PROVINCIAL INSTRUCTOR

DIPLOMA PROGRAM

ELEMENTS OF INSTRUCTIONS (PART A)

COURSE ID 102A

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VANCOUVER COMMUNITY COLLEGE
CITY CENTRE

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PURPOSE

The course provides the learner with the knowledge, skills, and experiences necessary to prepare lesson plans and practice basic instructional skills.

GOALS

On successful completion of this course, the learner will have the knowledge and skills to:

- identify and describe instructional models; ← 3 domains of learning
  cognitive - head
  effective - heart
  psycho-motor - hands
- identify and use various instructional techniques;
- describe and use an instructional sequence; ← describing a sequence
- prepare functional lesson plans;
- use simple methods to evaluate learning;
- identify and write appropriate learning objectives'
- describe methods to enhance learning; - motivation, etc.
- conduct highly participatory classroom sessions in which learners practice skills;
- use basic instructional media;
- use effective questioning techniques; and
- give objective behaviourial feedback.

EVALUATION

Evaluation of this course is based on the following:

- submission of three (3) functional lesson plans;
- presentation of three (3) mini-lessons to the class; and
- participation in written and verbal feedback sessions following the mini-lessons.

Due to the nature of this course and the requirement for peer group feedback, students must attend a minimum of 90% of the classes to satisfy attendance requirements.

ASSIGNMENT AND GRADING DETAILS

The major focus of this course is on the delivery of instruction. Each learner is required to present three (3) mini-lessons to their peer group and receive written, oral and video feedback on their performance. Learners will be encouraged to practice various instructional techniques. Each lesson will require a lesson plan.

Grading Rationale

Grades are assigned according to the number of successfully completed mini-lessons.

A Grade: Successful completion of **three (3)** mini-lesson and their corresponding lesson plans.

C Grade: Successful completion of **two (2)** mini-lessons and their corresponding lesson plans.

F Grade: **Less** than two mini-lesson completed.

Due to the nature of this course and the requirement for peer group feedback, students must attend a minimum of 90% of the classes to satisfy attendance requirements.

READING LIST

Bloom Benjamin S. et al. A taxonomy of Educational Objectives. Handbook 1: The Cognitive Domin. New York: David McKay Co., 1956.

Briggs, Leslie J. Sequencing of Instruction in Relation to Hierachies of competence. Pittsburg: American Institute for Research, 1968.

Krathwohl, David R. Bloom, Benjamin S. and Masia, Bertram B. Taxonomy of Educational Objective. Handbook 11: Afftective Domain, New York: David McKay Co., 1964.

Mager, Robert F. Preparing Instructional Objectives. (revised second edition) Belmont, CA: DavidS. Lake Publishers, 1984.

McKeachie, Wilbert J. Teaching Tips: A Guidebook for the Beginning College Teacher. (seventh edition). D.C. Heath and Co., 1978.

Udolf, Roy. The College Instructor's Guide to Teaching and Academia. Chicago: Nelson Hall.

Renner, Peter Franz. The Instructor's Survival Kit, A handbook for teachers of adults. (second edition). Vancouver: Training Associates Ltd., 1983.

GLOSSARY

AFFECTIVE

Having to do with a person's feelings or attitudes.

AFFECTIVE LEARNING

That learning a person acquires within his or her emotional makeup. It focuses directly on feelings and their development within an individual human being.

ANALYSIS

The breakdown of skills or knowledge into constituent elements or parts such that the relative hierarchy is made clear and/or relationships are made explicit.

ANDRAGOGY

The art and science of helping adults to learn; the study of adult education theory, processes and technology.

ANECDOTAL RECORD

A written description of an incident in an individual's behavior that is reported objectively and is considered significant for the understanding of the individual.

ATTITUDE

a. A learned tendency that influences the choice of personal action towards things, events or persons. This tendency is composed of knowledge and feelings of likes and dislikes which combine to produce the readiness to move forward or away from some object.

b. Learned disposition that influences the choice of personal action toward classes of things, events or persons.

c. The perspective a person has on particular events, actions, proposals or statements. One's attitude governs to quite an extent one's tendency to do or not to do particular activities. Because it is fairly deep-seated it is not subject to easy change.

BEHAVIOUR

An action or way of acting that may be observed in a particular individual or group of people. Observable (visible, audible) actions.

BELL CURVE

Refers to the bell-shaped curve that represents a normal distribution pattern of a statistical graph. In education it is used to impose a normal distribution on marks received by learners taking a test.

BRAINSTORMING

a. Technique designed to increase creativity and identical fluency in group problem solving by unstructured discussion. Participants are encouraged to contribute relevant ideas freely without critical examination, which comes at a later stage. By this method, the choice of solutions is maximized.

b. A teaching technique in which members of a group supply solutions to a problem rapidly without comment or criticism in order not to limit creative output. After the list is completed or the time allotted is up, the suggested solutions are evaluated by the group.

c. A method of small group discussion with about six to ten members under the leadership of a chairman, which aims at the creative solution or organization of problems through the use of open-ended questions. Generally, it proves successful, since the members are usually selected on the basis of education and/or experience of a wide range; placed in permissive environment that not only encourages and stimulates, but also depends on quick, spontaneous and imaginative participation; and not criticized or otherwise limited in their expression or contributions.

BUZZ GROUP

a. A group is divided into sub-groups of three to six persons for a brief period of time to discuss an assigned topic or to solve a problem. A representative is sometimes selected from each sub-group to report its findings to the entire group.

b. The division of a learning group into small units for a relatively short time to undertake a specific task relevant to the subject being studied by the group.

CASE STUDY

a. Presentation of written or taped material which describes an event or situation to be analyzed for the purpose of solving problems, presenting issues or interpreting behaviour.

b. Information regarding a real life situation is presented to group members who analyze all the aspects of the problem and offer a solution.

c. The use by learners of a description of an event, incident or situation as resource material to aid the process of analyzing and discussing theories, concepts and real life phenomena.

COGNITIVE STRATEGY

a. A way of solving a problem of a type which the learner has never encountered before. It requires the learner to combine a variety of intellectual skills he already possess, into an arrangement which enables him to reach out of the context of his habitual problem-solving approaches to capture a new pattern of intellectual skills which the problem demands.

b. Internally organized capability which the learner makes use of in guiding his own attending, learning, remembering and thinking.

COMPETENCY STATEMENTS

Skills in which an individual must be competent to meet job requirements or to proceed to other more complex skills.

COURSE

a. A training design incorporating a number of lessons designed to prepare the learner for a new level of capability.

b. An educational unit within the curriculum dealing systematically with a particular subject or discipline in prescribed ways: lectures, laboratory work, workshops, etc. A series of such courses (e.g. mathematics,) physics and electricity) are thus co-ordinated to form the curriculum.

COURSE OUTLINE

A brief description of the objective, contents and application of a particular course.

CRITERION

A description of the degree of acceptable, expected or desirable performance.

CRITERION BEHAVIOR

A detailed specification of what the student is expected to be able to do at the end of a course or program. It should specify the questions he should be able to answer; the tasks, procedures, techniques and skills that he is expected to be able to perform, and to what level they are to be executed; what discriminations it is reasonable to expect the student to make and in what terms these discriminations can be expressed; to what total changes in behaviour are to be expected and in what form they can be observed and their intensity measured. The term may also be applied to other training methods.

CRITERION-REFERENCE EVALUATION

An approach to evaluation which considers performance in relation to a criterion or standard.

CRITERION TEST

A test in written or practical form, designed to measure terminal behaviour and thereby discover to what degree the student/trainee demonstrates the criterion behaviour. It can be also given as a pre-test to identify individuals who need the training, and/or a post-test to measure the effectiveness of a course or program by comparing the pre-test and post-test scores.

CURRICULUM

a. An organized program of both theoretical and practical studies, the successful completion of which is considered necessary to achieve specific educational goals.

b. A description of composite statements about "what is to be learned" by a student in a particular instructional program; a product that states the "intended learning outcomes" that have been selected and ordered.

DEBATE

The presentation of two sides of an argument by speakers with opposing views on a subject. Speakers are given equal time to present the reasons for their beliefs and to clarify further arguments between them. A moderator summarizes the contributions made by the speakers.

DEMONSTRATIONS

A presentation that shows how to use a procedure or to perform an act.

DISCUSSION GROUP

a. A technique of group learning in which members of a group contribute their ideas orally to the solution of a problem or to enlarge knowledge and understanding of a topic. For the successful employment of the technique, participants must have knowledge or experience which is relevant to the subject of the discussion. It is therefore particularly appropriate to adult education.

b. A purposeful conversation and deliberation about a topic of mutual interest among six to twenty participants under the guidance of a trained participant called a leader.

c. A training technique in which the information that is transmitted comes from the participants themselves rather than from a single lecturer or panel.

EVALUATION

a. The process of judging the value or worth of something.

b. The process of delineating, obtaining and applying descriptive and judgmental information concerning some object's merit as revealed by goals, structure, process and product for some useful purpose such as decision making or accountability.

c. Refers to the act or result of appraising the quality, worth or efficiency of any aspect of the educational process in terms of whether the desired and planned goals are being achieved. Thus the term evaluation is used in connection with appraisal of the workings of the educational system as a whole, or of any particular aspect of it.
(See also FORMATIVE EVALUATION and SUMMATIVE EVALUATION)

EVENTS OF INSTRUCTION

Together, motivation, guidance and practice are generally recognized as the three major events of instruction where the instructor can influence the learner to aid the learning process.

FEEDBACK

a. Information to the trainee about the adequacy of his performance, information to instructors or course managers about how well the instruction is working.

b. Data that is received from a source or sources which is used as an indicator of the relative efficiency or effectiveness of something.

c. Information on the effect of a particular action.

FIELD TRIP

A visit to a place or an organization in the community by a group in order to obtain direct personal experience about a subject or activity.

FORMATIVE EVALUATION

Evaluation conducted while a training program or course is in progress to enable difficulties to be detected and corrected immediately. (See also SUMMATIVE EVALUATION and EVALUATION)

GOAL

a. A general statement of intent in education

b. A general outcome not necessarily stated in measurable terms.

GOAL ANALYSIS

A procedure through which an educational need may be analyzed for its meaningful components. The product is a goal statement which forms the basis for an educational program. (See also GOAL.)

HANDOUT SHEETS

Information sheets handed out as learning aids to students in support of a presentation. They may be in narrative or outline form, instructor made, or copied from published materials.

HETEROGENITY

Possessing great variability; thus, in testing: a test with a great variety of content, or a group that varies considerably in an attribute tested.

HOMOGENITY

Having a little variability; thus, in testing: a test composed of items that vary little in type, or a group that varies little in the attribute tested.

INDIVIDUALIZED INSTRUCTION

a. Instruction specifically designed to take into account each learner's existing skills. The term is also used sometimes to describe the process of a learner interacting individually with prepared materials or computer-assisted programs.

b. An approach for managing the instructional process within which the focus is on helping individual learners (as opposed to groups of learners) acquire the knowledge, skills and attitudes needed. It* is geared to the student's own needs, learning preferences and rate of learning.

INTELLECTUAL SKILLS

a. Mental skills; the learning of concepts and rules; the kinds of capabilities that make it possible for the student to do something with the symbols representing his environment; know how.

b. The mental skills involved whenever you perform an activity that requires mental processing.

KNOWLEDGE

The store of information and data that a person possesses. It includes facts, principles, meanings, concepts and relationships.

LEARNER

Anyone who is concerned with acquiring new knowledge and skills.

LEARNING HIERARCHY

A chart of subordinate skills related to some particularly complex skill that is to be learned.

MOTOR SKILLS

a. Muscular activity having some direct impact on objects in the environment. This impact is accomplished by a total action that is smooth, regular and precisely timed.

b. Capabilities which make possible the precise smooth and accurately timed execution of performances involving the use of muscles.

NEEDS ASSESSMENT

a. A systematic method of determining the educational needs and learning and social goals of a particular group or community.

b. A process which involves a decision regarding a normative standard, a description of the current situation of a group of learners, a comparison of the two and commitment to the goal of reducing the discrepancy.

c. The collection of data which documents why an educational activity should be planned and offered to a group of learners.

