Formative Evaluation of a Quasi-Algorithmic Training Job Aid

Steven Mc Donnell

A Thesis Equivalent

in

The Department

of .

Education

Presented in Partial Pulfilment of the Requirements for the Degree of Master of Arts at Concordia University Montréal, Québec, Canada

April 1985

© Steven Mc Donnell, 1985

ABSTRACT

Formative Evaluation of a
Quasi-Algorithmic Training Job Aid

Steven Mc Donnell

Research has indicated that many smaller business' trainers are relatively unfamiliar with the processes of the Systems

Approach to Training (Zemke, 1982). Systematic training is essential to help businesses to adapt to a rapidly changing world. A Quasi-Algorithmic Training Job Aid was developed to aid the smaller business trainer in conducting systematic training.

The Job Aid was subjected to the process of Formative Evaluation, during development. The first stage was actually a validation of the content and methodologies by a panel of subject experts. At this time the data gathering questionnaire was also validated. Required changes were made to prepare the Job Aid for small scale testing.

A representative sample of business trainers took part in the small scale testing. Data was gathered by questionnaire and follow-up interviews. Feedback was received that, when implemented, will lead to a refined product.

Simple statistical analysis was done to determine if the size of the business' training function would be reflected

in positive responses to the variable studied. The unexpectedly small sample size unfortunately, meant that the results could not be generalized. However, by combining statistical indicators with other data it would seem that the Job Aid was well received by small business trainers.

The Job Aid was considered by many of the trainers to be a novel approach addressing a critical problem. Several organizations are using the proto-type in their training activities. Overall, the response to the Job Aid has been such to encourage further development.

Dedication

The completion of this Thesis would not have been possible without the support and understanding of many people. This dedication is addressed to them with heartfelt gratitude. Firstly, I would like to thank my Wife, Joan and my twin daughters, Tara and Erin who were alone so often. Next I would like to thank Mr. Alan Scharff who, although he would not admit to knowing why, has been an inspiration to me throughout. I also take this time to thank Dr. D. J. Dicks for his perserverance in what Must have been trying circumstances and Dr. D. P. Sheridan whose store of patience and professional knowledge I could not have done without.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

		Page
CHAPT	TER 1: THE ROLE OF TRAINING IN BUSINESS ORGANIZATIONS	.1
	Training and Organizational Problems	. 2
	Technological Change	. 4
	Skills Obsolescence	. 6
	Career Plateaus	
	Aging of the Workforce	.9
-	Palling Productivity	10
	The Role of the Trainer in Small Business	
`	Organizations	10
	Summary	12
,	Statement of the Problem	13 ′
CHAP!	TER 2: REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE	15
•	Systems Theory and the Business Organization	15
	Systems Theory and Training	17
	Training as a Sub-System Among Sub-Systems	18
	Characteristics of the Training Sub-System	19
	The Elements of the Training Sub-System	22
	Analysis Phase	23
	Design	26
	Instructional Systems Analysis	26
	The Formative Evaluation	27
1	The Summative Evaluation	28
	Putarnal Fusination	20

· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	
Cost-Effectiveness Analysis	.30
Communications of Results	.30
The Method	.31
Characteristics of Algorithms	. 32
The Quasi-Algorithmic Prescription	. 34
The Medium	. 34
Language for Optimizing Graphically Ordered Systems	. 34
LOGOS a Language for Modeling Systems	. 35
LOGOS and Systems	. 37
LOGOS Modifications	. 38
The Training Job Aid	. 38
Summary	. 40
CHAPTER 3: A JUSTIFICATION OF THE CONTENT AND QUASI-	
ALGORITHMIC STRUCTURE OF THE PROTOTYPE TRAINING JOB AID	. 41
The Content	. 41
The Training Process Plowchart	. 42
Determine Organizational Goals	. 43
The Situation Analysis	. 43
Organizational Problem Analysis	. 44
Standards	. 45
Enforce Standards	. 46
Training Problem Analysis	. 47
Prepare Report to Management	. 48
Do Job Analysis	. 49
Develop Course Objectives	.50
Test to Determine if Course Outcomes will Match Job	

' /#	
viii ✓	
Tasks5	1
•	+
Do Purchase or Develop Course Analysis5	
Do Instructional Systems Analysis5	
Do Training Effectiveness Analysis5	
Do Training Cost-Effectiveness Analysis5	5
The Quasi=Algorithmic Structure of the Training Job	1
Aid5	
The Process of Systems Engineering5	
The Training Job Aid as a LOGOS Model5	7
The Target Population Entry Skill Level5	8
Simuation5	8
Summary5	9
CHAPTER 4: FORMATIVE EVALUATION6	0
Part I: Validation by Subject Matter Experts (SMEs)6	0
Process6	1
Results6	2
Problems Associated with the Training Job Aid6	3
Problems Associated with the Questionnaire6	4
Revisions Made as a Result of Phase One Evaluation6	5
Major Revisions Made to the Training Job Aid6	5
Revisions Made to the Questionnaire6	6
Phase II: Small Group Evaluation of the Training Job	
Aid6	6
Description of the Sample Population6	
Pieldtest	
Statistical Analysis	

The Question	
The Results	69
Training and Orga	nizations Taking Part in the
Evaluation	
How the Training	Job Aid was Judged73
Design	73
	74
Usefulness	
Results of the Pollow-U	p Interviews77
Action Taken	79
Summary	80
CHAPTER 5: DISCUSSION AND CO	NCLUSION81
Conclusion	82
6 DEPENDANTES	

List of Tables

Table	1:	Basic LOGOS Symbology93
Table	2:	LOGOS Symbols Modifications95
Table	3:	Organizations Participating in the Evaluation96
Table	4:	Summary of Questionnaire Data97
Table	5:	Summary of Problems from Follow-Up Interviews98

List of Appendices

Appendix	A:	The Training Process Flowchart, with Appendix B
Appendix	B:	The Training Job Aid, in back cover pouch
Appendix	C:	The Questionnaire99
Appendix	D:	Follow-Up Interview Question Format100

Chapterl: The Role of Training in Business Organizations

Business organizations invest billions of dollars yearly in training. Training is viewed as an essential problem solving function (Stein, 1981). However, it is not a panacea for all organizational problems. Training assumes a major role in anticipating and reacting to internal and external organizational problems that are resolvable through learning. These include reducing the impact of technological change on employee skills and knowledge and the effects of individual's career plateaus (Maslach, 1981). To a lessor degree training can also affect employee attitudes and motivation towards work (Kearsley & Compton, 1980).

In 1982, of organizations that conducted formal training, 70% trained employees in supervisory, management development, communications and technical skills. Over 45% were involved in the training of skilled occupations such as sales, clerical and secretarial skills. Finally, 45% conducted formal training in new methods and procedures brought about by technological change (Zemke, 1982).

The United States Training and Census Report (1982) revealed that over 90% of organizations polled felt that training was essential to their operations. This was primarily due to the need for maintaining productivity. In addition, 51% stated that they had difficulty in finding qualified personnel for key jobs which necessitated further training.

The report also clearly indicated that organizations are becoming aware of the value of their personnel investment. For example, it was estimated that by 1985 each American clerical worker would have received an organizational investment of over \$10,000. The days of quick hire and fire were coming to an end (Gardner, 1981). Training was emerging as a system of personnel development within the organization that benefited both the organization and the employee

By 1982, training budgets in the United States, had reached considerable proportions. Nearly three billion dollars were being spent on training yearly. Smaller organizations, with 50-499 employees, spent nearly two-thirds of this amount. Therefore, smaller organizations accounted for about 66% of the U.S. training expenditure (Zemke, 1982).

The census revealed interesting statistics about training personnel. It showed that there were nearly 250,000 professional American trainers. Nearly 57% of organizations with full-time trainers had a training function headed by a professional trainer. Over 125,000 trainers were employed by small business organizations (<500 employees). In addition, these organizations employed a further 515,000 part-time non-professionals.

Training and Organizational Problems

Despite the impressive statistics quoted above indicating that training is well entrenched in the operations of business organizations, there were also alarming indications that all is

not well. In addition, there are formidable organizational challenges that training must address. These problems could well have a determining influence on organizational survival.

Zemke (1982) found that 43% of businesses with 50-99 employees did not conduct formal training. Even 21% of larger organizations, with 100-499 employees, did not have anybody responsible for training, 55% had only a parttime trainer. Unfortunately, many trainers did not possess relevant education or experience for training. Additionally, management has been found to be skeptical about the value of training and inclined to restrict budgets (Craig, 1975). One suspects, therefore, that many business organizations have not effectively met the training challenge. When training is conducted by such organizations it is often devoid of system. As a result, training needs are not properly identified beforehand (Cash & Minter, 1979). Training effectiveness evaluation is either ignored or restricted to measures of how well the trainees enjoyed the course. Whether or not the person can do his job better or that organizational performance improves is usually not determined.

Small business tends to receive little measurable return on its investment dollar when using outside sources. This is usually because the business has not properly identified its needs or determined the relevancy of the product being purchased. This does not mean that all outside sources are bad but they must be carefully evaluated and matched to

needs (Pisher, 1981). Many small business organizations are not able to do this due to a lack of competent personnel.

All business organizations are facing formidable challenges. These have greater impact on the smaller organization because it lacks the resources of the larger and is usually restricted to a small range of activities. The following is a list of problems facing business organizations that are at least partly addressable through training.

Technological Change

According to many researchers technological change poses the greatest challenge to organizations (Warren, 1969; Kaufman, 1974; Ewing, 1970). Ian Wilson (1973) states that the computer is producing a significant impact on the work place. It is revising the nature and content of many jobs, eliminating some and creating others with bewildering rapidity. Wilson asks the question, "What will the people do and how will they do it?" Since he asked this question, the pace of computerization has significantly increased.

Technological change generally advances the production of goods and services to meet demands with fewer workers. This has led to the overall growth in the number of "white collar" workers so that even in manufacturing they now outnumber "blue collar" workers. Furthermore, organizations have flattened their hierarchies so that career mobility in industry has

become blocked. It is now more difficult for a worker to rise above the first level of management (Taviss, 1969).

The introduction of new technology, particularly since 1975, has caused wide dislocation in traditional job areas. The introduction of robots, for example, in the automotive industry has dislocated thousands of assembly line workers. Reissman (1980) has argued that due to technological change, training prior to a job cannot be considered sufficient prerequisite to the job. Instead, he proposes that training be designed to lead employees from non-skilled entry levels to semi- and finally, highly skilled levels. Accrediting job experience would be an added bonus to the system.

Above all, technology has affected the professional such as the engineer, the technician and the manager (Kaufman, 1974). The individual must not only remain current in his own profession but in several ancilliary ones as well. It is not unusual to find an engineer's half-life to be slightly more than five years today before his skills and knowledge are considered obsolete.

Globally, rapid technological change has had a vast impact on organizations that did not anticipate these changes or could not alter their output to cope with them. Traditional labor extensive industries like iron and steel, automotive and textile were particularly hard hit. The impact on the individual has been unemployment, skills obsolescence and career plateaus.

Skills Obsolescence

The main negative manifestation of technological change has been obsolescence. In the individual, obsolescence has been considered a factor in both technical and managerial occupations. In the case of either unskilled or semi-skilled workers, organizations tend to externalize the problem by discharging the workers (Erikson, 1980). In unionized work places displacement is bitterly contested resulting in confrontation and the retention of redundant workers. This is a major factor in low productivity and high unit production costs that lead to the loss of organizational comptetitiveness. Such organizations will go under unless bailed out by massive outside intervention and internal reorganization as in the case of the Chrysler Corporation several years ago. Kaufman (1974) points out that obsolescence has the following characteristics.

Lack of new knowledge and skills. Regardless of occupation, obsolescence occurs when the individual lacks new skills and knowledge. It involves a failure on the part of the individual to keep up to date. There are varying degrees of obsolescence and nobody is ever completely obsolete or current.

Ineffectiveness. The greatest impact obsolescence has had on the professional is resulting ineffectiveness. However, not all cases of ineffectiveness are due to obsolescence. A professional who has the most up to date skills and knowledge but is unwilling or unable to use them is ineffective but not obsolete. Only ineffectiveness that stems from the aging

of skills and knowledge can be considered obsolescence. It may be more relevant to some roles than others. Obsolescence is usually tied to the individual in his current organizational role. If he has lost the requisite skills and knowledge to do his job then he is obsolete. This is called 'job obsolescence'.

Professional obsolescence. The professional who does not keep abreast of current developments in his field is in a condition of professional obsolescence. This will affect his performance in future work roles in his career. This is similiar in concept to potential obsolescence where the professional has not kept current but still performs his job assignment effectively. In these situations the capability of taking on new job assignments with greater responsibilities is limited.

Organizational obsolescence. Obsolescence can have a profound impact on the organization. The greater the number of obsolete persons in the organization, the greater the liklihood of the organization becoming obsolete. Organizational obsolescence can be described as the degree to which professional and skilled workers have failed to keep up to date with skills and knowledge necessary for current and future effective organizational performance. Organizations can become obsolete if key functions like research and development, production, marketing, sales, accounting, personnel and management use methods that are out of date and not as effective as those currently available and employed by competing organizations. Questions that can be asked to determine if an organization

is obsolete include:

- 1. Have products changed little or not at all over long periods of time;
- 2. Have few new methods been introduced;
- 3. Have few new ideas been developed;
- 4. Have errors in decision making increased;
- 5. Has there been an increase in the effectiveness of the competition; and
- 6. Has output been steady or declining.

Kaufman (1974) claims that by the time overt signs of obsolescence have become apparent it may well be too late to save the organization.

Career Plateaus

Raufman (1974) has shown that individuals pass through periods of levelling off in their career development. However, other studies have clouded the issue. Mali (1972) found that professional development peaked in the thirties and declined steadily thereafter. Sparks (1965) reported that peak performance was achieved after the age of fifty. Indications are, according to Kearverny (1983), that career plateaus are most marked between the ages of 30-35, affecting between 59-84% of the professional white collar workers. This is the time that the professional is most likely to quit his job. There does not seem to be a relationship however, between age and plateaus. What does seem apparent is that there are times in any career where an individual's performance may not be optimal

for varying periods of time due to the effects of career plateaus.

The general characteristics of a person in a sustained plateau are marked with feelings of frustration and personal failure. Work is viewed as unimportant with little to look foreward to in the future. Marriage failure, alcohalism and suicides rise during these times.

Aging of the Workforce

This phenomena is also known as 'the greying of the work force' and will become very evident over the next 15 years. Demographic indicators are that there will be a shift in the average age from 28 years to over 40 years in the next 10 years (Leibowitz, Farren & Kaye, 1983). Characteristic of this phenomena will be a decline in the under 25 years of age group that currently represents the largest bulge in the population. $m{J}$ By the year 2000 those over 65 years of age in the Unites States will number more than 32 million persons. The 'Baby Boom' generation will create a bottleneck in the 25-50 years age group. This will lead to intense competition for jobs and promotions. This will be amplified by the likely elimination of compulsary retirement, which will see sons fathers and grandfathers competing with each other (Washington Post, July 82). The implication is that those who have jobs will tend to hold onto them for longer periods of time. The heightened danger of obsolescence and prolonged periods of plateau is clear unless some form of career development is

emplaced to alleviate them.

Falling Productivity

pespite rapid technological changes over the past 20 years, industrial activity has actually declined. In Canada, productivity declined by nearly 10% in 1983 when compared to 1982 figures (Britannica, 1983). Many factors have caused this, but employee attitudes towards work have contributed. Kaufman (1974) states that motivation to work has generally declined although technological change has tended to mask resulting decline in productivity. Fewer individuals select a single career path and many frequently change career goals. Quality work and hard work are no longer viewed as pre-requisites for success. Furthermore, penalties for poor performance are rapidly becoming a thing of the past. A 'doom and gloom' outlook for the future has led many to desire instant gratification of needs and few will wait long enough to commit themselves for long term payoffs.

The Role of the Trainer in Smaller Business Organizations

In 1982 the typical small business training function was a one-person show (Zemke, 1982). Nearly 70% of small business training functions are of this type. The trainer is faced with a formidable challenge. Overall, he must be able to recognize and solve training problems. This must be done with very limited training resources (often with a budget of less than \$10,000). Usually the trainer will be the manager and

instructor. Constraints will severely curtail in-house course development. This means that the trainer must be able to evaluate currently available commercial training programs for adaquacy and appropriateness. Perhaps the most important aspect of his job is to be able to describe effectively to higher management to obtain their commitment (Cullen, Sawjin, & Sisson & Swanson, 1978). Overall, the trainer's role is one of challenge and he/she must possess the requisite skills and knowledge if the function is to survive.

This chapter has discussed the importance and role of training in business organizations. All organizations, regardless of size, face great challenges. These include such problems as technological change, evolving employee work attitudes and obsolescence, both organizational and individual. The results of these problems have been the transformation of many traditional jobs, unemployment and loss of organizational effectivenss.

Career plateaus, while not necessarily caused by obsolescence, have serious organizational implications and to the individual are marked by sub-optimal performance for extended and varying periods of time.

Organizations have responded by spending billions of dollars yearly on training. Yet, despite the effort, many smaller organizations lack established training functions or qualified trainers in those that do exist.

How can these organizations meet the 'training' challenge?

Statement of the Problem

Business organizations are faced with awesome challenges that must be met if they are to survive. These are at least in part addressable through training. Obsolescence is the most obvious sign of an organization in trouble. This is a result of the individuals within the organization failing to keep current in skills and knowledge. The degree to which an organization is obsolete depends on the number of obsolete persons in it (Kaufman, 1974). Technological change is the primary cause of obsolescence (Lee, 1983). Obsolescence results in job displacement among workers and loss of organizational effectiveness.

If an organization is to avoid the pitfalls outlined above it must have ways of anticipating and reacting to change before it is too late. The Systems Approach to Training(SAT) offers a complex but effective methodology to identify and address organizational problems that are resolvable by training (Craig, 1975).

To effectively use the SAT normally requires considerable expertise on the part of the trainer. Unfortunately, as pointed out by Zemke (1982), many trainers, particularly small business trainers, lack these. They are often further hampered by management indifference and lack of resources.

The problem becomes one of finding an effective way of presenting the SAT to the smaller business trainer in an easily

learnable manner that will produce quick results.

Job Aids have been used extensively for many years for complex tasks (Rakow, 1981). They have proven an effective media if properly conceived and designed. Could a job aid for trainers be developed?

The goal of this Project became a study of the current literature to determine what the content and form should be of a Training Job Aid, to help small business trainers to learn and implement the SAT. The Project would also develop and test the Training Job Aid for approrpriateness and make indicated changes to improve its chances of being adopted.

Chapter 2: Review of the Literature

The Design and Content of the Training Job Aid was determined after an extensive review of existing literature. The review concentrated primarily on Systems Theory and Training, Algorithms and Quasi-Algorithms and the design and applications of Job Aless.

Systems Theory and the Business Organization

The business organization can be viewed as a system of organized complexities (Schoderbek, Schoderbek & Kefalas, 1975). This is because it is composed of many different parts that interact in a logical and orderly manner (Tucker, 1964).he organization can also be viewed as a complex 'goal seeking organism' or system. The typical organization is hierarchical in structure, composed of sub-systems of different types. There is continuous interaction between the different sub-systems and the system's environment. Interactions are in the form of feedback loops, the more complex the loop the higher the sub-system's position in the organizational hierarchy. Each sub-system has its own goals and strives to maintain itself in equilibrium within the system. The sum of the sub-system's outputs becomes the system's output. The system's output attempts to fill perceived needs in the environment. The system will use feedback from the environment to identify goals and to remain stable, this is called homeostasis (Ashby, 1976). In Systems Theory the business organization would be termed a cybernetic system' (Odiorne,

1978).

Schoderbek et al state the levels in the organizational hierarchy are readily discernible and their attributes studied. The first level is that of simple goal maintenance. Goals are set higher up in the organization and system's performance is regulated through negative feedback. Goal attainability depends on identified needs in the environment and how well performance can be measured against them. This level cannot actually set up levels of output but only strive to achieve them.

At the second level, deviation from pre-set goals is not automatically reduced as it occurs. The cause of the deviation is analysed and, in the light of experience, the goal can be changed. The ability to make decisions is based on recall or memory. By way of example, a sales manager who has been given set sales levels for a specific time might know from experience that he can expect higher or lower sales levels than the levels he has been given. Accordingly, he adjusts his inventory based on this experience.

The third level is that of reflective goal changing.

Feedback is of an anticipatory nature. The environment is actively searched for information indicating future trends.

This is used to predict impact on the organization. Subtle manipulation of the environment is done to see what happens.

Based on feedback, alterations to goals can be made either to take advantage or to offset the effects. This level is one of

active learning in which experience in similiar situations is recalled and used to meet new requirements. This level sets goals and provides feedback for lower organizational levels. Information is the key to this level's operations, both internal and external. Without external information the organization can only react to environmental changes rather than anticipate them. As illustrated by the North American Automotive Industry in the early 1970's, this mode of operation can have disastorous results. Without internal information problems pertaining to sub-system's operations cannot be perceived and rectified.

Systems Theory and Training

Ideally, training is on the boundary between the second and third levels of the organizational hierarchy. It is generally one of the organization's sub-systems and at least some of its goals are set from above.

As the organization searches its environment for needs that it can meet, problems of production can arise. If the cost of production is so high as to endanger organizational profits then problems are said to exist. Most organizations in the business world exist to make profit. The goal of the training sub-system is to aid the profit sharing ability of the organization by solving those problems that are addressable by learning (Craig, 1975).

The training sub-system actively searches internally

and externally to identify for problems to solve. Deviations from norms are classed as beneficial or harmful. Those that are considered harmful and reducible through training are addressed. Those considered beneficial and amplifiable through training are also addressed. The training sub-system is therefore an important feedback mechanism for the organization. Training needs in the organization can be anticipatory in nature, such as developing training programs in advance of changes due to technological change. This type of behavior is only possible if the sub-system is of an open loop type (Odiorne, 1978). To be open loop, training must function at least partially on the third level. When training goals are set from above but are unrealistic they are reduced, when this occurs the sub-system is operating on the second level. The training sub-system cannot function effectively if it is on the first level.

Training as a Sub-System Among Sub-Systems

The boundaries of the training sub-system are considered to be determined by the range of organizational problems resolvable by learning interventions provided through training. Most training problems will fall into the categories of production and operations (Craig, 1975). These boundaries are quite arbitrary as the distinction between training and other personnel problems is often unclear.

All sub-systems depend on the allocation of scarce resources given by the highest levels in the organization

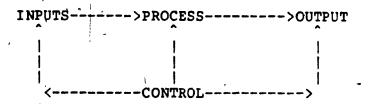
for survival. There is often fierce competition for these resources among the sub-systems (Blauberg, Sadovsky & Yudin, 1977). Those sub-systems that most effectively convert resources to desired outputs will be rewarded by more resource inputs. Those that are inefficient will be deprived of them. Training has been traditionally weak in proving effectiveness and in consequence is often severely restricted or eliminated during times of fiscal restraint (Cullen, Sawjin & Swanson, 1979; Kearsley & Compton, 1980; Zenger & Hargis, 1982). Training must be able to perceive and solve problems that are considered important to the organization in terms of its ability to generate profits. It must solve these problems in a cost-effective and timely manner and express results to the higher levels in terms of cost savings and increased profitability. If this is not done the sub-system can lose its resources (Craig, 1975).

Characteristics of the Training Sub-System_

The Training Sub-System should exhibit characteristics of systems and sub-systems as specified in the the Systems Approach to Training (SAT). This widely accepted approach, is described as, "The application of a logical, interacting series of steps between the identification of a necessary task or problem and the provision of a trained person to do that task. The application of the Systems Approach to Training provides a structure for the management of training; it ensures an orderly approach to the goal of relating training to the job."

(Canadian Forces Publication 9000(1) Part2, 1979). An additional key element, is that Learning Theories are applied to solving identified training problems (Odiorne, 1978).

The training sub-system is basically cybernetic in structure and operation as illustrated below:



As described earlier, the sub-system can either be close loop (Goad, 1982) and Canadian Forces Publication (CFP) 9000(1) Part 2, 1979 or open loop (Odiorne, 1979). It was was felt that Odiorne's model was better suited for this Project because a close loop system can only evaluate its own performance. It cannot determine if its operations helped the organization to achieve its goals. In addition, any organization that chose to operate in the close loop mode could do so by not actively addressing it environment.

Goals are the key to the sub-system's operations and their importance cannot be over-stated. The objective in training, is an outline of the precise performance towards which the training is directed (Mager, 1975; Boston, 1972). Goals form the link between operational requirements and the training process (Griffin, 1982).

From the environment and from within, the organizational training needs are identified. The sub-system processes

these in 'The Analysis Phase' (Goad, 1972; Odiorne, 1978). The results are expressed as training objectives which are written in precise behavioral terms. These become inputs for the next phase, 'The Design Phase' (Craig, 1975; Odiorne, 1979; Boston, 1972). In this phase the objectives are processed into sub-objectives and sub-sub-objectives. These form the link between what the trainee must be able to do and what he must know to do it. At this time learning sequences, teaching methods, training and learning aids are all developed (Gagne & Briggs, 1974; Davis, Alexander & Yelon, 1974; Gropper, 1975; Briggs, 1981). It is here that operational requirements and learning theories meet (This, 1980). This approach is efficient as it maintains, through the objective, the link between operational requirements and training. It is effective as the training is designed to meet the need by taking into account the characteristics of the trainee and the available training resources (Hannum & Briggs, 1982).

The sub-system can be considered effective if the trainee can achieve all objectives. This means that the processes of evaluation and validation are essential control mechanisms of the sub-system. Evaluation is particularly important in the case of newly developed or acquired training programs. The purpose of evaluation is to identify and rectify problems that may exist with the training program itself and as such, is an integral part of the SAT (Dick & Carey, 1978; Briggs & Wager, 1981). Evaluation assess whether

the learner achieved the stated course goals?" (Hannum & Briggs, 1982). Validation is the mechanism that ensures the sub-system's output is meeting identified organizational goals and problems (CFP 9000(1) Part2, 1979). Without validation the sub-system cannot maintain equilibrium.

The elements of the training sub-system are in their own right sub-systems, although the term sub-sub-system will not be used here. The arrangement of the elements is essentially hierarchical in structure (Goad, 1982).

The Elements of the Training Sub-System

The characteristics of the training sub-system were derived from a variety of sources, many already referred to. Few, however, dealt with the process as a complete entity. Basic outlines were provided by Goad (1982) and Craig (1975). These were supported by many specific sources such as Mager (1972) for Objectives, Gropper (1975) for Instructional Systems Analysis, Craig (1975) for Organizational Analysis, Kearsley and Compton (1981) for Training Effectiveness Analysis and Shelley and Cashman (1981) for Systems Analysis and Communications.

It was by synthesizing these sources that the basic training model for the Project was developed (See Appendix A). It is generally acknowledged that these researchers have produced work that is effective in the domains addressed.

Analysis Phase

The key operations for this Phase involved the identification of organizational training needs through analysis. The training sub-system must be aware of the impact of the larger organization on its operations (Schoderbek et al, 1975). It must know the short and long term goals of the organization, this tends to reduce problems that could arise later. Training must align its own goals and policies to those of the organization (Mc Ghee & Thayer, 1961; Kilpatrick, 1975). Usually at this point an organizational chart is constructed (Craig, 1975).

Once a clear idea of the direction the organization will 'be taking is known it becomes possible to determine how training can help it achieve its goals. This is accomplished through the Situation or Organizational Analysis. Many aspects of the organization are studied, including manpower requirements, employee satisfaction and goals. Consistent patterns of problems are noted for further investigation (Becker, 1981). It is also important to predict future organizational trends. This is often done by employing The Delphi Technique. Consistent predicted changes may have future implications in terms of training requirements. Once possible problem areas are identified, they must be analysed for training appropriateness.

Many sources point out that most organizational problems are resolvable through methods other than training (Mc Ghee et al, 1961; Yager, 1981). With this in mind, all problems must

be carefully analysed before committing resources to them. Problems should be ordered begining with the potentially most important one first. Many problems that at first appeared to be training problems will, upon examination, be otherwise. Even training problems should be analysed to determine if cheaper alternate solutions will suffice, such as job aids and checklists (Taylor & Lippiate, 1975; Mager & pipe, 1972). The small business training sub-system possesses few resources and must only commit them in areas that will bring the highest returns on the training investment (Steele, 1981; Becker, 1981).

Once a problem is deemed to be resolvable through training the cost of the problem to the organization must be determined. This often involves the conversion of non-monetary measures such as absenteeism rates, scrap rates, turnover rates and accident rates into dollars. This must be done as the organization communicates through dollars (Craig, 1975). It is also useful to calculate how the problem indirectly affects the organization or what Mager et al (1972) refer to as the 'Ripple Effect'. The total cost of the problem can either be projected over a period of years to realistically heighten the impact.

Before the commitment of training resources is made, higher management's view on the more expensive problems should be obtained. There are times when management will not allow training on a given problem due to unforseen circumstances (Mc Ghee et al, 1961). Only the most expensive management

approved problem that will give the highest payoff should be pursued. Usually, the small training sub-system can only handle one such problem at a time (Steele, 1981).

Once the training problem is identified it is possible to begin the essential last step of the Analysis Phase, the Job Analysis. This actually involves two distinct but highly related processes, the Job Description (Occupational Analysis) and the Task Analysis. This analysis is critical as from it comes the objectives for the next Phase. The Job Description will produce a document that will outline the major responsibilities of the job, how many persons should do it, how well, how often and under what conditions (Craig, 1975). With this information, the extent of the training requirement can be determined and a projection can be made of the number of likely trainees to pass through the training during its lifetime can be made (Ricard, 1981).

The next step is to determine the actual job behaviors.

This is done through the Task Analysis which breaks the job into minute detail. All observable tasks and sub-tasks must be identified and sequenced correctly. It must be possible to do the job from the results of the Task Analysis (Briggs, 1981; Davis et al, 1974). Areas requiring training can be isolated from the analysis and rewritten as performance objectives (Mager, 1975; Mager et al, 1972). There are various techniques for performing the analysis such as the Graphical Task Analysis Technique (Ricard, 1981). This technique results in a flowchart model

of the job. Once the Task Analysis is complete it is possible to enter the next phase, the Design Phase.

Design

In this Phase training course objectives are determined in great detail. These objectives must be derived from training needs. Objectives are broken down into the smallest worthwhile tasks (Mager, 1975). These should then be logically sequenced by going from simple to complex, in order of instruction or in order of performance on the job. At this point, with an overview of what will be taught, it is possible to decide whether to buy or develop the training. Small training sub-systems are usually better off buying training whenever possible due to high developmental costs (Fisher, 1981). Fisher states that even if the training is not ideal it usually can be modified for less than the cost of developing it in-house.

If it is necessary to develop the training, then the process of Instructional Systems Design must be followed.

The Instructional Systems Analysis

The goal of the Instructional Systems Analysis (IA) is to produce instruction that will effectively satisfy the training need. The process begins with the identification of the skills and knowledge that the trainee will require to achieve the instructional objectives. The minimum entry skills are determined by an analysis of the trainees themselves to produce what

is known as a Target Population Report (TPR) (Davis et al, 1974) A detailed analysis of available resources, facilities and instructional skills of instructors is also done at this time. Additionally, the cognitive level of instruction for each instructional objective is determined (Bloom, 1956). This will allow for a match up between instructional needs and methods, media and aids available. At this point schedules can be constructed in light of such factors as saturation, tempo and intellectual activities. In this manner an instructional strategy is developed.

Once the instruction has been developed, it is necessary to go through the process of Formative Evaluation.

Formative Evaluation

Formative Evaluation (FE) is done to identify and eliminate any problems with materials, content, strategy or scheduling before full-scale implementation of the training (Dick et al, 1978). Errors not discovered before implementation can be costly in terms of time and money. Dick et al (1978) detail a three part approach to FE that is very effective. These parts are:

1. One on one testing. This involves the Prototype of the instructional package, the designer and several persons who are representative of the target population. The designer sits with each person throughtout the package while the trainee does it. This process reveals gross errors in the instructional design.

- 2. Small group testing. This second stage involves the course designer, trainers and groups of representative trainees. The instructional package is in a more perfected state at this point. The designer will observe the instructional process as it occurs. Errors in learning sequencing, instructional methods used and general adminstration will be uncovered by the process.

 3. Fieldtest. This stage of the process is undertaken by an actual group of representative trainees and their trainers. The instructional package is in a virtually
- Each succeeding phase of FE results in a more perfect package. This reduces the possibility of having to make costly design changes after implementation. It is not always possible to undertake each part but at least one on one testing must occur before implementation. During the FE process, tests can also be evaluated for face validity and sometimes reliability (Gronlund, 1976).

finished form. The identification of administrative

problems is the primary purpose of this final stage.

Evaluation does not cease once the course is implemented but continues in the guise of Summative Evaluation.

Summative Evaluation

Summative Evaluation(SE) is an ongoing process that is designed to ensure that the course effectively achieves its designed instructional objectives. This is a particularly valuable form of evaluation as it allows for changes to

courses as required due to constantly evolving conditions, such as changes in the Target Population or in training resources and requirements.

· External Evaluation

as it provides feedback to all sub-elements of the system. It has the primary role of measuring the degree to which training addresses the needs for which it was designed. Problems that have occurred at any point in the training process will be brought to light here. The tools of the process are essentially the same as other forms of evaluation, questionnaires and techniques of observation, but they are applied once the the trainee has been back on the job for several months. It is conceivable for instructional objectives to be achieved but the training outcome still may not resolve the original training problem. Validation will show this problem and provide appropriate feedback to eliminate the deviation. It is such an important element of the SAT that it is considered to be the key to, the CFITS(CPP 9000 (Part2) 1979).

Drew (1980) recommends that validation follow a process of establishing a data base through observation then constructing a questionnaire to gather data on a large scale. Care must be taken to ensure that all data is objectively gathered or else the validity of the analysis is at risk (Chase, 1978). Chase recommends that when sample sizes are less than

20 that observation be the sole data gathering instrument.

Data can be gathered through checklists and rating scales in observation. However, subjectivity is a problem with observation and it is difficult to gather statistically useful data with this method. The questionnaire, although time consuming to construct, provides more objective and statistically useful data. The 'Design and Use of Questionnaires in Training', (1975) is a very useful source for questionnaire design.

