

TRAIN of TRAINERS

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Chapter 1- Adult education

1.1 Formal education – Non-formal education – Informal education

Traditionally, education given in school has been considered **formal education**, educational activities organized by other institutions like museums, libraries, pupils' clubs etc. – **non-formal education**, while spontaneous or unorganized influences from the environment, family, groups of friends, mass media etc, **informal education**.

Delimitation between these three forms of education is a purely theoretical one, in real life them being a complex whose boundaries are difficult to identify. Furthermore, lately we witness a development and a “formalization” of the non-formal education, getting closer and closer to school area. As an institution, school has answered many social challenges by enlarging the field of activity and initiating partnerships with civil society, local community or different cultural institutions. This happened because learning *“is not related strictly to school or other organized contexts. Learning concept is based on the observation and the idea that a large number of our learning experiences took place outside the formal education system: at the work place, in family, in different organizations”* (Pasi Sahlberg, “Building Bridges for Learning – The recognition and value of non-formal education in youth activity”)

Comparison criterion – Formal education – Non-formal education – Informal education

The subject of education (actors that undertake education actions): educational institutions (schools, kindergartens, high schools, universities) (institutions whose main purpose is education), cultural institutions (theatres, museums, libraries, houses of culture etc), NGO's, other institutions that have education and culture, family, media, friends group, anyone has an unintentional or unorganized educational influence as related purpose.

The training degree of the “educator”

Qualified teaching staff

Teaching staff qualified in different fields of activity, sometimes with didactic qualification

Absent or infrequent teaching training

Training is not a prerequisite of educational influence.

Results of education clearly established and gradually phased on study, on disciplines etc. for each activity, with no long term structure.

Contents of education structured on years of schooling (based on ages), on profiles/vocational pathways, on non-organized fields of interest, contextually.

Ways of certification: nationally recognized certification (high school graduation degree, bachelor's degree / master etc., certificates of completion of compulsory education, professional competencies degree (for professional education graduates), attendance certificate,

graduation certificates for some classes, professional or vocational certificate, that may or may not be recognized.

Note: Sometimes these activities are not at all certificated. **“Individuals want more than ever to plane their own lives; they are expected to actively contribute to society’s life. Education, in its wide meaning, is the key to learning and understanding of the way these challenges may be tackled”** (Memorandum on permanent learning, European Commission, 2001)

Education is the way man and world adapt to each other, but this adaptation is being made through an interior pattern, of knowledge, assessment and action.

Adults are special by engaging in multiple tasks, work, politics, citizenship, family etc. Conflicts that may imprint adult’s personality may occur in all these activities. Adults are reluctant to changes because they imply structural modifications of the explanatory, value and action patterns they get used to.

Adult education is not only a process of assimilation, introspection, development, but also a restructuring process of generalization, of changing relationships between adult and environment (social, work, family etc.). The adult has sometimes a passive attitude towards educations, generated by the reluctance to changes and by the fear of not facing the demands of learning or suffer a decrease of social prestige. We may conclude that adult education is a process of knowledge, especially **a practical action of valuing and applying the knowledge and life experiences.**

Within the methodology, **adult life experience** and the need to express it require use of active and participative forms and procedures focusing on expressing own opinions.

Almost all the interpretation given to learning underline that learning process is decisively influenced by **motivation**. “Motivation concept is one of the most spectacular in whole psychology” (Lindworsky, 1921). Motivation is a covering concept for all the moods or phenomena like **aspiration, desire, hope, will, interest** etc. (Thomas, 1965). “As an impulse, motive is the cause of action, but to become this cause, motive itself must be elaborated”; “motives are determined by the problems man is confronted to, the same way chores are determined by motives” (Hiebsch, 1966).

The existence of motivation translates into changes in behavior:

- motivation generates action, stimulates the subject, making it activ;
- motivation orients the behavior to purpose;
- motivation creates a selective effect that enhances specific stimuli, having thus effect on attention;
- motivation creates tension.

All these are relevant to the importance of creating motivational situations. It is essential for the adults to understand the ratio between proposed training activity and own interests.

“The pattern for a rational learning in adults” (G. Meyer) must answer one fundamental condition, which is learning must be “andragogic”, meaning it has to satisfactorily meet the particularities of adult education.

Modern methods in adult education are considered **essentially experimental**, so education may be done through **personal effort, through active participation**. They are determined both by particularities of this target group and by particularities of this type of education.

Further, we will present some element to be taken into consideration when working with adults:

1 Raising awareness and creating receptivity situation

Most often raising awareness and creating receptivity situation is also called activation or consciousness power-on and is based on the psychological phenomenon according to which personal implication in an experience causes intense personal activity. Raising awareness is caused due to an emotional event through the involvement of **personal experience** and **some motivational resources**.

Creating the problem-situation plays an important role that will generate the need to find a strategy, a solution for solving the problem.

It has to be a **pressure-situation** that makes the participants intensively feel that restoring balance can be done only by solving the problem.

2. Creating the motivational situation

Trainers that organize and carry out activities with adults must raise their interest, curiosity and need towards the action because these will put pressure on participants. Personal success causes the development of each person's need for affirmation. Clear perception of the purpose, social prestige, value of that activity must also be taken into consideration.

3. Group participation

In order to create an effective training situation, group participation is an essential element. The group must have a clear purpose and act as one.

4. The trainer’s qualities

The trainer himself must be a source of information and a behavior model to involve the group in the carried out activity. Strictly necessary qualities are:

“Good organizer, leader”

“Interpersonal abilities (to be able to motivate participants, to identify their learning potential in any situation, to value participants’ interventions)”

“Permanent source of information, support and help in learning”

“Diagnostician of learning needs and learning difficulties”

“Field competence”

“Availability for group work”

“Team spirit”

“Success oriented”

“Easy adapt to work conditions, **able to anticipate and to influence** them”

“Assessor and therapist”

8 rules to face “stage fear”

1. Training
2. Positive thinking and confidence
3. Practice is learning!
4. Ask for help
5. Practice breathing techniques
6. No last minute corrections
7. Visual contact
8. “Home-made” ready introduction

5. Control and evaluation

Control is perceived as the level of mastery the specific problems within the learning situation and the participative methods mostly used. In a wider vision, control may be identified with evaluation.

Pedagogical methods recommended in adult education must take into consideration:

“Group heterogeneity for training level, age, field of activity, specific problems to confront”

“Limited free time”

“Focusing on concrete, necessity of practical activities that interest and may contribute to solve some problems that participants are facing everyday”

“Capitalization of personal experiences”

“Resistance to changes, reduced flexibility of cognitive structures (changing mentalities)”

“The need of new behavior with powerful social impact”

“Avoid theorization”

Any active pedagogical method induces emotional states by defining and distributing play roles, by motivational manipulation, a form of pressure put on participants. The trainer may face distrust that he must understand in relation to the situation he created during the training.