NON-VERBAL

Some form of activity or an existing situation or product that made no use of spoken or written words. It may involve images, colours, movement, stance, facial expressions and so on.

NORMAL DISTRIBUTION (CURVE)

A useful mathematical model representing the distribution expected when given an infinite number of observations (e.g. of a given age or grade placement.)

NORM-REFERENCED TESTS

Test in which a student's performance is compared with that of other students, in contrast with a criterion test wherein a student's performance is evaluated in relation to a prescribed standard.

OBJECTIVE

a. Expression of one of the categories of learning outcome in terms of human performance and specification of the situation in which it is to be observed.

PSYCHOMOTOR SKILLS
(See MOTOR SKILLS)

RATING SCALE

A graphic method of obtaining a systematic sampling of opinion regarding specific characteristics of persons. Individuals being rated are assigned to positions on a scale that represents a continuum from little to much of the characteristic being rated.

RECALL

The part of the memory function which permits a person to pull out from memory an experience, or an event. In learning the process involves the learner recalling previously learned material for purposes of demonstrating he or she has retained the material for purposes of applying this material or, to some new material to the learned.

RECOGNITION

Describes the learner's ability to examine information and place it in its previous context.

REINFORCEMENT

a. Any event following a performance that increases the probability that the response will occur again when the same situation occurs.

b. Process of providing the individual with immediate feedback or information regarding the success or failure of his performance.

RESOURCES

The materials and peole available to the learner through which to accomplish the objectives of a course. In a criterion-referenced course this may include books, films, modules, the course manager, colleagues, programmed instruction.

ROLE PLAYING

a. Teaching technique in which students are presented with a situation or problem which they are required to resolve by acting out the roles of those concerned in this situation.

b. A spontaneous acting out of a situation or incident by selecting members in which each person in a circle responds in turn to a question. No one may speak for a second time until all have had a turn.

SKILL

a. The capability of performing an action with a degree of proficiency; a particular area of proficiency; the mental and physical action skills of perception, motor coordination, etc.

b. A specific defined behaviour or piece of work assigned to, or expected of someone in a specified position; used synonymously with tasks.

c. The ability to perform occupational tasks with a degree of proficiency within a given occupation. Skills is conceived of as a composition of three completely interdependent components; cognitive, affective and psychomotor.

SIMULATION

a. Training given outside the work situation which reproduces the conditions of that situation and gives practice in skills required in it. The production or imitation of the conditions of a working situation and the knowledge and skills required in it, for training purposes.

b. The creation of a 'working model' of some system, such that the key elements and their interactions are highlighted. An important class of training techniques in which trainees are able to experience various dimensions of organizational behaviour in a laboratory context.

SUBJECTIVE TEST

A test on which the personal opinion or impression of the scorer is one determinant of the obtained score; i.e. the scoring key cannot be (or is not) fully prescribed in advance of scoring.

SUMMATIVE EVALUATION

a. A type of evaluation used at the end of a term, course, or program for purposes of grading, certification, evaluation of progress or research on the effectiveness of a curriculum course of study or educational plan.

b. Evaluation conducted at the conclusion of a program to sum up the learning that occured. (See also FORMATIVE EVALUATION and EVALUATION.)

SYMPOSIUM

A series of speeches covering various aspects of a problem or issue by experts in that field.

TAXONOMY

An embodiment of the principles of classification; a survey, usually in outline form, such as a presentation of the objectives of education.

TEST

A written or practical examination given to measure the skill, knowledge, intelligence, capacities of an individual or group.

VALUING

Behaviour that shows that phenomena has worth of the learner.

THE MINI LESSON CYCLE

MINUTES	ACTIVITIES
5	Prepare the room and your materials Get ready
10 (20) {team teaching}	Mini lesson (videotaped by facilitator) Introduction Pre-assessment Presentation and Practice Post-assessment Close
5	Each participant individually writes his or her impressions of and reactions to the presentation
10	Group discussion of the presentation using the videotape as a resource
30	Total

Inst Process,

- Beginning - Intro.
  - Outline
  - ~~Course~~ ~~Obeject~~
  - learning objective
  - Pre-assessment
    - find out what people Know.
    - find out desires of students
  - motivations

- middle
  - Learning Process.
  - Teach → Learn

- End.
  - Conclusion or Summary
  - Evaluation (Post assessment)

Finding out what they learned

HOW TO CONDUCT A MINI-LESSON

Important: The following steps are usually followed when conducting **a regular lesson.** For a **mini-lesson,** many of these steps are very condensed.

1. Introduction:

Tell the participants what you are going to do. Tell them what the objective or purpose of the presentation is and what is expected of them.

2. Pre-assessment:

Usually, when teaching adults, it is appropriate to find out the level of skills the participants have before we begin to teach them something new. This helps us to keep our instruction at an appropriate level for our learners. Failing to pre-assess a group may result in you aiming your instruction at too high or too low a level for most participants. This can cause frustration or boredom. In a mini-lesson, preassessment may consist of a simple question, "How many of you have ever set a banquet table before?"

3. Review prerequisite learning:

If you have taught a previous lesson and the things your are teaching today require trainees to know things from that previous lesson, it is probably a good idea to review the previous lesson briefly to help students prepare for today's lesson. If the material is new and not related to a previous lesson, this step is not necessary. (This step is not usually necessary for a mini-lesson.)

4. Present the New Material:

Prior to the presentation, you will have prepared a lesson plan. In this lesson plan you will have outlined the objectives of the lesson. You will have broken down that objective into its learning tasks and you will have analyzed those learning tasks to determine whether they are cognitive (thinking), psychomotor (doing), or affective (feeling or attitudes) types of outcomes.

You will have selected instructional techniques that are appropriate for the types of learning outcome that you have.

For example, if you are trying to instill the "Yes We Can!" attitude into new employees, selecting the lecture technique would be rather inappropriate because lectures do little to help people learn attitudes. You would probably decide to use a role play or group discussion technique for this lesson.

Try to use techniques that will let your staff practice the skills and attitudes they are learning. You may wish to use *guided practice* where you guide your staff as they practice the new skills and then give them a chance for *independent practice* where they practice until they have become automatic in the new skills or attitudes. We remember and use new knowledge, skills and attitudes more easily if we have had a chance to practice them rather than if we have merely heard about them in a lecture so make a concerted effort to involve students in the presentation.

Use any audio-visual devices that are appropriate. Films, videotapes, slides, flipcharts, handouts, blackboards, overheads, can add interest, clarity and enthusiasm to your presentations.

5. Review:

It is usually a good idea to briefly review the main points of the presentation. Repetition and examples help your staff to put new information, ideas and skills into long term memory.

6. Evaluation:

It is often appropriate at the end of a lesson or a series of lessons to evaluate the participants' learning and your instruction. You will probably want to see if the staff can now perform the skill, display the attitudes or recall and use the new information they have learned during the lesson.

You can do this in a number of ways:

Examples:

- have them perform the skill and you evaluate the performance using a simple checklist to determine whether or not they followed all the steps correctly.
- have a paper and pencil test or an oral quiz.
- wait until they are on the job and evaluate their performance there.

Your evaluation should be related to your objectives for the presentation. If you have been clear at the beginning of the presentation what people are expected to learn, then it should be obvious from your evaluation whether or not they have learned what was expected. **In a mini-lesson**, you will have very little time, if any, for evaluation and rather than carry out an evaluation, you may simply wish to explain to the group how you would evaluate the presentation if you were giving it to your staff.

MINI-LESSON OBSERVER WORKSHEET
(Instructions)

1. **Clarification of purposes, objectives and structure**

   Consider:
   - Did the learners understand what was expected of them by the end of the lesson?
   - Did the objective include a performance, conditions, criteria?
   - Were the learners clear about the general purpose of the lesson?
   - Why is this objective important?
   - Did the learners understand how the lesson would be conducted?

2. **Pre-assessment**

   Consider:
   - Did the instructor conduct a pre-assessment?
   - Was the pre-assessment specific enough?
   - Was the instructor able to adjust the lesson to learner's abilities?

3. **Choice and delivery of instructional activities**

   Consider:
   - What were the actual techniques used?
   - Did the techniques used enable learning?
   - Did learners have a chance to practise and demonstrate desired skills?
   - Was there a high degree of learner participation?
   - What other techniques could have been used?

4. **Use of instructional resources**

   Consider:
   - Did the resource add to or detract from learning? How?
   - What other resources could the instructor have used?

5. **Questioning techniques and encouraging participation**

Consider:

- How often did the instructor use
  - a. closed questions
  - b. open questions
  - c. rhetorical questions
  - d. probing questions?
- How did the instructor deal with incorrect answers?
- How often did the instructor direct the same questions at two or more learners?
- Did the instructor do anything else to encourage participation?
- Did the instructor provide enough support?

6. **Post-test for learning**

Consider:

- Did the instructor conduct a post-test?
- Did the post-test accurately measure achievement of objectives?
- Did the post-test come as a *surprise* to learners?

7. **Closure**

Consider:

- Did learners find out how well they had learned?
- Was there a sense of completion to the lesson?
- Did the instructor summarize the lesson or review important points?
- Where any implications or next steps mentioned?

FEEDBACK

Basic Questions underlying the discussion of the mini-lesson.

What are we talking about:

Is our discussion focussed upon what the instructor did in the mini-lesson?

Is our discussion based upon what happened to the learners? What did we observe? feel? learn?, etc.

What is the purpose of the discussion?

In what ways did each participant feel that the instructor **helped** his/her learning?

In what ways did each participant feel that the instructor **blocked** his/lear learning?

What are some alternate techniques and approaches that could be suggested?

What does the instructor need to think about for next time?

Am I aware of ways of making my instruction more effective?

FEATURES OF EFFECTIVE FEEDBACK

- Describes **behaviour** you can see, not your inferences about its causes.
- Specific, rather than general or vague.
- Focuses on something the individual can change and/or something **relevant** to performance.
- Emphasizes strengths, i.e. where the person is "on target" more than he or she is "off target"
- Given frequently, and generally as soon as possible after the event.
- Given an appropriate time and place; your goal is to be **heard** and understood.
- Given in a caring manner.
- Checked, to ensure understanding.

THE LOST ART OF FEEDBACK

HANK KARP

The ability and willingness to communicate effectively is the key to supervisory success. Although communication effectiveness is based on the ability to make and maintain effective contact, regardless of the situation, specific areas of communications require some additional thought and planning.

One of the most important tools for maintaining control and developing people is the proper use of feedback. Although feedback has been categorized as positive and negative, another way of viewing it is to classify it into *supportive* feedback (which indicates that a change in behavior is appropriate). In this sense, all feedback is positive. The purpose of all feedback should be to assist an individual in maintaining or enhancing his or her present level of effectiveness or appropriateness.

Some feedback, by definition, is better than no feedback. There are however, ways to do it well and ways to do it superbly. This article presents some guidelines that can help to sharpen the process. The most important function of feedback is to help the individual who is receiving the feedback to keep in touch with what is going on in the environment.

SUPPORTIVE FEEDBACK

Supportive feedback is used to reinforce behavior that is effective and desirable. An axion of effective supervision is "Catch them doing something right and let them know it." One of the most damaging and erroneous assumptions that many supervisors make is that good performance and appropriate behavior are to be expected from the employee and that the only time feedback is needed is when the employee does something wrong. Therefore, these supervisors never give supportive feedback. If a supervisor, however, were determined to give only one kind of feedback, he or she would be ahead to choose supportive feedback and let corrective feedback go. In other words, if a supervisor stresses errors only, the end result would be-at-most an attempt by employees to do standard, error-free work. This accomplishment would not be *bad*, but there is a better way.

If a supervisor concentrated on what the employees were doing well, then superior work is what the employees would become aware of. They would begin to view their work in terms of performing as well and as creatively as possible. What is reinforced has a tendency to become stronger and errors are simply mentioned, employees will focus on excellence and tend to diminish errors. The following example of two types of feedback illustrates the difference.

Focus on errors: "The last three pieces in that batch contained wrong figures. We cannot have that kind of sloppy work in this department."

