



PPROMPT

Peer Pro-Social Modeling in Probation

TRAIN THE TRAINER MANUAL

INDEX

Table of Figures	4
Foreword	5
Background	6
Purpose	6
I. Pro-social Modeling and Peer Training	8
a) The peer-training theories	8
• Social Learning Theory	8
• Social inoculation theory	9
• Differential association theory	9
b) Characteristics associated with success in peer education:	9
c) Advantages and disadvantages of peer training	10
• Advantages	10
• Disadvantages	11
d) The process	12
e) Learning points	14
II. Training Fundamentals	15
a) Introduction to training of adult learners	15
• Features and principles of adult education	15
• Learning styles and training methods	17
• Characteristics of an effective trainer	20
b) Design and development of a training course	21
III. Training and teaching methods	26
a) Core instructional methods	26
• Lecturing and explaining	26
• The ability to demonstrate	28
b) Supporting dynamic instructional methods	29
• Group work	29
• Questioning	30
• Discussion	32
• Case Studies	32
• Role play	34

IV. Behavioural Group Management.....	36
a) Types of individual behaviour	36
• The Dominating talker	36
• The Silent-Submissive	37
• The Silent Powerful	37
• The Expert.....	38
• The Joker.....	38
• The Broken Record	38
• The Chatterer.....	39
• The Intellectual Thinker-Analyst.....	39
b) Overcoming group problems.....	40
• At Individual Level.....	40
• At Group Level.....	40
V. The lesson plan.....	42
a) Writing learning objectives	43
• Aim.....	43
• Learning Outcomes	43
• Objectives	44
• Lesson content and key learning points	44
• Dynamic teaching and learning resources.....	45
• Timing	46
b) Assessment	46
• Interpretation of the assessment results	47
• Communicating the assessment results	47
• Types of assessment.....	48
Bibliography	49

TABLE OF FIGURES

Figure 1. Formal and informal education programmes	Erro! Marcador não definido.
Figure 2. Features and principles of adult education	15
Figure 3. Core principles of Andragogy	17
Figure 4. Four learning styles	19
Figure 5. Characteristics of an effective trainer	20
Figure 6. ADDIE model	22
Figure 7. Main benefits of ADDIE model	25
Figure 8. Rules of case study	33

FOREWORD

This Train the Trainer Manual was developed by IPS_Innovative Prison Systems, a partner in the project Peer Pro-Social Modeling in Probation – PPROMPT – No. 2017-1-TR01-KA204-046684, financed by ERASMUS + programme.

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BACKGROUND

The project Peer Pro-Social Modeling in Probation (PPROMPT) aims to structure a peer pro-social modelling, through the development and implementation in probation systems enhancing both the competencies of management and probation experts to address offenders' needs.

This his project **seeks to explore and implement an approach that builds social capital and resilience** within people that are under probational measures. **Specific goals include:**

1. **To develop andragogical materials** (manuals and programme contents) that support training for both staff and management in the field of peer training and pro-social model interventions;
2. **To develop and pilot a "train the trainer" course for probation workers in each country**, giving them the ability to train, continuously, selected well- behaved offenders on peer training and pro-social modelling;
3. **To train the selected poll of inmates in each country on pro-social modeling and peer training**, under the supervision of the probation trainers
4. **To analyse the pilot sessions and revise the manuals** accordingly before disseminating the programme.

PPROMPT project aims to develop the following Intellectual Outputs:

IO1 - Literature review on best practices of adult peer training in probation systems;

IO2 - Meta-analysis on best practice of pro-social modeling in probation systems;

IO3 - Preparation of the Peer-Social Modeling in Probation Curriculum;

IO4 – Preparation of "Peer Trainer's Manual";

IO5 - Preparation of "Pro-Social Modeling" Manual;

IO6 - Preparation of the Train the trainer course material for probation experts;

IO7 - Train the trainer course for the offenders.

PURPOSE

This manual will guide the probation experts involved in PPROMPT activities to be trained as trainers, and therefore train others.

This Train the Trainer manual is divided in two main parts:

- i) Specifics of pro-social modeling and peer training: focused on introducing the peer pro-social modeling and peer-training topics.

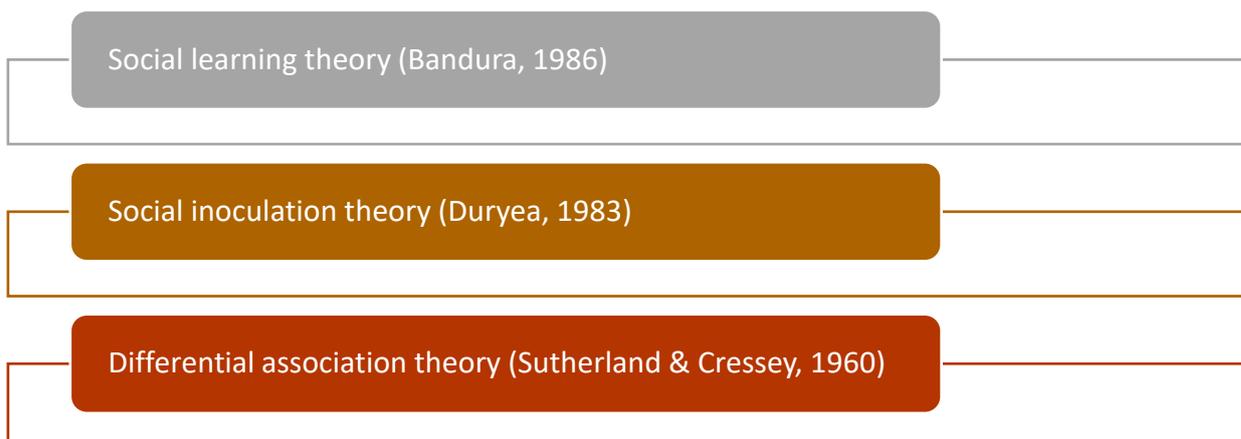
- ii) Training andragogy: within this part important education concepts and theories were included within this manual, as well as how to design and develop an effective training course. It aims the preparation, instruction and support of the trainers who will work with PPROMPT curriculum and programme.

I. Pro-social Modeling and Peer Training

Pro-social modeling refers to the ‘way in which probation officers, or others who work with involuntary clients, model pro-social values and behaviours in their interactions with clients’ (Trotter, 2009, p. 142). However, in a broader way, pro-social modeling includes a group of skills that comprises supervisors modeling pro-social values, reinforcing client’s pro-social expressions and actions and negatively reinforcing or confronting pro-criminal actions and expressions of those clients. The peer-modeling concept covers several approaches, namely: peer facilitation, peer counselling, peer training or peer helping (Parkin & McKeganey, 2000).

Peer training refers to training or educational activities that are delivered by trainers with the same background or share the same experiences as the beneficiaries. The term does not include peer support or peer mentoring, as these two terms are not assuming training but other forms of interventions.

According to Devilly and colleagues (2005), the peer training is built upon the bedrock of three theories:



a) The peer-training theories

- **Social Learning Theory**

The social learning theory defends that individuals must have the opportunity to observe and practice the behaviour until they feel confident to practice it themselves. In this theory, the most important aspects of learning are the characteristics of the model, the attributes of the observers and the perceived consequences of adopting the new behaviour (Bandura, 1989). One important principle relevant for the peer training is that

the closer the model is perceived by the observer the more likely is that the observer will identify himself/herself with the model and therefore will follow his/her example. An offender will be more likely to learn the new behaviour from a fellow offender rather than a professional counsellor (Turner & Shepard, 1999).

- **Social inoculation theory**

This theory suggests that many offenders lack skills to avoid or reject unhealthy behaviours (Turner & Shepard, 1999). When professionals will attempt to help them develop such skills they are often perceived as unrealistic and therefore tend to be rejected. The same effort done by a former offender who went through such an experience and faced the same social pressure may be received with a different attitude (Mathie & Ford, 1998).

- **Differential association theory**

According to Sutherland and Cressey (1960), criminal behaviour is learned in social situations by associating with others who can teach the behaviour, the rationalisations, the motivations and the skills required to engage with crime. As they put it, the definition pro-crime exceeds those against crime. By associating offenders with others with ‘good influence’ will decrease the likelihood or perpetuating the criminal behaviour.

b) Characteristics associated with success in peer education:

Delivery	Length of educational initiative	Selection of participants
<ul style="list-style-type: none">• As more interactive, as better effectiveness	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Initiatives with less than 10 sessions distributed over a longer period of time are more effective	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• When participating on a voluntary bases, the participants tend to assess the programme more effectively

c) Advantages and disadvantages of peer training

- Advantages



One of the biggest advantages in this method is that peer trainers are not staff, hence trust can be more easily established (Mathie & Ford, 1998). Peer trainers usually have the same background and experience as their trainees; therefore, it is easier for them to relate and to bond with each other.

Another advantage of peer-training is credibility since people tend to identify more with other people that possess the same characteristics (Maruna, 2001). Furthermore, this method decreases threats, especially regarding young people that tend to feel more understood and less embarrassed when interacting with other youth. The same happens regarding role modeling, where young people are more likely to be role models for their peers than adults. Another advantage is the ongoing contact, since usually peer educators interact for longer periods with their peers when compared to classical settings, favouring a longer term-impact.

