perceive the same set of events, that these differences must be recognized and integrated, before taking any decisions; they learn how to ask the right questions and how to back with reason the decisions others must accept; they experience the value of interaction.

Cases used in training take many forms. They may be quite long, describing in detail a situation that exists now or did exist in the past. Or they may be short, describing only the main facts. Either way the purpose is the same: to cause participants to take an active part in analyzing and discussing a situation, and to take decisions, which they can generalize to their own work situations.

The case method is used for the following purposes:

To develop behavioral skills:

- To improve communication and interaction skills
- To improve critical thinking, problem solving and decision making skills
To discourage the search for the one-best answer, to promote open-minded rather than narrow thinking, to improve ability to separate problems from solutions or symptoms
- To improve ability to take responsibility

To explore organizational issues

- To solve a policy, management or implementation problem that management is currently facing

The Case Method advantages are:

- Demonstrating that the training program content is not just conceptual, but applies to the real world.

- Providing learning through experience by simulating in a no-risk learning setting real-life situations, in limited time and with limited resources
- Actively involving people in learning, forcing them to think, keeping their attention and interest high
- Providing experience in performing essential managerial tasks: considering complex data, sorting facts from opinions and important from trivial details, identifying potential problems, pinpointing alternatives, making decisions, planning actions, working with others for results.
- Developing participants' willingness to consider problems from all points of view, demonstrating that complex problems do not have a single, correct answer and breaking through fixed attitudes and stereotypes.
- Improving group communication and interaction skills: the ability to convey ideas, to listen to reason, to ask the right questions, to respect and consider the views of others, to understand human behavior, to realize how your actions affect the behavior of others.
- Improve participants' ability to think independently, creatively, objectively, exercising good judgment.

The Case Method disadvantages are:

- Making sometimes participants realize, because of the no-risk learning environment, that they are not having the real responsibility for the decisions they make during the session. In that way the learning benefit of the session is decreased.
- Being a simulation of a real-life situation, participants do not experience during the session all the interactions that would result from their decisions: continuing the process, implementing the decisions, checking the results, and revising the planned actions.

The trainer's role in the case method is to distribute the case, invite participants to read and study it; feed back ideas generated through discussion of the case and, occasionally challenge participants with questions about their observations. Sometimes participants are given a written set of questions to consider as they discuss the case, such as "What were the obstacles/problems? What caused a person to behave as he/she did? What are the best solutions?"

The Case Method is carried out in the following steps:

Step 1: Introducing the Session

The trainer reviews the case objectives and briefly describes the process: (a) Participants independently read the case, analyze the data and develop possible answers/solutions to the case questions/issues. (b) Participants consider and debate possible solutions in a group discussion. Trainer provides feed back during the discussions. (c) Trainer summarizes the discussions, ask participants to draw case conclusions and highlights lessons learned.

The trainer sets also, with participants' involvement, the ground rules of the session: (a) All participants will be actively involved presenting their opinions and defending them with evidence and reason (b) Participants will listen with respect others opinions, will challenge but not criticize them (c) Participants will have the main responsibility for the learning process, dominating the discussions and coming with their own conclusions about the case. (d) Other ground rules may be developed together with participants.

Step 2: Case reading

The Case may be distributed in advance or at the time in the program when it is scheduled to be used. The trainer may give participants suggestions concerning the problem solving process steps they have to apply when analyzing the case.

Participants must be given adequate time to read and digest the material.

Step 3: Case discussion

Participants are asked to discuss the case. Each participant is expected to respond to the questions furnished by the trainer or to share his/her opinion on what should be an appropriate decision. Other participants and the trainer may challenge his/her views.

Participants will follow the ground rules that they have already agreed upon at the session beginning. Trainer must intervene in the discussions only when needed: a) to encourage comments from quiet participants (b) to clarify some hazy understandings of the problems (c)

to suggest avenues of exploration that participants missed (d) to provide feed back on pros and cons of suggested solutions (e) to direct discussions back on track
Trainer must not (a) lecture (b) offer answers to the case (c) assume an authority stance
Trainer must register the discussion highlights on a flipchart to assist the group in its case analysis.

Step 4: Session summary

Trainer summarizes the discussions by restating various viewpoints with their key supporting evidence. Then asks participants to draw their own case conclusions and to generalize from the facts of the case. The lessons learned could be also highlighted.

The Case method requires that the case main issue, the participants and the trainer have some specific characteristics.

The Case issue should have

- Complexity
- Management - level challenge
- Potential to raise several viewpoints and to have several possible solutions
- Presentation and a style that capture the students' attention and interest

Participants should have

- Potential to organize and analyze a large amount of data
- Potential to express personal views
- Potential to challenge others' opinions

Trainer should have

- Skills in facilitating discussions of controversial issues
- Ability to offer feedback without making decisions for participants
- Patience for dealing with difficult participants

Summary

A well-constructed case gives a learner the opportunity to take an active part in analyzing and discussing real-life situations. Case materials present practical work illustrations with which participants are already familiar. The realism of the case and the involvement in it with other participants stimulate the learner to move from the known to the unknown; acts as a springboard for the acceptance of new knowledge, skills and attitudes.

In the next pages you may find, as examples, two cases, and their potential use in a training program.

FIRST CASE - SUMMERHOUSE

Summerhouse is a city of 18 000 inhabitants in the southern part of *Wonderland*. There was a war in *Wonderland* between *Pear* and *Grape* people. The city has suffered serious damages during the war, the population of the city decreased because of the high number of casualties and temporary migration. After the war the distribution of population is the following: 50% *Pear*, 40% *Grape*, 10% *Apple* and other groups. After the war, the international community supported many *Grape* families who did not want to return to their original localities to settle down in *Summerhouse*.

As the result of the war the city is now highly segregated along the groups lines and the existing infrastructure is unevenly distributed among the *Grape* and *Pear* neighborhoods. The river *Swift* cuts through the city: on the left bank *Pear* people live and on the right bank the *Grapes*. The *Apples* and the other groups live scattered around the neighborhoods. Due to the war most public buildings were damage. Five years after the war, the city's infrastructure and public utilities are still under reconstruction or are waiting for the reconstruction to begin.

Before the war the city had two primary schools and one high school. After the war there is now only one functioning school building, situated on the left side of the river, in the *Pear* part of the town. The school is providing both primary and high school education in the languages of the *Pear* and *Grape* people for the children of all communities. *Pear* children are attending the school in the morning and the *Grape* children in the afternoon. Most children from *Apple* and the other groups are attending the *Pear* language education, with some special classes.

Despite sharing the same building the two education programs have separate management and teaching staff. In the last years the school building became gradually overcrowded and overused. Parents and teachers have repeatedly complained about the conditions and pressured the municipality to reconstruct the building and reopen another school building. The local government council was reluctant to address this request due to the serious deficit in the municipal budget and other non-educational priorities.

Recently a group of local councilors representing the *Grape* community successfully applied to an *International Development Organization* (IDO) for funds to cover the costs of the renovation and modernization of the former high school building located within the *Grape* neighborhood, on the right side of the *Swift* river. As a condition for their support IDO requested that the municipality commits to cover 10% of the project budget. These 10% costs represent 20% of the municipality annual budget. The local council has to approve this budget. As the results of last elections the Municipal Council achieved a slight *Pear* majority.

In the last Council meeting the reconstruction project, approved by IDO, was presented to the Municipal Council by the *Grape* councilors. They explained that as a solution to the poor conditions and over population in the only functioning school, the *Grape* kids would be moved in the reconstructed school. In that way they explained, more space would be available for the *Pear* kids in the first school. They asked the Council to support their project and approve the 10% of the project costs to be covered by the municipal budget.

Pear members of the council promptly turned down the project in a heated debate, on the grounds that the expenditure from the public budget will not benefit the *Pear* community in an equal way. They claimed that the renewed building will provide much better learning environment and facilities for the *Grape* children, whereas their children will remain in the old and unequipped school building. Moreover, they said, due to the limited resources and other priorities of the municipality, they cannot expect similar support for their own school in the near future, if they commit now this money from the public budget.

Grape representatives insisted on having their project approved as it is, because before the war they did not have their own school and is based on their initiative that IDO committed 90% of the budget for this project. They added that they would welcome any pupil from *Pear* community in their school, if they accept to study in the *Grape* language.

The *Pears*, on their behalf, insisted that the school reconstruction funds should be distributed in an equal way, even though such distribution would not facilitate the proper reconstruction of the new school and would barely cover the costs of the basic renovation of their own building. They argued that the reconstruction of the *Grape* school would create new inequalities not only between the *Grape* and *Pear* communities, but would equally disadvantage the *Apples* and the other groups whose pupils have been attending the *Pear* education.

The Council Meeting ended without any positive solution. The Municipality is in danger of losing the IDO support, if *Pear* and *Grape* councilors do not reach an agreement.