Cost-Effectiveness Analysis

Proving a course is cost-effective is one of the most important but difficult elements of the training process (Craig, 1975). The purpose of Cost-Effectiveness Analysis is to prove to the organization the value of the results of training exceed the cost of the training. The biggest problem is proving that reductions in accidents rates or in turnover rates are due to training and not other factors. If a course should not prove to be cost-effective it must be altered to become so. Cost-effectiveness can be realistically heightened by projecting the savings over the expected lifetime of the course (Kearsley et al, 1981; Cullen et al, 1978).

Communications of Results

The communication of results to higher authorities is the last step to be included with the training process.

Communication occurs at all times of course, but it is a matter of convenience to separate them by type. Poor

communications have been the downfall of more than one training sub-system (Kelly, 1980; Craig, 1975 & Ricard, 1981). The characteristics of effective communications are in the style, length and the format. These should be concise, systematic and vary according to the management level addressed (Shelley et al, 1981). In training, formal communications should occur in the initial stages of development, the process stage and the reporting of results stage. It is general practice to decrease the size and detail of reports with ascending managerial levels. Terms used should be in the language that the higher authority will relate to and be familiar with, mostly dollars.

The Method

Determining the best method of presenting the SAT to the user was the next step in the research. A wide range of media is available. The appropriate method for the Job Aid was determined by studying the nature of the subject matter, resource constraints and by the characteristics of the intended user population which at that time were very imperfectly understood. The problem was compounded by the variance in skills, knowledge and experience among the intended users (Zemke, 1982). The amount of information that could be presented to them at one time was unknown. There was even doubt about their acceptance of the SAT. The idea was to introduce the SAT in such a way that users would adopt it. The algorithm or quasi-algorithm

seemed to provide a way of achieving this as each is used to present and apply complex rules of decision making and problem solving in many different areas of application (Horabin & Lewis, 1980; Lewis & Woolfendon, 1969).

Algorithms and quasi-algorithms have been successfully used in a variety of training and educational problem situations. They have also been used for the management of training in such organizations as NASA (Duffy, 1976) and the USAF (Caves & Wilkinson 1977). There are many examples of them being used in all aspects of the training process such as the instructional process (Duffy, 1976; Schmid & Gerlach, 1978; Aagard & Bradly, 1976), job and organizational analysis (Tashker et al, 1982; Kopstein, Kingsley & Giebold, 1978) and in evaluation and standards (Kopstein et al, 1978; Aagard et al, 1976).

Before finally deciding to use an algorithmic or quasi-, algorithmic method for the Training Job Aid it was necessary to learn more about them.

Characteristics of Algorithms

An Algorithm is a communications tool which tells people how to do things. It allows them to solve problems that are of interest to them. It should have a carefully designed set of instructions that will allow the user to turn out a nearly perfect performance at once (Horabin and Lewis, 1980). This general description of algorithms is supported by notable others such as Landa (1974) and Kreitzberg and Scheiderman (1975).

The algorithm must possess the properties of Replicability, Resultivity and Generality (Landa, 1974). Resultivity means that no matter how many times the algorithm is followed, for a given procedure, the result will always be correct, provided the user possesses the requisite entry skills to use it.

Replicability, the second attribute of algorithms, implies that the algorithm must be unambiguous. It becomes obvious that instructions have to be absolutely precise as only one course of action can lead to a correct outcome. They must include precise statements of the nature and conditions of each action. Therefore, if two persons perform a given task, following an algorithm for that task, the results will be correct provided that the data sets are the same.

The final attribute of algorithms, is that of Generality. This means that an algorithm must be capable of aclving a whole class of similiar problems. Horabin et al (1980) have shown that Generality depends not on the nature of the subject matter but on laws, natural or man-made. Algorithms developed for science and engineering are called grounded because they are based on hard or grounded laws of nature. Algorithms developed for games or for form filling are called agreemental as the man-made laws they are based on are founded on agreement. The type of law that the algorithm is founded on is of little consequence as long as it possess Generality for that class of problems.

The Quasi-Algorithmic Prescription

It was very clear that the Training Job Aid could not be designed as a true algorithm because it would lack the required precision of outcomes demanded by Landa (1974). Fortunately, Landa (1974) had foreseen such situations and had prepared an alternate solution which he called the quasialgorithm.

The Quasi-Algorithm fits the same general description as given for the algorithm. The only major difference is that the precision of outcomes required for algorithms is relaxed and that Resultivity, Generality and Replicability need be ensured only in a general way. This makes the quasi-algorithm an ideal tool for the Social Sciences such as Education because they allow for the semantic interpretation of results, therefore mathematical derivation is not necessary.

The Medium

In determining which medium to use for the Job Aid a number of factors were considered. The most important ones included expense, user utilization facilities and production time.

This resulted in a paper medium being selected. It was fairly inexpensive to reproduce the Job Aid in this manner both in money and time and it could be guaranteed that the user would be able to use it without special facilities. Additionally, costs of revisions would also be reduced by using paper as the medium.

Language for Optimizing Graphically Ordered Systems (LOGOS)

Of the many possible ways to present the Training Job Aid, the flowchart seemed to offer the best way of efficiently representing the system while at the same time retaining the attributes of the quasi-algorithm. Flowcharts have been used successfully for many years to map out complex computer programs (Kreitzberg, 1975). Horabin et al (1980) provide many useful examples of quasi-algorithmic flowcharts which have been used successfully for training purposes. Silvern (1969, 1972) has used this method over the years with the USAF and other large organizations. His formalized flowcharting language is called LOGOS.

Flowcharting is a visual representation of the ordering and interrelationships between the elements of a system in such a way as to make the whole understandable. In this way the complex training sub-system could be represented in the simplest manner. This would also reinforce the function of the quasi-algorithm which is to provide a conceptual framework of problem solving that would be internalized, through use, by the user (Landa, 1974). Representation of the SAT through flowcharts promised to be useful for showing the novice trainer the logical links between it processes. It was hoped that this would make clearw the reasons why there are so many steps involved in training.

'LOGOS: A Language for Modeling Systems.

Originally, LOGOS was intended to facilitate clear and concise communications by the simplest means (Silvern, 1969).

A clearly defined language forces the author to select from a restricted set of symbols. LOGOS thus becomes either algorithmic or quasi-algorithmic in nature. Silvern Describes LOGOS as a, "...graphic language that uses alphanumerics and other symbols and shapes to represent fundamental vocabulary elements. The purpose of LOGOS is to communicate the thought or concept of a group of words or string of characters in another language."

In its simplest form LOGOS uses alpha characters to form groups of words which, when combined with LOGOS symbols, produce a flowchart. In more advanced applications, the groups of words are supplanted by mathematical equations. This final version is very precise in nature. Originally, Silvern used LOGOS for representing systems in engineering but later used the alpha form for educational applications (Silvern, 1974). The basic LOGOS symbols are illustrated by Table 1.

Insert Table 1 About Here

LOGOS and Systems

LOGOS allows for the representation of system's attributes including:

- 1. The structure of the system;
- 2. The ordering of the parts;
- 3. The relationships between the parts; and
- 4. The relationships between the parts and the whole.

LOGOS can be used to model any variety of systems (Silvern, 1969). If a system is composed of two or more relational systems each part is called a sub-system. When sub-systems are composed of smaller parts these are called sub-systems as well. It is possible to synthesize systems into larger systems called supersystems. This occurs when two seemingly unrelated systems are found to have a clear relationship. This process continues when two seemingly unrelated super-systems are linked to form supra-systems and finally meta-systems.

Systems models using LOGOS are developed through Systems Engineering which includes:

- Analysis. To identify the problem from existing information and to derive the elements and their interrelationships;
- 2. Synthesis. Combines unrelated relationships and their elements into new wholes;
- 3. <u>Models.</u> Designed as constructs, which can predict effectiveness, without implementing the system; and

4. <u>Simulation</u>. The final step, designed to generate alternate solutions.

Silvern (1969) states that for a LOGOS flowchart to be valid it must be developed through System's Engineering. The main advantage to the user is that LOGOS offers the opportunity to analyse the system's elements and their relationships without using mathematical simulation.

LOGOS Modification

For the sake of simplicity, only a subset of LOGOS rules was used for flowchart construction of the Training Job Aid.

Not all of the language elements were used, for the sake of simplicity. Feedforeward Signal Paths, Feedback, Interference and simple intersecting path sysmbols were dispensed with. Other modifications included additional symbols to indicate binary decisions and additional information. It was important that all decision points be clearly indicated and that the user was provided with supporting information which was not part of the LOGOS symbology (See Table 2).

Insert Table 2
About Here

The flowcharts were designed to be scroll-like in appearence as an attempt to simplify the appearence of the flowcharts.

The Training Job Aid

The prototype of the Training Job Aid was developed through a logical and systematic process as outlined in the Literature Review. The Job Aid went through an evolutionary process of design, reconsideration and adjustment to reach its prototype form. One of the biggest problems was in providing the user with sufficient content. It was difficult to determine the cutoff point between overwhelming detail and insufficient. The only logical thing to do was to set the entry skill level at what was hopefully the correct level and see how the Training Job Aid stood up to evaluation and then make required changes.

The overall method of using the Training Job Aid was kept as simple as possible. The Training Process Flowchart (TPF) represents the highest level of the system. As such, it gives an overview to the entire training sub-system, including decision points at that level. The elements with associated sub-systems, have the letter 'A' in their numeric code, for example 1.A. The user simply has to locate flowchart 'l.A Organizational Analysis' to find the sub-system. In addition the flowcharts themselves are provided with margin tabs at the top of each to allow for quick identification, there is also an index provided as an alternate means of identification. For those few sub-systems at the third level of the hierarchy, they are accessed directly . through the associated second level flowchart. As illustrated by Appendix B the basic method of coding maintains the logic and continuity of the process from element to element and level to level(See Appendix B).

The Training Job Aid at this point was considered to be in a sufficiently developed state to undergo formative evaluation. This became the focus of the balance of this Project.

Summary

The Literature Review provided essential background for this Project. It allowed the approach, the content, the medium and the evaluation process to be developed. The result of this was the production of the prototype of the Training Job Aid which was then submitted to the formative evaluation process.

Chapter 3: A Justification of the Content and Quasi-Algorithmic Structure of the Prototype Training Job Aid

The purpose of this section is to justify, by explaining the logic of its content and quasi-algorithmic nature, that the prototype of the Training Job Aid was ready for testing.

It was essential that before testing could begin that the Training Job Aid be in as complete a state as possible. This required that the content and the logic be in place and that the whole be organized as a quasi-algorithm with those attributes prescribed by Landa (1974). Basically, all of the work that could be done without testing had to be done at this point.

The Content

It was difficult to clearly distinguish between content development and the development of the quasi-algorithm using Silvern's (1969) Systems Engineering Approach to Logos Flowchart construction. Obviously the two were highly interrelated. The content was derived exclusively from existing sources as outlined in the Literature Review previously. The reason for doing this was that these researcher's work has been validated in the light of experience. There was no reason to modify it except for adjustments to compensate for entry skill levels of the target population. The logic of each of the sub-system's processes was preserved through the flowcharts. The only 'novel' thing about the approach

was that the whole SAT was presented through LOGOS Flowcharts.

The main concept of each process studied became an element of the Training Process Flowchart (TPF). This is the highest level flowchart of the Training Job Aid.

Supporting detail was incorporated into the second and third level flowcharts. The main sources for the TPF were Ricard (1981), Craig (1975) and Odiorne (1979). Fortunately, the degree of consistency within the literature made it quite easy to standardize the detail. This consistency generally was true of the subordinate detailed flowcharts as well. Variance in the literature seemed to be highly related to the uniqueness of the situation studied. The purpose of the Training Job Aid was to generalize of course.

The following is a brief flowchart by flowchart description of the content of the Training Job Aid.

The Training Process Flowchart

The content of this chart represents the overview of model of the SAT used for this Project. The content is, as outlined above, conventional. The numeric coding and the information flow arrows form the links between the elements and the lower level flowcharts. The user, by referring to the TPF, is presented with a simplification of the training subsystem which is intended to reduce its complexity. The TPF also illustrates major training process decisions to be taken. For simplicity's sake, all decisions are of a binary nature.

Only major feedback loops are provided at this level.

This appears to create a close loop system. However, to undertake the Goal and Situation Analysis requires data form outside the organization, so the sub-system is in fact open loop.

The main purpose of the TPF, in conclusion, is to provide the user with a simplified overview of the sub-system and to illustrate major decision points and feedback loops.

Determine Organizational Goals

The content for this flowchart was derived largely from Schoderbek et al (1975), Craig (1975) and Becker (1981). The purpose of this process is to determine how management perceives organizational goals and the direction the organization will take in the near and long term future. It also gives the trainer insight to the structure of the organizational power hierarchy. By knowing what direction the organization will take and what the goals are it allows the training sub-system to anticipate training needs and to align its own goals with those of the organization. This will maximize the chances of the sub-system being perceived as useful by the organization.

The output from this process, through the TPF, becomes input for the Situation Analysis.

The Situation Analysis

This is a two level flowchart. Its content was largely

derived form Craig (1975) and the CFP 9000(1) Part 2 (1979). It emphasizes the need for deriving potential organizational training problems, both current and future. This is consistent with an open loop training sub-system (Odiorne, 1979).

Questionnaires and interviews are the main data gathering tools and are so critical that an ancilliary flowchart has been developed. This is referred to frequently not only by the Situation Analysis but throughout most of the flowcharts.

The Situation Analysis flowchart is designed to identify broad problem areas and to determine if the organization's situation will interfere with management's objectives determined previously.

Potential problems are arranged from the most expensive problem first and the least last. This is because of the limited training resources available. The training sub-system must invest resources only in those areas with the largest potential payoffs. Problems that would be of interest would be those that interfere with organization performance potential and profit generation.

The output of this process is a list of priorized potential training problems. This becomes input to the Organizational Problem Analysis and is clearly indicated by the TPF.

Organizational Problem Analysis

Important sources for this flowchart were Mager et al, (1972), Mallory (1981), Mc Ghee (1961) and Taylor et al

(1975).

At this point the sub-system is aware of potential training problems as indicated by previous elements in the sub-system. It must now determine which ones are training related. It is essential that only the most serious problems be addressed.

The first stage of the analysis focuses in on the general problem, who says there is a problem, where it appears to be and the validation of its existence.

If a problem does exist the next step is to classify it as training or non-training resolvable. This is done here largely on the basis of a set of criteria derived from Mager et al (1972).

Even if a problem is deemed training resolvable it is analysed further to determine if alternate methods can be used to solve it. Training must be justified as the only method for solving a training problem. If at any time the problem is found resolvable by other means then feedback loops in the flowchart indicate that another problem from the list should be selected for analysis.

If training is deemed the correct solution then this will be the input for the next part of the sub-system.

Standards

Before the training process continues further a critical question must be answered, "Do job standards exist?" Mager et

al, (1972), Mager (1972) and Kelley (1980) provided the sources for the content for this flowchart.

The TPF asks if standards exist for each identified training problem because if a person does not know how well he must perform his job or even what his job tasks are then there is no way to reduce performance discrepencies. Problems will arise that, on the surface, appear to be training problems.

In a small organization it is possible for the trainer to become involved in the establishment of job standards (Becker, 1981). The flowchart provides the process by which this is done. The process is very similiar to performing a Job Analysis.

It is essential that standards be based on objective criteria and be set at logical levels. It is essential that if the standards are consistently met then the problem will disappear. Standards must be dynamic and evolve over time as necessary.

Once standards are established it is necessary for time to pass to determine if the problem has been solved. While this is occurring the TPF indicates that the training sub-system should be addressing other problems on the list.

Enforce Standards .

If standards do exist or they have been set and the problem still exists then it is necessary to determine if they are being enforced. Often the failure to enforce standards is an indication of training problems within

the first level of management. Thus what appeared to be a performance problem can turn out to be a problem of supervisory training (Ricard, 1981; Craig, 1975 & Mager et al, 1972).

This flowchart also has two levels. This reflects the complexity of the problem if it is due to a lack of skills on the part of first level managers. In small business the trainer may be expected to solve this problem (Becker, 1981).

The approach used here is to provide information to the supervisor in the form of checklists, rating scales and even coaching. In the final event it may be necessary to obtain higher management's authority to force the issue.

The flowchart indicates that if it is not possible to enforce standards then there is no need for further intervention. The TPF loops back to choose the next most expensive problem on the list to analyse.

On the other hand, if standards are being enforced and they are realistic and the problem still persists, then it can be addressed as a training problem. The parameters of the problem become input for the Training Problem Analysis Flowchart.

Training Problem Analysis

Ricard (1981) and Craig (1975) provided most of the content for this flowchart.

The flowchart clearly illustrates the importance of

calculating the cost of the training problem in dollars and cents. This involves the translation of many non-dollar units. It is also critical to calculate indirect costs of training as well (Mager et al, 1972).

There are really no major decisions to take within this process as it really outlines how to do an audit of a training problem. This will be used when presenting the problem to management for approval for action to be taken.

The TPF uses the output of this process to compare the cost of each identified training problem. This process is clearly illustrated by feedback loops. Only the most expensive problem will be acted on.

Prepare Report to Management

The main source for this flowchart was Shelley (1981). It was difficult to decide where to place this flowchart as it really is not part of the SAT. Shelley (1981) indicates that major presentation reports are made to management usually at the beginning and the end of projects with updates provided on an agreed upon schedule. Therefore, this flowchart was given two numeric codes to reflect this, even though subelements are only provided with the first it is assumed that the user will understand.

The flowchart outlines the development of a presentation that is directed to the audience in as clear and concise a manner as possible. It also addresses the management level the report is directed to and which report it is, first or last.

Presentation principles and information are also provided. Shelley (1981) points out that presentations made with these principles in mind maximize the chances of success.

In the case of the first presentation, that of the problem, the training sub-system must await management's decision before proceeding with further action on the problem. Mager (1972) points out that sometimes management will not allow action to be taken on a problem for unforseen reasons. If this should happen the TPF will loop back to the next most expensive problem on the list to begin again.

If management allows action on the problem then this will be used as input for the Job Analysis.

Do Job Analysis

The major sources of content for this flowchart were Craig (1975), the CFP 9000(1) Part 2 (1979), Ricard (1981) and Gardner (1981).

This is a crucial stage of the SAT so a fairly detailed two level flowchart was necessary to outline the processes.

Most researchers indicate that both the content and conditions of job performance must be determined in depth. It is also important to determine early in the analysis if major job restructuring is likely in the near future (5 years). These requirements, as well as the need for only objective data, are clearly illustrated by the flowcharts.

The ouput of the process is a detailed job specification.

This allows optimal performance to be measured against actual to help identify training needs. To aid this process the user is provided with a fair amount of suggested data types.

Before the job specification can be produced it is necessary to develop a detailed task inventory of the job. This is where the third level flowchart is needed due to the complexity of the task. This flowchart is based on Ricard's (1981) Graphical Task Analysis technique. The flowchart is set up to illustrate the flow of this process in detail as well as the roles of the participants. The outcome is a highly detailed flowchart showing the tasks, in detail, of the job being analysed. The flowchart also provides critical decisions that must be taken when assessing the outcome of the analysis

The results of the Graphical Task Analysis are returned to the second level flowchart and compiled to produce the job specification. This becomes input for determining training objectives.

Develop Course Objectives

This flowchart represents an essential part of the SAT. Its content was primarily taken from Mager (1972).

The development of course objectives forms a direct link between the Job Analysis and the Problem Analysis. The Pirst part of the flowchart does not involve major decisions. The emphasis is on relating the Job Tasks to Performance Objectives. It is fundamental that these objectives be based only on objective criteria. Once all of



the objectives have been written they must be arranged in sequence.

Most objectives at this point will be too general to be used as course objectives. Therefore, objectives will be broken down into smaller component units. They will be written in the three part format advocated by Mager (1972). These objectives are then assembled in sequence as well. The next step is to determine what constraints could prevent these objectives from being attained.

The final part of the flowchart deals with the development of test items for each course objective. The purpose of such tests is to determine if success on the test means that the trainee can perform the performance objective.

Test to Determine if Course Outcomes will Match Job Tasks

Major sources of the content for this flowchart were Briggs et al (1981), Davis et al (1974).

The purpose of this flowchart is to ensure that training is directly relevant to the job. To ensure this test items are derived for each objective. The flowchart outlines the criteria for test design, test reliability and validity.

Additionally, requisite skills and knowledge needed to achieve each objective are also determined and tested. The tests must ensure that if the individual succeeds at the test he will be able to perform those tasks on the job. This will maintain the link between course objectives and organizational needs.

The output of this process is tested by the TPF for validity. If course objectives do not match job tasks or if test items do not match job performances then the TPF will loop back so alterations can be made.

If all is valid then the output of this flowchart will be used as input to the 'Do Purchase or Develop Course Analysis' flowchart.

Do Purchase or Develop Course Analysis

This essential process is primarily one of analysing information and making decisions on whether to purchase or develop training. The content for this flowchart was derived from Craig (1975), Ricard (1981), Stein (1981), Kilpatrick (1980) and Fisher (1981).

The flowchart reflects the logic of the small business purchasing existing training whenever possible. It is usually cheaper to buy training and then modify it than it is to develop it from scratch.

With course objectives available it is quite straight forward to match these with existing training packages for the best 'fit'. The flowchart also matches constraints with what is available. The general approach is that for small business developing training is a last resort.

The outcome of this process is a decision to either buy or purchase training. If it is necessary to develop the training then the complex process of Instructional Systems

Analysis must be followed.

Do Instructional Systems Analysis

The content of this lengthy flowchart was derived from Briggs (1981), the CFP 9000(1) Part 2 (1979), Davis (1974) and Gropper (1975).

This flowchart begins with what is essentially an inventory of training resources, constraints and the characteristics of the Target Population. These are then matched with intended learner outcomes. When these are related to cognitive levels of learning (Bloom, 1956) instructional objectives are produced.

The next step in the process is the selection of the best choice of media to match the instructional objective. The flowchart takes into consideration that this match must be done in the light of resource constraints.

With the instructional package at this stage of development it becomes possible to calculate the instructional time required for each objective. These times are then summarized to produce an estimate of the training time. Time constraints are then considered and if necessary, alterations are made to the instructional package to conform to them.

Next, lesson plans are developed for each instructional objective. These are based on the principle of the Developmental Lesson Plan. Assessment strategies are also developed at this time. They are based on either 'Norm' or 'Criterion' Referenced Testing types.

When the test items are completed the package is assembled into its complete prototype form to undergo Formative Evaluation. This process involves evaluation by SMEs and then by small group testing. Feedback within the flowchart allows alterations to be made as required. Only when the process is completed can the courseware be finalized.

Do Training Effectiveness Analysis

The output of the 'Run Course' element of the TPF is trained persons. It is essential to determine if they are able to do their job in such a way that the original organizational problem is solved. This form of evaluation is often not done but it is critical to the SAT. Sources for the content included Craig (1975), Hamblin (1974), Gardner (1981) and Cullen (1978).

Initially, the flowchart outlines the ways that data can be gathered to measure trainee performance back on the job. Only objective data must be used for this analysis. It is also important to account for any factor that could cause performance change other than the training intervention. If there are contaminating factors these must be filtered out or accommodated.

Performance changes are summarized to determine if the training was effective. If it was effective a report can be prepared. If it was not then the reason(s) why must be determined. If deficiencies lie in either the course or the trainee changes must be made to the course. Feedback loops in the TPF will allow for this to happen. The cycle will be continued until the

course is considered effective.

Do Training Cost-Effectiveness Analysis

This final flowchart is designed to test to determine if the training was cost-effective. Training must be cost-effective for the training sub-system to be deemed effective. The content of this flowchart was derived from Bell (1983), Craig (1975), Kearsley et al (1980) and Zenger (1982).

The first stage of the analysis involves the assessment of all training costs. These are summarized to produce a total cost. Trainee performance figures are accumulated once they have been back on the job for about three months. Pre-test performance levels are compared to post-training. If the new figures are not higher than the old then the training is automatically not cost-effective. This indicates serious flaws, the cost of these are then calculated. The process will be terminated at this point and the TPF will loop back to allow alterations to occur. It is also possible for post-training performance figures to be higher than pre-training but the net savings may be less than the cost of the training. In this situation the training is not cost effective. The costs will then be calculated and the process terminated as before.

Only when the savings accrued by training exceed costs is training considered to be cost-effective. The TPF will continuously loop until this occurs. When a course is cost-effective the TPF will then loop to pick up another problem and begin the process again.

The Quasi-Algorithmic Structure of the Training Job Aid

The following outlines why the Training Job Aid was considered to possess the attributes of quasi-algorithms.

The Process of Systems Engineering

The prototype of the Training Job Aid had passed through three stages of Silvern's process of Systems Engineering.

These stages were Analysis, Synthesis and Model building.

It could be argued that as these lead to the development of a LOGOS model and that as LOGOS is quasi-algorithmic then the Training Job Aid had to be quasi-algorithmic. The following outlines the process as it was completed at this point:

Analysis. In this phase the initial problem was firstidentified from the materials available for research. Similiarly,
the available research was combed systmatically to derive
the basic content of the system and the system's elements
and their interrelationships;

Synthesis. The overall system had yet to be developed and some content not normally included as part of the SAT had to be logically related. This phase caused the synthesis of all the content plus the user characteristics into a unique version of the SAT; and

Model building. When the SAT was combined with LOGOS flowcharts the model of the SAT was complete and ready for testing.

The Training Job Aid as a LOGOS Model

If the model of the Training Job Aid was to be a quasialgorithm it would have the general characteristics of Resultivity, Generality and Replicability (Landa, 1974). At the completion of the Model Building stage of the Systems Engineering process these attributes could only be assumed until the model was tested.

Generality. This attribute was considered to be present because the content and processes used were not new and had been used successfully in different situations. By way of example, the task analysis is done basically the same way by all organizations, it is usually only the amount of detail that varies. The Training Job Aid sought to reduce this variability by using Task Analysis results as input to the Instructional Systems Analysis Flowchart which specified the level of detail required. The danger at this point, was that ambiguity caused by the degree of detail provided or the medium used might arise.

Replicability and Resultivity. These attributes were largely content related. It was felt that as all sources were well known the liklihood of committing a systems error on content was slight. This was further reduced by prior consulting and experience in those areas sometimes overlooked in the basic SAT, i.e. Situational and Organizational Analysis. By using this approach it was felt that the chances of producing correct and replicable results for similiar types of problems would be maximized. The major potential flaw was that the content and

the medium had to be sufficiently clear to the user that he/she would be able to use the Training Job Aid without ambiguity.

Ambiguity would also be a factor if the entry skill level of the Training Job Aid had been incorrectly set.

The Target Population Entry Skill Level

Although it was acceptable to arbitrarily set the entry skill level it would detract from the general uselfulness of the Training Job Aid if it was beyond the ability of the general target population to use it.

The typical small business oranization trainer is not a training specialist and often lacks relevant skills and experience to operate effectively. He/She is generally a business specialist with some expertise in systems analysis. He/She often works within the constraints of limited budgets, organizational indifference and tight time frames (Zemker 1982).

This description implied that the Training Job Aid had to use non-jargonistic terms, be relatively elementary in approach and be easy to use. Essentially, it would form a bare minimally useble approach that could form a conceptual framework that was expandable in the future.

Simulation

Simulation was the final step of the Systems Engineering Approach. It would test the Training Job Aid to determine if it possessed the attributes of quasi-algorithms and suggest alternatives to improve deficient areas.

Up to this point it was only possible to say that by taking care and by following the Systems Engineering Approach that the chances of the Training Job Aid having the attributes of quasi-algorithms were maximized. The remainder of the Project was devoted to testing the Model with the intent of improving it.

Summary

This chapter formed the link between the Literature Review and the Evaluation phase of the Project. The prototype of the Training Job Aid was judged ready for evaluation because its content and logical flow were in place and the whole Aid had passed through the first three stages of the Systems Engineering Process for LOGOS flowchart construction thereby maximizing its chances of possessing the attributes of quasi-algorithms.

Chapter 6: The Formative Evaluation Process

The objective in formative evaluation was to determine the usefullness of the Training Job Aid as a quasi-algoritmic job aid to trainers in small business organizations.

Usefulness was guaged with the following criteria:

- 1. Correctness of spelling and grammer;
- 2. Clarity of symbology;
- Logical flow;
- 4. Appropriateness of content;
- 5. Clarity of layout; and
- 6. User acceptance and utilization.

As the Training Job Aid was in a prototype state it was not expected to be perfect. Feedback from the evaluation was to be used to make appropriate changes.

PART I: Validation by Subject Matter Experts (SMEs)

The first part of the FE process was in reality a validation of the content and methodology of the flowcharts by a committee SMEs (Gronlund, 1978). The validity of the data gathering questionnaire was also examined. Each SME worked independently. The committee was composed of three members. Changes were made on a two out of three basis. In some cases changes were made on the basis of a single observation provided at least one other member agreed upon re-examining the issue.

The SMEs were drawn from the local training development field. The committee members were:

1. A Professor from the Saint Mary's University MBA Program and private training consultant; 2. A Senior Training Development Officer from
The Canadian Armed Forces Fleet School Halifax
who is also a professor at Saint Mary's; and
3. The Vice-President of Human Resources for
Michelin Tire in New Glascow.

Process

Each member was given the rough prototype of the Training

Job Aid and a guide on what to evaluate. The following areas

were to be considered:

- 1. Errors. These were the most obvious of flaws, including, spelling, grammer, mis-directed arrows and other similiar problems;
- Generality. Would all parts of the Aid be suitable for the organizations it was designed to be used by;
- 3. Resultivity. Would the sub-system as represented, lead to correct results;
- 4. Replicablity. Would the results acheived by various organizations, be similiar in similiar situations; and
- 5. Organization. All of the above would be affected by the logic and content of the Aid as well as by the interpretation of it through the flowcharts.

The SMEs were also left free to identify any other problem areas they might see fit. They were asked to complete their

evaluations within one month.

The questionnaire was to be evaluated by the following criteria:

- Errors. These included spelling, grammatical and typographical;
- 2. <u>Completeness</u>. Did the questionnaire ask sufficient numbers of appropriate questions to yeild the required data;
- 3. Question quality. Were the questions used open ended and unambiguous in nature; and
- 4. Organization. Were all instructions and scales concise and unambiguous in intent.

It should be noted that the questionnaire was in an almost finished form having been produced using the facilities of the CAN8 text formatting editor. The Training Job Aid was in a rather crude, but complete, hand drawn draft form. It was expected that rather more radical changes would have to be made to it before the next Phase than the questionnaire. This is why it was decided to save the expense of word-processing and photo-reduction and to do this when incorporating the corrections and changes of the first Phase.

Results

The overall results of the first Phase were quite encouraging. There was a high degree of consistency between the evaluations which made it easier to make changes.

There was no problem with the organization, as it clearly illustrated the SAT although there were problems with the detail. There were also rather extensive problems associated with the questionnaire.

Problems Associated with the Training Job Aid

The expected errors in grammar, spelling and mis-directed arrowheads did appear. An unexpected type of problem of that nature was the tendency to state descriptors in the negative.

All SMEs indicated that this would distract the user and that all descriptors should be positively stated.

Several rather controversial issues were raised, One revolved around apparent inconsistencies between the structure of the Situational/Organizational Analysis Flowchart and the other flowcharts of the Aid. The problem was that this flowchart had a third level in its hierarchy. The way that it was structured seemed to make this level independent of the second level. This problem was repeated in the Job Analysis and Standards flowcharts although these were not indicated by the evaluators. The appropriateness of using Standards as part of the content of the SAT was also questioned. One SME felt that the Training Job Aid was too complex for the typical small business trainer. His concern was that the complexity would reduce the liklihood of trainers using the Aid. He also felt that the trainers would experience difficulties in correctly interpreting it. This would cause different interpretations which would clearly violate the

criteria for quasi-algorithms.

On a more subjective note, the SMEs as a group felt that the Training Job Aid was a unique approach which addressed a pressing problem and that it could make the basis for an attractive consulting tool.

Problems Associated with the Questionnaire

The committee was generally much more critical of the questionnaire. Other than the obvious expected errors there was a variety of other problems.

The most serious concern was over the 'General Information' section. This was because in the evaluator's view, the organizational attitude towards the Training Job Aid would be largely determined by the attitude towards training in general. This section had to be designed carefully so as to bring this attitude out. Two SME's stated that this section would answer the question, "Can the Training Job Aid be used to educate the small business organization so that it will adopt the SAT?" A negative answer to this question could have led to switching emphasis to larger organizations with established training commitments. The main problem in this section was the use of many closed questions which would detract from the value of the desired data.

The members unanimously stated that the instructions for 'PART C: Content' were totally confusing. Ambiguity through the use of jargon was also a problem. Jargon, it was felt, could

easily lead to misinterpretation by the non-specialist. A final concern was the use of a six point Likert Scale rather than of five. It was also stated that the scale should appear not simply at the top of each section but with each question requiring it.

Revisions as a Result of Phase I Evaluation

All problems affecting 'face validity' were dealt with as they appeared. More serious problems were dealt with on a two out of three basis.

Major Revision to the Training Job Aid

The most extensive changes were made to the Situational/
Organizational Analysis, the Job Analysis and the Standards
Flowcharts. Each had to be revised so they would b consistent
with the other flowcharts in both logic and layout. This
was done by attaching the second and third level flowcharts
together. The entire third level flowchart was encased by
systems boundary lines and given the appropriate numeric code
to relate it back to its parent second level element. Information
flow arrows were then drawn linking the two levels together.
Finally, each third level flowchart was terminated by a
'RETURN' command to clarify the flow of the process. These
changes made the flowcharts consistent with the others of
the Training Job Aid.

The final problem that was corrected was that all negatively worded descriptors were re-worded to reflect the positive.

The question of complexity was not addressed as only one SME thought this was a problem and if it was, this would come out in the fieldtest.

Upon completion of these changes, the Training Job Aid was redone using an AES word processor and phote-reduced to prepare it for the next Phase, the fieldtest (See Appendix C)

Revisions Made to the Questionnaire

Due to the consistencies of the criticisms of the questionnaire, revisions were straightforward. All ambiguous questions were rewritten to be concise and open ended. The instructions for "PART C: Content" were entirely reworked. The instructions were reduced from about eight lines to four. The statements were made concise and worded without jargon. Seven suggested questions were included with "PART A General Information". Finally, all Likert scales were converted to five points and placed besides each question as needed. one.