Peer training also allows access to hidden populations, since it usually takes place outside the class rooms and in the peers' social environment, it increases the possibility of spreading the message to peers that are not (yet) signed by the penal or medical system. Also, this method proved to have a cost-effectiveness since often peer educators are either volunteers or young people with low salaries, decreasing the costs associated with this form of education.

Frequently, being able to help others gives peer trainers a sense of empowerment and fulfilment (Maruna, 2001; Milburn, 1995). Furthermore, peer trainers tend to feel proud about themselves, resulting in an enhanced self-esteem and self-confidence (Parkin & McKeganey, 2000). Furthermore, working in the same problems as others, gives peer educators new insights into their own issues and difficulties and therefore increases their self-rehabilitation capacities (Maruna, 2001). This method is often associated with peer educators' increased self-esteem, development of planning, presentation and leadership skills and development of other skills that are relevant in the later job seeking efforts.

- **Disadvantages**



When not organised in a proper way, peer programmes can cause alienation amongst the professionals. The offenders may experience feelings that counselling or other related rehabilitation activities, provided by professionals, aren't that important and may refuse to attend it. (Devilly & Sanders, 1993). The key is to ensure that these peer programmes are perceived as complementary to the ones delivered by professionals. Apart from organisational difficulties, peer programmes seem to trigger some ethical concerns. Three risks were identified, such as accountability, peer competence, and confidentiality.

Frequently, peer educators cannot be held responsible nor for the quality of their work or the ethical side of it, hence there's a need to develop and to implement clear procedures for monitorisation and evaluation.

When not properly trained, peer educators may fail in delivering their task in an effective manner, which in turn could damage the relationship with the recipients of the training or their education. Therefore, professionals should develop proper monitoring and supervision practices that would ensure quality.

It is key for the professionals to understand that as the peer trainers cannot be legally or ethically liable, confidentiality might be break. Therefore, is essential to explain, throughout the training, why confidentiality is important and how it can be protected.

d) The process

Peer programmes are usually complex and may have negative outcomes, when not properly prepared or delivered. In order to develop a peer training programme, the following is necessary:



As far as training is concerned, apart from the technical skills related to the training curricula, peer trainers should also share other skills such as: communication, active listening, self-reflection, dealing with subjects who think they know all the answers, dealing with those who are not ready to learn new things, to be aware of the gender and

power dynamics (Treloar, Rance, Laybutt, & Crawford, 2010). As training, confidentiality and privacy are crucial for good peer education programmes. It is important to teach peer trainers on how to interact with the peers, how they can provide feedback and how to assure their privacy. Special attention should be paid on how the new skills developed during the peer training sessions (formal or informal) are transferred into real-life situations. Once the peer trainers have their skills developed, it is necessary to integrate them into daily practice. Regarding this, a monitor and support system where professionals observe and supervise sessions (where the peer trainer interacts with their peers) is essential, since it will maintain the interest and professionalism of the peer trainers.

As shown in Figure 1, Peer training programmes may be formal or informal, depending on how structured and methodical they are intended to be.

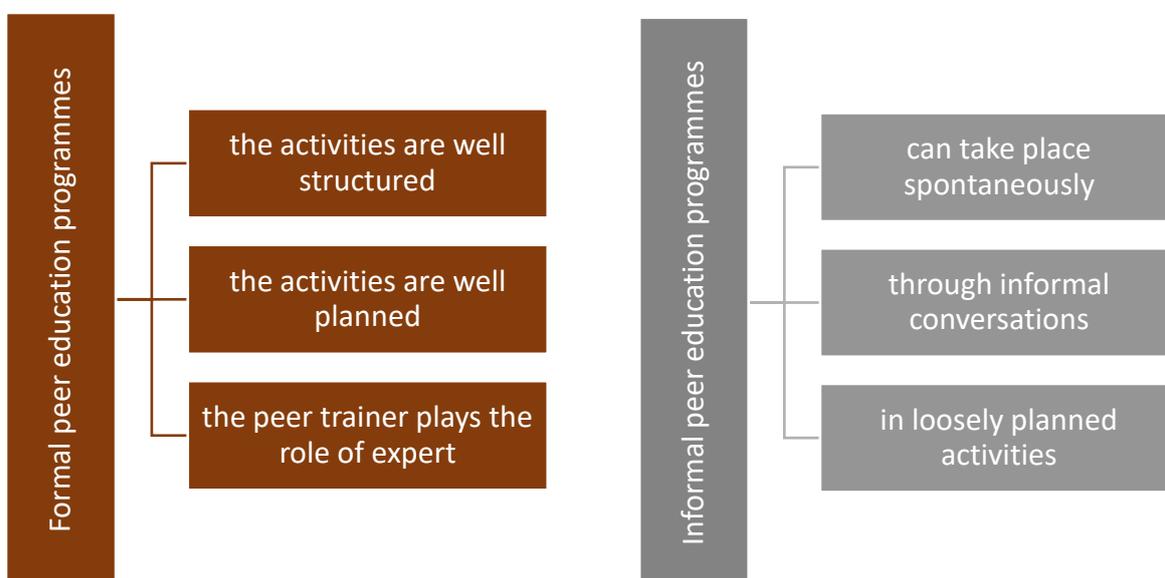


Figure 1. Formal and informal education programmes

During peer training programmes, the peer educators can use several processes (McDonald, Roche, Durbridge, & Skinner, 2003), namely:

1. Information transfer;
2. Interactions;
3. Practical activities;
4. Modeling;
5. Popular culture (e.g., music, artwork);
6. Spontaneous conversations.

e) Learning points

According to what was discussed before, the following learning points should be addressed:

1. Selection of peer trainers implies great care and must be on a voluntary basis. The peer trainers' profile should be discussed between the professionals (e.g., no behavioural issues, good communication skills, no gang members, etc). It may also be useful to consider the peer trainers' ethnic background, since it is proved that people with the same ethnic background find it easier to work together;
2. Creation of a monitoring and supervision system to oversee the peer trainers' interactions, guarantying professionalism and assure the training programme quality;
3. The training programme needs to be well designed, have clear objectives, a detailed curricula and precise responsibilities;
4. The training programme needs to cover not only hard topics about pro-social modeling but also soft skills such as: how to initiate a verbal interaction, how to provide feedback, how to position in relation to the peers, etc. Issues such as confidentiality and privacy should also be included in the training.
5. Professionals should be involved in giving training, monitoring and supporting and developing motivation and progress.
6. Professionals should also be ready to work alongside with the peer trainers on issues that cannot be covered by the peers alone. Furthermore, peer pro-social modeling needs to be complemented with other interventions that target offenders' behaviour.
7. Peer trainers should be encouraged to continue working with their peers in an informal way, even outside the "office". It is important to ensure transferability of the new skills to real life.

beliefs. Considering this, the trainer should recognise the value of learners' experience and know-how, encouraging them to draw out their knowledge and experience which is relevant to the topic.

- 3) **Adults are goal-oriented.** They enrol in a course with intentions and expectations, and usually know what goals they want to achieve. Hence, trainers must present a course that is organised and has clearly defined objectives and explain how these relate to training activities.
- 4) **Adults are relevancy-oriented.** The learning must be relevant and applicable to their work or other responsibilities of value to them. Given this, trainers should show the relevance of the course to the participants, relating concepts and theories to a setting familiar to them. Also, this can be attained by letting trainers choose projects that reflect their own interests.
- 5) **Adults are practical,** focusing on the elements of the learning most useful to them in their daily work. Given this, trainers should teach them practical skills and tools, knowledge that can use on the job. They should also provide opportunities to practise these skills.
- 6) **Adults need to be shown respect,** as do all learners. Trainers should recognise the added value of the learners' experience into the learning process. Adult learners should also be treated as equals in experience and knowledge, rather than subordinates. Another important aspect is to allow these learners to voice their opinion openly during the course (Lieb, 1991; World Health Organization, 2013).

These different features of adult learners were acknowledged and pinpointed by Knowles and colleagues in the 60's, forming the basis for the theory of **Andragogy**, originally defined as the *"art and science of helping adults to learn"* (Knowles, 1980, p. 43).

Core principles to optimise learning

Andragogy presents core principles (Figure 3) of adult learning that enable the development of more effective learning processes for adults and has six key principles.