Possible Learning Objective in using Summerhouse Case

To increase participants knowledge and skills in analyzing conflict situations and developing strategies to address and solve them constructively

Time:

60' – 90'

Process

Trainer forms small groups (3-5 persons) and gives the case study to read carefully. Each group has the following task to be fulfilled:

Analyze the conflict situation:

- *What are the sources of the conflict between Pear and Grape councilors*
- *What is the stage of the conflict*
- *What are the strategy and methods you propose to use in order to reach an Agreement between Pear and Grape councilors*

Trainer asks groups to assign one representative to present in plenary the results of the group work.

The trainer should present before or after the exercise, the concepts on the conflict escalation stages, signs of each stage, strategies to address different stages of the conflict.

SECOND CASE- THE POORLY INFORMED COUNCILOR

Comment: When individuals are elected to a city council, rarely do they come to the position with the knowledge and skill to advocate effectively for the needs of the people they represent. Yet, advocacy for public needs is a councilor's principal role in a representative system of government. As we see in the case of Councilor Radut, a record of ineffective performance as a public advocate can lead to personal frustration for the councilor and growing disillusionment for his constituents.

The situation

On his way home late one Friday evening, Councilor Radut stopped off at the local pub in M. Village to see some of his friends. Councilor Radut had been to a meeting of the city of Craiova Council. Several issues had been discussed at the meeting. The chief issue of concern to him was a resolution, approved unanimously by the Council to increase rents by 100 percent throughout the city. He was particularly concerned with the impact of the rent increase mainly on the lowest-paid workers in city of Craiova.

Entering the pub, Councilor Radut noticed several of his friends seated together at a corner table. As he came up to the table, Mr. Nedelescu, a resident of M. and a friend of Councilor Radut, greeted him, saying: "Tell us Ion, what have you people decided today? Higher rates, higher rents, higher water and electricity charges! What about tarring the roads in M. Dust gets into houses, into our food; everywhere is dust. You know that, Ion!"

"Yes! Yes! Yes!" echoed the others at the table in support of Mr. Nedelescu, prompting Councilor Radut to respond: "Listen, my friends. The council has no money to tar these roads here. This is why today the council has resolved to put up rents by 100 percent. This means double the rents we are paying now."

On hearing this, Ms. Vasile, another local resident, spoke up in apparent disbelief. "That cannot be true. Last January, it was reported in the paper that the city of Craiova Council had made a profit of K10m from beer sales alone. What have you done with all this money? Did you share it among yourselves?"

Feeling the blood rise in his face, Councilor Radut began to reply: "We did not share the money. Instead, the council has used it in many ways as you know..." but he was interrupted in the middle of his reply by Ms. Vasile, obviously disturbed by what she was hearing:

"No! That cannot be true." With anger and desperation in her voice, Vasile continued to speak: "Please make sure you raise this question in the council next Friday and come and tell us. In addition, tell the Council that residents of this Village want all roads tarred like in our neighboring Village or we and our children will die from the dust."

With that, Councilor Radut left the pub. The following Friday he was at a meeting of the city of Craiova Council. On standing to be recognized by the Mayor, Councilor Radut said: "M. Mayor, unless roads in our Village are tarred, my people will die from the dust. Before I sit down, may I also know what happened to the K10m profit we made from beer sales from last year?"

With impatience in his voice, the mayor responded to the councilor's remarks. "Councilor Radut, we discussed and passed the budget for this year here in a council meeting which you attended."

Possible Learning Objective in using "The poorly informed Councilor" Case

To increase participants' knowledge and skills in elaborating advocacy strategies an elected official may use when representing the interests of those who elected him/her.

Time: 60' – 90'

Process

Trainer forms small groups (3-5 persons) and gives the case study to read carefully. Each group has the following task to be fulfilled:

Analyze the situation:

- 1. What is the proper role of a councilor in representing the needs of those who have elected him?*
- 2. How might a councilor become a better advocate of people's needs?*
- 3. In what ways did Councilor Radut fail to be a proper advocate of people's needs?*

Trainer asks groups to assign one representative to present in plenary the results of the group work. The trainer should present before or after the exercise, the concepts on elaborating and implementing effective advocacy strategies.

CRITICAL INCIDENTS

Learning Emphasis
Organization Focus

People are usually more convinced by reasons they discovered themselves than by those found by others

Blaise Pascal

Critical incidents are brief, written descriptions of difficult situations faced by people in their work. Unlike case studies, which tend to be long and complex, critical incidents are short, focused on a specific subject and designed to emphasize a particular point related to one of the objectives of a training course. Because they involve real problems - problems of vital and immediate concern to people - discussion of critical incidents can have enormous learning value for the individuals who have faced or are likely to face similar problems in their work.

Critical incidents are sometimes written by a trainer for use in helping workshop participants achieve a specific training objective. Trainers approach the task of writing critical incidents in one of two ways. First, the trainer might provide details about a problem but withhold information about how it was solved. Not telling participants how a problem was solved until after it has been discussed is desirable if the intent is to stimulate creative thinking about how to solve a problem. On the other hand, the trainer might describe both the problem and the solution. In this case, the objective is different. The intention is to promote application thinking. Since participants already know how the problem was solved, the focus is on how they can put this knowledge to use in managing problems of their own.

When writing a critical incident, the trainer should keep several things in mind. Critical incidents are meant to be short and simple so that they can be read and understood by participants during a training session. Because the incident is short, it should be targeted to a specific learning objective. Irrelevant facts often included in case studies to help participants learn to be discriminating should be omitted from critical incidents. The KISS rule applies when writing critical incidents: "Keep It Short and Simple." On the other hand, enough information should be included about the problem to make the point the incident is intended to emphasize.

A trainer in a training-of-trainers program in Romania, for example, wrote the following critical incident to provide substance for a discussion of the importance of needs assessment information to the development of training interventions that meet client expectations.

Example

The city of M. has received a large grant to carry out a squatter settlement program. While the Housing Department of the city has the responsibility for implementing the scheme, the town clerk is concerned about the ability of the management team to work together effectively. The director and his six bureau chiefs have been squabbling over small details lately, and these conflicts have affected the overall performance of their department. The town clerk has asked your Training Institute to design and conduct a team-building/project-planning workshop for these seven individuals. The intention is to develop a cohesive management team in light of the new project responsibilities.

Questions

1. What further details would you want in order to design a workshop for the town clerk?
2. From what source or sources would you seek this information?

Critical incidents also may be written by participants during or in advance of a training session, based on their own experience. When asked to write a critical incident, participants are given a worksheet and instructions by the trainer. They are told to think of a difficult situation related to the training topic in which they were involved personally. They are asked to describe the situation in detail, which was involved in it and the role they played. Depending upon how the incident is to be used, participants might be asked to explain what was done about the situation, the consequences of this and how they felt about it.

Critical incidents may be used as a learning experience for those who write them alone or may be used to stimulate discussion and critical thinking by a group of participants.

For personal learning

Prior to or at the start of a training program, participants are asked to write a critical incident as described above. They are asked to include details about what happened, who was involved, what was done by whom, how it turned out and what feelings they have about their effectiveness in the situation. Participants may be asked, further, to analyze their incident using questions provided by the instructor on a prepared worksheet. When participants have written the incident and completed the analysis, the incident is put aside. Toward the end of the program, participants are asked by the trainer to return to the incident and to think about how they would cope with the situation now, using ideas obtained from the training. This is followed by a discussion of participant reactions and conclusions.

Example

Influencing others: A critical incident worksheet

Take a minute to think back to a situation in your work experience when you made a conscious effort to influence someone to do something. Get the situation clear in your mind. Review it mentally, recalling as many details about it as you can. When you are ready, use the space below to answer these questions about the situation: Whom did you try to influence? What did you actually do to influence them? How did it turn out? What were your feelings about the outcome and your effectiveness as an influencer?

For group learning

In some instances, the intention of the trainer is to use critical incidents prepared by individual participants as a basis for discussion and decision-making in small groups. Used this way, critical incidents are prepared and processed as follows:

Step 1

Each participant is asked to prepare a written account of a work-related incident in which he or she is or was personally involved. The incident should present a problem that calls for someone to act or make a decision. Participants are told not to reveal (a) what was done about the problem if something was done, (b) the consequences of doing it, and (c) the consequences of not doing anything if that was what happened in the incident.

Step 2

Participants are teamed up in groups of about five. Members of each group are told to share their incidents with one another. In each case, participants are told to respond to the incident by: (a) asking questions to clarify the problem; (b) discussing actions or decisions that seem appropriate for resolving the problem; and (c) agreeing on the best option. When this process is complete, the presenter reveals what actually happened in the incident. Each participant presents an incident in turn, and so forth, until all incidents have been presented and processed by the group.

Step 3

When the groups have completed discussing all incidents, they are reconvened by the trainer to talk about the exercise. The focus is on the pitfalls of making decisions based on partial information.