Focus on good work: "This batch looks good, except for the last three pieces, which contain wrong figures. You probably used the wrong formula. Take them back and check them out just the way you did the first group."

Fortunately, however, no one has to make a choice between using only supportive feedback or only corrective feedback. Both are essential and valuable, and it is important to understand how each works so that the maximum gain can be received from the process.

CORRECTIVE FEEDBACK

Corrective feedback is used to alter a behavior that is ineffective or inappropriate. It is not as essential to the growth process as supportive feedback. A corrective feedback session, although never hurtful if done properly, is not a particularly pleasant experience. Under the best of circumstances, the subordinate will probably feel a little defensive or embarrassed.

In giving corrective feedback, the manager should have an option ready to present. When the employee is made aware of the inappropriate behavior, having an immediate alternative can be effective and powerful in shaping behaviour. By presenting the alternative immediately after the corrective feedback, the manager is helping the subordinate to come out of a personally uncomfortable situation in the shortest possible time. This protects the dignity of the subordinate. The manager would also be establishing himself or herself as a supporter of good work and good workers, which would go a long way in developing strong, productive and supportive working relationships. Also very important, the manager would be presenting an alternative that the employee might never have considered- or that was considered and rejected. This provides for immediate learning. Most important, however, is the fact that the manager would make the employee aware that an alternative was available at the time the employee chose to act otherwise. This awareness can facilitate the employee in taking responsibility for his or her own choices. That is, the employee would realize, "That's right, I could have done it that way." The following example shows how an alternative can be effectively added to the feedback.

"When you snapped at Ann in front of the group, she appeared to be very embarrassed and angry. When you must remind an employee to be on time, it's less embarrassing for everyone to discuss it with the employee privately after the meeting."

GUIDELINES FOR EFFECTIVE FEEDBACK

The following guidelines are helpful for managers who are trying to improve their feedback skills and they may also be used as a review prior to giving feedback.

1. Deal in Specifics

Being specific is the most important rule in giving feedback, whether it is supportive or corrective. Unless the feedback is specific, very little learning or reinforcement is possible. The following examples illustrate the difference in general and specific statements.

General: "I'm glad to see that your work is improving."
Specific: "I'm pleased that you met every deadline in the last three weeks."
General: 'You're a very supportive person."
Specific: "I appreciate your taking time to explain the contract to our new employee."
General: "You're falling down on the job again."
Specific: "Last month most of your cost reports were completely accurate, but last week four of your profit/loss figures were wrong."

The last set is, or course an example of corrective feedback. General statements in corrective feedback frequently result in hostile or defensive confrontations, whereas specific statements set the stage for problem-solving interaction. Carrying the last illustration one step farther, the manager c ould add an alternative: "Start checking the typed report against the computer printouts. Some of the errors may be typos, not miscalculations."

If the employee is to learn from feedback and respond to it, then he or she must see it in terms of observable effects. That is, the employee must be able to see clearly how his or her behavior had a direct impact on the group's performance, morale, etc. When the employee sees the point of the feedback objectively, the issue will be depersonalized, and the employee will be more willing to continue with appropriate behaviors or to modify inappropriate behaviors. Although the manager's personal approval ("I'm glad to see...") or disapproval ("I'm disappointed that...") can give emphasis to feedback, it must be supported by specific data in order to effect a change in behavior.

2. Focus on Actions, Not Attitudes

Just as feedback must be specific and observable in order to be effective, it must be nonthreatening in order to be acceptable. Although subordinates-like supervisors-are always accountable for their *behavior*, they are never accountable for their attitudes or feelings. Attitudes and feelings cannot be measured, nor can a manager determine if or when an employee's feelings have changed. For feedback to be acceptable, it must respect the dignity of the person receiving the beedback.

No one can attack attitudes without dealing in generalities, and frequently attacks on attitudes result in defensive reactions. The following example illustrates the difference in giving feedback on behavior and giving feedback on attitudes.

Feedback on attitude: "You have been acting hostile toward Jim."
Feedback on behavior: "You threw the papers down on Jim's desk and used profanity."

An attitude that managers often try to measure is loyalty. Certain actions that seem to indicate loyalty or disloyalty can be observed, but loyalty is a *result*, not an action. It cannot be demanded, it must be earned. Whereas people have total control over their own behavior, they often exercise little control over their feelings and attitudes. They feel what they feel. If a manager keeps this in mind and focuses more energy on things that can be influenced (i.e. employee behavior), changes are more likely to occur.

The more that corrective feedback is cast in specific behavioral terms, the more it supports problem solving and the easier it is to control. The more that corrective feedback is cast in attitudinal terms, the higher the probability that those behaviors will be repeated and eventually become part of the person's natural way of doing things.

3. Determine the Appropriate Time and Place

Feedback of either type works best if it is given as soon as feasible after the behavior occurs. Waiting decreases the impact that the feedback will have on the behavior. The passage of time may make the behavior seem less important to the manager; other important events begin to drain the energy of the manager and some of the details of the behavior might be forgotten. On the other hand, dwelling on it for a long period could blow it out of proportion. From the subordinates viewpoint, the longer the wait for the feedback, the less important it must be. The following example illustrates this point.

Tardy Feedback: "Several times last month you fell below your quota."
Immediate Feedback: "There are only ten products here; your quota today was fourteen."

Enough time should be alloted to deal with the issues in their entirety. A manager can undercut the effectiveness by looking at the clock and speeding up the input so that an appointment can be met. Answering the telephone or allowing visitors to interrupt the conversation can have the same effect. The manager can also cause unnecessary stress by telling an employee at ten o'clock in the morning, "I want to see you at three this afternoon." A more appropriate procedure would be to say, "Would you please come to my office now" or When you reach a stopping point, drop by my office. I have something good to tell you."

In addition to an appropriate time, the setting for the feedback is important. The old proverb, "Praise in public, censure in priv ate." is partially correct. Almost without exception, corrective feedback is more appropriately given in private. In the case of supportive feedback, however discretion is needed. In many instances, praise in public is appropriate and will be appreciated by the subordinate. In other instances, privacy is needed to keep the positive effect from being short-circuited. For example, some people make a virtue out of humility; any feedback that reinforces their sense of worth is embarrassing. Rather than appreciating an audience, this type of employee would find it painful and perhaps resent it.

Sometimes a norm arises in a work group that prevents anyone from making a big deal out of good work. This does not mean that the group does not value good work, but supportive feedback in private might prevent the employee from feeling he or she was responsible for breaking the norm. In other instances, public praise can cause jealousy, hostility, or tense working relationships. Therefore, a conscious decision should be made about whether or not to give the supportive feedback publicly.

Another important consideration is the actual location selected for giving the feedback. The delivery of the feedback should match its importance. If the feedback concerns an important action, the manager's office would be better than an accidental encounter in the hall. On the other hand, the manager might covey a quick observation by telling someone at the water fountain, "Say, that was beautiful artwork on the Madison report." Choosing the time and place is a matter of mixing a little common sense with an awareness of what is going on.

4. Refrain from Inappropriately Including Other Issues

Frequently when feedback is given, other issues are salient. When supportive feedback is given, any topic that does not relate to the specific feedback point should not be discussed if it would undercut the supportive feedback. For example, the manager could destroy the good just accomplished by adding, "And by the way, as long as you are here, I want to ask you to try to keep your files a little neater. While you were away, I couldn't find a thing."

When corrective feedback is given, however, the situation is different. The manager will want the feedback to absorbed quickly and as easily as possible, with the employee's negative feelings lasting no longer than necessary. Therefore, as soon as the feedback has been understood and acknowledged, the manager is free to change the subject. The manager may want to add, "I'm glad that you see where the error occurred. Now as long as you are here, I'd like to ask your opinion about..." This type of statement, when used appropriately, lets the subordinate know that he or she is still valued. Obviously, the manager should not contrive a situation just to add this type of statement, but when the situation is naturally there, the manager is free to take advantage of it.

In certain situations, it is appropriate to give supportive and corrective feedback simultaneously. Training periods of new employees, performance-appraisal sessions, and times when experienced employees are tackling new and challenging tasks are all good examples of times when both types of feedback are appropriate. Nevertheless, some cautions are necessary:

Never follow the feedback with the word "but". It will negate everything that was said before it. If it is appropriate to give supportive and corrective feedback within the same sentence, the clauses should be connected with "and". This method allows both parts of the sentence to be heard clearly and sets the stage for a positive suggestion. The following examples illustrate the difference.

Connected with but: "Your first report was accurate, but your others should have measured up to it."
Connected with and: "Your first report was accurate, and your others should have measured up to it."
Connected with but: "you were late this morning, but Anderson called to tell you what a great job you did on the Miller account."
Connected with and: "You were late this morning, and Anderson called to tell you what a great job you did on the Miller account."

Alternate the supportive and corrective feedback. When a great deal of feedback must be given, it is frequently better to mix the supportive feedback with the corrective feedback than to give all of one type and then all of the other. Regardless of which type comes first, the latter will be remembered the most clearly. If a chronic self-doubter is first given supportive feedback and then only corrective feedback, he or she is likely to believe the supportive feedback was given just to soften the blow of the other type. Alternating between the two types will make all the feedback seem more genuine.

Where feasible, use the supportive feedback to cushion the corrective feedback. When both types of feedback are appropriate, there is usually no reason to start with corrective feedback. However, this does not mean that corrective feedback should be quickly sandwiched between supportive feedback statements. Each type is important, but frequently supportive feedback can be used as an excellent teaching device for areas that need correcting. This is especially true if the employee has done a good job previously and then failed later under similar circumstances. For example, the manager might say, "The way you helped Fred to learn the codes when he was transferred to this department would be appropriate in training the new employees."

PRINCIPLES OF FEEDBACK

Two major principles govern the use of feedback. The first principle, which relates to how feedback is conducted can be paraphrased. "I can't tell you how you are, and you can't tell me what I see." In other words, the person giving the feedback is responsible to relate the situation as he or she observes it, and the person receiving the feedback is responsible for relating what he or she meant, felt or thought. The second principle is that feedback supports growth.

GIVING FEEDBACK
"You Can't Tell Me What I See"

The object of giving feedback is not to judge the other person, but to report what was seen and heard and what the effects of the behavior were. Personal approval or disapproval, even if important, is secondary.

Feedback should be given directly to the person for whom it is intended. When others are present, the manager sometimes addresses them almost to the exclusion of the intended recipient, who sits quietly and gathers information by eavesdropping. Good contact with the recipient is an essential element in giving feedback.

It is never necessary to apologize for giving corrective feedback. Corrective or otherwise, feedback is a gift; apologies will discount its importance and lessen its impact. Nevertheless, corrective feedback must be given in a way that does not jeopardize the recipient's dignity and sense of self-worth.

It is sometimes helpful to offer an interpretation of the behavior or a hunch about what the behavior might indicate. What is of paramount importance is that the interpretation be offered as a suggestion and never as a judgment or clinical evaluation of the person. Only the recipient is capable of putting it into a meaningful context. For example, the manager might say, "When Pete showed you the error you made, you told him it was none of his concern. I wonder if you were mad at Pete for some other reason." This statement shows the recipient the behavior and allows him or her to consider a possible cause for that behavior.

Receiving Feedback:
"You can't Tell Me How I Am"

From the recipient's viewpoint, the first principle is "You can't tell me how I am, and I can't tell you wnat you see." Although most people realize that giving feedback correctly requires skill and awareness, they are less aware of the importance of knowing how to receive feedback. When receiving feedback, man people tend to argue about, disown or attempt to justify the information. Statements like "I didn't say that," "That's not what I meant," and "You don't understand what I was trying to do" are attempts to convince the person giving the feedback that he or she didn't see or observe what he or she claims. However, the recipient needs to understand that the observer-whether manager, peer or subordinate, is relating what he or she experienced as a result of the recipient's behavior. There is nothing wrong with the giver and receiver having different viewpoints. The purpose of feedback is to give a new view or to increase awareness. If an argument ensues and the observer backs down, the recipient is the loser.

