HOSPITAL ADMINISTRATION TRAINING

MODULE: DIDACTICS

COGNOS
International

Table of content

Learning Objectives

At the end of this module, participants will be able to:

- Plan and design training sessions taking into account different learning styles and principles.
- Plan, prepare and revise a training session that maximizes learner attention and participation.
- Deliver structured group training sessions using a variety of engaging training techniques.
- Set up and facilitate practical exercises integrated into training sessions.

What and how adults do learn

- ✓ Adult learners need to be respected, valued and acknowledged for their past experience and have an opportunity to apply this experience to their current learning
- ✓ Adults learn best in environments that reduce possible threats to self-concept and self-esteem and provide support for change and development
- ✓ Adult learners are highly motivated to learn in areas relevant to their current needs, often generated by real life tasks and problems
- ✓ Adult learners need feedback to develop
- ✓ Adult learners have a tendency towards self-directed learning and learn best when they can set their own pace
- ✓ Adults learn more effectively through experiential techniques (e.g., discussion and problem solving).

Figure 1: What adult learners need, HETI, 2013, p. 4

Adult learning principles

Before planning a training session, it is beneficial to acknowledge the principles of adult learning in comparison to earlier education in life.

Adults come to learning events with a variety of experiences, attitudes and expectations, and the training event needs to account for these in designing effective learning processes. Adults need to connect learning to their knowledge/experience base. To help them do so, facilitators should draw out participants' experience and knowledge, which is relevant to the topic. They must relate theories and concepts to the participants and recognise the value of experience in learning.

Adults usually participate voluntarily in a learning experience and learn best if they have an influence over their learning environment.

In workplace learning, they generally want to be able to apply the skills that they are learning to their jobs immediately so they can see a quick and practical 'return on investment'. Learning has to be applicable to their work or other responsibilities to be of value to them. This means, also, that theories and concepts must be relevant to participants, focusing on the aspects of a session most useful to them in their work. They may not be interested in knowledge for its own sake.

Given these characteristics, it is important for trainers to create learning environments that consider the following adult leaning principles (see next page), including the own behaviour as a trainer, or better learning facilitator, which needs to be very different than the one of a teacher.

		Learning is more likely to happen when:
FEEDBACK		Learning feedback is given continuously.
ACTIVITY		Learners are actively involved in the learning process, incl. opportunities to practice and apply new skills / knowledge
MEANINGFUL		Learners can relate new information and content to existing knowledge, experience and context.
SENSORY CUES		Learners use more than one sense to process information. (e.g. auditory, visual, kinaesthetic)
OVERLEARNING	4 4 4 4	Learners repeat concepts in different ways (variety) to reinforce content.

FIRST AND LAST  Learners acknowledge and retain beginnings and endings better.

RECOGNITION  Learners are more motivated when the learning is recognised and rewarded.

Figure 2: Learning Styles, Peter Honey, 1983

Learning Styles

Activists

Activists involve themselves fully and without bias in new experiences. They enjoy the "here and now" and are happy to be dominated by immediate experiences. They are open-minded, not sceptical, and this tends to make them enthusiastic about anything new. Their philosophy is: "I'll try anything once.". They tend to act first and consider the consequences afterwards. Their days are filled with activity. They tackle problems by brainstorming. As soon as the excitement from one activity has died down they are busy looking for the next. They tend to thrive on the challenge of new experiences but are bored with implementation and longer term consolidation. They are gregarious people constantly involving themselves with others but, in doing so, they seek to centre all activities around themselves.

Reflectors

Reflectors like to stand back to ponder experiences and observe them from many different perspectives. They collect data, both first-hand and from others, and prefer to think about it thoroughly before coming to any conclusion. The thorough collection and analysis of data about experiences and events is what counts, so they tend to adopt a low profile and have a slightly distant, tolerant, unruffled air about them. When they act, it is part of a wide picture which includes the past as well as the present and other's observations as well as their own.

Theorists

Theorists adapt and integrate observations into complex but logically sound theories. They think problems through in a vertical, step by step, logical way. They assimilate disparate facts into coherent theories. They tend to be perfectionists who won't rest easy until things are tidy and fit into a rational scheme. They like to analyse and synthesise. They are keen on basic assumptions, principles, theories, models and systems thinking. Their philosophy prizes rationality and logic: “If it’s logical, it’s good.” Questions they frequently ask are: “Does it make sense?” “How does this fit with that?” “What are the basic assumptions?”

They tend to be detached, analytical, and dedicated to rational objectivity rather than anything subjective or ambiguous. Their approach to problems is consistently logical. This is their “mental set” and they rigidly reject anything that doesn’t fit with it. They prefer to maximise certainty and feel uncomfortable with subjective judgements, lateral thinking and anything flippant.

Pragmatists

Pragmatists are keen on trying out ideas, theories and techniques to see if they work in practice. They positively search out new ideas and take the first opportunity to experiment with applications. They are the sort of people who return from management courses brimming with new ideas that they want to try out in practice. They like to get on with things and act quickly and confidently on ideas that attract them.

They tend to be impatient with ruminating and open-ended discussions. They are essentially practical, down-to-earth people who like making practical decisions and solving problems. They respond to problems and opportunities “as a challenge”. Their philosophy is: “There is always a better way,” and, “If it works, it’s good.”

Inductive vs. deductive learning

Deductive learning works from the "general" to the "specific".

This is also called a "top-down" approach. The deductive learning process works as follows: A theory about the topic is presented and then narrowed down to one or many specific premises (hypothesis that we test or can test).

Once the theory and its premises are understood, applications for this theory are presented and explained, including the sharing of observations of the reality and examples of the work context of the training participants.

In a conclusion, when we use deduction we reason from general principles to specific cases, as in applying a mathematical theorem to a particular problem or in citing a law or physics to predict the outcome of an experiment.

Inductive learning works the other way, it works from an experience or observation toward generalisations and theories.

This is also called a “bottom-up approach. Inductive learning starts from specific experiences and observations (or measurement if you are mathematician or more precisely statistician), reviewing this experience and look for patterns, regularities and meanings, formulate hypothesis that we could work with and finally ended up developing general theories or drawing conclusion. In a conclusion, when infer a general principle or law.

Inductive learning is open-ended and exploratory especially at the beginning. On the other hand, deductive reasoning is narrow in nature and is concerned with testing or confirming hypothesis.

Adults in general learn best when both approaches are combined. As problem solvers at work and often very experienced, they need conclusions for their experiences. The conclusions need to be complimented by theory and input before planning practical applications.

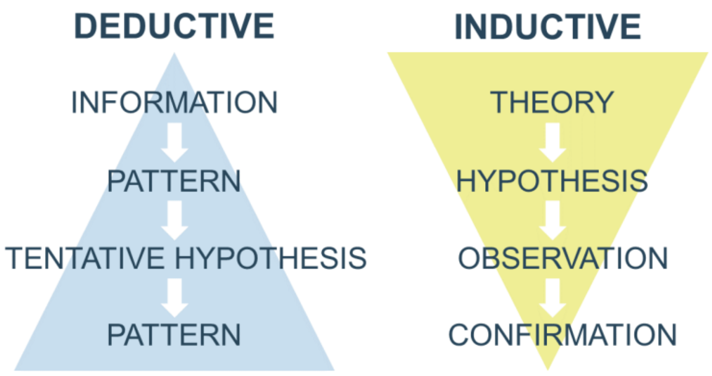
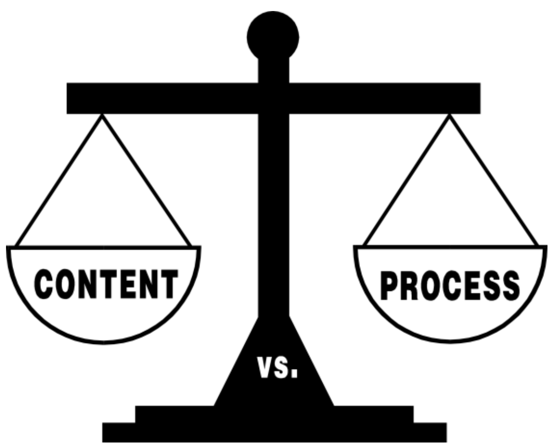


Figure 3: Inductive vs Deductive Teaching

Training design

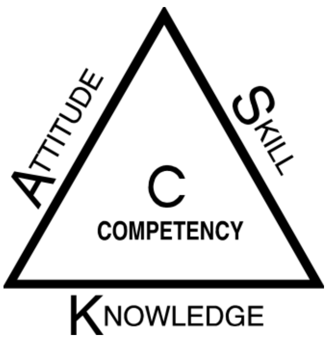
Content vs. process
The number one concept for trainers



Too many trainers place too little emphasis on the process of instruction and indeed the process of learning. Effective trainers have a balance. So when you're planning your next session, consider these two questions:

1. What do they need to learn? *(ie. the content)*
2. How will I help them to learn? *(ie. the process)*

What is competency?