Summary

Critical incidents are written portrayals of actual work situations. They are, therefore, directly applicable to the needs of the individuals who create them and highly relevant to groups of learners who face similar challenges in their work. Critical incidents may be used as "before-and-after" training exercises for individuals or may be used to generate discussion and analysis in a group of training participants who share similar work experiences.

In the next pages you may find, as examples, two exercises with critical incidents, and their potential use in a training program.

CRITICAL INCIDENTS EXAMPLE # 1

REFLECTING FEELINGS AND MEANINGS

Imagine that you have a speaker in front of you that communicates with you, with the statements written in the table. Read the statements carefully. Identify the feelings of the speaker and triggering events that have caused them. Elaborate a reflective statement, which conveys to your speaker that you have understood his/her message: feelings and factual content.

The first statement has, as an example, a reflective statement

Speaker's Statements	Listener's Reflective Statements
My boss keeps asking me questions about my personal life. I wish he would mind his own business!	You feel annoyed that he is not respecting your privacy.
It was one of the crazy mornings when everything seems to go wrong. The children do not want to wake up, the toasts are burnt and I know I will be late at the office. On the top, my husband looks over the toaster and says: "My god, when will you learn to make a toast?" I answered, "Fix your own damned toast!"	
I do not know weather to have a baby or not. My husband would like but I love my work, is so stimulating and I am so well paid. But sometimes I dream to be a full time mother!	
I was so sure I would be married by now! But in the last five years I had one relationship after the other, and none was serious!	
I enjoy so much my work! I have a lot of fun doing things and I am so busy I hardly have time to think. But when I am alone I get tense because I have to face how lonely I am when all activities stop!	
That client had me come to his company for three appointments! I spent many hours with him trying to persuade him to buy our services, but he purchased from our competitor!	
UN Habitat awarded me the habitat Scroll of Honor for year 2000!	
After so many years that we are neighbors you have to move in another city! I hope we will keep in touch with each other!	
We signed an agreement last week but your staff is not observing it at all! I had to call them twice in order to make them come and repair our computers!	

What an achievement! My son graduated, I get approved my project and we will move soon in a new house!	
My friend drives me crazy! First she says I like this project and working with you, the next day she blows up when I propose to improve our project!	
I tried so many times to talk with her and clarify our relations. But it is impossible, she does not want to open up and be honest about her feelings and ideas!	
I heard that our trainers recently received bad feedback from their participants! I do not know what to do with them! They do not want to learn and improve themselves!	
I know that we have to work hard the next three months, but I know also that we do not cover our salaries till the end of the year and we have to search for new contracts!	
I received letters from participants in the last training program and they are expressing their appreciation for the good work done by our trainers and the wonderful organization and warm hospitality.	
I like so much our new office! It is larger than the old one, it is more elegant and has such a nice view over the city, and everybody is admiring it!	

CRITICAL INCIDENTS EXAMPLE # 2

After reading the following situations, decide how you would react in a (1) Submissive – Non-assertive manner (2) Aggressive manner (3) Assertive manner. You may also imagine how the conflict would evolve after each type of reaction.

Incident # 1

You are watching a movie in a packed theater. Behind you there are three young Roma boys who keep talking loudly and making remarks all the time. You cannot enjoy the movie because the voices and remarks distract your attention. The theater is crowded and you cannot change places.

Submissive

Aggressive

Assertive

Incident # 2

Your boss told you to finish the report in one week, till next Tuesday, but Thursday she let you know she needs the report Sunday morning. A meeting was scheduled out of town and she needs the report for that meeting. You have planed to spend the weekend at your country house with your whole family.

Submissive

Aggressive

Assertive

Incident # 3

One of your trainees is constantly interrupting your presentation with questions. Some of them are not really related to the subject but give her the opportunity to speak before the other participants about her experiences and achievements. You loose your logical sequence of ideas and cannot concentrate on the subject.

Submissive

Aggressive

Assertive

Incident # 4

You stay in a cue and wait for your turn to use the sky lift. You are Romanian (or Serb, or Greek, etc). In front of you are two persons who speak with one another not only in Romanian (or Serbian, or Greek, etc) but in Hungarian (or Albanian, or Turkish, etc). At one moment

they receive near them another couple of friends that speaks the same language. Now you will have to wait longer in the cue and they even did not ask your permission!

Submissive

Aggressive

Assertive

Incident # 5

You organized a party at your house. You have invited many friends and among them is a very nice woman who is from another ethnic group. After few glasses of wine, people are starting to tell jokes. Unfortunately one of the jokes is really offending for the ethnic group your nice friend is belonging, and you observe her blushing and being frustrated.

Submissive

Aggressive

Assertive

Some words about submissive, assertive and aggressive behavior

One way of understanding the concept of assertive behavior is to place it on a continuum between submission (non-assertive behavior) and aggression, considered as extreme positions on this continuum.

Submissive
Behavior

Assertive
Behavior

Aggressive
Behavior

Submissive persons: (a) do not express their honest feelings, values, needs, and concerns. In that way they allow others to violate their space, deny their rights and ignore their needs (b) do express their needs but do it in such an apologetic and unclear manner that they are not taken seriously (c) offer to do things that invite others to take advantage of them

Aggressive persons express their feelings, needs and ideas at the expense of others. Their point of view is: *"This is what I want. What you want is of lesser importance or of no importance at all"*. Aggressive persons (a) almost always win arguments (b) may speak loudly, in an abusive, rude and sarcastic manner (c) tend to overpower other people.

Assertive persons utilize methods of communication, which enable them to maintain self-respect, pursue the satisfaction of their own needs, and defend their rights and personal space without abusing or dominating other people. While meeting own needs they do not violate the needs of others or trespass on their personal space. One of the most striking things about assertive people is that they like themselves and so they are able to foster good relationships.

Most animals defend their space and their lives by fight or flight. Only humans have the third option of verbal confrontation. One of the most effective verbal confrontations is to send an assertive message, which has three main parts: (a) a nonjudgmental description of the other's behavior you want to change (b) a disclosure – I statement – of your feelings (c) a description of the concrete effect of the other person's behavior on yourself. You may use the following formula to send an assertive message:

Behavior	When you are smoking in our office
Feelings	I feel very <i>annoyed and frustrated</i>
Effects	<i>Because</i> it shows me that even if I am your friend, you are not interested at all in my person, to protect me, as a non-smoker

ROLE - PLAYING

Learning Emphasis
Organization Focus

Repetition is the mother of knowledge

Worldwide wisdom

Role-playing involves asking participants to assume the parts of other real or imaginary persons and to carry out conversations and behave as if they were these individuals. The participants' enactment must be sincere and as true-to-life as possible. They are encouraged to interact as if they were alone, without others listening and observing the action. The only play-acting is that each participant makes a genuine effort to behave as if the action were for real.

The trainer sets the atmosphere or tone for role-playing. It is the trainer's responsibility to provide firm direction when moving a group into role-playing. He or she sets the ground rules and boundaries of good taste. It is up to the trainer to cut off the role-playing at any time that it begins to lose its realism and, hence, its learning value.

Participants learn by doing through role-playing. It permits them to:

1. Experiment with how they would handle a given situation. Spontaneous acting can produce feelings and attitudes, which might not come out in discussions alone. Role-players and observers, therefore, sometimes develop significant insights and, even, the ability to predict behavior in themselves and others.
2. Carry a thought or a decision a step further into concrete action. From information in a case, a participant might conclude, for example that Mr. A should apologize to Mr. B. In role-playing, Mr. A would go to Mr. B and apologize. In other words, role-playing shows the difference between doing something and just thinking about it.
3. Accomplish attitude changes. By placing persons who differ in temperament in the same role, it can be seen that a person's behavior is a function not only of his or her personality but also of the situation.
4. Exercise control over feelings and emotions. For example, by playing the role of an irate customer, a participant might learn to become less irritated by complaints.

Most people feel some discomfort in a first experience with role-playing but, in time and with experience, most begin to enjoy the process. Some people, however, seem to be unable to play roles. The best they can do is talk about what a person in that role might do or say. When these people are found in a training group, the trainer should not force them to participate.

There are many ways to introduce and conduct a role-play. In general, it is done as follows.

Step 1

The trainer describes the setting for the role-play and the persons who will be represented in the various roles.

Step 2

Participants are secured to play the various parts. The trainer coaches them to be sure they understand the point of view represented by each part. Participants may be asked to volunteer for roles, or the trainer may "volunteer" them for roles in a good-natured way.

Step 3

Participants who play roles are asked to comment on what they learned from the experience.

Step 4

Other participants are asked to give feedback to the role-players.