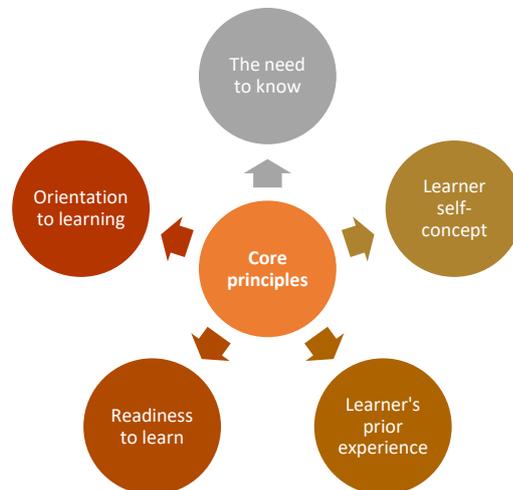


Figure 3. Core principles of Andragogy

According to Knowles, Holton and Swanson (1998), the six principles of andragogy are:

- 1) **The need to know:** Adults need to be made aware of the reason why they have to learn something. It is important that learners are informed of the objectives of the course, as well as its benefits;
- 2) **Self-concept of the learner:** Adult learners need to be responsible for their own decisions and to take initiative for their own learning;
- 3) **Prior experience of the learner:** Adult learners have a bank of experience accumulated over their lifetime which represent the richest resource for learning. Adults need to be able to use their experience in the classroom if they want to learn;
- 4) **Readiness to learn:** Adults are more ready to learn material if it is presented in a way that relates to real life situations, or that has immediate relevance to their work and/or personal lives;
- 5) **Orientation to learning:** Adult learners are problem or task oriented, meaning that they are motivated to learn to the extent that it will help them solve problems in their daily lives.

- **Learning styles and training methods**

Adults develop their own learning styles or preferences through custom and habit (NHS Education for Scotland, 2013). One popular theory is the VARK model, an acronym that stands for the four primary learning styles (Fleming & Mills, 1992):

- **Visual:** The learner processes new information best when it is visually presented or illustrated through graphics, patterns, shapes, images and demonstrations;
- **Aural/Auditory:** The learner prefers information that is heard or spoken. They learn best from lectures, group discussions, radio, email, using mobile phones, speaking, web-chatting and talking thing through;
- **Read/Write:** The learner prefers information displayed as words, including reading and writing in all its forms (e.g., manuals, reports, essays and assignments);
- **Kinesthetic:** The learner processes new information best when it can be grasped or manipulated, through practical experience (simulated or real). It includes demonstrations, simulations, case studies, practice and applications.



Other well-known and common model of learning style is the one proposed by Honey and Mumford (1982). Within this model the learning style are directly aligned to the stages in the learning cycle. There are four learning styles that relate to the *do*, *reflect*, *conclude* and *plan* stages of the cycle (Figure 4; Honey & Mumford, 1982):



Figure 4. Four learning styles

- **Activists:** Learners who learn by doing. They immerse themselves fully in new experiences and tend to act before considering the consequences. These people learn best when working with others in problem solving games, role-playing exercises, are leading a group or are involved in new challenges and experiences;
- **Theorists:** Learners who need to know the basic assumptions, principles, models and theories in order to engage in the learning process. They learn best when are analysing and applying theories, models, statistics, when they have clear instructions, are provided with support materials for further reading;
- **Pragmatists:** Learners who need to see how to put the learning into practice. They learn best when trying out new ideas, through case studies, problem solving or/and discussion exercises;
- **Reflectors:** Learners who learn by observing and listening to others, collecting different perspectives and taking the time to work towards and appropriate conclusion. They learn best in paired discussions, observing activities, interviews, coaching, among others.

Despite the fact that there are different models and learning styles, the trainer should acknowledge that most learners can show different elements of more than one learning style, although usually the is a preferred style. Given this, it is key to combine a variety of teaching methods to accommodate these different learning styles and, hence, increase the probability of learner success in the course (World Health Organization, 2013).

- **Characteristics of an effective trainer**

There are skills, qualities and features that an effective trainer should have (Figure 5), and those can be summarised around five core trait areas (also known as the “5 Es”) (Delaney & Noten, 2008; Duta, Tomoaica & Panisoara, 2015; World Health Organization, 2013).



Figure 5. Characteristics of an effective trainer

1. **Expertise: The power of knowledge and learning.** A good trainer demonstrates an understanding and in-depth knowledge of the content and maintains an ability to convey this content to learners. The trainer also: understands and uses adult education principles to facilitate learning; integrates and summarises key learning points; debriefs to ensure understanding of the contents; accesses a rich repertoire of learning practices, strategies and resources and applies them properly;
2. **Eloquence: The power of language and organisation.** The trainer’s body language, tone of voice, manner of dress, can affect the way participants will react. A good trainer is able to adapt the speech to the needs of multilingual learners, providing clear, easy-to-follow instructions. The trainer should also be able to present information in a clear, concrete and colourful language, transitioning skilfully from one topic to another. Encouraging participation by posing adequate questions is also an essential trait of an effective trainer;
3. **Empathy: The power of understanding and consideration.** Capable trainers demonstrate a good rapport when they interact with participants, fostering a trustful and safe environment, where everyone feels comfortable to share their opinions. This means the ability to listen the explicit meaning of the words, as well

as sensing the dynamics of the group by ensuring that everyone has the opportunity to participate. It also means that the trainer is able to understand the learner's needs and expectations, adapting the learning process to their level of experience and skills. The trainer should also be able to provide positive and constructive feedback to the learners;

4. **Energy: The power of commitment and animation.** The commitment of the trainer is an essential quality that entails not only showing interest and passion for the subject, but also being able to motivate learners and animate the group. Here it should be mentioned the importance of a sense of humour: the trainer's ability to laugh at himself/herself, and to share the laughter of others, enhances the learning experience for everyone;
5. **Environmental engineering: The power of managing the learning environment.** It refers to the trainer's capacity to manage the learning environment. It entails creating a climate where learners are active participants as individuals and as members of collaborative groups; providing learners with equitable access to technology, space, tools and time; cultivating cross cultural understandings and the value of diversity; balancing various responsibilities and managing time, prioritising content effectively, among others.

b) Design and development of a training course

Training is any planned activity that aims to transfer or to modify knowledge, skills and attitudes through learning experiences. The design of the training course can only be conducted after defining clear training objectives. These learning objectives need to be achieved by the end of the training course (i.e., what the trainees are expected to do/know in the end of the training).

The most widely used methodology to develop new training programmes and courses is called Instructional Design. In a simple manner, Instructional Design is the creation of instructional materials. Although, this field goes beyond simply creating teaching materials, it carefully considers how students learn and what materials and methods will most effectively help individuals achieve their goals. The principles for Instructional Design consider how educational tools should be designed, created and delivered to any learning group (Hilgart, Ritterband, Thorndike, & Kinzie, 2012). There are some Design Models, however, we will focus on ADDIE. Developed in the 1970's, ADDIE is a popular instructional design model used to help organise and streamline the development and management of a training course. It is an acronym that stands for the five major phases that comprise the training development process (Holden, 2015).

As shown in Figure 6, there are five steps in the ADDIE model (Ferriman, 2013; Holden, 2015; Kurt, n.d.; Japan International Cooperation Agency, 2013):

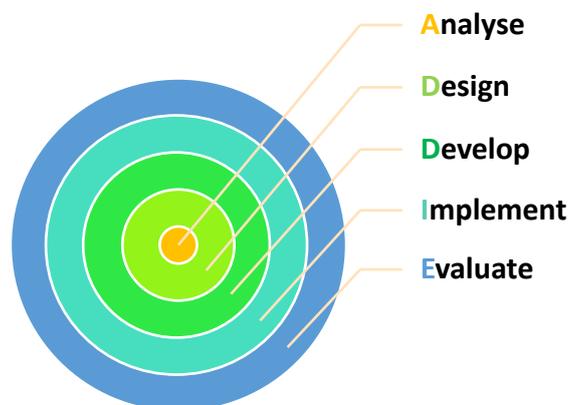


Figure 6. ADDIE model

1. **Analyse.** In this phase an analysis and assessment of the goals and objectives for the training will take place. Within this first step the trainer will assess the current learning situation in terms of:
 - Audience: Who is the target group and their characteristics (Personal and educational information such as age, nationality, previous experiences and interests)?
 - Needs: What do the trainees need to accomplish at the end of the course? What are the learners' needs?
 - Outcomes: What are the desired learning outcomes in terms of knowledge, skills and attitudes, behaviour, etc?
 - Methods: What methods of training are appropriate for the target group?
 - Environment: What is the most conducive learning environment? What delivery option is to be chosen (e.g., classroom-based, e-learning or b-learning)?
 - Constraints: What types of constraints exist regarding resources, including technical support, time, human resources, technical skills?

The key deliverables at the end of this phase will be the training plan and the training needs analysis (Ferriman, 2013; Holden, 2015; Kurt, n.d.; Japan International Cooperation Agency, 2013).

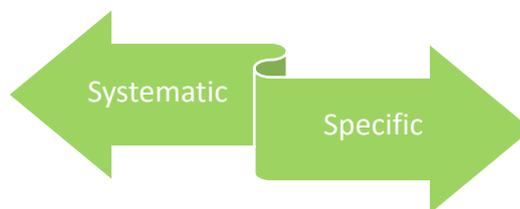
2. **Design.** This second phase is the training design, where all the learnings of the previous phase are used to make practical decisions. During this stage, the

learning objectives, content, methods, assessment instruments and media are selected (Ferriman, 2013; Holden, 2015; Kurt, n.d.; Japan International Cooperation Agency, 2013).