Training the adults becomes more and more a responsibility of each organization's management, as well as a responsibility of each person for own development.

1.2. Principles in adult education

Each of us has its own way of learning: faster, more efficient, better. What does "better learning" mean? It means to observe and retain more and thoroughly some things, to profoundly understand inter-relations, causes, processes, to effectively use knowledge into practice in everyday life, to properly dispose of abilities and skills for real situations.

Unlike children, adult learn by more or less respecting certain principles.

Principles of adult learning process:

1. Adults expect to be treated with respect and their experience to be recognized
2. Adults need practical solutions to real life problems.
3. Adults are able to reflect upon and analyze their own experience.
4. Adults have different needs to learn.
5. Adults may be motivated by the possibility to fulfill their personal aspirations and needs.
6. Adults need support in the learning process.
7. Adults need to communicate feelings in their own way.
8. Adults are able to take decisions and organize their personal and professional development

1.3 Learning through experience

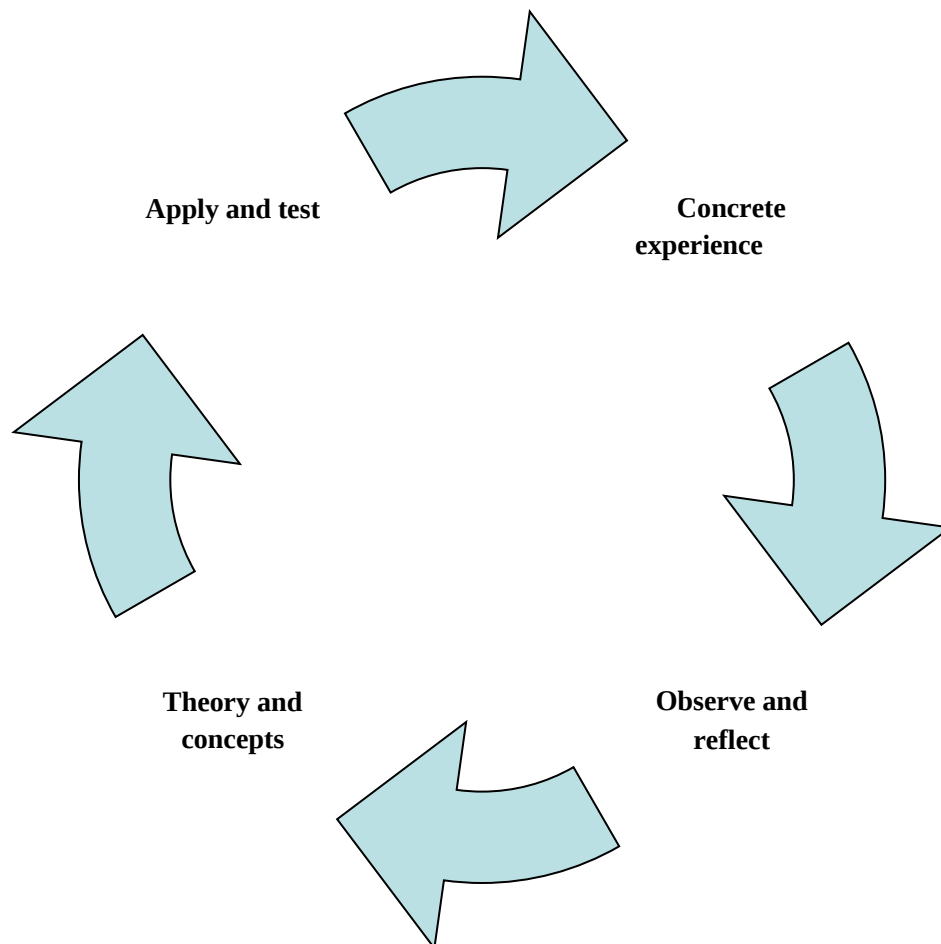
In order to show how adults analyze personal experience for understanding it and using it in new situation, David Kolb developed a pattern of learning through experience in 1984.

The fundamental idea of learning through experience is that the one that is learning is directly involved in the event drawing conclusions from it. These conclusions are "teachings".

Learning through experience is opposed to learning from others' experience, characteristic to conventional ways of education; learning through experience is an active learning,

Kolb suggested a cycle of activities within learning through experience process, based on four elements:

1. Actual experience
2. Reflection. Remember what happened.
3. Abstract conceptualization: starting to be aware of the experience, drawing conclusions, trying to frame the experience into known patterns (schemes), formulate theories and rules.
4. Active experimentation. Decide exactly what will be used from the experience in order to improve or change future options.



Chapter 2 – Learning styles

Kolb popularized something the instructors noticed long before: people have different styles of learning.

Studying Kolb's works, two specialists in management of development and learning, Peter Honey and Alan Mumford, have developed a theory of learning styles. They classified the four learning styles:

2.1. Active style

Active people get involved in new experience without prejudice. They enjoy the present and have an open mind that makes them enthusiast to all that is new. Their judgment is mainly based on feelings and intuition rather than theory (seen as "too abstract"). Their philosophy is *I'll try everything once!* Their days are filled with activities. They like taking care of crisis situation, challenge of the new, but get bored with details. They are friendly and open and they like being part of groups with different activities.

Active people learn better when:

- there are new experiences and opportunities to learn from;
- short exercises and group activities occur;
- there are things that can be tested;
- they are appointed to do something;
- they can get in touch with others;
- they are allowed new ideas, no restrictions.

2.2. Reflexive style

Reflexive people stay away and judge experiences from different perspectives. They collect data personal and through intermediates and they analyze them thoroughly before jumping to conclusions. What matters most to them is this collection and data analysis process thus tending to postpone as much as possible the final conclusion. Their philosophy is *Don't be too hasty!*

They are pensive; they listen to others and try to obtain the full picture before speaking.

Reflexive people learn better when:

- they can observe/reflect on the activities;
- they have the possibility to stand back listening and looking at others;

- they have time to think and prepare before an exercise or comment;
- they have the possibility to recap the events;
- they have written materials and thorough proofs.

2.3. Theoretic style

Theoreticians adapt and integrate their observations in logical theories. They logically analyze a problem step by step and assembly all circumstances in a coherent theory. They tend to be perfectionists, are preoccupied by principles, theories and patterns.

Their philosophy is *If it is logic, it has to be correct!*

The questions most often asked by them are *does it make any sense? What are the basis hypotheses?* They tend to be detached and analytic, rather objective than subjective. They prefer certainty to ambiguity. They learn more easily from people with authority in an impersonal environment.

Theoreticians learn better when:

- what is presented is part of a system;
- they have the possibility to question the basis hypotheses or the methodology;
- they take part in structured activities with specific goal;
- they listen or read about ideas and rational concepts;
- they can analyze causes of success/failure;
- they have written materials, charts.