Competency can be defined simply as “doing things at work to a standard”.

When training, we need to have a complete understanding of these workplace standards, so that we can identify training needs and design performance-enhancing training solutions. These competency standards are made up of three elements - attitude, skill and knowledge. To assist learning, it is sometimes easier to train people in one element at a time, then have them practice all three elements together, later in the training.

To train people to these standards, we can set objectives for each element that the learner may be tested on during the training.

How to structure a training process

Tell, Show, Do, Review

First, the knowledge is presented, using visual aids. Then the learners complete an activity where they practice and apply the knowledge for a concrete case, situation or task. Once that activity is completed, the trainer facilitates a review to reflect on the exercise, draw conclusions and transfer conclusions to the practical context of the participants (see experiential learning cycle).

Prepare, Present, Practice, Put to work

If a skill is to be learned, prepare the learner for the learning activity, which is to follow.

Firstly, learners need to be put at ease. Learners should be told the precise task they have to learn so they know what is expected of them incl. a preview of the sequence that the session will take. The learners must be motivated to put as much effort as possible into the learning activity.

Then provide the learners with knowledge of how the task should be performed by demonstrating the task in front of the individual or group. This sets the standard they should aim for in terms of accuracy, speed and quality. Next, the task should be done slowly, stage by stage, explaining the key points. By exposing learners to one stage at a time, they have the opportunity to grasp each stage before moving on to the next.

Then the learner undertakes the first practice under supervision, then as individuals and at their own pace. Finally, the task is reviewed and the learners are motivated to continue to develop their skill.

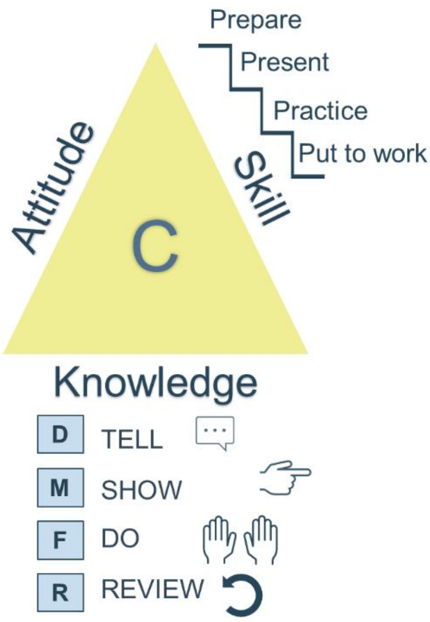


Figure 4: Attitude, Skill, Knowledge

Debriefing experiential learning

An old saying suggests, “experience cannot be told, experiences tells us”. In order to shift attitudes, learners should go through a practical experience.

Experiential learning cycle
On basis of David Kolb, 1984

David Kolb's experiential learning theory is today acknowledged by academics, teachers, managers and trainers as fundamental concept towards our understanding and explaining of human learning behaviour and towards helping others to learn.

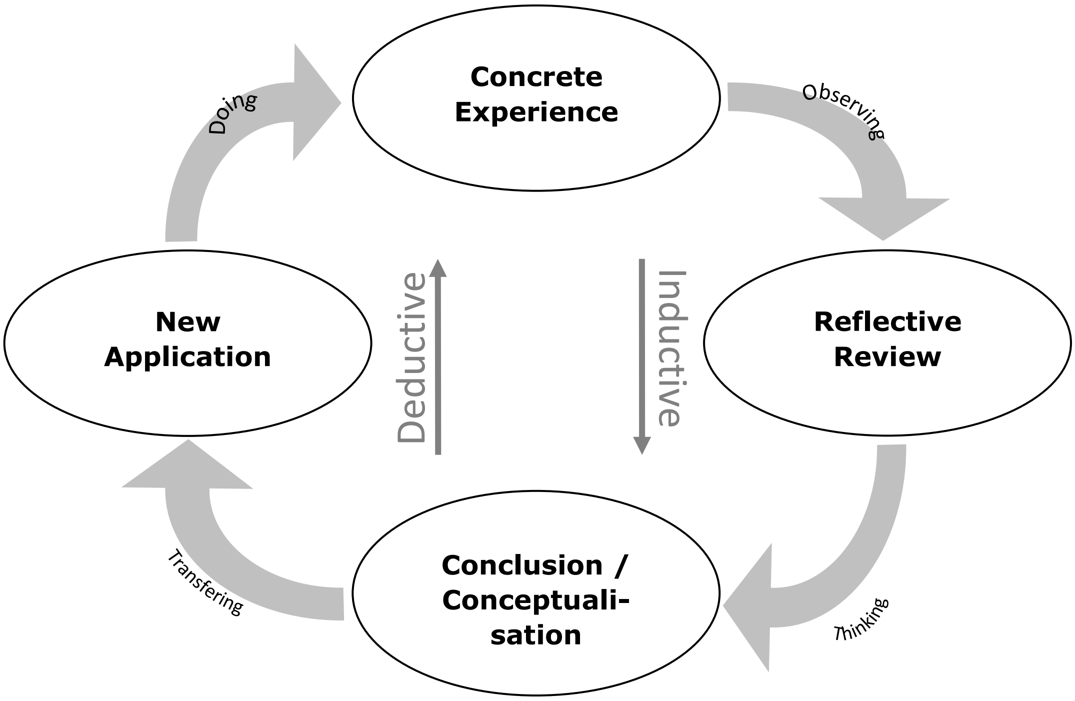


Figure 5: Deductive & Inductive Learning

Concrete experience	A team or individual has an experience (finished a project, had a success, failed in something, delivered not the right quality, had an incident, got excellent feedback from others etc.)
Reflective review	By reflection of what actually happened, we review our observations, feelings, look at facts and outcomes from the perspective of an observer from a neutral stance.
Conclusion/Conceptualisation	Once reviewed, we bring together the learning points and draw conclusions. We abstract and ask for the general principle, theory or concept that we can develop from the learning points to formulate a hypothesis that applies in more general.
New applications	Once concluded, we ask how can we implement or apply each of the identified conclusions to the next activity (task, project etc). It may include the transfer to other areas of the work as well (if this applies to this, can it apply to that as well?)

New concrete experience	Now we apply what we have planned and give it a go to make new experiences.
Reflective review	… and this cycle starts again.

Please also reflect on the learning styles and the link between the learning styles and the experiential learning cycle.

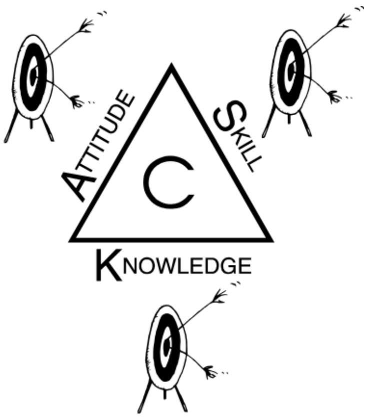
Structuring of a Presentation in six phases

This universal structure may help you to prepare a presentation as part of your "Tell & Show" as well as any other business presentation.