This phase focuses on (Ferriman, 2013; Holden, 2015; Kurt, n.d.; Japan International Cooperation Agency, 2013):

- Setting learning objectives;
- Identifying the course's design strategy;
- Selecting the appropriate delivery method;
- Determining training structure and duration;
- Developing lesson plans;
- Developing storyboards and media;
- Establishing an evaluation methodology.

The approach in this phase should be systematic and specific.



Systematic means following a logical, orderly process of identifying, developing and evaluating a set of planned strategies which target the attainment of the project's goals.

Specific means each element of the design plan must be executed with attention to detail (Ferriman, 2013; Holden, 2015; Kurt, n.d.; Japan International Cooperation Agency, 2013).

The key deliverables at the end of this phase will be a high-level design document (i.e., an overview of the training course design) and storyboards (Ferriman, 2013; Holden, 2015; Kurt, n.d.; Japan International Cooperation Agency, 2013).

3. Develop. This phase focuses on the process of creating and building the training course, including (Ferriman, 2013; Holden, 2015; Kurt, n.d.; Japan International Cooperation Agency, 2013):

- Course materials (storyboards, assessment instruments, etc.);
- Electronic learning support tools (such as PowerPoints);
- Print-based materials;
- Other supporting resources (e.g., facilitator's guide).

The key deliverables at the end of this phase will be the course materials, assessment instruments, course schedule and learning guides (Ferriman, 2013; Holden, 2015; Kurt, n.d.; Japan International Cooperation Agency, 2013).

4. Implement. During this Implementation phase, the efforts are directed towards the efficient delivery of the course and materials that were designed and developed in the previous stages. This phase involves (Ferriman, 2013; Holden, 2015; Kurt, n.d.; Japan International Cooperation Agency, 2013):

- Printing and preparing the training materials;
- Preparing the trainers for delivery;
- Notifying and enrolling learners;
- Launching the course.

The key deliverables at the end of this phase will be the learners' assessment, the feedback forms and the attendance forms (Ferriman, 2013; Holden, 2015; Kurt, n.d.; Japan International Cooperation Agency, 2013).

5. Evaluate. This is the last phase of ADDIE model, where the results of the training are reviewed (such as the achievements of objectives and how the identified problems have been solved) and suggestions are summarised for a future implementation. Ideally evaluation should be an ongoing process throughout all phases of the ADDIE model via (Ferriman, 2013; Holden, 2015; Kurt, n.d.; Japan International Cooperation Agency, 2013):

- **Formative evaluation:** Done during the implementation of the course, it aims to identify aspects of the learning that need to improve and to offer corrective suggestions;
- **Summative evaluation:** Done at the end of the course, its goal is to assess the learner's achievements, providing information on the course's efficacy. It is typically quantitative, using numeric scores or letter grades.

The key deliverables at the end of this phase will be the training course evaluation report (Ferriman, 2013; Holden, 2015; Kurt, n.d.; Japan International Cooperation Agency, 2013).

ADDIE model has found wide acceptance and use since it offers dynamic and flexible guidelines for building effective training and performance support tools. As shown in Figure 7, its main benefits are (Civil Service Training Centre, 2013):

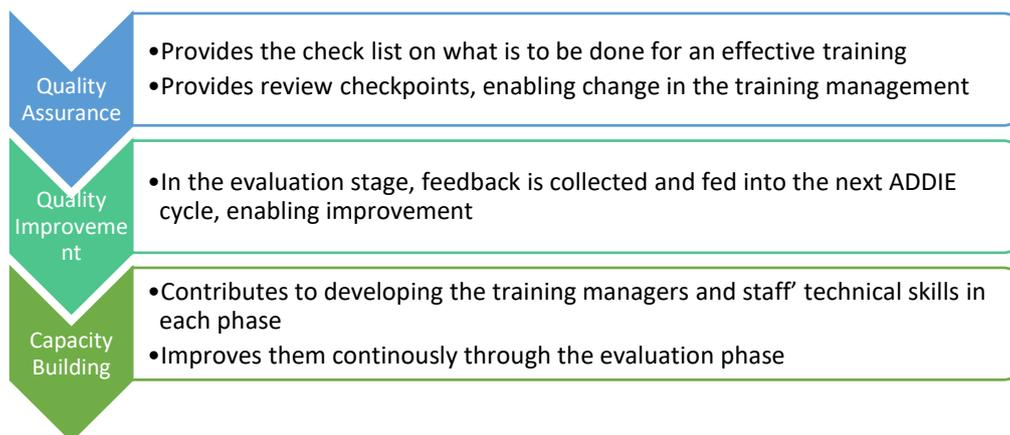


Figure 7. Main benefits of ADDIE model

1. **Quality assurance.** ADDIE provides the check list on what is to be done for an effective training, on a step-by-step process. At the same time, it allows to make modifications in the training management, by providing checkpoints in each phase to review previous outputs;
2. **Quality improvement.** Since the process includes an evaluation stage, at the end of each cycle, the feedback is collected and fed into the next cycle for improvement;
3. **Capacity development.** ADDIE contributes to developing the training managers and staff' technical skills in each phase by having to follow step by step the standard procedures.

III. Training and teaching methods

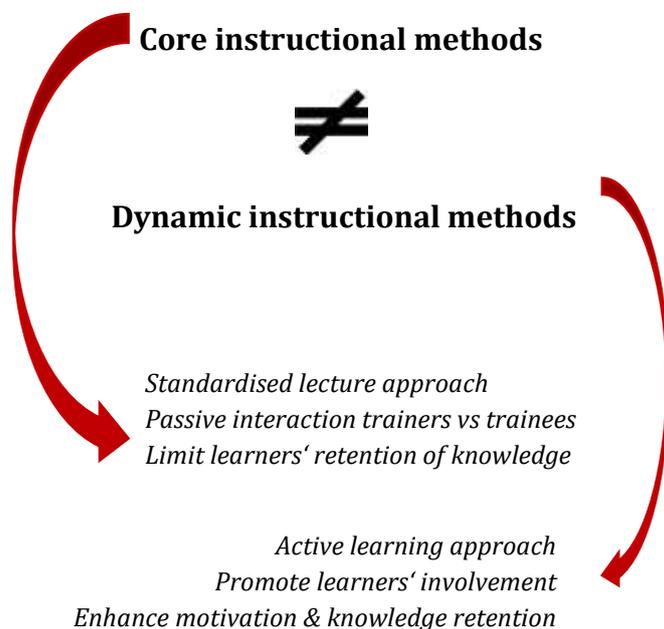
a) Core instructional methods

- **Lecturing and explaining**

Firstly, it is important to separate and differentiate the traditional core instructional methods and a more dynamically-based approach (Democracy Reporting International, 2014; United Nations, 2001).

Core instructional methods are those that are probably the most commonly used approaches across the teaching and training area, providing the basis for additional and equally important supporting methods. Based on the standardised lecture approaches, these methods tend to limit the learners’ expected retention of knowledge due to a passive interaction between trainers and trainees (Democracy Reporting International, 2014; United Nations, 2001).

On the other hand, dynamic instructional methods are those that belong to the so-called *active learning methodology*, which promotes learners’ involvement in the training session while enhancing their motivation and knowledge retention (Democracy Reporting International, 2014; United Nations, 2001).



In the beginning of a training it is always important to show conceptualisation of ideas, as well as demonstrate how they relate. It is also where the first key guidelines for problem solving are provided. At this point, learning is focused on cognitive processes and is associated with changes in attitudes and knowledge (Blanchard, n.d.).

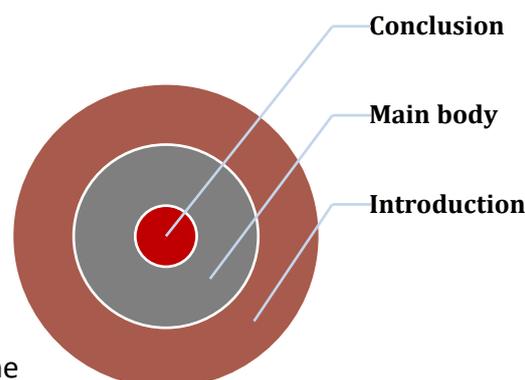
Lecturing and explaining are thus best used for **creating a general understanding of a theme** and are mostly useful in situations where a **large amount of people** must be given a certain amount of information in a limited time. In this context, communication is one-way: from trainer to beneficiaries. (Blanchard, n.d.).

This method provides learners with a framework that will guide them through a topic, further **stimulating their interest in a particular subject**. This is the moments where learners observe, listen and take notes (Blanchard, n.d.).

How to structure an effective lecture?

An effective lecture lies on being an extensive, yet dynamic, oral presentation of material. It should have the following structure (Blanchard, n.d.):

1. **Introduction:** which serves to set rules about interruptions for questions and clarifications, stating the purpose of the session and the topics that will be covered;
2. **Main body:** it consists on the logical sequence of the topic areas, preparing trainees for the upcoming topics;
3. **Conclusion:** serves to summarise the main learning points and stimulate reflection.



How to effectively lecture and answer questions?