With these changes the questionnaire was ready to be used as the data gathering tool in Phase II: Evaluation (See Appendix C)

Phase II: Small Group Evaluation of the Training Job Aid

This Phase of the evaluation had two purposes. The first

was to have the Training Job Aid evaluated by a group of users representative of the Target Population. The second was to determine if the Training Job Aid was useful in helping small business organizations conduct systematic training.

It was very difficult to find persons who were willing or able to take the time to participate in the evaluation. There were several persons who were initially willing to take part but who later backed out when told of the size of the job. An additional problem was that there were few organizations in Nova Scotia that fitted the general population for which the Training Job Aid was designed. The result was that only six organizations were recruited to take part. The most serious repercussion of this was that statistical manipulation of the data became extremely difficult.

Description of the Sample Population

Despite the small sample size, every effort was made to obtain a representative cross-section of the population. The purpose of this was to obtain results that could be generalized. With the exception of Taylors et Fils of St. Lambert, Quebec, all organizations were situated in Nova Scotia.

Insert Table 3 About Here

Michelin Tire did not quite fit the general target population characteristics, but given the paucity of the sample

size, it was decided to accept their offer to help out. The person doing the evaluation was not the same one who took part in the first Phase, he was a novice trainer.

The difficulty in obtaining evaluators while being discouraging was by no means unexpected. A professor, in conversation warned, "... since most business in the area is involved in primary industrial activities, with high levels of locally unemployed to draw on, training is not an important consideration. Additionally, many of these organizations are faced with the prospect of going out of business in the near future so that the importance of training is further reduced." These factors would tend to weaken the attractiveness of the Training Job Aid for small business, at least in Nova Scotia.

Fieldtest

Each participating organization was sent the questionnaire and the Training Job Aid. The evaluation was done either by a trainer or the personnel manager. The evaluators were asked to return the questionnaire by the 7th of February 1984, they did not have to return the Training Job Aid. If the questionnaires were outstanding then follow up telephone calls were made.

Statistical Analysis

Due to the smallness of the sample size, only crude data manipulation was possible. The tool used was Pearson's R Correlation.

The Question

It was expected that there would be no correlation between the size of the organizational training function and the attitude displayed towards the following aspects of the Training Job Aid:

- 1. Its usefulness to the organization;
- 2. The value of the content; and
- The logical organization.

If a high correlation between these variables was found, then the implication would be that the Training Job Aid was more useful to larger organizations with more elaborate training activities.

The data was obtained by analysing the information received from each questionnaire. The size of the training function was given in the General Information section. The data relevant for Content, Design and Usefulness was obtained by summarizing the information given for each organization.

The Results

Only five of the questionnaires were returned. The one from Taylors et Fils was too incomplete and had to be discarded. With such a small sample size it would have been impossible to argue that the results obtained were statistically sound. The results can, however, be used as indicators in conjunction with other data from the questionnaire and from later sources. A problem with interpreting the questionnaire data was that

the comments were quite sparse with those questions that had Likert scales. This made it difficult to know why certain responses were made the way they were. As can be seen from Table 4, there was a high correlation between the size of the organizational function and the positive results on the variables studied. This indicated that the Training Job Ais was better accepted by the organizations with larger training functions. The data used for this analysis were obtained be averaging the scores of the Design, Content and Usefulness sections of the questionnaire from each organization.

Insert Table 4 About Here

The results did indicate that a more detailed analysis of the appropriateness of the Training Job Aid for small business would have to be conducted. This was not a totally unexpected result as it had been hinted at previously by evaluators in the first Phase and by other persons consulted on the subject.

Training and Organizations Taking Part in the Evaluation

The following is a compilation of the information received from Part I: General Information of the Questionnaire.

Only Maritime life had a training function that was independent of personnel. Each organization did have a training function, although the size and scope of activities varied.

Training budgets ranged from Crossley Karristan's less than one quarter of one per-cent of the corporate budget to Maritime Life's nearly twenty per-cent. Overall, Michelin Tire spent the most on training with expenditures in the millions of dollars annually.

The size of the training budget was directly related to the number of programs initiated. The number of courses given annually ranged from Crossley Karristan's one to over thirty each by Michelin Tire and Maritime Life. The most commonly conducted courses were in management, supervisory skills, clerical, safety and sales. Michelin Tire was heavily involved in technical computer courses and technical trades cross-training.

Organizational training needs were identified in a number of ways, some were very sophisticated. The favored method was that of using skills inventories. Michelin Tire employed manager involvement strategies to determine needs and to obtain commitment. The needs were identified through the analysis of technological changes, turnover rates, accident rates and corporate performance levels. Farmer's Dairy was involved in a method of managing through performance goals which created a need for management courses. Maritime Life was involved in establishing the automated office which created a training requirement.

Most organizations tended to acquire training programs from outside sources. This included courses offered by equipment sponsoring agencies. Only Michelin Tire and Farmer's Dairy developed and conducted in-house training. Michelin Tire

the organizations felt that training was too slow in providing a return on the investment dollar. Maritime Life's approach was innovative and training received a higher priority as management was involved in the Needs Analysis and Problem, Analysis stages of the training process. They developed a commitment to training as they had invested work in it.

Farmer's Dairy had a high commitment, to training as it was required for persons to attain set performance goals.

Michelin Tire had the greatest commitment of all, even to the extent of having their own technical school. This organization felt that it had to invest in its people to remain competitive.

From the information received, it was expected that Michelin Thire Maritime Life and Farmer's Dairy would react the most favorably to the Training Job Aid. There were to be some suprises.

How the Training Job Aid was Judged

The Design, Content and Usefulness sections of the questionnaire provided the data for the evaluation of the Training Job Aid.

The data from all of the questionnaires was summarized. If an area under evaluation was considered to be satisfactory, no further referral was made to it, unless an important point was raised through a comment. The areas considered to be problems will be dealt with below.

Design

developed almost all of their training while Farmer Dairy had developed one course in the last year.

Outside consultants were used rather infrequently. On the average, each organization used training consultants less than twice a year. Five organizations used consultants as resource persons while Parmer's Dairy used one as an instructor.

Training effectiveness was measured in a variety of ways. The methods used ranged from simplistic to complex. Michelin Tire used complex manpower quality control measures. Parmer's Dairy used cost-benefits analysis and on the job observation. The others did not measure training effectiveness.

All of the organizations upper management, with the exception of Crossley Karristan's, viewed training as being essential and were committed to it. Crossley Karristan's management viewed training as being discretionary. The others generally claimed that management's attitude was demananding but positive.

There were mixed attitudes about accepting the SAT.

Michelin Tire reported that the SAT provided the ideal degree of flexibility required by the organization. Maritime Life felt that it could be accepted by upper management if it was presented properly. The remainder of the organizations felt that it had some interesting points but that overall it was too cumbersome to be of much use.

The priority training received varied from company to company.

Crossley Karristan and Helly Hanson felt that management's \

commitment to training was more verbal than concrete because

Two comments were noted that raised the possiblity of the Training Job Aid being too complex. This was particularly the situation in the case of the one person training function. All organizations, with the exception of Michelin Tire and Maritime Life, felt that the complexity of the Training Job Aid made it nearly useless to them. This appeared to be because of the numerous steps and complex interactions of the elements of the Training Job Aid flowcharts. The evaluators felt that given the limited resources they had that not all of the steps and interactions could be followed. Time was difficult constraint as management expected immediate solutions to training problems. Micheline Tire said the complexity provided was just right for them. All organizations stated that by mounting the flowcharts on the wall the system became even more complex and that the print was too small to read easily. Two evaluators commented that they did not like those flowcharts that were joined together hierarchically because this wasinconsistent with the others.

The Content

The degree of satisfaction varied from flowchart to flowchart. Overall, Farmer's Dairy expressed the most dissatisfaction. They also found the SAT to be totally unsuited for their needs.

Farmer's Dairy stated that under no circumstances would they undertake a complex Instructional Systems Analysis, an Organizational Analysis or a Training Effectiveness Analysis.

This was rather suprising as this organization was employing

very sophisticated management strategies to achieve performance goals. Excluding Farmer's Dairy, three organizations stated that the Instructional Systems Analysis flowchart was too detailed. This problem was of particular concern to the smallest training functions which felt that they simply lacked the manpower to attempt an Instructional Systems Analysis.

Michelin Tire suggested that the Organizational Analysis lacked sufficient depth to be useful. This was because this person frequently used this tool and was familiar with it. On the other hand, Farmer's Dairy considered it to be too detailed for them.

Overall, Micheline Tire and Maritime Life commented that the Training Job Aid was the most complete piece of work on the subject they had ever seen.

Usefulness

This section provided some of the most interesting feedback. Comments ranged from those which were favorable to those that were highly critical. Four organizations stated that they would use the Training Job Aid or some portions of it. The portions that they would use would be those that they had the manpower for and those that would contribute towards what they tended to consider their unique situations. Farmer's Dairy had no use for it all. Maritime Life, Michelin Tire, and Helley Hanson claimed that the Training Job Aid would be useful for keeping track of training activities and to justify training. One person, rather surpisingly, felt that it could be

used to raise embarrassing questions about training within his organization. Michelin Tire intended to use the Training Job Aid as a 'Train the Trainer' instructional tool. One evaluator, from Maritime Life felt that it could be used to form the curriculum for a post-graduate Training Development Program.

In summary, three organizations felt that the Training

Job Aid was too complex to use in its entirety. However,

two of these would use at least the parts that they felt were

relevant to them. Two organizations intended to use the Training

Job Aid in its entirety. The main problems seemed to stem

from limited resources and a certain amount of organizational

resistence to some of the approaches used, particularly the

Instructional Systems Analysis. However, the questions

raised over the complexity and the positive correlation

found between the size of the organization's training function

and its acceptance of the Training Job Aid were troubling.

It did appear that the appropriateness of the Aid for small

business was in doubt, at this time.

With problem areas outlined it was now possible to focus in on them in detail. Farmer's Dairy was of the most interest as it had the most negative attitude. The generally less responsive attitudes of the smaller organizations had to be followed up. Finally, problems dealing with complexity, the medium, layout and any problem not yet brought would be revealed by follow-up interviews. Accordingly, a follow-up interview plan was developed and interviews were conducted. The interview

was designed to be about 30 minutes long and produced very valuable results.

Results of the Follow-Up Interviews

Data that was obtained from the interviews was summarized and resulted in a number of revisions to be made to the Training Job Aid (See Appendix D).

Insert Table 5 About Here

The most important thing learned, that most of Farmer's
Dairy's dissatisfaction was caused by easily corrected problems.
Once these were rectified their attitude became positive. The
following outlines the feedback received by the interviews.

Instructions. Three organizations encountered difficulty with interpreting how to use the Training Job Aid. One of the main sources of the problem were the instructions.

It was generally felt that every single training program contemplated would, in process, have to follow each step of the Training Job Aid. This was the cause of much of the complaints about cumbersomeness and over complexity.

Farmer's Dairy wished to use only those parts of the Training Job Aid that were applicable to them but felt they were restricted from doing so. Other instructions that caused confusion were those dealing with how to set up the flowcharts and how second level flowcharts were referred to from the first

<u>Print size</u>. All agreed that once the flowcharts were wall-mounted, that the print was too small to read. Was it possible to use them in some other fashion?

Language. There was no problem with the vocabulary used with any of the flowcharts. No evaluator reported the slightest problem with interpreting jargon. Farmer's Dairy, however stated that the flowchart containing the Graphical Task Analysis was particularly easy to use because it outlined the process by using the example of how to make an ommlette.

Logic. The organization of the flowcharts was considered to be clear and unambiguous.

Layout. The purpose of having the flowcharts wall-mounted was to give the user an overview, at a glance of the entire SAT. Another purpose was to allow them to plot the progress of their training activities using color coded pins. The interviews unfortunately, revealed just how unsatisfactory this was. It was felt, overall, that this resulted in making the system seem much more complex than it actually was. It was also very impractical to find wall space of the area required to mount the flowcharts, and when they were mounted the print became too small to read, heightening the frustration. Crossley

Karristan suggested that having the flowcharts on flipcharts would make them more practical to use. Two others suggested that it would be more practical to have the flowcharts in a binder with an index.

Complexity. This problem turned out to be a function of the instructions, the layout and the print size of the Training Job Aid. Farmer's Dairy had the misfortune to receive a Training Process Flowchart that had several typographical errors that made them think that they were missing flowcharts or not using the ones they had correctly.

Errors. With the exception of those found by Farmer's Dairy
errors were not a problem.

Through the interviews, it was learned that Crossley Karristan, Michelin Tire and Maritime Life had incorporated the Training Job Aid into their training organizations and that that it had been used to modify certain of their training approaches. Each of these organizations felt that there was money to be made by using the Training Job Aid in a consulting role.

Action Taken

To improve the effectiveness of the Training Job Aid the following steps were taken:

- The flowcharts were modified to fit into a three ring binder. Each flowchart now folds out onto a normal sized desk;
- 2. The Training Process Flowchart was preceded by a set of clear directions;
- 3. An index was provided and each flowchart was further indicated by top margin tab identifiers;
- 4. All errors have been corrected; and
- 5. The Situation Analysis, the Job Analysis, and

The Standards Plowcharts were separated into their individual levels. The levels were linked by numbered information arrows which indicated the flow of the processes.

The outcome of this process were alterations to the Training Job Aid, based on feedback received during each part of the FE process, these were intended to make it more appropriate for the small business trainer. Evaluators indicated that if these revisions were made then the Training Job Aid would meet with their approval. At this time the new version has not been implemented.

Summary

The FE process of this Project corresponded to the final step of Silvern's Systems Engieering Process for LOGOS Flowchart construction. Along the way the Training Process Flowchart was refined, on the basis of feedback received, from crude handwritten charts to the final product. Changes were made to the layout, the medium, spelling, wording and to a certain extent, the logic. There were some suprises, particularly that there was such dissatisfaction with wall-mounting the flowcharts. The final product, however, has been suitably modified to meet the requirements of the user while preserving the essentials of the SAT. The fact that four of the organizations involved in the evaluation have accepted the Training Job Aid in its unmodified form is proof of its appropriateness.

Chapter 7: Discussion and Conclusion

The Training Job Aid was presented in a basically theoretical fashion. Only the Graphical Task Analysis Flowchart was presented through an example, the making of an Ommlette. It has been suggested that the latter might have been a more effective approach. The individual who made this comment felt that the use of the example made the SAT seem more relevant and simpler to understand. It would be interesting to test this approach.

The SAT is more than just an approach to training, it is a philosophy as well. This caused some degree of resistence on the part of certain evaluators. It would be of value to include an effective model of Change Agentry to facilitate the acceptance of the SAT by users. Change Agentry itself is an important role of the trainer in any organization, the current edition of the Training Job Aid overlooks this fact. Therefore, models of Change Agentry should be incorporated into the Training Job Aid.

It is possible that one reason for the mixed reaction to the Job Aid was that the users still lacked the requisite skills and knowledge to execute the processes. This problem might be resolved by conducting group seminars prior to the user going off on his/her own with the Job Aid. It would then be possible to deal with ambiguities as the individual becomes familiar with the training processes through practical simulation exercises and case studies. It might prove necessary to increase the instructional role of the Job Aid even with using the seminar, it may be useful

to develop a reference list or bibliography to accompany each process block of the flowcharts. This would be a major undertaking in terms of both the researcher and on the part of the user to obtain and study the material. Alternatively, it should be possible to provide more information by combining different types of aids. Checklists, rating scales and truth tables could all be useful in backing up the Job Aid in areas where analysis indicated that many users were weak. This approach would still maintain the systems perspective given by flowcharts.

It has become clear that a much more detailed understanding of the Target Population is necessary before developing the Job Aid further. Analysis may indicate that the Job Aid is really only suited for the experienced trainer as an Aide de Memoire, a still valuable function.

This Project did not involve the actual testing of the Job Aid with a real organizational training problem. It would be useful to determine how it would be used under 'operational situations'. It would be interesting to measure the difference in the efficiency of how the problem was solved as compared to previous methods. It would also be valuable to determine if other organizations using the Training Job Aid used it similarly in like situations and were their results comparable. Such tests would be concrete measures of the appropriateness of the Aid.

From flowcharts to computers is really a small step. A possibly very effective medium might well be to develop an

interactive approach based on the content, intent and quasalgorithmic design of the Training Job Aid. The difficulty, until recently, with computers is that they tended not to be able to deal with data that was incomplete or in the least bit ambiguous. The complex interactions between variables in the training process almost indicates an heuristic approach is necessary in places. However, recent advances in artificial intelligence and expert systems has made the possiblity of a truly effective computer based Training Job Aid a reality. In fact, given the apparent lack of skills among trainers this approach may prove to be a salvation if pursued. Expert Systems are being actively explored in Canada by the Department of Defense Research Analysis, to be used in the identification of objects through Towed Array SONAR, an area that until now has been out of the realm of computerization due to vague and often distorted data gathered.

Conclusion

We live in a rapidly changing world where requirements for products, production methods and personal skills are constantly changing. People and organizations are failing to remain current with these changes and are becoming obsolete. The SAT offers a methodology to address this problem. However, it is complex to understand and use and frequently the smaller business training function, where it exists at all, lacks the personnel qualified to use it. Yet, smaller business faces the same challenges as the corporate giants but without their redundancy of resources.

The Training Job Aid was designed to help the smaller business training function to use the SAT. It contains the latest content if the field and has been presented in an effective quasialgorithmic fashion. By following the basic principles of Systems Engineering for LOGOS Flowchart development the quasi-algorithmic attributes have been maximized. Subject-matter experts and evaluators representing a cross-section of the Target Population of users provided the necessary feedback to complete the process.

There were several distracting problems that arose during the course of the Project. The two most serious had to do with the small sample size, which effectively prevented any generalization of results statistically and the apparent lack of knowledge among users. The last problem questioned the appropriateness of the Job Aid for novice trainers and made the Job Aid seem non-user friendly. Even so, the logic and organization of the SAT was still clear to the users and the problem of entry skills is being addressed.

It was rewarding to see that most of the organizations that participated in the evaluation of the Training Job Aid had adopted it for their training functions. This was proof that it had been accepted and that the pressing need for well founded training functions in smaller business organizations was recognized. It was pleasing to be able to conclude that this Project had produced a product that had practical applications, even though the results were not measurable in a strictly experimental fashion.

References

- Aagard, J.A., & Braby, R. <u>Learning Guidelines and Algorithms</u>

 <u>for Types of Training Objectives</u>. Orlando Florida: United

 States Navy Development Group, 1976.
- Ashby, W. R. An Introduction to Cybernetics. London: Mehtuen & Company Limited, 1976.
- Becker, S. P. Analysing Organizational Performance. In R. Zemke,
 L. Spandke, & P. Jones (Eds.), <u>Designing and Delivering</u>

 <u>Cost-Effective Training</u>. Minneapolis: Lakewood Publications,
 1981.
- Becker, S. P. Organizing the One-Person Training Department.

 In R. Zemke, L. Spandke, & P. Jones (Eds.), <u>Designing and Delivering Cost-Effective Training</u>. Minneapolis: Lakewood Publications, 1981.
- Bell, C. How Training Departments Win Budget Battles, <u>Training</u>
 and Development Journal, Sept 1983, 42-49.
- Blauberg, I. V., Sadovsky, V. N., & Yupin, E. G. Systems Theory,
 Philosophical and Methodological Considerations. Moscow:
 Progress Publishers, 1977.
- Bloom, B., S. Taxonomy of Educational Objectives. New York:
 Mc Kay Publishers, 1956.
- Boston, R., E. How to Write and Use Performance Objectives to

 Individualize Instruction. Volume Two: How to Write Performance

 Objectives. Englewood Cliffs: Educational Technology

 Publications, 1972.

- Briggs, L. J., & Wager, W. W. Handbook of Procedures for the

 Design of Instruction (2nd Edition). Englewoods Cliffs:

 Educational Technology Publications, 1981.
- Canadian Forces Publication 9000(1) Part2 Canadian Forces Manual of Individual Training. Department of National Defense,
 Ottawa, 1979.
- Cash, W. B., & Minter, R. L. Consulting Approaches, <u>Training and</u>

 Development Journal, Sept 1979, 26-30.
- Caves, W. E., & Wilkinson, W. L. <u>Dynamic Flight Student Flow</u>

 <u>Model</u>. Washington: George Washington University, 1977.
- Chase, C. I. <u>Measurement for Educational Evaluation</u>, Second Edition Reading: Addison Wesley Publishing Company, 1978.
- Craig, R. L. <u>Training and Development Handbook</u>, A Guide to Human Resource Development. Toronto: Mc Graw Hill Publishers, 1975.
- Crapo, R. Is there a Catalyst in the House?, <u>Training and</u>
 Development Journal, Jan 1981, 66-70.
- Cullen, J. G., Sawjin, S. A., Sisson, G. R., & Swanson, R. A.

 Cost-Effectiveness: A Model for Assessing the Training

 Investment, <u>Training and Development Journal</u>, Jan 1978,

 24-29.
- Davis, R. H., Alexander, L. T., & Yelon, S. L. <u>Learning</u>

 Systems Design An Approach to the Improvement of Instruction.

 Toronto: Mc Graw Hill Book Company, 1974.
- The Design and Use of Questionnaires in Training. Beaconsfield Bucks, Army School of Instructional Design, 1975.
- Dick, W., & Carey, L. The Systematic Design of Instruction.

- Glenview: Scott Foresman & Company, 1978.
- Prew, C. J. Introduction to Designing and Conducting

 Research. Toronto: The C. V. Mosley Company, 1980...
- Duffy, L. R. Design of Training Systems Utility Assessment. Cape

 Canaveral: Cape Kennedy Facility, IBM Federal Systems Division,

 1976.
- Encyclopaedia Britannica, Incorporated. Industrial Review, 1984

 Britannica Book of the Year. Chicago: Encyclopaedia Britannica
 Incorporated, 1984, 431-452.
- End of Compulsary Retirement? Washington Post, July 1982, p.p. 82.
- Erickson, R. J. The Changing Workplace and Workforce, <u>Training</u> and <u>Development Journal</u>, Jan 1980, 62-66.
- Ewing, D. W. <u>Technological Change and Management</u>. Boston:
 Harvard University, Graduate School of Business
 Administration, 1970.
- Fisher, J. E. The Case for Buying Pre-Packaged Training Programs.

 In R. Zemke, L. Spanke, & P. Jones (Eds.), <u>Designing and</u>

 <u>Delivering Cost-Effective Training</u>. Minneapolis: Lakewood

 Publications, 1981.
- Gagne, R. M., & Briggs, L. G. <u>Principles of Instructional Design</u>.

 Orlando: Florida State University, Holt Rinehart and Winston
 Incorporated, 1974.
- Gardner, G. E. Training Intervention in Job Skill Development.

 Reading: Addison Wesley Publications, 1981.
- Garovitz, E. Employee Training, Current Trends, Future Challenges,

- Training and Development Journal, August 1983, 241-307.
- Goad, T., W. <u>Delivering Effective Training</u>. San Diago:
 University Press Incorporated, 1982.
- Griffin, G. The Performance Objective as Bus; <u>Training</u>

 <u>Development Quarterly</u>, vol 9, Spring 1983.
- Gropper, G. L. <u>Diagnosis and Revision in the Development of 'Instructional Materials</u>. Englewoods Cliffs: Educational Technology Publications, 1975.
- Gronlund, N., E. <u>Measurement and Evaluation in Teaching</u>.

 London: Fourth Edition, Eillier Macmillan, 1976.
- Gussman, L., Edwin, T., & Pattison, V. Training the Non-
- Hamblin, A. C. Evaluation and Control of Training. Toronto:

 Mc Graw Hill Book Company, 1974.
- Hannum, W. H., & Briggs, L. J. How Does Instructional System

 Design Differ from Traditional Instruction, Training

 and Development Journal, Jan 1982, 75-86.
- Horabin, I., & Lewis, B. Algorithms, The Instructional Design Library (Vol2). Englewoods Cliffs: Educational Technology Publications, 1980.
- Kaufman, H. Obsolescence and Career Development. New York: AMCO, 1974.
- Rearsley, G., & Compton, T. Assessing Costs, Benefits and Productivity in Training Systems, <u>Training and Development Journal</u>, Oct 1980, 47-51.
- Kearveny, T. J. The Development and Maintenance of Human Resources,

- Training and Development Journal, July 1983, 65-70.
- Kelly, J. Organizational Behavior, Its Data, First Principles and Applications. Homewood: Irwin Dorsey Limited, 1980.
- Kilpatrick, R. L. Evaluating Training Programs. American Society

 for Training and Development, 1975.
- Kopstein, F. F., Kingsley, E. H., & Giebald, G. L. Quasi-Algorithmic

 Methods and Techniques for Specifying Objective Job/Task

 Requirements. London: Institute for Psycho-Logic, 1978.
- Kreitzberg, C., & Scheiderman, B. Fortran Programming; A Spiral Approach. Harcourt: Bruce Jovanavich incorporated, 1975.
- Landa, L.N. Algorithmization in Learning and Instruction.

 Englewoods Cliffs: Educational Technology Publications, 1974.
- Lee, C: Training and Technology, <u>Training Magazine</u>, Aug 1983, 35-41.
- Leibowitz, Z., Farren, C., & Kaye, B. Will Your Organization be
 Doing Career in the Year 2000? <u>Thaining and Development</u>

 <u>Journal</u>, Feb 1983, 14-22.
- Lewis, B. N., & Woolfendon, P. J. Algorithms and Logical Trees, A .

 Self Instructional Course. Cambridge: Algorithm Press, 1969.
- Lippitt, G. B. Quality of Work: Organizational Renewal in Action, Training and Development Journal, Sept 1982, 39-44.
- Mager, R., F. <u>Preparing Instructional Objectives</u>. 2nd edition, Belmont: Fearon Publishers, 1975.
- Mager, R., & Pipe, P. Analysing Performance Problems: Or You Really Oughta Wanna. Belmont: Fearon Publishers, 1972.
- Mali, P. Managing by Objectives; New York: Wiley Interscience,

- Mager, R. F. Goal Analysis. Belmont: Pearon Publishers, 1972.
- Mallory, W. T. A Task Analytical Approach to Specifying Technical Training Needs, <u>Training and Development Journal</u>, Sept 1981, 66-73.
- Markowitz, J. Four Methods of Job Analysis, <u>Training and Development</u>.

 <u>Journal</u>, Sept 1981, 112-118.
- Maslach, C. Measurement of Experienced Burnout, <u>Journal</u> of Occupational Behavior, July 1981, 2, 75-86.
- Mc Ghee, W., & Thayer, P. Training in Business and Industry. New York: John Wiley and Sons Limited, 1961.
- Odiorne A.G., S. How to Suceed in MBO Management; Personnel Administrator, Dec 1979, vol 13, 77-80.
- Ricard, F. Class notes From: The Administration of Educational
 Technology Units. Montreal: Concordia University, 1981.
- Ricard. F. Graphical Task Analysis. Montfeal: Sales Training Development Division, Bell Canada, 1978.
- Rakow, J. Training Job Aid Construction, Training Magazine, Sept 1981, 40-45.
- Russel, M. Career Planning in A Blue Collar Company, Training and Development Journal, Jan 1984, 87-89.
- Schmid, R. F., & Gerlach, V. S. Principles for Developing

 Algorithmic Instruction. Tempe: Arizona State University, 1978.
- Shelley, G., & Cashman, T. <u>Business Systems Analysis and Design</u>.

 Fullerton: Anaheim Publishing Company, 1981.
- Schoderbek, P., Asterios, G., Schoderbek, G., & Kefalas, R.

- Management Systems, Conceptual Considerations. New York:
 Business Publications Incorporated, 1975.
- Silvern, L.C. Systems Approach-What is it? Educational Technology, Jan 1969, 17-27.
- Silvern, L., C. Systems Engineering Applied to Training. Houston:
 Gulf Publishing Company, 1972.
- Steele, J. The One person Training Department. In R. Zemke, L. Spandke, & P. Jones (Eds.), <u>Designing and Delivering Cost-Effective Training</u>. Minneapolis: Lakewood Publications, 1981.
- Stein, D. S. Designing Performance Oriented Training

 Programs, <u>Training and Development Journal</u>, Jan 1981, 65-71.
- Tashker, M., Bell, M., & Chapel, W. <u>Design Analysis</u>. Washington: FAA, Systems Research and Development Division, 1982.
- Taviss, I. <u>Technology and Work</u>. Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1969.
- Taylor, B., & Lippiatte, G. L. Management Development and

 Training Handbook. Toronto: Mc Graw Hill Book Company, 1975.
- This, L. Results Oriented Training Designs, <u>Training and</u>

 <u>Development Journal</u>, April 1971, Republished June 1980,

 14-23.
- Warren, M. W. <u>Training for Results</u>: A Systems Approach to the,

 Development of Human Resources in Industry. Reading: Addison

 Wesley Publishing Company Incorporated, 1969.
 - Yager, E. Caution: Training not a Cure-All. In R. Zemke, L. Spandke, P. Jones (Eds.), <u>Designing and Delivering Cost-</u>

- Effective Training, Minneapolis: Lakewood Pul cations, 1981.
- Sandy, B., Leibowitz, S. B., & Gutteridge, T. Career Development,

 Training and Development Journal, Feb 1983, 12-14.
- Zemke, R., L. Spandke, & P. Jones <u>Designing</u> and <u>Delivering Cost</u>-<u>Effective Training</u>. Minneapolis: Lakewood Publications, 1981.
- Semke, R. U.S. Training Census and Trend Report, 1982, <u>Training</u>, Aug 1982, 16-49.
- Zenger, J. H., & Hargis, K. Assessing Training Results, It's Time to Take the Plunge, <u>Training and Development Journal</u>, Jan 1982, 10-17.

TABLE 1
BASIC LOGOS SYMBOLOGY

SYMBOL	NAME	FUNCTION
1.	Rectangle .	Represents system process elements
2	Descriptor	A group of 1-5 words that describes the function of the element. It must be \$\pi\$ concise and unambiguous
2.0	Numeric Code	Major functions are coded numerically. Together they form the first level of detail. Levels are indicated 1.1, the second level, 1.1, the third and so on.
4>	Signal Path	Indicates, by the arrowhead, the direction the informatio is carried. Information can be carried in one direction.
5	Input and Output Signal Paths ->	Information entering and exiting a systems element.
6.	Crossing Signal Paths	Signal paths may cross if there is no relationship. If there is, then they are joined by an arrowhead at the point of intersection.

table 1 cont.

7. ----> 2.0 2.0---->

Input or Output from Distant Functions Indicates to and from the signal is directed

8. P

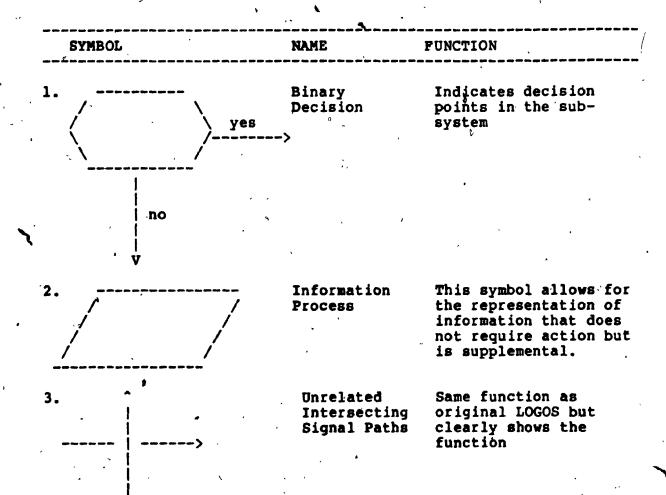
Feedback Signal . Path

If the signal path creates a closed loop system and controls the output of the same preceding system, then then this is a feedback signal path.

9. F.F. Peedforward Signal Path

If the output from a subsystems is input to another but there are intervening, but unrelated sub-systems, then a feedforward signal path is generated.

TABLE 2
LOGOS SYMBOLS MODIFICATIONS



Ÿ.

TABLE 3

ORGANIZATIONS PARTICIPATING IN THE EVALUATION

FUNCTION I	INDEPENDENT TRAINING *		
RETAIL	NO		
DAIRY RETAIL	NO		
SURVIVAL EQUIPME RETAIL	nt no		
SERVICE	YES		
MANUFACTURING	NO		
CLOTHING RETAIL	NO		
	RETAIL DAIRY RETAIL SURVIVAL EQUIPME RETAIL SERVICE MANUPACTURING		

^{*} Is the Training Function independent of the Personnel Function

TABLE 4

SUMMARY OF QUESTIONNAIRE DATA

ORGANIZATION ,	number of Trainers	Part of Quest.	Summary	Correlation & Validity
1. Crossley Karristan	2	DESIGN	`3.125	r=.73
2. Farmer's Dairy	, 1 .		2.63	; y=85% ·
3. Helley Hanson	2		3.21	·
4. Maritime Life	3	4,	3:37	*
5. Michelin Tire	16		3.63	·
	•		• ,	•
1. Crossley Karristan	2,	CONTENT	2.72	r=.63
2. Farmer's Dairy	1 ,		1.50	\$ 08=v
3. Helley Hanson	2		2.90	
4. Maritime Life	3	، سه	3.00	,
5. Michelin Tire	16		3.43	
1. Crossley Karristan	2	`USEFULNES	s,3.13° /	r=.71
2. Farmer's Dairy	ı	•	1.25	* v=85%~
3. Helley Hanson	. 2	8	2.71	
4. Maritime Life	3		3.00	
5. Michelin Tire	լ 16 ՝ •	¥ ****	3.75	,

TABLE 5

SUMMARY OF PROBLEMS FROM FOLLOW-UP INTERVIEWS

PROBLEM * TYPE	NO PROBLEM *	PROBLEM *
Instructions	2	3
Print Size	0	5
Logic	5	0
Language	5	. 0
Layout	. 2	3
Complexity	4	1
Errors n=5	4	1

^{*} Numbers refer to organizations that expressed difficulty or no difficulty with each of the listed problem types.

QUESTIONNAIRE INSTRUCTIONS

This Questionnaire is subdivided into the following topics:

- 1. General Questions;
- Design Questions;
- 3. Content Questions; and
- 4. Usefulness Questions.
- Part A: General Questions: Please give a brief answer to each of the questions or N/A.
- Part B: Design Questions: For each question circle the appropriate number on the RATING SCALE provided. If further explanation is needed space is provided below each question.
 - Part C: Content Questions: Examine each of the flowcharts and give your assessment of the level of detail.
 - Part D: Usefulness Questions: Same as Part B.