The appropriate response, as a rule of thumb, is to say "thank you" when either type of feeedback is received. It is also appropriate, of course, to ask for clarity or more detail on any issue.

The purpose of feedback is to help the recipient. Feedback can be thought of as food. It is very nourishing. When people are hungry, food is what they need; but when they are full, food is the last thing they want or need. The same applies to ingesting feedback. When people have had enough, they should call a halt. Attempting to absorb all the feedback that might be available, or that various people would like to give, is like forcing food into a full stomach just because someone says, "Please have some more."

The recipient is responsible for demanding specificity in feedback. No feedback should be accepted as legitimate if it cannot be clearly demonstrated by an observable behavior. For example, if someone says, "You're very arrogant," an appropriate response would be "What specifically have I done to cause you to think that?" If that response is countered with "I don't know; I just experience you that way," then the accusation should be immediately forgotten. People can't afford to change just to meet everyone's personal likes or expectations.

In fact, it is impossible to change to meet everyone's expectations, and the situation becomes compounded as more and more people give the feedback. A single act can generate disparate feedback from different people who observe the behavior. For example, a loud exclamation could be viewed as appropriately angry by one person; overly harsh, by another; and merely uncouth, by a third. Each person will see it from his or her unique perspective. Therefore, feedback requires action from both the giver and the receiver. Only the giver can tell what he or she observed or experienced, and only the recipient can use the information in deciding whether or not to change the behavior.

For feedback to be effective, the receiver must hear what the giver is saying, weigh it, and then determine whether or not the information is relevant. The following example illustrates how this can be done.

Department Manager: "Waste in your unit is up by 4 percent. Are you having any problems with your employees?"

Supervisor: "I was not aware of the waste increase. No, I am not having trouble with my employees. I suppose I have been focussing on the quality so much that I lost sight of the waste figures. Thanks for bringing this to my attention."

Feedback Supports Growth

The second major principle, "feedback supports growth," is important, because we cannot always see ourselves as others see us. Although an individual may be the world's foremost authority on himself or herself, there are still parts of the individual that are more obvious to other people. Although people may be more aware of their own needs and capabilities and more concerned about their own welfare than other people are, they are able to stretch themselves and grow if they pay attention to feedback from others. Although feedback may be extremely uncomfortable at the time, the individual can look back later and realize the feedback was the spark that inspired the change that turned his or her career or personal life in a different direction. If the feedback is not rejected or avoided, recipients can discover and develop ways to work that they did not think were available.

FEEDBACK STRATEGIES

The strategies suggested here are not step-by-step procedures to be blindly followed. Their purpose is to help in planning and organizing an approach to dealing with an issue. They offer a logical and effective sequence of events for the feedback session. The person planning the session must decide on the desired future objective. (The "future," however, could be five minutes after the session or two years later.) During the feedback session, attention myust be focused on what is happening in terms of the outcome. That is, the focus must be on obtaining the goal, not on sticking to the strategy. This focus allows the giver to change tactics or even modify the original strategy if conditions change or unforeseen events occur. After the strategy is selected, the following three rules should be kept in mind:

1. Be clear about what you want in terms of specific, identifiable outcomes for yourself, your subordinate and the organization.
2. Plan what you intend to say and how you intend to conduct the meeting, according to the particular strategy you will use.
3. Have the strategy in mind as you engage the individual, but keep it in the background.

Supportive Feedback Strategy

The following steps are suggested as a strategy for supportive feedback:

1. *Acknowledge the specific action and result to be reinforced.* Imm ediately let the subordinate know that you are pleased about something he or she did. Be specific and describe the event in behavioral terms. "You finished the project (*action*) on time (*result*)."

2. *Explain the effects of the accomplishment and state your appreciation.* For the behavior to be reinforced, the person must be able to see the effects of that behavior in specific, observable ways. Your appreciation is important but as an additional reinforcing element. The main reinforcement is the effect. "It was a major factor in getting the contract (*effect*), and I am pleased with your outstanding work (*appreciation*)."

3. *Help the subordinate to take full responsibility for the success.* If the employee acknowledges the feedback, this step is accomplished. If the employee seems overly modest, more work is needed.

Unless he or she can, to some degree, internalize the success and receive satisfaction from it, very little growth will occur. One approach would be to ask how the success was accomplished or if any problems were encountered and how they were overcome. In talking about what happened, the employee is likely to realize how much he or she was really responsible for. It is important for both you and the employee to hear how the success was accomplished.

4. *Ask if the subordinate wants to talk about anything else.* While the employee is feeling positive and knows that you are appreciative and receptive, he or she may be willing to open about other related issues, so take advantage of the opportunity.

5. *Thank the subordinate for the good performance.* The final step, again thanking the subordinate for the accomplishment, assures that your appreciation will be uppermost in his or her mind as he or she leaves and returns to the work setting.

Corrective Feedback Strategy

The following steps are suggested as a strategy for corrective feedback:

1. *Immediately describe the event in behavioral terms and explain the event.* Relate clearly in specific, observable and behavioral terms the nature of the failure or behavior and the effect of the failure or behavior on the group work or organization. If you can appropriately say something to reduce the employee's embarrassment, the employee is more likely to accept the feedback non-defensively.

2. *Ask what happened.* Before assuming that the subordinate is at fault, ask what happened. In many instances, the subordinate is not at fault or is only partially responsible. At the worst, the employee is given an opportunity to explain before you proceed; at the best, you may receive information that would prevent you from censuring the employee

3. Help the subordinate to take full responsibility for the actions. The more time spent in step 2 (finding out what happened), the easier step 3 will be. The subordinate needs to learn from the experience in order to reduce the probability of a reoccurrence. Unless this step is handled effectively, the subordinate will see himself or herself as a victim, rather than as someone who made a mistake and is willing to correct it.

4. Develop a plan to deal with the issues. Once the subordinate has accepted responsibility, the next step is to help rectify the situation. Now that the employee is willing to be accountable for errors, you can jointly devise a plan that will help eliminate them. That is, both of you must agree to take action. If you both want the same thing (i.e., better performance from the subordinate), then both of you are obligated to do something about it. This is also an excellent opportunity to build on the subordinate's strengths (e.g., "I'd like for you to show the same fine attention to safety regulations that you show to job specifications").

5. State your confidence in the subordinate's ability. Once the issue is resolved, end the session by stating your confidence in the ability of the employee to handle the situation. The object is to allow the subordinate to re-enter the work setting feeling as optimistic about himself as the situation permits. The subordinate must also understand that you will follow up and give additional feedback when the situation warrents it.

REFERENCE

Blanchard, K., & Johnson, S. *One Minute Manager*. New York: Morrow, 1982.

LESSON PLAN OVERVIEW

A lesson plan, like the script for a play, describes the activities and relationships of groups of people. It can be carefully written in detail or it can be simply an outline for improvisation. In either case, the plan contains points of action and of reflection, identifies time for dialogue and for direction, and generates involvement and enthusiasm. It begins with **anticipation and intention**. It closes with **accomplishment and resolution.**

Perhaps it is enough to say that a instructor needs to consider three basic elements when planning a lesson - introduction, the body, and the conclusion.

The introduction should outline and allow time for a period of setting the tone or mood of the lesson, through focusing attention on **what** the lesson will be about, on **how** the lesson will unfold and develop, and on **why** it is necessary or important for the material to be learned. In addition, the introduction should contain time for formally or informally reviewing the trainees' prior knowledge, for taking up any work assigned as preparation for the training, or for questions of clarification before proceeding. This activity is sometimes called 'pre-assessment', 'bridging in', or 'setting the context'.

The body of the lesson should reflect a healthy balance between the instructor's **presentation** (lecture, demo, film, etc.) and opportunities for the participants to practise or to be involved in some way of handling the subject material (discussion, skill practise and drill, role play, etc.).

The conclusion of the lesson should include time for evaluating the instructor's performance or for other reflective activity, for a brief summary of what has been done, and for discerning or anticipating next steps and implications for future work.

Planning calls for intentionality and commitment on the part of the instructor. In spite of a structured approach, planning need not inhibit spontaneity or focusing upon the unexpected 'teachable moments'. Planning is the foundation or the stage upon which the drama of learning can be enacted.

LESSON PLAN DEVELOPMENT

The lesson plan is an **instructional blueprint** which describes the activities that the learner will engage in to reach an objective. It is also an **administrative document** which describes the timing, resources and instructional organization to produce the optional learning conditions.

The main focus of the training plan is to develop instructional units that are meaningful to the trainee and maximize the use of the time and personnel. There are five steps in developing a good lesson plan.

1. Outline the learning unit or topic and determine the learning outcome.

2. Determine the learning tasks or steps of learning required to achieve the learning outcome.

3. Identify the domain of learning involved for each learning task.

4. Select the appropriate instructional technique compatible with the learning outcome.

5. Identify resource material and estimate time for each learning task.

DEVELOPING LEARNING OBJECTIVES
(or knowing what you want before going shopping)

Training requirements are constantly changing. Jobs become more technical, new equipment or processes are introduced into the workplace or the skills and knowledge or a particular job require updating to meet current needs. To meet these changes, the trainer must be able to analyse the present and future situations and determine an optimal lesson plan to accomplish the change. The plan must clearly define the training objective, that is, the statement which specifies the trainer's behaviour as the results of training.

Efficiency and effectiveness of an educational program cannot be determined until the behavioural changes which the training is intended to produce have been clearely specified.

Many instructors will be surprised to realize that they seldom articulate what changes they intend to make in the learner's behaviour. Instructors are often more concerned with the content (what they will teach) and their methods (how they will teach) rather than **what the learner must learn**.

We must therefore ask ourselves as instructors the question:

"For this behaviour to occur in our learner, what instruction is necessary?"

In industrial terms we need to increase productivity **(more learning)** at decreased costs (less instruction) specifying the training outcome (training objective) is the **first step.**

Remember the **training objective** is a statement which specifies the **trainee's behaviour** as the **result of training**.

The statement should include an action verb which provides an observable performance and enables the trainer to verify the performance of the trainee.

OBSERVABLE PERFORMANCE	NON-OBSERVABLE PERFORMANCE
To write	To understand
To praise	To know
To operate	To learn
To analyze	To remember
To organize	To enjoy
To describe	To perceive
To demonstrate	To comprehend
Using these words allows appropriate evaluation procedures to be selected.	These words describe something that is happening in the trainee's head. There is no way to measure these words.

The training objectives statement must therefore include:

1. The performance the trainee will exhibit as the result of training
   (interpret and demonstrate six non-verbal communications).

2. The conditions provided for the trainee to perform
   (in a role play).

3. The standard expected
   (a minimum of six "correctly" non-verbal communications).

Training Objective

In a role play situation, the trainee will interpret and demonstrate a minimum of six non-verbal communications.

Action verbs used in this training objective are interpret and demonstrate. These two words clearly indicate what is expected from the trainers after training and clearly indicates how the resulting training will be verified.

ACTION VERBS

COGNITIVE DOMAIN

analyze	defend	express	practice	select
apply	define	formulate	predict	set up
appraise	demonstrate	identify	predict	sketch
argue	design	illustrate	prepare	solve
arrange	describe	indicate	propose	support
assemble	differentiate	interpret	question	test
assess	discrimate	judge	rate	translate
attach	discuss	label	recall	value
calculate	distinguish	list	recognize	use
choose	dramatize	locate	relate	write
classify	duplicate	manage	repeat	
compose	employ	memorize	report	
construct	estimate	name	reproduce	
contrast	evaluate	operate	restate	
collect	examine	order	review	
create	explain	organize	schedule	
criticize	experiment	plan	score	

AFFECTIVE DOMAIN

accept	defend	judge	share
attempt	dispute	praise	support
challenge	join	question	volunteer

PSYCHOMOTOR DOMAIN

adjust	handle
bend	operate
demonstrate	perform (skillfully)
differentiate (by touch)	reach
express (facially)	relax
extract	stretch
grasp	

COGNITIVE DOMAIN

Benjamin Bloom suggests that behaviours in the cognitive domain range from simple recall to the highest level called evaluation. The hierarchy of learning in the cognitive domain is:

1. RECOGNIZES/RECALL

The recall of common terms, facts, basic principles. Listing facts, matching items, identifying and naming objectives.