2.4. Pragmatic style

Pragmatics is people willing to try ideas, theories and techniques to see if they work in practice.

They are always looking for new ideas and get the first chance to put them into practice. They always come back to classes with ideas to practice. Their philosophy is *It's not worthy if it's not working!* They are impatient with aimless and vague talks. They are practical people who take practical decisions. They enjoy finding ways to make things work.

Pragmatics learn better when:

- There is an obvious connection between the subject in matter and the activity;

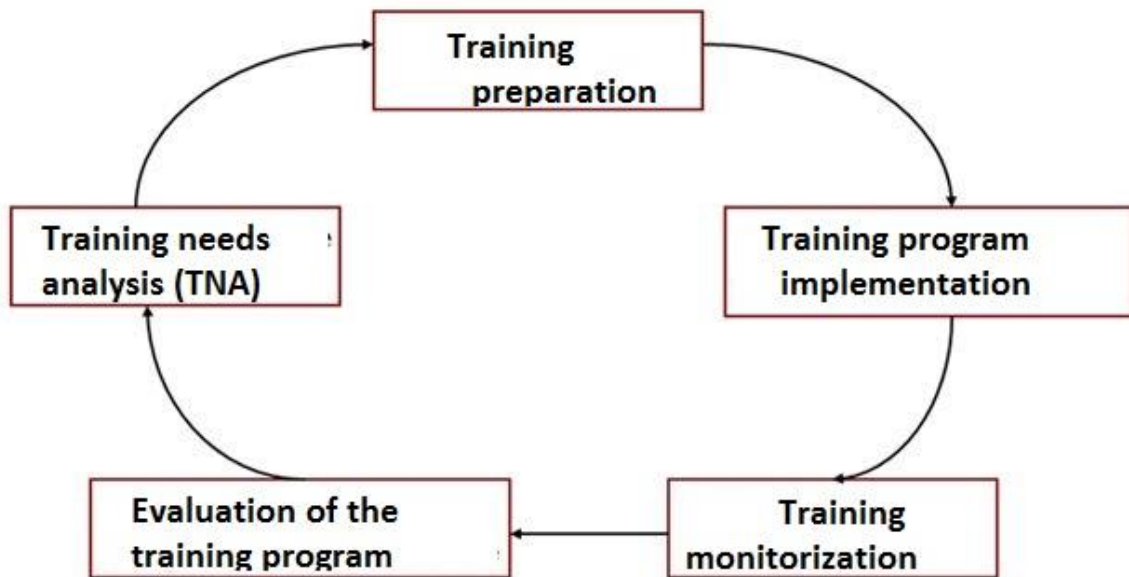
- There are ideas with obvious applicability;
- They have the chance to exercise, assisted by an expert;
- They are offered an useful model they can duplicate;
- They are offered techniques and skills to use on the current activity.

It is less likely for an individual to fit exactly to one category. This doesn't happen because each individual learns by combining the methods derived from the four models. Yet people have a favorite style for learning due to which they are efficient. What is **efficient learning**?

Learning is more efficient when we, the ones that learn:

- Know what to do;
- Understand why we are doing it;
- Have access to resources we understand;
- Have time to develop necessary skills;
- Work in a convenient pace;
- Have the necessary support;
- Are interested in what we are doing;
- Do various activities;
- Can revise our own progress;
- Are the owners of our creation.

TRAINING CYCLE



Chapter 3 – Stages of training process

3.1. Raising awareness of the need

There are a series of ways by which an organization becomes aware about the need of a training form. If a new system or procedure is to be implemented, if a new method or attitude is to be applied it is more likely for a need for training to appear. Other fields that may lead to the need of training are: evaluation of the staff, individual performances or common problems that affect reaching the standards, as the decrease of correctness level.

3.2. Identifying the clues

First step is to consult the sponsor and get as many details as possible. A simple declaration of a “need” is not enough, actual questions must be asked to establish exactly what is needed, who needs training, what time of training is necessary etc. It is simple if a completely new form of training is required, X function is necessary, the staff cannot fulfill it so this clue is easy to be identified.

Training for existing functions that are not efficiently fulfilled requires a more thorough analysis.

3.3. Analysis of training needs

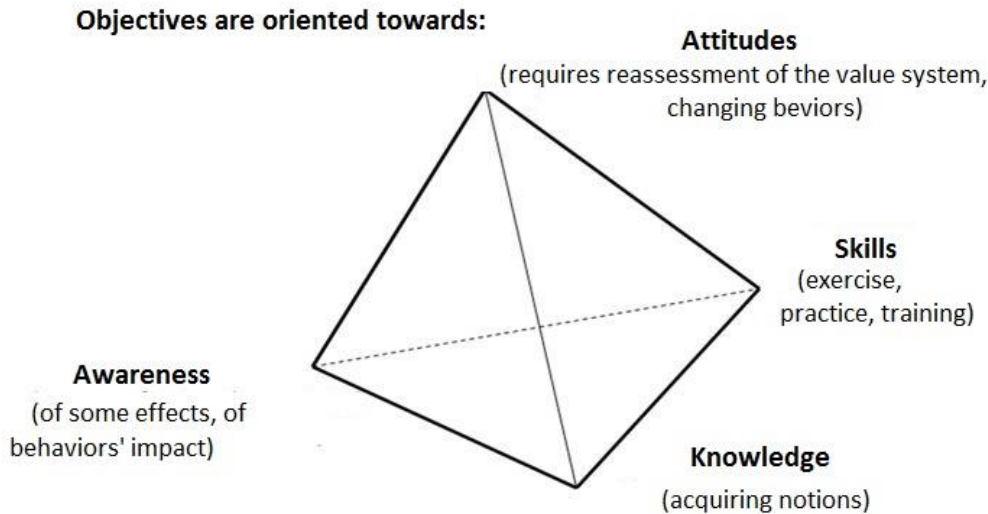
Once the clues have been determined the needs for training have been established too. In a simple formula, these would be: Necessary skill – Existent skill = Need for training.

This can be true even if the training refers to a completely new function. E.g. a new informatics system, staff that may already have some skills, like dactylographic, relevant skill and that must be taken into consideration.

3.4. Defining the objectives

Most of the times, training objectives naturally come from the defined need. The goal is to satisfy those needs and objectives establish the way this will be done, what trainees will be able to do at the end of the training and to what degree.

Development of learning objectives



3.5. Choosing training methods

Objectives, needs and number of participants may help choosing the best most efficient methods of training, others may be satisfied through a variety of other means: classes, computer-assisted learning, distance learning, seminars and training sessions. The costs, availability, time restraints, sponsors preferences will be elements though of when taking a decision.