Please complete the Questionnaire and return it using the pre-posted and self-addressed envelope provided. As this information is VITAL to this project please return the Questionnaire no later than the date indicated in the covering letter.

Thank You for your co-operation on this Project!

COVERING LETTER

Mr. S. Mc Donnell 166 Amaranth Cr. Dartmouth, N.S.

Dear (whoever):

As per our conversation of (whenever) I have sent you this package which should contain;

1. The Algorithm

2. The Questionnaire

3. Self-addressed pre-stamped return envelope

I would like to thank you very much for donating your time to help evaluate the Algorithm. Without your co-operation the completion of this project would not be possible. As you know the Algorithm is basically in a prototype form but with your help it may soon be available to aid the small business trainer.

Would you be be so kind as to return the completed Questionnaire to me by (whenever).

Sincerely

S. Mc Donnell

Organization? . Who is responsible for training in your Organization?
Who is responsible for training in your Organization? If there is a training function, then how many full/
. If there is a training function, then how many full/
Who is responsible for training in your Organization? If there is a training function, then how many full/part-time training personnel are there?
I. If there is a training function, then how many full/part-time training personnel are there?
I. If there is a training function, then how many full/ part-time training personnel are there?
4. If there is a training function, then how many full/ part-time training personnel are there?
1
5. How many training persons have training related degrees/co

7. In the past year, what training programs have you conducted? in the past year?

Part A: General Information cont:

0	Driefly departs boy bysining made and departs and
	Briefly describe how training needs are identified?
9.	If any recent changes have caused a need for new training activities briefly outline what they are and how they generated needs.
10	. Where are training courses/materials normally acquired?
11	. If outside consultants are used for training, how often are they used.
12	. How are training results measured?
13.	. How has management reacted to training in the past?

Part A: General Information cont:

14. How suitable is the Systems Approach to Training for your training function?

15. What level of priority is training given by your Organization?

16. Why is training given the priority it has?

300

•

Part B: Design:		•	very		uff	ici	ent	ver good
				i	2	.3	4	5
					<u> </u>	_ `		ı
l. How clear is the crainer?	layout of	the Algor	ithm to a	no	n-'			,
	-			1	2	/3	4	5
RATING							,	
2. How clearly is the training function	role of the	e one pers	son lgorithm?	•			١	
							•	
		,	•	1	2	3	4	5
		,		1	2	3	*	. 5
		elements	and sub-				4	5
Are the relationsh easily discernible	?	elements	and sub-				4	5
		elements	and sub-	-ele	 men		4	5
3. Are the relationsh easily discernible	? ~	elements	and sub-	-ele	 men		4	5
easily discernible	? ~	elements	and sub-	-ele	 men		4	5
easily discernible	? ~	elements	and sub-	-ele	 men		4	5
easily discernible	? ~	elements	and sub-	-ele	 men		4	5

ra.	it B	: Design con	• •		ľ	*,		ł		,
5.	Are	the symbols	employed cle	ear in mean:	`.* Lng?	1	2	3	4	5
			•	,	•			•		
6.	How	practical is	s it to use t	he Algorit	bm?	1	2	3	4	5
7.	How	difficult is	s it to read	the Algori	thm?	1	2	3	4	5
8.	Is	the print use	ed sufficient	ly large fo	or easy re	ading?	2	3	4	5

Part C: Content cont:

ins	suffic	ient	ade	qua	te	comp	lete
		:		:		1 .	
		1	2	3	4	5	

ELEMENT FROM TRAINING PROCESS FLOWCHART

Determine						
Corporate						
Goals/Obje-						
•,	1	2	3	4	5	
Do Cityotian (:	•		,		
Do Situation/ Organizational						
Organizacionai ,	1	ໍ 2	3	4	5	
f)	_	, 2	,	•	,	
Do Organizational				-	•	
Problem Analysis	, 1	2	3	4	5	
- ',	, ' •		-	•		
Establish	•					
Performance	•	•	٠ _		_	
Standards	1.	2	. 3	4	5	ı
Do Training	, .		٠ ،			
Problem Cost	9		Y			
Analysis	1	2	3	4	5	
_		a				
Choose Problem	٠	1				
with Greatest	: .					
Cost Impact on Organization	1		3	`	5	
Organización .	_	٠.	. 3	ê 🕶	3	
Make Higher			,			
Management	.*		e 6			
Aware of		•	_ •			
Problem	1	2	3	4	5	
Do Task						
Analysis of	,					
Problem	1	2	.3	4	· 5	
1.	_	_	•	-	•	
Develop Course	_					
Objectives	1	2 .	3	4	5	
• .						

Part C: Content:

Do Purchase or Develop Course Analysis

1,2 3 4 5

Do Instructional Systems Analysis

1 2 3 4 5

Do Training Effectivenss Analysis

1 2 3 4 5

Do Cost-Effectiveness/Benefits
Analysis

1 2 3 4

Part D: Usefulness:

useless adequate useful

1. How will you be able to use the Algorithm in your work?

2. How Does the Algorithm make it easier to keep track of the training process?

1 2 3 4 5

3. Does the Algorithm cause questions to be raised about the training process in your Organization?

4. How will the Algorithm aid in helping to make management more aware of the importance of the training function?

1 2 3 4

Pā	it n; nseintuess cout:	•	•	, -	. '		٠, -
5.	How useful is the Algorithm to n Development field?	ewcomers to the	e Tra	ini	ng	,	
•			1	2	3	4	. 5
	,		•			•	
		- ,				-	-
				ι			
 6.	How will you personally use the	Algorithm?		•	•		
		,	. 1	2	3	4	5
		•		•			
	.	,					
		•	•				
7.	Why does the Algorithm help to g to training problem solutions?	enerate ideas	that	 lea	đ		
	bo training problem boracrons.	•	1	2	3	4	5
		,			,		J
				,			
		,		_	•		
				_			
8.	Would you recommend that the Algeor general use (published)?	orithm be avai:	lable				
8.	Would you recommend that the Algebra general use (published)?	orithm be avai	lable 1	2,	3	4	5
8.		orithm be avai	lable 1	2,	3	4	5
8.	for general use (published)?	orithm be avai	lable 1	2,	3	4	5

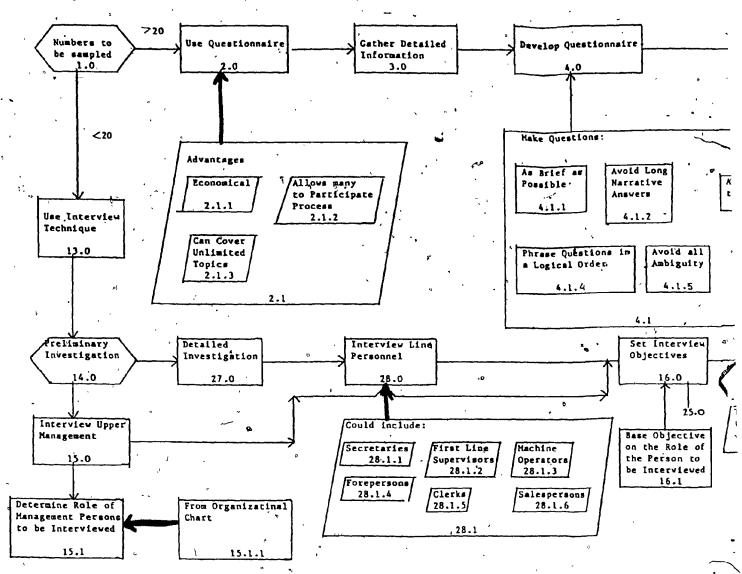
Thank You!

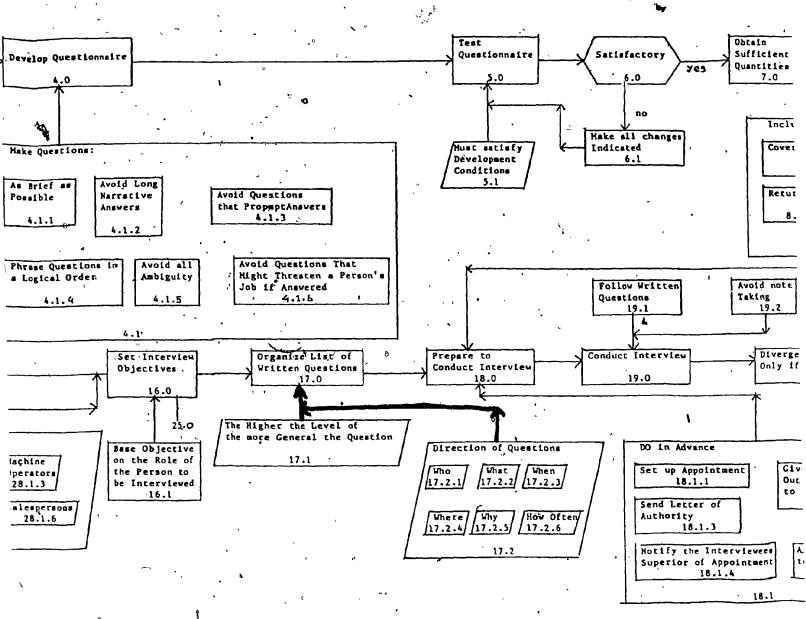
APPENDIX D

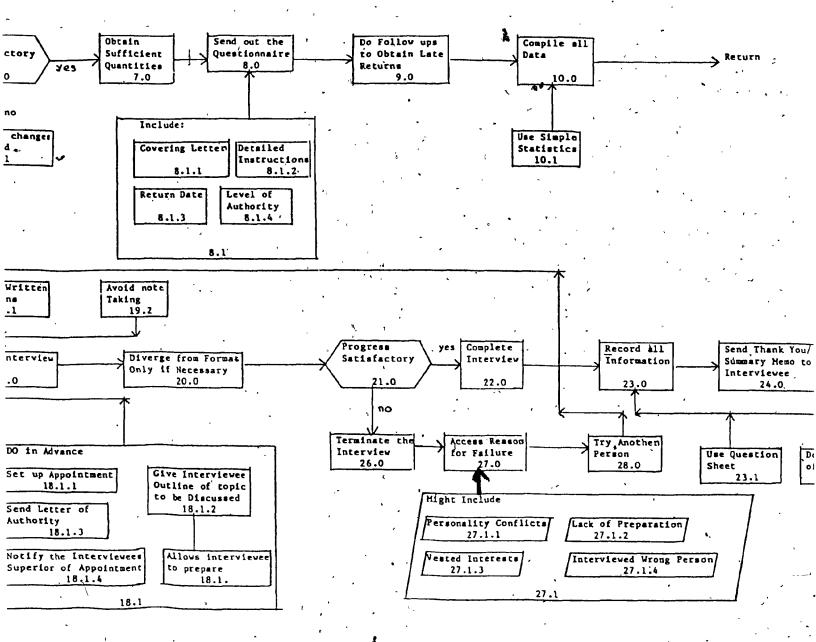
FOLLOW-UP INTERVIEW QUESTION FORMAT

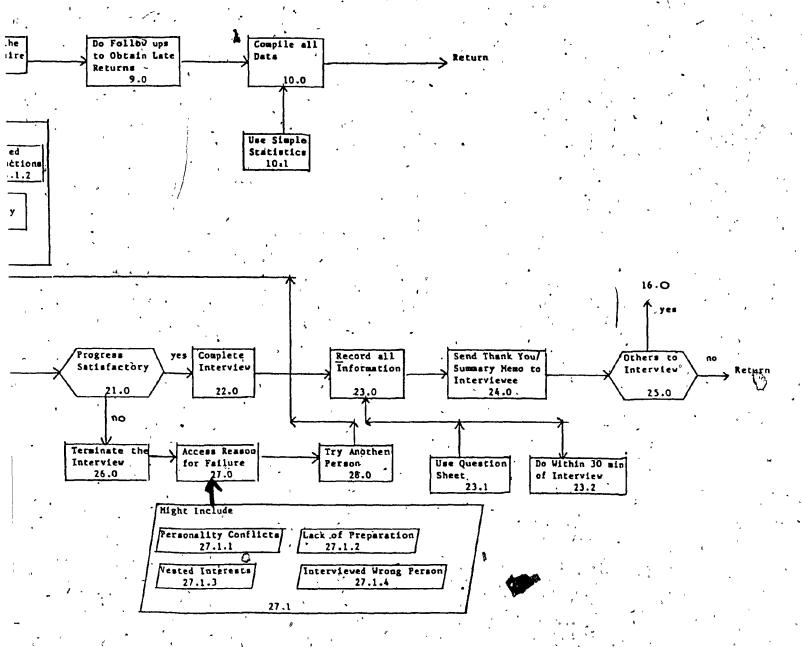
- 1. How clear are the instructions of the Training Job Aid? (If a problem, why, how often and where)
- Which of the following are too complex, why?
 - -Do Organizational Analysis -
 - -Choose the Problem with the Greatest impact on the Organization
 - -Do- Job/Task Analysis
 - -Do Modified Instructional Analysis
 - -Do Instructional Systems Analysis
 - -Determine Corporate Goals/Objectives
- 3. How would you simplify all of the above?
- 4. Why do you feel the Training Job Aid is too complex? (Will depend on response given in questionnaire)
- 5. How could it be made useful to you?
- 6. Which parts are unnecessary to you?
- 7. Which terms are ambiguous?
- 8. How would you describe the logic and clarity of the Training Job Aid?
- 9. What would you do to improve the Training Job Aid that we have not already discussed?

INFORMATION GATHERING: INTERVIEWS AND QUESTIONNAIRES

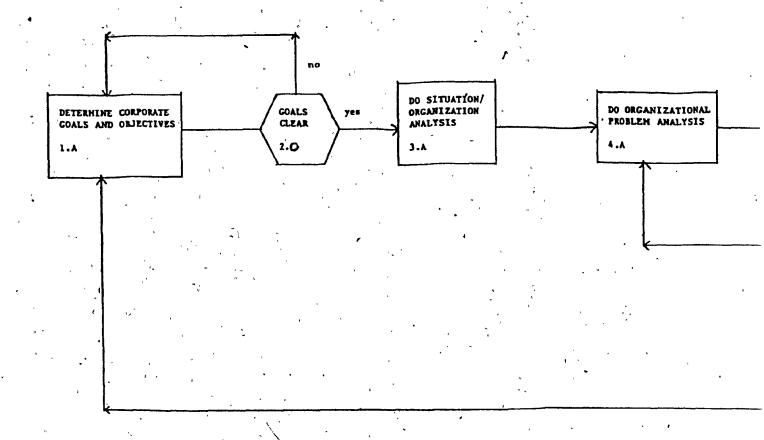


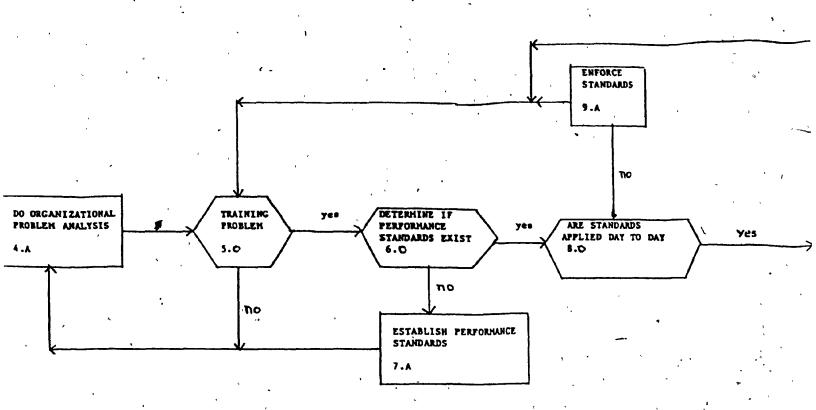


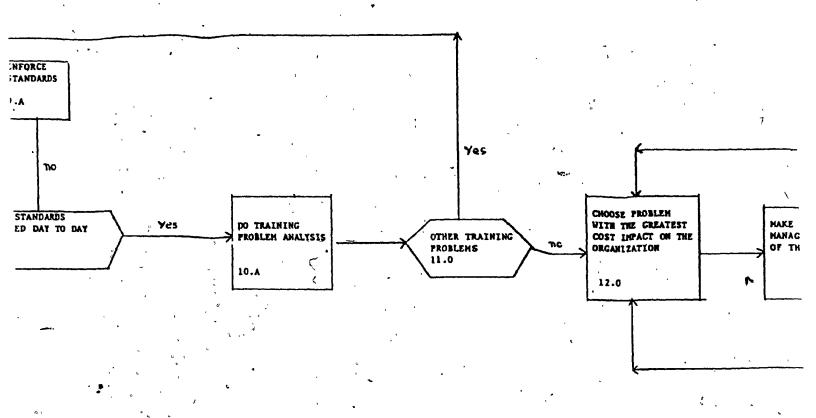


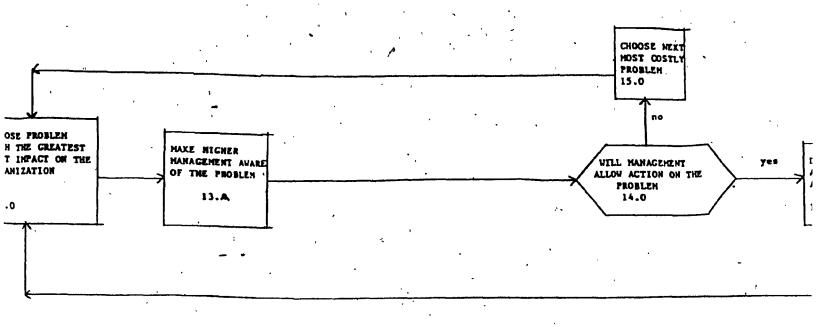


4 of il

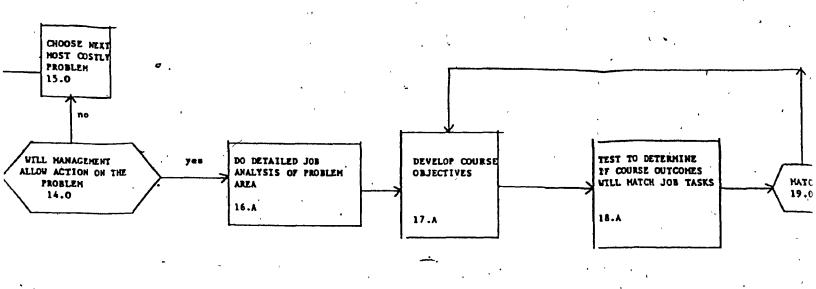






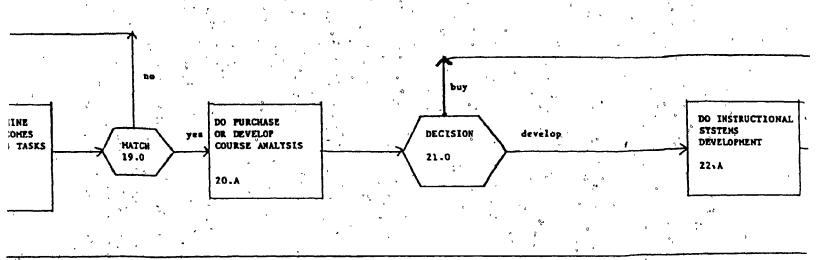


4.5

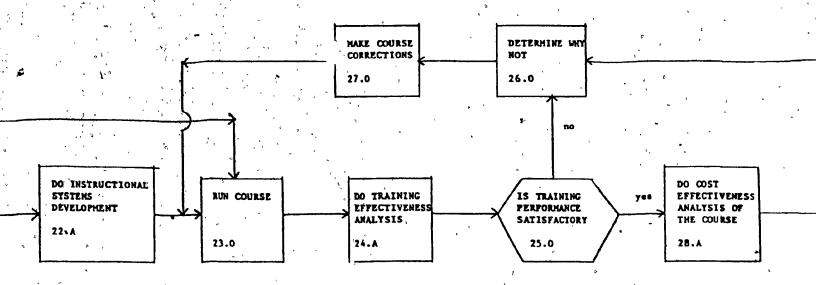


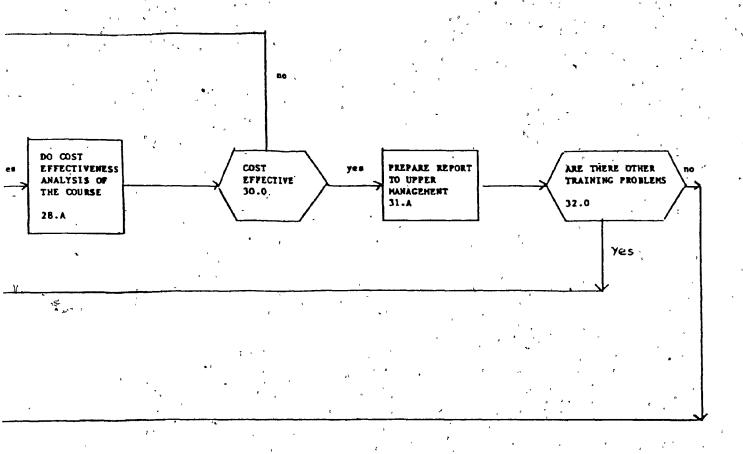
. .

50/

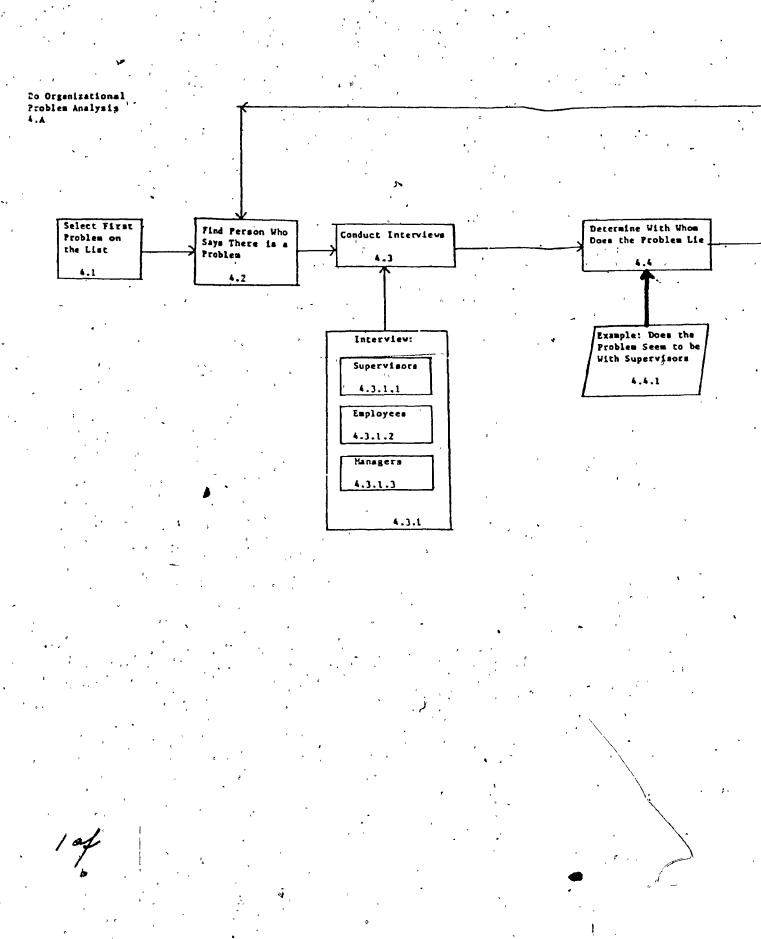


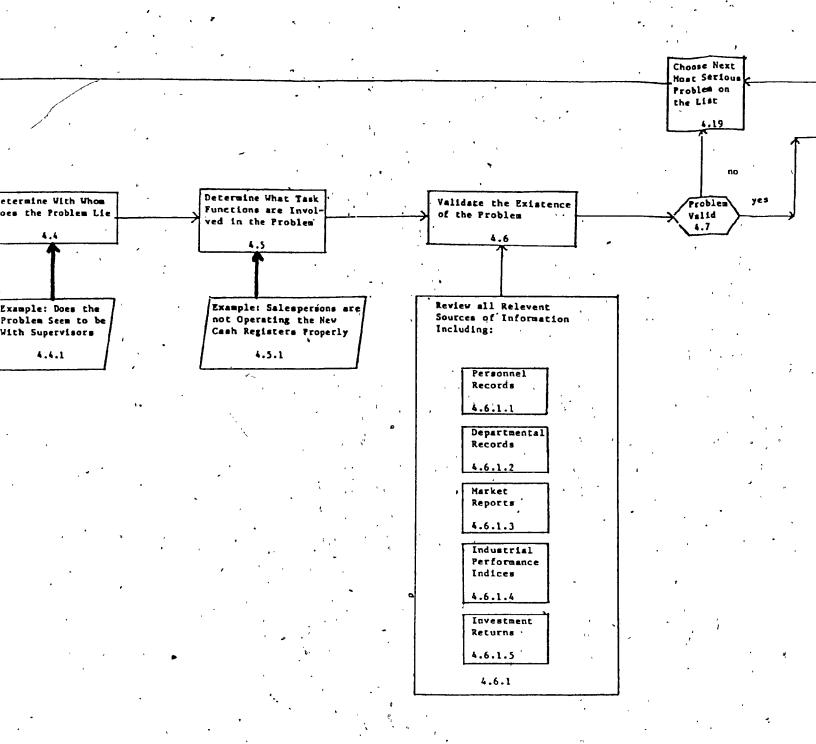
6 %

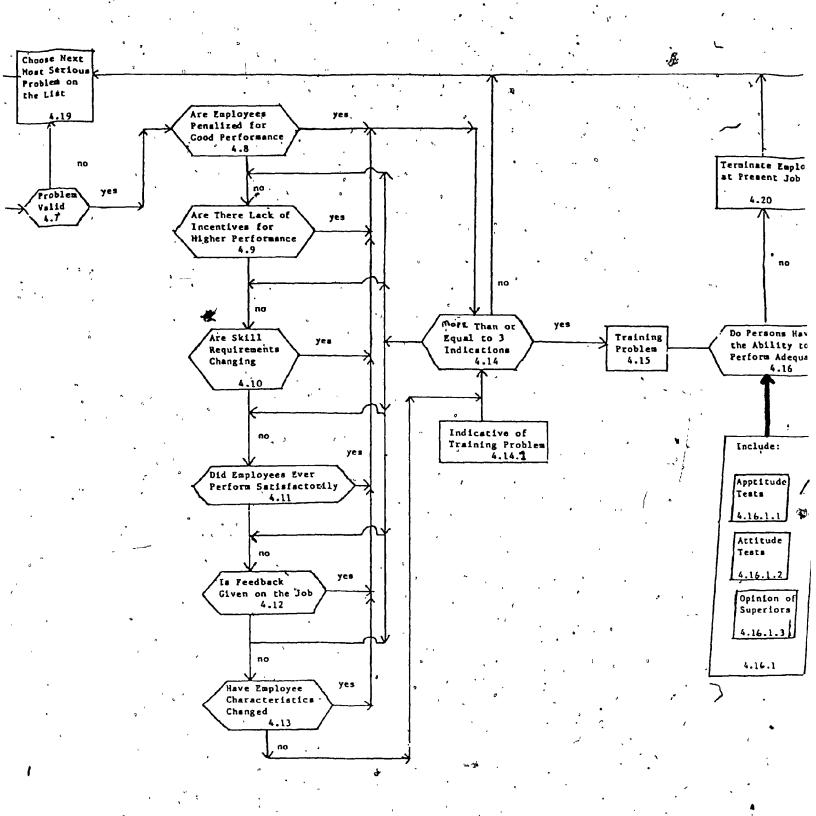


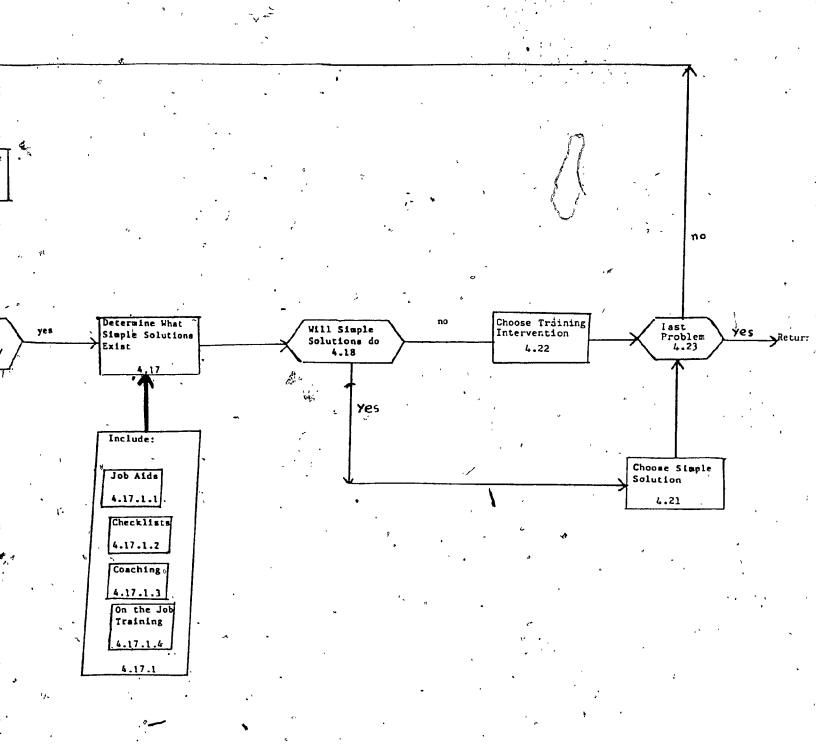


8 0 4 8









:484

Do Situation
Analysis:
3.4.

Determine What the Organization Needs to Achieve its Goals
3.1

Determine the Present Situation
3.2

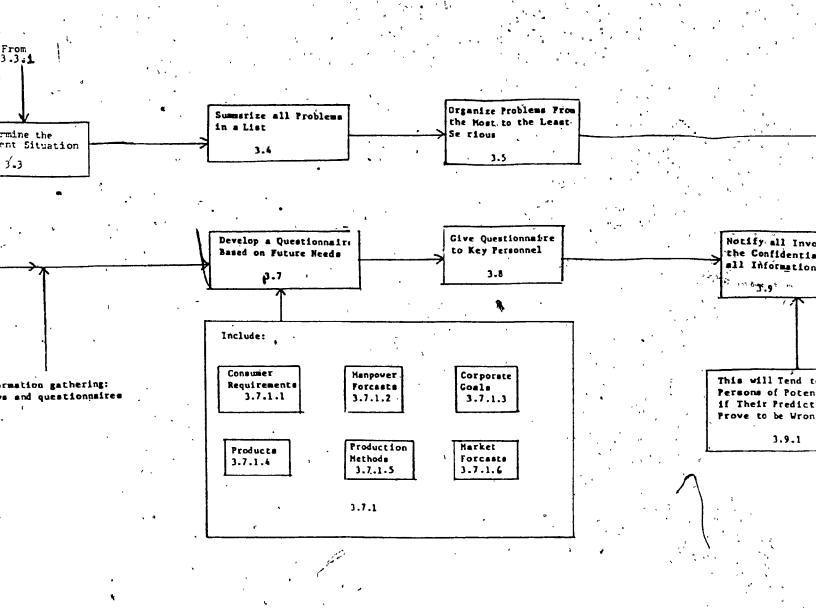
Determine the Present Situation
3.3

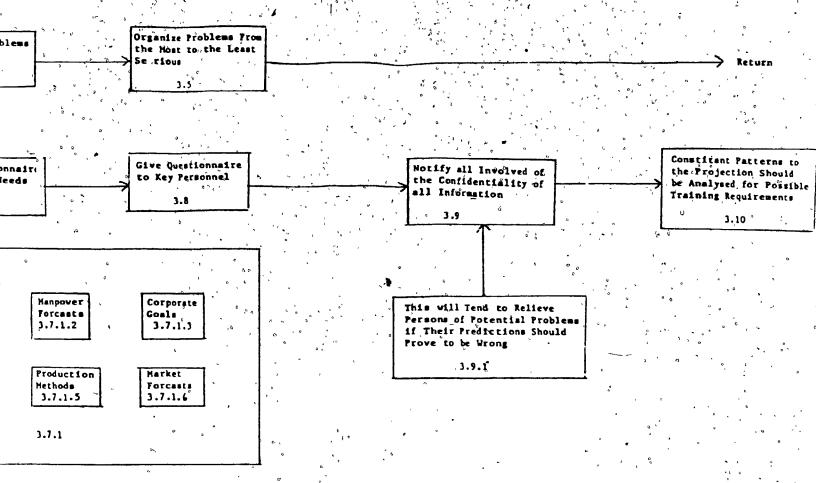
To see the future Corporate Situation
3.6

from information gatherin

interviews and questionna

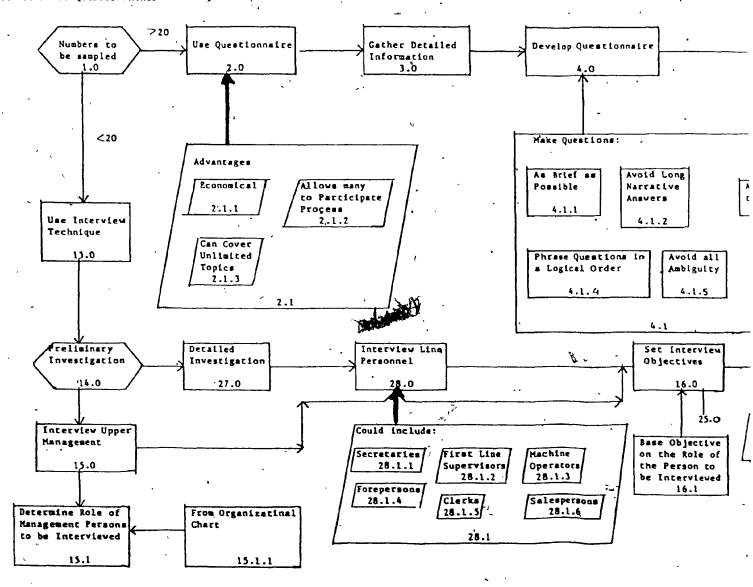
1 of.