2. COMPREHENSION

The ability to grasp or understand the meaning of written material. Explaining or summarizing material, interprets, translates, generalizes or provides examples.

3. APPLICATION

The ability to apply concepts and principles to new situations, solve problems, apply laws and theories to various situations.

4. ANALYSIS

The ability to break down material into constituent parts, to differentiate, discriminate, relate, detect relationships between parts.

5. SYNTHESIS

The ability to bring together elements to form a whole, categorizes, composes, creates, rearranges, modifies, integrates, generates new patterns.

6. EVALUATION

The ability to judge the value, the logic and support findings with a conclusion.

eg - Memorize Parts of Parabolic mike

AFFECTIVE DOMAIN

Benjamin Bloom and David Krathwahl suggest that behaviour in the affective domain ranges from the intitial attention to a level when the behaviour is fully accepted into the person's value system. The hierarchy in the affective domain is:

1. RECEIVING

To realize that an attitude or an emotion exists, but no assessment or reaction occurs. Shows awareness, attends closely.

2. RESPONDING

To actively participate or react to the desired behaviour. Conforms, discusses, practices.

3. VALUING

To consider the desired behaviour has merit and has worth. Appreciates, justifies, shares.

4. ORGANIZATION

Bringing old and new values together to form an internally consistent value system. Integrates, identifies, orders, synthesizes new behaviours.

5. CHARACTERIZATION

The value system is completely internalized and accepted into own value system. Acts, discrimates, influences, uses, practices, verifies.

eg Discuss inclusion of privacy with [illegible]

PSYCHOMOTOR DOMAIN

Others suggests that behaviours in the psychomotor domain range from the recognition of items through to the automatic conscious operation of several complex movements. The hierarchy in the psychomotor domain is:

1. **RECOGNITION**

   Recognition of items in order to perform action.

2. **COMPREHENSION**

   Communication of the action to be performed; can visualize and describe required action.

3. **SINGLE ACTION GUIDED**

   Imitation of single action by guided direction.

4. **SINGLE ACTION UNGUIDED**

   Performs single action without guidance.

5. **MULTIPLE ACTIONS GUIDED**

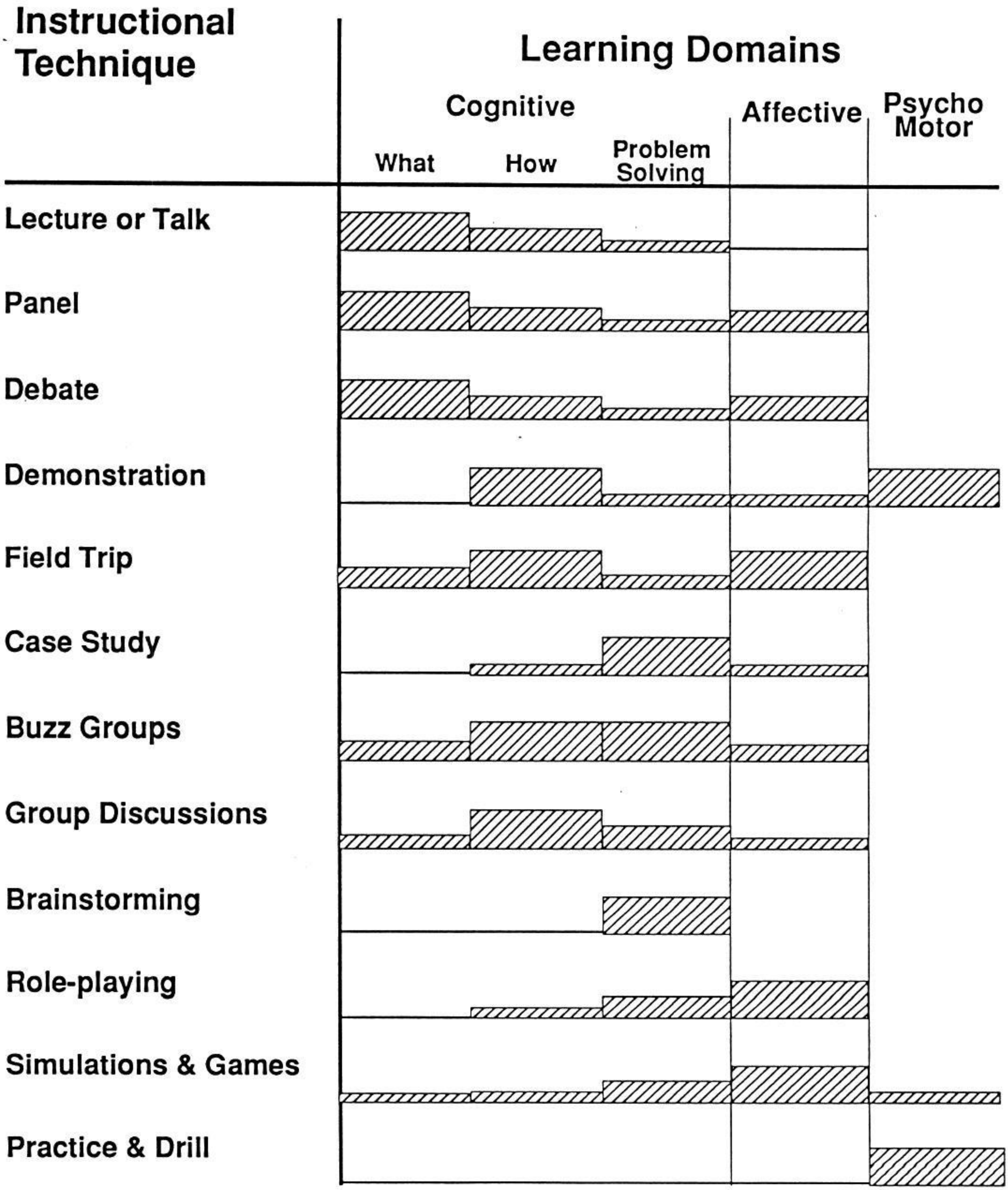
   Combines several actions by guided direction

6. **MULTIPLE ACTIONS UNGUIDED**

   Automatically combines several actions in a conscious safe manner

eg. Show how a parabolic mir. works.

Guidelines for Selecting Instructional Techniques



QUESTIONING

Questioning, either orally or in writing, is one of the most important and most basic skills required when training or making presentations.

Good questioning techniques:

- provide an opportunity for exchanging ideas and sharing information
- create interest and curiosity
- help assess the learner's knowledge
- emphasize and reinforce significant points
- encourage critical thinking
- promote particpation

The respondent to a question will react in both a cognitive and affective manner; therefore, care must be taken in structuring a question to ensure that it is clear and concise and does not discourage or intimidate the intended respondent.

Preparing questions:

- word questions clearly and concisely, the question should need no clarification.
- question should encourage participants to evaluate new information and compare them to life experiences
- questions should relate directly to the workshop issues

Giving Questions:

- ask the question and then wait. This provides time for the respondent to think
- ask one question at a time
- acknowledge every response
- indicate the correct answer by repeating so that all participants can hear
- create a non-threatening atmosphere

QUESTIONING METHODS

There are several ways of directing questions. Each way may provoke a certain kind of response and each way may be especially suitable for a particular situation. The method employed rests with the trainer's knowledge of the trainees abilities to respond and the subject matter.

Direct Question The direct question is one which is designed to get a specific reply on a specific topic. It is usually asked of one individual in the class and is particularly useful in bringing out a hesitant or retiring student. (Sometimes, once such a student has responded and received positive feedback, he/she will become a regular particpant in class discussion!) It is also useful for obtaining information you know a particular student may have about the topic under discussion.

Indirect Question The indirect question is one asked of the entire class with the purpose of obtaining diverse opinions. It is an extremely good way of providing discussion and of encouraging all students to participate.

Redirected Question The redirected quesion is one asked of a student who has asked you a question on material already covered. Rather than simply answer the question, you can redirect it back to the student or to the whole group.

TYPES OF QUESTIONS

There are two broad categories of questions that you will encounter during [redacted]

1. Closed-ended questions

The closed-ended question normally elicits a Yes/No answer or a factual response.

Example: "Do you enjoy working for the Corporation?"

Close-ended questions usually start with words like:

do, have, is , was, would, are, were.

The disadvantage of a closed-ended question is that they provide very little information and often force the respondent into polar positions. However close-ended questions are useful in [redacted] as they can be used to entice a reluctant trainee to contribute. They also allow you to get specific answers.
If you want conversation to flow, the close-ended questions should be used sparingly and the open-ended questions used.

2. Open-ended Question

An open-ended question expands the applicants response, tells you how the respondent thinks, how well they can communicate and provides an indication of the degree and intensity of knowledge.

Questions that begin with words like:
who, what, where, why, usually solicit an open response.

Example:
closed *"Have you had any sales experience?"*

open *"What type of sales experience have you had?"*

LECTURE

1. Description

An uninterrupted oral presentation of relevant and meaningful material by a qualified person. The pattern of communication is a one-way transmission of information from instructor to participant.

The lecture is a suitable technique to use:

- when the basic instructional task is to give information
- when the information is nowhere else available or is difficult to obtain
- when some content material must be organized in a special way
- when establishing learner interest in a subject is one of the learning objectives
- when the material presented is needed for only short-term retention
- when introducing a subject or giving directions for learning tasks which will be pursued or developed through some other techniques.

The lecture is *not* appropriate

- when the instructional objective involves any form of learning other than acquiring information
- when the instructional objective involves the application of skills or knowledge
- when the instructional objective involves changing or modifying attitudes
- when the information is complex, detailed or abstract and requires analysis synthesis, or integration by the learner
- when learner participation is crucial to achieving the objective.

2. Instructor's Role

The effectiveness of the lecture will be increased if:

- the material presented is meaningful to the learner (give clear examples)
- the length of the lecture does not exceed 30 minutes
- language is kept simple and conversational
- no more than six major points are presented
- the verbal illustrations are similar to learner experiences
- summaries are presented at the beginning and the end (Tell them what your are going to tell them, tell them, then tell them what you told them.)
- the lecture is accompanied by other techniques and/or instructional devices which will provide for learner participation.

3. Participant's Role

- may listen, think, take notes.

ON LECTURING - CAUTIONS

Lecturing to students has long been decried, yet it is the overwhelming method of choice for college instructors. It is estimated that teachers in the average classroom spend about 80% of their time lecturing to students, who are attending to what is being said only about half of the time (Pollio, 1984). Added to the evidence of rather poor attention in the first place is the finding that the curve forgetting course content is fairly steep. A generous estimate is that students forget 50% of the content within a few months (Brethower, 1977); a more devastating finding comes from a study that concluded that even under the most favorable conditions, "students carry away in their heads and in their notebooks not more than 42% of the lecture content" (McLeish, 1968, p. 9). Those were the results when students were told that they would be tested immediately following the lecture; they were permitted to use their notes and they were given a prepared summary of the lecture. The test for immediate understanding was bad enough, but when students were tested a week later, without the use of their notes, they could recall only 17% of the lecture material. There must be a better way to teach subject matter.

Ref. Cross, Patricia. *Educational Reform and Community College*. Talk presented to the Association of Canadian Community Colleges (ACCC) Conference, 25-29 May, 1986 Calgary, Alberta, pp. 13-14.

(Patricia Cross is a professor at the Harvard Graduate School of Education)

DEMONSTRATION

1. Description

The demonstration is useful for a learning task involving the transmission of a skill from an instructor to the group members. Ultimately the learner should be able to perform the learning task to a satisfactory standard on his own.