Sometimes role-playing is used in conjunction with the case-study method. After reading and discussing a case, participants may be invited by the trainer to step into the roles of key individuals described in the case. The intent is to give participants a chance to practice with

Elaborated by Ana Vasilache based on

Designing Human Settlements Training in European Countries, Volume 2 – Tool Kit, UN HABITAT, by Fred Fisher and David Tees

new behaviors believed appropriate by the group and to experience the effect of behaving this way on themselves and on others who are playing roles. There is good reason for this. The probability of on-the-job application of new behaviors increases to the extent that people try out and evaluate the new behaviors under supervised training conditions.

Role-playing may be planned by a trainer or introduced spontaneously to increase the learning value of a case situation. For example, the "Case of the poorly informed Councilor," presented earlier, offers a splendid opportunity for a trainer to employ role-playing to make the case come to life for a group of participants.

After discussing appropriate ways for Councilor Radut to behave with his friends in the pub, the trainer might invite participants to role-play the situation. The participant in the role of Councilor Radut would be expected to try out behaviors thought to be appropriate in the circumstances for someone in Councilor Radut's position.

In discussing the case, participants might have concluded that Councilor Radut was too abrupt and defensive with his friends. They might have concluded further that a more conciliatory and less defensive posture would have been appropriate in the circumstances. With that in mind, the person in the role of Councilor Radut might have responded differently in an effort to be more conciliatory and less defensive.

More conciliatory

"You are right, my friend. Our roads are in desperate need of repair. In fact, it was the urgency of our people's need that persuaded me to vote in favor of raising rents this year. We must correct the dust problem without delay and we shall, I promise you."

Less defensive

"The newspaper account is correct. There were profits from beer sales last year. I can say with greatest confidence that these moneys were used properly. Still, you are quite right to be concerned about their use, and I shall have an answer for you by this time next week."

There are several approaches to structuring role-plays. A conflict situation may be an occasion for a role-play with the two people in the conflict assigned to play each other's roles. Role reversal is sometimes practice to give participants a chance to react to different points of view. For example, the role-playing could involve a supervisor and an employee in a performance-review interview. After participants have played these roles for a few minutes, the roles could be reversed. Now the employee is in the supervisor's seat and vice versa.

Still another approach is the replay, which occurs after participants have had an opportunity to analyze behavior and the effectiveness of the first role-play episode. Based on what has been learned, role-players replay it to improve their initial performance.

Videotaping adds another dimension to role-playing. If the technology is available, instant feedback of a role-playing session can have tremendous impact on behavior. Reenactments of this kind are particularly useful to a training group for review and discussion of interpersonal problems.

Bellow an example of how to use the Summerhouse Case for a role-play, which would have as learning objective to increase participants' knowledge and skills in applying principled negotiation to achieve wise results.

Summary

Role-playing is a highly interactive, participant-centered activity that, combined with the case method, can yield the benefits of both methods. It is important that the selected cases reproduce real-life conditions in such a way that participants can act as themselves and feel as they would in real life. When this happens, role-playing can have considerable impact on a person's perceptions of a problem. The new attitudes and behaviors experienced have a good chance of being carried over by the participant into his or her real-life situation.

ROLE PLAY EXAMPLE THE SUMMERHOUSE CASE

(To be used as supplementary information to the Case Study)

When informed about these developments, the *IDO* reiterated once again that the commitment of 10% from the public budget is a compulsory condition for *IDO* to cover the rest of 90% of the project costs. *IDO* representatives visited *Summerhouse* and had separate meetings with *Grape* and *Pear* Councilors. They insisted that it would make sense to change the project so that the whole community should benefit from the investment in the renewed school. At the same time they saw an opportunity of improving the relations between the two communities if the children will learn together, in the same building.

IDO proposed that *Grape* and *Pear* councilors should negotiate an agreement that would be acceptable for both sides, a solution that would be sensitive to both communities needs.

- (a) *Grape* and *Pear* Councilors decided to have another Council Meeting to discuss and elaborate a solution
- (b) *Grape* and *Pear* Councilors selected one representative for each part to enter the negotiation process and try to develop a solution, on which they both agree. The solution should be presented to the Municipal Council discussion and approval.

ROLE PLAY EXAMPLE

INSTRUCTIONS FOR THE GRAPE COUNCILOR

You represent the *Grape* councilors elected by the *Grape* community. The community members are formed by families that lived in *Summerhouse* before the war as well as by families that settled here, after the war, on the right side of the river, with the support of the international community. They did not want to return to their original settlements and live now in rehabilitated houses.

Grape parents are very dissatisfied and concerned about the present education conditions of their children, in the old, overcrowded building, where their children can attend only afternoon classes. They are especially concerned about the big number of small children attending the primary school who have to walk long distances, in the dark after the classes end, because the school is located on the other side of the river. They are also concerned about the big number of children that are forced to learn together in one class because of the lack of available space. They think that the high school children should have access to computers and Internet, in order to broaden their information base.

The *Grape* community wants to offer to their children better education conditions. At the same time they are very pleased that after the war they had been able to organize the primary and high school program in *Grape* language and want to continue to improve this education program. For them it is important to educate their children in the *Grape* culture and keep alive the *Grape* traditions.

You are very proud that with a group of *Grape* Councilors you had an initiative to improve education conditions for *Grape* community children. You have developed a very well designed project for the rehabilitation of the school located in your neighborhood and you were successful in attracting *IDO* funds to support the project implementation. Your project was not only about the school building renovation, but also about buying books, computers and other equipment for the high school. You are especially proud because *IDO* committed to cover 90% of the project costs, which represent almost twice the municipal annual budget. You think it is fair that *IDO* asks the municipality to commit 10% of the project costs to be covered from the municipal budget. You think that *Pear* Councilors should support your initiative because with only 20% of the municipal budget the education conditions of many children will be improved, not only the *Grape* children, but also *Pear* children. You think that *Pear* children will have more space available in the old building after the *Grape* children will move in the rehabilitated school. You think that *Pear* Councilors should support your initiative because first of all your group of Councilors succeeded to attract the international funds, and because before the war the schools used only *Pear* language. At least by supporting you, they will show that they are eager to solve the previous injustice.

You are aware that you need to persuade *Pear* Councilors to vote for the 10% costs to be covered by the municipal budget. You know that they form the majority in the Municipal Council and are able to stop your initiative. You are decided to negotiate and arrive to a solution, so that the *IDO* funds will not be lost and the school in your neighborhood will be rehabilitated, offering to your children better education conditions.

ROLE PLAY EXAMPLE

INSTRUCTIONS FOR THE PEAR COUNCILOR

You represent the *Pear* Councilors elected by the *Pear* community. This community members form the relative majority in the city, so you have also the majority in the Council.

The *Pear* parents are very concerned about the education conditions of their children. They are too many in one class because of the lack of space. The school does not have a functioning heating system, so in the winter the children have to learn in very harsh conditions. The parents know that high school children do not have enough books in the library, nor computers that would enable them to access Internet, information and broaden their contacts within the international community. They would like to offer to their children better education conditions.

The parents consider the education programs in *Pear* language as high quality education programs. Your community has good and experienced teachers, so that *Apple* community and the other groups send their children to attend *Pear* language programs. For your community is important to educate the children in the *Pear* culture and keep alive the *Pear* traditions.

You consider that even if it was the *Grape* Councilors initiative, the project should be changed to take into account both communities children needs. Especially because 20% of the municipal budget should be committed for this project implementation and both communities contribute to the municipal budget with their taxes. Your first idea is to ask for half of the budget to be provided for the old school, even if you are aware that this distribution will barely cover the costs of the renovation of the old or of the new school.

You have met the *IDO* representatives and you are very pleased that they insisted in changing the initial project, in order to address the needs of both communities' children.

You are aware that your group of *Pear* Councilors is able to stop this initiative by voting in the Municipal Council against the commitment of money from the public budget. At the same time you are aware that your city cannot afford to lose the opportunity of receiving the international financial support for the 90% of the investment that represents almost twice the entire municipal annual budget. You are decided to negotiate and arrive to a solution, so that the *IDO* funds will not be lost and your children will benefit also to have better education conditions.

INSTRUMENTATION

Learning Emphasis		
Organization Focus		

The adult who tends to experience adequate and successful control over his own behavior tends to develop a sense of integrity and feelings of self-worth

Chris Argyris

Information as a basis for learning new things can be derived from various sources. We have seen in previous methods for information production that some is derived from the trainer (lecture, demonstration) while some comes from the experience of the participants themselves (discussion, brainstorming). Now we turn to a different sort of information production where the information is derived from instruments. The so-called instrumented technique relies heavily on feedback of information about the behavior of a group participant as derived from the summarized results of a reaction form, personal inventory or other type of instrument.

Instruments are forms or questionnaires to be completed by individuals or participants in a training group. When completed, the information produced by an instrument can help respondents learn about their own behavior in certain situations. From what they learn, participants can make decisions about behavior change. Instruments consist of statements written as instances of particular behavioral traits to be measured - openness to others, leadership strengths and weaknesses, problem-solving styles or learning preferences. They include scales that the participant can use to register and measure a response to each of the statements.