3.6. Decision over the training pack

Next step is decisions over the training pack. This may be done within the organization or may be supplied by external providers. Again, the training category, the number of participants etc. determine the approach. Training that is specific for the organization and that requires a good command of the internal processes is generally best done within the organization. General training, like management or training techniques may be done with external suppliers. The pack may use more than one method, for example a training course may be preceded by a distance learning session, followed by a practical course, including exercises and computer practice. Distance learning may use written materials or electronic support. If the course is to be taken by a small number of people it is inefficient to develop a costly solution, unless this training is vital for the organization.

3.7. Designing the evaluation

Write the evaluation for the training pack. The requirements of a training process are:

- A list of the training requirements;
- A method for getting to know the trainees' skills before training;
- A method of validating the training at its end;
- A long term approach to ensure the practical implementation of the knowledge

Evaluation instruments include reaction sheets, tests before and after the course, self-evaluation sheets and evaluations of the direct management over the performances or improvements. Direct management must be called upon.

3.8. Writing the summary of the training / distance learning / training materials

The trainer/designer selects the content and methods of training, identifies each session and decides over the best approach. The session summary is written and hand-outs for participants will help its progress. Training materials like case studies, exercises or activities must be decided upon and edited. Visual means must be analyzed and decided for a professional way of training.

3.9. Involving direct management

Organization managers must be involved in all the stages of the process for a successful training. Direct managers are generally responsible for choosing trainees, evaluating costs for training and assisting trainees in applying the knowledge. They are also involved in the evaluation process, if the information is used at work and if the trained staff may achieve performance standards.

3.10. Preparations for deployment

Deployment plan must be written in order to schedule the courses taking into account the number of participants and the place they are in. Classrooms must be obtained and verified in terms of compatibility and availability. The trainers program must be determined before and the training materials must be printed and distributed. It is necessary to have all the administrative support, like course reservations.

There must be decided the supplementary planning, like the minimal number of participants or the minimal period of time for confirmations.

3.11. Implementation of the training

The training itself, no matter the provider (internal or external)

3.12. Interim evaluation

Any major training program must have a method of reviewing the progress. Evaluation of the tests and validation sheets of previous trainings must be examined in order to check if the training objectives have been reached. You must also get opinions from the trainees and direct management. If things don't go on as expected, revise the training but take into account that revising the material takes time and supplementary resources.

3.13. Revising the training validation

If the evaluation instruments have been edited together with the training pack, they must be analyzed to check if the goals and objectives have been reached. This is important for a future training.

3.14. Medium and long term evaluation

Training is less fruitful if the information obtained is not applied. Its implementation will ensure the efficient work of the staff and the organization. This evaluation level depends on the direct management. They must know the expected results of the training and be competent in judging individual performances level towards approved standards.

In a nutshell, the training process includes the following stages:

1. Identification and analysis of the training needs
2. Planning the training
3. Organization of the training
4. Deployment of the training
5. Evaluation of the training
6. Review of the training

Chapter 4 – Planning of the training

4.1. Training objectives

In order to edit performance objectives, course authors must begin with the nest sentence, or a variation of it: “At the end of the training, trainees must be able to...” Then the performance objectives will be listed, each sentence beginning with a verb. The part from the objective that starts with a verb is the performance component.

We may say that a training program has general objectives and learning objectives. Therefore we change the level of knowledge, attitudes or skills. Objectives may address the three learning areas:

- **Cognitive** (intellectual abilities – understanding information, organizing and evaluating the ideas, information and actions)
- **Affective** (address the emotions that come from the learning experiences – attitudes, interests, information and actions)
- **Psychomotor** (motor skills, coordination, movement)

Through cognitive objectives participants will understand facts, information, from the context.

Through affective objectives participants will feel different from each other.

Through psychomotor objectives participants will learn to do something.

Benjamin Bloom, teacher at Chicago University, developed between 1949 and 1953 a scale with 6 learning steps, from simple to complex (from the recognition of the information to its evaluation), named Bloom taxonomy. This addresses to cognitive area.

Evaluation – judges the value of information

Synthesis – creates patterns from different elements

Analysis – divides information into parts for a better understanding

Application – selects, transfers, uses data for solving a task or a problem. It refers to apply the information in a new situation.

Understanding – the trainee understands the information and interprets it.

Knowledge – the trainee recognizes and reorganizes the information

Affective area – attitudes, interest, attention, awareness and values are proved through affective behaviors. They too are ranked from simple to complex, as follows:

Internalizing – behavior controlled by a value system

Organizing – organizing the values according to priorities

Valorization – the value each person adds to something

Answer to the phenomenon – to take an active part in the learning process, to participate

Receiving the phenomenon – will to listen, awareness

Psychomotor area refers to the use of basis motor skills. Bloom's research group didn't fully develop this area's categories because of the lack of the experience in learning others these abilities. Yet in 1972 Simpson developed this field in 7 categories for supporting Bloom's theory.

Originality – creation of new movement patterns

Adaptability – ability of the one that learns to modify motor skills for facing new situations

Complex answer – intermediate phase of imitating a complex activity

Mechanism – ability to make a complex move

Guided answer – imitation

Preparation – preparing for action

Perception – ability to use senses in order to guide physical activity

Any course has learning objectives. These show what the trainees will know at the end of the training. Try to establish them as clearly as possible because the objectives will be evaluated.

For example:

At the end of the course, the trainees

- 1. Will create a design for an hour training session*
- 2. Will describe the stages of strategic planning*
- 3. Will do three correct tango moves*
- 4. Will identify how important "respect" is in the own values system*
- 5. Will list the financing sources available on the market in relation to the own field of interest.*

4.2. Methods of learning

A method is the way to reach an objective.

Techniques described below are activities that can be used within a training process. Choosing the most effective technique or technique combinations depends on resources, type of course, group specific and talent, creativity and trainer experience. The higher the interactivity level the lower the control of the trainer over the trainees, hence a greater risk.

DEMONSTRATION

It means showing the participants how to proceed to solve very specific tasks so they become able to immediately apply the new knowledge. This method's disadvantage is that it offers a "solution" in which participants' creativity is much reduced.

PRESENTATION

It's a less participative technique of transfer the information to the audience in a form and time planned before. To a lesser extent, it can be interactive if followed by a Q&A session. It is suitable when the audience is large and time is limited.

Presentation's efficiency depends on the presenter's abilities and visual means he uses. Nevertheless the quantity of information an uncertain audience may retain is limited. Researches show that 20% of the presented information will be retained right after the presentation, in best case scenario. Percentage is however smaller if the audience is not asked to repeat or to apply the information. For maximum efficiency a presentation must not exceed 30-40 minutes and no more than three new ideas/concepts.

READING THE MATERIALS

It means supplying texts / materials carefully written, chosen to be highly relevant to the studied subject that participants are asked to read and comment upon within groups. It is a good technique of "breaking the rhythm" during a presentation and may be efficient to tie up the information. This technique's success depends on the attention the materials selection is made and the way the comments session is being conducted.