- good for any situation where the mastery of a motor skill is the learning objective
- excellent for transforming theory to practical application
- the demonstration should be followed by a short period of questions and answers for further clarification on information or instructions previously shown
- it is important that the group be given an opportunity to practice the operations or procedures
- this technique works best in smaller groups (5-20)
- individual instruction during the practice period is very important
- this technique has a high level of group involvement

2. Instructor's Role

- prepares the proper equipment for the demonstration well in advance
- is confident of his own ability to perform the task
- introduces the theory and purpose of the demonstrations
- describes the steps of the operation as it is being demonstrated
- proceeds slowly and methodically so all can understand
- assists individuals or sub-groups as they practice

3. Participant's Role

- understand the purpose of the demonstration
- listen actively and watch carefully
- ask questions when the information is not clear
- suggest new ideas or alternative methods
- practice the steps of the procedure
- decide how to best apply the new knowledge

DEMONSTRATION TECHNIQUE

Seven Key Points:

1. Outline the Objective and Purpose.
2. Brief Review of previous steps/information (if necessary).
3. Short explanation of what is going to happen.
4. Quick performance by instructor.
5. Slow step-by-step performance by instructor
6. Ask questions of learners.
7. Provide guided practice, feedback and corrections.

BUZZ GROUPS

1. Description

A group is divided into sub-groups of from 3 to 6 persons each for a brief period of time, to discuss an assigned topic or to solve a problem. A representative is sometimes selected from each sub-group to report the findings to their entire group.

2. Instructor's Role

- assists in determining the issue or problem;
- divides the group into sub-groups of from 3 to 6 persons'
- gives instructions to the sub-groups;
  - a) defines the task clearly
  - b) informs the group members of the time limit (from 5 to 10 min) to accomplish the task
  - c) suggests that each sub-group select its own leader and recorder
- requests suggestions for solving problems, clarifying the issue, or answering the question;
- floats from one group to another to determine whether any group needs assistance in performing its task;
- gives a two minute warning signal for sub-groups to terminate their tasks;
- calls time for the sub-groups to reassemble;
- requests a report from each sub-group, to be given by its recorder;
- requests any additional comments from any members of the group;
- summarizes the findings of the group, or suggests that someone else do it;
- proposes additional study or action;
- evaluates the strengths and weaknesses of the learning situation.

3. Participant's Role

- assist in determining the issue or problem facing them;
- help select a leader and recorder in each sub-group;
- restate and define the issue or problem;
- give suggestions for discussing the issue or solving the problem;
- listen intently and appreciatively to the other group members' contributions;
- build upon the contributions of other persons;
- determine how this information is to be used and put into action;
- assist in evaluation the effectiveness of the learning experience;
- record all contributions in their sub-groups;
- summarize the contributions of the sub-group;
- report the findings of the sub-group.

BRAINSTORMING

1. Description

A technique to secure as many solutions as possible to a problem. This is an excellent technique for:

- actively involving the total group, since all responses are recorded regardless of quality
- solving difficult problems
- tapping the knowledge and experience of the group members in problem-solving situations
- decision making process where time is a factor.

2. Instructor's Role

- introduces the problem or issue facing the group
- appoints a recording secretary to receive the suggestions
- presents ground rules to the group
    - (a) give suggested solutions in rapid succession
    - (b) give any ideas that come to mind
    - (c) avoid evaluating individual comments until later
- establishes a time limit
- assists group to broaden the scope of responses
- decides the best system for evaluation of suggested solution and how suggestions can best be put into effect.

3. Participant's Role

- think creatively
- present ideas that come to mind regardless of how ridiculous they may seem
- refrain from expressing opinion on other member's solutions
- assist in evaluating the solutions when the brainstorming session is over
- determine how best to use the information
- help evaluate the group's learning experience.

HELPFUL HINTS FOR BRAINSTORMING

1. Ask yourself--Is brainstorming the right technique to use? Why brainstorm? Might another technique work more effectively–for example: discussion, question and answer. demonstration, lecture?

2 Make sure the brainstorm question is clear and that all understand the question.

3. Have participants individually write down their ideas and answers to the question.

4. Collect information from the group:

   - try and get at least one item from each person; eg. have each person respond in turn around the table
   - don't allow discussion or questions about items (except to clarify if necessary)
   - don't paraphrase or change what people say–just write down the point quickly
   - don't judge items either directly or indirectly (eg. body language)

   Think of yourself as a fisherman scooping fish from the sea in a great net. You are interested in good fish or bad fish,. small or large at this time. You first of all just want to get lots of fish--you can sort them out later.

5. Sort out the information you have collected:

   - Now go back and discuss items.
   - Are any items duplicated? Similar? Put them together, or put an identifying mark beside similar item; eg. a*, a#, a+, etc.
   - Are any items missing? Collect some more information from the group.
   - Sort out the information as if you were sorting out your laundry: (putting your socks together, your shirts here, your pants there, etc.)

6. Interpret these 'clusters' or 'groups of items':

   - What new is revealed? What new information? What insights?
   - What conclusions can be drawn?
   - What needs to be done?
   - What is revealed about the group from the ideas of the individuals?

ROLE PLAYING

Description

Role play is an educational technique in which people *spontaneously act out problems* in human relations and *analyze the enactment* with the help of other players and observers. Scripted role play is really a *dramatization* not role play.

Role playing was developed by Dr. Jacob Moreno (1889-1974) for use in group counselling back in the 1920's and 30's. In the 1930's business began to use role-playing in staff development. In the 1940's the military began to use it extensively in troop training. In the 1950's educators began to use it in schools and colleges.

Role playing can be a very effective technique for teaching people how to counsel people, how to confront people, how to deal with difficult customers, how to take job interviews, etc.. Experiments in teaching these skills indicate that the lecture is the least effective, modelling is a fairly good technique and role playing is an excellent technique to use in developing these kinds of skills in participants.

Learning that comes from an emotionally charged and spontaneous situation is often the learning at people remember and use.

Instructor and Participant Roles

Effective role playing involves the entire group in one or all of the steps mentioned above. The instructor must know the seven steps, but only facilitates the event. The participants are active in all the steps as well.

RESEARCH FINDINGS ON ROLE PLAYING

Willis's Study

CONTENT	TECHNIQUE	RESULTS
Teaching tutors how to teach reading	Lecture Modelling Role Playing	Least Effective More Effective Most Effective
Teaching counsellors to counsel students or patients	Modelling and Role Playing	Developed highest level of counselling skills.
	Lecture or Discussion	Better than nothing.
Teaching People to take job interviews.	Modelling and Role Playing interviews.	Best
	Modelling only Control Group (no instruction)	No difference between these two groups.

O'Toole's Study

CONTENT	TECHNIQUE	RESULTS
Job Interview Skills	Videotaped Modelling and Role Playing Written Modelling and Role Playing.	No Difference between these two. Much more effective than the bottom three.
	Video modelling only Written Modelling Group Counselling	No difference

OUTLINE OF THE STEPS IN ROLE PLAYING

1. Define the problem and establish the situation.

2. Determine the roles to be played.

3. Cast or choose the role-players.

4. Brief the participants and organize the observers.

5. Enact the role play.

6. Discuss and analyze the enactment.

7. Re-enact the role play if appropriate.

VARIATIONS ON THE STANDARD ROLE PLAY

Role Rotation	Have the participants switch roles and do the role play again.
Monodrama	Have one person play both roles. You may want to have two hats to identify which role he or she is playing.
Soliliquy	The person thinks out loud and discusses the problem with himself or herself out loud.
Mirroring	A less experienced person whispers what she wants to say to a more experienced person and the more experienced person provides a model of how to deal with the situation.
Doubling	The person has a "double" behind him who says what the person doing the talking really means or thinks.

SOME IDEAS ON HOW TO CARRY OUT THE STEPS IN ROLE PLAYING

Step One Define the problem and establish the situation.

- the most important first step is to be sure that role playing is the appropriate technique to use.

- the problem should be a real-life situation.

- the problem should be clear-cut, significant and important to the persons playing the roles or observing the performance.

- the situation or setting in which the problem is seen to exist must provide enough content to make it seem real and to give players and observers a common orientation.

- do not make the situation so complex that the players and observers get distracted by irrelevant situational facts that distract attention from the main problem.

Ways to Determine the Problem and Situation

When you are working with a group, trying to define the problems, a brainstorming session may help participants to come up with these problems.

1. Members of the group may all participate in determining the problem and the situation.

2. A small group may decide upon the role play and enact the role play for the rest of the group.

3. The director/facilitator may plan the role play with structured criteria for enactment.

4. The problem and situation may be selected by the director or the group from case studies available in the literature.

Regardless of the source, the problem and situation should have meaning to the group and be related to their real-life situation.

Step 2 Determining the Roles to be Played

There is a need to determine what kind of characters will have meaning to the group and contribute to the group's understanding of the problem.

You will need information regarding the nature of the roles, their relationship to each other and to the real life situation they are intended to portray. You must then determine the characteristics of each role. The number of roles in the role play should not be large. It is usually suggested that the maximum be five.

Step 3 Casting or Choosing the Role Players

Volunteers may be solicited or the director may choose individuals or the group may suggest appropriate individuals for various roles.

Persons should be chosen because it is thought they can carry the role and are not likely to be threatened or exposed by it. Do not select persons for a role in which they are deeply involved emotionally. No one should be asked to take a role unless he or she is definitely willing to do so. The director should make sure that no one is over-urged.

Characters should be chosen as quickly as possible. Sometimes it helps if the instructor takes a role, particularly if it is a difficult or unpopular one.

Step 4 Briefing the Participants and Organizing the Observers

Participants need a brief synopsis of the role they are to play and the situation. The briefing can be oral or written. (Depends on the situation.)

Give a few minutes for participants to assimilate this information, and then allow time for questions and answers regarding their roles. Spontaneity is such an important element in the role play and for these reasons, over-preparation may restrict the players or even cause them to "ham" their roles.

In organizing the observers you may assign specific tasks to individuals or tasks may be assigned to the group.

Depending on the group, the director could advise them to do any of the following:

- note what actually happens
- try to determine the feelings of the role players as they enact their roles
- note actions that aid in resolving the problem situation or block its resolution
- determine motivations for the actions of the role players
- try to imagine how the role players might have acted to resolve the problem more quickly
- note whether the situation as enacted had any similarities to human relations problems in other areas of life.

Step 5 Enactment of the Role Play

The director sets the scene very briefly and then the role play begins. It is important that everyone "moves" into the role play at the same time.

The action should be a spontaneous develolpment of the basic scenario.

Role playing should last only long enough to point out key issues, develop a climax and permit all the players to have at least some participation.

Generally a role play should be cut off when:

- enough behavior has been exhibited that the group can analyze the problem it set for itself.
- the players have reached an impasse because they have somehow been miscast or misbriefed.
- there is a natural closing.

Step 6 Discussion and Analysis

The director leads the discussion which analyses the action and quickly attempts to pin point key features.

Sometimes players are asked to comment first and sometimes the discussion is started by the observers. (The advantage of the players going first is that it allows the players to set the tone for constructive criticism. If players show by their own observations that they are unselfconscious because they are analysing the characters portrayed and not themselves, the observers are more likely to feel free to express their full reactions.)

Make sure that observers do not criticize acting ability but rather the discussion should contribute to their understanding of the problem they were trying to solve.

Observers should try to bring into the discussion, data about what they saw, rather than restricting their comments to opinions about what they feel should or should not have been done.

General Questions for the Discussion to Answer:

1. What things actually took place during the role play?

2. What were the feelings of role players as the plot unfolded?

3. In what ways could the players have acted to bring about a quicker or better resolution of the problem?

4. What problem situations in other areas of life are similar to the one portrayed?

5. What insights have we gained that might aid in resolving a problem situation such as that portrayed?

Final Phase of Discussion - the perception of the group should be turned towards the educational objectives and towards formulation of solutions or suggestions for action or follow-up.

Step 7 Re-enactment

Re-enactment is often not done. If skill practice is a purpose of the session, there is a greater need for replaying than if the goal is purely to gain insight.

Re-playing may be done by:

- changing roles or taking the same role but playing it differently.
- same or different actors play out the scene just acted, illustrating how the recommendations might change the consequences.