Phases of a presentation	**Possible contents**
1. Start: **Mini-What**	Identify the topic: what's the presentation about? Scope? Arouse curiosity and interest. Turn the Radio on: WII-FM What's In It For Me
2. Why	Describe the initial position and the purpose and objective of the presentation
3. What	Provide (technical) information and general data that provides a basics orientation/understanding of the substance
4. How	What to do? – How? – How does it work? Provide examples, cases etc. and show how it looks in practice
5. What if?	Present the results; what will happen if the presented WHAT is working; describe the concrete outcome and benefits of the solution/proposal
6. End	Summary of the central issues Restating your main message ***"Last song"***

If you allow questions (at the end), then place the Q&A session after step 5, not at the very end. The last words people should have in "their ears" should be your central message!!

Writing Learning Outcomes / Objectives



A training course is designed to achieve certain outcomes. The chief activity of training is to change individuals in some way: to add to the knowledge they possess; to enable them to perform skills which otherwise they could not perform; to develop certain understanding, insights and attitudes. The statements of these desired or expected outcomes are usually called training objectives or learning outcomes. They could be skill outcomes, knowledge outcomes or attitude outcomes, depending on the training session you need to deliver.

A learning outcome is a statement, in objective terms, of the behaviour required to meet identified performance needs. It is the description of a performance a learner must be able to show during the training as a building block to achieve competency. Without a clear outcome it is difficult, if not impossible, to measure the progress a learner is making towards developing competence.

A learning outcome, therefore, can be defined as a statement of what the successful learner will be able to do at the end of the training session.

There are three components required in writing a clear learning outcome:

1. Performance:

An objective always says what a learner is expected to be able to do. It is essential that the performance be expressed in terms that are observable and measurable.

"... **type a letter**" is observable and measurable.
"... **understand how to type a letter**" is not.

2. Standards:

Whenever possible, an objective describes how well the learner must perform in order to be considered acceptable. Standards are usually expressed in terms of quality, quantity and time.

"...a one page letter, with no more than 2% errors, in 20 minutes."

3. Conditions:

A learning outcome also describes the important conditions (if any) under which the performance is to occur. By conditions, we mean the environment under which the learning outcome is to be achieved.

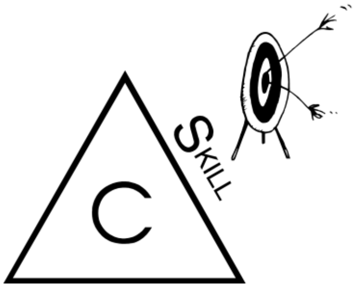
"... using a personal computer, and while wearing a blindfold."

To put the separate components together to form a clear statement, you need to add an introductory line followed by the actual learning outcome:

"At the end of this training, the successful learner will be able to type a one page letter with no more than 2% errors in 20 minutes, using a personal computer and while wearing a blindfold."

In summary, a learning outcome describes an intended result of instruction, rather than the process of instruction itself. An objective always states a performance describing what the learner will be doing when demonstrating achievement of the objective.

How to deliver a skills training session



Skills defined

- A skill is the ability to perform a task in an efficient way to a defined standard.
- A skill is cumulative - built through practice.
- A skill is sequential - each part relates to previous and next parts.

Structure of the skill session

The skill session has four distinct steps which comprise its structure:

Step 1: Prepare the learner

Step 2: Present the skill

Step 3: Practice the skill

Step 4: Put to work

1. Prepare the learner

During this step, the learners are prepared for the learning activity which is to follow.

Firstly, learners need to be put at ease. Friendliness and sincerity are the key factors here. The task should be stated and the completed article shown. Learners should be told the precise task they have to learn so they know what is expected of them. The completed article should assist with this explanation. A check of their knowledge of the task may save time or lead to the correction of wrong ideas.

The learners must be motivated to put as much effort as possible into the learning activity. The importance of the task should be explained and learners should be "sold" on the need to learn it. It may be necessary to tell them how it fits in with their past experiences and the work they will be doing in the future.

It is important to give a preview of the sequence that the session will take. Ensure that the learners are properly positioned for the activity. They should be as comfortable as possible and in a position so that each can see all of what is going on.

2. Present the skill

The purpose of this step is to provide the learners with knowledge of how the task should be performed.

Before the instructor demonstrates the task, the material and equipment should be named. This enables learners to identify the various components, forms, tools, references and other aids to be used in the task. Technical terms and names which could be new to the learners should be listed and explained.

The task should be performed right through in front of the individual or group. This sets the standard they should aim for in terms of accuracy, speed and quality (recognition). This should be done with little or no commentary so as not to overload the learner with too much too soon. With some tasks, especially those of a clerical nature, it is not practical to do the whole task first, and a brief outline of the task may be more appropriate.

Next, the task should be done slowly, stage by stage, explaining the key points (explanation). By exposing learners to one stage at a time, they have the opportunity to grasp each stage before moving on to the next. Learners should be questioned briefly on their recall of stages and understanding of the key points.

3. Practice the skill

This is the most important step in the process.

Learners should be given the material and equipment they require during this step.

The first practice should be under the direct control of the instructor. The learner(s) should be asked to name each stage and the related key points, before doing that portion of the task. This will help apply the rule of "right first time".

The learner(s) should practice the task again, but as individuals and at their own pace. If the task is simple and straightforward, the learners may require only one practice at their own pace in order to achieve the session objective. However, more practice will be required for longer, more complex tasks.

4. Put to work

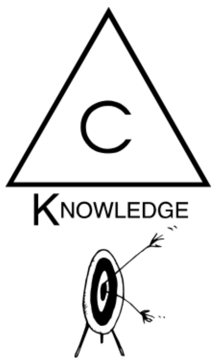
In this step, the task is reviewed and the learners are motivated to continue to develop their skill.

The stages and key points are briefly revised and learners are advised of any personal responsibilities they may have in relation to the task. It may also be essential to point out any special cases or tricky applications they may meet on the job.

If the session is part of a series on a particular task or job, or is related to some future activity, the learners should be told how the newly acquired skill fits into the overall sequence.

Finally, the instructor should ask for, and respond to, any questions from the learner(s).

How to deliver a knowledge training session



Knowledge session planning

The success of every knowledge session depends on thorough preparation. Time spent in preparation is time saved later on, since a well-prepared session is an easy session to train, and an easy session to apply.

In planning a session, the trainer needs to consider:

- Objectives of the session
- The content
- Capacity of the learners
- Time available
- Training aids
- Structuring the session plan

Deciding on the content

In most cases, one of the main problems of the trainer is what to exclude rather than what to include.

A good guide is to classify the subject matter into three areas. These are:

1. What the learner ***must know*** - must be included if the learner is to achieve the outcome.
2. What the learner ***should know*** - content that must be covered to assist learners in gaining a clear understanding of that which they must know.
3. What the learner ***could know*** - desirable information, but not essential to a clear understanding.

The trainer must successfully train in that which the learners must and should know. What else is covered will depend on the time available.

Learners’ capacity

The trainer needs to consider how much they know at present, and how quickly they can learn, what language they are familiar with, and how much experience they have had applying concepts.

Time available

Session material needs to be planned and pruned, if necessary, to fit the time available. The trainer should never attempt to cram the information into the time available. Learners get frustrated if outcomes aren’t met, and the trainer gets the “blues” after the session. On the other hand, if there is “too much time”, the trainer can allow more time for “Do” and “Review”.

Please plan very conservatively, as people may arrive later at the start and from breaks and may also use training events for building relationships rather than just focus on the training itself.