To explain effectively the main topics of a lecture or answering questions entails important aspects such as (United Nations, 2001, p. 40):

- Clear statements and examples of what is being explained and its relevance to what learners need to know;
- Logical organisation of information with appropriate examples and analogies to illustrate concepts and principles;
- Linking of key topics, concepts and principles;
- Re-capping of key points at the end of each sub-topic;
- A clear engaging style of presentation;

- Supporting well-designed and appropriate teaching and learning aids;
- Opportunities for involving the learners.

- **The ability to demonstrate**

Demonstration is a commonly used and effective method for teaching of skills at all levels, independently of the characteristics of the targeted learning population. However, similarly to lecture and explanation, it is frequently linked to a variety of instructional strategies (United Nations, 2001). Nevertheless, **it is very important that the trainer is capable to demonstrate a certain idea or subject**. In other words, the ability to demonstrate recognises that learners are unlikely to learn in an effective way by using demonstration alone. They also need guided practice and feedback regarding their learning path (United Nations, 2001). Given this, **during the preparation of the materials or examples for demonstration**, it is important to make the following assessments (Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations, 1998):

- What the target group already might know and might find difficult;
- Possibility of misinterpretation of examples, illustration or materials;
- How the demonstration/exemplification will follow the learning objectives.

Hence, the trainer should have a clear, thoughtful conceptualisation of his/her **pre-demonstration planning** to be clear on what he/she wants to demonstrate and to analyse the skills that are being addressed during the demonstration by (United Nations, 2001):

- Identifying crucial steps of the activity, breaking them down into basic operations and procedures;
- Identifying what senses and body movements (i.e., with the hands or with the way that he/she moves during presentations) should be involved.

Furthermore, the trainer should simplify without sacrificing essential skill components (what is easy to comprehend for the trainer might not be that easy to understand for the trainees) and to organise the needed equipment and prepare teaching aids that will help learners understand what is involved (United Nations, 2001).

While carrying out the demonstration the trainer needs to (United Nations, 2001):

- Make sure that all the trainees had access to the information and were interested in it;
- Describe the intention of the demonstration;
- Reveal the main steps of the activity and identify the likely problem areas;
- Accompany each step with a verbal description, and attempt to show the skill from the operator's point of view;

- Adjust the demonstration's pace according to the audience's needs, inspiring confidence and trying not to over-impress;
- Check if the demonstration process was well apprehended, upon finishing the demonstration.

At the end of the session it is crucial that the trainer allocates specific time for reflection and practice, since learners always need to practice new skills in order to achieve a positive result (United Nations, 2001).

b) Supporting dynamic instructional methods

There are different dynamic methods that should be combined with all the core instructional methods in order to boost the learner's motivation.

- **Group work**

Group work can be, indeed, an effective learning method. This technique could also be known as "The World Café", an informal approach to enhance the whole group interaction. Focusing on conversations, it is a creative process for promoting leading collaborative dialogue, sharing knowledge and creating possibilities for action in groups of all sizes (Democracy Reporting International, 2014). Basically, this technique fosters cooperative learning by (United Nations, 2001):

- Encouraging team work and communication;
- Allowing decision making and problem solving;
- Providing an active basis for learning;
- Enabling the sharing of experiences viewpoints and knowledge;
- Encouraging ongoing peer assessment.

Planning a group exercise is extremely important, so that the training is kept on track and the learning objectives are achieved. It entails (United Nations, 2001):

- Assessing the personality of the learners;
- Allocating time, space and preparing handouts if needed;
- Introducing the exercises and the rules (group forming, available resources, topics to be covered, while stressing your availability to help and the time-limit).

There are different techniques when fostering dynamic learning among group works, namely (Delaney & Noten, 2008; United Nations, 2001;):

- **The presentation of a case study** where each group will take a small part of the issue and tries to solve it, which we will specifically address in a few moments;

- **The presentation of an issue** that either has **several solutions** or **one best solution**;
- **The presentation of a problem to the group**, who is invited to come up with as many solutions as possible, which are written on a flip chart, and then discussed in front of the class, with the aim of reaching a clearer understanding of the problem.

These techniques have in common the three key requirements of group work, namely (NHS Education for Scotland, 2013):

- a) Task** (the required action to meet certain learning outcomes);
- b) Process** (in which all the personal experience and subjectivities of the elements of the work group can interplay for greater learning outcomes);
- c) Support** (it relates with the intervention of the trainer, when the goals of the exercise are being side-tracked by the complex elements of the process of completing the task as a group (NHS Education for Scotland, 2013).

However, it is worth mentioning that to effectively approach a working group, the trainer must embrace the duty of being a facilitator (NHS Education for Scotland, 2013).

Being a facilitator is the task of **making sure that the right structures and processes exist for helping the group to meet its agreed objectives**. Furthermore, the facilitator should help the group members in **identifying and overcoming problems** in communication while managing emotion(s).

The art of facilitation allows **learners to discover the way forward** by using and developing their own skills by (NHS Education for Scotland, 2013):

- a) observing the group dynamics;**
- b) managing the group process;**
- c) obtaining the best possible outcomes from the sum of the parts.** Basically, facilitation is about making it easy for a group to learn and solve problems, or even to generate new ideas (NHS Education for Scotland, 2013). It is about enabling individuals and groups to take responsibility and ownership for their decisions, while achieving the proposed learning outcomes (NHS Education for Scotland, 2013).

- **Questioning**

Questioning, or group inquiry, is a challenging and effective method for promoting learning since it allows (United Nations, 2001): to stimulate motivation and interest; b) knowledge to be shared with the group; c) to foster an interplay between passive and

active learning; d) enhance thinking skills; e) to boost the development of both thought and feelings self-expression; f) help to assess the general knowledge of the group.

Questioning, as a method by itself, has its own dynamics. As so, instead of simply asking questions the trainer can challenge the participants, so they can elaborate their own questions in order to deepen their understanding on that specific topic (Silberman & Auerbach, 2006). If the learners have little knowledge about the topic in question, the trainer should present relevant instructional materials first, to arouse their curiosity and interest (and, therefore, stimulating questions from their part) (Silberman & Auerbach, 2006; Delaney & Noten, 2008).

The trainer must ensure that the group is engaged in the conversation before posing a problem for them to solve, since that engagement will encourage additional questions (United Nations, 2001). This method, if dynamically-approached, allows for a wide variety of contributions to be made by the participants, stimulating peer-learning and allowing the trainer to gear teaching according to the participants' needs (United Nations, 2001). Given this, questions need to be effective and for that to happen they need to be (United Nations, 2001):

- **Brief**, clear and made one at the time;
- Equitable, **according to the level of the individual or group**;
- **Open questions** when the aim is to explore a topic;
- **Closed questions** when the aim is to assess the knowledge of the group;
- Made with an **encouraging tone** of voice;
- **Paused**, in order to give learners sufficient time to answer (it must be taken into consideration that a simple question involves several mental operations by the listener);
- **Distributed**, so that everyone has the change to contribute;
- **Sequenced**, ensuring that their order is logical.

However, since questioning is a reciprocal method, trainers should be aware on how to deal with the answers that learners can provide. As so, trainers' response to learners' answers should be **warm**, using non-verbal and verbal signs, and **appropriate**, ensuring that learners do not feel embarrassed by an incorrect answer. If this happens, the trainer should **rephrase** the question, **provide clues** to the correct answer, or **allow other learner to answer** the initial questions (United Nations, 2001).

Furthermore, if a learner makes a question that the trainer cannot answer, it is important for the trainer to be honest and to offer to find the necessary information, in order to provide a correct and informed answer in a near future (United Nations, 2001).

- **Discussion**

Discussion will encourage the learners to share information and opinions, enabling them to compare points of view, it can certainly be a very effective and dynamic method. Therefore, discussion promotes learning by (United Nations, 2001):

- Providing a framework for cooperative learning;
- Encouraging the critical appraisal of different perspectives;
- And developing range of thinking skills.

However, **managing a thoughtful discussion involves careful, idealised planning**. Given this, **the trainer** should clearly **determine its scope and objectives**, assure an **adequate environment**, **prepare key questions** (but work with the flow of the discussion), guarantee a **non-monopolised discussion**, to **maintain the group focused** on the topic, to **encourage statement support** and to **note** some discussed **important points** (United Nations, 2001).

To know how a seemingly simple discussion should be promoted is an important characteristic of a trainer. Usually, learning discussions are generated through (United Nations, 2001):

- **Rounds**, involving everyone in the group by providing each one an equal chance to comment briefly on a particular topic. This is super effective in the beginning of a session, since these rounds guarantee that everyone talks, at least once, functioning as an ice-breaker;
- **Buzz groups**, or pairs and triads, depending on the number of participants. In this discussion methods, groups discuss the topic (or a sub-topic) for a short-period of time, enhancing each individual's likelihood of sharing their point of view to a smaller audience;
- **Brainstorms**, a very good method to use when the aim is to expand the learners' thinking in a (certain) area and to generate new ideas. All ideas should be welcomed by the trainer and no justification is needed.

- **Case Studies**

A case study is a capture of a real-life situation. Therefore, using case studies in a session is very helpful to allow learners to develop problem-solving skills in real-life situations (United Nations, 2001). Case studies can also be designed by the trainer using sources, such as newspapers, court reports or even cases directly known by the trainer (Delaney & Noten, 2008). The importance of case studies as a dynamic instructional method should not be overlooked, since they aim to achieve learning outcomes, such as *i)* promote critical analysis and problem-solving skills; *ii)* enhance learners' motivation and

independent learning; and *iii*) to encourage reflective practice and decision-making in complex scenarios (United Nations, 2001).