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MINI-LESSON OBSERVER WORKSHEET

Instructor: ______________________

Date: ______________________

Observer ______________________

1. Clarification of purposes, objectives and structure

2. Pre-assessment

3. Choice and delivery of instructional activities

4. Use of instructional resources

5. Questioning techniques and encouraging participation

6. Post-test for learning

7. Closure

LET ME BEGIN WITH THIS FUNDAMENTAL AXIOM: THE SUCCESSFUL USE OF THE VAST ARRAY OF PRESENTDAY HIGH-TECH VISUAL AIDS IS DIRECTLY RELATED TO THE LOCATION OF THE NEAREST ELECTRICAL OUTLET.

OVERVIEW OF INSTRUCTIONAL RESOURCES

1. Blackboard

Advantages	Notes to accompany lecture. Good for pictures, diagrams, unplanned spontaneous notes. Quick, easy to use. Can be erased and used over. Nothing can go wrong.
Disadvantages	Sometimes hard to see. Reminds adults of "school". Dusty, dirty. Not flashy or "professional".
Do's	Make sure it's clean. Check for chalk, brushes. Use 2" letters. Start at the top.
Don'ts	Don't talk to the blackboard. Don't scratch with nails.

2. Flip Chart

Advantages	Good for notes, pictures, diagrams you wish to prepare beforehand. good for posting group answers. Simple, easy to use. Portable.
Disadvantages	Tearing, flipping need practice. Small page size can sometimes be a problem.
Do's	Use big letters - 2". Print legibly. Start at the top. Move close to the audience. Bring pens, masking tape.
Don'ts	Don't use red pens. (Why not?)

3. Overhead Projector

Advantages	You can prepare material n advance. You can use masks and overlays. You can face your audience. You can leave lights on. You can use colour, You can prepare transparencies yourself. You can trace diagrams or pictures. You can duplicate material onto transparencies. You can write reminders on the transparency frame.
Disadvantages	Storage of transparencies is a problem. It is not too portable. It may distract from learning if not used properly. You are separate from the image - the student's attention is split. It relies on electricity, bulbs, etc.
Do's	Switch on/off as needed. Place masks <u>under</u> transparencies. Make sure overhead projector is positioned properly, low and out of the way. Use the right kind of pen. Bring extra pens.
Don'ts	Don't use red pens. Don't put too much detail on one transparency. Don't stand in front of the image blocking the view.

4. Slides

Advantages	Good for pictures illustrating lecture material. Have high quality and high impact when used for maps, diagrams, charts.
Disadvantages	You cannot make them yourself. The light must be low or off. You may lose your audience. Projectors sometimes jam or otherwise foul up. Slides clearly identified.
Do's	Do have them prepared professionally. Have the slides clearly identified.
Don'ts	Don't use for complex notes or diagrams. Don't include too much detail. Don't duplicate orally what is on the slide. Don't leave a slide on too long.

5. Films

Advantages	Good for showing processes, procedures, activities. Good for bringing people "face to face" with personal or social problems of patients, influencing attitudes.
Disadvantages	They depend on electricity, bulbs. They are expensive to make and rent.
Do's	Do preview films before showing. Prepare students - tell them what to look for. Relate the film to course content. Have everything set up in advance and try out. Stop and start as needed. Summarize at the end. Follow up with assignments.
Don'ts	Don't use films as "fillers". Don't use old, outdated films. Don't fall asleep while running the projector.

6. Video

Advantages	Same as films, but also to allow people to "see themselves as others see them" (when used to give feedback). You can produce passable video tapes fairly easily with minimum training.
Disadvantages	Needs several screens in a large room. Equipment is expensive, bulky, not easily portable. It depends on electricity. Equipment failure may occur.
Do's	Set up and test the equipment beforehand. Do all the same hings as for films.
Don'ts	Don't get too wrapped up in technology.

7. Handouts

Advantages	Good for notes, diagrams, pictures, exercises, outlines. Give permanent record for each student. Easily read by everyone. No complicated technical hassles.
Disadvantages	No common focus of attention. Too many may be distracting.
Do's	Have them typed if possible. Make them simple and well-organized. Make enough copies. Explain what you want people to do do with them before handing them out.
Don'ts	Don't duplicate the handout in your lecture. Don't give out before you want people to refer to them in class (except for pre-reading) or before you have explained their purpose.

Think you know overheads well enough to handle them in your sleep? Think again.

How to Use Transparencies: A Refresher Course

By Jane Duncan

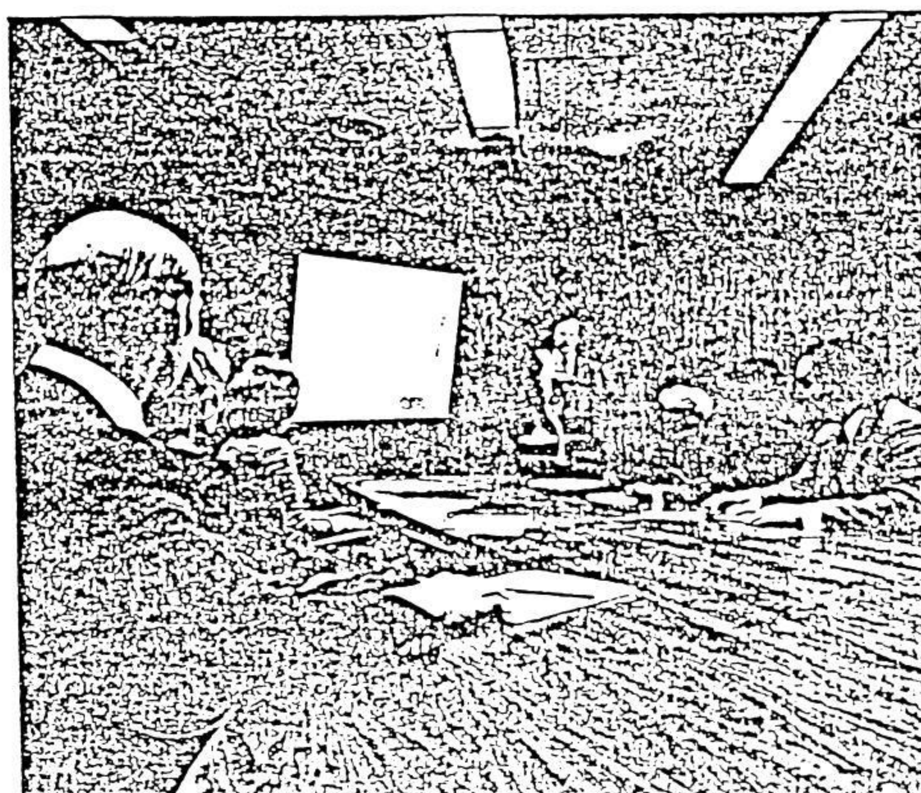
Overhead transparencies have been around a long time. During World War II they were considered the latest technology for military and civilian training. Since then, they have been used routinely by trainers everywhere.

So why do trainers often fumble when they use overheads?

Perhaps the maxim, "Familiarity breeds contempt," is operating here. Overheads have been the workhorse of the training industry for so many years that the novelty has long worn off, the rules have been forgotten and the medium is used carelessly.

The truth is that the overhead projector is still the most versatile tool for lending visual support to a presentation. Transparencies can be produced easily and inexpensively and, if used effectively, can add impact to almost any training session.

To improve your use of transparencies, start by observing others in action. Think about presentations where you were a member of the audience. Could you see the screen?



When you use overhead transparencies, be sure the entire audience can see the screen.

Was the printing illegible? Were the transparencies flipped on and off before you had a chance to absorb the material? Was the machine left on without a transparency in place? Did the speaker merely parrot everything written on the transparency? Many presenters make these common errors when they use transparencies, and noting them is a good start toward improving your own performance.

Too many trainers use the overhead like a reading machine.

Next, review the basics of effective use of transparencies before you make your next presentation. These rules of design, preparation and delivery are not difficult to follow, but they will add immeasurably to your skills as a stand-up trainer.

Design

Outline your presentation, and indicate suitable places where a transparency will add emphasis. Then design the transparencies to add color, intensity, clarity or additional information.

Too many trainers use the overhead like a reading machine, charges Rosemary Tanfani, a visual communications specialist with Creative Office Products, Inc. of Sacramento, CA. They fill up the screen with information and then read everything. A better approach, she says, is to use just a few key words that add emphasis to a single idea. Here are Tanfani's suggestions for improving transparencies:

- Design each transparency to reflect one idea, expressed in a maximum of six lines, with no more than six words per line.
- Make sure the printing is large enough. Orator typeface just won't do, unless you have a small, up-close audience. Use press-on letters, a Kroy-type lettering system or some other method to ensure good visibility.
- Practice making attractive transparencies. Clip art, accents and attention-getting designs, preprinted borders and cartoon characters can be used to make professional-looking transparencies. Color and overlays can be introduced for more interesting visuals. Keep abreast of new technology for producing graphs and lettering.

Preparation

Now that you have designed a professional-looking set of transparencies, the next step is to organize them. Here are some tips:

- Number your transparencies so that if they are knocked to the floor or otherwise shuffled, you can sort them out easily.
- Analyze your transparencies and decide which of them could be eliminated if necessary. Put a red star (or something) in the corner of the expendable ones, and a matching star in the appropriate section of your lecture notes. There may be times when you need to shorten your presentation, and these specially marked transparencies will give you the flexibility to do so gracefully. It's also useful to carry some extra transparencies that you can use to extend a presentation. Flag these with green stars and corresponding marks in your lecture notes. You may never need the extra ammunition, but it will give you confidence that you can modify your presentation smoothly if time constraints change.
- Practice, practice, practice! Even though you've carefully marked your transparencies and their corresponding places in your lecture notes, it's easy to get confused when the presentation is in progress. Practice using the transparencies until your movements become smooth and natural. Practice how to stand and move without blocking the projected image.

After you have spent hours preparing and rehearsing a presentation, the last thing you need is a bungling meeting chairperson who sabotages all your efforts. Remember Murphy's Law and attempt to keep its operation to a minimum. Test the equipment yourself and make sure it is set up before the audience is seated. When things go wrong, it's you, the presenter, who will be judged, not the meeting organizers.

Most common problems can be avoided with careful preparation and by assuming responsibility for logistical details yourself. Follow this procedure:

- Arrive early to oversee setup procedures.
- Verify for yourself that everything is ready; don't rely on somebody else's word.
- Carry an extension cord, just in case. Also, carry a kit of other supplies—tape, scissors, tacks, etc.
- Set up and test equipment. Place the first transparency on the light table and check for proper screen placement and image distortion. Lay out your transparencies in order.
- Test the lighting with a transparency on the light table. Keep the lights as bright as possible while maintaining image clarity. The more light you have, the better you can control the audience.
- Have a contingency plan. What if nothing works? You should be able to give a good presentation just referring to your transparencies as lecture notes. Don't leave malfunctioning equipment in place. Put it out of sight and go on with your presentation without apologies.

Visuals should enhance a presentation, not compete with it.

Effective Delivery

With well-designed transparencies and a carefully thought-out preparation, you are ready to present your material. What you don't need at this point is competition.

Some things are difficult to control. People get up to leave the room. They cough and sneeze. They rustle papers and murmur. But don't compete with yourself by mishandling your transparencies.

When you leave an image on the screen, you are inviting competition. Audience attention is divided between you and the screen. In his book, *Making Effective Presentations* (Training by Design, Inc., New York), Robert B. Nelson addresses this point: "As soon as a visual is exposed, it will attract the attention of the audience. If you are still introducing the topic or the visual, chances are that your spoken word will be missed. When using the overhead projector, you can easily control attention by turning the lights on and off. On individual transparencies, you can cover specific points on a list by sliding a sheet of typing paper between the slide and the machine—then expose your points as you are ready."

Nelson's comments underscore an important rule: Visuals should be used to enhance a presentation, not compete with it.

Here are some other good presentation techniques:

- Don't turn the machine on without a transparency on the light table. This is annoying to the audience. Learn to transfer smoothly from one transparency to another, or turn the machine off between changes.
- Don't distract your audience by walking around waving transparencies in the air.
- Don't look at the screen. Don't keep pointing at it, either. When you do this, you are losing eye contact with the audience. To emphasize something, point to the transparency with a pointer or pen.
- Don't weaken your conclusion by starting to pack up your transparencies while you are still speaking. Turn off the machine and leave the transparencies alone. Then move slightly forward to give your closing remarks. This will focus attention on you and strengthen your close.