Structure the process of your knowledge training session

Introduction:

- Explain scope/topic/competency
- State purpose and benefit of this training (“WII-FM”)
- State learning outcomes objective
- Overview & Context
- Explore existing knowledge

Body:

- Tell, Show, Do, Review

…

Summarise and conclude

- Reinforce key messages
- Review key learning points of the entire session
- Discuss learning transfer

1

Topic: Place: Participants No.:	**Training Session planner**	Trainer: Start time: End time: Date:

Learning objectives: By the end of this program the participants will be able to:

-
-
-
-

No	Content	Process	Comments	Visual aids / equipment	Time / step

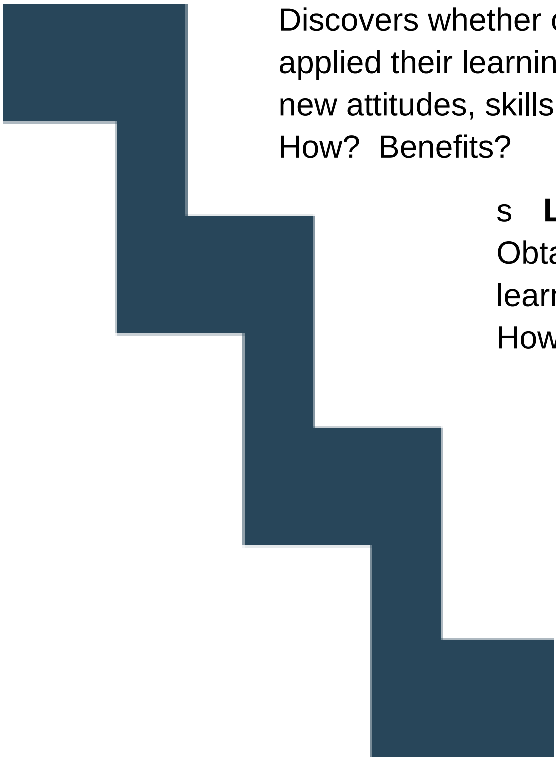
Training Evaluation

The training evaluation ladder

s **Organisational Level: “Measuring”**

Measures the effects of the learners performance on the organisation.
How? Benefits?

s **Competency level: “Assessing”**
Discovers whether or not learners have applied their learning in the workplace, ie. new attitudes, skills or knowledge.
How? Benefits?



s **Learning level: “Testing”**
Obtains information on the amount of learning that learners acquire during the training program.
How? Benefits?

s **Reactions level: “Sensing”**
Provides a short-term assessment of the learners’ interests and feelings about the course and an indication of those parts of the course which may require change.
How? Benefits:

An evaluation process

Step 1: Recognise training program to be evaluated.

Step 2: Determine level of evaluation.

Step 3: Select data collection tools (e.g. questionnaires, interviews, critical incidents, organisational records, evaluation sheets, tests, competency assessment methods)

Step 4: Prepare and present evaluation plan to gain agreement.

Step 5: Collect data after agreement to plan.

Step 6: Analyse data and write report.

Step 7: Present results including return on investment (if applicable); findings, conclusions and recommendations.

Optional evaluation questions

1. To what extent did the participants attain the stated learning outcomes?
2. To what extent did participants enjoy the training delivery?
3. What elements of the training program did participants consider the most relevant for their own work?
4. To what extent have the participants' expecation being met?
5. To what extent have the participants' questions being answered?
6. What did participants particularly like/dislike about this training program?
7. How can the training program be improved in the future?
8. What are the results of the training program in organisational terms?
9. How were program participants selected?
10. What are the relevant organisational issues relating to this training?
11. To what extent was the program content appropriate for the participants?
12. To what extent were the logistical arrangements for the program adequate?
13. How did the training activities contribute to achieving the desired learning outcomes?
14. What feedback ought to be given to the program participants?
15. What feedback ought to be given to the trainer?
16. What evaluation data ought to be provided to management and how should it be presented?
17. To what extent was the training program cost effective?
18. To what extent was the training program efficient?
19. What follow-up activities are recommended?
20. What will happen if these activities are not acted on?

Practical tips on conducting engaging training sessions

1. **Restrict** the information/knowledge **input** by the trainer to that which is essential for the learner to be able to practice a skill successfully.
2. **Restrict the amount of verbal information** to that which is essential and which could not be handled in another way, eg. visual aids, literature, memory aids, performance aids, application. Use verbal information mainly for direction, feedback and questions.
3. If information is important, have it presented in a **handout for later reference** to accommodate all learning styles.
4. The closer the training situation resembles **real life** conditions, the more likely the learner accepts it and learns more effectively.
5. Move **from the known to the unknown** and use a **mix of inductive and deductive** learning.
6. Wherever possible, **use the knowledge of the learners and involve** them as much as possible.
7. **Stay flexible within your structure** and allow your training material to **bend to the needs of the learners** on their terms and in their language. Don't try to force learners to bend to your agenda, attitudes and your language.
8. Constantly look for opportunities to **check where learners are** in relation to learning the skills being presented.
9. Whenever possible, **use open questions** to engage in analytical and creative thinking.
10. When making statements, consistently **share the rationale** behind, e.g. **reasons** and **explanations**, to promote the understanding and acceptance of your content.
11. Constantly look for opportunities to catch people doing things well (approximately right in the beginning) and **give encouragement, feedback** and praise to motivate and reinforce learners.
12. Schedule the training in **small, digestible pieces** rather than big chunks.
13. Schedule **small group work**, rather than you as the trainer being the only source of knowledge and opinion.
14. Schedule as much **activity and participation** as possible (a ratio of 30% trainer input to 70% learner activity would be ideal).
15. Schedule a **variety** of activity, presentation and content to help encourage an interesting environment for learning and manage the learner's energy and attention.

16. **Keep to** your broad **schedule** and, if content has to be eliminated during a training session, ensure it is the “could content” that is eliminated rather than essential material.
17. Adopt a **friendly, supportive role** (to encourage learners) rather than a “parental” teaching or “over-directive” role. Act as an adult-adult facilitator of learning rather than a teacher.
18. Always remember that the **trainer is there to serve the needs of the learners**. The learners are not there to meet the needs of the trainer.

Ask open questions

These questions start with: “What are…”, “How…”, “Why…”, “What did …”, “Who did...”. A ‘Yes’ or ‘No’ cannot answer them. Open questions will give you information. **Open questions encourage the other person**

to give information,

to explore background,

to explain reasons and

to share own thinking.

The content of an answer is more open, so can be less directed by the asking person. The person who is asking is in the lead, the person who answers responds. The best open questions are “How” and “What” questions as they **stimulate and engage in analytical and creative thinking**. You can also use “Please tell me more about …”, etc to inspire dialogue.

To get at the heart of an issue, you must ask questions that hone-in on previous answers for further information. They can be used to clarify or explore. These questions start with: “When…”, “Where…”, “Who…”, “What did …”. Use also reflective questions to literally reflect back all or part of what someone has just said and encourage him/her to further elaborate – e.g. “They make me so angry.” “All of them?”, “I feel so helpless.” “Helpless – in what way?”

Use closed questions only consciously

Closed questions (where the answer is “yes” or “no”) will help you **focus** and give **direction** to the conversation. Closed questions help to direct a conversation towards a certain content, to focus on a particular topic and to avoid a specific issue. Closed questions are often misused to get information. You won’t get much information with closed questions nor will you be able to let the other person talk. You also give the power away and risk a “NO!” from the other person.

Þ Alternative questions

A variation of a closed question offers a choice between two or more alternatives (this or that?). You decide the alternatives and therefore exclude any alternatives you want to exclude as possible answer.

So, if you would like to lead a conversation, use closed questions only consciously for the following three applications":

- **Confirmation / clarification** (incl. paraphrasing/summarising)
- **Direction** (alternative question)
- **Decision, closing**, **finalising** a conclusion or agreement

Avoid suggestive questions

Suggestive questions are closed questions that can be used to get approval of the asker's opinion from the other person who is being influenced, because something is suggested to him that he may not be able to reject. "Would you agree that …?" It can be perceived as manipulative, which may create defensiveness and anger and the listener may lose her/his commitment to the conversation.

Horizontal vs. vertical questioning

With horizontal open questions, you can widen a scope of a topic. E.g. "where else have you experienced …." or "what else …". It gives you width of a topic and explores on a high level possible aspects of a topic.

With vertical open questions, you can go deeper into a horizontally identified topic by asking more specific questions based on the responses of previous questions. This requires strong active listening to identify key words in the responses from the other person and use this key word as the scope for the next open question. It gives you depth in a specific topic and explores insights on a very deep level.