Instruments tend to be quite similar in design. They begin with an explanation of the instrument and instructions for completing it. The body of the instrument consists of statements that describe common behaviors or work conditions to which the participant is expected to react.

A sample statement from a management styles instrument:

"She reaches her decisions independently and then informs her subordinates of them."

Scales are developed for the respondent to use to respond to each of the statements. The most common scales are

- Yes, unsure and no*
- True, unsure and false*
- Totally Agree, slightly agree, Not decided, slightly disagree and Totally disagree.*

Example

Circle the response that most clearly reflects your opinion.

1 = Totally Disagree, 2 = Slightly Disagree, 3 = Not decided, 4 = Slightly Agree, 5 = Totally Agree

- The atmosphere and interpersonal relations in my work unit are friendly and cooperative.*
1 2 3 4 5

Instruments may focus on the behavior of individuals as employees, supervisors, leaders, managers, parents or spouses and in many other roles. They may focus on how people work together in organizations, on teams, in committees, on governing bodies and in informal groups. They may focus on how people feel about the conditions under which they work within their immediate work units or in the organization of which the work unit is a part.

There is a distinction between just "giving" an instrument and using it properly - getting the most value out of it in relation to the goals of the learning experience and the needs of the participants. In a training session, there are four steps in presenting an instrument properly: administration, scoring interpretation, and theory input.

Step 1: Administration

Distribute the instrument and tell the participants that you will read the instructions to them. Read the instructions while the participants read along silently. Ask for clarification questions, if needed.

Step 2: Scoring

A common way to score an instrument is to read the correct answers to the group, tell them how to combine the numbers and, in general, talk them through the scoring procedure.

Step 3: Interpretation

It is generally effective to have participants post their scores on chart paper. Post your own scores to indicate what a scoring sheet should look like. You can also form participants into small groups to discuss their scores. Special attention should be given to the meaning of low and high scores and to discrepancies between actual and estimated scores. Participants should be asked if the scores surprised them.

Step 4: Theory input

Discuss the theory underlying the instrument and what it measures.

An interesting variation is to ask participants to predict their results by estimating the scales on which they expect to score high and score low. This additional step can have surprising learning value for participants who find that their actual scores are quite different from the scores they expected to have.

Some "don'ts" and "do's" of instrumentation can be of value to the trainer who wishes to take full advantage of this powerful learning tool.

- Don't give instructions while participants are reading
- Don't pressure participants to reveal their scores
- Don't diagnose participants' weaknesses for them
- Don't assign labels to participants
- Do take the instrument first yourself
- Do point out to participants how the instrument fits into the goals of the training
- Do encourage participants to be honest and open in responding to statements on the instrument
- Do allow plenty of time for processing scores, and
- Do help participants who are having difficulty reconciling their scores with their own self-perceptions.

Instruments may be purchased from commercial sources on a wide variety of individual, group or organizational situations. Normally, they are supplied with instructions on administration, scoring and interpretation. Some instruments come with information on the underlying theory, how the instrument was constructed and results of its use with various target groups over time.

An alternative to the commercial acquisition of instruments is for the trainer to create them. This may be done when standard, commercial instruments are not suitable or when they cannot be obtained conveniently.

Sometimes, an instrument is constructed as an integral part of the training design itself. In an action-research program, for example, a trainer might wish to demonstrate how to use an instrument to confirm the authenticity of information obtained from a single source. The opportunity to do this occurs when, during an interview, one of the action researchers is told by an office worker that the supervisor doesn't care what he or she thinks. The researcher wants to find out if the comment is the isolated opinion of one employee about a particular supervisor or if it is a reflection of employee feelings about supervision in general. To do so, the trainer and the action research team prepare an instrument containing statements about supervision. Opposite each statement they add and agree/disagree and an important/unimportant scale. Other employees are then asked to complete the instrument by circling the response in each case that most nearly corresponds to their feelings.

EXAMPLE OF SELF - ASSESSMENT INSTRUMENT PERSONAL CONFLICT RESOLUTION STYLE

To learn your predominant conflict resolution styles please complete this questionnaire and tabulate results in the Scoring Sheet. For each statement indicate a number that will describe how you respond most often when confronting a conflict situation.

1 = rarely, 2 = sometimes, 3 = most of the time

#	Statements	Grade
1	I ask for help when resolving the conflict from someone outside the relationship	
2	I try to stress those things on which we both agree rather than focus on our disagreement	
3	I suggest we search for a compromise solution acceptable to both of us	
4	I attempt to bring out and understand the other person's concerns	
5	I am firm in pursuing my goals	
6	I want more than anything else to preserve our relationship	
7	I propose to split the difference among our positions, whenever is possible	
8	I work toward a solution that meets both our needs	
9	I avoid discussions of emotionally charged issues	
10	I try to impose my solution on the other person	
11	I emphasize whatever similarity I see in our positions	
12	I try to postpone any discussions until I had the time to think it over	
13	I propose middle ground solutions to the other person	
14	I use whatever power I have to fulfill my wishes	
15	I attempt to speak about all our issues immediately and openly	
16	I will give up one point in order to gain another	
17	I encourage the other person to offer a full explanation of his/her idea to me	
18	I try to get the other person to see things my way	
19	I treat the other person as respectfully as possible	
20	I suggest to think it over carefully before the meeting, hoping that the anger will cool down	
21	I press to get my points made	
22	I encourage a direct and frank discussion of the problem	
23	I try to find a fair combination of gains and losses for both of us	
24	I try not to hurt the other person's feelings	
25	I avoid taking positions that would create controversies	
26	I suggest we each give in on some of our needs to find a solution we both can live with	
27	I listen carefully in order to understand the other person as well as possible	
28	I calm the other person's emotions when running high	
29	I assert my position strongly	
30	I fear and step back when expressions of hostility are used by the other person	

PERSONAL CONFLICT RESOLUTION STYLES INSTRUMENT SCORING SHEET

Fill in the blanks below with the grade you decided to give to each statement. Total the grades for each type of Conflict Resolution. Note that the statements numbers are not in the same order as in the questionnaire.

Avoiding		Accommodating		Compromising		Collaborative		Competitive	
1		2		3		4		5	
9		6		7		8		10	
12		11		13		15		14	
20		19		16		17		18	
25		24		23		22		21	
30		28		26		27		29	
Total		Total		Total		Total		Total	

Avoiding Style is characterized by low focus on own goals as well as on the relations with the other party. We are avoiding the conflict or we are suppressing the awareness of the conflict, even if we will not achieve our goals or we will damage our relations. We are not willing to deal with the issues, much less to resolve them.

Accommodating Style means that we are focused on achieving the other party goals and we are totally neglecting our own goals. Our priority is not to win but to keep good relations with the other party.

Compromising Style is used when the source of conflict can be divided and shared. Both parties win something from what they wanted and give-up something else in the process.

Collaborative style is characterized by high importance given to goals and relations, at the same time. This style is considered usually the best, but the most difficult and time-consuming approach.

Competitive style means that we are focused on achieving own goals and we are totally neglecting the other party's goals and interests. Relationships are not important for us. We are focused on winning the conflict at all costs rather than searching for appropriate solution for everyone involved. We are ready to impose our own will. It should be "Our way" based on a "winner-takes-it-all" philosophy.

BRAINSTORMING

Learning Emphasis		
Organization Focus		

To get the warmth of the fire, one must stir the embers

Kikuyu Proverb

Popularized by Alex Osborn in the early 1950s, brainstorming is a group activity that focuses on channeling collective energy towards the generation of a wide range of ideas. As a learning experience, brainstorming uses a few simple, practical rules to cultivate creative thinking.

Brainstorming is a leader-directed, participant-centered activity. It is ideal for groups of less than 10 participants. It is carried out in a small room with open wall space for taping up large sheets of paper containing ideas. Participants supply ideas and the trainer, who is equipped with a flip chart, records them.

The typical brainstorming session is carried out in six steps as follows:

Step 1

The group leader writes a problem for which solutions are sought on the flip chart. The question should be brief, specific, clear and stimulating.

Example:

"What are the characteristics of an effective team?"

Step 2

The leader explains why the problem is of concern to the group.

Step 3

The leader explains the ground rules for brainstorming as shown below.

Rules for Brainstorming

- *Every idea is accepted - no discussion or evaluation is permitted. This includes both verbal and non-verbal expressions of approval or disapproval. As one leader once put it, everybody "think up or shut up!"*
- *Every idea is written down exactly as stated. No restating, summarizing or interpreting*
- *The objective is quantity of ideas. Quality ideas will come later. This is known as free-wheeling*
- *Building on the ideas already suggested is acceptable and encouraged*
- *Opposites or the reverse of ideas already suggested are okay and encouraged*
- *A time limit is set and is observed without fail. When time is up, STOP!*

Step 4

The leader lists each idea on the flip chart as quickly as possible. Ideas are recorded exactly as stated. This is important. Hesitation sometimes gives the impression of disapproval. Two recorders may be used to speed up the flow of ideas, if the participant group is large.