By practicing good presentation techniques and using these simple tips to handle transparencies more effectively, you will begin to notice an improvement in your audience's attention. As if by magic, distractions will disappear—fewer people will leave the room, coughing and sneezing will subside, paper rustling and murmuring diminish to a dull roar. You will find yourself in better control of your presentation and your audience. T

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MOTIVATION AND THE TRAINEE

There is little question that the single most all-inclusive aspect of a supervisor's job is the management of people. Of course, the supervisor must manage resources other than people. The challenge to manage people effectively is unquestionably the greatest of all challenges with which the supervisor is continuously confronted.

It is evident that human beings constitute a different type of resource than any other resource which the supervisor is asked to manage. In our society we place great value on the worth of human beings. Human beings have attitudes, values, and sentiments which significantly influence their performance on the job. The feelings which people have toward their supervisor, their job environment, their personal problems and numerous other factors, are often difficult to ascertain; yet they have a tremendous impact ujpon employee performance. This is further complicated by the fact that every human being is a unique individual.

Psychologists who study the subject of human behavior generally are convinced that all behavior of human beings is caused, goal-oriented and motivated. Stating this more broadly, there is a reason for everything that people do. People constantly are striving to attain something that has meaning to them in terms of their own particular needs and in terms of how they see themselves and the world in which they exist. Often we may not be directly aware of why we behave in a certain manner, but even so there are subconscious views that govern the way we behave when confronted with certain situations.

One of the most widely accepted theories of human behavior is that people are motivated and influenced by certain well-defined and more or less predictable needs. Abraham Maslow is credited with having formulated the concept of a hierarchy of human needs. The first level being the basic physiological needs followed by safety, attention and belonging, esteem and self-realization needs.

Physiological needs

At the very lowest level of human needs are the so-called physiological needs. These are needs which everyone has for food, shelter, rest, recreation and other physical necessities of existence. Virtually every employee views his work in part as being a means for taking care of his physical needs. The paycheck enables an individual to purchase the necessities and comforts of life that are vital to his survival.

Safety Needs

Once a person's physical needs are relatively satisfied, however, other needs become important. Identified as the safety (or security) needs, these are needs which we have for protection against danger and threat. These needs are natural reactions which all of us have for a better feeling of control and protection over the uncertainties of life. Many companies, therefore, offer various fringe benefit programs designed to satisfy these needs (life insurance, long term disability insurance, etc.) It is virtually a requirement in this day and age that most companies pay good wages and have a well-rounded package of fringe benefits if they are to attract and keep capable employees.

Social Needs

To many supervisors, the substance of employee motivation is simply to pay enough and offer sufficient fringe benefits in order to maintain a work force that performs reasonably well. They overlook the importance of the higher level needs of human beings which go beyond the physiological and safety levels. The next level of human needs has been identified as the social or belongingness needs. These are needs which people have for a feeling of group identityu, for being part of a group, for being accepted and respected by their peers. Many studies have shown that group motivation can be a powerful influence upon behavior of employees in the work situation.

Esteem Needs

Closely related to the belongingness needs are the so-called esteem (or self-respect) needs. These are needs that everyone has for a feeling of recognition, achievement, status, and a sense of accomplishment. They are very powerful, since they relate to an individual's personal feeling of worth and importance.

Self-Realization Needs

The highest level of needs consists of the self- actualization, self -realization or self-fulfillment needs. These are the highest of human needs, according to Maslow, which most people would like to have satisfied as a result of their life experiences. These are needs that we have for a feeling of fulfillment of our basic capabilities and potentialities, for being fully creative and fully occupied in doing what we want to do to the limit of our capacities.

The only true motivation is self-motivation. That is to say, the supervisor must supervise in such a manner that the individual worker can be self-motivated to perform well because he finds this important to his own particular set of needs.

When the needs of human beings are not satisfied on the job, many workers try to overcome their lack of proper motivation by various types of behavior which are usually detrimental to their performance and to the performance of the organization. A typical approach is for a frustrated employee to resign himself to just "getting by" on the job. This means that he simply goes through the motions and puts in his time without trying to perform in other than an average or marginal manner. He seeks his satisfaction off the job and is content to do only enough to draw a paycheck.

Another approach is for employees to adopt what some writers call detour behavior. These employees find things which constantly distract them from doing the job, and at times they even try to "beat the system." They often are absent, tardy, or break the rules as a way of trying to get back at situations which they find frustrating and non-motivating.

Still other employees who are frustrated, adopt behavior which is aggressive and which ultimately may cause them to leave the job situation. By aggression is meant such conduct as fighting, negative attitudes and temper outbursts. When the situation gets too bad for some employees, they quit or almost force their supervisors to fire them because of their poor performance.

All of these types of reactions to non-motivating situations are undesirable to management interests. Costs of employee turnover, absenteeism, tardiness, poor performance, and generally unsatisfactory conduct on the job can be extremely high to an organization. The most promising supervisory approach for dealing with potentially frustrating job situations is to seek sound solutions to problems by providing more opportunities for motivation in the work place. In other words, supervisors and their organizations must seek better ways to find satisfaction for both the lower level needs and the higher level needs of people on the job.

The age-old problem confronting supervisors has been to determine the degree to which they should utilize supervisory approaches based upon the lower level need v.s. the higher level needs of people. Many writers believe that this is essentially an issue of how supervisors should rely upon their own authority and powers as compared with trying to utilize good human relations practices which provide opportunities for better motivation of workers in relation to their higher level needs. McGregor contrasted the dilemma of choice which faces supervisors and managers. He noted that individual supervisory approaches were largely related to each supervisor's perception or beliefs as to what people were all about. That is, each supervisor will manage his employees according to his own attitudes and ideas about people, their needs and their motivations. For purposes of comparison, he stated that the extremes in contrasting attitudes among managers could be classified as Theory X and Theory Y. Interestingly, X and Y are letters which most of us remember from High School algebra as symbolizing unknowns. In many respects, these theories still are unknown as to their proper actual application in all situations.

The basic elements of Theory X and Theory Y as stated by McGregor are as follows:

Theory X

1. The average human being has an inherent dislike of work and will avoid it if he can.

2. Because of this human characteristic of dislike for work, most people must be coerced, controlled, directed and threatened with punishment to get them to put forth adequate effort toward the achievement of organizational objectives.

3. The average human being prefers to be directed, wishes to avoid responsibility, has relatively little ambition and wants security above all.

Theory Y

1. The expenditure of physical and mental effort in work is as natural as play or rest.

2. External control and the threat of punishment are not the only means of bringing about effort toward organizational objectives. Man will exercise self-direction and self-control in the service of objectives to which he is committed.

3. Commitment to objectives is a function of the rewards associated with their achievement.

4. The average human being learns, under proper conditions, not only to accept, but to seek responsibility.

5. The capacity to exercise a high degree of imagination, ingenuity and creativity in the solution of organizational problems is widely, not narrowly distributed, in the population.

6. Under the conditions of modern industrial life the intellectual potentialities of the average human being are only partially utilized.

It is obvious that the contrast in attitudes and approach is quite extreme. Few supervisors are at the extreme end of either Theory X or Theory Y; most supervisors probably are somewhere in between. The supervisory problem becomes a matter of knowing people, recognizing their needs, and then implementing either a Theory X, Theory Y or middle approach depending upon the circumstances involved.

A supervisor who is Theory X oriented has basically a limited view of people and their capabilities. He feels that individuals must be strictly controlled, directly supervised, and motivated on the basis of money, discipline and authority. Thus, he feels that the key to motivation is in the proper implementation of approaches designed to satisfy the lower level needs of people.

The Theory Y supervisor, however, has a much higher opinion of the capabilities and possibilities of people. He feels that if the proper approach and conditions can be presented, people will exercise self-direction and self-control toward the accomplishment of worthwhile objectives. He recognizes that management's objectives and activities must fit into the scheme of each employee's own particular set of needs. Therefore, the Theory Y manager believes that the higher level needs of people are more important in terms of each employee's own personality and self-development.

Which theory of motivation is correct? The answer to this, of course, is dependent upon the individuals involved, the situation, the supervisor himself, the nature of the organization, and many other complex factors. However, most of the research evidence points in the direction of a Theory Y approach as being more likely to achieve the long-run performance and quality results that supervisors hope to obtain from their employees. Many studies have been conducted, but probably the most convincing of all are the studies of Professors Frederick Herzberg and M. Scott Myers. These researchers demonstrated that many things which management and supervisors have traditionally believed would motivate people serve primarily only to satisfy or dissatisfy, rather than to really motivate performance.

Herzberg conducted a series of studies in which individuals were asked to describe events and circumstances which made them feel particularly good or particularly bad about their jobs. Many questions were asked to employees in order to determine the depth of their feelings, the duration for which these feelings persisted, and what kinds of things made employees feel motivated or frustrated in their job situations. The factors which workers find most objectionable are company policies and adminisgtration; lack of good supervision, both in a technical and human relations sense; poor working conditions; and inadequate payment of wages and fringe benefits. These items tend to dissatisfy rather than to motivate. Where these kinds of factors are negative or lacking, employees will be unhappy and dissatisfied. Even where these items are positive and proper, they do not tend to motivate people strongly. This does not mean to say these factors are unimportant. They are very important, but they are only a start in achieving positive employee motivation.

The things which tend to motivate people more today are primarily related to people themselves and their images of themselves. Opportunities for advancement, greater responsibility, promotion, growth, achievement, and interesting work, consistently are identified as the kinds of factors which make work experiences enjoyable, challenging, meaningful and interesting. Of course, the absence of these factors can be frustrating and non-motivating to the individuals involved. Further, these factors primarily are associated with the higher level needs of people, but they are not easily measured, and certainly they are more difficult to approach in supervisory strategy.

A basic principle of good management is that individuals should be given the authority which is necessary for them to carry out their assigned responsibilities and tasks. This principle is also one of the most important approaches by which supervisors can build positive motivation among employees. The supervisor should delegate as much authority as is needed for an employee to carry out his assignments. Many employees will be willing to accept (and perhaps even welcome) additional duties, additional challenges and additional opportunities to contribute, if the supervisor is willing to allow them to have the necessary authority by which they may carry them out. Yet supervisors often are afraid to give employees additional authority, since they fear that employees will make decisions or do things which could embarrass or hurt the supervisor or the departmental operation. This is a danger that must be recognized, but it is a small one in comparison with the possibilities of attaining better performance. Of course, good judgment must prevail on the part of the supervisor concerning which employees can handle additional responsibilities and authority. Yet the supervisor should constantly seek ways to expand rather than to limit the scope of activities of his subordinates.

A way of delegating authority with responsibility is to give employees new tasks and new work experiences and to seek ways by which the basic nature of the job may be made more meaningful. Employees tire of doing the same old routine and monotonous chores day in and day out. Supervisors should seek ways to enlarge the scope and importance of each job. This can sometimes be accomplished by rotating employees so that everyone has his or her fair share of the challenging as well as the routine jobs. Supervisors are often prone to assign most of the jobs to those employees who are marginal or weak. This can be defeating in the long run. What must be done is to provide opportunities for all employees to find challenging and interesting work experiences. Sometimes this can be accomplished by committee assignments, special provblem-solving tasks, and other unique experiences which go beyond just the routine performance of day-to-day work. Job enlargement and job enrichment projects can do much to improve individual and group motivation and morale.

One of the most effective ways to build a sense of employee pride, teamwork, and motivation is for the supervisor to seek advice, suggestions and information from his employees concerning ways which work should be performed and problems should be solved. Many experiments in group decision making have indicated that work groups typically can help the supervisor in improving his decision making. This does not mean turning over all decisions to employees; nor does it mean just making employees "think" that they are participating in decisions. Rather, it means that the supervisor should earnestly seek employee opinion whenever he can, and he should be willing to be influenced by the suggestions and even the criticisms which employees may offer. Where employees feel that they are really part of a team and that they have a significant influence on the decisions that are made concerning them, they are more willing to accept the decisions and to seek new solutions to future difficult problems.