The questioning funnel – vertical questioning

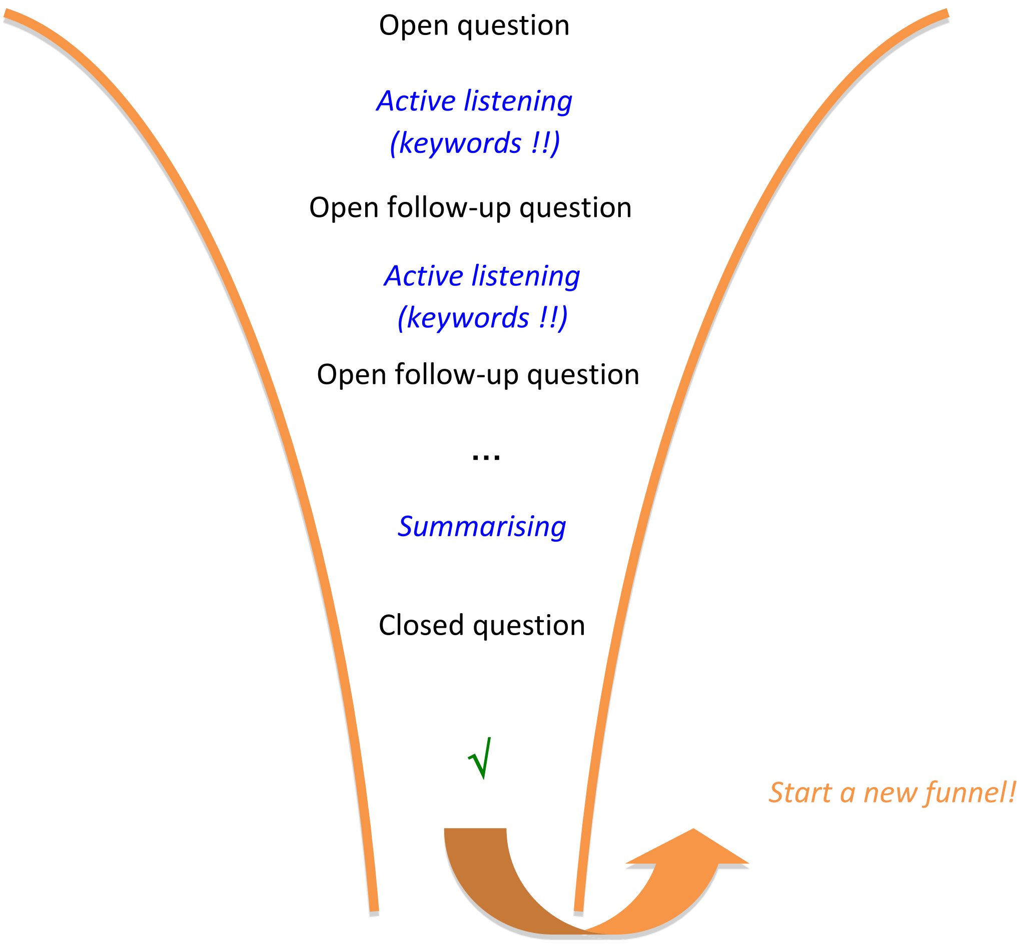


Figure 6: The questioning funnel

Verbal and non-verbal communication

In communication the sender influences the receiver approximately …

- ▲ 60 % through body language
- ▲ 33 % with voice and emphasis
- ▲ 7 % by factual content

Considering this learning point, you have various opportunities to build an affective relationship and speak specifically to your audience.

- ▲ Through your **voice**
  - **Tone** - If our tone is inappropriate (if we sound bored, patronising, judgemental etc.) it won't matter what we say - the receiver will react to our tone, not our words.
  - **Emphasis** - Variation in the pitch and inflection of our voice and placement of emphasis on keywords, phrases and concepts, conveys interest and commitment to the message.
  - **Clarity -** Keeping our voice clear and at the appropriate volume, so that it is audible but not distracting, ensures that more attention is given to the message.
  - **Volume** - A loud voice indicates either great excitement or aggression and can either intimidate listeners or put them on the defensive, depending on the situational and cultural context. A quiet voice can give the impression of shyness and uncertainty. Speaking at an even pace and pitching your voice in the middle register should help to ensure that the volume of your voice stays within a range, which is comfortable and pleasant to the listener. However, to emphasis certain parts, it is appropriate to change to volume and then come back to the "normal" volume.
  - **Fluency** - Keeping our voice fluent, without gaps, "ums" or "aahs" which break the continuity, reduces the irritation, and assists in maintaining attention. However, pauses in between also send signals. No pauses can make your message sound long-winded and confused. And: pauses are an opportunity for you to breathe and for the listener to process the information and reflect.
  - **Pace -** The speed with which you speak will indicate how you are feeling. Speaking too fast can make you sound aggressive, agitated or nervous, while speaking too slowly can indicate uncertainty or awkwardness, and can be boring! Unless you have a naturally slow-paced voice, it is usually good to speak more slowly than you would normally do. This will ensure that you are heard and

understood. It will also give the listener time to absorb the information you are giving. However, to change the pace from time to time makes your speech more dynamic and stimulates attention.

- **Language -** The language you use should also be chosen carefully to suit the context. Your language, especially in meetings or presentations, should be appropriate to the occasion and purpose of the event, the environment and the degree of formality. Although being on the safe side is always right, some humour and anecdotes will mostly make a difference also in formal or official presentations.

▲ Through your body language

Body language is ambiguous. However, many of our judgements about people and things are based on our perceptions of what is communicated beside words. Often your interpretation of body language may be right. Other times you may be wrong and the result can be disastrous. It is especially important to be cautious when dealing with people from different cultural backgrounds.

- **Visual contact -** In most communication situations, eye contact can be direct without staring. Glaring, staring eye contact can often indicate anger or resentment. No eye contact, or downcast eyes, may indicate nervousness, shiftiness or deceit. However, this is not the case in some other cultures where it is inappropriate to have direct eye contact.
- **Facial expressions -** have to be congruent with the message being sent. For example, it would be inappropriate to smile or laugh when a serious issue is discussed. Or you cannot expect others to be enthusiastic about your content if you don't show this enthusiasm in your face at all. Again, it depends on the culture what facial expression is appropriate (just compare for one moment some Italians with East Asian or some North European people).
- **Posture -** By leaning slightly forward or standing relaxed, a listener usually indicates interest in a topic of conversation. Standing on both legs and upright as presenter looks more confident. Facing the other person and standing with your shoulders square to them indicates a strong interest and minimises distractions.
- **Distance -** Most people feel comfortable at a certain distance from another person when communicating. In Western cultures this distance is approx. 1m. A closer distance may intimidate, any further away may lead to environmental distractions.
- **Physical contact** – Some people love to hug and kiss, and some find it a bit awkward. In some cases touching someone can already be seen as first-degree

sexual harassment. To be on the safe side, develop some certainty in the relationship before you make the “touch too much”.

- **Distracting behaviour** - Avoid behaviours such as clicking a biro, picking ears, finger tapping, fidgeting, yawning, looking at wristwatch etc. This may dominate the impression you send and maybe a source for misinterpretation of your interest or character.
- **Physical characteristics / appearance** – Some physical characteristics you may not be able to change (at least in short term), but the choice of style incl. clothing has an impact on how you will be perceived by others. Despite all tolerance in a multicultural environment, please don’t underestimate the impact that your appearance, your hairstyle, dress, adornments etc. has on the perception, judgement and even behaviour of others has.