VIDEO MATERIALS PRESENTATION

The advantage of this method compared to the previous consists in enhanced power of the image over the word, written or spoken. It is crucial that the presentation sessions with video materials to be short and followed by review/discussion sessions directed by the trainer. This technique is useful when filmed situation couldn't be reproduced through other techniques or/and when the resources are limited (time, trainers etc.). A very interesting version is the one in which video material presents the performance of the group itself – for example, in a session of presentation ability development, recording and presenting after that their exercises followed by feedback sessions.

MULTIMEDIA TECHNIQUES

These are combinations of techniques: audio, video, text, graphics, photos, animation etc. They are usually combined to form an interactive training program on a computer. The advantage is that each participant may adapt it to its pace of learning. The disadvantage is that there is no chance of personal interaction and no flexibility, there is a high degree of difficulty in realizing such a program and it generally requires costly resources.

GROUP TALK

It's a less formal type of presentation that can be used for groups of about 20 participants. Each participant has to have its own time for intervention (comments, questions, answers, presenting personal experiences etc.), it has to be flexibly planned so that the interventions will not affect the presented material. Thus, it is more likely that the information is more easily tied up as in the simple presentation case, yet there is a risk of time discussion monopolization by a smaller bolder number of participants.

Discussion's objectives are:

- "active implication of the audience"
- "offers the opportunity for practice exchange"
- "many points of view are more easily presented"
- "self-expression abilities are developed"

Besides presenting new theoretic notions, the trainer's role is to facilitate the discussion by involving all the participants, by not allowing digressions, by drawing conclusions when necessary.

In order to face them, the trainer has to:

- "take part by asking open questions"
- "ask for secluded participants to contribute"
- "ask verification and enlightening questions"
- "adopt an open, non-evaluative attitude"
- "prevent monopolization of the discussion by a small number of participants"
- "allow the discussion to be free; its role is rather to help the group reach a conclusion than to impose his own"
- "avoid digressions"

SMALL GROUPS DISCUSSION

Divide participants into groups of 4-5 trainees in order to share experience or work together. Use this method when you have time to process each group's answers. This is an efficient way to involve everyone.

LEARNING PARTNERS

Give each participant the opportunity to work on certain subjects or to talk about key answers to the next participant. Use this method when you want to involve everybody but don't

have time for small groups' discussions. Pair is a good group configuration to develop inter-human relations or for subject that do not need groups.

ANSWER CARDS

Hand over cards and ask anonymous answers to your questions. Use the answer cards to save time or ease communication to people that feel "threatened" by a public answer. Another advantage is to have everybody's written opinions in a short time.

ALL AROUND

Get a short answer from each participant. Use this method when you want an immediate, large participation. Affirmations like "Something that makes a manager to be efficient..." can be used to get quick answers from everyone. Invite participants to say "pas" when they don't have an answer.

SPEAKERS TRIBUNE

Invite a small number of participants to present their point of view in front of the room. Ask a few participants to comment from their seats. Use these "tribunes" when time allows you to insist on a certain problem previously presented.

FISH BOWL

Ask a part of the participants to form a discussion ring and set the rest of participants around the ring as listeners. When the middle ring's discussions (simulations) are over, invite the listeners to tell their opinion. The middle ring participants will be able to reply only after all the opinions have been said. This is a time consuming method but the best way to combine the qualities of group discussions to small groups' discussion methods.

CASE STUDY

A case study is a detailed description of a situation that the group must analyze to find the problem and solutions for it. The risk of case study is that the described situation may be perceived by the participants as irrelevant to their needs/interests and the analysis to be made in a shallow way, without commitment. Trainer's role besides conception of the case study is to theorize case analysis results so that the participants feel the value of their contribution and recognize the value of this effort to achieve learning objectives.

ROLE PLAY

In the role play the participants are directly involved in solving situations by assuming the roles of the characters involved. The described situation should stimulate interaction between participants / groups. It is a good method by which participants can be put in a position to implement theoretical elements in situations as close to normal. An extension of the technique is that of “role sharing” in which participants go through several roles successively becoming familiar with different perspectives so that the situation can be approached.

Role play gives participants the opportunity to examine behaviors and receive specific feedback. Risks are related to not taking roles or, conversely, their taking exaggerated.

SIMMULATION

The simulation combines case study with role play in order to reproduce as faithfully as possible a real situation. The aim is to facilitate the transfer of theoretical knowledge into practice, within an environment that, even though it reproduces actual conditions, nevertheless remains a protected environment.

SMALL STUDY EXERCISE

In small groups the participants are asked to analyze problems and develop solutions by working as a team. The aim is to develop teamwork skills and understanding of the functioning of the working groups.

4.3. Structure of the content

Every course has: introduction, contents and conclusion.

Introduction (tell them what you tell them!) is the accommodation of the participants with the trainer, the subject and the group. Also, the introduction contains the moment of capturing audience and establishing credibility, the early moments.

It is recommended to have the following structure:

Who am I?

What is my topic? - recalling the theme

Why me? - Establish the credibility of the trainer, his connection with the subject

What do we do? - A brief guide through the topics to be covered

What is the benefit / are your benefits? - “Hook” that stimulates the participants’ interest for the subject

Further, the introduction of a course will include: presentations of participants, their expectations, course objectives, agenda, work rules, etc.

Contents (tell them what you tell them) will comprise the major topics, logically constructed and subordinate to the learning objectives and the allocated time.

Make sure you have time to summarize the contents, conclude and check understanding of content.

Create linking elements between topics so the “thread” not to be broken.

Conclusion (tell them what you told them) has an important role in any training session.

It should facilitate recap the important elements to remember and rising participants energy to apply what they have learned after completing the course in their work.

The conclusion may include a question and answer session, evaluating the day / time of the course and conclusion moment structured as follows:

What have we done? - Summary topics

What we wanted to do? - Recapitulation of goals

Appeal to participants - motivating learners

Thanks

4.4. Course design

A course is designed based on two major issues:

Macrostructure

“The contents of the relevant chapters (structure)”

“Flow rate (how the chapters are related)”

Microstructure

“The methods to be used”

“Resources needed”

“The time for each part, breaks”

“Written materials”

“Learning key points for each session (learning objectives)”

Course design patterns (types of tables) can be found in the Annexes.

A design course is a course plan, the trainer scenario. It should not be confused with the course agenda, which helps participants and contains thematic indices and hourly landmarks (training sessions, breaks)

A course design can change during the course, due to variable elements that may arise (less or more participants, smaller or greater interest in a particular topic, new training needs of participants, time management, etc.)

4.5. Course materials

The hand outs

Materials for participants

Slides

The hand outs

This is the theoretical support that supports your course. It should contain neither too much nor too little information so as to clarify and fix the content and provide the student the opportunity to acquire a taste for study.