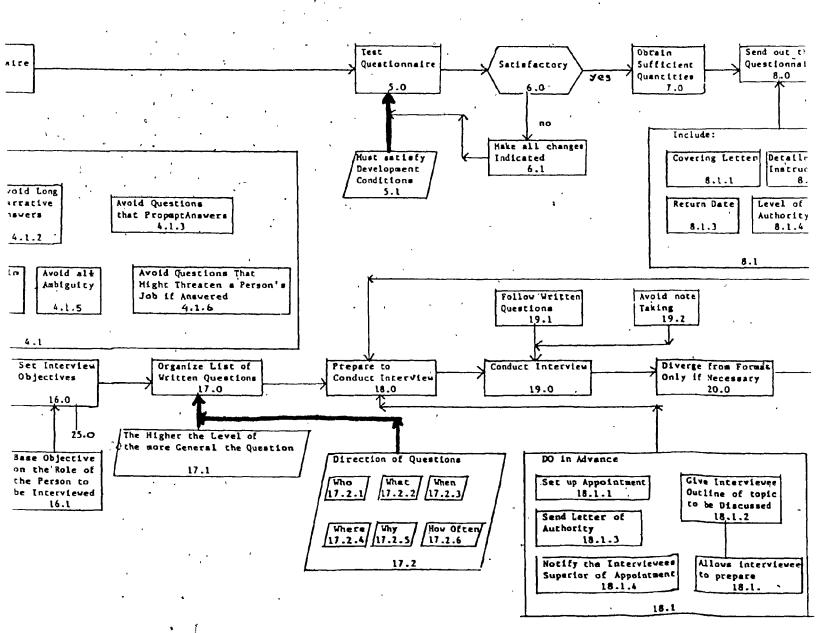


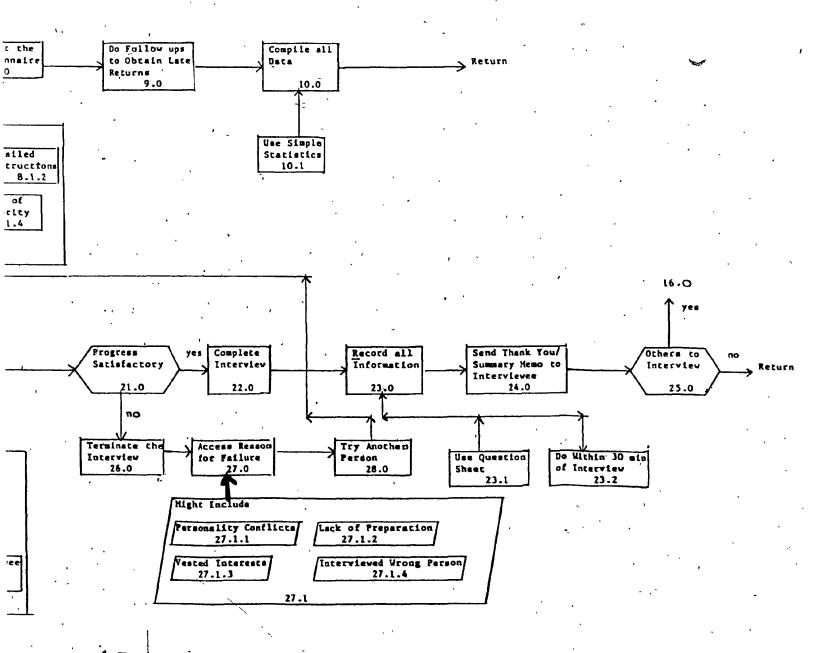


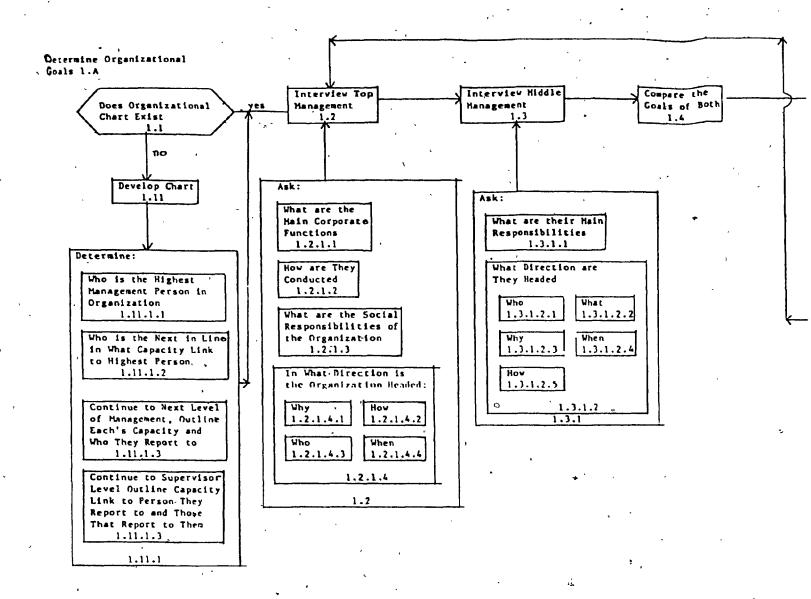
30/3

ENFORMATION GATHERING: INTERVIEWS AND QUESTIONNAIRES

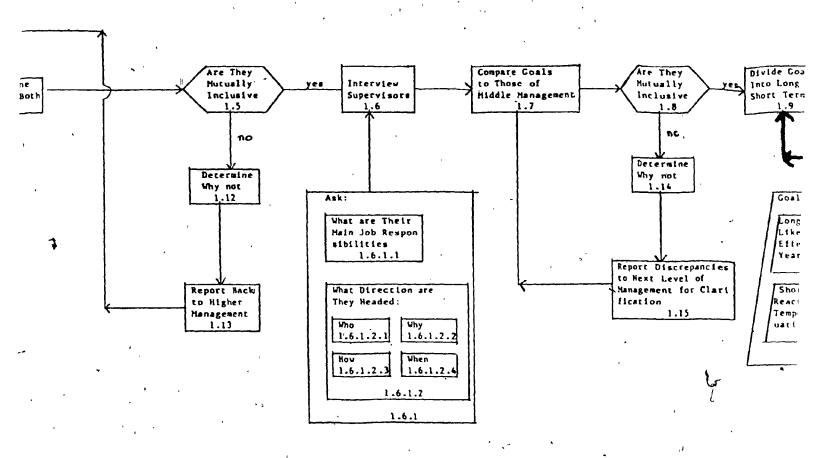




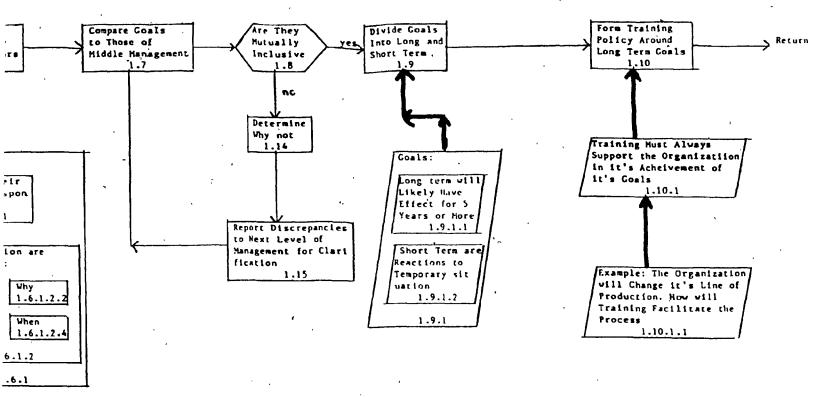


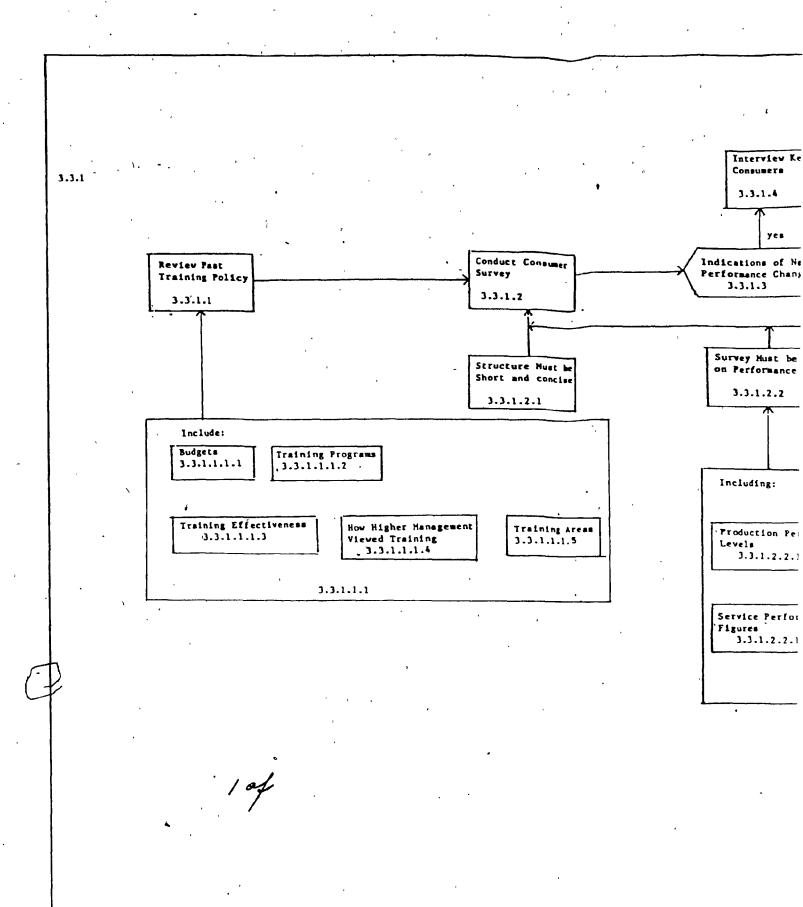


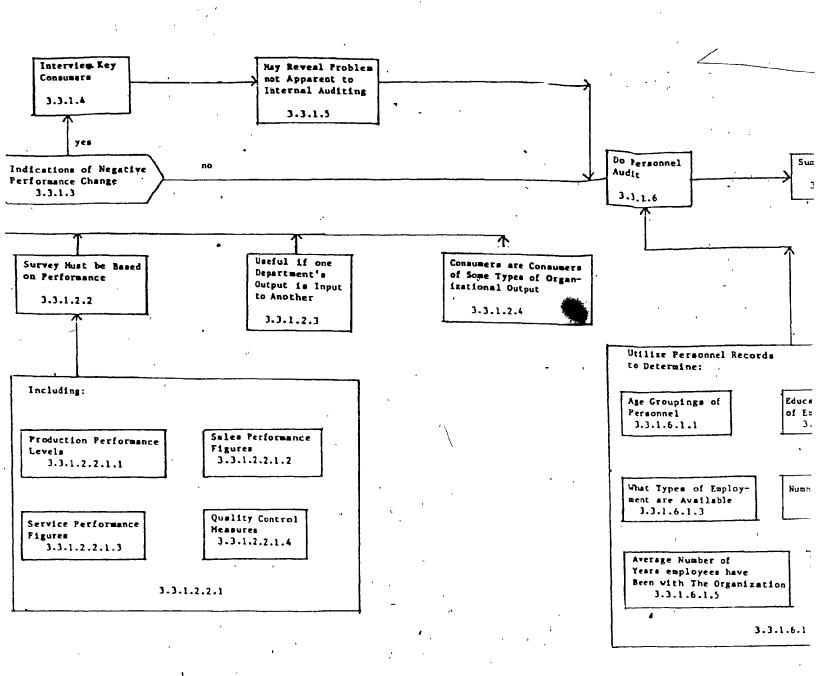
1 af

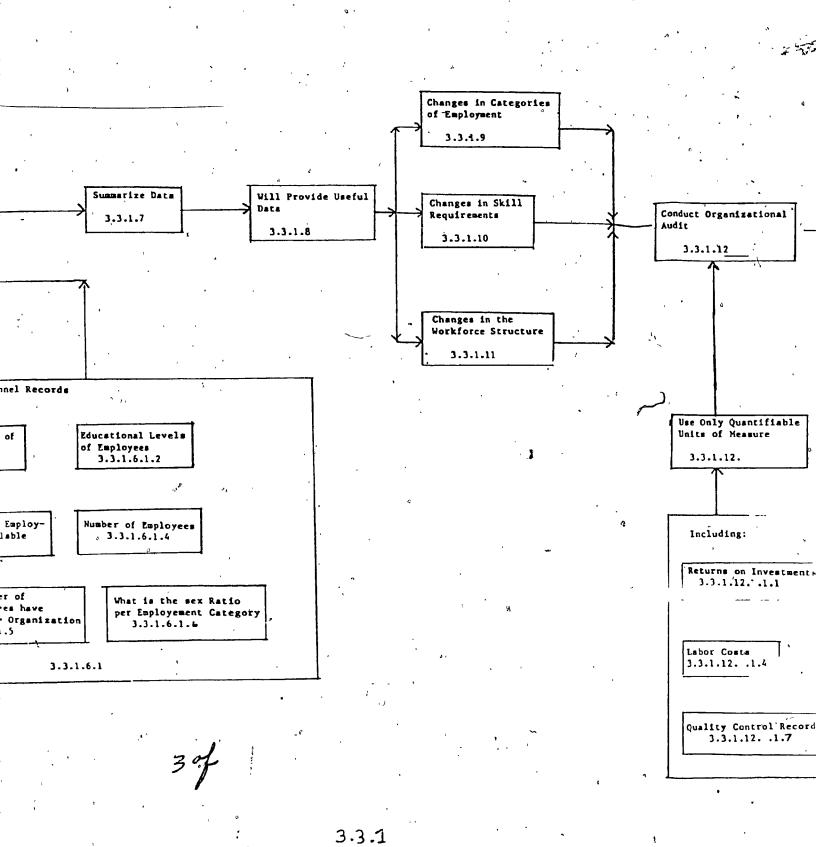


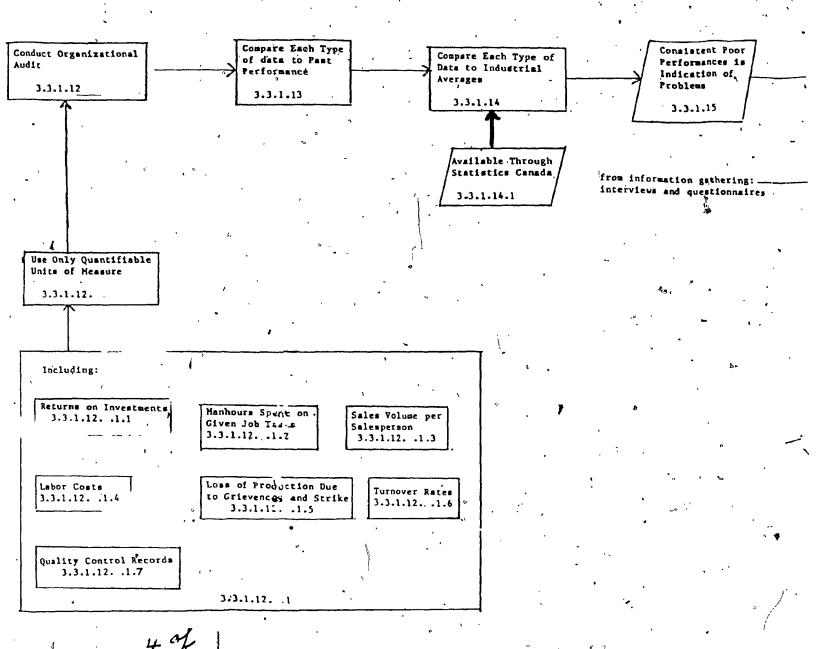
2 %

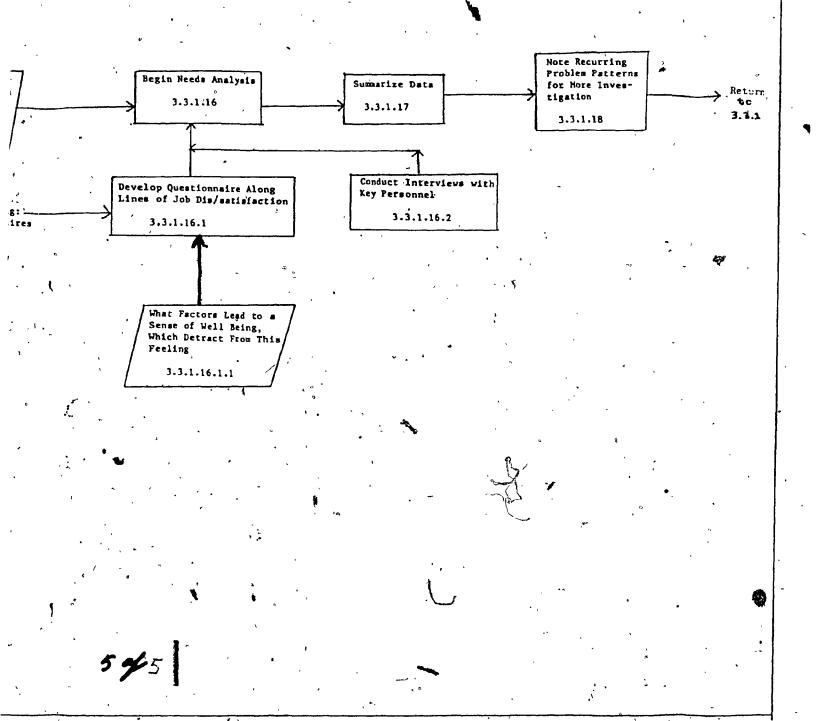


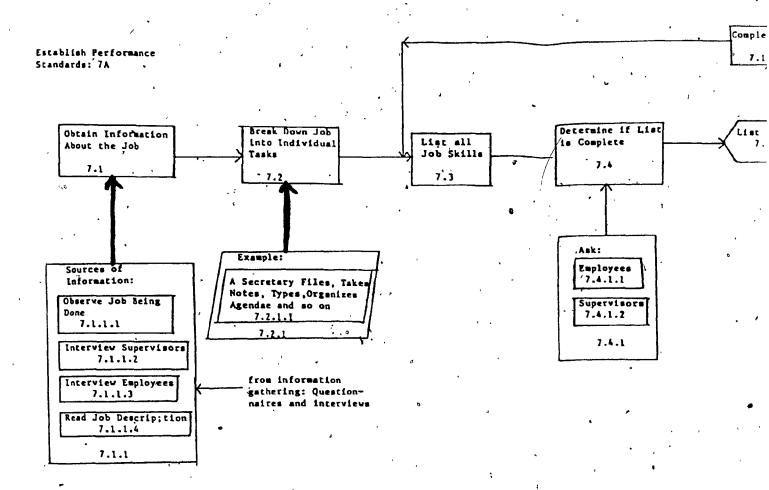




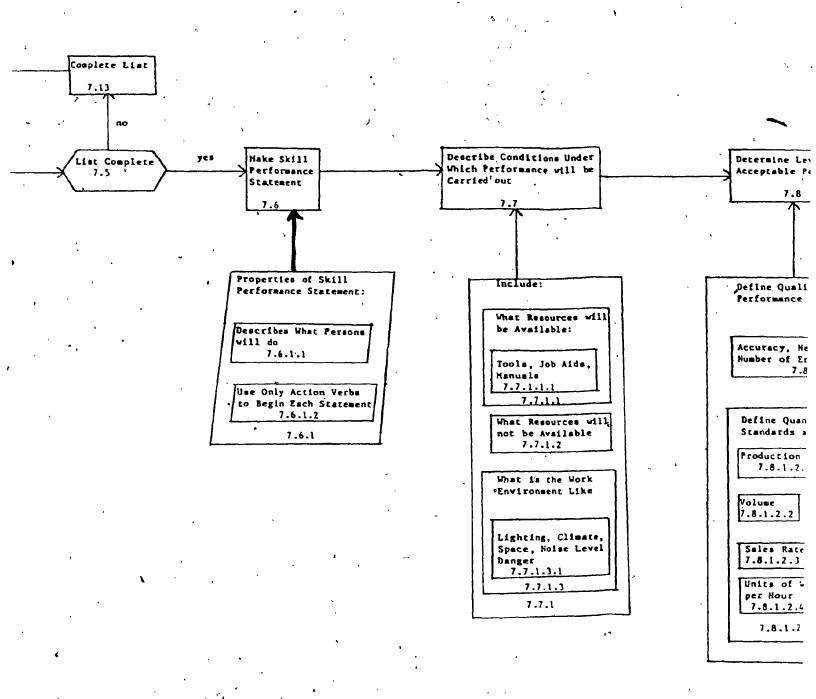


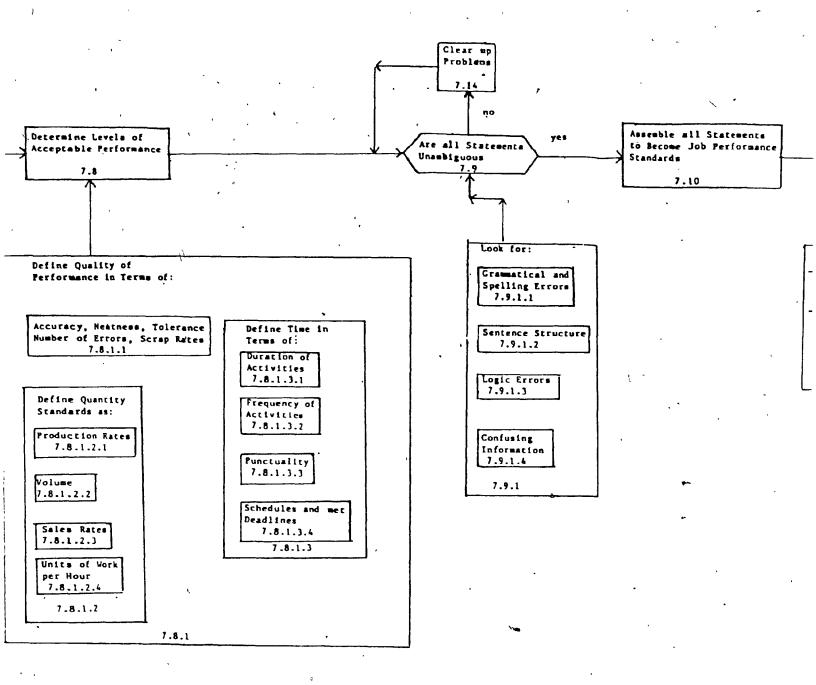


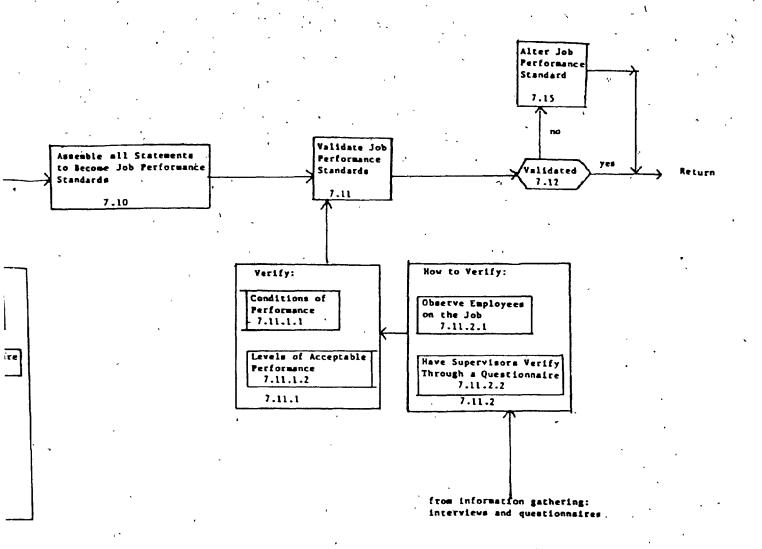




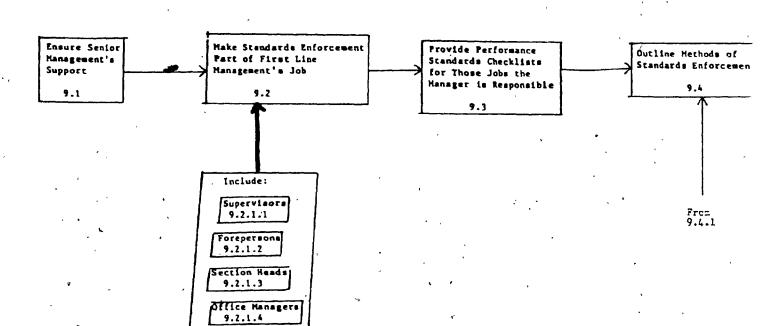
af



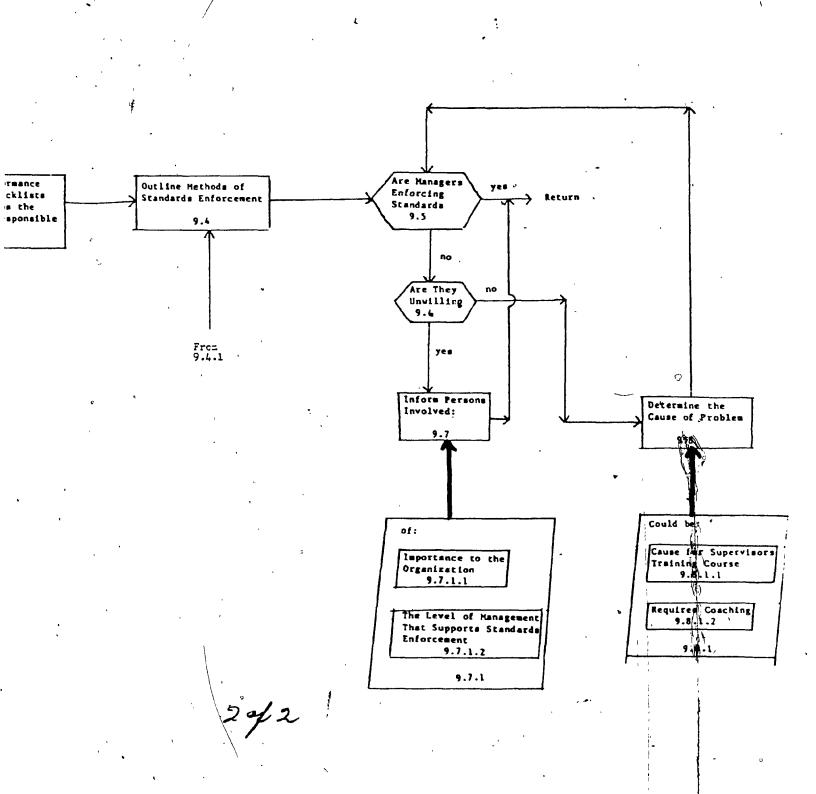


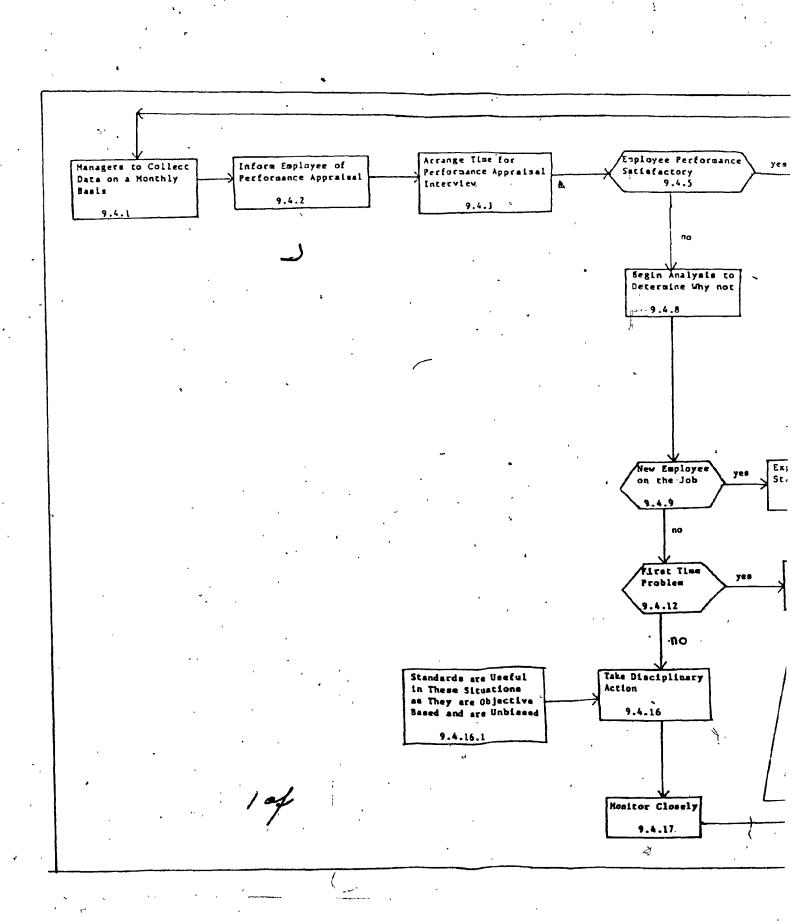


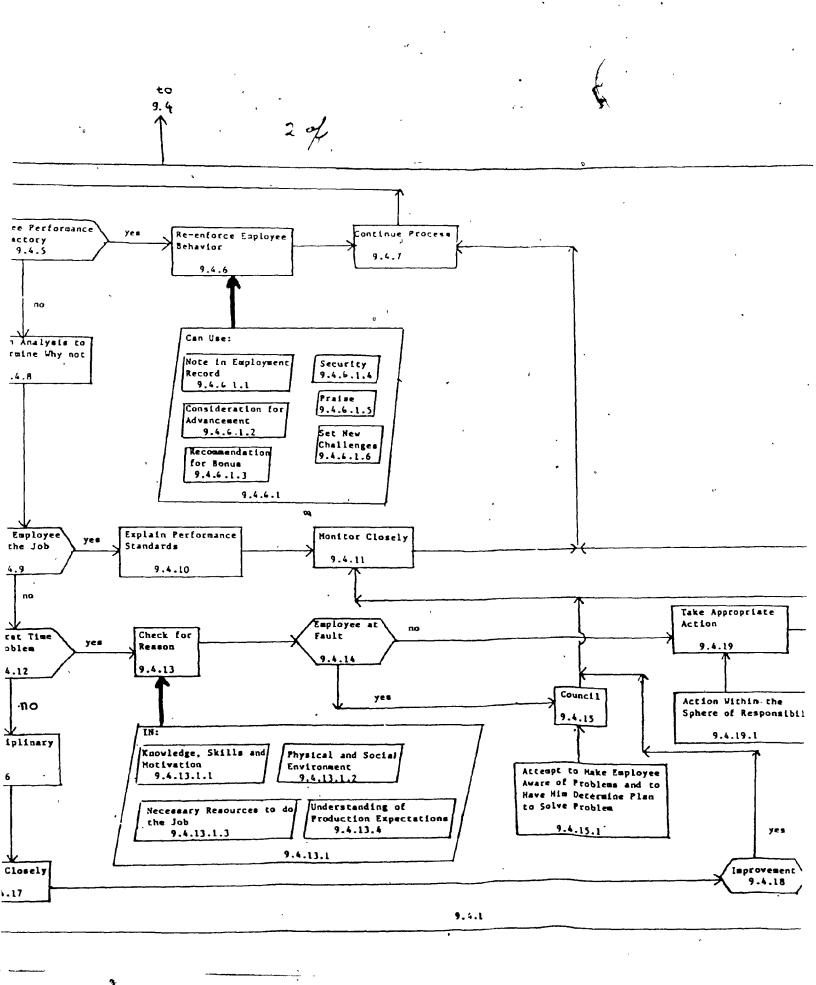
Enforce Standards 9.A

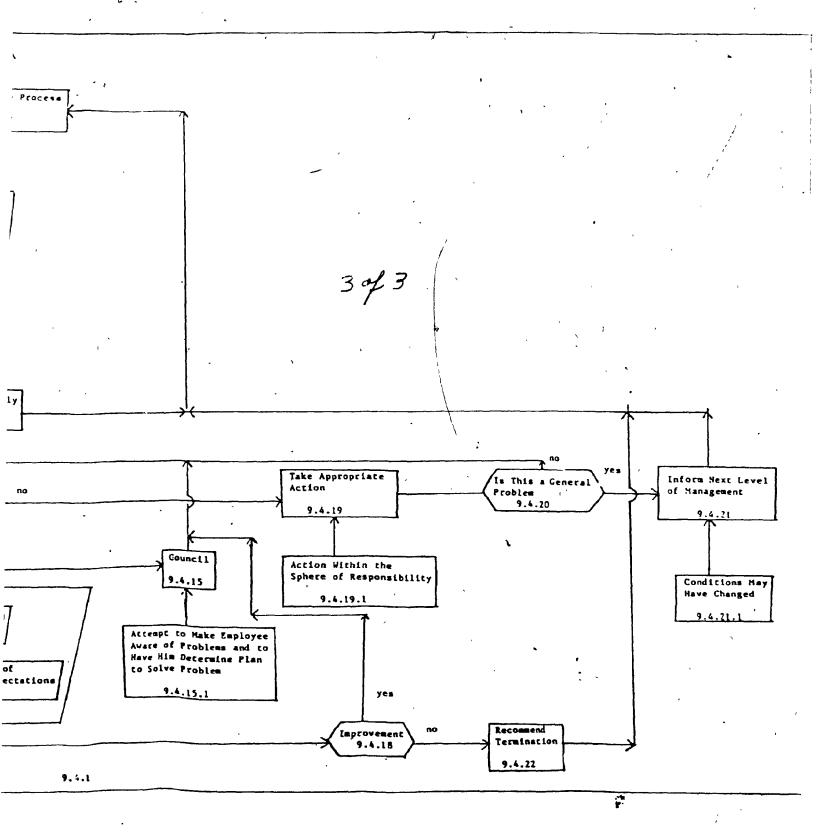


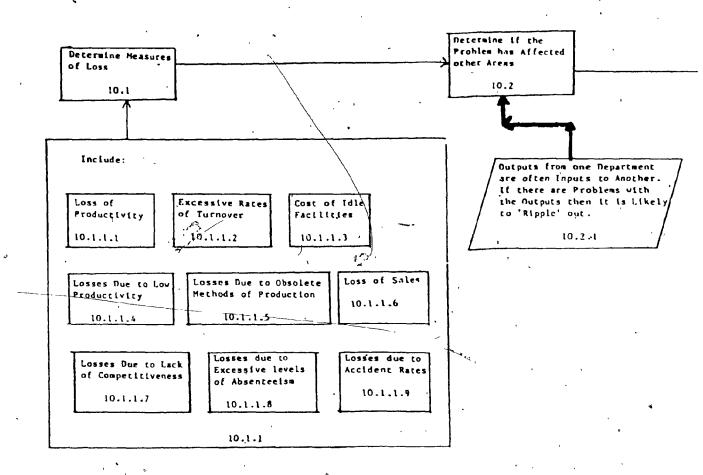
9.2.1

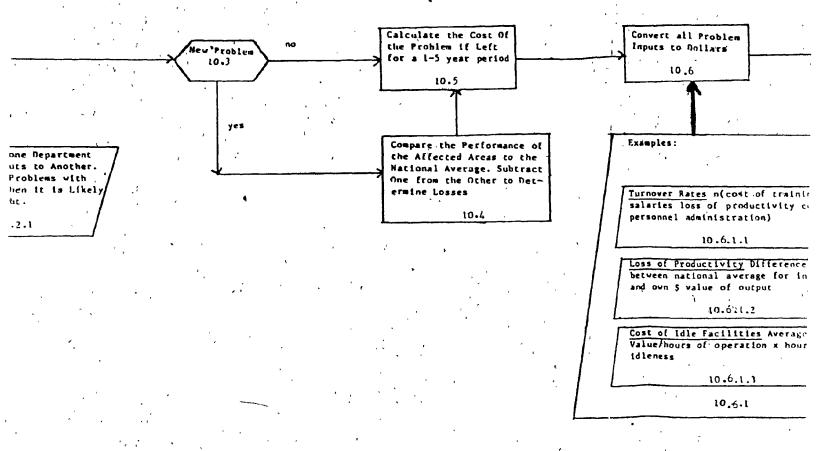


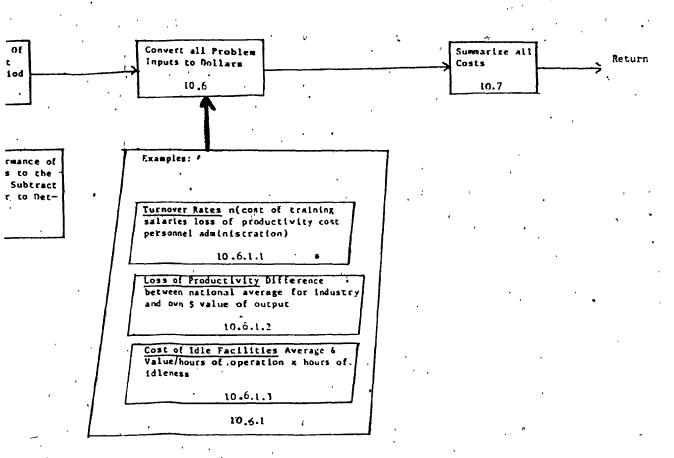




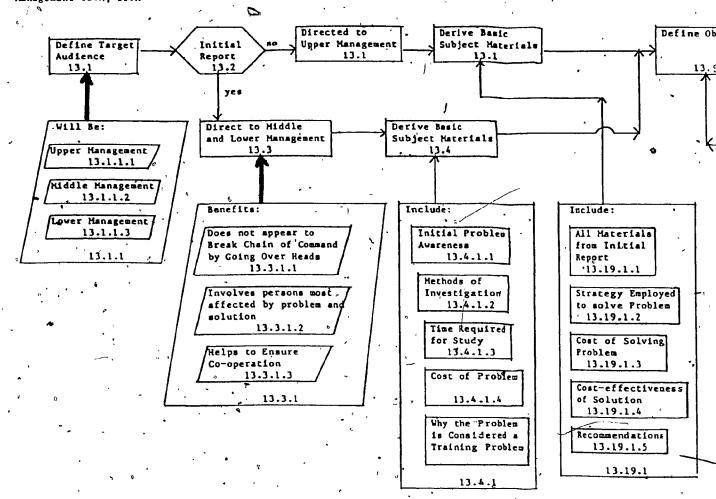


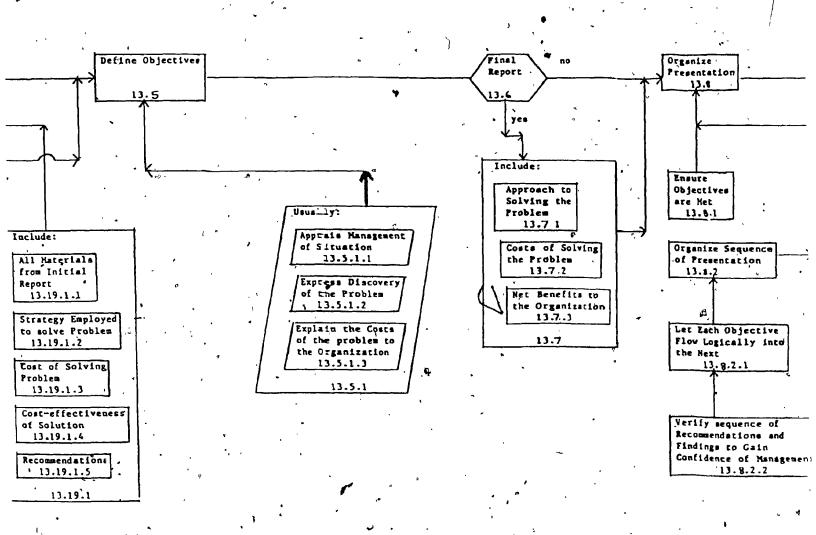


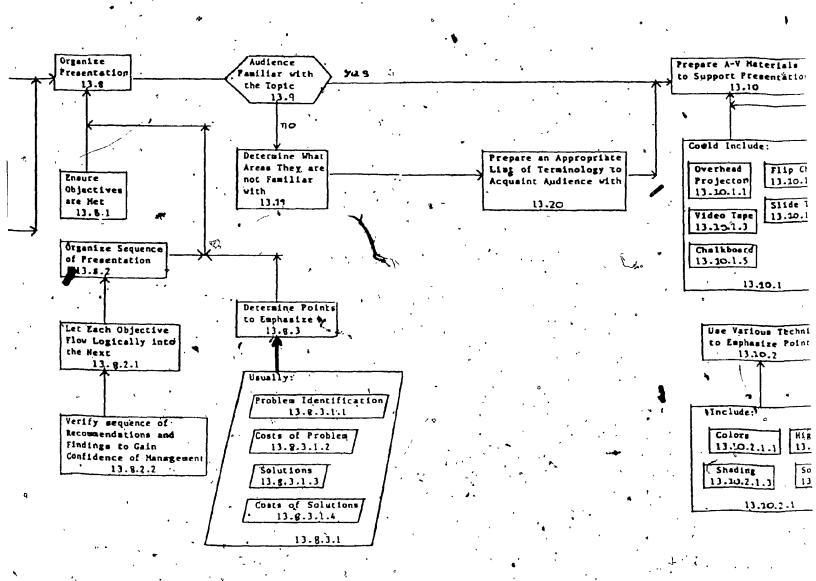


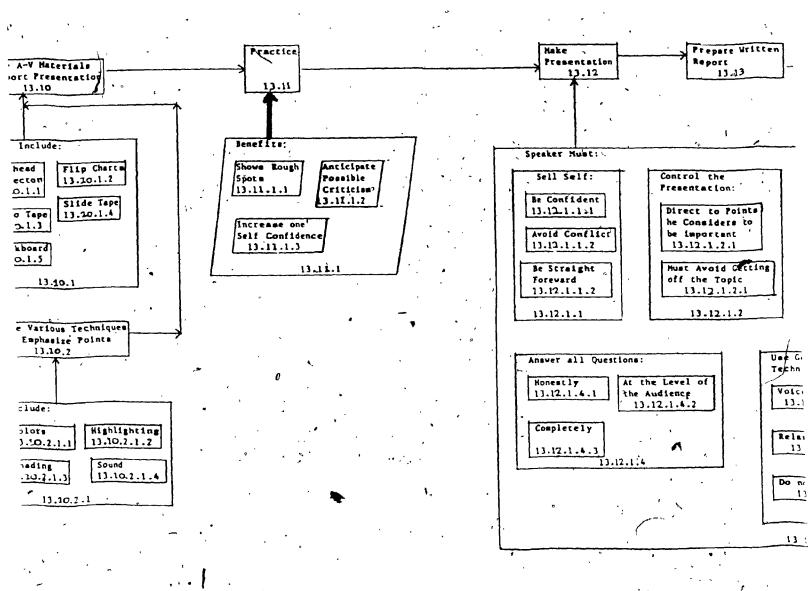


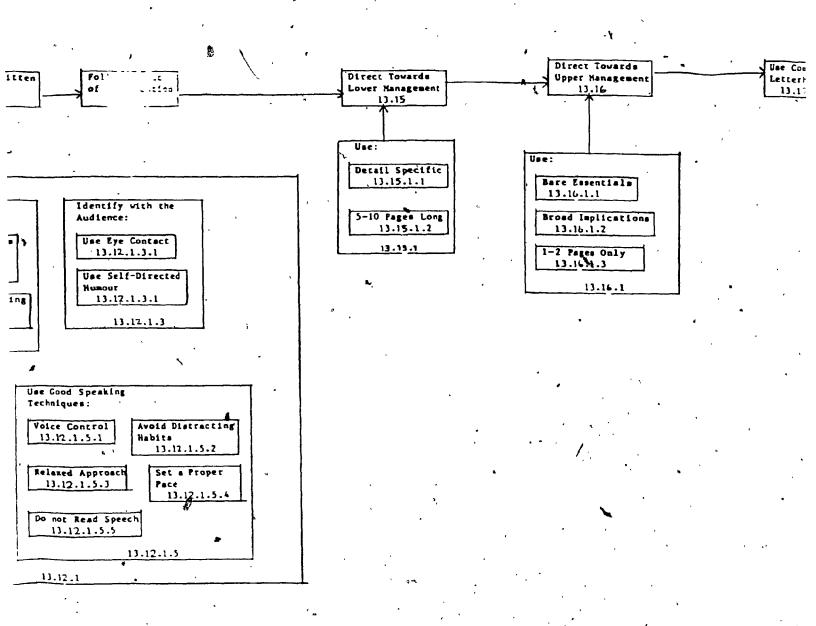
Prepare Report to Management 13-A, 31.A

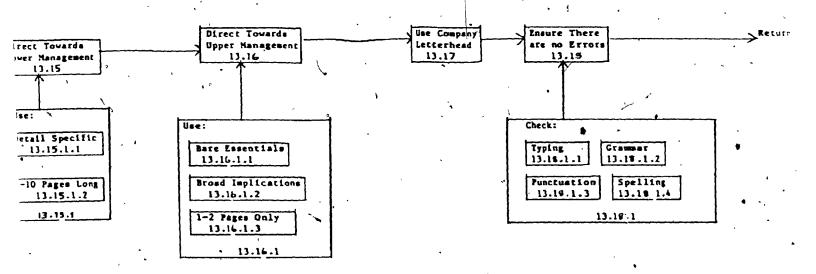




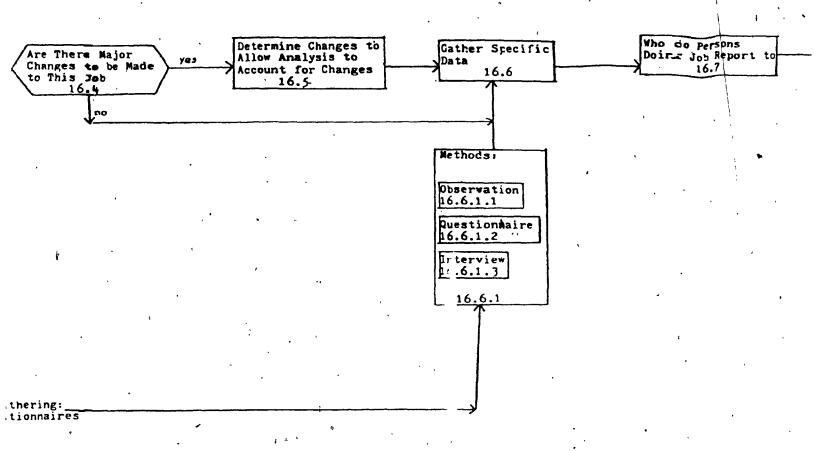