The Johari-Window

(Named after the American authors Joe Luft and Harry Ingham, 1969)

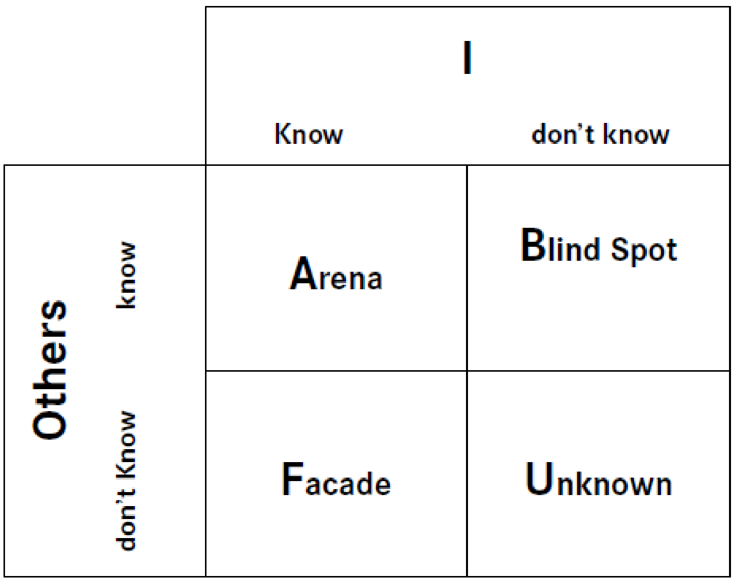


Figure 7: The Johari-Window

Arena: What is the shared knowledge of a group about each other that helps us working better with each other and build mutual trust?

Blind Spot: What is unknown by the person about him/herself, but which others know? This
can be simple information or can involve deep issues (a certain behaviour, incompetence etc), which are difficult for individuals to face directly, and yet can be seen by others. **To lighten up your own blind spot, ask for feedback. To help others to increase their self-awareness, offer feedback to them.**

Façade: What the person knows about him/herself that others do not. Sharing more about
my own self helps to develop trusting relationships to others.

Unknown: What is unknown by the person about him/herself and is also unknown by others.
Promoting collaboration in a team may help to discover the unknown.

Use of visual aids

Why visualisation?

People retain ..... % of the information by:

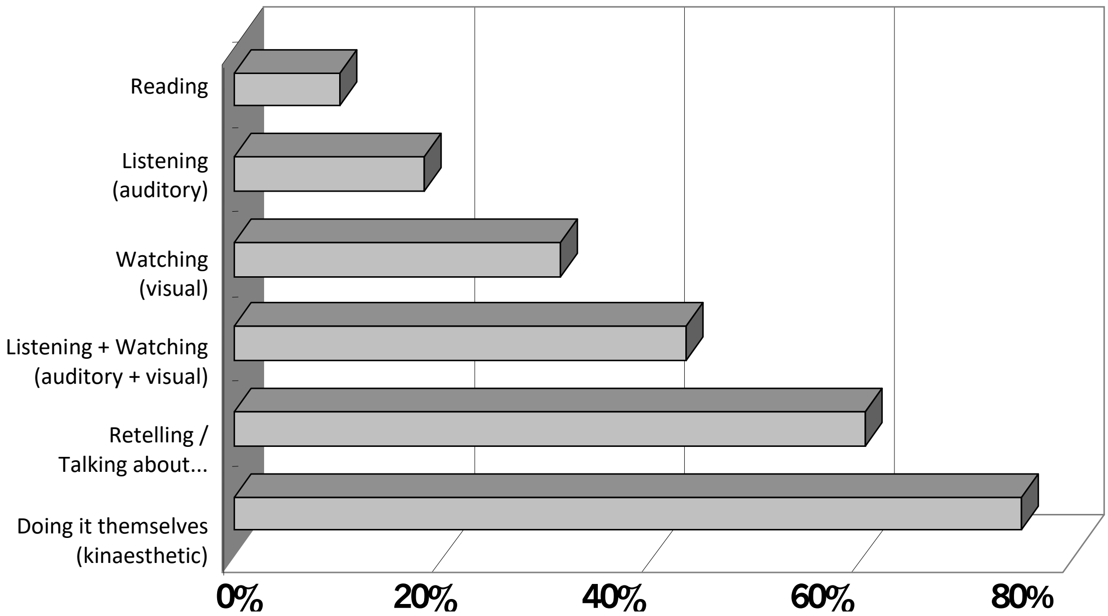


Figure 8: How do people retain information

Using appropriate visualisation to support working and learning processes is a key in adult learning. The reasons why visualisation is so crucial can be explained by brain research.

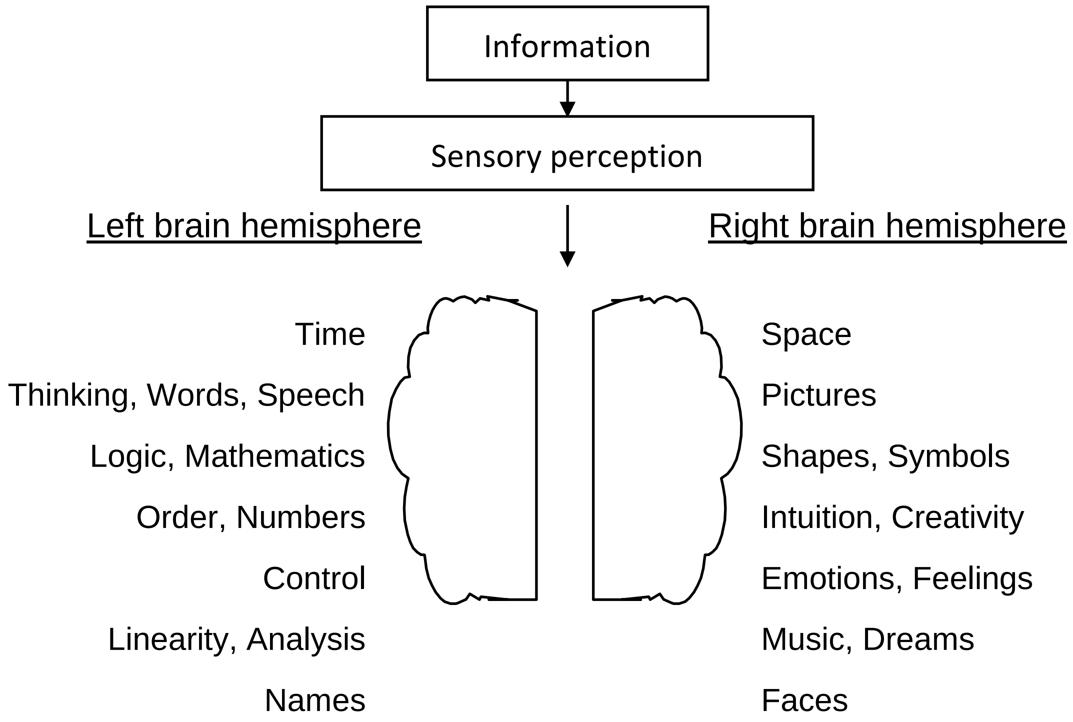


Figure 9: Sensory perception

The human brain is divided into two hemispheres.

The right hemisphere makes it possible for the person to perceive and tactile stimuli. The concepts of space and the perception of depth and movement are also housed in this hemisphere, as are nonverbal communication (and also visual language to a large extend), pictures, feelings, dreams, music, colours and shapes. All in all, the right hemisphere is designed to work outside of time, diffusely, but also holistically and synthetically. It is the primary source of a person's creative capabilities.

In the left hemisphere, on the other hand, are stored speech, data and the concepts of time. The left-brain works analytically, logically, reductively and all above rationally. It is the place where analysis, results and formulas are processed. Conclusions are drawn and facts are evaluated using this hemisphere. It contains the ability to speak and read, and to communicate orally.

Both sides are connected. The knowledge of facts is thereby coupled to the creative emotional realm, and vice versa. Every person uses both halves of the brain, but everyone has different focal points. In groups, therefore, you will encounter both types of people, those who are dominated by the left hemisphere and by the right hemisphere. If you want to communicate in the best possible way for the brain, address both hemispheres.

Using visual aids has the following advantages:

- Addresses both brain hemispheres to enhance retention of content.
- Visualisation means orientation and transparency. People know where they are.
- Visualisation forces people to make the choice between important and unimportant information, which avoid overloading the capacity of people to receive information.
- A concept is easier to describe with support of visualisation rather than just verbally. (“*A picture is worth a thousand words*”)
- Visualisation makes it easier to summarise, interpret and link any given content and change back and forth between steps.
- Improves and focuses the attention of the recipients and stimulate interest.
- Emphasises the key information.
- Reduces the need for speaking/explaining. Reinforces and supports the spoken word.
- Different learning styles addressed.