Care should be taken that the material is designed unitary, in an accessible language, without spelling or typing mistakes.

Materials for participants

Materials for participants contain exercises to be given to participants, worksheets, tables, charts or other materials you give during the course to better exemplify a particular subject.

Slides

Printed slides can be handed out to participants to take notes during your presentation. Rules for successful slides may be found on “Use of visual material aids” chapter.

But you must note the use of the letters large enough and legible so that even slides reduced in size can be read (e.g. three on a page)

Chapter 5 - Organize training

5.1. Arrange the classroom

The types of arrangements of classrooms can be:

- In the form of “U”
- “Bistro” type
- In the form of “fir tree”
- Rectangle
- “Amphitheater” type
- Semicircular
- As at school (banks)

When using a particular settlement, you should consider:

- Number of participants
- The subject / theme of the course that requires a certain alignment (e.g. computer course)
- Room size
- The possibility for participants to see, interact
- The convenience of participants
- Physical barriers that can be removed

“U” placing

Advantages / Disadvantages

- Allows some inter-relationship between participants
- Allows tables keeping for a greater convenience of the participants
- Physical barrier between participants and trainer (tables)
- Can be a long “U”, which hinders visibility and good relationship

Semicircular placing

Advantages / Disadvantages

- Enable better inter-relationship of the participants (everyone sees everyone)
- It eliminates physical barriers between trainers and participants, participant - participant

- Uncomfortable (if no table to seat)
- Participants are “exposed”
- It’s not suitable to any type of course

The “Bistro” settlement type (with small groups at different tables)

Advantages / Disadvantages

- More informal, friendly
- Allow participants to settle according to affinities
- Groups are already formed
- Possibly reduced visibility from certain angles
- Not all participants can see the others
- The creation of “small churches”

“Fir tree” shape placing (diagonal tables made of 6 + 8 participants, on both sides of the room)

Advantages / Disadvantages

- Suitable for large groups
- Provides participants’ visibility to the point of interest (flipchart, screen)
- Creates a friendly environment for participants
- Not all participants can see each other
- The creation of “small churches”
- Groups from tables can be quite large
- Hampers work

The “rectangle” type settlement (around a “council” table type)

Advantages / Disadvantages

- For small groups, for discussions
- Barrier between participants and trainer
- Difficult to create participants’ interactivity

5.2. Check equipment and materials

It would be desirable for the instructor to come sooner in the classroom and first check equipment operation. Check the colors that are visible on the screen from the video projector. Sometimes it modifies the original colors, and even if your computer desktop colors are well chosen and excellent seen, on screen they can be consistently modified. Also check whether you have enough flipchart paper or if marker pens write.

You can write your first flipchart paper, preferably before arriving of the participants.

Check all the necessary supplies and if materials for students are multiplied in the desired number and order.

Make the finishing touches and changes, so that when participants arrive in the classroom everything is ready and you can welcome them with a smile....

Chapter 6 - Conducting training

6.1 The communication process

Communication types	Communication characteristics
<i>Inter-personal communication</i> (internal communication)	Drawing attention
<i>Inter-personal communication</i> (dialogue)	Clarity of message
<i>Group communication</i>	Concentration
<i>Public communication</i>	ACTIVE LISTENING - feedback
<i>Mass communication</i>	

Although there are many definitions of communication we should remember that in a communication process there is a transmitter that transmits encoded information (a message), a receptor that receives the message and try to decode it, and an answer. This flow of information is carried out through a communication channel in a real environment subject to interference.

There are three great principles of communication:

1. Human communication is *symbolic* – we communicate through signs and symbols to be decoded (words, sounds, images, etc.).
2. Communication is *personal* - each symbol we use comes with personal charge related to our life experience, our environment and our education. We give a certain meaning (own) to the symbols we use.
3. *The three levels of the message*: the content (the message itself), the relations (relations of sender / receiver of the message to others, those who communicates with), the affectivity (my opinion, my state of mind to the sent / received message)

What this principle means is that we can say the same thing in different ways depending on the relationship with the one you communicate with (friendship, love, subordination, hatred, boredom, indifference, etc.) and your state of mine towards the message (I like it, I'm annoyed, I'm happy, I'm nervous, etc). Most often misunderstandings come from the wrong decoding (increasing importance) of the higher levels (affection or relationships) and ignoring the message itself.

How do we learn?

- 10% of what we read
- 20% of what we hear
- 30% of what we see
- 50% of what we see and hear
- 70% of what we say when we speak
- 90% of what we say while doing

6.2 Transmission of information

The instructor should take care to send a clear, concise, comprehensible message to the participants and always verify the correct understanding of the message.

6.3 Ability to listen

Listening is probably the most important and least practiced of our inter-personal skills. Nobody teaches us to listen, so you must learn this skill alone. It's an active process, not passive.

Effective Listening Skills

Give the speaker your full attention and make eye contact

Use appropriate body language, leaned forward to show interest

Keep a free mind and avoid prejudice.

Focus on what is said at the time

Ask questions to make sure that you understand

Use non-verbal phrases as “aha”, “yes” etc.

Do not emotionally react to personal words or phrases

Ignore the details of presentation and try to focus on the message

If you need to take notes, explain why

Expect to hear something useful

Listening Barriers

Failure to hear, the position of the chair, hearing difficulties

High speed expression

Prejudice regarding the speaker, subject, opinions

Barriers of language, jargon, emphasis, rhythm speaker

Lack of interest in the topic or theme already known

Environmental distracting factors: too hot, too cold, noise, lack of comfort

Internal distracting factors: dreaminess, fatigue, thinking elsewhere

Assumptions on what was said

You are there because you have to

Non-verbal behavior of speakers

Dumb dialogue (in our heads) with speaker

Crazy thoughts

The list goes on. Whether you conduct a training session, participate in a meeting or we are just with family or friends, we all want others to hear the important things we have to say!

6.4 Feedback

Feedback is a tool for motivation and correction that works efficiently according to the following formula:

My opinion about the highlighted strengths **and** solutions to improve NO / YES

Feedback is personal (impersonal construction, active verbs)

It is a pity that... I was irritated when...

It is terrible that.... I feel angry when...

It is awesome because... I am happy because / I liked

Feedback is specific

Generalities

They say... I saw that you know how to properly use the equipment X

Everyone... I appreciate you did a concise report

Somebody...

We all...

Some...

It is given at the time when happened

Always... mention the exact moment

Never...

Sometimes...

It is assumed

Value judgments, sensations, feelings

Examples:

It was very helpful that you brought me your report when I asked for it **and** if it was more concise I could have taken the decision in time

I appreciate that you come to work so early every day **and** it would be very helpful if before you make coffee and talk with colleagues you bring me correspondence

Receiving feedback

When we're on the receiving end of the process of feedback we can help ourselves by encouraging the issuer to use the skills described above.