Do Job Analysis: 16,A What is this Job's Relation to Other Are There Ma Changes to b to This Job Determine how Many Persons Detemine Job Content Perform Job Jobs 16.3 16.2 Determine: Main Job Objective 16.1.1.1 , Main Conditions Under Which the Job is Performed 16.1.1.2 The Principle Duties and Responsibilities 16.1.1.3 The Main Difficulties Associated with the Job 16.1.1.4 16.1.1 Conduct Interviews with Employees and Supervisors from information gathering: interviews and Questionnaires 16.1.2



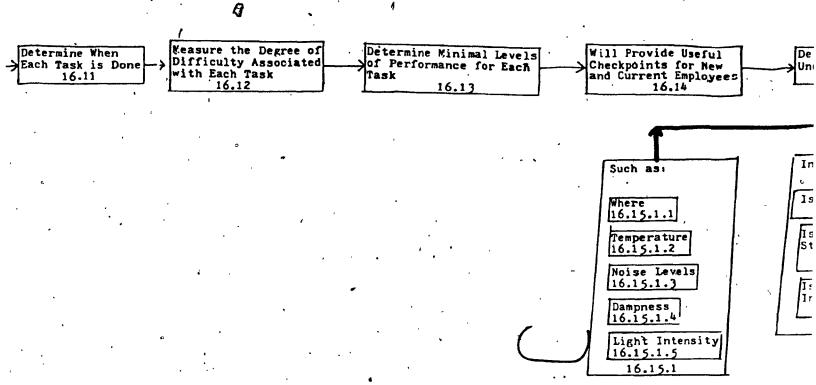
Determine if Persons
Report to
Doing Job has Persons
Reporting to Them
16.8

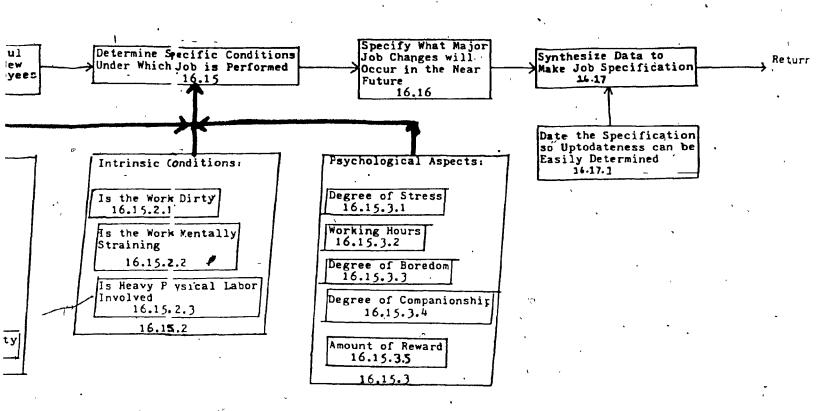
Determine Specific
Tasks
16.9

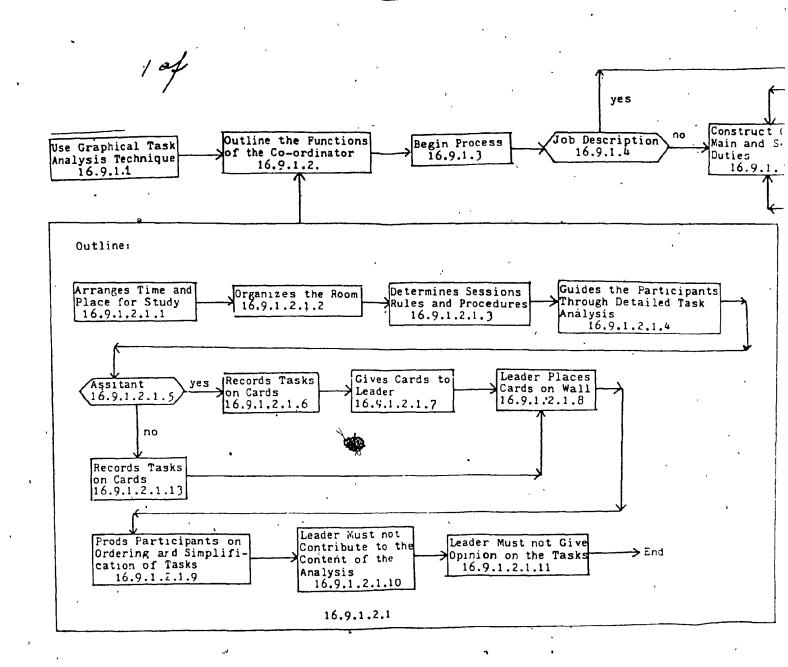
Calculate how Often
Each Task is Done
16.10

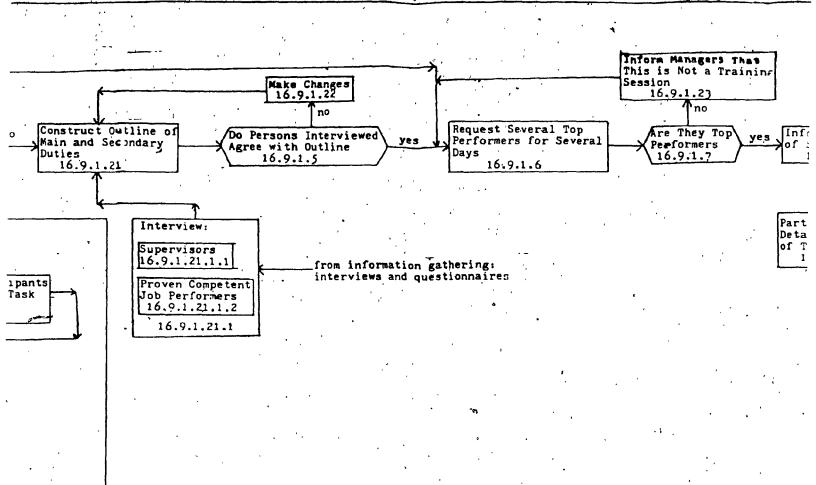
Determine Specific
Tasks
16.11

From









も0 16,9 小・

Managers Thas
Not a Training
9.1,23

no

They Top
formers
19.1.7

Inform Participants of Study Purpose 16.9.1.8 Inform Participants When and Where Sessions Will Take Place 16.9.1.9

Participants Will Bring Their Regular Job Tools 16.9.1.10

Begin Session 16.9.1.11

Participants Will Make Detailed Task Outline of Their Job 16.9.1.8.1

Symbols:

Processe Rectangl 16.9.1.1

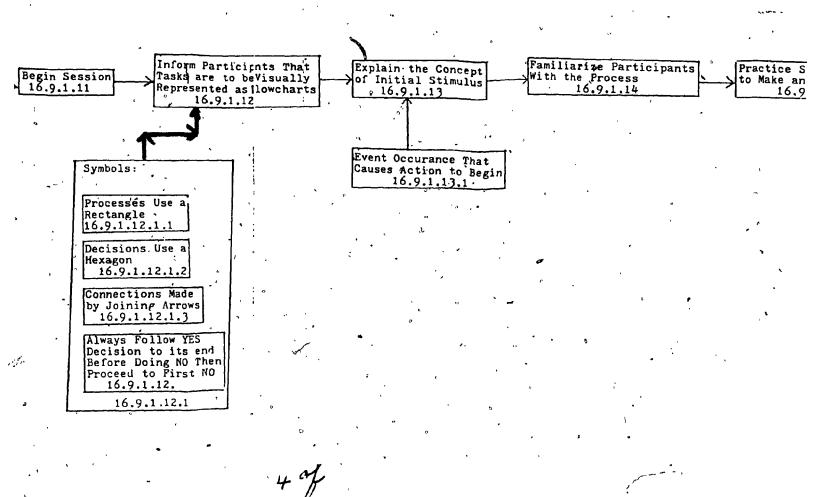
Decision Hexagon 16.9.1

Connect by Join 16.9.

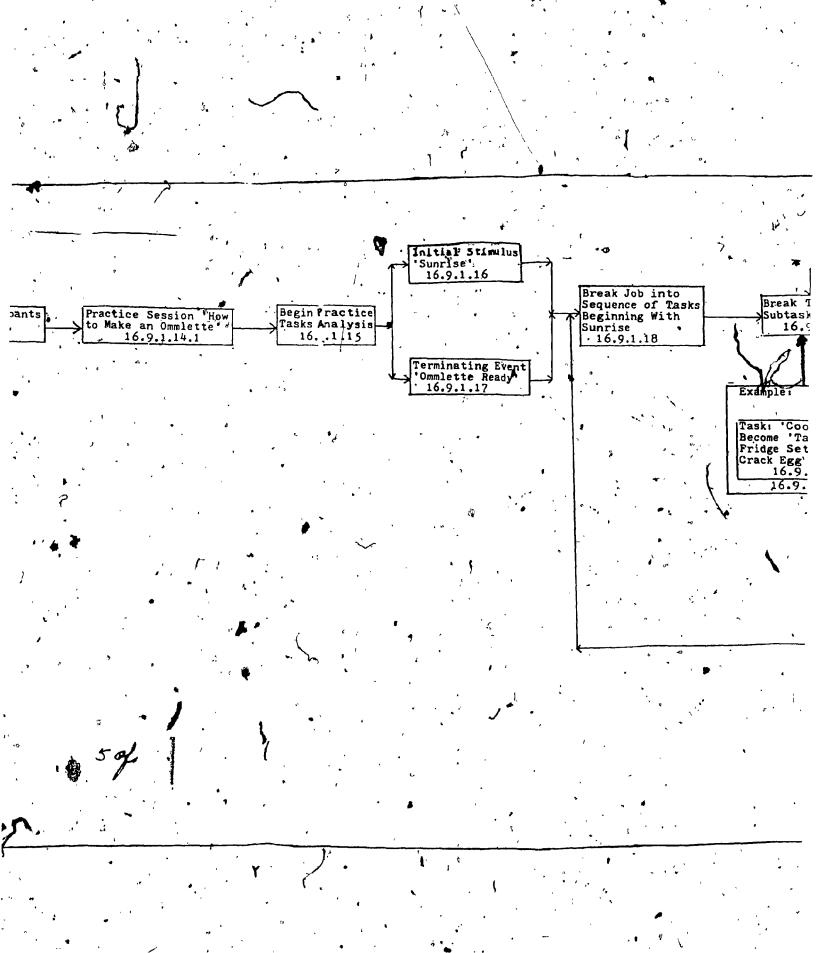
Always Decisio Before Proceed 16.9

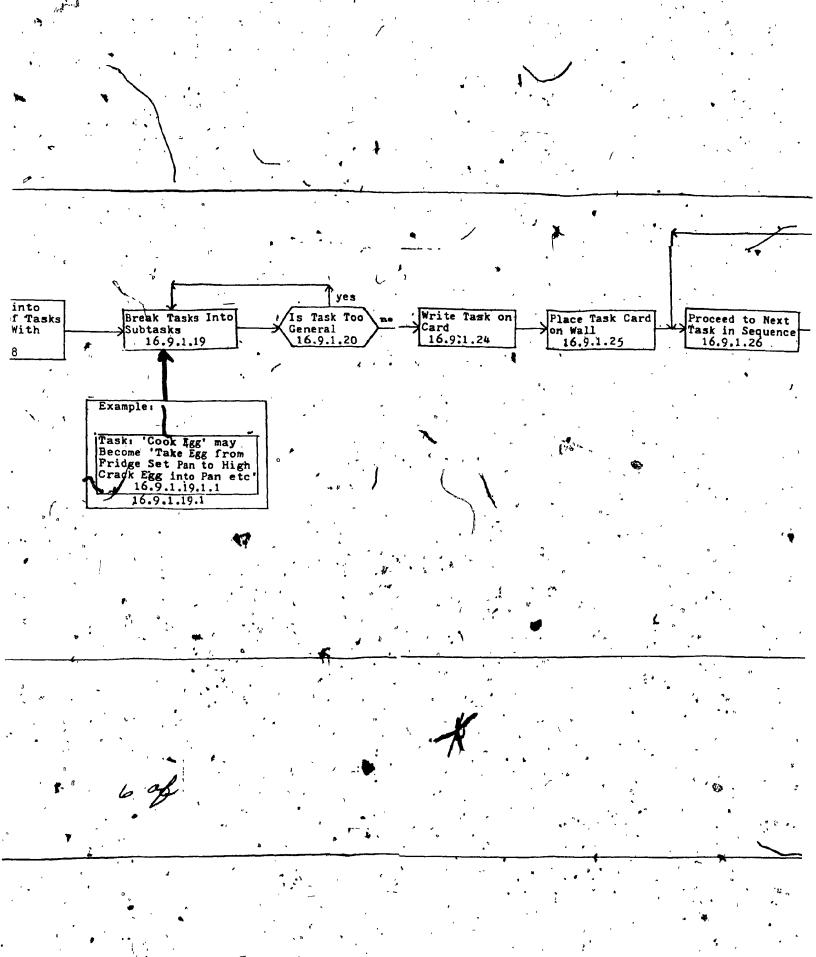
3 of

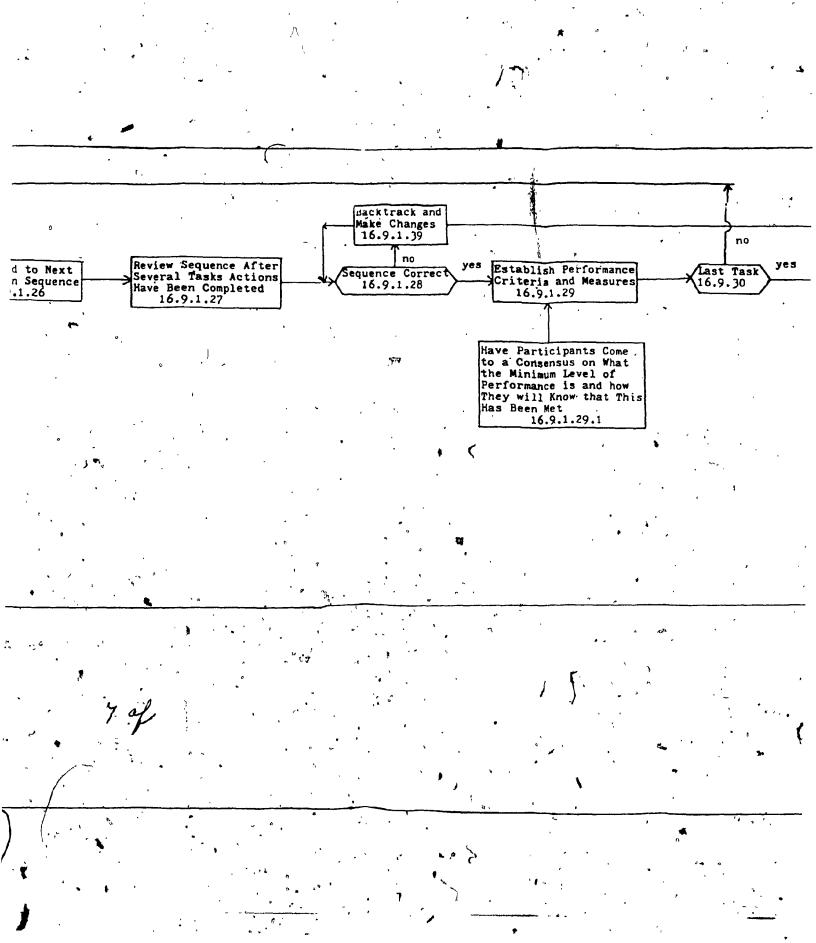
1

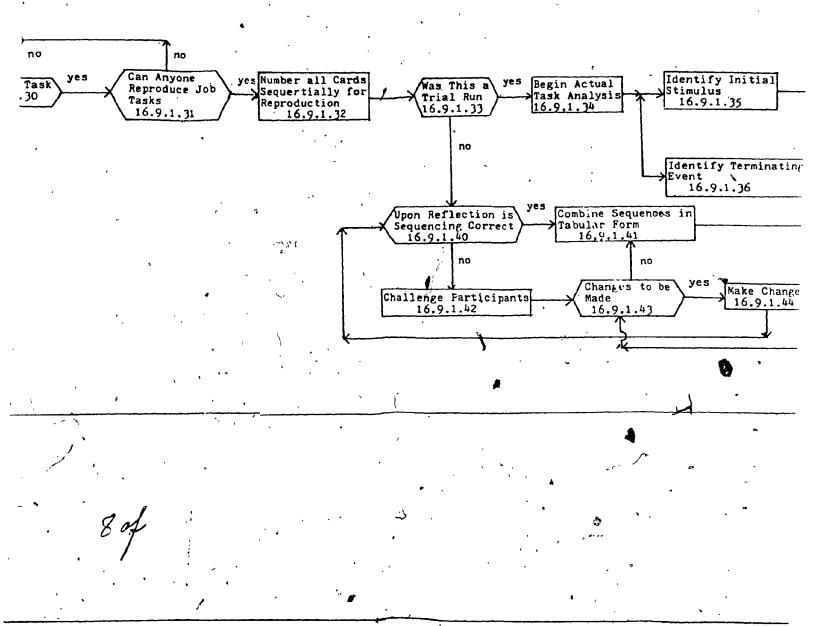


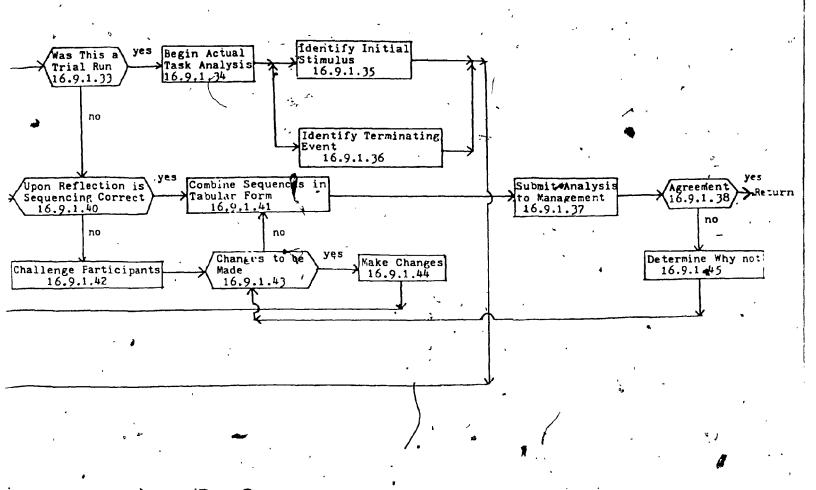
16.9.1



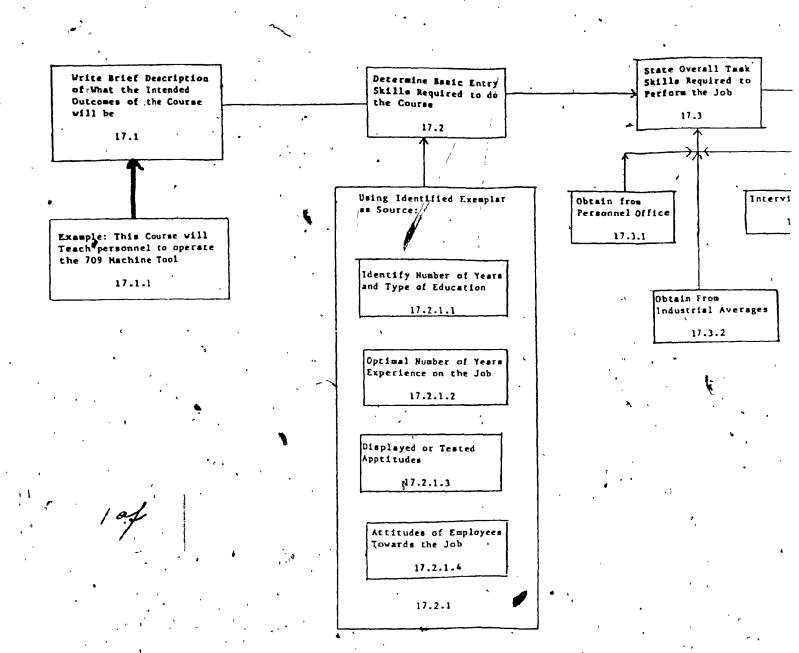


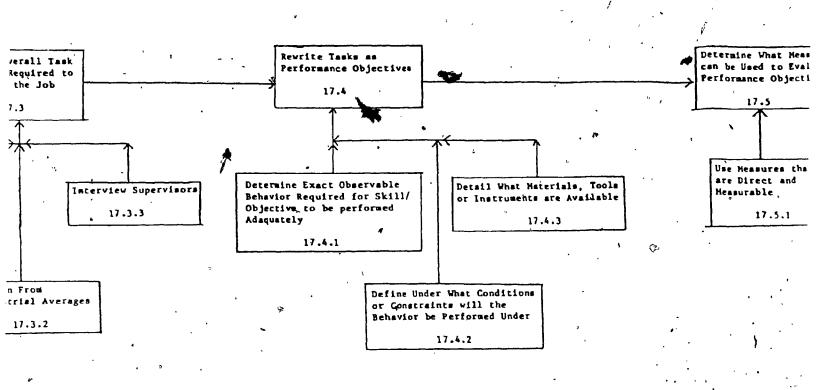


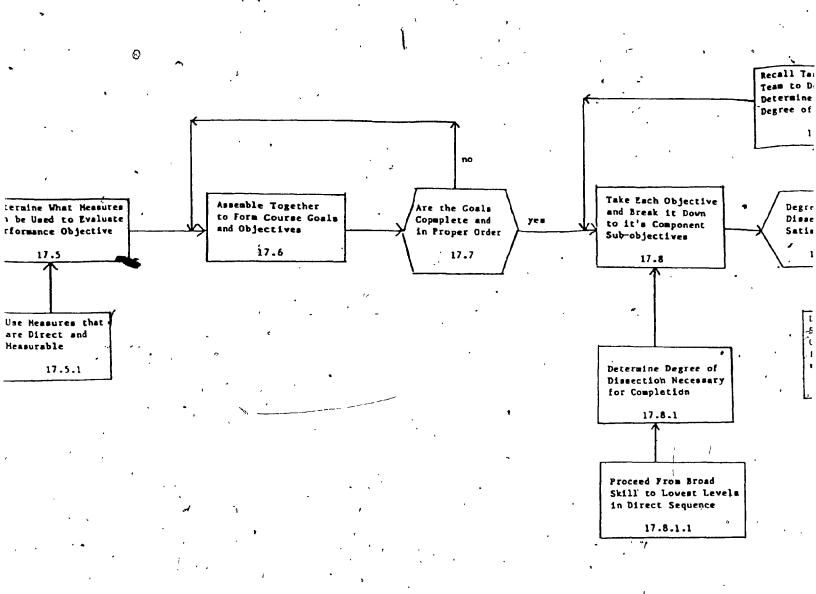




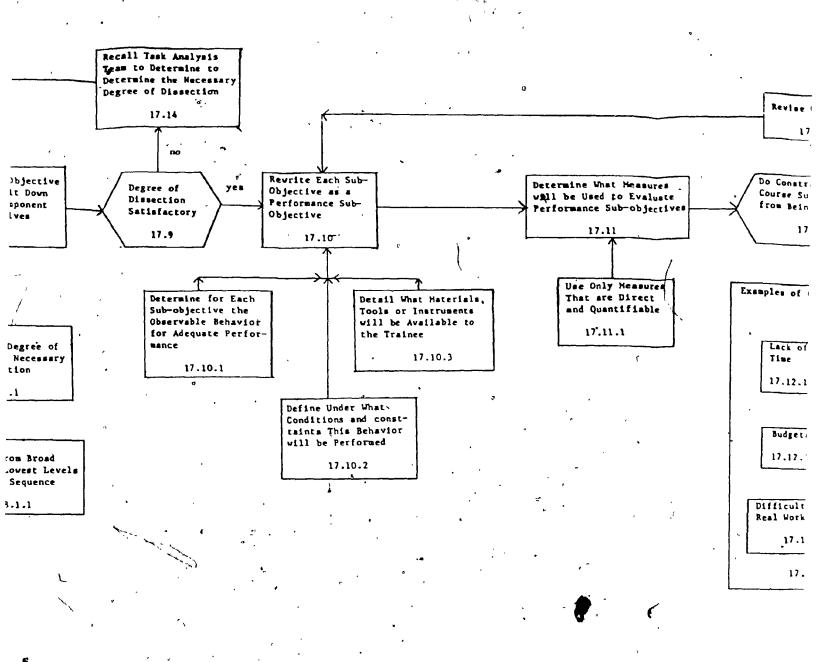
Develop Course Objectives 17.A .