General Recommendation for using visual aids

- First of all: The slides are NOT your presentation. The presentation, that's what you deliver as a process to the audience. The visual aids are what the name suggests: aids!
- Don't overload a presentation with visual effects; especially be aware the exhausting overuse of electronic media. Create a mix of different media.
- Reduce your visualisation to the key-information you want to impart and put that into an easy-to-remember-structure.
- Change your presentation style at least every 5-7 minutes (!) (Minnesota University Research).
- Plan enough time to understand complex graphics or pictures.
- If possible, deliver handout/s to the audience before the presentation (exception: you don't want the information physically retained by participants or if it will pre-empt a later surprise in your presentation).
- Do not use your visual aids as your manuscript. Speak to the audience: do not read from wall or board.
- Only use material that directly supports and contributes to your presentation. Do not use material that is inconsistent with what you are saying just because it is available.
- Prepare the visual aids after checking if the presentation design is compatible to room conditions and the target group (culture).
- The more sophisticated the equipment, the more likely it is to let you down. Thoroughly familiarise yourself with all equipment before using it.

Using a laptop and data projector:

TYPICAL OPERATIONS:

- Most business presentations.
- Presentations of IT solutions and systems.
- Sales, project, campaign and product-presentations.

PRE-CONDITIONS / RECOMMENDATIONS FOR USE:

- Should be created competently with use of graphics, pictures and video/audio-sequences.
- Be sure that you can manage this medium. Prepare yourself with handling of the laptop and projector with this presentation and this equipment.
- Choose a remote control, presenter or wireless mouse if you want to communicate with the audience. Train in the handling of this presenter/mouse!
- Check the equipment operation before the presentation.
- Check the compatibility of the distance between projector and wall, luminous intensity and lighting conditions in the room with size and colour of your fonts, graphics and pictures.
- Don't darken the room so much that your audience can't see your body language. Or worse – that they fall asleep!
- Don't over-do the use of animations, but always check the true effectiveness of an animation to ensure it supports your objectives.
- Text slides don't require an extraordinary animation!
- Don't stand with your back to the audience while working at your laptop. Never lose visual contact with your audience while you're speaking.
- Read from your laptop or manuscript, never from the wall!
- Guide your audience, e.g. with a laser- pointer or similar.
- Pause for a moment at complex slides. Allow time for the audience to understand each slide.
- The sequences of the slides should build and add to the structure in your presentation.
- Do not overload your slide with information and graphics: use a clear structure and a clear layout. Use pictures instead of too much text.
- No long sentences. Keywords only. Avoid fillers.
- Use maximum type/font size. Use poster font. (Arial or Verdana, bold).
- Use colours, but not too many and ensure their compatibility.

ADVANTAGES OF USING A LAPTOP AND DATA PROJECTOR:

- Best possible production and chunking of information.
- Endless opportunities to design the presentation including colours, shapes, pictures, graphics, animations, audio, video or screenshots.
- Opportunity for emotional input
- Presentation of IT-applications.
- Flexibility (front-presentation or face-to-face only with a laptop)
- Possibility to return to all slides of the presentation or use "reserve" slides.
- Presentation of all kinds of data and applications.
- Excellent product and marketing tool for sales presentations.
- Quick to prepare as PowerPoint is very common.

DISADVANTAGES OF USING A LAPTOP AND DATA PROJECTOR:

- Dependence on technology and your own PC competence.
- “Some people are sick of PowerPoint-Presentations”.
- Sometimes the presenter is not the person who designed the presentation => is the content precise? Is the message clear?
- Negative effects if content and design don't support the use of this medium.
- Darkness, if projector is not strong or room is too light.
- Your personal influence is focused on speech and voice only.
- Need to transport, not everywhere is suitable.
- One-way communication only. Not recommended for group discussions or interactive group work.
- Longer presentations are exhausting for the audience.

Using a Flip-Chart:

TYPICAL OPERATIONS:

- Small group training, presentations, and workshops.
- Basic medium for facilitators.
- Recording contributions, statements, opinions, goals, actions, recommendations, open points, agenda, rules, etc.

PRE-CONDITIONS / RECOMMENDATIONS FOR USE:

- Flip-Chart, enough paper and permanent flip-chart markers of different colours and thickness necessary / recommended. Avoid white board markers as their colour intensity is far lighter than the one of flip-chart markers.
- Training of handwriting and structuring is highly recommended.
- Type size and division of the paper can be prepared. A rule: if you are in doubt, select a thicker size of chisel-point-marker to ensure your type size is big enough for any room or a short-sighted person - it could be the important one.
- Structure the paper, don't overload it. Draft your division of the paper or drawings before with a soft pencil, invisible for the audience.
- Use squared paper; it helps you to draw or write straighter.
- Acronyms instead of sentences: E.g. ð"KISS".
- Use numerical symbols/marks/bullets.
- Every page should have a specific title.
- In one presentation use only one basic-layout for your flip-charts.
- For further discussions: fasten the paper on the wall (Blue Tack).
- Use various colours, but never red or green for text.
- Don't talk to the Flip-Chart, speak to your audience.
- Don't trip over the Flip-Chart.
- Don't cross your body with the pointing or writing arm. If you are right-handed, always have the flip chart on your left. People read from left to right and as they read you will be the focal point to which they return.
- Don't destroy a sheet of paper in front of the audience; turn it over.
- For a prepared presentation always use "fresh paper".

ADVANTAGES OF USING A FLIP-CHART:

- Independence from technology and energy sources.
- Easy to use, little training required.
- Fast and easy to prepare and design during a presentation.
- Information can be fastened on the wall and is present at all times.
- Enables you to have a close contact to the audience.
- Contributions can be recorded immediately.
- Opportunity for spontaneous visualisation and for the integration/participation of the audience.
- Returning and completion/addition possible at any time.
- No lighting problems.
- Coloured presentation possible.
- Available nearly everywhere.
- Suitable for smaller rooms.
- Perceived as an informal medium, especially in a non-technological environment or at informal meetings.

DISADVANTAGES OF USING A FLIP-CHART:

- Handling with the need for neat handwriting.
- Difficult to meet higher standards in design, dependent on your drawing ability and your handwriting.
- Visual contact to the audience interrupted during writing.
- Correction is impossible, difficult or at least untidy
- Only recommended for a small group with a limited number of participants due to limited visibility.
- Information needs to be copied manually to be captured
(exception: digital photo documentation).
- High usage of paper.

Using Hand-Outs:

Typical operations:

- Standard accompaniment tool for presentations with slides (data or overhead-projector). Uses for attendee to contemplate, aid memory, make notes and retain the information.
- Opportunity to present complex graphics, diagrams, data etc., which are not well presented on slides.
- Specific discretionary information; Can be taken home with ease.
- Excellent for delivering background information.

PRE-CONDITIONS / RECOMMENDATIONS FOR USE:

- Should be prepared before the presentation.
- Should have at least the same content and basic-layout as the presented visualisation.
- Consider the Corporate Design requirements, because the audience (customers) take the handouts with them.
- Opportunity for additional content (e.g. background information).
- Standard-tool in presentation software (e.g. MS PowerPoint)
- Cluster the information.
- Create some space for individual notes.
- Handouts should be given out before the start. Exception: 1. You want to maximise information impact. 2.You want complete focus on you - don't want the audience making own notes. 3. You want to maintain audience control the audience by providing handouts later in the presentation

ADVANTAGES OF USING HAND-OUTS:

- Independent of technology and energy sources.
- Important information is surely transported to the audience.
- You decide what information will be transmitted and what information the audience focuses on.
- Every listener can individually follow the presentation.
- The audience doesn't need to take notes and can concentrate on the presentation and on you.
- Notes can be made at the right place in the handout.
- Printed handouts will be kept longer than handwritten notes.