We can help ourselves better using the feedback process by:

Listening

Receiving feedback can be disappointing, but it does not constitute a disadvantage compared with the fact of not knowing what others think or feel about you. People disagree about you and your behavior and perceptions can be useful to be aware of them. Otherwise, it is important to remember that you're entitled to your own opinions and you can choose to ignore information with minor significance, irrelevant or related to a behavior you want to keep for other reasons.

Be sure you understand

Before you answer, be sure you understand what you're told. If you draw hasty conclusions, you become defensive or pass attack; you can prevent people from giving you feedback or you can no longer capitalize it. Check the feedback that was sent: a good way would be to paraphrase or repeat what the issuer told.

Check with others

If you rely on a single source of information you can reach a particular conclusion thought to be shared by everyone. Checking feedback along with others, you can see if they share the same view.

Ask to receive feedback

Do not hesitate to ask for feedback on your behavior when the people around you do not do it voluntarily. Sometimes others avoid giving feedback wanting to "protect" you or simply by laziness...

Do not waste it

We all need to know what the effects of our behavior on others are. It is a very valuable tool for personal development, to adapt to the requirements of groups to which we belong. Therefore, it has to be received as we receive a gift. Do not forget to **thank** for feedback.

6.5 Non-verbal communication

Non verbal communication or “body language” widely contributes to the way a person communicates. It includes the following:

Presence

First impressions have the strongest impact. Those who form the audience react to the physical presence of the speaker and this reaction can affect the acceptance or rejection of the presentation. The goal should be a presence that exhales open, friendly attitude and self-confidence.

Eye contact

It is essential. Establish a relationship with your audience. Participants will retain more information if involved. In smaller groups this produces an instant feedback to the presenter. You have to include all audience: do not limit yourself to one or two people.

Gesture

It includes facial expression, smile to the audience. Use natural, open gestures to highlight certain things, but avoids the extravagant, theatrical gestures.

Personal style

It's more of a matter of subconscious but you have to try to be aware of it. The audience always detects certain twitches, particular things, specific to a person and quickly focuses on them rather than on what the speaker is saying.

Clothing

Sit comfortably with your feet fixed to the floor, slightly apart with the weight evenly distributed. If you stay seated, try to keep straight but relaxed, slightly leaned forward to emphasize what you say. If your feet are visible avoid nervous gestures like frequent change of the position of the feet or toe taps drummed the floor.

EXPRESS YOURSELF SMART / CROCANT

Clearly

Rigorously

Objectively

Completely

Applicable

New

Temporary

6.6 Use *helpful visual aids*

Retro projectors

- On acetate sheets for projector write no more than 8/10 words per line
- If possible, limit to 8 rows per sheet
- Make sure the letters are large enough to be read easily
- Use permanent markers on reusable sheets
- Use only visible colors (avoid yellow, for example)
- Use underline for impact
- Position the screen so as to avoid light reflection
- Check visibility from all corners of the room and try to make sure that no one has a distorted image
- Close the projector after presenting the sheet
- Allow students enough time to read the information

Flipcharts / whiteboards

- Draw the diagrams first in pencil, then marker
- Move as you write, but be careful not to speak to the board
- Use strong colors, dark, which can be read (black, blue, green)
- Place the flipchart at your right height

VIDEO PRESENTATIONS

“Modern presentation tools that offer the possibility to prepare the information and reuse it if necessary”

“It takes a computer and specific equipment in the hall”

“The method has impact only if you know to properly use the technology”

USE of the SLIDES

“The background must be used to facilitate, not hinder reading”

“Do not put much information on a slide (6 lines max)”

“Use legible letters (like Arial), large (block of text not less than 24)”

“Do not use more than 2 colors”

“Use animation sparingly, so as not to distract from the subject under discussion”

“Ensure consistency in style slides (same size, shape, position and color for titles, same text characters and same kind of emphasis)”

“When you have to put on a slide a larger text, highlight important keywords”

“Do not forget that the aim of using slides is to fix information, present important elements, not to be a book”

“Use graphs, charts, photographs to boost the presentation”

Chapter 7 - Evaluation of training

It is known and it is true even today the training evaluation model on four levels (1959) by Donald Kirkpatrick, professor at the University of Wisconsin:

1. Reaction
2. Learning
3. Conduct
4. Results

As you evaluate a training course, you need a simple and practical system that you understand and apply.

Level 1: Reaction

Reaction measures how participants felt about certain aspects of the course: content, trainer, agenda, organization, etc. One reason to measure reaction is to make sure that participants are motivated and interested in learning. If you do not like a program, there is little chance to make an effort to learn.

Since the reaction is easily measured, almost everyone does it. To measure it effectively, do the following:

- Determine what you want to know
- Use an ordinary questionnaire
- Create questionnaire so as to quantify the results
- Get honest answers through anonymous questionnaires
- Allow learners to add comments

From an analysis of the reactions you can infer how well a program is accepted. Get information on how you can improve a future program.

Level 2: Learning

The learning process is the extent to which knowledge is acquired, skills are improved and attitudes are changed during training.

Here are some suggestions to measure learning:

- Use a “before-after” so that learning can be directly associated with the training program
- Learning should be measured against targets
- Where possible, use a control group to compare it with the one who received training

During training you can build cases “before and after” in which participants demonstrate what they have assimilated.

Level 3: Behavior

Behavior or transfer of the training is the extent to which participants change their behavior at work due to the training.

If people will change their behavior in the workplace, the following requirements should exist:

- To improve performance
- To recognize weaknesses
- To work in an permissive environment
- To be helped by interested and skilled people
- To have opportunities to try new ideas

Evaluation of behavior is difficult to be done because it demands a scientific approach and consideration of several factors.

The following guide can help you:

- Make a systematic evaluation of performance in the workplace before and after.
- The evaluation should include: participants, management, subordinates, colleagues, etc.
- Make an assessment three months after the training so as participants have time to apply what they have learned

Level 4: Results

This is the final results measure obtained thanks to training: higher productivity, lower costs, improved quality, greater visibility etc. The objectives of the training programs can be set as desired outcomes.

Some training programs are very easy to measure in terms of results. Example: in training for typists, it is the number of words per minute before and after the training. But not all programs are. The complexity increases from level 1 of training assessment to level 4.

Each assessment method aims:

- Decide whether to continue or not a training program
- To improve future programs
- To validate your existence as a professional trainer (training department)
- To identify new training needs

Chapter 8 - Review training

8.1. Review frequency

Training materials should be reviewed at least once a year and ideally twice a year. Besides they should be reviewed as soon as there are changes in legislation and other major changes that may influence the content of training packages.

8.2. Revision Process

- Determine the purpose of revising
- Form the team that will do the review, tasks according to the process objectives are set
- Analyze existing training packages (trainer's manual, participant manual, handouts, PowerPoint presentations).
- Identity manual of the organization that reviewed should be consulted to meet the requirements (if this procedure exists). Being an important marketing element, the training package promotes the organization that provides the training program itself.
- When all components of the training package were approved package is ready for use.