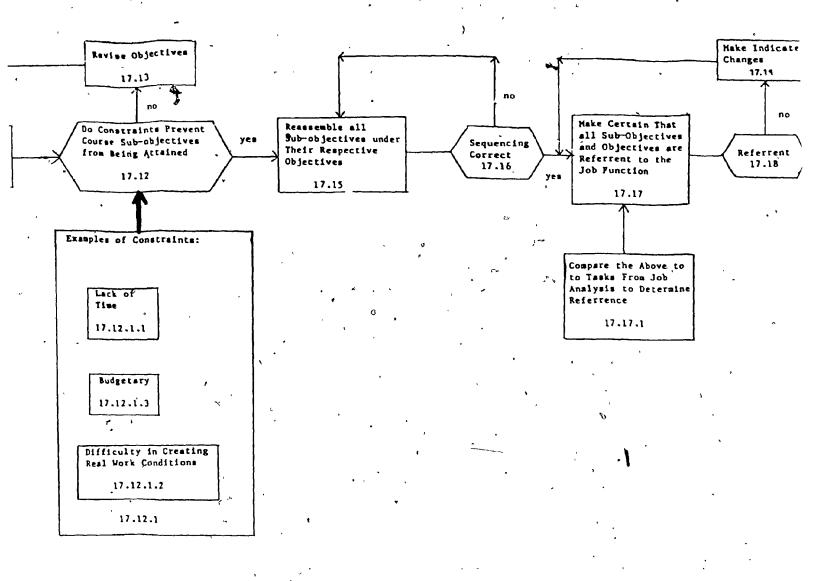


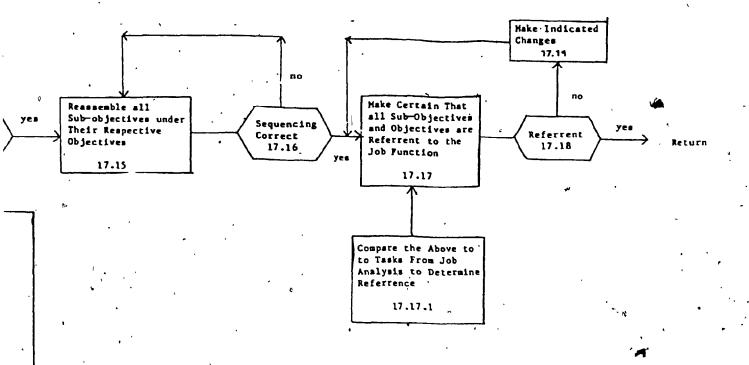




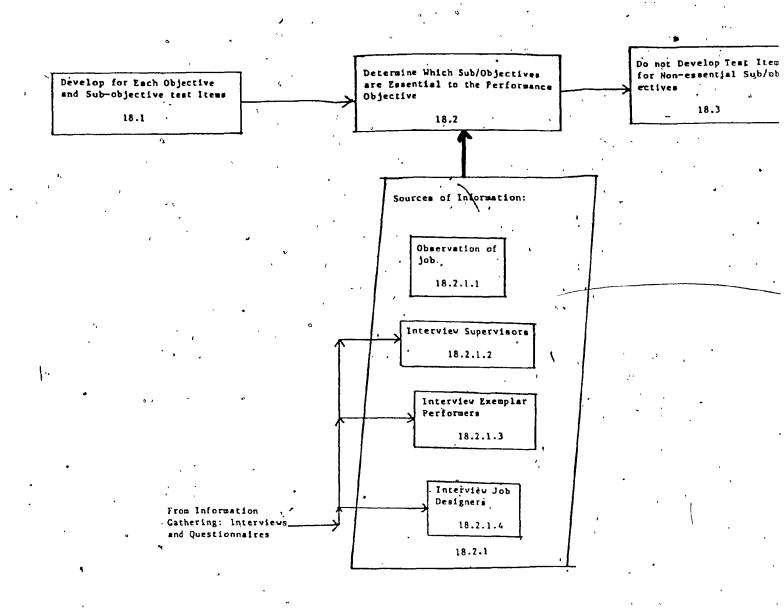
3 of



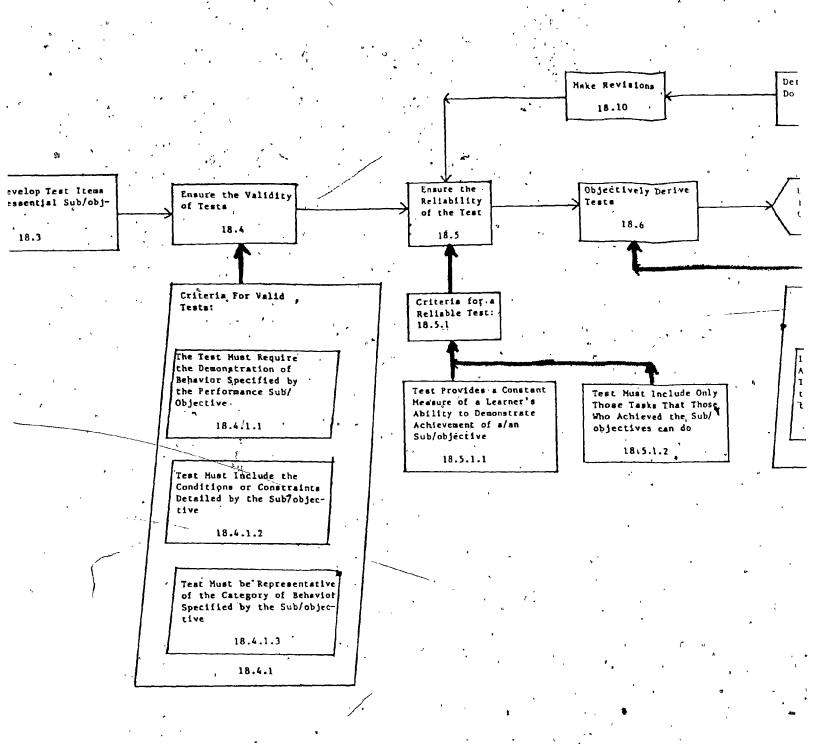




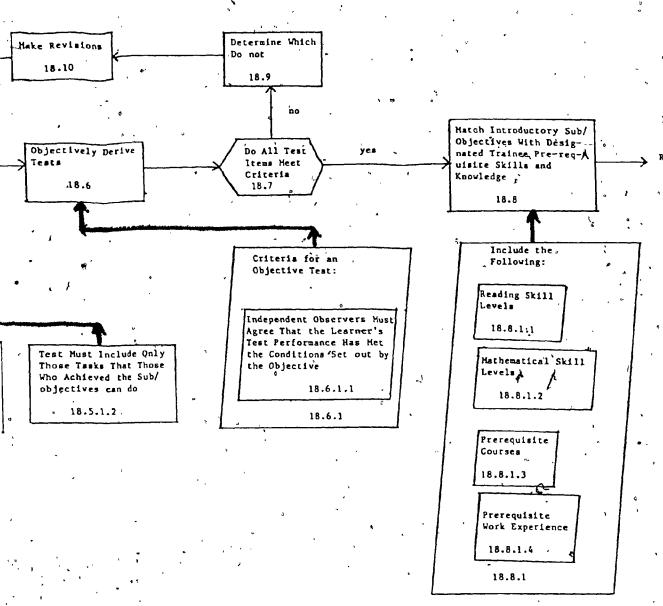
Test to Determine if Course Outcomes Will Match Job Tasks 18.A

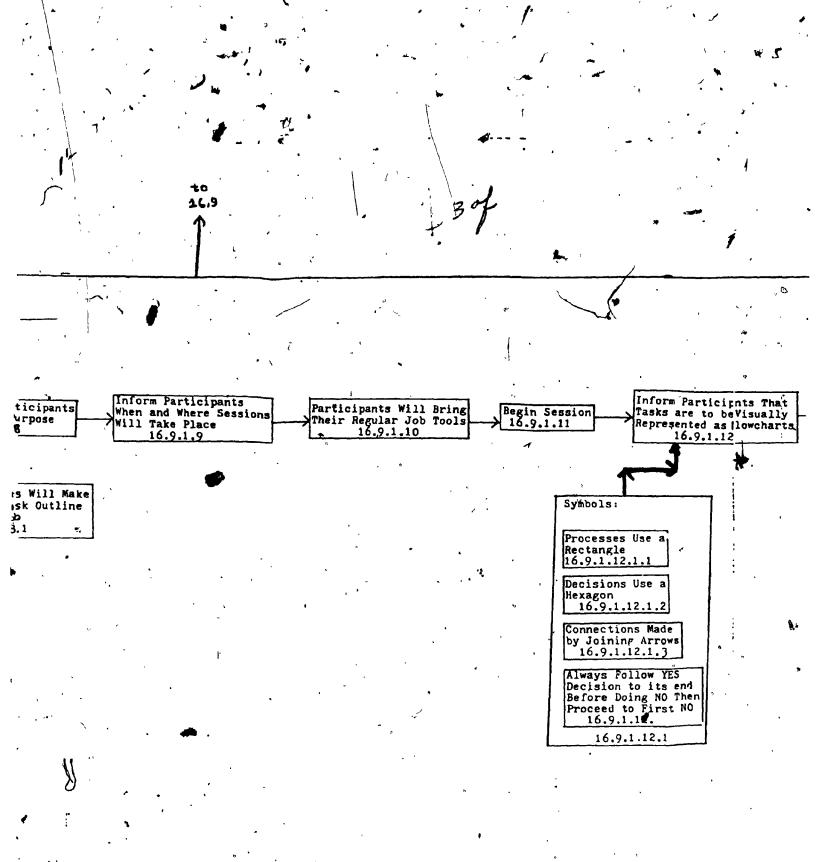


1 of



2 of





16.9.1

+ of

1

Explain the Concept of Initial Stimulus 16.9.1.13

Event Occurance That Causes Action to Begin 16.9.1.13.1

Familiarize Participants With the Process 16.9.1.14

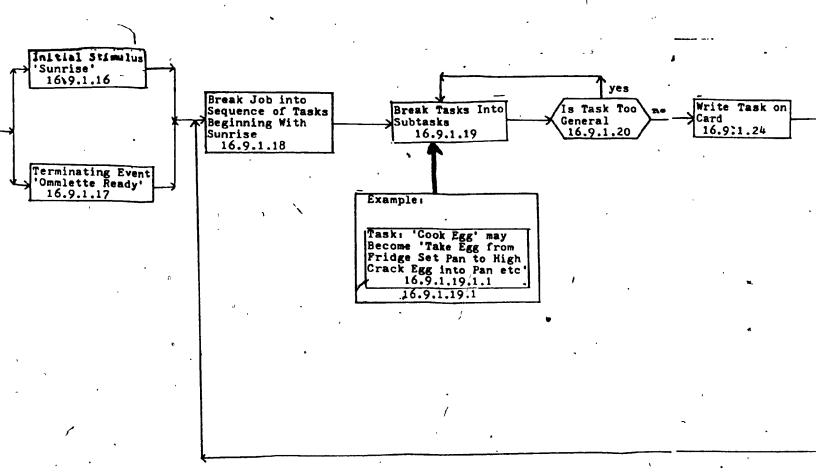
Practice Session 'How to Make an Ommlette' 16.9.1.14.1

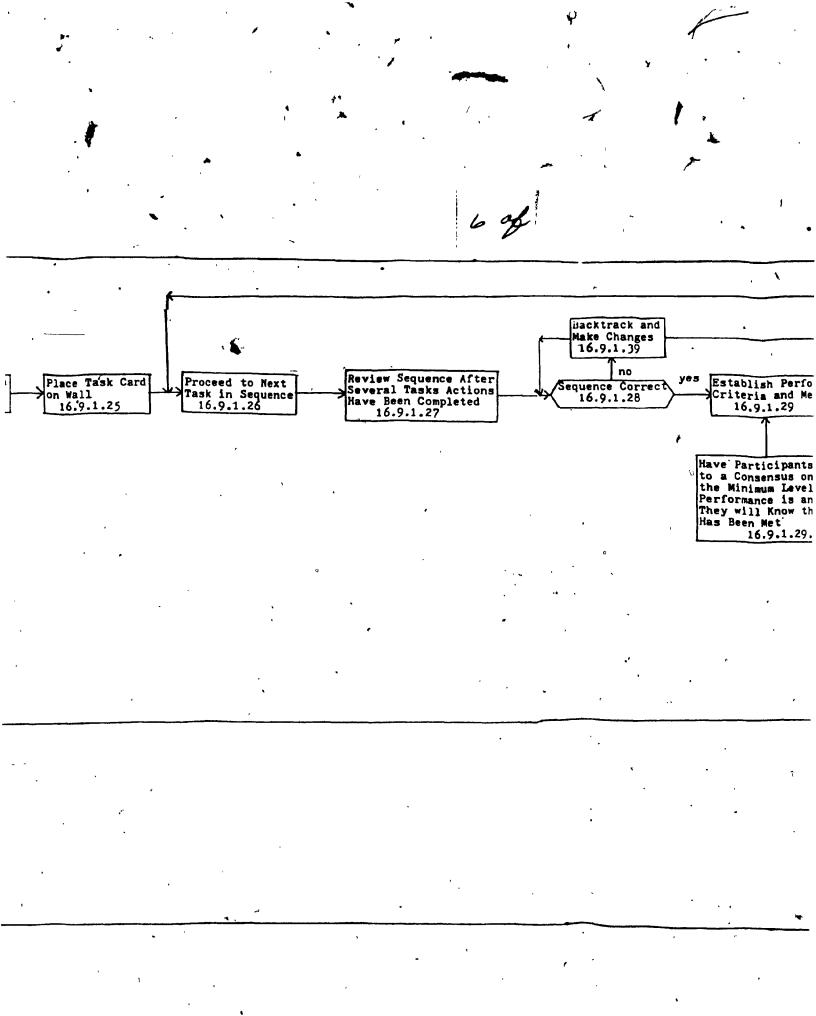
Begin Fractice Tasks Analysis 16..1.15

16.9.1

s That sually

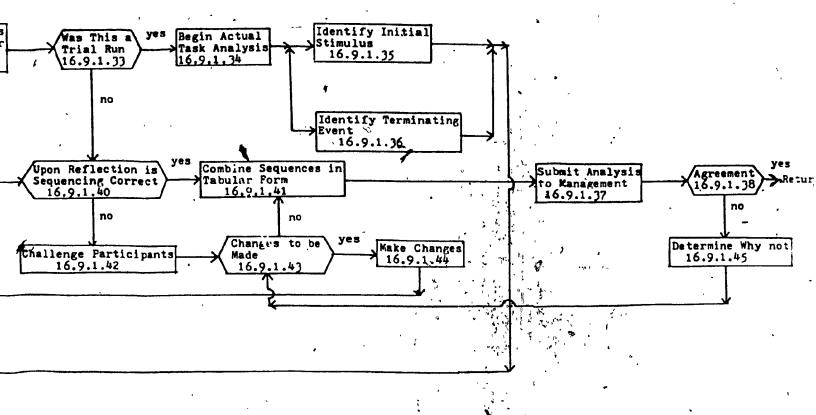
)wcharts





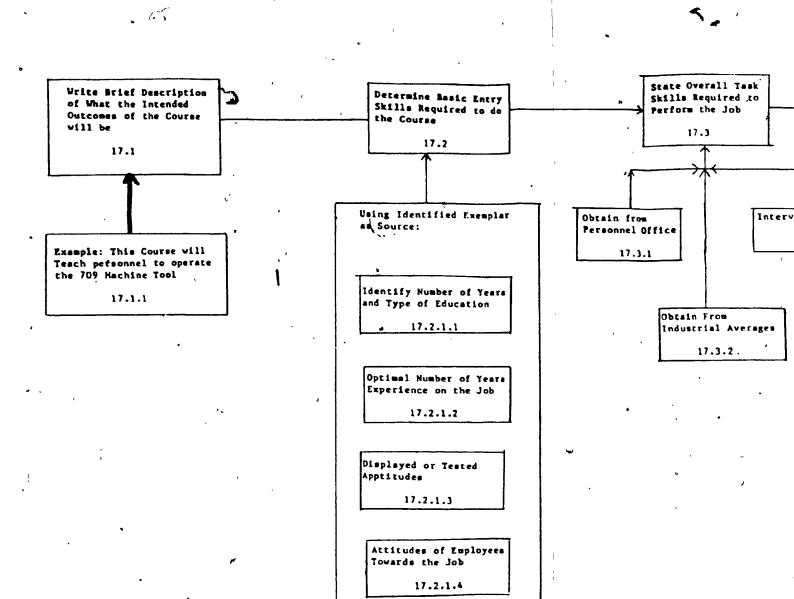
.73

上、大学学の中央の大学の大学の大学の大学の大学の大学の大学を

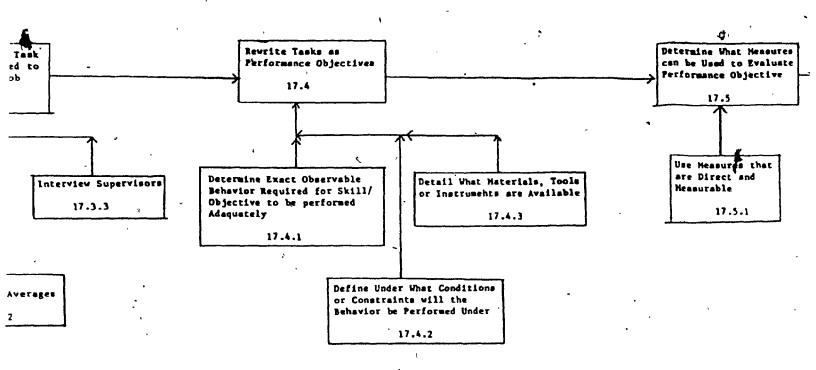


DEVELOP COURSE OBJECTIVES, 17.A

Develop Course Objectives 17.A

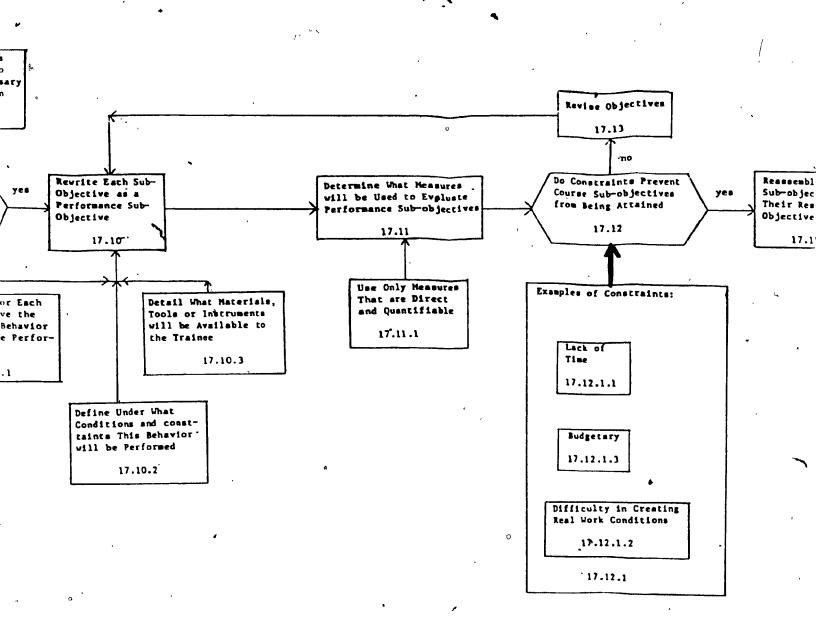


17.2.1



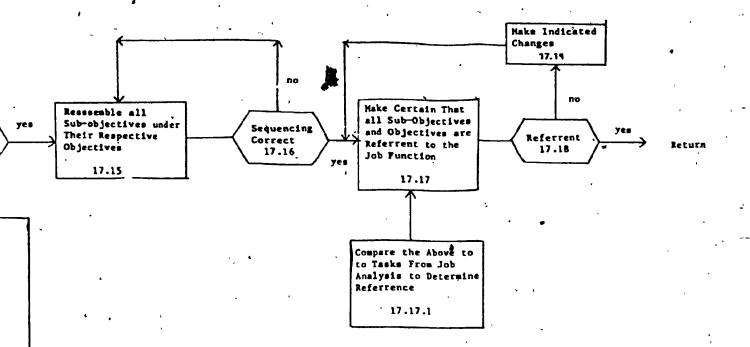
بية

4 of



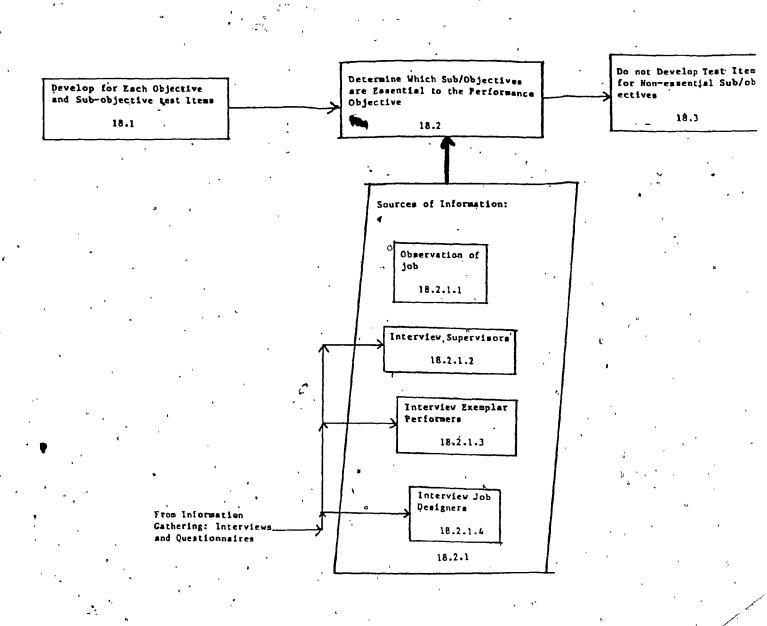
-

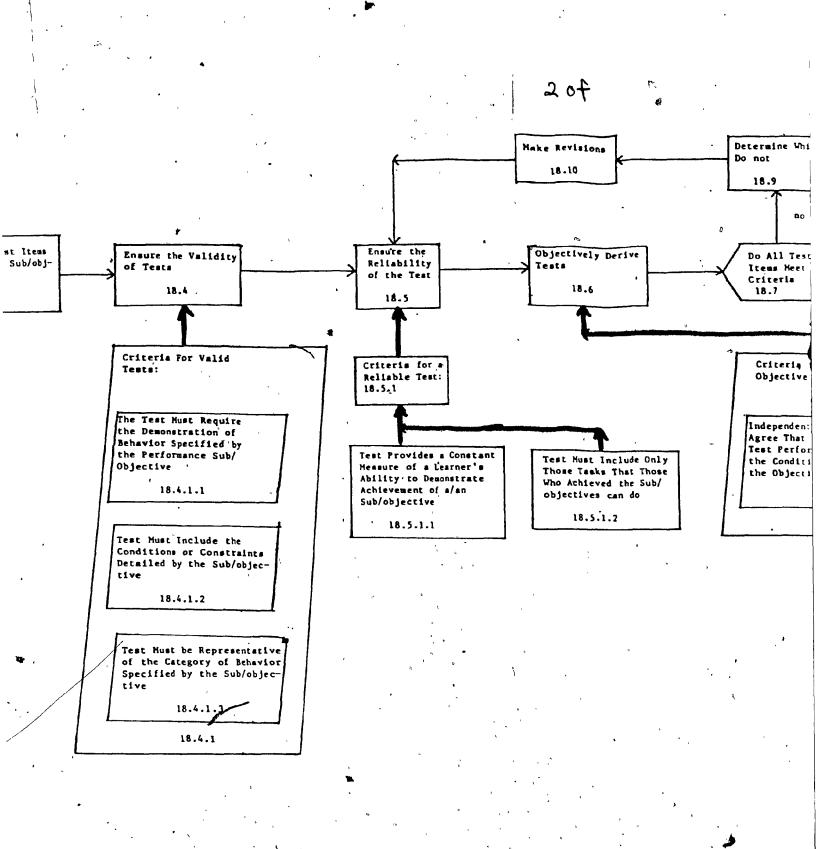
٧.

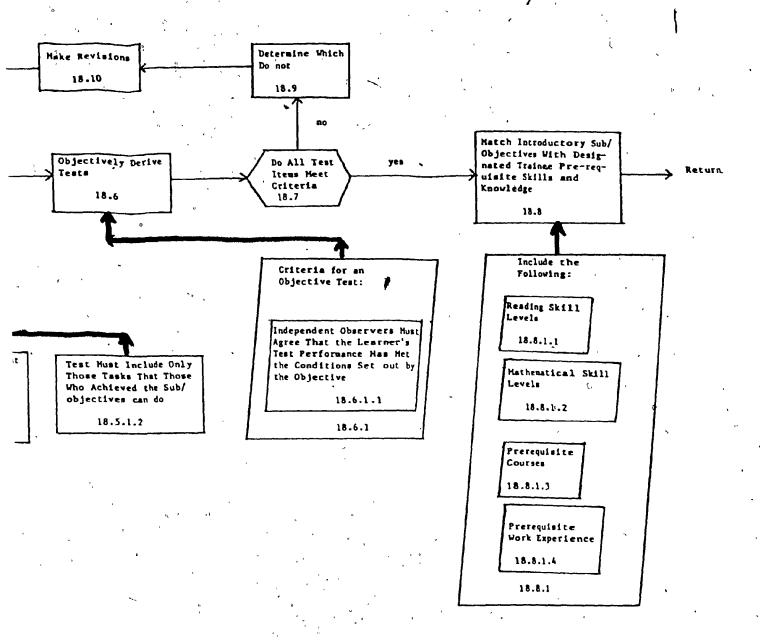


TEST TO DETERMINE IF COURSE OUTCOMES WIDL MATCH JOB TASKS 18.A

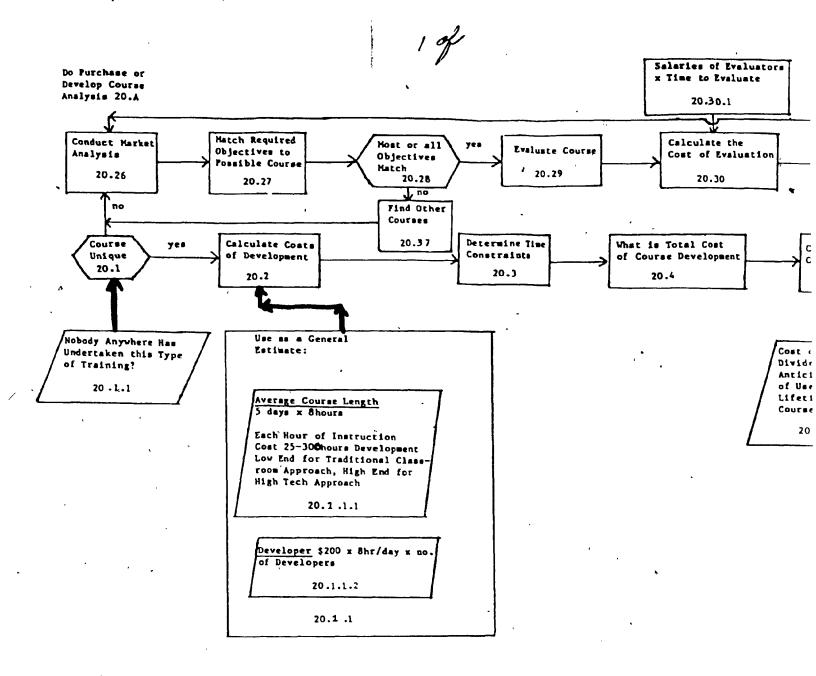
Test to Determine if
Course Outcomes Will
Hatch Job Tasks 18.A