Step 5

When time is up, participants are allowed to ask questions for clarification only. Only the individual who provided an idea is allowed to clarify it.

Step 6

Participants are invited to evaluate the ideas. This can be done in the group as a whole or by assigning ideas to sub-groups. The most promising ideas are identified, and an effort is made to arrive at a consensus.

Summary

Brainstorming can be a highly productive method for generating ideas from members of a group in relation to a problem under study. The power of association can be like a two-way current. When one member expresses an idea, she tends to stir her own imagination to think of another one. At the same time, her ideas stimulate the associative power of other members of the group. Brainstorming will succeed, however, only when everyone participates actively and takes care to suspend judgment until a final list of ideas is recorded for group consideration.

NOMINAL GROUP TECHNIQUE (NGT)

Learning Emphasis
Organization Focus

Every partridge knows its way of scratching

Kikuyu Proverb

Andre L. Delbecq and Andrew H. Van de Ven developed NGT in 1968. Since that time, NGT has gained extensive recognition throughout the world and has been widely applied in health, social service, and education, industrial and governmental organizations.

NGT meeting normally consist of five to nine people seated around a table open on one end. The open end is used for a flip chart pad on an easel to be used by the leader for the collection and public display of ideas furnished by participants of the group. The leader has markers for writing ideas on the chart pad and masking tape for taping sheets containing ideas on the wall of the room.

Participants of each group are provided with pencils and one dozen small writing cards each.

The leader opens the meeting with a statement about the purpose of the meeting, clarification of the importance of each member's contributions and a clear indication of how the meeting's output will be used.

Although a meeting might involve several groups at separate tables, for purposes of illustration, we shall explain the process as if there was one table consisting of between five and nine participants. The process consists of six steps.

Step 1: Silent generation of ideas in writing

The leader reads the nominal question to participants out loud while writing it in plain sight at the top of the pad. Care must be taken to choose clear and unambiguous wording for the question so as to generate the most specific responses possible. An appropriate question, "How can we make better use of our time at meetings," for example, should produce many useful ideas. This question is far superior to the more general question: "How can our meetings be more productive." The leader then asks participants to write down as many ideas as they can think of in answer to the question. Participants are cautioned by the leader to work silently and independently.

Step 2: Round-robin recording of ideas

Starting at one end of the table, the leader asks a participant to read one of his/her answers out loud. The answer is recorded by the leader on the pad. The next participant is asked for one of his or her answers. This process is continued until every answer of every participant has been recorded. As sheets on the pad are filled the leader tears them off and tapes them to the wall. Participants are encouraged by the leader to "Pass" if they have nothing further to offer with the understanding that they may re-enter later with any new ideas that may occur to them. Discussion of ideas and side conversations at the table are strongly discouraged by the leader.

Step 3: Discussion for clarification

The leader explains that the purpose of this step is to ensure that everyone understands what is meant by each idea on the pad. The ideas are taken one at a time as written. Discussion of an item is to focus on understanding, not agreement or disagreement. Participants are told that everyone is responsible for clarifying an idea and not just the person who offered it.

Step 4: Vote on ideas of importance

The leader asks participants to structure similar ideas, even reformulate them so that the list includes ideas having similar complexity. Leader asks participants to decide on what criteria the idea will be ranked (urgency, importance for more people, under our control to implement it, etc) and select five ideas from the list of ideas that correspond better with the agreed criteria. The leader then tallies the vote and records the results on the flip chart in front of the group.

PROS AND CONS OF NGT

Unlike brainstorming, in which participants interact with one another from the start, NGT is designed to let people work in the presence of one another in a structured manner but to write down their ideas independently rather than talk about them. Because of this characteristic, NGT groups have been found to outperform interactive groups consistently in the quality of ideas produced. Expressing ideas in writing make them more clear and thoughtful. Also, this seems to be because participants of NGT groups are less subject to being inhibited by one another and are less prone to make premature judgments.

NGT does have some drawbacks. Ideas are not so creative, and considerable preparation for NGT meetings is necessary.

Summary

Structured techniques for group problem-solving like brainstorming and NGT are valuable additions to the trainers repertoire of learning activities. They are particularly useful as a source of creative ideas and to demonstrate the tremendous potential of a group to analyze and remedy its own problems. NGT is more formal and time-consuming than brainstorming but is sometimes preferred by people in training who are uncomfortable with the more spontaneous, interactive methods.

ROLE NEGOTIATION

Learning Emphasis	
Organization Focus	

There is no such thing as a collective thought. An agreement is only a compromise drawn upon many individual thoughts

Ayn Rand, novelist

When people want to improve work relationships, the first thing they should do is exchange information about their various roles. This is necessary so that each knows what to expect of the other. Once enough information is exchanged, uncertainty about performance disappears and what each person will do becomes more or less predictable. The strength of their relationship depends on how important each is to the other and how sure each can be that the other can and will do what he or she says. What each believes about the other in relation to their performance in a particular role is called role expectation. A trapeze artist for example, who lets go of the bar at 50 meters without a safety net must have relatively high expectations about a partner's role performance on the swing.

From time to time, there is a violation of expectations - that is, one of the parties to a relationship does not perform in the role as expected. Such disruptions are inevitable. They can be caused by changes imposed from outside the relationship that affect the way the role is performed - a new person is employed, new tasks are assigned, budgets are cut or the work unit is reorganized. Disruption also can be the result of internal changes in either or both of the parties to relationship. The disruption can be minor and temporary such as when someone misses a luncheon appointment; or they can be major and permanent such as when the trapeze artist found out that his partner is a second late in leaving the platform.

An amusing story about four characters points up some common problems with performance owing to role confusion. The four characters in the story are named: *Everybody*, *Somebody*, *Anybody* and *Nobody*.

*There was an important job to be done and **Everybody** was asked to do it. **Anybody** could have done it, but **Nobody** did it. **Somebody** got angry about that, because it was **Everybody's** job. **Everybody** thought **Anybody** could do it, but **Nobody** realized that **Everybody** wouldn't do it. It ended up that **Everybody** blamed **Somebody** when actually **Nobody** asked **Anybody**.*

When a disruption or change in expectations takes place, it can be dealt with in one of several ways. It can be ignored, an action likely to lead to heightened anxiety, hostility and possible conflict. It also can be handled by actions intended to return things to the way they used to be with promises like "I'm sorry; it won't happen again" or "Don't worry; everything is all right now." Although quick and sure, nothing really changes. In other words, this approach is a guarantee that the same problem will arise soon again in the future. Finally, the disruption can be treated in a problem-solving way by sharing any new information about the role disruption and renegotiating expectations. This approach has the advantages of bringing role expectations in line with the way things really are and stabilizing the relationship.

A role negotiation technique

A well-known and effective method for clarifying and changing expectations about the roles and relationships of individuals, teams and organizations is called the **role negotiation technique** (Harrison, 1972). With the help of a trainer/ facilitator, individuals in a work relationship or members of a team or organization make lists simultaneously of their role expectations for each other, each focusing on what they feel the other(s) can or should be doing, not doing or doing better than they are doing it. These lists are exchanged, discussed and individuals or team members negotiate with each other (I will, if you will....) until there is agreement on changes in role performance *on both sides*. A master list of agreements is later distributed to all those taking part in the negotiation.

The trainer/facilitator:

Elaborated by Ana Vasilache based on

Designing Human Settlements Training in European Countries, Volume 2 – Tool Kit, UN HABITAT, by Fred Fisher and David Tees

1. Explains the process
2. Establishes the ground rules
3. Fairly and impartially guides the give-and-take process
4. Keeps participants talking, listening, and working toward an agreement, and
5. Follows-up later, if possible, to be sure agreements made are being kept.

A design for conducting a meeting using the **role negotiation technique** is presented in the next page.

Summary

The successful performance of organization work requires integration and coordination of people in the performance of their assigned roles. But, people are not machines. What people expect and what they get in role performance may not be the same. Role negotiation is a technique for bringing the role performance of team or other group members into line with the expectations of their peers, subordinates or superiors. The use of a trained facilitator can help to bring group process experience and objectivity into the interaction.

Notes

Harrison, Roger, "Role negotiation: a tough-minded approach to team development," *The Social Technology of Organization Development*, W. Warner Burke and Harvey A. Hornstein, eds. (Fairfax, VA: NTL Learning Resources Corp., 1972).

A role negotiation workshop design

Participants

We presume having two groups: one representing a local government and the other representing NGOs from the same community.

Objectives

Participants who complete the role negotiation workshop will.