Before presenting the case studies the **trainer needs to make a good assessment** and ensure that those cases **portray relevant issues to the topic**, that they allow **different interpretations of a situation**, that they are **interesting and appropriate**, that they **foster knowledge** that advance the learning objectives of the learning situations (United Nations, 2001).

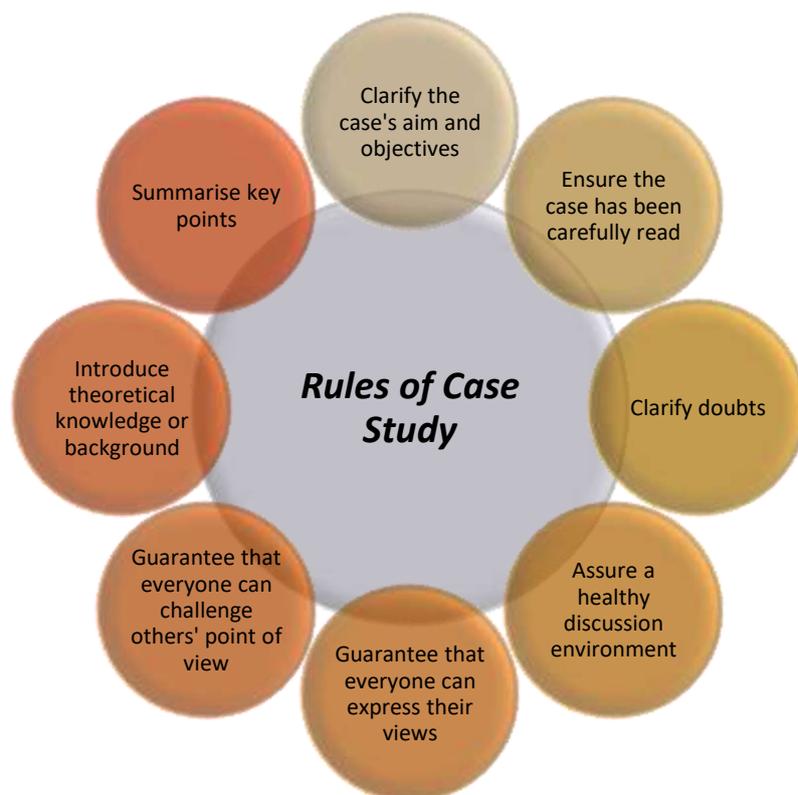


Figure 8. Rules of case study

The trainer should be attentive to assure the compliance of certain rules regarding case studies (as shown in Figure 8), hence he/she must clarify the case's aim and objectives, ensure the case has been carefully read and explain all the learner's doubts. The trainer also needs to assure a healthy discussion environment, guaranteeing that everyone can express their views and challenge the others. Furthermore, he/she need to remember to introduce relevant theoretical knowledge" and summarise some key notes and points of concern situations (United Nations, 2001).

- **Role play**

Role play can be defined as a **method of learning** in which the **emphasis is on the direct experience of the learner in a given situation**, increasing his/her **familiarity** with the **subject matter** (Horvat, 2009). This learning method can be **very useful** when learners **need to develop and practice** important **social and interpersonal skills**, such as a service to a vulnerable group, counselling sessions, or meetings (United Nations, 2001).

Role plays needs to be **thoroughly planned** to help achieve the proposed learning objectives. When explaining this kind of exercises to the participants, it is essential that each person knows their role in the exercise, as well as a description about what their character will do. Throughout the exercise, **the trainer will intervene only if needed**, such as in the case of a participant exceeding their role (Delaney & Noten, 2008). In this case, the trainer needs to anticipate this situation and have a plan for possible breakdowns in the role play. Given this, it is key that the trainer is always paying attention to the exercise since he/she might need to intervene in this dynamic instructional method (United Nations, 2001).

Basically, this learning method enables learners to evaluate their performance and feelings in new scenarios and develop skills in simulated real-life conditions without the consequences of real-life failure (United Nations, 2001).

All of the instructional methods above mentioned are used to promote and enhance learners' activity and interest during a training session. However, despite being quite dynamic, the engagement of certain persons might not be totally achieved. As so, certain techniques to facilitate their interest should be used, such as icebreakers, warm-ups, and energisers (Democracy Reporting International, 2014):

- **Icebreakers** are very useful in the beginning of the training, in order to introduce participants to each other, promote their engagement in a nice environment for the training, reliving the initial tension (Democracy Reporting



International, 2014; United Nations Population Fund, 2005);

- **Warm-up** activities are other type of engaging techniques that can be useful to the trainer in the beginning of a training session. Usually these warm-up exercises allow the session to begin on a positive note, to recharge the group's energy and to enhance mental activity (United Nations Population Fund, 2005);



- **Energisers** are activities that are used to stimulate and motivate the learners during the training session. Despite learners' actual interest and active participation, they might have feelings of tiredness and sleepiness during the sessions, hence the energisers are key, once they will allow a quick break from the session (United Nations Population Fund, 2005). This technique gives learners' some time to recover during long or dry training sessions, but the trainer should have in mind that energisers are most effective when relevant to the topic. If successful, learners tend to become more alert by sensing a mental or physical stimulation through a content-related humour-like interjection or story (Democracy Reporting International, 2014).



IV. Behavioural Group Management

a) Types of individual behaviour

Each individual is different. Therefore, each training session will be different as well, since the trainer is confronted with new people with a wide range of different behaviours and ways to act within a group (NHS Education for Scotland, 2013). As so, it is by having such in consideration that some particular types of individual behaviour are important to be identified. In fact, these types may become evident when such individuals are in a group, requiring certain skills to manage his/her personality and, consequently, maintaining the balance of the whole group. There are eight types of participants (NHS Education for Scotland, 2013):

- The Dominating Talker;
- The Silent-submissive participant;
- The Silent-powerful participant;
- The Expert;
- The Joker;
- The Broken Record;
- The Chatterer;
- The Intellectual Thinker-Analyst.

- **The Dominating talker**

The Dominating Talker's behaviour is characterised by making constant interruptions during the training session and by talking over other participants when it is not his/her turn. This type of individual is sure that his/her point of view is the most relevant across the whole group and independently of the topic. Therefore, he/she aims to decrease the other participants' contributions, causing, in the remaining learners, a sense of boredom (NHS Education for Scotland, 2013).

The trainer must acknowledge that if one person is talking too much, other trainees are not being able to do so. Hence, when confronted with this kind of participant the trainer should (NHS Education for Scotland, 2013):

- Focus on the others and encouraging dialogue around the group;
- Set up a structured exercise to look at the level of each individual's contribution;
- Challenge the behaviour without focusing on the dominant member even more;

- Use non-verbal intervention (e.g., gently holding your hand up to signal that it's time to finish their intervention).

- **The Silent-Submissive**

The Silent-submissive participant is characterised by someone who sits quietly and avoids being a part of a group conversation or discussion. Although, some non-verbal communication is expected in this type of individual behaviour, this individual is reluctant to verbally express his/her point of view (NHS Education for Scotland, 2013). In this case, the trainer has to acknowledge that if this person is not participating, his/her opinion may never be heard, which limits the sharing of new ideas and some possible brainstorming. In fact, the point of view that this individual is reluctant to share might be interesting and relevant for the whole group. When confronted with this type of learners, the trainer needs to (NHS Education for Scotland, 2013):

- Figure out if it is the participants' or trainer's problem, since they might be just reflecting or you're probably not passing your idea;
- Encourage this type of participants to say something right at the beginning, which will certainly function as an ice-breaker for further conversations;
- Break up the whole group task and work in smaller groups;
- Encourage their participation (such as writing on the flipchart);
- Confront the behaviour by making a simple observation about it, avoiding any type of judgements.

- **The Silent Powerful**

The Silent-powerful participant type of individual behaviour is related to someone who can make other participants feel uncomfortable, either with his/her presence, or even with the training session. This individual usually spends most of the time bored and without showing any verbal enthusiasm. In some cases, these individuals may even be doing other task, such as texting on the cell phone or reading unrelated material (NHS Education for Scotland, 2013). If not effectively addressed, such behaviour could influence others and jeopardise the educational climate. When confronted with this type of participants, the trainer needs to (NHS Education for Scotland, 2013):

- Encourage and early statement;
- Encourage specific-task participation, such as scribe or timekeeper;
- Challenging the behaviour, avoiding too much criticism;
- Confront the behaviour by reflecting back to the audience how the behaviour is making others feel.

- **The Expert**

The Expert is usually the person who always have an academic answer to every single question that the group discusses or addresses. The individual that shows this type of behaviour tends to use uncommon acronyms and often talks as a speech, not as in a conversation. It is quite easy to identify this individual since he/she is expected to confront every information, disputing what is being said by everyone Hence, this individual can create tension in the group by not taking in consideration the other participants' views or by confusing them, incessantly trying to look more intelligent or superior to others (NHS Education for Scotland, 2013). To effectively control such behaviour, the trainer should (NHS Education for Scotland, 2013):

- Facilitate the other learners' participation;
- Paraphrase what has been said, engaging the involvement of the whole group;
- Challenge the behaviour.