DISADVANTAGES OF USING HAND-OUTS:

- Deflection of focus the presentation.
- Disturbance during distribution and leafing through the handout.
- Chunking of the information is difficult.
- No surprises possible. Negates maximum impact.

The importance of supervising, mentoring & giving feedback

While hearing these three terms, one quickly assumes that these indicate the same actions. It is often not clear to which extent they differ. To get a better understanding, the following chapters will explain the differences.

The supervisor’s role in clinical teaching

Supervision also encompasses education. The purpose of the educational component of supervision is to develop everyone in a manner that enhances their full potential, ensure client safety, effective and ethical practice. This may be complemented by the provision of education in other teaching forums such as in-service education or case discussion.

In addition to clinical skills, the supervisor should also teach the non-clinical skills needed to manage workload, interprofessional practice, team dynamics and the demands of the rapidly changing health care environment.

It is particularly important to recognise the stress experienced following the transition from the education environment, which is highly structured, to the workplace environment which requires the ability to work under pressure in a resource-constrained environment (Smith & Pilling 2008).

Some of the main challenges are:

- managing a full caseload (including both complex and straightforward clients)
- having full responsibility for clients
- being confident in decision making and exercising authority
- managing time effectively
- completing paperwork

Teaching in a clinical setting should therefore include assisting new clinicians to develop nonclinical skills to cope with workplace demands, teaching specific clinical skills and providing knowledge through formal education.

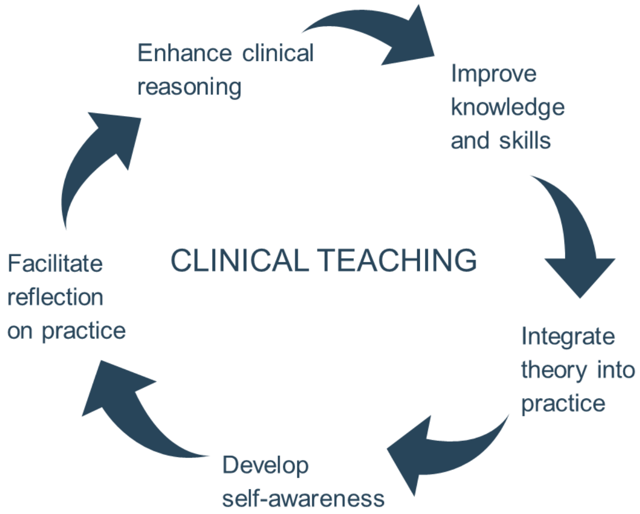


Figure 10: Clinical Teaching, HETI, 2013, p.5

Mentoring

Mentoring is a way in which clinicians can obtain additional support to facilitate learning in the workplace. It is someone (e.g. nurse, doctor or other health professional, who may or may not be more experienced) who assists a colleague by providing encouragement, advice, and/or feedback on action they have taken or plan to take in the practice setting. A mentor may act as a role model, a guide, or a sounding board.

Mentoring is:

A voluntary professional relationship: It is unpaid, and both the mentor and person being
mentored need to be freely willing to participate.
Example: A nurse new to a ward area might ask another more experienced nurse in their facility
whether s/he is willing to provide advice in a mentoring role in relation to identifying and handling
ethical issues that arise with clients.

Based on mutual respect and agreed expectations. The mentor and person being mentored need
to agree on the purpose of their mentoring relationship and what is expected of each of them.
Example: Two nurses may agree to mentor each other in relation to managing new technology
introduced in the clinical area.

Mutually valuable: Effective mentoring benefits all involved, including the mentor, person being mentored, and the employer.
Example: A nurse mentoring a group of student nurses in relation to professional development opportunities can help identify training courses to enhance their nursing practice. The mentor may likewise benefit by finding out about professional development activities relevant to her/himself and broadening her/his network.

DO	DON'T
✓ Be honest and open	✓ Dominate or control the staff member (physically, verbally, psychologically)
✓ Respect each other's time and other commitments	✓ Allow interruptions to your coaching
✓ Be able to adapt to changing circumstances or needs	✓ Assume what you think the staff member wants to hear or learn
✓ Create a safe and supportive environment	✓ Show off your knowledge or insist on the staff member doing things your way
✓ Working together	✓ Create dependency on you
✓ Empathies, and show patience	✓ Show irritation, impatience or annoyance
✓ Provide constructive feedback	✓ Talk more than you listen
✓ Identify and encourage strengths in the staff member	✓ Forget what you experienced when you were learning and developing
✓ Ask appropriate and relevant questions	✓ Breach confidentiality

Figure 11: How to be a good mentor, HETI, 2013, p.9

Purposes of feedback

- to facilitate learning
- to see whether learning has taken place.
- to provide feedback to supervisors … on how students are progressing, clarifying for the supervisor what can be done to improve, extend or enhance learning.
- to provide feedback to students concerning their own progress, clarifying for the student what he or she needs to do to improve, extend or enhance learning.
- to diagnose students' needs or barriers to learning and help inform necessary changes to the teaching.
- to encourage emancipation by alerting the student to possibilities which they may not have hitherto discerned … *moving+ the student into richer intellectual territory".

Figure 12: Consequences of a lack of feedback to underperforming staff, HETI, 2013, p.17

Feedback is an essential component of supervision and must be clear so that the staff member is aware of their strengths and weaknesses and how they can improve (Kilminster & Jolly 2000).

Be timely:

Give feedback as close as possible to the event. However, pick a good moment for feedback (not when you or the staff member is exhausted, distracted or upset). Feedback on performance should be a frequent feature of your relationship with your supervisee.

Be specific:

The first hurdle for the staff member is to understand the message. Unless that happens, feedback is almost certain to be ineffective. If it is couched in language, they are not familiar with, they obviously cannot connect it with the strengths or weaknesses of their own work. Because supervisors have experience and knowledge which the staff member lacks, it is often assumed that they have already developed an appropriate assessment vocabulary and will be able to see where and how the message applies to their work. Vague or generalised praise or criticism is difficult to act upon. Be specific and the staff member will know what to do. Adopt a straightforward manner, be clear and give examples where possible.

Be constructive:

Focus on the positive. Avoid dampening positive feedback by qualifying it with a negative statement (“You did well in choosing the correct intervention for Mrs Smith, but ...”). For constructive criticism, talk in terms of what can be improved, rather than what is wrong. Ask the supervisee for a self-assessment of their performance. Try to provide feedback in the form of solutions and advice. Also, if the staff member makes an error, feedback needs to clear.

Be in an appropriate setting:

Positive feedback can be effective when given in the presence of peers or clients. Negative feedback (constructive criticism) should be given in a private and undisturbed setting. If lengthy feedback is required, identify the situation, and invite the staff member to discuss it with you.

Use attentive listening:

Supervisees should be given the chance to comment on the fairness of feedback and to provide explanations for their performance. A feedback session should be a dialogue between two people.

Bibliography

Health Education & Training Institute - HETI, (2013), Continuous improvement and innovation in clinical supervision for supervisors in aged and non-acute health care settings;
https://www.heti.nsw.gov.au/__data/assets/pdf_file/0007/428569/Supporting-Clinical-Supervision-Workshop-Handbook-3and-4.pdf
https://www.heti.nsw.gov.au/__data/assets/pdf_file/0008/428570/Supporting-Clinical-Supervision-Workshop-Handbook-5-and-6.pdf

Honey, P., & Mumford, A. (1983). Building on learning styles. Peter Honey Training Officer. Retrieved June, 20, 2001.

Inductive Teaching, https://a1-ca-resources.weebly.com/inductive-vs-deductive-learning.html

Kilminster, SM & Jolly, BC (2000), 'Effective supervision in clinical practice settings: a literature review', Medical Education, vol. 34, pp. 827–840

Kolb, D. A. (1984), The process of experiential learning. Experiential learning: Experience as the source of learning and development, 20-38.

Smith, R & Pilling, S (2007), 'Allied Health Graduate Program – supporting the transition from student to professional in an interdisciplinary program', Journal of Interprofessional Care, vol. 21, no. 3, pp. 265-276.