1. Know the role expectations of one another, in order to collaborate more efficiently
2. Agree on role-related behaviors that are to be changed, and
3. Have a plan for following-through on their agreements

Time required

From a half to a full day (three to six hours).

Process

Role negotiation is usually done with the aid of a trained facilitator from outside the organization and is carried out in four steps as follows.

Step 1: Establishing ground rules

The facilitator agrees with participants on the role negotiation exercise main goal: for example, to improve collaboration among the two sectors – public and civil society, in their community. Facilitator agrees also on some ground rules with participants. First, it is important to point out that participants must be specific in saying what they want when negotiating with one another for changes in role behavior. Secondly, any demand or expectation made by one party on another is adequately communicated only after it is written down and understood completely by both parties. Thirdly, there must be a *quid pro quo*; that is, participants making demands for others to change their behavior must be willing to act on a demand for a change in their own behavior. Fourthly, threats and punishment are discouraged, being almost certain that they will lead to a breakdown in negotiations even though sometimes they cannot be prevented.

Step 2: Diagnosis

This is the diagnosis phase of the process. Participants, organized in two groups (public and NGO sector representatives) are asked to consider answers to questions like:

In order to work more effectively together

1. *What should the others' group continue to do as it is doing?*
2. *What should the others' group stop to do?*
3. *What should the others' group do better or new things?*

When complete, the lists are exchanged so that each group has the list prepared by the other group that pertains to their members' work behavior. After everyone has reviewed the lists, each participant is given a chance to question others who have sent messages about their group behavior. They are told by the facilitator to ask clarification questions but not to argue or express personal opinions about the messages.

Step 3: Negotiation

After each group has received and affirms an understanding of the messages directed to their group, the facilitator introduces the negotiation phase of the process. It is a good idea at this point to remind participants again about the importance of a *quid pro quo*; to stress that without a willingness to give up something, in exchange for getting something, no lasting behavioral change should be expected.

Participants are asked to look at the list of requests, and give the answers having in mind three possibilities:

- Yes, we can do what you asked for
- Yes, we can do this, if you do....
- No, we cannot do this, because....

The answers for the last two options can be negotiated in plenary, with the facilitator's help. A list of agreed actions, behaviors and changes is made.

Step 4: Follow-up

After agreements have been made, the facilitator suggests scheduling a **follow-up** session, to renegotiate agreements, which have not been kept, and, possibly, to continue with the role negotiation process by dealing with other issues. In time, the work group may develop enough control over the risks, avoidances and threats of the negotiation process to have no further need of the facilitator's guidance and encouragement.

INTER-GROUP CONFLICT INTERVENTION

Learning Emphasis	
Organization Focus	

Blowing out the other person's candle won't make yours burn any brighter

Anonymous

The price of conflict

Most people are aware that considerable inter-group conflict exists in organizations and between groups or organizations. And they are familiar with the negative behaviors of groups in conflict and negative consequences of conflicts escalation. But few people know how to stop escalation or how to avoid the bad consequences of conflict. The use of an intervention strategy can help reduce misunderstanding between groups or teams in conflict and set in motion the conditions for constructive collaboration.

The confrontation meeting

The confrontation meeting is designed to bring together two or more groups that depend on each other but are acting in ways that create misunderstanding and poor relationships, even escalated conflicts. The intention of the meeting is to open communications, uncover concealed resentments or mistrust, and cut down on inappropriate inter-group strife. This involves a deliberate effort to bring to the surface any (garbage) that can block communications and to commit each group to specific actions intended to improve the relationship. The intervention seeks to find, through a structured process, solutions to problems and develop ways the groups can work together more effectively toward common goals.

Third-party assistance is essential. A facilitator from outside the organizations may be in the best position to serve as the third party. Among the characteristics to look for in a third-party facilitator are these:

1. Good interpersonal skills
2. Little or no influence over those involved
3. High control over the venue and agenda
4. Knowledge of the situation and the people, and
5. The ability to remain neutral about the issues and the outcome.

The only requirement for initiating a confrontation meeting is the willingness of the interested groups to address the tension between them and to accept the assistance of a skilled facilitator.

Before the day of the meeting, the facilitator may meet privately with the chief executive officer of the organization who initiated the meeting, and with one or more representatives of each of the groups experiencing the conflict. The purpose of these pre-meeting contacts is for the facilitator to become familiar with the conflict through the eyes of those who are parties to it and to gain their confidence.

The meeting process normally consists of the following steps, very similar with the role negotiation process:

Step 1: Establishing ground rules

The chief executive officer or his or her representative opens the meeting, with optimism for the achievement of its objectives and utmost confidence in the facilitator as a competent guide and coach. The facilitator begins by explaining the process and its objectives. Facilitator also agrees with participants on rules of behavior that will help the process effectiveness and efficiency, such as:

4. Listening actively to each other

Elaborated by Ana Vasilache based on

Designing Human Settlements Training in European Countries, Volume 2 – Tool Kit, UN HABITAT, by Fred Fisher and David Tees

5. Respect and tolerance for others' ideas
6. Openness to hear others' perceptions, even if do not agree with them
7. Speaking one at a time
8. Agreeing on facilitator role as enforcer of the rules

Step 2: issues identification

At this step, data about the issues as seen by members of each group are listed and reported. Each group receives an uninterrupted time to express facts and feelings about the situation. No reactions or interventions are allowed, just active listening of each other perceptions about the problems or conflict aspects.

Step 3: Change proposals

After listening to how problems are differently perceived, each group elaborates lists of actions they think can solve these problems. Separate lists are developed for own group actions (expressing the willingness to contribute to the problems solutions) as well lists for what the group think the other group or groups should do in order to solve the problems.

Step 4: Exchange of proposals

Each group presents the lists they have elaborated. No comments or reactions are allowed at this stage, only active listening, as in the first step. Facilitator can offer these ground rules:

1. All wants are legitimate - you are entitled to ask for anything you want from someone else, and they are entitled to do the same
2. The other group has the right to say *no* to your group's requests and you to theirs, with good reasons
3. You don't always get what you want nor does the other group, and that's okay too.

Step 5: respond to the requests of the other group toward resolution and action planning.

It is at this point that each group answers to the specific requests of the other groups. Facilitator offers three options for responding to the requests of the other groups:

1. *Yes, we can do it ...*
2. *Yes, we are willing to do it, if you will....*
3. *No, it is impossible for us to do it, because*

Step 6: action-planning

Each group presents the answers to the requests and decisions are taken on the actions in order to solve the problems. In a plenary session, the groups clarify and discuss their respective positions on the issues and what each group expects of the other. Resolution occurs when each group makes commitments to specific actions. Responsibility for action planning, implementation and progress monitoring is assigned to appropriate individuals or sub-groups. How this step is carried out will depend on the nature of each change being raised and the type of resolution agreed upon. Normally, the meeting is closed with a caution from the facilitator that the hopefulness of many change experiences turns to disappointment when, after a period of time, nothing has changed. The facilitator goes on to point out that quick fixes don't fix anything and that good results depend on resolute, long-term action. These closing remarks are made to encourage commitment and action taking and to set the stage for a subsequent meeting to check progress.

Step 7: progress check

A few weeks later may take place a meeting to evaluate how successful each group has been in keeping its agreements. Just scheduling this meeting can stimulate group members to work harder to live up to their commitments. Members of groups meet with the facilitator to review the progress of each group in living up to agreements made. Among the questions the facilitator might ask of each group to generate a discussion are:

- What is the best thing that happened as a result of this meeting?
- What progress is being made on the agreements made?
- What issues still need to be resolved?
- Were there decisions made at the meeting that either side can't live with?

Any actions to be taken as a result of this meeting are assigned to appropriate individuals and groups for implementation.

Summary

It has been found that an intervention of this kind can be an effective way to work through areas of difference and to plan actions for better understanding and collaboration. The facilitator is a vital ingredient for facilitating a creative outcome by keeping an open mind, keeping channels of communication open between the parties, suggesting procedures and ground rules and helping the parties to "hang in there." Typically these interventions produce action steps that, if implemented, committed to writing, and supported by regular follow up, can have impressive results in reducing conflict tension.

In next pages it is presented a case developed for Managing Multiethnic Communities training programs of LGI (Local Government Initiative of the Open Society Institute) by FPD, that can be used to simulate the inter-group conflict intervention, during a confrontational meeting.

The Case of Ústí nad Labem - Matiční Street Czech Republic

The Statement

On May 15, 1998, the first press article was published about the statement of Mr. Hrciník, the Mayor of Neštětice (a part of the town of Ústí nad Labem). The statement said that, upon the request of family-house owners, a twelve-foot noise-proof wall will be built in order to keep apart their Romany neighbors living in two blocks of small-size flats apartments nearby.