- **The Joker**

The Joker is someone who uses humour in all the available opportunities. He/she could actually be appropriate for this first or second times, but eventually will end up producing a joke when the opportunity arises. Although a slight piece of humour may be used by the trainer to start learner's engagement, having someone in the group that is constantly cracking jokes will result in subjects being discussed too superficially (NHS Education for Scotland, 2013). Having this in consideration, the trainer should adopt the following possible solutions (NHS Education for Scotland, 2013):

- Acknowledge the humour, but suggesting that it may be saved for later;
- Refocus the discussion, using humour or not;
- Suggest that it is time for a break;
- Challenge the behaviour.

- **The Broken Record**

The Broken Record is usually someone who takes every possible chance to bring up the same subject, ending up rejecting most of the solutions or ideas from the other members of the group. As so, this type of individual behaviour may limit group discussion by simply repeating the same thing constantly. These individuals may blame others or the circumstances, leading the other group members away from what they can do to make improvements and changes (NHS Education for Scotland, 2013). When confronted with this kind of participant, the trainer should (NHS Education for Scotland, 2013):

- Acknowledge the problem and deflect it;

- Use the other participants' ideas to deflect it;
- Engage with other learners in the group discussion;
- Acknowledge this individual's lack of progress in the discussion;
- Challenge the behaviour.

- **The Chatterer**

The Chatterer is also commonly found in training sessions or working groups. If not talking to the whole group, he/she will most probably start talking with the nearest person. Even though it could be about something related with the topic of discussion, a two-sided conversation that not concerns the whole audience ends up separating these two (or more) persons from the group. Hence, it is not only the chattered who's not involved in the general discussion, but also the ones that he/she is talking to (NHS Education for Scotland, 2013). This type of behaviour is suitable to expand to more members if they are able to listen such conversation as well. In order to control the training environment, the trainer is advised to (NHS Education for Scotland, 2013):

- Include this individual in the group discussion;
- Ask him/her to recapitulate what has been said;
- Divide the group into smaller groups, making sure the chatterer is not in connected with the persons he/she was talking to;
- Point out if he/she wants to share something with the whole group, since others do not know what they're talking about;
- Check if participants are becoming bored with the current topic of discussion.

- **The Intellectual Thinker-Analyst**

The last type of individual behaviour is the Intellectual Thinker-Analyst. This person usually avoids emotions, basing his/her verbal interactions with intellectual arguments and complex, theoretical rationalisations. In fact, despite an intellectual-based approach might be of great importance, feelings should also be addressed during a training session, since the trainees should be aware of their need to change (NHS Education for Scotland, 2013). When confronted with this kind of participant, the trainer should (NHS Education for Scotland, 2013):

- Acknowledge what the participant said, providing a sentence that will encourage him/her to talk about his/her feelings about a particular subject;
- Encourage other participants to expose their feelings;
- Challenge the behaviour.

b) Overcoming group problems

Within a training group, problems may arise hence the trainer needs to know how to deal with an individual or group behaviour. Both have different implications on how to understand and manage difficulties or problems (NHS Education for Scotland, 2013).

- **At Individual Level**

There are three basic steps to deal with individual problems within your training group:

- a) **Share:** The trainer should discuss his/her concerns with others. Most situations will benefit from a discussion of the issue with colleagues;
- b) **Involve:** The trainer needs to engage the learner in those concerns and discussions. Although it might be hard, it is important to speak to the learner to get his/her side of the story or understand the root of the difficulty;
- c) **Document:** The trainer must keep detailed record of the facts and any other relevant issues. Records should be accurate, factual, objective, justifiable and relevant (NHS Education for Scotland, 2013).

In the case that the trainer is on a one-to-one action he/she should **choose an appropriate setting** (an environment with no interruptions and adequate the time to deal with the issues) and should **use a specific and descriptive statement** of what the problem or difficult behaviour is (NHS Education for Scotland, 2013).

- **At Group Level**

If the problem or difficulty is with the group, the trainer needs to consider whether he/she as a facilitator is performing in the right boxes for the group (NHS Education for Scotland, 2013). Three common issues associated with ineffective facilitation are: unclear purposes and misaligned activities, defensive and overreactive communication, and abuses of power (Thomas, 2010).



The **first problem** refers to the **lack of common purpose or lack of clarity on how to work towards that aim**, which might compromise the effectiveness of some groups, even when they demonstrate high levels of activity. This issue is **often caused by a lack of constructive alignment**, a concept that entails the process of systematically aligning learning activities with desired outcomes. To avoid this problem the facilitator needs to **act intentionally**, by being aware of the group process, **by making otherwise hidden process overt**, by **promoting an awareness of personal stances**, and by **modelling desired behaviours**. Also, **facilitators** can support the group in **defining its purpose** and then select (or help the group to select) the **best strategies** to achieve that goal. This will ensure that there is a constructive alignment between the activities and the group's identified purpose (Thomas, 2010).

The **second problem** entails **inappropriate and defensive responses from the facilitator**, triggered by some behaviours or attitudes from the group. From a relational perspective, being triggered in this way **decreases the facilitator's level of "free attention"**, that is, that part of your awareness free of any self-focused thoughts, feelings or body sensations. When a facilitator gets distracted in this sense, he/she might become defensive when they encounter resistance or hostility from the group. **Effective group facilitators** require **high levels of self-awareness** (being aware of their own inner moods, attitudes and thoughts) and the **capacity to monitor their own reactions** to group processes and group participants (Thomas, 2010).

Before anyone can effectively facilitate groups, he/she **must be able to facilitate oneself**. This requires the **development of high levels of self-awareness and self-management** by passing through an introspective process of recognising and accepting one's doubts, fears and shortcomings. Therefore, when facilitators **encounter resistance in the group**, they can **choose to listen to the critical voice** that focuses on their shortcomings (which will lead to a defensive reaction from the facilitator) or **they can listen to alternative voices** that explain the resistant behaviour, remaining open to the group. **This internal dialogue is essential for developing self-awareness** (Thomas, 2010).

The third problem refers to the fact that **facilitators can also create problems** in groups when they **use their power and influence in a negative manner**, by misusing it to serve a hidden agenda and privilege certain interests, or by **mismanaging the power relationships between participants** and **failing to consider marginalised views** (for example, when the trainer uses stereotypes or sexist language). Most often, **facilitators do not deliberately misuse the power associated with their role**. In these cases, it is associated with facilitators' unawareness (or partially unawareness) of their interpretive

lenses over the world, of the potential abuse of power, of group pressures on them as facilitators and also of the influence of the contracting party on them. **To avoid this problem**, the facilitator needs to **develop and practice the position of partial**, yet open **awareness**: being aware of their own limited awareness and recognising their own partiality. **Facilitators need to be aware of their power and rank**, and how can they use it constructively, in order to benefit the whole group and themselves (Thomas, 2010).

V. The lesson plan

An effective trainer needs to be fully prepared beforehand. As general professional advice states, “for every hour that you are training you should have completed 10 hours of study and preparation” (World Health Organization, 2013, p.13). **Planning and preparation are the cornerstones** of an effective training, particularly for those new to the field (United Nations, 2001).

One of **the key aspects of preparation** is for trainers to **develop a detailed plan** of each session during the full duration of the training (Civil Service Training Centre, 2013; Office of the Minnesota Secretary of State, 2016).

A **lesson plan works as a map** to the trainer on how to bring participants to the desired outcomes of the session. Once produced, the **plan is a working document for teaching this particular session**, so it is **flexible to change and improvement** (Civil Service Training Centre, 2013; Office of the Minnesota Secretary of State, 2016).

A good lesson plan should answer three core questions (Office of the Minnesota Secretary of State, 2016):

- **What** does the trainer want his/her trainees to learn?
- **Why** should the trainees learn these materials?
- **How** should they learn it?

When a trainer is developing the session plan, he/she should also consider **how detailed to make the plan and what format or template to use** (United Nations, 2001). The level of detail is up to the trainer to decide. Some trainers need to have a more detailed plan to prevent any loss of focus during the session, while others prefer a shorter, summarised version of the plan (United Nations, 2001).

Concerning templates, **there are different formats that can be put into use.** Nevertheless, it should **cover the basic elements.** Hence, the lesson plan must include (Democracy Reporting International & inProgress, 2014; United Nations, 2001;):

1. The learning objectives;
2. The lesson content or key learning points;
3. Instructional methods;
4. Teaching and learning resources;
5. Timing for each activity;
6. Assessment of learning.

a) Writing learning objectives

A **key principle for an effective lesson plan** is writing down **learning objectives**, establishing a **concrete aim of the learning contents**, as well as the **achieved outcomes** throughout the training course (NHS Education for Scotland, 2013).

In fact, “aims, objectives and learning outcomes are often used interchangeably”, so the trainer must understand each and every one of these conflicting definitions. At first, let’s take a look to what is an aim.