In reviewing the training materials will be necessary for the review team to study the relevant documents and you will probably need to organize interviews with the major stakeholders.

Organizing focus groups or interviews is also useful.

It is intended not only to:

1. Encourage people to suggest what new content or methods could be used for the present course. Facilitate discussion to ensure that all suggestions are discussed in detail as needed, identifying areas where problems arise and encourages participants to offer solutions.
2. Encourage participants to suggest ways in which existing course content and methodology could be improved and how we can achieve this.

An Action Plan will be prepared with contributions from participants to decide on the resources (including time, human resources) needed to improve the course.

In addition to an ongoing review, the evaluation of the impact of training is important. When negotiating a training program, provider can offer this service too. It will be useful not only to customer but also to supplier, because he may find useful and practical information from direct beneficiaries.

Training impact assessment is the final step in training cycle. The instrument is used to determine how effective the training was and to make recommendations for improving the quality of training offered in the future.

Training impact assessment should be done by the supplier and by the trainer, if possible.

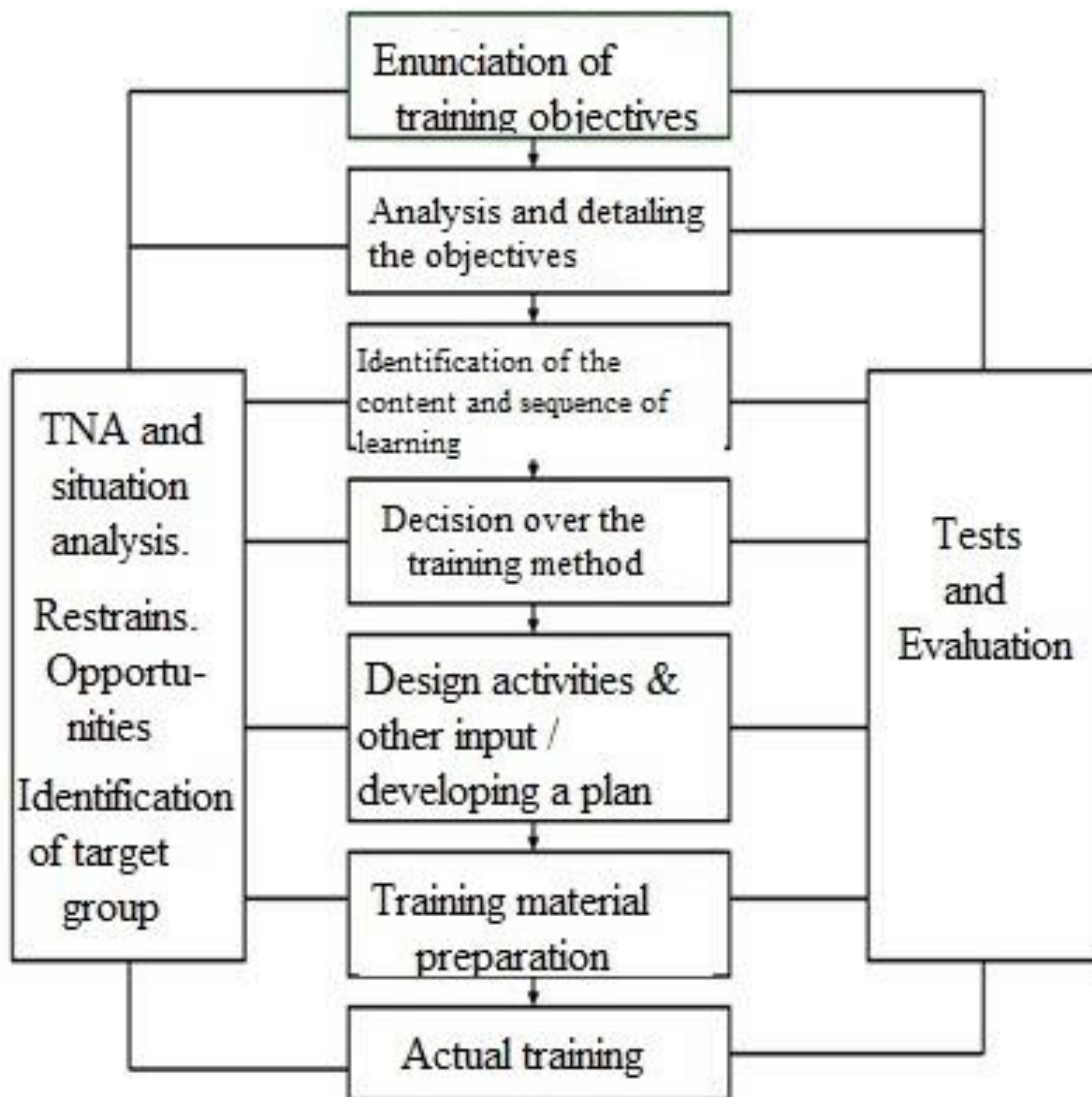
The best time for this exercise is at approximately 3-6 months after the course was implemented. In case of a *Training of Trainers* course, this should be done during or immediately after trainers have graduated.

8.3. How to assess the impact of training?

We suggest the following steps:

1. Review the list of courses offered in your area of expertise
 2. Review courses manuals and reports prepared by trainers.
 3. Review any other reports relevant to the course (ex. pre-course questionnaires, end of course assessments)
 4. Collect information related to similar courses implemented.
 5. Collect lists of participants in this course and any courses that follow.
 6. Review the course objectives since they will be subject to evaluation.
- It would be useful during the interviews to take copies as reference.
7. Organizing meetings with as many participants as possible can be done using a list of questions to lead the meeting. Further questions may be added to gather more detailed information on the course.
 8. Organize interviews with participants either in groups or individually depending on the available time, using the list of questions to guide you in interviews.
 9. If possible organize a direct interview with superiors who participated in the courses.
 10. Deliver what you have found, draw conclusions and make recommendations for future training

Designing training action



Annex 2

TRAINING PLAN

TRAINER

Duration (in hours of training): 60 hours

Total, out of which: 20 hours – theoretical training

40 hours – practical training

No.	NAME OF MODULE	SPECIFICE COMPETENCIES	Theoretical training (hours)	Practical training (hours)	Total (hours)
1	PROFESSIONAL TRAINING	Preparation of training	2	4	6
		Training activities	3	6	9
		Evaluation of training participants	2	4	6
		Exercise on special training methods and techniques	3	6	9
2	TRAINING PROGRAMS’ MANAGEMENT	Training marketing	2	4	6
		Planning training programs	4	8	12
		Organizing programs and training stages	2	4	6
		Elaboration, review and quality assurance of programs and training stages	2	4	6
Total			20	40	60