The mayor explained that the reason of his position was the constant complaints received from the family-houses owners who were upset, most of all, about the noise at night, foul smell and disorder around the two municipal blocks of small-size flats. The conflict was an old one, and started in 1994, immediately after the small-size flats were inhabited for the first time.

The statement of Mr. Hrciník raised a wide response and interest not only in the Czech Republic but all around Europe. The problem became hot topic for the media, and the Town Hall of Ústí nad Labem found itself suddenly in the center of attention, and under pressure of the public. In this situation, the representatives of the Social Work Department of the Town Hall of Ústí nad Labem felt the need to focus their attention on the Matiční Street situation.

The situation in Ústí nad Labem-Matiční Street

The inhabitants of Matiční Street No. 4 and 6 are mixed group of older and newer, of temporary and permanent residents. The small-size municipal flats were built in 1994 for people who are not able to pay their rents. Now it is a population of 126 people who live in these two blocks (36 families with 62 children). Some families (approximately five) are staying only temporarily; they do not pay their rents regularly but the city hall admits this situation, knowing that they have no other place to go. Their original homes were demolished and in their place were built new luxury houses. The flats have only cold water, even though in the beginning they had common bathrooms with hot showers in each block of flats. But, for half a year already the showers and bathrooms are out of order.

The large majority of the inhabitants (95 %) are Roma; almost 100% of adults are unemployed, and they have no means of living but the state welfare. About 95 % of the households do pay, neither for water, nor for power. Most children attend the Special School in Neštětice (a school for children who require a special care). Many of them never finish the primary school education. Most of the adults don't have a better education than primary either. Other problem children and youth from the neighborhood often enter the area of Matiční Street, stealing and destroying the house equipment and the house inhabitants are taking the blame for that. Nevertheless, it's very difficult to prevent these activities to happen, as the locks at the doors of the blocks of flats are destroyed. So far, there have been no serious problems with drug abuse or prostitution. There is a group of activists among the inhabitants who are not satisfied with the existing situation at all but most of the people living in the area are not willing to work actively on the improvement of their status.

Apart from the inhabitants of the small-size flats in Matiční Street, the situation affects of course the other inhabitants of this street—the family-house owners. These people are members of the majority population and have higher social status than the Roma, belonging to the middle or upper-middle class. All these people have jobs, have usually finished the secondary school education and often meet Roma at work. They usually do not have any close personal contact with any of the Roma. They had often mostly negative experiences with the Roma. The members of the group did not share one common political orientation.

The tolerance among the groups in conflict is very low. The family-house owners who complained about the situation to the mayor agree that the solution could be to build the twelve feet high, noise-proof wall. The mayor, Mr. Hrciník, looks helpless and was not able to find (or, he was never looking for?) a partner among the Roma with whom he could communicate. So, he made the public statement about the intention to build the wall. The

Roma were angry and immediately started own steps to protest and to stop the project. The „Romská duha“ (Romany Rainbow) civic association activists and, of course, several family-house keepers protested against the wall building, contacting the Town Hall of Ústí nad Labem, the mayor Mr. Harciník and the representatives of Social Department and Housing Department.

The heavy pressure of the media and public mobilized in May 1998 a number of active and competent people interested to support the efforts to solve the conflict. Partners for Democratic Change (PDC), an NGO specialized in conflict management, approached the City Hall offering its services to mediate the conflict. The Mayor agreed to collaborate.

PDC contacted the groups and held separate meetings with them, during which PDC facilitator helped them clarify and identify their main interests:

- Family owners

What the family-house owners were complaining about was most of all the lack of order and clean environment in the neighborhood, too much noise at night, the children playing on the street until late night, and the constant presence of problem-individuals from other neighborhoods. They have asked the mayor to build a wall to keep the two blocks of flats apart and contain the dirt and disorder.

Their main interest was to live in a quiet environment and appropriate conditions; they kept stressing that there was no racial motives in their request for the wall to be built.

- „Romská duha“ (Romany Rainbow) activists and representatives of families living in the two blocks of flats

What the small size flats renters were complaining was the lack of hot water in the blocks, the house equipment (especially the corridors and porches) which needed badly repairs, the lack of possibilities to offer alternative occupation for the children's free time, the unemployment of the majority of adults and the problems created by the lack of the Czech citizenship for the people who were the citizens of the Slovak Republic before the breakup of Czechoslovakia in 1992. In both blocks of flats, there has been no house caretaker working for at least several months who would ensure the technical equipment of the house, and who would see that the order is kept in the house and in the neighborhood. So, there was another problem with looking for the right person to offer this job to. The Roma in Matiční Street also missed the intensive help and assistance of a social worker. Practically it was no communication between the Roma and the caretaker company called TOMMI-Sever, and the Social Department of the City Hall of Neštěmice.

They wanted also to show that they can live without any conflicts within the majority society, and don't have to be hidden behind a twelve-feet wall. They wanted to show that the Roma need certain amount of help and support of the majority if they are to satisfy their needs and change their approach. They wanted better conditions of living and that their needs be addressed and taken into consideration

- Town Hall officials

They were complaining about feeling helpless in solving the conflict and about being under the media pressure that built them a bad reputation.

Their interest was to calm down the whole situation, reach a solution that would satisfy both parties, and purify themselves in the eyes of the public after having being accused of racial intentions. They kept in mind that there are more problem areas like this one in Neštěmice, and that's why it's necessary to spend time and energy on preventing the conflicts like that one.

Working separately for a while with the three parties, PDC prepared the parties to attend a common meeting, which goal would be to try and stop the conflict and reach an agreement.

PDC facilitator realized that identifying the right participants who will attend the meeting was crucial for the meeting success. They looked for persons, motivated and committed to give their time and energy for solve the problems and de-escalate the conflict. They invited to the meeting half more persons than planed, based on their experience that in the last moment many persons were not showing up, even if they promised. They also informed all parties about the goal of the meeting, the PDC role as facilitator and answered all questions, in order to decrease the participants feeling of insecurity.

Use of the Case in the Simulation of an Inter-group intervention

Simulate the confrontational meeting having as objectives:

- To improve communication among parties in conflict
- To stop the escalation of the conflict
- To reach a common agreement on some actions to solve identified problems

Participants are divided into three groups representing the three parties:

- House owners
- Roma residents: „Romská duha“ (Romany Rainbow) activists and representatives of families living in the two blocks of flats
- City Hall officials: the Mayor, the Social and Housing Department representatives; and the Romani consultant from the district level

PDC facilitator, going through the steps described in the inter-group conflict intervention chapter, will facilitate the meeting. The simulation may last 3 hours, with the following design:

30' Trainer assigns to the three groups three different roles:

- Roma representatives,
- Czech population representatives
- Local government representatives.

Participants read the case and prepare a short presentation of the group position.

The trainer explains the situation:

"The local government has invited you to a meeting which goal is to stop the conflict and try to solve it. Local Government had asked a third neutral party, from an NGO specialized in conflict management, to facilitate the meeting. "

15' Facilitator open the meeting by presenting himself and her role, as neutral third party, whose task is to help parties in conflict communicate effectively and arrive to an agreement. The facilitator asks participants to decide on the rules they would like to follow in order to make the meeting effective. In the rules should be included statements such as: speak with respect, listen to others, and do not interrupt. Facilitator explains the steps of the process:

15' Step 1

All three parties will elect a representative to present the group position on the situation that created the conflict. Other parties are asked to listen as attentive as possible, and not interrupt the presentations. The presentations should not exceed 5 minutes. (3x5=15')

30' Step 2

After the presentations the groups will work and will develop three lists of proposed actions:

- One list will include what their group can do to stop the conflict and reach an agreement,
- Two other lists will include each what they think the other two groups may do to stop the conflict and reach an agreement.

15' Step 3

Groups present their lists in plenary. No comments are allowed. Listening is encouraged.

30' Step 4

Groups take the lists that include actions they should do and work on them. They answers to the other two groups proposals with three possible answers:

1. Yes, we can do what you have required;
2. No, we cannot do because... and
3. Yes, we can do, if you do....

45' Step 5

Groups present again their answers and commitments of actions they can do to stop the conflict and reach an agreement. They can negotiate those "if, or no actions". Reaching a final agreement

A CLOSING NOTE

***Not to know is bad,
Not to wish to know is worse***

African Proverb

Well, it has been a long journey. You have been exposed to many ideas about training design, some familiar and some not so familiar. The question is what happens now? To what extent will you incorporate any of these ideas in your own activities as a trainer?

We can't answer that question. What we can say with confidence is that, as trainers in a changing world, we must get in the flow or get left behind. As Wayne Dyer reminds us, "Progress and growth are impossible if you always do things the way you've always done things."

Someone once said that you couldn't teach anything you haven't learned. Learning is an active process: we learn by doing. This principle applies as much to trainers as to their students. So, if you want to master the techniques of training design described in this volume, do something about it. Get out there and design some training!

References

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