- **Aim**

An aim is intended to demonstrate the broad purpose of the training session. Its length should be appropriate (not too short, neither too long) and might serve as an introduction to a course, helping the participants to decide if the course is directed for their needs (NHS Education for Scotland, 2013).

- **Learning Outcomes**

Intended learning outcomes, shortly known as **learning outcomes**, is a term used to describe what the learners should be able to do at the end of learning period or training session. This approach derives from the modern international trends in education, which changes from the traditional teacher-centred approach, to a learner-centred approach (NHS Education for Scotland, 2013). In this case, where learners, trainees or students are the focus of the training session, learning outcomes are expected to (NHS Education for Scotland, 2013):

- Give the trainees a clear indication of what is expected of them in terms of quantity and quality of learning;
- Help learners plan their learning;
- Provide the trainers information about the expected learning achievement

- Inform participants of the minimum level of learning that is expected to be achieved by attendance on the training course;
- Be aligned with the assessment criteria.

- **Objectives**

Objectives are specific action statements, which specify what the learner will be able to do, or say, or think, as a result of attending a course or a particular training session (United Nations, 2001). They should be clear and synthesised, not stating what the trainer will teach, or do, across the training course (United Nations, 2001). Furthermore, for objectives to serve for both trainers and trainees, they should be easily-comprehensible prior to their achievement (which means that certain words, or concepts, that learners do not understand at an initial point should be kept aside) (United Nations, 2001). Objectives should not be dissociated from performance, either expected or real. Therefore, objectives contain three elements (United Nations, 2001, p.29):

1. An observable action, behaviour or performance: Objectives should exactly state what is expected from the learners (i.e., what they will be able to do as a result of the training). Such sentence is commonly expressed by an action verb, such as to describe, to characterise, to interpret, to develop, among others. However, this very same verb should define something that is observable, like an expected particular action, behaviour or performance level;
2. The condition(s): While writing an objective, the trainer should have in consideration its condition. This means that it should be “very clear about how the action, behaviour or performance will be carried out”;
3. The standard or criterion: the third factor to be considered by the trainer. This is where the trainer must ensure that the expected learning objectives are clearly stated in criterious fashion, so that he/she could check if the objective has been achieved during the assessment phase.

After the production stage, the **objectives should be appropriately structured and sequenced**. By that, a trainer needs to guarantee that, in each area covered, the objectives lead to a progressive build-up of the skills and knowledge to be acquired by the learner (United Nations, 2001).

- **Lesson content and key learning points**

How the **trainer approaches the knowledge** that he/she wants to impart during the training session is very important for the training course. This **imparted-knowledge is translated into learning contents**, which should **focus on promoting understanding** of a

topic or **underpinning a skill, or skills**, that learners are expected to acknowledge (United Nations, 2001).

In fact, **the greater the knowledge** a trainer possesses in a subject matter, **the more effective the teaching will be**. Surely, a brief, **simplistic awareness of a particular subject** or on how to do a certain task, **will not enable a trainer to effectively be able to teach**. Therefore, is key to (United Nations, 2001):

- Develop a learning content framework;
- Structure how and when each knowledge topic will fit in lesson plan;
- Organise, systematically and sequentially, the learning contents;
- Establish a series of concepts, principles and methods that should encompass the learning contents;
- Ensure that there is a beginning, middle and an end. It is important to make sure that the beginning specifies the session’s objectives and the end provides the trainees opportunities to clarify and review the learned information.

As mentioned before, **instructional methods can enhance or retract learners’ retention of knowledge**. The stipulation and definition of the learning methodologies that are going to be used to promote an active learning approach, ensuring that these methods fit the maturity and composition of the group, is absolutely paramount for the effectiveness of a training session (United Nations, 2001).

- **Dynamic teaching and learning resources**

The **dynamic instructional methods** should be used in **tandem with teaching and learning resources**. These resources are teaching aids and materials that are used to **enhance and complement learners’ experience during a training session**. Such resources could include IT applications, audio-visual aids, among others (United Nations, 2001).

Examples of dynamic instructional methods



Discussion

Examples of learning resources



E-books



Role-play



Animated videos



Active learning approach

- **Timing**

A **lesson plan** should also have into consideration how to **adequately approach and control time**, one of the most valuable resources for both trainers and trainees. The duration of each training session should be (Democracy Reporting International & inProgress, 2014):

- **Suitable** for everyone. There's a need to avoid having training sessions when trainers could be busy, such as holidays or during important events;
- **Timely-spaced**, although not too much (week-long training could jeopardise the presence of several participants due to other responsibilities);
- **Appropriate** during its whole course. The trainer needs to consider time for breaks and energisers, avoiding the participants' fatigue.

b) Assessment

Assessment is a **crucial element within a lesson plan**. Despite the fact that many believe that the **assessment is something to be done at the end of the course, is something that needs to be done thorough the entire training process** (Murphy & Carson-Warner, n.d.). Assessment is an **ongoing process of identifying what and how individuals are learning**, while providing a **guide for the training session's** pace and nature (United Nations, 2001). **The main reasons to perform an assessment in a training course are** (Murphy & Carson-Warner, n.d.):

- Selecting and grading of trainees;
- Maintaining standards;
- Diagnosing learning difficulties;
- Supporting the development of learning activities;
- Evaluating the effectiveness of the teaching strategy.

The trainer has to decide what is important to assess and, therefore, ensure that it accurately reflect the importance of training session or course (Murphy & Carson-Warner, n.d.). Hence, it is essential to (Murphy & Carson-Warner, n.d.):

- Carefully conduct a content evaluation to identify what should be assessed (with appropriate weightings);
- Have a shared agreement with all trainers regarding the assessment standards;
- Establish and employ procedures for systematic reviews and training developments.

After acknowledging the importance of an efficient assessment and what the trainer needs precisely to assess, one question remains: how to assess? (Murphy & Carson-Warner, n.d.). In fact, it requires a skilled-approach to develop valid assessment items

that promote learning at the same time. All assessment “methods have limitations in terms of the measurement of the human capability rendered”, so it’s not an exact science. Given this, knowing how to design, how to conduct and opt for an effective assessment methodology foresees the following (Murphy & Carson-Warner, n.d.):

- Accurately measure the learning objectives;
- Encourage and motivate learners while enabling them to display competence in different ways;
- Foster an understanding of the key concepts, models and principles of the learning area;
- Make a cost-effective use of time;
- Encourage independent learning and the development of self-assessment skills;
- Be fair and systematically organised;
- Clearly and consistently inform learners regarding all aspects of the assessment scheme (such as timing and type of assessment).

- **Interpretation of the assessment results**

Interpreting the results from the assessment is also particularly relevant, since different assessment methods can produce different types of data regarding the trainees’ performance. Therefore, the trainer needs to ensure that learners’ responses are exactly telling him/her what they expected to. Given this, by using a variety of methodologies is a fairer and more valid approach (Murphy & Carson-Warner, n.d.).

- **Communicating the assessment results**

Communicating the assessment decision to learners is the final stage along this process. And being able to provide good feedback is a key factor in learning (Murphy & Carson-Warner, n.d.). Despite a positive or negative outcome from the learner, after the training session or course, the information that is given to the trainees regarding their performance in assessment is crucial to their future learning. Hence, the trainer should (Murphy & Carson-Warner, n.d.):

- Acknowledge the importance of what to say, and how to say it, as well as its consequences for learners’ subsequent learning;
- Clearly explain the basis of assessment decisions. The trainer should explain what they have not demonstrated and why is it so relevant within that specific area of knowledge;
- Advise learners on how to develop such competences, providing a clear guidance on possible courses of action for learners;
- Promote learners’ future motivation, independently of the assessment results.

Given this, the trainer must ensure that the assessment that he/she is looking to conduct comprises items that are both valid and reliable, and in order to guarantee that validity the assessment should (Murphy & Carson-Warner, n.d.):

- Clearly reproduce the action/behaviour/performance, as well as the conditions and the criteria described in the objectives;
- Encompass the knowledge, skills and attitudes described in the objectives, while seeking no further than that.

- **Types of assessment**

There are two common types of assessment: the summative and formative. The summative assessment lies on allocating final marks or grades according the learner's performance. This approach is commonly related to end-of-module or -course evaluations (Murphy & Carson-Warner, n.d.).

The formative assessment foresees a closely-linked approach to instruction and on developing effective learning through an on-going process. However, this kind of assessment requests a carefully planned and monitored approach, in order to ensure that learners have been adequately prepared for summative assessment (Murphy & Carson-Warner, n.d.).

There are various assessment methods that the trainer can use. These methods comprise assessment items, which can be specific questions or tasks within a method, which could follow under the type of fixed or open responses. These methods range from (Murphy & Carson-Warner, n.d.; NHS Education for Scotland, 2013).

- True or false questions;
- Multiple choice questions;
- Matching items;
- And completion type items.

The trainers must keep in mind that assessing learners' knowledge isn't the most important thing, knowing how they are progressing along the training session or course is crucial. This type of assessment is aimed at describing what changed in the learners' knowledge after receiving a particular training (NHS Education for Scotland, 2013).

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