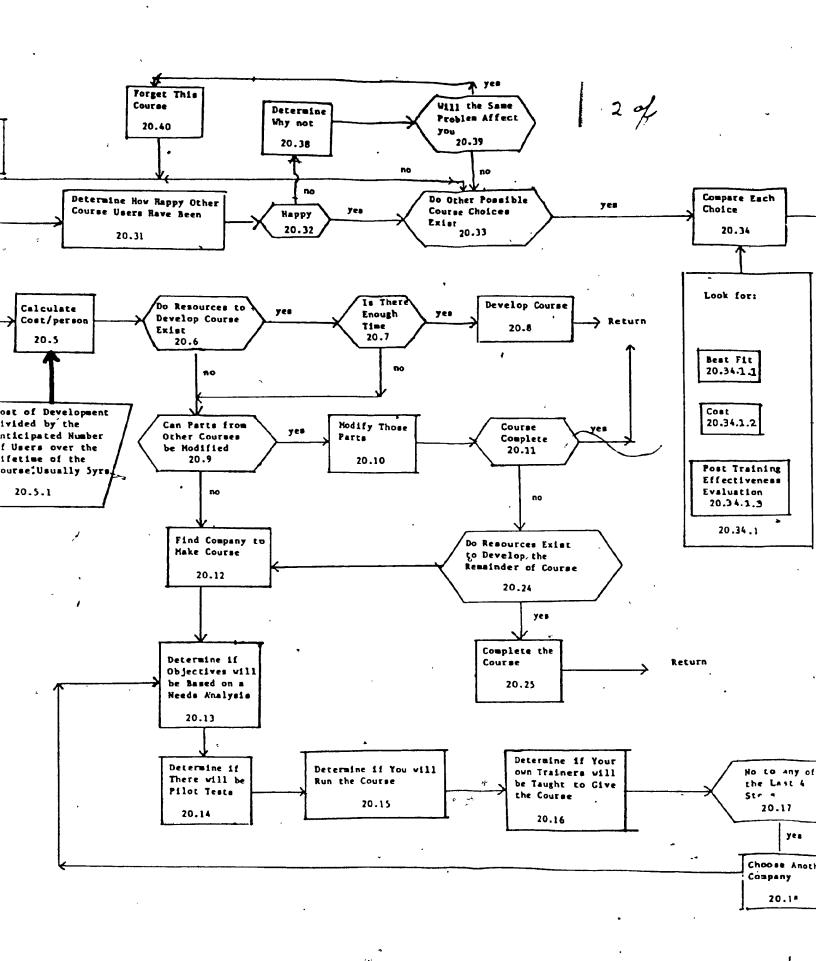


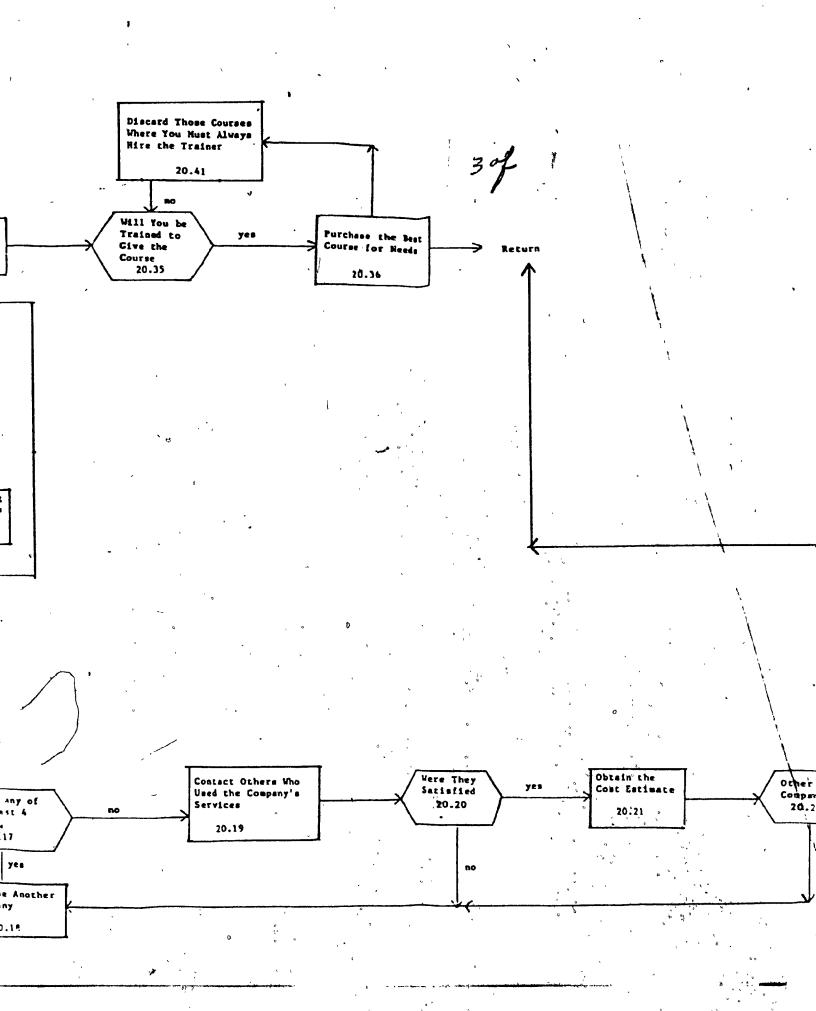


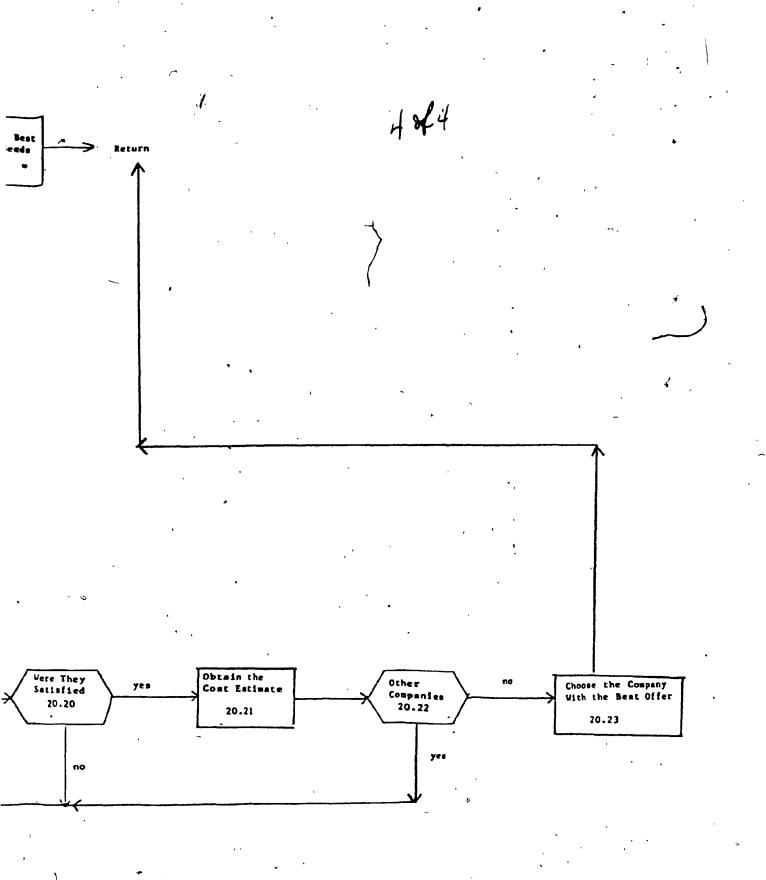


DO PURCHASE OR DEVELOP COURSE ANALYSIS 120.A



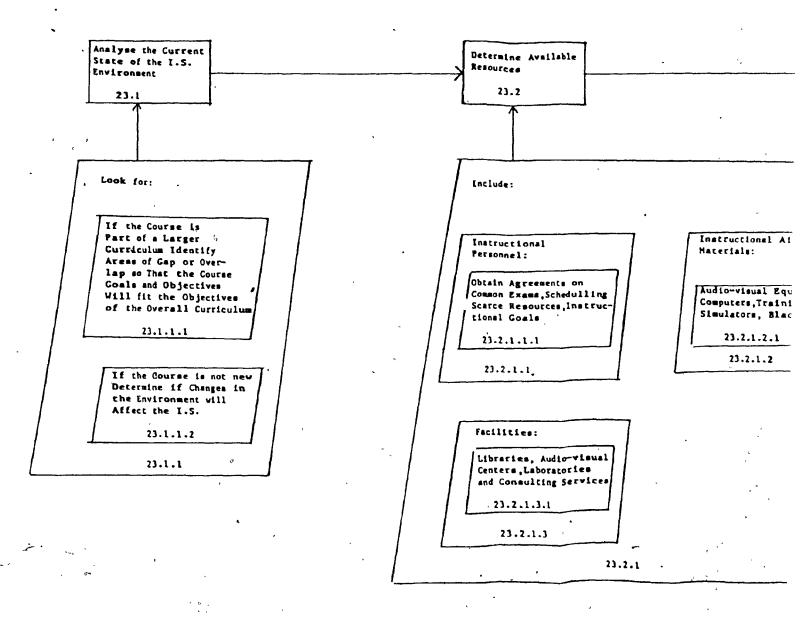


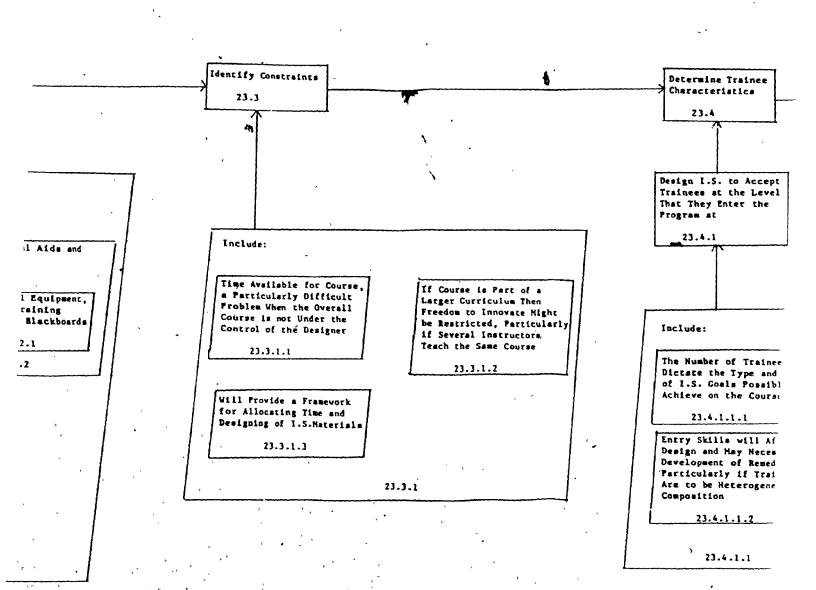




DO INSTRUCTIONAL SYSTEMS ANALYSIS 23.A

Do Instructional System (I.S.) Analysis 23.A





3 7

Design I.S. Using since the Results of the Determine for Each Sub/ I.S. Analysis as Objective the Class of Input Learning Required 23.6 23,5 3 Accept he Level Condition er the Class: General Classes of Learning Informat Information Consisting of Concepts Defined as Sets Relate 1 Simple Words, Definitions, of Stimulii with Common to What Symbols, Results and Other Attributes Isolated Information Provide 23.6.1.1 Time Be Term Re f Trainees Can Type and Number Skills Defined as Complex Possible to Principles Defined as Patterns of Purposeful Functional Relationships Learn he Course Behavior Which Require Between Concepts, Express There the Manipulation of if then, Cause and Effect Divisi 1.1 Learned Information Relationships will Affect Course 23.6.1.4 iny Necessitate the 23.6.1. Make Y Incere of Remedial Units / if Trainee Groups Possit *terogeneous in 23.7 Attitudes Defined as Consistent Patterns of Responses to Complex Stimulii 23.6.1.5 23.6.1

Define Conditions for the Learning for each Sub/objective

23.7

Conditions by Learning Class:

Information:

Relate What is to be Learned to What Learner Already Knows 23.7.1.1.1

Provide for Practice, Increase Time Between Practice for Long Term Retention 23.7.1.1.2

Learn Material Whole if There are no Logical Divisions 23.7.1.1.3

Make Material as Interesting as Possible 23.7.1.1.4

23.7.1.1

Principles:

Relate to Previous Learning 23.7.1.2.1

Have Learner Use Principle to Fredict new Effect 23.7.1.2.2

Use Example to Extend Association 23.7.1.2.3

In General, Work From Concrete to Theoretical and From Simple to Complex 23.7.1.2.4

23.7.1.2

Skille:

Explain Relevancy to Learner 23.7.1.3.1

Have Competent Performer Demonstrate Skill 23.7.1.3.2

Demonstrate Level of Performance Expected by Trainee 23.7.1.3.3

Begin With Elementary Practice of Skills Gradually Increasing to Complex 23.7.1.3.4

Provide Rapid Feedback on Performance Gradually Shifting to Self-evaluation 23.7.1.3.5

Test Against Objective Performance 23.7.1.3.5

23.7.1.3

Concepts:

Outline Application o to be Learned, Review Concepts

23.7.1.4.1

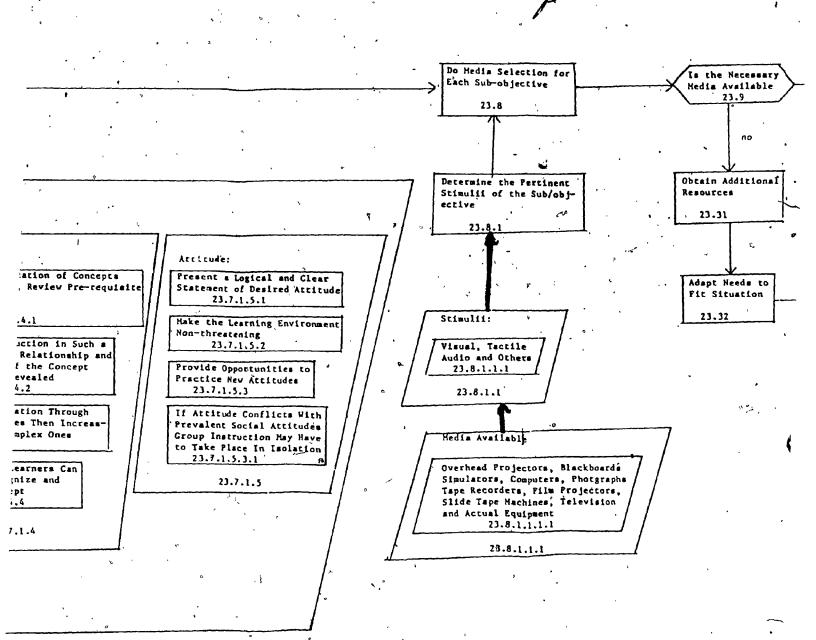
Present Instruction i Manner as the Relatio Commonsity of the Cc Pattern are Revealed 23.7.1.4.2

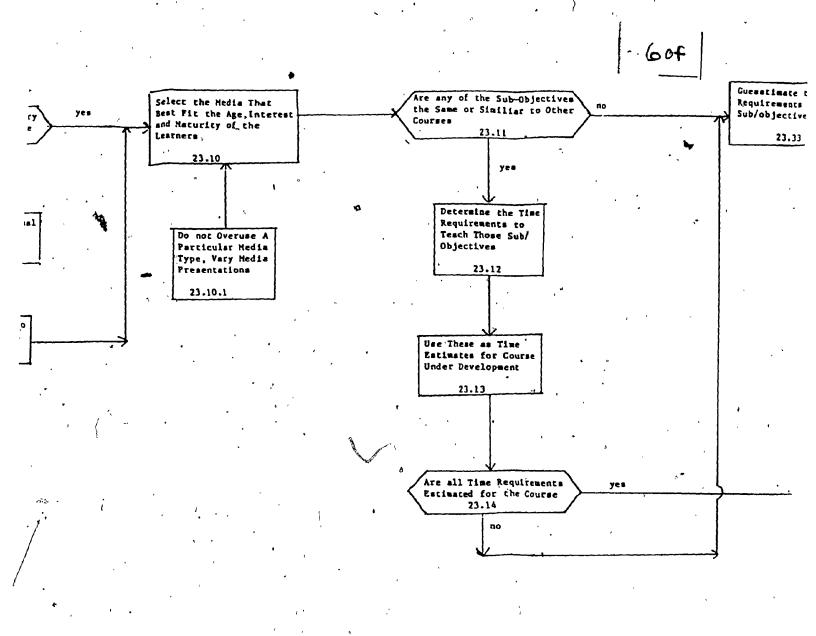
Extend Association TI Simple Examples Then ingly Hore Complex O 23.7.1.4.3

Ensure That Learners Define, Recognize an use the Concept 23.7.1.4.4

23.7.1.4

23.7.1



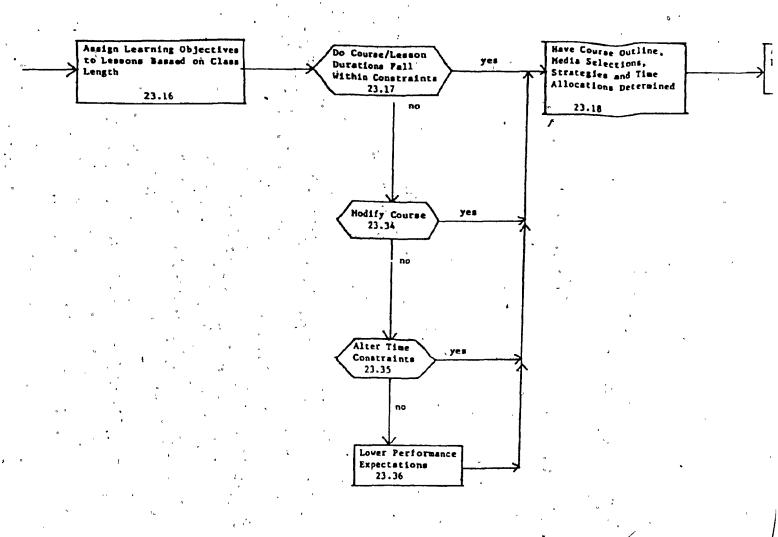


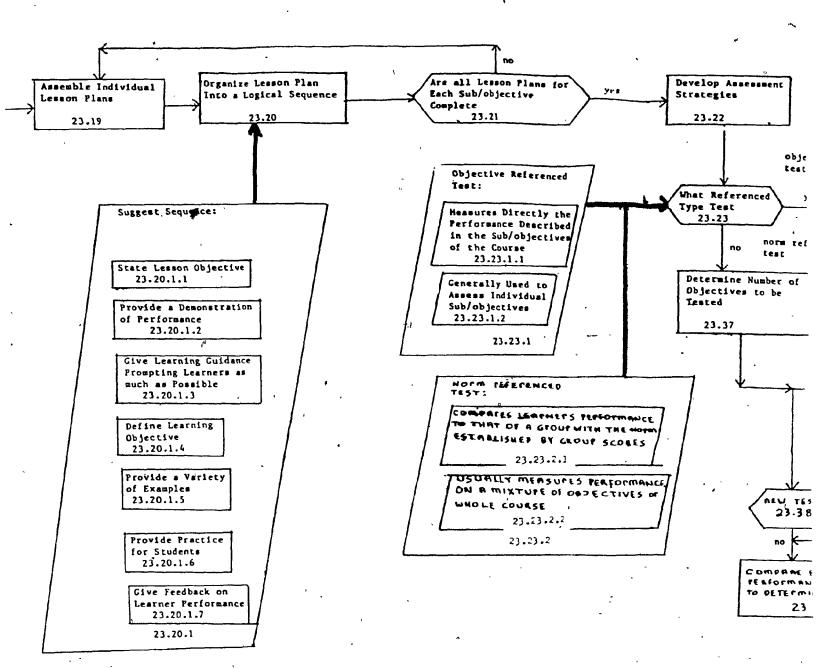
Guesstinate the Time Requirements for Each Sub/objective y of the Sub-Objectives me or Similtar to Other 23.33 yes Decermine the Time Requirements to Teach Those Sub/ Objectives 23,12 e These as Time timates for Course der Development 23.13 re all Time Requirements yes stimated for the Course 23.14 no

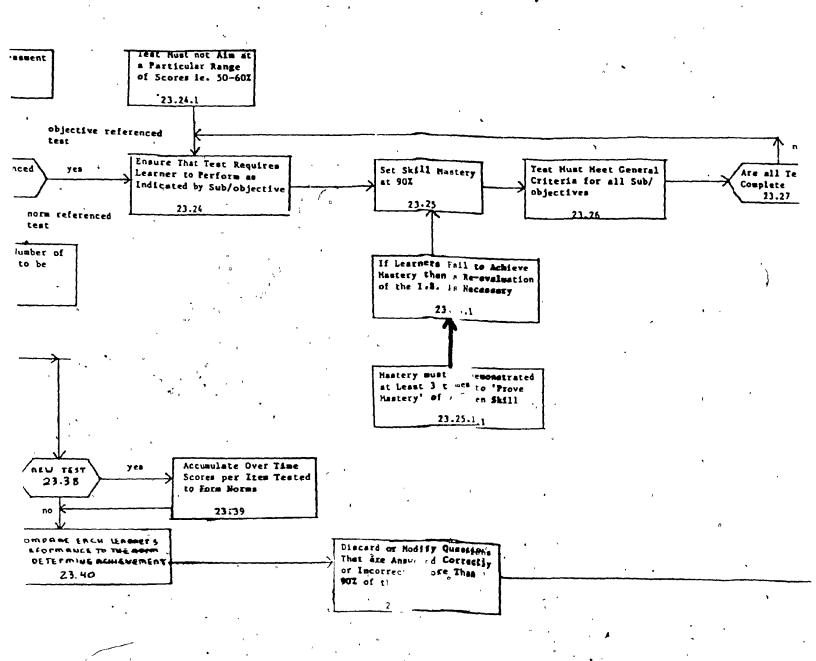
Add Total Times Together to Estimate Total Course Time

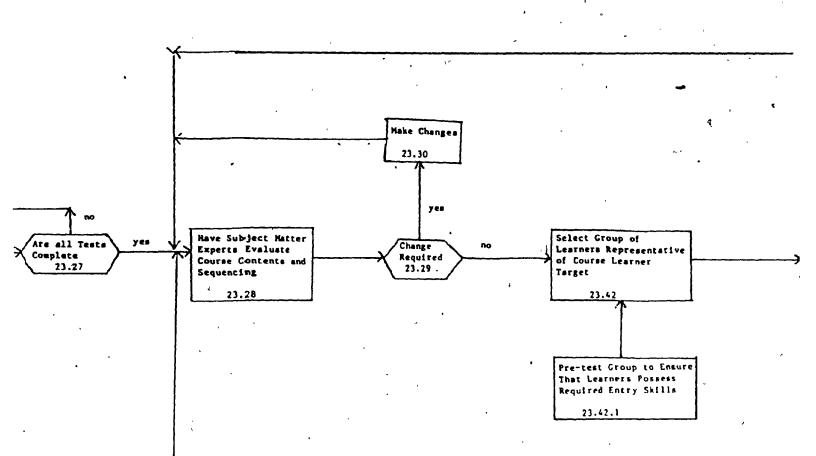
23.15

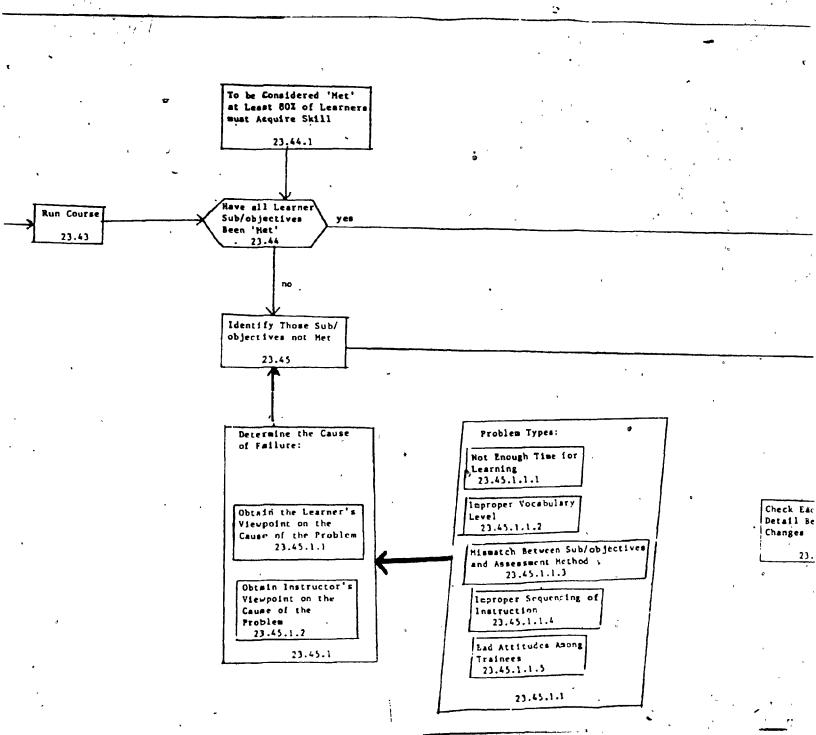
代の意見を教









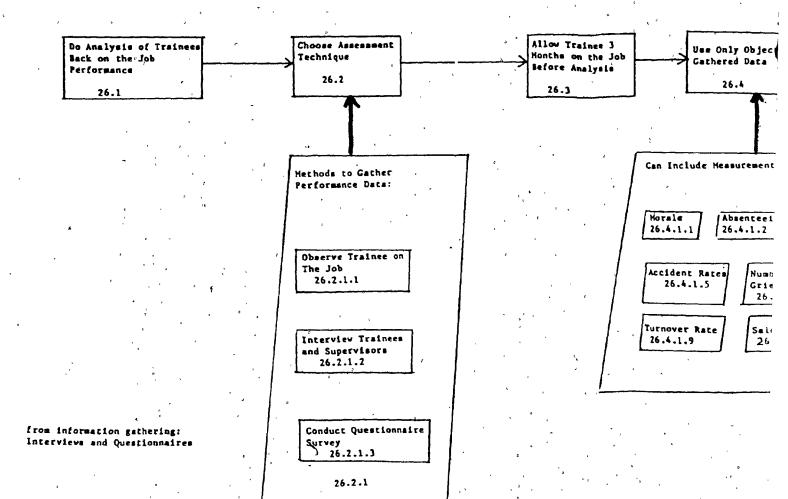


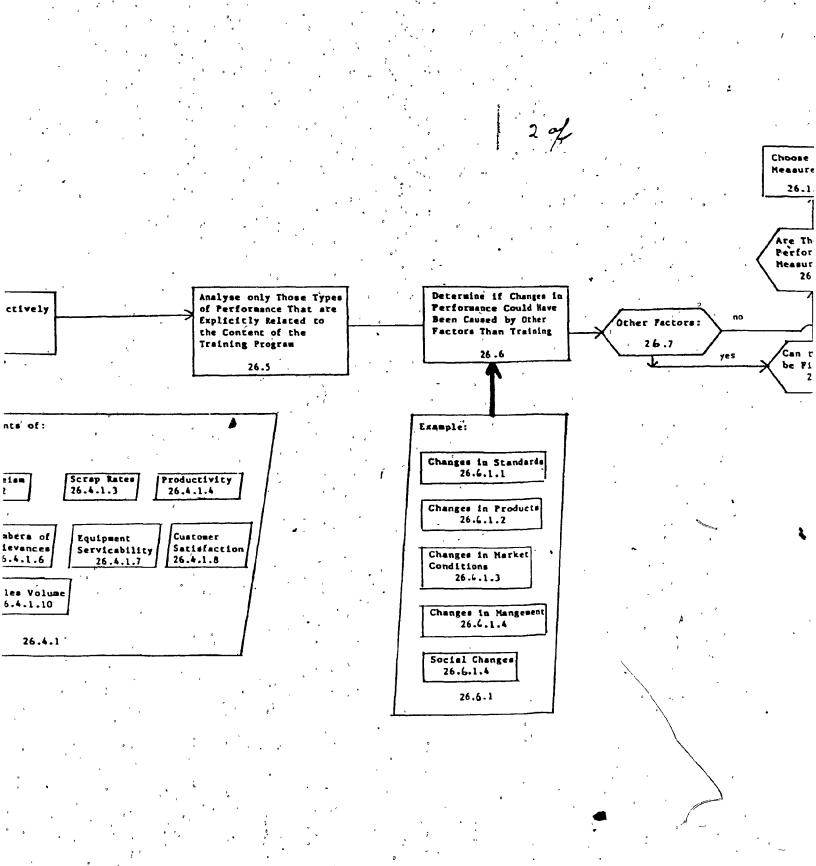
Make all Changes Review 1.5. Process 23.48 Types: Time for ocabulary Check Each Objective in Detail Before Making Will Major Portions of the I.S. Have to be Reviewed and Changed 23247 Changes etween Sub/objectives went Hethod 5.1.1.3 23.46 Sequencing of 1.1.4 udes Asong 1.5

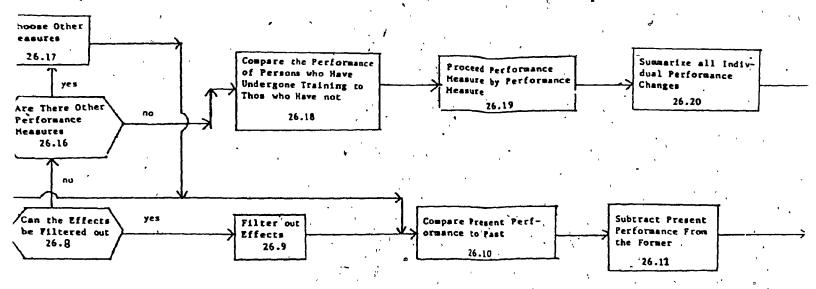
1.1.24.

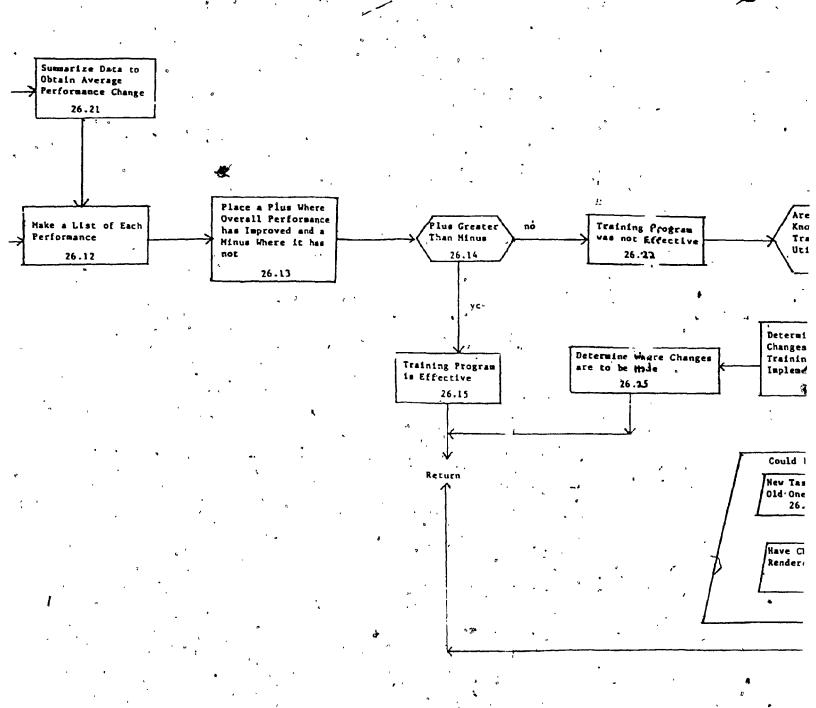
DO TRAINING EFFECTIVENSS ANALYSIS 26.A 1 of

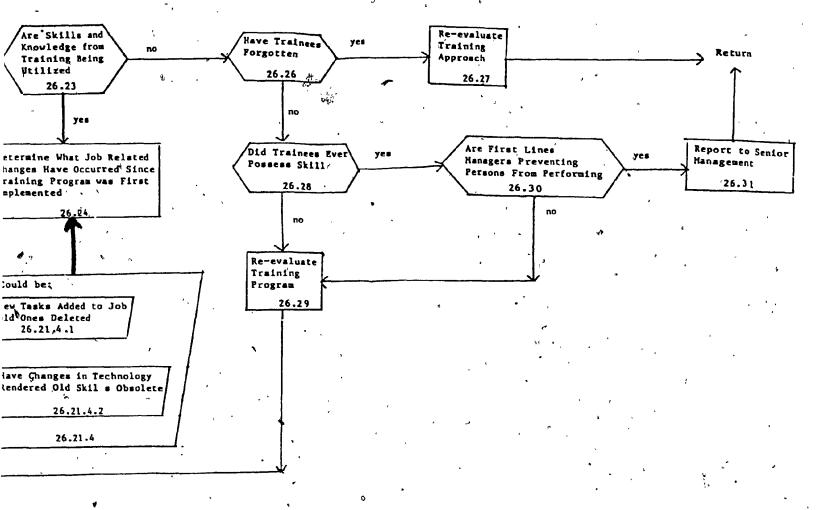
Do Training Effectiveness Analysis: 26.A







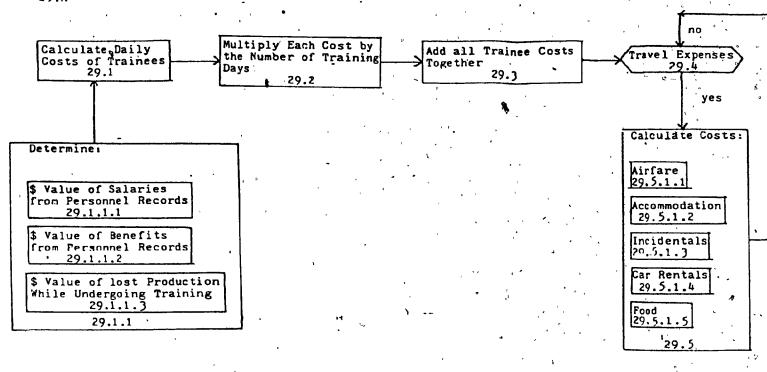




DO TRAINING COST-EFFECTIVENESS ANALYSIS 29.A

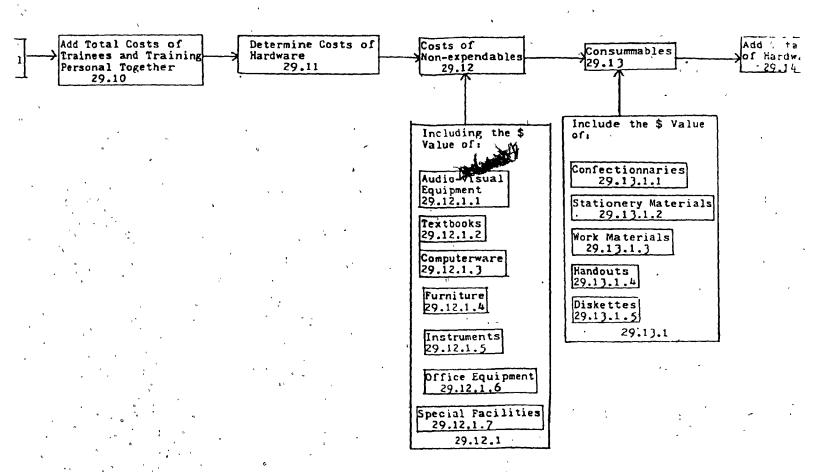
1 of

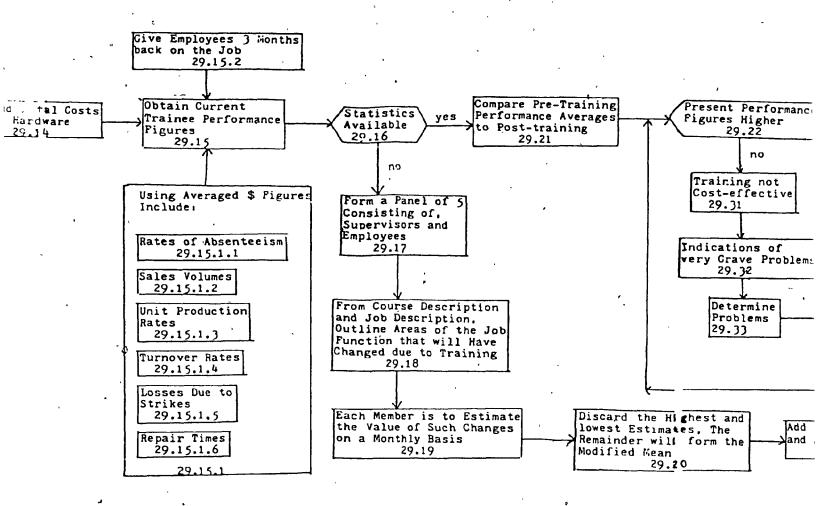
Do Training Cost Effectiveness Analysis, 29.8



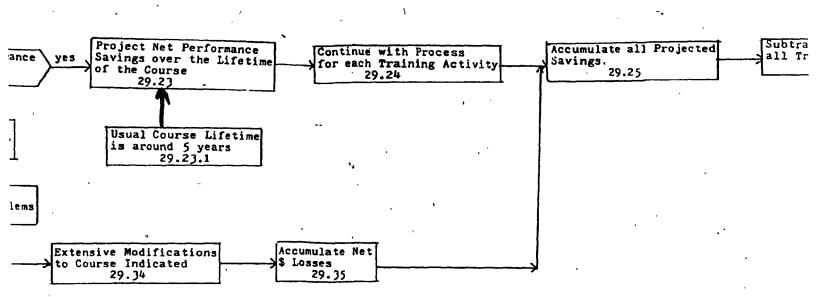
Add all Travel Costs Calculate, Costs of Add all Costs of Calculate Travel Costs for Each Employee Training Personnel Together for Total Training Personnel Travel Costs 29.7 29.9 29.6 > Value of Benefits of Support Staff: Determine: \$ Value of Support Staff Salaries: 29,8,1,1,1 Secretaries, Graphic Artists, Programmers, Technicians Secretaries, Graphic Artists, Programmers, 29.8.1.2.1 29.8.1.2. Technicians 29.8.1.1.2 \$ Value of Salaries of 29.8.1.1 Line Personnel Instructors, Analyst/ Developers, Managers, 29.8.1.4.1 \$ Value of Consultant's Salaries 29.8.1 29.8.1.4 \$ Value of Benefits of Line Personnel Instructors, Analyst/ Developers, Managers 29.8.1.5.1 29.8.1.5

29.8.1





5 0



dd all Figures Together
nd Express in \$'s
29.21

